ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM DESIGNING: A MIXED METHODS ANALYSIS OF THE PROGRAMME AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

by

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LUSAKA

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I, **Innocent Mutale Mulenga,** do hereby solemnly declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that it has never been previously submitted for a degree at the University of Zambia or any other university.

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APPROVAL

This thesis of **Innocent M. Mulenga** is hereby approved as fulfilling the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum Studies by the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish whether or not the English language teacher education curriculum at the University of Zambia had the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools and can produce a quality teacher of English language despite curriculum designers not conducting a job analysis as the starting point of the curriculum designing process.

Ten lecturers who taught subject content courses from the School Humanities and Social Sciences and methodology courses from the School of Education were interviewed so as to find out how the lecturers in the two schools viewed the aim of the programme, the kind of students they intended to produce and the criteria that they used to select content for their courses. The interviews also included the two Deans of the respective schools where subject content and methods courses were taught. 106 student teachers who were just about to graduate and 82 former students who by then were already teaching in schools but had graduated from the same programme responded in writing to a questionnaire. The questions required them to rate themselves on their confidence to teach at the time of graduation, their coverage and understanding of knowledge and skills that were related to the teaching of English language in secondary schools in Zambia in the subject content and methodology courses that they did when they studied English language at the University of Zambia. Two cohorts consisting of 160 student teachers also wrote two tests based on the knowledge and skills that were taught in secondary school. The secondary school English language syllabus and courses for the English language teacher education curriculum provided materials for document analysis.

Qualitative data was analyzed using the Constant Comparative Method to identify emerging themes and categories while quantitative data was analysed by conducting independent samples t-tests and One Way ANOVA.

The results showed that the two schools which taught subject content and methodology courses had different aims about the same curriculum. While the School of Education aimed at producing a teacher of English language, the School of Humanities and Social Sciences intended to produce a graduate who would use the knowledge and skills learnt to venture in any field related to what would have been studied since they thought producing a teacher was not their mandate. As such what the school of humanities included in the subject content courses that they taught did not reflect the skills and knowledge to prepare one to teach English language in secondary school. To a large extent, this led to the poor coverage and understanding of skills and knowledge in methodology courses. Consequently, as the results indicated, students who followed this curriculum did not cover and understand knowledge and skills which were relevant for teaching in secondary schools. The poor results in the tests further confirmed that the graduates of the English language teacher education curriculum did not acquire the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching the subject in secondary school. In view of these findings, it was evident that student teachers and graduate teachers did not have sound understanding of the subject matter they were to teach and pedagogical knowledge and skills to effectively teach English language in secondary schools at the time of their graduation because the curriculum that they followed did not have the relevant knowledge and skills since job analysis was not done at the beginning of the teacher education curriculum designing process. These findings have

critical implications on English language teacher education and teaching and learning of the same subject in secondary schools. The researcher made four clear recommendations which were based on the findings of the study.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated

To the loving memory of my late parents;

My Mother, *Bamayo ba* Lwisa Kaela whose smiles and encouragement have taught me perseverance and who is by far the best teacher I have ever had.

My Father, *batata b*a Mathews Mutale Nsama, though I only had very few years with him he however laid a solid foundation of my character and zeal for education and above all taught me about multiple intelligences.

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Johannes Eckhart, a 14th century theologian and philosopher, wrote, "If the only prayer you say in your life is "thank you", that would suffice. I pray that prayer every day of my life for the numerous blessings that I have received. Yet, it somehow does not seem to be enough to only say "thank you" to those I am about to recognize.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BA. Ed	Bachelor of Arts with Education
BSAC	British South Africa Company
CBTE	Competency Based Teacher Education
DEBS	District Education Board Secretary
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
MoE	Ministry of Education
MUSTER	Muti-Site Teacher Education Research Project
NCTAF	National Commission on Teaching and America's Future
NECO	National Extension College
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
UNZA	The University of Zambia

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

This chapter presents the introduction to the study. In it, the general context of the study is described. Other subsections of the chapter include: a brief description of the approach being taken by colleges and universities providing teacher education in some parts of the world and by the University of Zambia (UNZA) in particular, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, the research objectives and the research questions. Furthermore, the chapter explains the significance of the study, its delimitation and limitations, definition of key terms and finally a summary of the structure of the thesis.

1.1.Background

Teachers are one of the most critical resources in the provision of any formal education anywhere in the world. They play a very important role in the facilitation of the learners' acquisition of the desirable knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. Teacher quality is therefore crucial and has been globally accepted to be significantly important in order for effective learning to take place in schools. However, it should be acknowledged here that teacher quality is greatly determined by the teacher education regimen that a prospective teacher goes through. There is ample empirical research evidence suggesting that, if anything is to be regarded as a specific preparation for teaching, priority should be given to a thorough grounding of the student teacher in the knowledge and skills which should be taught by that teacher (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ferguson, 1991, Goe, 2002; Goldhabar and Brewer, 2000; Peters, 1977). Thus, central to any discussion of teacher preparation is a judgement about what content knowledge and skills should teachers possess so that they are able to teach effectively. After all, if teaching entails helping others to learn, then the teacher's own understanding of what knowledge and skills to teach is a vital requirement in teaching. There are myriad tasks in teaching such as: selecting worthwhile learning activities, giving helpful explanations, asking productive questions, and evaluating pupils' learning. All these depend on the teacher's understanding of what it is that pupils are to learn. As Buchmann (1984:32) pointed out:

> *It would be odd to expect a teacher to plan a lesson on, for instance, writing reports in science and to evaluate related student assignments, if that teacher is ignorant about writing and about science, and does not understand what student progress in writing science reports might mean.*

Although subject content knowledge and skills for teaching are widely acknowledged as a central component of what teachers need to master, the designing of teacher education curriculum in colleges of education and in many universities including UNZA seems to ignore the fact that prospective teachers need to master the subject content knowledge and skills in order for effective teaching to take place (Frazier, 1999 and Clarke, 1971). Where job analysis in designing a professional education curriculum is ignored, usually the subject content for such a programme will have gaps. As Ball and McDiarmid (2010) reported that recent research, which focused on the ways in which teachers and teacher candidates understood the subjects that they taught, revealed that teachers often had gaps in the knowledge and skills similar to those of their pupils (e.g., Mansfield, 2008; McCloskey, 2009). According to Korthagen et al. (2006), teacher education programmes are increasingly being criticised for their lack of linkage to student teachers' needs and for their little impact on practice. Other critics on teaching quality consistently point a finger at teacher education (Gore et al. 2004). This may imply that to improve teacher quality, there is need to improve teacher education. Gore et al. (2004) noted that teacher educators recognize all kinds of peripheral factors which weaken their efforts to improve teacher education such as poor funding, large class sizes and the socializing effects of school cultures. They also accept that there are internal weaknesses within their programme. There have been general views that there is need for a radical reform in subject content of teacher education in which theory and practice are properly linked for effective impact on practice (Korthagen, Loughran and Russell, 2006).

Although there may be exceptions, Shulman (1986) also reported that the overwhelming majority of content courses for teachers and teacher education courses in general tend to have little bearing on the day-to-day realities of teaching and thus little effect on the quality of teaching and learning. In addition, teacher education curriculum designing in most colleges and universities which provide teacher education in America and Europe have been routinely criticized [as reported by scholars such as: Ball and Forzani (2009); Ball, Sleep, Boerst and Bass (2009);

Grossman, Hammerness and McDonald (2009); Grossman and McDonald (2008) and Lampert, Beasley, Ghousseini, Kazemi and Franke (2010)] for preparing teachers based on courses that are unrelated to what is taught in classrooms. Furthermore, Pandey (2009) reported that a major problem facing teacher education programmes in India was the unrelatedness of what was taught at the colleges of education and classroom realities of schools. This divorce between the classroom realities a teacher has to face upon graduation and the teacher education programmes he/she was also expressed as a concern in the World Bank Report (1997). Additionally, Raina (1999) reported that teacher education programmes in India have remained procrustean, offering the same menu to all without slightest regard for the syllabi in primary and secondary schools. Similar concerns were reported by the Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER), which was conducted over a four year period in Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa and Trinida and Tobago, that initial teacher education curriculum knowledge and skills were linked quite loosely to the content in the school syllabus. MUSTER made a recommendation that the teacher education curriculum content should be matched more closely to the subject needs of learners in schools (Lewin and Stuart, 2003).

Similarly, concerns about the quality of teachers graduating from the University of Zambia have been expressed in educational research in the recent past. Banja (2012 a & b), Chabatama (2012), Manchishi and Masaiti (2011) and Manchishi (2004), all of whom were lecturers at the University of Zambia, have seriously questioned the quality of the products of the Teacher Education curriculum from the University of Zambia in terms of the knowledge and skills that they possess for teaching. Although these researchers have questioned the quality of University of Zambia teacher education graduates and also bearing in mind that there are so many factors to consider when referring to the quality of a teacher education programme and its products, no study has so far investigated some of the possible root causes such as the curriculum designing of the programmes in the institution. The University of Zambia offers several teacher education programmes in the social sciences, environmental education, special education, primary education, adult education, science and mathematics. However, this study focused on the designing of the English language teacher education curriculum given its importance in the country's educational system as explained in chapter two and also as a way of delimiting the study. To the best knowledge of the researcher, the English language teacher education curriculum of the

University of Zambia is not based on job description of the teacher of English for Zambian schools and most research conducted on Teacher Education in Zambia and on the University of Zambia, teacher education, in particular, does not answer the question as to which procedure is followed when designing the programmes and whether the programme has relevant skills and knowledge for teaching English language in Zambian schools. If that is the case at the University of Zambia, an important question that begs answers is:

> Does the teacher education curriculum capture all the skills and knowledge that the teacher of English needs for teaching?

Other questions which should also be of interest are:

1. What quality of teachers of English does the programme produce?
2. What method do the curriculum designers for the English language teacher education curriculum at the University of Zambia employ in order to arrive at the courses that constitute the programme?

According to the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) (2003), one of the requirements to being a good teacher is having a deep knowledge base of the subjects a teacher has to teach in order to effectively work with students. Therefore, an attribute to a quality teacher education programme is strong professional preparation in the subject area. Teachers cannot teach what they do not know (National Council for Teacher Quality, 2007). A critical question that one may ask at this point is; how then should colleges of education and universities arrive at a teacher education curriculum that can prepare teachers for their future duties of teaching specific subjects? This study tried to answer this question.

Theory of curriculum designing for a professional education curriculum (explained in chapter two), such as the teacher education curriculum, recommends that the preliminary step in the teacher education curriculum designing should be job analysis / description, which some scholars such as Print (2007) refer to as situational analysis. Jones (1999); Charters (2008); Koos 1998 and Bobbitt (1924) all recommended that when designing a teacher education curriculum, job analysis should commence the process before the subsequent stages of formulation of objectives, selection and organization of content, selection and organization of learning activities and evaluation procedures are done. Similarly, other scholars have the same understanding that any professional education course designing should commence with job analysis (Elliott, 1998; Gillet, 1989; More, 2001; Nunan, 1991). For a teacher education curriculum

designing, job analysis involves the identification of knowledge and skills that a teacher requires in order to be able to carry out the job of facilitating the process of learning in school in a particular subject. Thus, what the teacher education curriculum designer is required to do is to ensure that the knowledge bits and skills to be learned and demonstrated by a student-teacher are specified in advance. This is what scholars such as Taba (1962), Nichols (1978), Skilbeck (1976), Biggs (2003) and others (discussed in chapter two) referred to as the *bottom-up* approach to curriculum designing. In the bottom-up approach the process of curriculum designing commences with analysis of the needs of the beneficiaries at the grassroots where the curriculum is to be implemented. In this connection, Chishimba (2001) stated that whatever student teachers study and practise should be similar to what they will be expected to do in their subsequent teaching. One of the most important documents that can guide the teacher education curriculum designer in doing job analysis is the school syllabus for a specific subject. In this case, the school syllabus for senior secondary English language prescribes the expected knowledge and skills that the teacher of English language is required to study while at college or university before assuming the job of teaching in Zambian secondary schools. For instance, a brief description of the skills and knowledge that a teacher of senior secondary school English in Zambia is expected to have as described in the syllabus are as follows:

1. Micro skills (such as: vocabulary, pronunciation, morphology and syntax etc) are some of the skills that a teacher of English is expected to teach in Zambian schools.
2. The four macro skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

More details of these skills are described in chapter two of this report. It is important for job analysis to precede all the other stages of curriculum designing in a teacher education curriculum designing process because it will enable the curriculum designer to capture the needed skills for the student teachers' future responsibilities of facilitating the process of learning. A question arising is as to whether a teacher education curriculum which is designed without conducting a job analysis, so as to capture the knowledge and skills to be acquired by a student teacher can capture relevant content and produce a quality teacher.

1.2.Statement of the Problem

The English language teacher education curriculum designing process at the University of Zambia does not start with the job analysis of the prospective teacher's expected responsibility of teaching English language in schools. One then wonders if such a programme can capture the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching English language in schools.

Thus, from the background given in the preceding sections, the problem that was identified for investigation in this study was that of not knowing if the English language teacher education curriculum at the University of Zambia had the relevant knowledge and skills which could help produce a quality teacher of English despite not conducting job analysis before designing the programme. The study was, therefore, designed first and foremost to establish the extent to which the English language teacher education curriculum had the relevant content knowledge and skills for the teacher teaching in secondary schools. Then secondly, determine the quality of English language student teachers that graduated from the programme, find out the curriculum designers' intentions and finally identify the criteria that the designers used in order to arrive at the English language course content.

1.3.Aim

The purpose of this study was to establish what happens to the subject content and products (students) of a professional curriculum such as the English language teacher education curriculum if job analysis is not done at the beginning of the designing process.

1.4.Objectives

The objectives of this study were to;

i. evaluate the extent to which the English language teacher education curriculum had the required content relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools.

ii. assess the quality of products (teachers) from the English language teacher education curriculum designed without job analysis.

iii. analyse the curriculum designers' intentions for the teacher education English language curriculum.

iv. identify the criteria that were employed when selecting the content for the courses of the English language teacher education curriculum.

v. establish any other challenges that a curriculum designed in this way might present to students on the programme.

1.5.Research Questions

The study sought to have the following questions answered;

i. To what extent did the English language teacher education curriculum have the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools?

ii. What was the quality of the products (teachers) of the English language teacher education curriculum?

iii. What were the intentions of the curriculum designers for the teacher education programme for the English language?

iv. What criteria were followed in selecting the content for courses in the English language teacher education curriculum?

v. What challenges might a curriculum designed in this way present to students on the programme?

1.6.Significance of the Study

This study would contribute to existing literature on the English language teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia.

This study may have implications for teacher education curriculum development and implementation not only at the University of Zambia but also at the many colleges of education that are affiliated to the University of Zambia. Furthermore, the results of this study might be of significance to teacher educators, lecturers, university and college of education administrators, teachers of English language, Ministry of General Education, Ministry of Higher Education and education researchers. For instance, lecturers in universities, colleges and their administrators would become aware of the appropriate procedure to follow in coming up with a teacher education curriculum, the consequences of not following such a procedure and thus what needs to be improved on with regard to the programmes that are running in their institutions. The Ministries

of Education and Teacher educators may use the findings in developing English language professional development programmes for in-service teachers. Teacher education curriculum researchers may use the findings of this study as the starting point for further research on curriculum designing for teacher education in other teaching subjects.

1.7.Delimitation

This study was limited to the investigation of the English language Bachelor of Arts with Education teacher education curriculum design at the University of Zambia. It specifically looked at what the aims of the curriculum were and how the content was arrived at from the lecturer's point of view. It also evaluated the extent to which the programme had the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching the English language and it assessed the quality of the products who graduated from the programme.

1.8.Limitations

1. Although classroom observations would have added a practical dimension of the participants' link of what they have learnt on the programme to the classroom, no lesson observations were conducted due to limited time student teachers were available for this research project during their school experience. Furthermore, at the time of data collection the graduate teachers had already taught for a number of years and so observing them in class would not reflect their initial experience. However the tests student teachers wrote and the answers that were given in the questionnaires helped to reflect participants' individual competencies in the subject matter.

2. This study would have been more complete if it had included all the teaching courses on the Bachelor of Arts with Education and the Bachelor of Science and Mathematics Teacher Education curriculum designing. However, the limited time available and the limited resources could not allow the researcher to undertake a study of that magnitude. Thus participants were lecturers, student teachers and teachers who had taught and had been taught on the English language teacher education programme. Therefore, results may not be generalized beyond this demographic group of participants.
3. Data collection using interviews was subject to the perceptions of the researcher. To minimize researcher subjectivity, most of the participants were asked to check

data for any inconsistencies. However, some participants were not able to check through it because they were not available. However, the use of different data collection strategies in the study (namely; interviews schedules, questionnaires, tests and document analysis) provided some form of triangulation.

1.9. Operational definition of Terms

Curriculum designing: the process of planning learning opportunities, knowledge and skills intended to bring about designated desired changes in the learner and the assessment of the extent to which changes have taken place.

Higher Institutions of learning: colleges and universities.

*Job analysis/description***:** the determination of the content knowledge and skills that are taught by teachers of English language in secondary schools.

Pedagogical content knowledge: refers to the specialized knowledge and skills in the strategies or methods of teaching and student conceptions of content that a teacher is expected to have so as to facilitate the learning process.

Secondary School: A school that provides education from grade eight up to grade twelve in Zambia.

Content knowledge: refers to the understanding and comprehension of the facts, principles, skills, generalization and concepts in a discipline.

Teacher Education: the process of providing teachers and potential teachers with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to perform the required tasks effectively in a classroom and the school.

Teacher knowledge: a body of professional knowledge that encompasses both understanding of general pedagogical or teaching principles and skills and the comprehension of the subject matter to be taught.

Teacher Education Curriculum: The programme content that has been designed to provide and develop the appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes needed for teaching.

Teacher Quality: the teacher's possession of the knowledge and skills of the subject of specialization and the ability to effectively teach it to learners.

1.10. Structure of the Thesis

This chapter gives the background of the study. In order to show the gap that this study sought to fill in and to ground the study on solid theoretical and conceptual curriculum base, a review of the relevant literature on teacher education, philosophy of education, job

analysis for a teacher of English language in Zambia, models of curriculum design as well as a review of the most relevant and related literature on teacher education curriculum design are presented in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 explains the justification of the research design and methods used in this research. Highlights of chapter 3 include the mixed methods used in this research, the consideration of ethical issues and description of the research setting. Research results analysis and findings are presented in chapter 4 according to research questions. Chapter 5 focuses on the discussions of the findings, their implications on the theory and practice of teacher education curriculum designing and its implementation. Chapter 6 provides the conclusions of the thesis, theoretical and practical implications, and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

Summary

In this chapter a number of crucial issues have been discussed as a way of contextualising this study. An overview of the shortcomings of teacher education curriculum designing in some parts of the world was summarised. It was explained that the preparation of appropriately educated teachers of English in Zambian colleges of education and universities is vital because a teacher cannot teach what he/she does not know. In the chapter the theoretical and conceptual approaches that were adopted in the study were also mentioned. However, these issues are discussed in more detail in chapter two. This chapter has also explained the significance of the study and the structure of this report. In the next chapter a detailed theoretical perspective and review of literature has been given so as to further understand the issue under study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

This chapter presents theoretical foundations of teacher education curriculum designing and a review of literature on teacher education and teacher education curriculum designing. The chapter starts with an explanation of the concept of teacher education and then gives a chronicle of the components and models of teacher education. In this chapter the researcher also explains the position of the education policies in Zambia since independence in relation to teacher education curriculum designing and the quality of teachers. Philosophies of education are explained to shed more light on the purpose of education in relation to teacher education curriculum designing. After that the researcher suggests theoretical perspectives that can effectively guide a teacher education curriculum designer on how to arrive at content for an effective teacher education programme which will produce a teacher for the required purpose of teaching. The job analysis for English language makes part of this chapter as a way of identifying the knowledge and skills that a teacher of English language is expected to possess in order to effectively teach the subject in Zambian secondary schools. The literature and studies on teacher education curriculum design then concludes the chapter.

2.1.The Concept of Teacher Education

From the outset, we need to have a clear and commonly shared understanding as to what is meant by teacher education. Darling-Hammond (2005:1), an accomplished scholar of teacher education, started her chapter one of one of her famous books on teacher education, 'Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do', with this analogue;

> *To a music lover watching a concert from the audience, it would be easy to believe that a conductor has one of the easiest jobs in the world. There he stands, waving his arms in time with the music, and the orchestra produces glorious sounds, it all appearances quite spontaneously. Hidden from the audience especially from the musical novice, are the conductor's abilities to read and interpret all the*

parts at once, to play several instruments and understand the capacities of many more, to organize and coordinate the disparate parts, to motivate and communicate with all the orchestra members.

In the same way that conducting looks like hand-waving to the uninitiated, teaching looks simple from the perspective of students who see a person talking and listening, handing out papers and giving assignments. Invisible in both of these performances are the many kinds of knowledge, unseen plans and backstage moves that allow a teacher to purposefully move a group of learners from one set of understandings and skills to quite another over the space of time. All these competencies are a result of an effective teacher education curriculum that a successful teacher should undergone. Given what we know about curriculum designing and curriculum theories for teacher education, a question that may be asked is how we can create a teacher education curriculum that is effective in enabling teachers to acquire the knowledge and skills that will prepare them to succeed. In this section as part of literature review, we review the concept of teacher education and theories of teacher education curriculum designing which are vital to the study of the English language teacher education curriculum designing. In the study of teacher preparation, two terms seem to be used interchangeably. These are teacher education and teacher training. Let us look at each one in turn and explain how they inform this study.

2.2.Teacher Education versus Teacher Training

This mixed method study was done within the context of teacher education but with a focus on the English language teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia. Thus, it is vital as we review literature and discuss key theoretical perspectives on curriculum designing to make clear of the theoretical and contemporary understanding of the concept of teacher education. Although in the everyday use the concepts teacher education and teacher training are frequently used interchangeably, and while this is also to be found in some literature regarding teacher preparation, the term teacher education has evolved through historical development from the term teacher training. According to Turney (1977), the evolution from teacher training to teacher education commenced when it was realized that preparing teachers involved much more than training since teacher preparation should be commensurate with both the quality and the standards of the profession. Thus, there has been a long

standing and ongoing debate about the most appropriate terminology to describe the period that student teachers spend in college or university.

The term ‘teacher training’, which gives the impression that the period involves preparation of persons who will undertake relatively routine tasks, seems to be losing ground to ‘teacher education’ with its focus on preparing staff for a professional role as intellectuals and reflective practitioners who have mastered their subject matter. Additionally, Giroux (1983) asserts that, if a teacher education programme really strives to develop teachers who qualify as transformative intellectuals, teachers’ criticality which comes from their mastery of the subject matter must be given a high priority since action without understanding and critical reflection results in mindless activism (Freire, 1972). Thus, the term ‘education’ in the context of teacher preparation should not be confused with the humanist classist theory that was propounded by Greek scholars such as Aristotle, Socrates and others as being for the cultivation of cognitive skills only. The humanist classist theory meant that an educated teacher would be one who is able to describe principles behind a teaching skill but is unable to perform the skill itself, and on the other hand the trained teacher would be one who is able to perform the skill but unable to explain the principles underpinning it. Additionally, Richards and Nunan (2012) have also made a clear distinction between the two terms (education and training) when explaining teacher preparation by stating that ‘teacher education’ is preferred for ‘teacher training’ since training implies unthinking habit formation while the professional teacher needs to develop theories, awareness of options, decision-making abilities and application of skills – a process which is better defined by the term ‘teacher education’. Hence teacher education is consciously used to describe an all round development of a student teacher who is an intellectual, skilled and reflective practitioner of the teaching and learning process. If teachers were to be skilled intellectuals, Giroux (1988) argued that the teacher education curriculum should be designed in such a way as to enable student teachers to integrate their academic subjects with the professional studies that are undertaken in the college or university so as to produce teachers who are reflective scholars and practitioners. In this study, therefore, the term teacher education is consciously used in preference to teacher training to express the idea of all round development as the ideal objective of teacher preparation. One would then ask how the

programmes of teacher education are generally structured. In order to try and answer this question let us look at the components and models of teacher education.

2.3.Components and Models of Teacher Education

The literature on teacher education has continued to claim that teacher quality is one of the most important factors that inhibit the quality of education (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Darling-Hammond and Ball, 1997) and that most teachers lack either adequate background knowledge in the fields they are asked to teach or sufficient skills that they need to teach (Roofe and Miller, 2013., Zeichner, 2010., Darling-Hammond., 2000 and National Research Council, 1996 and 1997). It has been mentioned earlier (in chapter one) that learning to become a teacher involves the acquisition of certain skills and knowledge types which can be categorized in three components as follows.

First, there are those knowledge types and skills which relate to educational theory – related to aspects of philosophy of education, history of education, educational psychology, sociology of education, educational administration and planning, school effectiveness and curriculum development. Renshaw (2005) explain that the aim of educational theory is to initiate students into those areas of knowledge which contribute to the formulation of foundations and principles that guide the solving of practical educational problems. Renshaw (2005:23) warns though that;

> *The study of educational theory for initial teacher education should not be viewed as an autonomous list of disciplines. But should be seen and designed more logically so that it acts as a meeting place of other disciplines in the teacher education curriculum.*

Scholars of teacher education, such as Darling-Hammond (2004), have supported the above view by emphasising that the studying of educational disciplines such as philosophy of education, sociology of education, educational psychology and others should play an important part in the education of the student teacher, but its professional significance should not be overlooked in that the content should be selected not only to exemplify the main features of philosophy, psychology and so on, but also for its professional relevance. Darling-Hammond (2004) has for instance given this explanation about philosophy of education that during the initial teacher education of a student, philosophy of education is not to cultivate miniature

philosophers, whose commitment to the discipline makes them blind to the realities of teaching in the classroom. However, what philosophy should do is to give the student teachers the conceptual apparatus with which to reflect critically and clearly on the nature of their job. By examining the use of language and the meaning of educational concepts, and through raising fundamental questions, seeking justification and challenging the basis of assumptions and value-judgment, a student teacher can begin to build up an important dimension of his professional life. Thus educational theory should be taught in such a way that it will be informing the teacher's professional judgements and actions, and provide sufficient range of concepts and skills with which to evaluate the ideas and research findings of educational innovations.

Secondly, there are those skills and knowledge types relating to the content area of the subject (s) that one is to teach. This issue is later discussed in greater detail in this chapter since it makes the core of this study. Lewin (2000) explained that there is increasing debate about this aspect; because it is difficult to know in advance what kind of knowledge and skills pupils will need when they enter adult life, it thus becomes harder to know what kind of knowledge and skills teachers should have. However, Lewin's (2000) concern has been taken care of by the latest thinking in education where the emphasis is now placed upon 'transversal' skills such as 'learning to learn' so that whichever skill the teacher and the pupil learn today, it will make the duo learn how to learn emerging skills. Thus the emphasis is on educating the teacher in such a way that he views knowledge of the subject not as something fixed, finite and to be handed down but rather be as something to be explored, questioned and developed along new lines (Tabulawa, 1997). In addition, by conducting the teachers' job analysis the teacher education curriculum will have a clear and specific way of determining what is to comprise the programme. This is discussed later in this chapter.

Finally, there are knowledge and skills relating to classroom techniques and procedures of teaching a subject. These are commonly referred to as pedagogical content knowledge or methodological knowledge and skills. This is a very important component in every teacher education programme because it directly prepares the prospective teacher for teaching. Highlighting the significance of methodological knowledge and skills, Darling-Hammond (1999:14) stated that;

> *If teachers are viewed primarily as purveyors of information for pupils, one could argue that they need little more than basic content knowledge and the ability to string together comprehensible lectures in order to do an adequate job. For this kind of teaching, it is easy to believe that a liberal arts education could be sufficient preparation. But if teachers need to be able to ensure successful learning for pupils who learn in different ways and encounter a variety of difficulties, then teachers need to be diagnosticians and planners who know a great deal about the teaching and learning process and have a repertoire of tools at their disposal.*

The kind of teacher that Darling-Hammond (1999) is referring to here is not obvious. Despite the common view of teaching as something that is mostly learned through experience and as being natural as Cohen (2009) puts it, our argument in teacher education rests on a conception that teaching as unnatural work because it needs one to acquire systematic ways of doing it (Jackson, 1986; Murray,1989, Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 2014). The notion that teaching is unnatural may be difficult for some people to grasp because of the ubiquity of the teaching activity. In fact, as Cohen (2009) suggests that, most people teach. For instance, parents teach children, friends and co-workers show one another how to do things and many kinds of professionals provide information, do demonstrations, and give advice. As can be seen from the preceding examples, teaching, defined as helping others learn to do particular things, is an everyday activity in which many people engage regularly. One would then ask why student teachers should be subjected to the learning of pedagogical methods so as to acquire knowledge and skills in the art and science of teaching. This is because professional classroom teaching is, however, specialized work that is distinct from informal, commonplace showing, telling and helping. The professional work entailed by the practice of teaching is different from the everyday teaching of the sort described above as suggested by Cohen (2009). Moreover, although learning can occur without teaching, such serendipitous learning is chancy. The practice of teaching comprises the intentionally designed activity of reducing that chanciness, that is, of increasing the probability that students will attain specific intended goals (Lampert, 2001 and Lee, 2007). Thus, despite the familiarity of teaching, many key aspects of this deliberate practice require the facilitator (teacher) to have acquired certain specialised knowledge

and skills of teaching. Teachers should enable others (learners) to learn, understand, think, and do. Additionally, teaching involves identifying ways in which a learner is to think about the topic, concepts, theories, principles or problem at hand, to structure the next steps in the learner's development, and to oversee and assess the learner's progress (Ball and Forzani, 2007; Ball, 2000). And in the case of teaching in school, this work is further complicated by the reality that teachers are responsible for many individual learners' growth while working simultaneously with many learners in batches. Thus, to teach is to shift the locus of one's role orientation from the personal to the professional (Buchmann, 1993). In sum, although teaching is a universal human activity - as parents teach their children - being a teacher is to be a member of a practice community within which teaching does not mean the ordinary, common sense of teaching as showing or helping. The work of a teacher is instead specialized and professional in form and nature. Decisions on what to do are not appropriately rooted in personal preferences or experiences but are instead based on professionally justified knowledge and on the moral imperatives of the role (Lewis, 2007). Intuition and everyday experience are thus poor guides for the specialized work and judgment entailed by teaching.

Student teachers of English language, therefore, need to master the knowledge and skills of teaching their subject area during their college or university years through study and practice. As already mentioned, first of all teachers need to understand their subject matter in ways that allow them to organize it so that as they teach, pupils can create useful cognitive maps of the terrain. Therefore, understanding the subject matter provides a foundation for pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987), which enables teachers to explain ideas so that they are understood by pupils. It is the teacher education curriculum which provides teachers with a variety of teaching strategies that are likely to address a variety of ways to learn and a variety of purposefully selected goals for learning. In the teaching of English language, for instance, the teaching of structure will require a different strategy as compared to the teaching of composition. Thus strategies that regularly use multiple pathways to content are one major part of a teacher's repertoire. In addition, Fenstermacher (2006) and Darling-Hammond (1999) observed that more than ever before all teachers especially in Africa need pedagogical knowledge so as to effectively teach their pupils in classrooms.

The foregoing three areas of teacher preparation are basic to all programmes in teacher education and they make the three foundations on which the profession is built.

Renshaw (2010) acknowledged the challenge that might exist if the three components are studied concurrently as he explained that at times a challenge might arise where those teaching subjects designed for the education of students may be pursued for their intrinsic value. Certain conflicts and tensions may arise in the process of achieving the balance, for instance, study for its intrinsic value as opposed to that with an instrumental end; theoretical as distinct from practical activity. Hence a balance between theory and practice need to be maintained in knowledge and skills of the teacher education curriculum.

A survey of the practices in different parts of the world reveals that the three areas explained in the foregoing paragraphs are structured in two ways. The first one is where the student teacher first obtains a qualification in one or more subjects, usually a first university degree, and then studies for a further period to gain an additional qualification in educational theory and methodological knowledge and skills. This model of teacher education is referred to as the serial model.

In the alternative concurrent model, a student study all the three components at the same time, leading to a qualification as a teacher of a particular subject. In the United States of America, for example, the preparation of teachers varies from state to state and from institution to institution (Hofer, 2005), although there may be some similarities. The primary path to teacher education in most states in the United States of America is a four-year college degree consisting of two years of academic majors and followed by admission to an education programme coursework and field experiences in the schools (Halasz, Santiago, Ekholm, Matthews & McKenzie, 2004). In the State of California, however, teacher preparation took as long as five years since a prospective teacher had to first earn a baccalaureate (i.e., undergraduate) degree in an academic field before completing the requirement for the teaching credential (Halasz, et al., 2004).

In Germany, prospective teachers spend seven years of intensive teacher education and must first obtain a degree comprising academic majors in two disciplines and then commence two or three more years of an intensive teacher preparation, which includes pedagogical seminars with classroom observations and intensively supervised practice

in teaching (Halasz, et al., 2004). Prospective teachers in France pursue a five-year programme of undergraduate studies and then one year teacher education leading to an intensively supervised year-long internship in schools (Brisard, 2002). In Australia, a prospective teacher undergoes four-years of tertiary education including at least one year of full-time teacher education (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1990). In Western Australia, there are various routes to becoming a teacher either by completing a four-year programme for the award of Bachelor of Education or a tertiary degree (e.g. Bachelor of Science) and a one-year school experience.

Teacher education at the University of Zambia and most universities in Africa follow the concurrent model. The main challenge with the concurrent model, however, is that students and staff may be compelled to focus more on the subject content knowledge as earlier discussed. With the serial model, which is more prevalent in Canada and other western countries there is an advantage of allowing students to concentrate more on the different aspects of their teacher education programmes. However, the aims in either the serial or concurrent model should be to produce an effective teacher of a particular subject area. Therefore, conducting analysis of the job of teaching is vital in both the serial and concurrent models.

The aims of education for most nations are stipulated in the educational policies that countries set for their education system. As we review literature, it would be vital to analyse the guidelines that the Zambian education policies have provided regarding teacher education curriculum designing since political independence. Thus the next section will briefly describe teacher education during the colonial times, and then describe the guidelines that the education policies have given since independence to date regarding teacher education.

2.4.Zambia's Education Policies and Teacher Education

The early years of the development of western education in Northern Rhodesia, now Zambia, had no proper and co-ordinated education programmes for teachers. Snelson (2012, 1974) and Mwanakatwe (2013, 1974) both acknowledged that teacher education, was a responsibility of different missionary societies, and was haphazardly done. Like the education standards of teachers, their professional training was also mediocre. There were no proper colleges of education mainly due to lack of funds among missionary societies, and partly due to their different doctrines and rivalries

among themselves over spheres of influence and the latter made it difficult for them to put their limited resources together in order to establish proper colleges of education for their teachers (Snelson, 2012). Thus as early as 1918, the British South Africa Company (BSAC) had expressed concern about the critical shortage of qualified teachers, and passed a legislation called the Native School Proclamation. It gave guidelines on the professional qualifications of teachers. It stated that:

> *No person shall be a teacher in any school unless duly qualified, and no person shall be deemed to be qualified unless he produces to the administrator such certificate of efficiency… as the administrator may by regulation prescribe (Snelson, 2012:130).*

In 1921, another legislation was passed. It emphasized the need for well educated missionary teachers to be in charge of their schools at the mission stations. In the same year, missionaries agreed at the second General Missionary Conference to pull together various missionary resources to establish schools for the training of their teachers. At this conference, the part-time inspectors of schools, who had been appointed by the BSA Company, told the missionaries that such schools would be invaluable since the greatest obstacle to progress was the absence of qualified teachers (Snelson, 2012:130).

When the British Government took over the administration of the territory in 1924, there was an increased interest in the education of teachers. The 1925 Memorandum on Education Policy suggested, among other things, that initial education of teachers should be followed by refresher courses, and that there should be visiting teachers who could bring some new ideas, inspiration and encouragement to village teachers. When Latham was appointed as Director of Native Education in 1925, one of his priorities was to improve the education of teachers. He explained that:

> *The teacher must not only know the subjects which he has to teach, but he must be imbued with knowledge of teaching methods…Four years of boarding school under the required character forming influences after he has already mastered the mechanical business of reading and writing in the vernacular as the minimum of training required for turning out a teacher in anyway worthy of the name and*

> *little enough can be expected of this. It will, however, be a great advance on what prevails at present (Snelson, 1974:136).*

Matching his words with action, Latham committed the few funds the government made available for African education towards the establishment and improvement of teacher education facilities in the territory. Since education for Africans was the responsibility of missionaries, the funds were to be given in the form of grant-in-aid to missionaries, whom he urged to stop the mushrooming bush schools so that they could redirect their resources to the programme of educating their teachers in an efficient manner. Nevertheless, all these efforts were being directed towards the improvement of primary school teacher education.

Consequently, by the eve of independence, the academic and professional qualifications of African teachers in primary schools had slightly improved although African schools had a lot of untrained teachers. Secondary school teacher education, on the other hand, was very much neglected in the years before independence (Kalimaposo, 2010). Before 1963, facilities for educating secondary school teachers for the African education system were non-available except for Chalimbana College which offered a three year course for junior secondary school teachers. Its enrolment of secondary school teachers in 1963 was only 26 men and 8 women. Most of the secondary school teachers were expatriates, trained outside Northern Rhodesia (Mwanakatwe, 1974).

In all the details that most scholars such as Mwanakatwe (2013, 1974), Snelson (2012, 1974), Kelly (1999), Carmody (1999; 2004), Kalimaposo (2010) and Manchishi (2013) give regarding teacher education from the times of early missionaries to independence, of paramount importance to this study is the fact that after independence there was a great need for the education of teachers for secondary education. If that was the case it would then be interesting to this study to review the guidelines that the education policies have been giving regarding teacher education curriculum designing since political independence in 1964 to date.

At the time that this study was being done, Zambia has had three major educational policy documents since independence, and these are; the *Educational Reforms in 1977, Focus on Learning in 1992* and *Educating our Future in 1996.* These three documents have tried to give guidelines to the development of education in Zambia. Let us look at

each one of them in terms of the guidelines for the designing of the teacher education curriculum.

2.4.1. The 1977 Educational Reforms

The 1977 Educational Reforms policy was as a result of the review of the whole education system, which was necessitated by a strong feeling for change in the education system among Zambians who felt that the education system then was too academic and not practical enough to meet the country's challenges. Therefore, between 1975 and 1977 it was decided that a national review of the whole education system be conducted. The review took the form of, among other things, national consultations with stakeholders and field trips abroad. The exercise gave rise to a working document which was titled Education for Development Draft Statement on Education Reform, which was then subjected to a national debate (Manchishi, 2013; Educational Reform, 1977). The final document of the debate was the Educational Reforms Proposals and Recommendations in 1977. On teacher education curriculum designing the 1977 Reforms stated that:

> *The curriculum should concentrate on enabling trainee teachers to understand the objectives of the school curricula and the underlying principle of learning in the choice and use of teaching materials (MoE, 1977:67)*

The Reforms, according to the quotation above, recognised the fact that the teacher education curriculum should be aligned to the school curriculum for which the teacher is being prepared. Earlier the Reforms had specifically referred to the teacher's competencies by stipulating that:

> *The teacher should communicate knowledge in a manner that helps children and young people to develop both the desire and ability to learn. The teacher should, therefore, have good command of the subjects he teaches and be resourceful in translating his knowledge into effective learning experiences for his/her students (MoE, 1977:61)*

What the Reforms were referring to could only be possible if the teacher had had acquired the right knowledge and skills for the job of teaching in schools. Thus, it was

clear in the minds of those who were behind these reforms that in order to have a well prepared teacher there was a need to designing a curriculum which was relevant to what was in schools. In this context, the reforms defined the teacher's role by saying as follows:

> *The teacher cannot play his various roles successfully from a position of mediocrity. Good teaching demands the teacher to possess correct attitude and adequate knowledge of the subjects he teaches keep abreast with developments in those subjects and in the objectives and methods of teaching (MoE, 1977:61)*

Thus of relevance to this study is that, as early as 1977, the education system in Zambia had it clear through the Educational Reforms of 1977 that the teacher education curriculum should produce a teacher who is well prepared in the subject matter and in the methods of teaching in relation to what was relevant for schools. Scholars who have commented on the 1977 Educational Reform have referred to it as being very comprehensive and reconstructionist in the way it defined the whole education system, a reason that Manchishi (2013) gave as to why it earned the tag 'Education for Development'. Fifteen years later, another educational policy called *Focus on Learning* was drafted resulting from the influences of the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand.

2.4.2. Focus on Learning: Strategies for the Development of School Education in Zambia

As a follow-up to the World Conference on Education for All, at which Zambia participated, a national conference on 'Education for All' was convened in 1991. This conference culminated into the second major educational policy document, *Focus on Leaning:* Strategies for the Development of School Education in Zambia, which replaced the 1977 Reform. While the 1977 Reforms were broad in the coverage of the education system, to the contrary, *Focus on Learning* took a narrow approach by stressing only one sub-sector, primary education. This was in line with the Jomtien , World Conference on Education for All which explained that completion of the primary education would help in alleviating poverty, ignorance and in promoting economic and social development. No wonder Focus on Learning was mostly very critical of Teacher Education for the primary education curriculum while for secondary

education it only described the challenges of supply and retention of teachers. However, a closer look into the document reveals that the policy, Focus on Learning, gave some general guidelines about the expected quality of teachers graduating from colleges and universities. It stated that:

> *The quality of Zambia's schools reflected the quality of the teachers manning these schools, while the quality of the teachers reflects the effectiveness of the institutions that train them. The focus of concern in an effective teacher education institution is on transforming its students into competent and committed teachers. The programme for teacher education, therefore, must be kept under constant review to ensure that it responds to the real needs of Zambia's schools (MoE, 1992:97).*

Thus in the 1992 education policy document, teacher education curriculum in Zambia was expected to be designed in such a way that it prepared teachers who would have knowledge and skills that were relevant to their job description in their different subject areas. In 1991 the country, Zambia, embraced a multi-party democracy system of governance whose ideologies necessitated the need for a new educational policy document. Thus in 1996 a new policy document on education known as *Educating Our Future* was issued. In the next section we focus on the education policy, *Educating Our Future,* which came about as a response to the change in the political climate of the country. However, our interest is how it may have influenced teacher education curriculum designing.

2.4.3. Educating Our Future

In 1996, the Ministry of Education gave new and further educational guidelines through publication of *Educating Our Future*, a national policy on education. On teacher education, although the policy did not explicitly address the aspect of curriculum designing, it recognised the fact that:

> *The quality and effectiveness of an education system depend heavily on the quality of its teachers. They are the key persons in determining success in meeting the system's goals. The educational*

and personal well being of pupils in schools hinges crucially on their competence, commitment and resourcefulness (MoE, 1996:107).

Educating Our Future was, in other words, saying that a teacher's essential competencies that are required in every teacher are mastery of the material that is to be taught and the skill in communicating that knowledge and skills to learners. This is only possible, as this report has continuously stressed in the previous sections, if the teacher education curriculum is designed in such a way that the knowledge and skills in it are aligned to what is taught in the school curriculum.

On the whole this study noted that the educational policy documents that had guided the Zambian education system had tried since the 1970s to give some guidelines regarding teacher education curriculum designing although not in very clear terms. However, the issue of having a relevant teacher education curriculum which can eventually produce a teacher who can competently teach what is prescribed in Zambian schools had been emphasised. The extent to which this had been implemented in institutions that were preparing teachers, such as the University of Zambia and in this case the English language teacher education curriculum, was part of the subject matter of this study. Further theoretical understanding of the philosophies of education may help us at this point to link the aims of teacher education to the analysis of the job of teaching. Thus one may what to understand the lessons that can be learnt by designers of the curriculum for teacher education from the educational philosophies.

2.5.Educational Philosophies and their influence on Teacher Education Curriculum Design: What is education for?

There are different types of philosophies, such as philosophy of science, social and political philosophy and philosophy of religion (Rosen, 2000). Generally, the original meaning of philosophy is the love for wisdom and knowledge. As an expression of human nature, philosophy may be subject to distortion, since the word can apply to any human understanding, such as 'my philosophy' (Rosen, 2000). The discussion of general philosophy is, however, beyond the scope of this study. But all philosophy shares common issues. Philosophy in general deals with the large aspects of life, the problems and prospects of living, and the way people organise thoughts and facts. Educational philosophy is central to curriculum designing because it advocates and

influences a particular purpose or aim and content, as well as the organisation of the curriculum. Usually, a national school curriculum for instance reflects several philosophies which add to the dynamics of the curriculum in the school (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998). Educational philosophy facilitates the understanding of the world through school subjects or body of knowledge. Thus learning educational philosophy helps in understanding curriculum. Schubert (1986) acknowledged that philosophical assumptions are always present in any curriculum, whether they are consciously reflected on or not. Ornstein and Behar (1995) further stated that philosophical issues have always impacted on educational curriculum designing and society.

Additionally, the duo, Ornstein and Behar (1995) observed that there is urgency that dictates continuous appraisal and reappraisal of the role of educational institutions and that calls for a philosophy of education. Without philosophy, educators would be without direction as a basic foundation of organising and implementing what they would be trying to achieve. Philosophy gives an explanation of the world as seen from a personal perspective, or 'social lens'. Ornstein and Behar (1995) pointed out that almost all elements of curriculum are based on a philosophy. Thus philosophy is in a way one of the criteria for determining the aims of a curriculum. Aims or purposes are statements of value that are based on philosophical beliefs. The means represent the processes and methods which reflect philosophical choices. The ends connote the facts, concepts and principles of the knowledge or behaviour learned, that is, what is considered to be important to learning. Hence philosophy is essential in formulating and justifying an educational basis of procedures and activities (Ornsten and Behar, 1995). Four major philosophies have received the attention of educators over the years. Although these philosophies are known by various names, the four are referred to as Social reconstructionism, Progressivism, Essentialism and Perennialism. Synonymous names will be used where necessary. Explained here below are the four philosophical schools of thought and how they are likely to influence teacher education curriculum designing.

2.5.1. Social Reconstructionism

The social reconstructionist philosophy was based on the early socialistic and utopian ideas of the nineteenth century. It was economic pressure that gave birth to this philosophy (Orstein and Hunkins, 1998). At the beginning of social reconstructionism, the progressive educational movement was still popular, but a few significant

progressive educators became disillusioned and impatient with the American education reform. These educators argued that progressivism put too much emphasis on learner-centered education which mainly served the individual learner in middle class and private schools. What was needed was more emphasis on society-centered education that took into consideration the needs of society and all classes of people, not only the middle class. McNeil (1996) contended that social reconstructionism is interested in the relationship between the curriculum and the social, political and economic development of society.

Social reconstructionists were convinced that educational institutions should bring improvements in society (Oliva, 1997). At the 1932 Annual Meeting of the Progressive Education Association, George Counts challenged progressive educators to reconsider the role of educational institutions in society. In essence, social reconstructionism holds the view that educational institutions should not simply transmit the cultural heritage or simply study social problems but should become agencies of solving political and social problems (Oliva, 1997). (The social problems of the 1930s: racial and class discrimination, poverty and unemployment indicated that progressive education had ignored these pertinent issues). The social problems of today are similar to those mentioned in the 1930s, although the list has increased over the years. Today's social problems are based on racial, ethnic and gender inequality, poverty, unemployment, computer and technology illiteracy, political and economic oppression, war, environmental pollution, disease, hunger, HIV/AIDS and depletion of the earth's resources (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998). In 1950, Theodere Brameld, who is considered the originator of the term reconstructionism, believed that social reconstructionism was a crisis philosophy which was appropriate for a society in crisis (McNeil, 1996). A question may be asked as to whether teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia is in a crisis. Furthermore, it would be interesting to find out if curriculum designers of teacher education can learn from the social reconstructionism philosophy. Orstein and Hunkins (1998) pointed out that society was always changing; therefore, the curriculum had to change accordingly in the sense that it needed to be transformed to be aligned with a new social-economic-political education. A question may arise as to whether the teacher education curriculum at the University of Zambia had been changing so as to be relevant to the secondary school curriculum. These are some of the questions that this study had tried to answer using the data that was collected.

2.5.2. Progressivism

Progressivism emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (McNeil, 1996; Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998). The progressive movement in education was also part of the largest social and political movement of reform in America. The educational roots of progressivism can be traced back to the work of John Dewey in the early twentieth century. In his most comprehensive work, Democracy and Education, Dewey claimed that democracy and education go hand in hand. Dewey viewed an educational institution, such as a school, as a miniature democratic society in which learners could learn and practise the skills and tools necessary for democratic living (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998). According to progressivist thought, the skills and tools for learning include problem-solving methods and scientific enquiry. Progressivism placed more emphasis on how to think, not on what to think. The progressive movement consisted of many components. Among the most influential were the learner-centered and the activity-centered curriculum. As Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) pointed out, the emphasis on subject matter was replaced by emphasis on the learner, meaning that the needs and interests of the learner dominated the curriculum designing process. Theory of teacher education curriculum designing seems to be in agreement with the progressivist school of thought in the sense that the needs of the student teacher have to be indentified first through job analysis if a good curriculum is to be designed. In that case the competencies relevant for the future duties of the teacher are indentified first and they then become the baseline data on which the curriculum is designed. This study tried to find out if that was the case with the programme that was investigated. Progressivism was a reaction against the rigid influence of the traditional curriculum which seem to be dominating most university programmes even today (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998).

2.5.3. Essentialism

As stated by Ornstein and Hunkins (1998), this is another form of the traditional and conservative philosophy. Rooted philosophically in both idealism and realism, essentialism emphasises an academic subject-matter curriculum and encourages educators to stress order, discipline and effort (Ornstein & Levine, 1993). It is important to note that during the period of essentialism, progressivism emerged for a short period of time as the most popular educational philosophy. Due to essentialist

criticism, progressivism experienced a somewhat rocky path. In 1957 essentialism reclaimed its predominant position (Oliva, 1997).

The purpose of an essentialist curriculum is the transmission of the cultural heritage. Unlike the social reconstructionists, who want to change society, the essentialists want to preserve it (Oliva, 1997). According to Ornstein and Behar (1995), an essentialist curriculum sought to promote the intellectual growth of the learner and thus this school of thought promoted essential subjects; namely English, mathematics, science, history and foreign languages at the secondary level. Carl (2010) acknowledged that, according to essentialists, knowledge was based on what was termed as essential skills, academic subjects, and masterly of concepts and principles in the subject matter. He further explained that academic subjects form the core of the essentialist curriculum. Organised courses are the vehicles for transmitting the culture and promoting mental discipline. In a sense, the essentialist tailors the learner to the curriculum, whereas the progressivist tailors the curriculum to suit the learners' needs and interests (Oliva, 1997). Tough, 'hard' academic rigour and training and a good deal of homework dominated the curriculum of essentialists. The student must be made to work hard at his or her own studies with no fun in the work (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). In essentialism, the teacher is considered a master of a particular subject or discipline. In this perspective, the teacher is to be respected as an authority because of the knowledge and high standards he or she holds. The teacher is thus very much in control of the classroom curriculum with minimum learner input. One clear observation one can make about the essentialist view of curriculum designing is that what is to be learnt is determined by the teacher without consideration of the students' future and present needs. This study tried to find out where the English language teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia stood in this regard.

2.5.4. Perennialism

Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) regard perennialism as the oldest and the most conservative education philosophy rooted in realism. The purposes of education according to perennialism are the disciplining of the mind, the development of the ability to reason, the pursuit of the truth and the cultivation of the intellect (Oliva, 1997; Ornstein & Behar, 1995). Unlike progressivists who believe that truth is relative and changing, the perennialists believe that truth is eternal, everlasting and

unchanging. Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) contended that perennialism relies on the past, universal knowledge and cherished values of society. Perennialists describe the universe, human nature, truth, knowledge, virtue and beauty as unchanging. To them, the aim of education is the same in every age and in every society (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998).

The perennialist curriculum is subject centered. It draws heavily on defined disciplines or logically organised bodies of content, what proponents call 'liberal' education with emphasis on language, literature, mathematics, grammar, rhetonic and great books of the Western World (Oliva, 1997; Orstein & Hunkins, 1998). Like essentialism, the perennialists view the teacher as the authority in the field whose knowledge and expertise are unquestionable. Teaching is primarily based on the Socratic method 'oral exposition' lecture and explication. Learners' interests are irrelevant for curriculum designing because learners are immature and not experienced and lack the judgement to determine what are the best knowledge and values to learn (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998; Ornstein & Behar, 1995). The perennialist look backwards for the answers to social problems. It is clear that the perennialist curriculum will not solve prevalent social problems. Perennialism has proved an attractive philosophy for the education systems, yet it does not address the prevalent economic needs. Worse still it does not promote the designing of curricular that is relevant to the current and future needs of the learner.

Since philosophy helps to explain and give meaning to people's decisions and actions, in the absence of educational philosophy, the educator is vulnerable to externally imposed prescriptions, fads and frills, authorization schemes and other 'isms'. Very few education systems adopt a single philosophy but most of them combine various philosophies (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). Orstein and Hunkins (1998) also caution that too much emphasis on any one philosophy at the expense of the others might do harm and cause conflict in a curriculum. The educational philosophies discussed implicitly or explicitly represent a particular perspective on curriculum and its proponents which in turn determine a particular approach to curriculum designing. Carl (2010) explained that among the various approaches to curriculum designing there are particular ones which serve as a theoretical foundation for the development of a curriculum for higher education programmes such as teacher education. These normally reflect a particular philosophy or a combination of educational philosophies.

Different approaches to curriculum designing can be considered as ways of thinking about a curriculum connecting theory to practice, whether the many philosophies or beliefs that constitute any particular curriculum approach are made explicit or remain implicit (Marsh & Willis, 1999). In the foregoing discussion, we have been looking at the four educational philosophies and their influence on teacher education curriculum designing. In the section to follow, we look at how curriculum scholars explain the theory and approaches of teacher education curriculum designing. We also explain how that has relevance to this study.

2.6.Theory and Approaches of Teacher Education Curriculum Designing

Darling-Hammond (1992) observed that public dissatisfaction with learner performance in secondary schools has included dissatisfaction with teacher education. Education schools have been variously criticized as ineffective in preparing teachers for their work, unresponsive to new demands and remote from practice (Chabatama, 2012., Manchishi and Masaiti, 2011). Darling-Hammond (2000) reported that in more than 40 states, policy makers have enacted alternate routes to teacher certification to create pathways into teaching other than those provided by traditional 4-year undergraduate teacher education programs since the traditional way does not seem to produce the required product. Voices of dissatisfaction have been raised from within the profession as well (Goodlad, 1990; Strauss and Sawyer, 1986; and Banja 2012 b). These voices, however, have urged the redesigning of teacher education curricula so as to strengthen its knowledge base, its connections to both practice and theory, and its capacity to support the development of powerful teaching. Proposals at the far ends of this continuum stand in stark contrast to one another. These are; the Content – Based and Competency–Based Teacher education curriculum and the general curriculum versus the professional curriculum. One may want to find out as to which one of these approaches can guide the designing of quality teacher education curriculum. There is a growing body of empirical evidence on the outcomes of different approaches to teacher education curriculum designing. This research was suggesting that the quality of teacher education curriculum designing determines the quality of the teacher who graduates from such a programme. Let us then review the two pairs of teacher education curriculum theoretical approaches and curriculum design types.

2.6.1. Content-Based versus Competency-Based Teacher Education Curriculum Theoretical Approaches

Central to any discussion or study of teacher preparation is a judgment about what it is that teachers must be prepared to do. Thus, the curriculum content of any teacher preparation programme is one of the criteria used to judge the quality of the programme and eventually its products. Therefore, it must be carefully designed to incorporate all the elements that will contribute to positive outcomes (Roofe and Miller, 2013). This view is supported by researchers who follow an outcomes-based approach to education (Biggs (2001); Ben-Peretz (2001); Cochran-Smith (2005) and those who judge education quality in terms of its outcomes (Harvey 2006). This approach is also based on the premise that if the curriculum was designed to achieve clearly defined outcomes then it would increase the likelihood of student teachers successful performance in their future responsibilities in teaching. A review of the literature on quality teacher education indicated that there is a core body of knowledge and skills with which a teacher must be equipped in order to provide them with the appropriate knowledge and skills for the effective teaching of their particular subjects (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2005; Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Kline, 1999; Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler, & Shaver, 2005; Murphy, Delli, & Edwards, 2004; Ryan & Cooper, 2007). A question may arise as to how the relevant knowledge and skills for the teacher should be arrived at. Curriculum development theory for teacher education proposes two approaches. These are the content-based and the competency-based teacher education curriculum design approaches.

Zeichner (2010) explained that the old paradigm of university-based or college-based teacher education where academic knowledge is viewed as the authoritative source of knowledge about teaching was based on the content-based approach to teacher education. Chishimba (2001) described a content-based teacher education curriculum as one that follows a common curriculum which is based on the traditionally accepted subject divisions which do not take into account the link that exists between theory and practice in teaching. More often than not each course outline or syllabus is designed independently of the others, thereby risking a considerable amount of overlap and repetition. Thus the fundamental integration that is required in order to give direction and meaning to the diverse components is not achieved. Teacher education courses in the content-based approach, as Shulman (1987) explainsed, are developed without

having in mind the school curriculum subject matter which the student teacher is being prepared for. Therefore, such programmes tend to be very academic, scholarly, irrelevant and remote from classroom teaching. Consequently, content-based teacher education creates a gap between theory and practice in teacher education. This is the gap that Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005), Hammerness (2006), Korthagen et al. (2001) and Niemi and Jakku-Sihoven (2006) have all identified between theory and practice as the core problem for teacher education. The lack of connection between school-based practical experience and the academic content in teacher education programmes is believed to be the main reason why graduating teachers are not adequately prepared for teaching their subject areas in schools. This study had tried to find out if could have been the problem with the University of Zambia English language teacher education curriculum. On the other hand, Bowles (2012) described the competency based teacher education (CBTE) curriculum designing as one in which there are specific competencies to be acquired, with explicit corresponding criteria for assessing these competencies. Chishimba (2001) further explained that the competency-based teacher education programme development ensures that the competencies to be learned and demonstrated by student-teachers are specified in advance. It also ensures that the criteria to be used in making this determination are indicated. What Bowles (2012) and Chishimba (2001) are explaining is achieved through a process of job analysis which must be done prior to curriculum design. Job analysis, or situational analysis as some scholars put it, helps to ensure that all knowledge and skills in the CBTE curriculum are based on what is taught in schools. Eventually, whatever, student teachers will study following the CBTE will be similar, in respect of all situational factors, to what they will be expected to do in their subsequent teaching. In this connection, Haberman and Stinnett (1973) stated that many educational administrators and curriculum scholars feel that the graduate of the content-based teacher education curriculum is not adequately prepared for the job of teaching, while the graduate of CBTE likely to acquire the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching. Therefore, the competency-based teacher education curriculum is a vehicle that can provide clearly discernible results which give a definite response to the public's demand for accountability in education as explained by Frazier (1999:138) when he stated that;

> *Teacher education has a particular place in the university mission.*
> *Unlike other professional development and career programmes,*

teacher education comes into the university culture loaded with public expectations and a sense of urgency of meeting needs and demands of the school curriculum for which the student teacher is being trained.

Thus the rationale for the competency-based teacher education curriculum design forces teacher educators to take a hard look at what their curriculum is designed to accomplish and to review carefully the way they go about accomplishing it. This makes the teacher education curriculum 'fit for the purpose' which is a definition of quality teacher education curriculum as defined by Biggs (2001). 'Fit for the purpose', is what Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008) also meant when they stated that there is a special domain of teacher knowledge and skills, for each subject, which is key to the profession of teaching. By conducting job analysis, teacher educators are likely to identify the relevant knowledge and skills. As stated earlier on, the curriculum designers of the English language teacher education curriculum at the University of Zambia do not conduct situational analysis as they commence their designing process. Another question of interest to this study was to establish how curriculum designers came up with the appropriate knowledge and skills for the future duties of teaching English language in secondary schools.

More theories on curriculum design models shed light on the broader categories of curriculum design; these are the top-down and the bottom-up categories of curriculum design models. Let us look at each category and see how they inform the procedures of curriculum designing in general and then narrow down to teacher education curriculum designing and narrow it further to the English language curriculum in Secondary schools.

2.6.2. Theoretical Models of Curriculum Designing

Models set the theoretical structure with which to understand curriculum elements and show certain principles and procedures (Oliva, 2009). Curriculum models are the theoretical frameworks for explanations of the different phases in curriculum development (Hill and Allan 2004 and Henson, 2006). Oliva (2009) further explained that the purposes of a model are to guide curriculum designers in selecting and organizing curriculum elements so as to facilitate the conceptualisation of their relationships. Thus curriculum design models are tools for thinking about curriculum designing.

Most models suggest components of the process including stages of planning, designing, implementing and evaluating such as the Saylor, Alexander and Lewis Model or the Oliva's Model (Henson, 2006; Oliva, 2005). Others show the reciprocal relationships among the components, and the components are outlined in the form of a diagram. (Brady, 1990; 2003; & Marsh, 1986). Some models are listing of steps or procedures recommended to curriculum planners, for example, Tyler's rational or classical model (Tyler, 1949; 2004); Taba's Model (Taba, 1962); Gagne; Robinson; and Weinstein and Fantini Models (Brady, 1990; Print, 1988). Some are linear in approach, following a step-by-step procedure like the most popular Tylerian (Tyler, 1949) and Taba Models (Taba, 1962) others are cyclical, like Wheeler and Nichols Models (Print, 1988). Some are descriptive such as Huberman (Marsh, 1986) and Zais Eclectic Models (Henson, 2006) while others are prescriptive like Oliva's Model (Oliva, 2005). The different curriculum models describe the processes or steps involved in curriculum planning by curriculum experts (see Tables 2.1 and 2.2).

The different curriculum models also depict the procedure of how the curriculum planner is likely to design the curriculum as it relates to the specific purposes of education.

There is no agreement among various authors on curriculum designing regarding the specific curriculum elements that each model should have. However, most of the literature reviewed suggests that there are common curriculum elements needed to produce a curriculum (Brady, 1990; 2003; Galen Saylor, 1981; Henson, 2006; Kelly, 2004, 2009; Longstreet and Shane, 1993; Marsh, 1986; McNeil, 2003; 2006; Miller and Seller, 1990; Ornstein, Behar-Horenstein and Pajak, 2003; Oliva, 2005, 2009; Print, 1988; Posner, 1992, 2006; Wiles and Bondi, 2007; Wiles, 2009). Ordinarily, these elements are: aims, goals and objectives (curriculum intent), subject matter or content, learning activities or strategies and evaluation.

An analysis of the different curriculum models reveals two major approaches to the designing of the curriculum: *top-down* and *bottom-up*. Table 2.1 presents examples of *top-down* curriculum models. These models use a deductive approach to curriculum planning and development. The deductive approach to curriculum development starts with the general design or the global aspects of the curriculum before working down to the specifics. Curriculum developers using the top-down approach usually start curriculum development by deciding what knowledge and skills should be learnt and then design the curriculum accordingly without considering the needs of the learner.

The curriculum reform is initiated by curriculum developers; usually those in authority then take it down to the implementers of the curriculum, for instance the teachers. The approach is often linear and prescriptive. The curriculum developers begin by a statement of aims or the philosophy of what they want students to learn and then design the content of the curriculum and the learners' activities accordingly without finding out the needs of the targeted learner. Although the *top-down* approach to curriculum designing is logical and systematic, one notable weakness is that it is not likely to provide guidance to designing an effective professional education curriculum since it does not start with an analysis of the job. Regarding teacher education, therefore, the top-down approach is not likely to produce an effective teacher education curriculum since it does not consider the sources of its objectives, which is situational analysis or job description of teaching.

Table 2.1

Summary Table of Top-down Curriculum Development Models

Proponent	Curriculum Model	Steps / Phases / Elements
Tyler (1949)	Objectives / Classical / Rational	1. Starting Objectives 2. Selecting learning experiences 3. Organizing learning experiences 4. Evaluation
Robinson & White (1985)	Robinson Model	1. Developing goal statements 2. Developing defensible sets of objectives 3. Developing descriptions of growth (growth Developing goal statements 4. Developing defensible sets of objectives 5. Developing descriptions of growth (growth schemes) 6. Developing instructional objectives 7. Sequencing objectives 8. Devising growth schemes related to instruction and assessment methods 9. Developing written curriculum materials
Oliva (1992)	Oliva's Model (Deductive, linear, and prescriptive approach)	1. Statement of Aims and Philosophy of Education 2. Specification of needs (students, particular community and subject) 3. Specification of curriculum goals 4. Specification of curriculum objectives 5. Organization and implementation of curriculum 6. Specification of instructional goals 7. Specification of instructional objectives 8. Selection of strategies 9. Selection of evaluation techniques 10. Implementation of strategies 11. Evaluation of instruction 12. Evaluation of curriculum
Stenhouse (1975)	Stenhouse's model	1. Selection of Content 2. Selection of Methods 3. Selection of evaluation procedures
Saylor, Alexander and Lewis (1981)	Saylor, Alexander and Lewis Model	1. Goals and Objectives 2. Curriculum planning 3.Curriculum Implementation 4. Curriculum Evaluation
Wheeler (1967)	Wheeler's Model	1. Selection of Aims, Goals & Objectives 2. Selection of learning experiences 3. Selection of Content 4. Organization & integration of learning experiences and content 5. Evaluation

Table 2.2

Summary Table of Bottom-up Curriculum Development Models

Proponent	Curriculum Model	Steps / Phases / Elements
Taba (1962)	Taba's Inverted Model (Sequential, logical, scientific, classical, means-end model)	1.Diagnosis of Needs 2.Formulation of Objectives 3.Selection of Content 4.Organization of Content 5.Selection of Learning Experiences 6.Organisation of learning experiences 7. Determination of what to evaluate and ways and means of doing it
Audrey & Howard Nichols (1978)	Cyclical Model	1.Situation Analysis 2. Selection of Objectives 3.Selection & Organization of Content 4.Selction and organization of methods 5.Evaluation
Malcolm Skilbeck (1976**)**	Dynamic/Interactive Model	1. Situation Analysis 2. Goal Formulation 3. Program Building 4. Interpretation and implementation 5. Monitoring, feedback, assessment, reconstruction
Robert Gagne (1979)	Gagne's Instructional Design System	1. Needs analysis 2. Analysis of Goals and Objectives 3. Analysis of alternate ways to meet needs 4. Designing instructional components 5. Analysis of resource and constraints. 6. Constraint-removal actions 7. Selecting or developing materials 8. Designing student-performance assessment 9. Field testing and formative evaluation 10.Adjustments, revisions, and further evaluation 11.Summative evaluation of systems 12.Operational installation
Weinstein and Fantini (1970)	Weinstein and Fantini Model	1. Identifying the learners needs 2. Ascertaining the learner's concerns 3. Diagnosing the reasons for the learner's concerns 4. Developing a set of desired outcomes aimed at meeting the learner's concerns 5. Developing a theme to organize the lesson Selecting content vehicles to achieve the desired outcomes 6. Developing the teaching strategies that are appropriate to learning skills, content vehicles, organizing ideas and outcomes. 7. Evaluating the effect of the curriculum
Biggs (1999)	Curriculum alignment model	1.Analysis of leaner's needs for the programme 2.Content and learning activities designed to meet learning and programme outcomes 3. Assessment methods designed to meet learning outcomes

Table 2.2 presents another approach to curriculum designing that is *bottom-up*. The *bottom-up* approach begins curriculum designing from the grass roots for example by consulting teachers, learners or analysis of the job for which the curriculum is being designed. It is inductive in approach, starting curriculum planning and development

with specifics that include needs and situation analysis which provide a strong foundation of the curriculum (Taba, 1962). The strong involvement of grass root sources such as the active involvement of the teachers and learners in curriculum development is essential in curriculum designing since decision-making regarding curriculum designing should be directed by the needs of the direct beneficiaries of a particular curriculum. The notable weakness of the *bottom-up* approach is the time consumed for needs or situation analysis or of the job description for which the curriculum is to be designed. Let us see which one of these two approaches is appropriate for designing teacher education curricula.

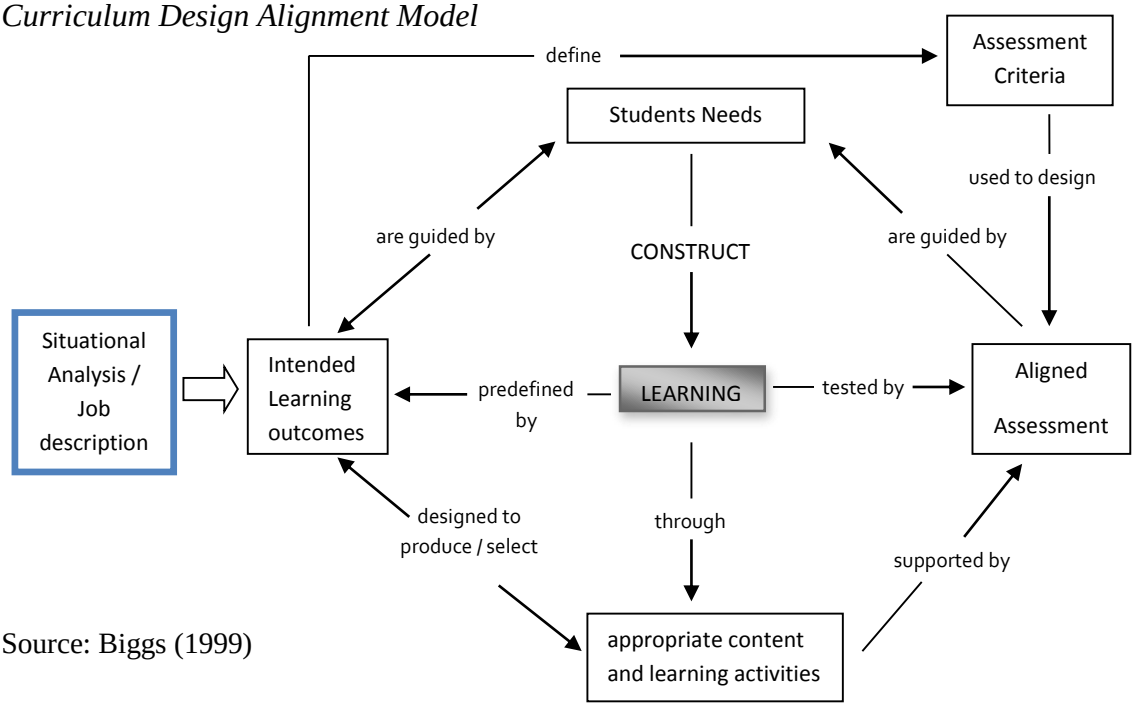
2.6.2.1.Curriculum Design Models Supporting Teacher Education Curriculum

All curriculum planning and designing should be based on a well-defined aim of education and model for curriculum design (Kelly, 2004, 2009). As is clearly stated in this study, the aim of teacher education is to help the student teacher to acquire appropriate and desirable knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that will prepare the trainee teacher to effectively facilitate the process of learning in schools (Darling-Hammond, 2005; 2000; Sleeter, 2005). In order to achieve this, there is need to design a teacher education curriculum that is aligned to the school curriculum. From the two model approaches that several scholars have put forward (see tables 2.1 and 2.2), the bottom-up model is relevant to the designing of teacher education curriculum since the model begin with the identification of the needs of the learners for a particular curriculum. Of particular interest to this study is the curriculum alignment model that was proposed by Biggs (1999) which is one of the most influential models in higher education. The basic premise of the model as Biggs (2003) explained is that a curriculum is designed so that the content, learning activities and assessment tasks are aligned to the learning outcomes that are intended in the programme based on the future responsibilities of learners. Knight (2001) explained that this will help the curriculum designer to have a clear idea of what students should be able to do at the end of the course. However, we know that students will inevitably tend to look at the assessment, as far as they are able, to optimize their assessment performance. Blumberg (2009) explained that the assessment should test the learning outcomes that students are to achieve, that, by being strategic optimizers of their assessment

performance, students will actually be working to achieve the intended learning outcomes which are in tune with the future job description. Thus by so doing a curriculum designed along the principles of curriculum alignment will help students to take responsibility of their own learning. The advantage with the curriculum alignment model is that it encourages clarity in the designing of the curriculum and transparency in the links between learning and assessment and thus facilitates deep learning as the activities are designed for the intended purpose and this should therefore improve the quality of learning and graduates in the profession (Biggs, 1999, 2003; Blumberg, 2009 and Knight 2001). The ideas explained above can be summarized in the following figure 2.1;

Figure 2.1

Curriculum Design Alignment Model



Source: Biggs (1999)

Designing a curriculum that is aligned to the intended learning outcomes is one thing while implementing it as designed is another thing. It is for this reason that the model in figure 2.1 clearly indicates that the learning should be predefined by the intended learning outcomes and through appropriate content and learning activities. In the case of teacher education, the teacher educators (lecturers) should thus implement the curriculum in a way that will lead to the achievement of the intended learning outcomes that have been preset according to the job description. Curriculum theory further divides higher education curriculum, which teacher education is part of, into

professional and general curricular. Let us see how these two types of curriculum also inform this study.

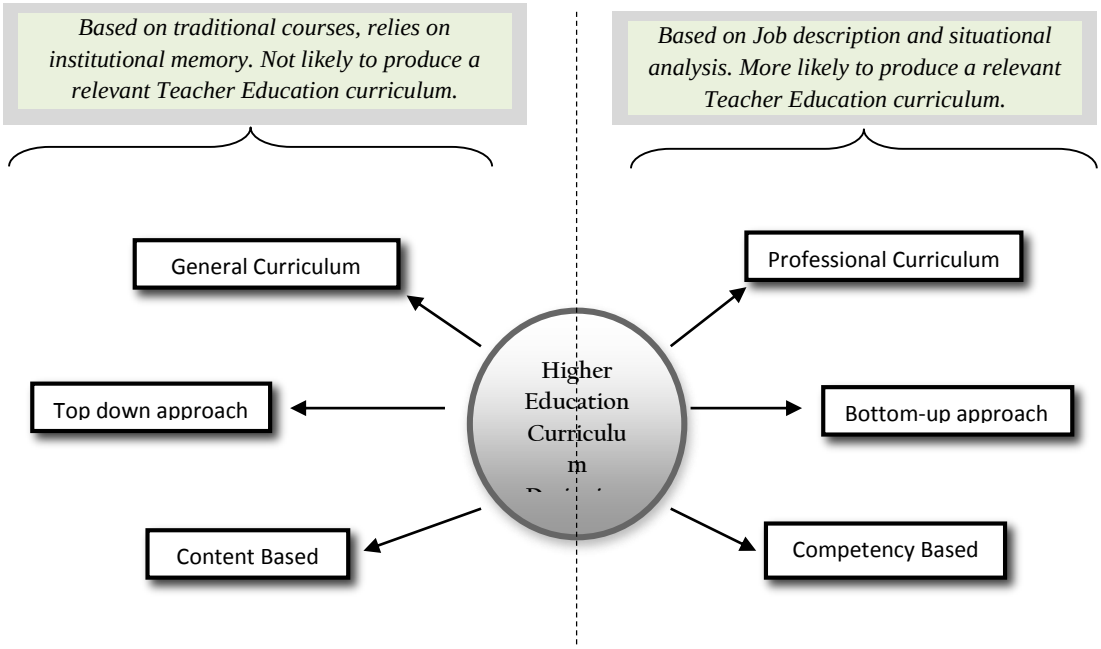
2.6.3. Professional Curriculum of Teacher Education in the Light of the Analysis of Teaching

Although universities and colleges of education enjoy a considerable amount of academic freedom, curriculum designing and review at higher education institutions, such as the University of Zambia, should be based on a clear distinction that exists between a general education curriculum and a professional education curriculum. A general education curriculum is one in which the knowledge and skills that a learner acquires prepare such a one for general conceptualisation of the discipline whereas a professional education curriculum, as Bobbitt (1924) and Jones (1999) put it, is designed according to the job analysis or description of the profession. Thus, a student who is on the programme that is designed according to the principles of a general curriculum will study with a general view that he or she will venture in any field of work upon graduation. However, the designing of a professional education curriculum requires that the curriculum developer first indentifies the knowledge and skills that a particular profession demands from the graduate. Principles of curriculum design for a professional education curriculum recommend that the preliminary step in curriculum designing should be job analysis / description, which scholars such as Print (2007), Taba (1962), Biggs (1999) and others behind the bottom-up curriculum design models refer to as situational analysis. Jones (1999), Charters (2008) and Bobbitt (1924) all recommended that when designing a professional education curriculum job analysis should commence the process before the subsequent stages of formulation of objectives, selection and organisation of content, selection and organisation of learning activities and evaluation procedures are done. It is important for job analysis to precede all the other stages of curriculum designing in a professional education curriculum design process because it will enable the curriculum designer to capture the needed knowledge and skills for the student's future responsibilities in the labour market for which the programme is designed (Jones, 1999). All teacher education curricula are professional education curricula in the sense that the future teacher's required competencies are clearly stipulated as reflected in the particular syllabi for each school subject that the teacher has to teach upon graduation.

In summary, the theoretical perspectives of curriculum designing for a professional education curriculum, such as the teacher education curriculum, and the theory underpinning effective teacher education are all pointing to the fact that curriculum designing for all teacher education programmes should be anchored on the purpose of the programme which is usually well defined by job description so as to capture the relevant skills and knowledge for teaching. The theoretical perspectives of teacher education curriculum design as explained in the preceding sections are summarised in figure 2.2 that follows here below:

Figure 2.2

Summary of the theoretical perspectives of teacher education curriculum designing



This study tried to establish what was likely to happen if a teacher education curriculum is designed in such a way that job analysis was ignored as is the case with the University of Zambia English language teacher education curriculum. Additionally the study sought to find out if a programme such as the English language teacher curriculum had courses that are aligned to the school curriculum but was implemented by teacher educators who did not consider the expected competencies of the graduate teacher.

2.7.Job Analysis

The purpose of all education and training is to provide preparation for learners' efficient participation in the activities of life on as high a level as is possible or desirable for each individual. Carl (2010) explained that without attempting to defend or attack this statement, we may accept it as describing the basic principle of teacher education. The first question that concerns this study then is that of finding out the activities for which teachers must prepare for. These involve the listing of the various so-called competencies included in teaching and also the listing down of the specific activities or duties that each teacher has to do in a specific subject area. The second question would involve finding out the facts, knowledge, habits, and skills, that are deemed necessary, directly or indirectly, for the efficient participation in these activities. Job analysis attempts to answer the two questions and can undoubtedly be of real assistance in solving the challenges of the teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia. Jones (1999) explained that the function of job analysis is to determine what activities are carried out by individuals in the performance of tasks and as a method of curriculum construction, therefore, it frankly assumes that the function of a curriculum is to provide material for efficient performance, conduct, and behaviour. Additionally, Print (2007) stated that job analysis will help a curriculum developer in the organization of courses and materials in courses by having the job in mind as the curriculum is being designed.

2.7.1. The Zambian Senior Secondary School English Language Job Analysis

As mentioned early on in chapter one, for developing a teacher education curriculum, job analysis involves the identification of skills and knowledge that a teacher would require in order to carry out the job of facilitating the process of learning in school in a particular subject. In this section, the report analyses issues relating to the Zambian secondary school English language content. The reason why this study includes this part is that, as mentioned earlier on designing, any formal teacher education curriculum requires that the curriculum designer cultivates familiarity with the knowledge and skills that are required to be taught as the school syllabus stipulates. This is what will enable the teacher educator and curriculum designer to come up with an appropriate curriculum for teacher education. Secondly, ideas propagated by Zeichner (2010) regarding curriculum design explains that the process of designing a

teacher education curriculum is a carefully done intellectual exercise which involves a consciously and deliberately executed process based on decisions made at every stage while bearing in mind that a teacher education curriculum should not lose sight of what exits in schools. In short, an appropriate and effective teacher education curriculum depends on the teacher educator and curriculum designers understanding and interpretation of how the school language syllabus is developed and designed. No wonder Clarke (1971:72) acknowledged that 'the preparation of teachers is logically determined by the nature of the teaching tasks for which they are being prepared'. The analysis here is categorised into the following subtopics, each making a section, as follows: Status of the English Language in Zambian and The Senior Secondary School Syllabus.

2.7.2. Status of the English Language in Zambia

The status of the language in a particular country for which a teacher education language curriculum is being designed is of critical importance to the way that the curriculum should be designed. In Zambia, English is both the national official language and the second language. As a second language, therefore, it is assumed that English should be mastered as the second best among the languages that any Zambian learner should know. In secondary schools, English is thus taught as a second language and the syllabus for the same is designed as such. Hence, the status of the English language in secondary schools as a second language has critical implications on the design of the English language teacher education curriculum. For instance, a curriculum intended for the teaching of a first language will focus more on the *literacy skills* of reading and writing (macro skills) than on those of the *micro-skills* which include phonology and morphology and syntax (vocabulary and structure). On the other hand, a curriculum designed for the teaching of a second language will include both the micro and macro skills and thus have more content. Therefore, more time is required when it comes to teaching a language as a second language than it being a foreign or first language. On top of that, Verghese (2012) stress that teachers' proficiency and knowledge of the second language and the expertise in methods and techniques of language teaching should be of a reasonably high standard. Wilkins (1974) also echoed that the teachers' language is the principal model for the learners since a teacher who himself/herself has difficulty in speaking, writing and reading in the language that he/she teaches is not going to succeed in giving learners a command of the language. Thus we can confidently say that a very important pre-requisite for

teaching a second language is the availability of competent teachers that colleges and universities of education should produce. Perhaps it is this fact that impelled the Modern Language Association of America to come up with a set of qualifications under seven headings and three levels of excellence which stipulates the superior, good and minimal expectations. The seven headings include aural understanding, speaking, reading, writing, language analysis, culture and professional preparations which are used as a measure of competency levels expected of a teacher of English in America. Thus, our main concern here is to analyse the details of English language as it is taught in Zambian secondary schools, as a way of indentifying the knowledge types and skills that a teacher of English is expected to teach. This may help to appreciate the heavy demand of teaching a language that has been assigned the role of a second language and a medium of instruction since this has implications on the designing of a language teacher education curriculum, which in this case is the concern of this study. It is also important at this point to mention that the analysis that will follow is not meant to give details of a language in terms of its status and choice as such discussions can be best done in sociolinguistics while this study's concern was confined to the English language teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia. Therefore, the content in the secondary school syllabus delimits this section.

After independence in 1964, Zambia adopted English language as the official language of instruction in all schools and at the time of this study, the structure of the Education system in Zambia required learners to learn English from primary to secondary school as a compulsory subject. Although there are a number of different ethnic groups from which seven local languages are taught in both primary and secondary schools according to tribal zoning, as Kashoki (1990) puts it, English has, however, been significant for at least two of the following reasons. First English language is a compulsory subject and all other subjects in the education system, except the local languages, are taught in English right from primary school to tertiary levels (MoE, 1996). Secondly, entry into tertiary institutions of education in Zambia requires that a candidate must have obtained a good grade in English language in the school certificate leaving examination and this extends to the majority of job requirements. In order to respond to this vital need for the learning of English language in Zambian schools, the Ministry of Education prepares teachers of English in Colleges of Education and Universities so that upon graduation these teachers can competently

teach the English language to learners in secondary schools. Let us now look at the content of the senior secondary school syllabus for which teachers of English that graduate from the University of Zambia should be prepared.

2.7.3. The Senior Secondary School Syllabus

Students who graduate from the University of Zambia with a Bachelor of Arts with Education degree in English, are being prepared to teach English language in senior secondary schools in Zambia. The senior secondary school English Language Syllabus for this level has four parts namely;

1. Listening and Speaking
2. Structure
3. Reading
4. Writing

The syllabus is prepared in such a way that it has terminal objectives, which state what pupils should have achieved by the end of the course of instruction in grade twelve, and specific objectives, which provide a more detailed list of skills and knowledge to be acquired by the end of grade twelve. In this analysis an attempt was made by giving a detailed description of the knowledge and skills that teachers of English are supposed to help the learners to acquire in each of the aspects of the language that have been mentioned above. Logically, these are supposed to be the knowledge types and skills that teachers of English should have acquired while in college or university as they prepared for the job of teaching English language in Zambian schools.

2.7.3.1.Listening and Speaking

It has been mentioned in the syllabus MoE (1997: 1) that the learners' development of listening and speaking skills are not to be time-tabled separately but are to be taught as an intrinsic part of the reading, writing and structure topics of the syllabus. This means that the teacher has to teach listening and speaking skills in all the other language skills of the syllabus. It is for this reason that listening and speaking skills are not prescribed in the syllabus but are found in the pupils' text books and the teacher's guides under most of the units of, for instance, grade eleven pupils' book (Aspinwall et al., 1995). Listening and speaking skills are taught to learners in order to develop in them effective oral communicative competencies. Therefore, we can agree with Micheal

(2011) when he stated that listening and speaking skills constitute the oral communicative competence. Teaching the oral communicative skills of listening and speaking involves two important phases of skill getting and skill using. During the skill getting phase the teacher exposes the learners to the skills that they are expected to demonstrate. Having helped the learner get the skill the teacher will then create, in the classroom, a situation similar to real life in which the learner is expected to practise the skills by communicating.

The following is what constitutes the details to be taught for each skill type. The true-to-life situations that the syllabus proposes are also briefly mentioned thereafter. Our aim here is not to give a detailed discussion of what these skills are, since that was not the focus of this study, but to briefly present them as a way of giving a clear indication of what a teacher of English is expected to teach in senior secondary school.

In order to facilitate the pronunciation and articulation of English words the syllabus presents the following as skills to be taught to the learners so as to improve their speaking and listening ability;

a. The English vowel sounds

The teacher here is expected to teach all the English vowel sounds which, as Baruah (1991) explained include monothongs, diphthongs and triphthongs that the learner should learn to produce as these are basic to the English language. Some of these vowel sounds include /i:/ as in bead /biːd/, /æ/ ; /eɪ/ as in bade /bæd; beɪd/, /**aɪ**/ as in pine /paɪn/. This aspect may be challenging especially to Zambian learners since the first indigenous languages that most learners would have learnt before learning English have mostly five vowel sounds while English has more than ten vowel sounds. Thus while the reception of English may be easy for the learner, production may present some challenges. It is for this reason that teachers of the English language in Zambia need to be good models to learners by mastering these vowel sounds given the fact that they are also coming from the same background as their learners.

b. The English consonant sounds

The consonant sounds in English are taught to learners as they are a common feature in the pronunciation of most English words. Adams (1988) explained that there are 26 consonant sounds in most English accents, conveyed by 21 letters of the regular

English alphabet. Some of these sounds include the fricatives, nasals and plosives which the learner has to learn to produce by exhaling air from the lungs, allowing it to flow through either the nasal cavity or the mouth cavity, or both, and momentarily obstructing it by the use of one part of the cavity touching another one to briefly block the flow. For example /p/ in **p**lease /pliːz/ and /b/ in **b**ook /bʊk/, /f/ in **f**ive /faɪv/ and /v/ in **v**anilla /vəˈnɪlə/, /θ/ in **th**irty /ˈθɜːtɪ/ and /ð/ in fa**th**er /ˈfɑːðə/. Both the voiced and the unvoiced consonant sounds make up the subject matter that the teacher has to teach the learners in order for them (learners) to pronounce certain English words well. For instance, in the Senior Secondary English Language Course for Zambia, the learners are expected to practise pronouncing a variety of words which will all require that the learner would have had familiarity with vowel and consonant sounds (Aspinwal et al., 1995).

c. Syllable articulation and stress

Words in the English language are made up of sound groupings which are known as phonemes. The phonemes make up the sounds of a word which constitute the syllables. Some words may have only one sound and thus are monosyllabic while others have more than two syllables and hence are referred to as multi-syllabic. By the convention that has been developed by the native speakers of the English language, in the words that have more than one syllable certain syllables are stressed during articulation while others are not. For instance in words such as pun/ish/ment, con/vict (verb), con/vict (noun) and mag/a/zine the underlined syllables are given stress in articulation, even when the rest of the word syllables are clearly articulated too. Anyhow, the point that is being made here is that syllable stressing and articulation are taught in the English language syllabus in schools. For instance the grade 11 Pupil's book, on pages 8 and 9, prescribe syllable and articulation skills that are to be taught by teachers of English (Aspinwall et al. 1995).

d. Word stress

Word stressing in an utterance or speech is another oral skill that is taught in Zambian secondary schools (Aspinwall et al. 1995, 2000). While most Zambians may stress wrong syllables and still communicate effectively, stressing the wrong word in an utterance may hinder communication since such a thing may cause a misinterpretation and thus a misunderstanding by the listener. Word stress is an oral skill worth teaching

to learners because as Wong-Fillmore (1976) had put it, the stressed words in an utterance carry the meaning(s) as intended by the speaker.

e. Intonation patterns

The teaching of the oral use of language also includes the teaching of its intonation patterns and this skill is also part of the Zambian senior secondary school syllabus. Variations in the voice during the production of an utterance may facilitate intonation patterns which can help or guide the interpretation of the utterance. For instance, an utterance with a rising voice pitch at the end may be interpreted as a question sometimes even when the sentence is not in an interrogative but in a declarative form. Thus, first and foremost, the teacher of English needs this skill for the purpose of demonstrating it in class and, therefore, has to master how voice variation particularly in English is used to communicate particular meaning(s).

f. Etiquette

The senior secondary school syllabus in Zambia prescribes that the learners should be assisted to learn how to behave socially in English. One may ask as to what extent second language users of English should master and openly use expressions of etiquette in their speech in everyday communications. However, the fact that the English language is an official and second language in Zambia obliges teachers to master this oral skill so that they can effectively teach learners to interact and communicate to other people who are using the same language. For instance, in the tourism and hospitality industry, issues of politeness and courtesy can either make the industry prosper or make it go down.

As alluded to in the preceding sections, language lessons that are intended for the teaching of listening and speaking skills to the learner are aimed at improving the learners' oral communicative competence in the targeted language. For a learner to develop the skills of listening and speaking he or she needs to develop practical familiarity with the sound system of the language. The English sound system that has been discussed in the preceding subsections are thus taught to the learners so as to help them in the development of the listening and speaking skills in the English language. In order to make the learner actually practice the skill of speaking or listening effectively, the senior secondary school syllabus has given some activities from pages

one to four that are likely to provoke learners into doing so. These are; note-taking, simulated telephone calls, role plays, map descriptions, impromptu speeches, welcoming quests, open debates, dramatisation of familiar episodes, dictations, interview simulations and explaining of simple tasks and processes. Baruah (1991) explains that the two skills of listening and speaking are grouped together under the single heading of 'aural-oral skills' because they usually function together and constitute the basic language skills. He further explains that in order for the learner to progress to the other skills of reading and writing he or she would need to have acquired basic skills in the aural-oral skills. The section that follows gives a brief analysis of the reading skills as prescribed in the senior secondary school syllabus.

2.7.3.2.Reading

The senior secondary school syllabus prescribes that pupils at this level should be taught two kinds of reading. These are intensive reading and extensive reading. In the senior secondary school syllabus, reading (intensive and extensive reading) mainly require the learners to develop the skill of silent reading. Silent reading, as prescribed in the syllabus, is required since most of important study skills demand quick, efficient and imaginative reading which is mostly possible in silent reading rather than in loud reading (Verghese, 2012). Although during the course of the lesson the teacher may read the text aloud so as to demonstrate to the learners how to read it correctly by bringing the discourse in the text to life, silent reading is vital to learners because it is during this period that they (learners) will be able to decipher the information that is in a piece of writing.

2.7.3.2.1. Intensive Reading

Teachers of English are supposed to teach intensive reading to learners so as to help them understand texts by working out the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. It is for this reason that most intensive reading lessons are in form of reading comprehension. Thus the syllabus explains that reading comprehension lessons should aim at helping learners to do the following;

a. locate details and answer factual questions on a given passage.

b. express the main idea of a piece of writing.

c. deduce the meaning of unfamiliar words by using contextual clues and by applying a knowledge of word-building.

d. distinguish facts from opinions and identify over-generalised statements.

e. draw inferences from written material.

f. describe feelings, qualities and motives of characters in a story.

g. understand the connotative meaning of words and phrases.

h. describe the writer's attitude towards the subject matter and where appropriate his/her purpose for writing a given story or passage.

i. distinguish between formal and informal language and determine the appropriateness of a particular style used in a piece of writing.

In order to present a variety of genres to the learners, the pupils' textbooks that are usually written based on the syllabus present written texts ranging from mainly prose texts and then plays and poetry. In order to expose pupils to different registers of the language use, prose texts range from scientific, economic, medical, religious to political ones. During the time that learners are reading the texts in silence, the teacher is also supposed to check for good reading habits such as using their eyes only to follow the lines, not pointing at sentences as they read along, not whispering the words of the texts and sitting in the right postures. The teacher is also supposed to teach skimming skills which will help the learners to get the general impression of what the text is about, scanning skills which will help the learners to locate specific information in the text and then reading for a deeper understanding of the text so as to decipher the intended meaning as was meant by the writer. Having discussed intensive reading, let us turn to extensive reading.

2.7.3.2.2. Extensive Reading

In order to effectively teach extensive reading, it is not enough for the teacher to have only the skills that have been discussed under intensive reading. While the skills and knowledge for intensive reading are very important if the teacher is to help learners acquire the skill to understand texts, extensive reading demands the teacher to have developed the habit of reading for pleasure him or herself. A reader can engage in

intensive reading even if they do not have a love for reading, especially when such a skill is demanded for the purpose of examination as is the case with the Zambian senior secondary school. Baruah (1991) explained that in extensive reading the teacher introduces learners to different registers of writings and discusses with them a variety of excerpts from such sources so as to cultivate in them the love for reading just for the sheer pleasure of it. Therefore, while most of the reading skills are supposed to be taught under intensive reading, the main purpose of extensive reading is to trigger off or cultivate in the learner the appetite to read widely or extensively.

Ellis and Tomlinson (1988) suggested a number of benefits in teaching extensive reading in any language but we shall not go into those details since the aim of this job analysis in this study, as earlier mentioned, is to show which skills and knowledge types the teacher education curriculum is supposed to familiarise the future teacher of English with.

2.7.3.3.Writing (Composition)

Most of the writing lessons that a teacher of English is expected to teach in Zambian senior secondary school go by the name of composition. Therefore, every secondary school teacher is expected to master and be able to demonstrate composition writing skills to learners by teaching them, as part of his or her competence in the second language, which is English in the case of Zambia.

There are two types of composition commonly taught and learnt in secondary school as part of second language teaching and learning. These include; Situational, Guided or Controlled Composition, on the one hand, and Open and Free Composition on the other. Let us focus on each one of them as a way of outlining the competencies that the teachers are supposed to acquire during their interactions with the teacher education curriculum at university. In guided or situational composition, learners are supplied with a number of ideas to choose from. As the name suggests, in this type of composition the teacher guides the learners as to what to write and how to write it (Baruah 1991). As the learners develop mastery in the writing of language, the guidance is progressively minimised so that they are required to write on their own. At this stage they are free to choose their structures and vocabulary and express their own thoughts and ideas on a given topic with minimal guidance which is usually given in a lesson and during the marking of their (learners') pieces of compositions. The

experience that learners would have gained in guided composition should help them to eventually gain confidence, knowledge and skills to deal with free compositions topics. Although the context in a situational composition provides the thoughts and ideas, the teacher will still need to teach the learners the skill of composing the ideas, organising the ideas in a logical sequence and expressing the ideas in such a way that learners are able to paint a mental picture of what they are presenting in words. It is encouraged that the teacher alternates in teaching these two types of compositions so that learners are able to write both well. In fact during the School Certificate and General Certificate of Education final examinations in the English Language, learners are assessed on both types of compositions. Some of the examples that can be used in guided composition writing include letters and summary. Although summary writing may be regarded as a kind of situational composition, it requires certain special skills that we shall briefly analyse later. Free and open composition will demand that the teacher exposes and help learners to master the knowledge and skills that conform to four different discourse types, which are; Analytical, Descriptive, Narrative and Argumentative. Let us briefly high light the competencies that a teacher should possess in order to effectively and competently teach each one of them.

In order to teach an analytical composition, the teacher needs to have the ability to identify the parts of the issue being analyzed and be able to isolate them and also show how these parts make a coherent whole. Analysis of the parts will also require the teacher to demonstrate how the parts are related.

In case of a descriptive composition, the teacher will need to help the learner to create a picture using words. This type of discourse, as Jupp and Milne (1968) have explained, is very demanding for most learners in the sense that it challenges them to have a good command of the English language. Additionally, to write a good descriptive composition one needs to have a rich vocabulary which to use in painting a picture in the reader's mind. By a rich vocabulary we mean a vocabulary that is so wide to the extent that the writer of a descriptive composition depends on it to describe all sorts of things, scenarios, events, ideas and so on. In order for a learner to write a good descriptive composition, there is a great need for a teacher himself/herself to have had acquired the knowledge and skills of writing a good descriptive text.

Another type of free composition that the teacher of English is required to teach is the narrative. In a narrative type of a composition the teacher is required to help the learner acquire the skill to explain a chain of events in a coherent manner in such a way that each event is presented as having resulted from a preceding one. The narration may take a chronological sequence or as a matter of style use flashback. However, as Byrne (1979) explained, the events in a narrative composition need to have a logical connection. Narrative type of composition seems easier for most learners since the structure of the composition takes the form and sequence of events. Nevertheless, as emphasised in the preceding sections about the other types of composition, the teacher should have acquired the competencies necessary to enable him or her to guide the learners in writing the narrative type of composition.

In argumentative or persuasive type of composition the teacher should help the learners to present ideas in such a way that the reader is persuaded to agree with a proposed point of view. This discourse type calls on the writer to produce evidence for every assertion made and present such ideas clearly. Byrne (1979) advised the writer of an argumentative composition to have in mind the possible reactions of the readers to the ideas or argument being presented and to pay particular attention to the way such ideas are presented so as to support a certain point of view.

Thus, for both types of composition the teacher should possess refined knowledge and skills namely, how to compose ideas, how to organize them in some logical sequence, and then how to express the ideas and thoughts in his or her own free choice of words (Byrne, 1979 and Cook, 1991). Therefore, in order for the teacher to teach any type of composition, he or she needs to have acquired not only an appropriate language for each composition type but also know the structure or form of the composition and have the pedagogical knowledge which can be used to come up with a good lesson procedure. Let us now turn to summary writing which is another type of writing which a teacher of English is supposed to teach in senior secondary school and hence needs to have appropriate knowledge and skills for doing so.

2.7.3.4.Summary Writing

A teacher of English is required to have knowledge and skills for the teaching and writing of three types of summary that are taught in senior secondary school in Zambia. The syllabus indentifies note-summary, prose summary and topic summary as

the three types of summary to be taught. In all these summary types, the teacher needs to employ both the skills of writing and those acquired in intensive reading. This is so because in order for the teacher and learner to summarize any given text they need to read it with understanding before expressing the ideas in summary form. This fact illustrates very well what Raimes (1983) referred to when he noted that in order to come up with a good summary one needs to have acquired an integration of more than two skill types in language. Let us now turn to each of the summary types and point out the skills that the teacher should possess in order to teach each one of them effectively.

In all the summary types, learners are given a text whose length may vary. In the case of a note summary task, the teacher will require to have the ability to carefully read the given text and identify the main points which should be written in note form as opposed to complete and full sentences. This is the same kind of skill that the teacher will be required to teach to pupils.

In the case of the prose summary, however, the final writing or summary is not expressed in note form but the notes are expanded into a coherent piece of writing using full sentences. The idea is not to reproduce the text using different words but to capture the main ideas, while leaving out some ideas, which will shorten the text while maintaining the message and the meaning of it.

In order to teach topic summary, or title summary as it is sometimes called, the teacher should have the skill to carefully read a text and be able decipher what the whole text is all about and then express it in form of a short heading or title. Usually a text that is to be used for this kind of task should have ideas that are pointing to a common idea. Otherwise the task might be quite challenging even for the teacher. The teaching of second language also requires that learners are equipped with knowledge and skills of the structure of the language. In the section that follows we are going to do an analysis of what a teacher of English is required to teach in structure in senior secondary school as a way of detailing the skills required of him or her.

2.7.3.5.Structure

The objectives of teaching structure as stated in the senior secondary school English language syllabus on pages 12 and 13, are what teachers of English are supposed to

teach is in English grammar. Chishimba (2009:19) explained that the grammar of a language is the way in which words are used and arranged to give meaning. He further elaborated his point as follows;

> *Grammar comprises syntax which implies word order and sentence structure; use of auxiliary words; inflection by which words change form; gender which means masculine, feminine or neuter; tense, which covers past tense, present tense or future tense and other tenses; voice, that is active voice or passive voice and number which includes singular and plural.*

Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) also explained that since language is a system, it has elements which work in harmony and grammar is that central element in it which helps learners to develop their other language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing and vocabulary. Although the syllabus makes cognisance of the fact that learners from grades ten to twelve should have mastered most of the important structures by the end of grade nine, there are clear indications in it that the teacher of English will need to have a complete mastery of all the syntactical and morphological structures of the English language if he or she is to teach what the grammar content, which is stipulated for these levels, demands. For instance, from pages 12 through to page 22, what the syllabus is prescribing as topics for teaching will demand that the teacher of English has advanced knowledge and skills in, first and foremost, understanding the four basic types of sentences namely; declarative which is in form of statements and assertions; the interrogatives which are in form of questions; the imperatives which express commands and the exclamatory statements which expresses strong feelings. The teacher will also be expected to have the ability to use parts of speech such as nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives and prepositions in meaningful sentences. The teacher is also expected to have the ability to describe the functions of parts of a sentence such as the subject, verb, object, complement, tense and so on, and how to combine these into phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs.

2.7.3.6.Vocabulary and Punctuation Skills

In the process of teaching reading, writing and grammar skills there seem to be a need to teach the acquisition and use of a wide vocabulary and punctuation skills as well. In fact most of the comprehension passages that are in pupils' textbooks for grades ten,

eleven and twelve include among the tasks vocabulary and punctuation exercises. This means that the teacher of English needs to apply his or her vocabulary acquisition skills even during the teaching of reading although it may not be the focus of the lesson as Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) have rightly observed. However, words carry either denotative or connotative meanings depending on how they are used in a piece of writing; therefore, there is a need to teach vocabulary to learners during reading lessons so as to improve their understanding of the passage. The teacher of English as a second language also needs to have knowledge and skills of to increase and use ones vocabulary so as to teach vocabulary during comprehension, composition writing and during lessons on the structures of a language by leading learners into examining the semantic characteristics of words. Speaking and listening lessons also provide opportunities for the teacher to teach vocabulary development as new words are introduced and practised by learners (Widdowson 1978, Gathumbi and Masembe, 2005; Bright and McGregor, 1970 and Chastain 1976).

Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) proposed that vocabulary can be taught through blends, phrasal verbs, hyponyms, compound words, antonyms, synonyms, polysemy, collocation, idioms and so on.

As a way of concluding this analysis we will echo what Wilkins (1974) and Finocchiaro (1974) stated, namely that the principal objective of second language teaching is to develop communicative competence. By this is meant that the teacher of English as a second language should not only understand the language but should also produce it in both speech and writing so that such a teacher will be able to help the learners to do the same. However, in order for this to be achieved among learners of English in schools, the teacher education curriculum should be designed according to the analysis of the job of the teacher of English.

2.8.Review of Studies and Literature related to English Language Teacher Education Curriculum Designing

It needs to be pointed out from the outset that the issue of curriculum relevance in university programmes, more especially professional educational programmes of study, has become so pertinent of late that in 2014 the Association of African Universities (AAU) had advertised for consultancy in form of research to establish what it had termed as: *the relevance of university training to labour market demands*

(AAU 2913, 1). It is a fact that most students enter universities and colleges in Zambia so that they can be employed upon graduation and thus the acquisition of appropriate knowledge and skills is vital for their future employers' desires and expectations. At the 2012 graduation ceremony, the then UNZA vice-chancellor, Prof. Simukanga, said that; most of the current curricular had served the purpose for which they had been developed. This was earlier expressed in the Ministry of Education National Implementation Framework of 2008 to 2010. In the document, it was stated that: 'other challenges facing the universities include lack of curriculum responsiveness and relevance to individual, community and national needs' (MoE, 2008:16). Writing about the quality of prospective teachers of history graduating from the University of Zambia, Chabatama (2012:14) stated that 'there seems to be no link between knowledge and skills the graduates from the University of Zambia go with and the school syllabuses.' In a qualitative study conducted by Banja (2012 b) on the relevance and adequacy of university education to occupational demands, it was revealed that the education offered to students at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University was inadequate to meet occupational demands of industry as it was too theoretical and, thus, did not provide sufficient hands-on-practical experience during training. What the above concerns and the study did not show however, are the causes of the inadequacy of the university education curriculum designing in relation to the future duties of the students upon graduation. In order to have a focused and in depth study this research singled out English language teacher education curriculum designing at the University of Zambia.

This section explores and discusses literature under two themes, namely; studies and literature on teacher education curriculum designing in general and studies on the English language teacher education curriculum designing. The purpose of this sort of literature review is to scrutinize the current trends in teacher education curriculum designing and the teacher education curriculum of English language in particular so as to establish a gap that this study is filling. Thus the literature is purposely searched and reviewed on the basis of its relevance to the main theme of teacher education curriculum designing. Therefore, the references consulted are not exhaustive since teacher education is a large and growing terrain, but they all save the purpose of establishing the gap that continue to pose a challenge to teacher education curriculum designing in Zambia and around the globe.

Reading through the existing literature, it can be discovered that there is no research that has been done on the curriculum designing process of the English language teacher education of the University of Zambia (UNZA). The two recent studies that are closer to this research (Manchishi and Masaiti 2011; Manchishi 2007) were done with a general view of all the programmes in the School of Education of the University of Zambia and were not looking at the curriculum designing of any of the programmes.

The study conducted by Manchishi and Masaiti (2011) on how responsive the University of Zambia Pre-service teacher education programme was to schools and community elicited data from UNZA graduate teachers in Lusaka, Kafue and Chongwe. The main findings of the study revealed that: there was a gap between what the UNZA programme was offering and what was obtaining in the high schools and that UNZA trainee teachers were weak in the delivery of subject matter (methodology) and that professional ethics were not part of the programme. In that study, Manchishi and Masaiti (2011) did not narrow down the research to a particular programme among the seven in the School of Education of UNZA but got a general view of all the programmes. Secondly, the duo did not venture into the issues of curriculum designing of the programmes in question. Thirdly, they did not establish the reason why the gap existed between what is offered at UNZA and what the trainee teachers are expected to do once they are in schools as teachers. This study has tried to give answers to the questions related to teacher education curriculum designing that are likely to be raised from the gaps that the study by Manchishi and Masaiti did not fill.

Manchishi (2007) also made an analysis of teacher education in Zambia by looking at it starting from the pre-colonial era from 1883 to 1923, the colonial era from 1924 to 1963, the post-independence era from 1964 to 2004, and projected it into the future. The first issue that he raised was that the teacher education curriculum at UNZA, the institution which has been the main educator of secondary school teachers for a very long time, is not related to the school curriculum. He questioned that:

> *... how does one expect the graduate teachers to implement the school curriculum which is not in harmony with what they went through? (Manchishi, 2007: 129)*

What Manchishi was referring to here was that the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that were to be acquired from the teacher education curriculum should have

been related to what was in the school curriculum if the teacher was to effectively implement it. Once again that research did not study English language curriculum designing at UNZA but made a general observation of the programmes that have existed in the school of education. Secondly it did not explain how the curriculum content of the teacher education UNZA programmes were arrived at, the quality of the products and the particular challenges that the programme presented to the products and to the implementers (lecturers). Furthermore, the study did not explain the extent of the mismatch between the University curriculum and the school curriculum.

In 2003, the Department of International Development in London sponsored a Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER) in five countries in Africa and South America. The study was conducted in Ghana, Lesotho, South Africa, Malawi and Trinidad and Tobago where different aspects of teacher education were explored including the Curriculum of Teacher Education. Regarding the curriculum, the MUSTER project was aimed at finding out how the teacher education curriculum was developed and what influenced its development. The findings of the study showed that there was no systematic and consistent curriculum development for initial teacher education and the curriculum also seemed very outdated (Lewin and Stuart, 2003).

The findings of MUSTER bring us to the fact that many scholars on curriculum such as Jones (2002), Charters (1924), Withers (1988), Print (2007) and Chishimba (2001) have explained that when teacher education curriculum in colleges and schools of education are being organized, it is desirable to analyze as carefully as possible the job description for which such schools are supposed to prepare student teachers for. There are also other studies around the globe that looked at the English language teacher education curriculum. The following studies were reviewed.

Coskun and Daloglu (2010) evaluated a university pre-service English language teacher education programme at a Turkish university. The main aim of that study was to evaluate the pre-service English language curriculum by analysing the components of the programme that were in need of improvement from the teachers' and students' perspectives. The study used the Peacock's (2009) evaluation model. That study used the data which was collected from teachers and fourth year student teachers who had had experience with the new teacher education programme which was initiated by the Higher Education Council (HEC) in the 2006-2007 academic year. The data was

collected by means of questionnaires and interviews and the analysis revealed that although participating teachers and student teachers had similar views about some programme components, they however held different opinions about the balance among linguistic and pedagogic competences in the programme. While teachers believed that the programme did not suffice to improve student teachers' linguistic competence, student teachers thought that the pedagogic side of the programme needed to be improved so as to help the graduates to acquire the needed competencies for teaching. Once again that study did not explore the issues related to curriculum designing and the quality of graduates of the programme that was being evaluated.

In an attempt to show the strong and weak points of an English language teacher education curriculum in Saudi Arabia, Al-Gaeed (1983) developed a questionnaire covering areas ranging from teaching methodology to issues like performance of faculty members and teaching atmosphere. The curriculum was evaluated positively by the students and graduates in terms of teaching practice, teaching methodology, the quality of faculty members and linguistic courses. However, the participants expressed the view that the period for learning spoken English and the opportunities that were provided to communicate in English were not enough. Participants also expressed the view that the literature courses were not relevant to their future duties of teaching literature in schools. That doctoral study may be of help to draw parallels between the Zambian situations which this study was trying to analyse and that of Saudi Arabia in the sense that the curriculum in Saudi Arabia seemed to be successful except in spoken English. However, that study did not venture into the aspect of how the university in Saudi Arabia arrived at the courses that were taught on the curriculum in question.

Erozan (2005) evaluated the language courses in the pre-service English language teacher education curriculum in a Turkish university. By means of course evaluation questionnaires for student teachers, interviews with student teachers and their teachers, classroom observations, and examination of relevant written documents such as course policy sheets, course materials, and assessment tools used in the courses, the study showed that the language improvement courses were generally effective. In that doctoral thesis Erozan (2005) listed some of the points her participants' recommended as follows: that there were supposed to be more practical components in the language improvement courses, a wider variety of authentic materials, including the use of

various methods and activities, and that there should be continuity as well as coherence among the courses. The student teachers in her study urged for more micro-teaching and practice teaching activities in the curriculum. Also, because of the method that was used in some courses and their irrelevance to their teaching profession, some courses were criticized by student teachers as being too complicated or theoretical.

Focusing on the practical component of a pre-service English teacher education curriculum and as a follow up to Erozan's (2005) study, Seferoglu (2006) carried out a qualitative study and asked student teachers' opinions about the methodology and practice component of the same curriculum. It was found that most of the student teachers still expressed the need for more micro-teaching activities in addition to more observations of lessons at different levels in the school experience courses. Once again these studies did not research on the designing aspect of the curriculum in question.

In his doctoral study, Salli-Copur (2008) explored the extent to which graduates of an English language teacher education programme in a United States California State university from 2002 to 2006 perceived themselves as competent teachers of the English language. The study also examined the extent to which the courses of the curriculum helped students to gain relevant competencies for teaching. Through interviews, the study revealed that the graduates perceived themselves to be competent in most of the competency areas described by the Higher Education Council while expressing a need for improvement on competencies of language knowledge, spoken use of English, classroom management, assessment and instruction. Furthermore, most of the participants thought that there were some unnecessary overlaps among some courses and some of them believed that the practice component of the curriculum could be more emphasized. Though the study gave some affirmation to the curriculum in question, it did not clearly reveal the quality of the graduates in terms of their competence in relation to the school curriculum, a gap that this study sought to fill though from the Zambian context.

Kildan and Duran (2013) investigated the process of teacher education in South Africa. In that study, they evaluated the views of teacher trainees on the English language teacher education curriculum. The study involved 58 newly-appointed teacher trainees from different branches who had begun their teaching profession at educational institutions in Natal region in 2010. In that study it was discovered that most of the

teacher trainees who had participated in the study had expressed the view that the four-year education provided by the faculties of education was insufficient. The study also revealed that teacher trainees felt themselves least prepared in professional education courses. Teacher trainees stated that, of the educational science courses taken at the faculties of education, the "Educational Psychology" course contributed most to their profession while the "School Experience course" and "Teaching Practice" courses had no contributions to their education. The finding of that study might be an indication that there was no link between the university teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum. Kildan's and Duran's (2013) finding in that study agreed with what other scholars on teacher education observed about teacher education programmes, who stated that today's university-based teacher-education curriculum had lost touch with practice (schools) (Levine, 2011; Reid, 2011). This could be the case with the English language curriculum which is the focus of this study.

Goh and Matthews (2011) examined the concerns and experiences of Malaysian student teachers during the student teachers' practicum. The 14 student teachers who had volunteered to take part in the study were asked to maintain a reflective journal throughout their practicum to document their teaching concerns and their confidence to teach English language in senior secondary classes. Eighteen derived concerns were identified and placed into four main themes: (a) classroom management and student discipline; (b) institutional and personal adjustment; (c) classroom teaching; and (d) student learning. The study had intended to draw attention to the underlying reasons given by student teachers about their concerns prior to and during the practicum in order to integrate areas of concern into future management and development of teacher education. The value of the study was in the using of student teachers' own capacity to self-assess and appraise their circumstances as a research area in teaching and showed how the understanding of learning to teach could be enriched through their own self awareness. Of interest to the review of that study was that the main finding was that student teachers had immense difficulties with classroom teaching since they seemed not to have mastered the knowledge and skills that were relevant for schools. The study did not, however, explain why this gap in knowledge and skills existed which the student teachers had.

Goh and Matthews (2011) made recommendations that further in-depth studies and also perhaps a larger qualitative study could be conducted so as to find out why

students could spend so much time in university and yet had serious challenges with the understanding of knowledge and skills in their area of teaching specialisation. Though in a different context (Zambia), this study tried to seek some answers to a situation such as the one identified in that particular study in Malaysia.

Nguyen (2013) used a survey design to investigate the variation across and within the curricula for English language teacher education in terms of structure and content and the contextual factors influencing the development of the curricula. The study examined the curricula for English language teacher education in two universities, one in Australia and the other in Vietnam. Specifically, it analysed the structures of the two curricula, compared and contrasted them, and examined how the development of the curricula was shaped by distinctive contextual factors. Sources of data included relevant literature, policy and curriculum documents, and interviews with curriculum developers from the two universities. Analysis of data revealed great variation across and within the two curricula in terms of structure and content. Findings also revealed specific contextual factors that influenced the development of the curricula. Although the findings were specific to the two teacher education institutions under research, the study suggested that curriculum design for second language teacher education needed to account for the context of teacher learning and offer substantial opportunity for pre-service teachers to develop key domains of knowledge that were relevant to the local contexts. This study tried to respond to Nguyen's (2013) suggestions although from a Zambian point of view.

A qualitative study by Stake (2013) aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of Ankara University English Language Teacher education curriculum through the perspectives of lecturers and students used the CIPP (context, input, process, and product) evaluation model developed by Stufflebeam (1971) was conducted. 204 students attending the programme in the 2012-2013 academic year and 12 lecturers teaching on the curriculum participated in the study. The data were gathered through a student questionnaire and an interview schedule which was designed for the lecturers. Written documents were also examined. While the data based on the questionnaire were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics, content analysis was carried out to analyze the qualitative data. Multivariate Analysis of Variances with Pillai's v Trace test was employed to find out whether the significant differences among dependent

variables across independent variables existed. Results of the study indicated that the curriculum at Ankara University was not producing teachers with the right competencies for teaching in secondary schools. The findings were that some improvements in the physical conditions, content, materials and assessment dimensions of the programme were required to make the programme more effective. Once again the study did not explain why students lacked the relevant knowledge and skills.

In a doctoral study conducted by Sanders (2009) in Ohio in two universities that were preparing teachers of English language, the researcher recommended that teacher education preparation programmes should be totally redone to allow universities and colleges the ability to teach what was most important. The study revealed that most of what was learnt in the two universities was far from what the prospective teachers had to teach upon graduation. Sanders (ibid) recommended that teachers needed to understand their subject matter, while at the same time faculties of education in the two universities were to be held accountable for the teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in their subject matter knowledge. According to Sanders, too much emphasis was placed on passing the prescribed tests and examination to earn a degree and a license to teach. Clearly, this situation may be familiar with the experiences that this study sought to analyse. However, Sanders (2009) did not look at the curriculum designing for the programmes in Ohio a dimension that this study has taken from a Zambian perspective.

While this study concentrated on teacher education curriculum designing, the researcher was mindful that there are many factors which can contribute to the production of well prepared teachers of English language. Factors such as the availability of instructional materials, college or university facilities, equipments, time and a well stocked library all are important for the preparation of a teacher. While all this is vital for effective teacher education the teacher's understanding of the subject matter is critical.

A study done by Adetoro (2010) in Nigeria, which was looking at the relationship between teachers' job productivity and academic performance of secondary school students in Lagos, showed that even with the availability of all the necessary instructional materials, student performance would be low if the teacher was not well

grounded in the content and methodology of teaching. What Adetoro (2010) had found in the Lagos study agreed with what Darling-Hammond (2006) had explained that if teachers are viewed primarily as channels of information for pupils, one could argue that all they needed was general content knowledge and the ability to give lectures in order to do an adequate job in schools. For this kind of teaching then, it is easy to believe that a liberal arts education (general teacher education curriculum) could be sufficient preparation. But if teachers need to be able to ensure successful learning for pupils in schools, then they need to be diagnosticians and planners who understand a great deal of the curriculum they are to teach and should have a repertoire of tools or skills at their disposal to do so. A professional curriculum which is tailored to the job description of the teacher is likely to equip the teacher with the required knowledge and skills (Wither, 2000). Several researches have explained this as evidenced in the studies to be reviewed below.

Other research evidence suggested that appropriate content knowledge about teaching and content of the subject matter would adequately prepare teachers for their future job of teaching and to develop a vision for teaching and a sense of the value of the work of a teacher. Kosnik and Beck (2012), for example, had found in their study in four American universities that beginning teachers who graduated with a strong grounding in the subject matter for teaching were better equipped to cope with their years of teaching. Kosnik and Beck's finding was consistent with two other findings of teacher education that showed that there was a positive relationship among the teachers understanding of the subject matter for teaching, goals for teaching, teacher quality and student learning outcomes. The research for the first of these studies (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] 2013) was a study of teaching and learning in the lower secondary school sector of 23 countries in Asia, Europe and Africa. A significant finding of this study was that teachers who had followed a relevant teacher education curriculum had the capacity to learn how to teach and were able to use evidence to solve problems and self-moderate their teaching. In other words, teachers who have a strong understating of their subject matter for teaching showed higher levels of confidence in their teaching.

2.9.Comment and Conclusion on Literature Review

As mentioned earlier in this report, the body of the theoretical discussion on what should be included in the curriculum for teacher education and the various challenges that are manifested by the ill designed programmes of the English language teacher education curriculum appears to constitute the majority of the literature. There has been very little analysis of context-specific English language teacher education curriculum designing and empirical research on the same. Among a few attempts to address the gap are the studies that have been cited in this chapter whose focus had not addressed teacher education curriculum designing.

2.10.The Research Gap Addressed and Directions from Literature Review

No research has been conducted in Zambia on the English language teacher education curriculum designing process and not even on teacher education curriculum designing in general. The significance of this research, therefore, is that it was the first of its kind in this area in Zambia. This study tried to depart from most of the previous studies on the English language teacher education curricula that had been reviewed in this chapter. Other than just analysing the university English language teacher education curriculum and secondary school connections or linkages, this study went further to look at how the content for teacher education was arrived at and examined the quality of the products of the programme under investigation. This research, therefore, focused on the need to have quality teacher education programmes, a goal that has influence on all other activities in secondary school goals. While other researchers have used either a qualitative or quantitative approach to studying teacher education curriculum design, this research had tried to take a holistic approach by using both in the mixed method approach. In other words, many research works cited in this chapter aimed at answering the question, of what the challenge was. This research went further to answer the question, of why the challenge. Through literature review, it suggested theoretical frameworks that could be used to come up with an effective and relevant teacher education curriculum. Additionally, this study could not have come at any better time than now when the Zambian government is making efforts to introduce as many universities in the country as possible, both public and private, which are and will most likely be preparing teachers in different fields for different levels of education. Thus, the findings of this research may not only provide further guidelines

to this important work but also act as a resource material for teacher education curriculum designers. The following chapter gives a detailed research design and methodology that was used to conduct this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter discusses the research methodology that was used in the study. Strauss and Cobin (1998) explained the importance of methodology as that of providing a sense of vision, in terms of where it is that the researcher wants to do in the research process. The techniques and procedures (methods) provide the means of bringing that vision into reality. This study adopted a mixed method approach to analyse the English Language Teacher Education curriculum designing process, the quality of products, intentions of the curriculum designers and the challenges encountered in the English language teacher education curriculum of the University of Zambia. Educational researchers use several different approaches to study issues related to teacher education curriculum designing based on their orientation and on the issue at stake. In this chapter, the researcher explains how a mixed method inquiry was selected as the methodology in the research study as well as how it guided the direction and the procedures. In addition, the chapter describes and explains the epistemology and the methodology of both the qualitative and the quantitative approaches and the ethical principles which guided the research processes. In addition, the description is given of the research setting and the background issues about the teacher education programme on which the participants in the study were enrolled.

3.1.Paradigm Decisions Influencing the Research Methodology

Before discussing the research design and methodology that this study employed, it is necessary to explain the underlying philosophical research framework that formed the foundation of this study. Researchers, including Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), describe this framework as either a *world view* or a *paradigm*. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006:2) stated that 'without nominating a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods, literature or research design'. As Punch (2009) suggested, this is the theory about methodology and not the substantive nature of the enquiry. There are many definitions of a paradigm (world view) that relate to the foundations of an enquiry and so the following definition was chosen as a good working example as it was thought to be neither overly simplistic nor

complex; "assumptions a researcher makes about reality, how knowledge is obtained and the methods of gaining knowledge" (Creswel & Plano Clark 2011: 21).

Four notable world views or paradigms exist as frameworks with which to view research. It must be understood that these are not rigid but are constantly evolving. These are as follows, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011): Post-positivism, Constructivism, Advocacy and Participatory, and Pragamatism. Punch (2009) suggested that some scholars prefer two main paradigms: positivism and either interpretivism or constructivism. Each of these paradigms takes a different stance on many of the fundamental constituents of any research and its methods. These two predominant approaches that have dominated empirical studies in social sciences in the past (i.e. positivism and interpretivism) have historically oriented social research since its inception and have categorized it into either empiricist or humanist research (Hughes, 1990; Denscombe, 2002). Various other labels have been used to refer to this distinction. The commonly used ones are positivism and interpretivism (Bryman 2004). Denscombe (2002:14) defined positivism as:

> *An approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural science model of research to investigation of social phenomena and explanations of the social world.*

On the other hand, interpretivism is said to be an umbrella term for a range of approaches that reject some of the assumptions held by positivism (Denscombe, 2002). This is a research approach that aims at understanding the complex "life world" from the research participants' own perspectives. This life world is a complex construction of meanings, values, and lived experiences. It is often called "hypothesis generating" because theories "emerge" from the data. These hypotheses that emerge from data analysis inform further data collection. Theories can be formed prior to the research and successfully be elaborated as the process continues. This cycle is repeated many times before the research is finally concluded (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Denscombe (2002:14-15) further identified basic premises that the positivist and the interpretivist positions generally adhere to, as shown in Table 3.1. here below:

Table 3.1

Positivist and Interpretivist Paradigms

POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM
➢ The social world is best explained in terms of cause and effect (Ontology) ➢ There is a presumption that there is an objective reality "out there" waiting to be discovered (Ontology) ➢ There exists a "unity of methods" to reveal and analyse the reality of social life i.e. Scientific method is applicable to all subjects, areas, topics, across all disciplines etc ➢ Theories and explanations have no credibility unless based on observations. ➢ Social research needs to use appropriate tools and techniques to discover and examine the patterns and regularities in the social world. These tools and techniques must not interfere with or influence the observed reality. ➢ In the process of discovering facts, both the human observer and the techniques for measurement are neutral or can be controlled. The researcher is expected to retain a detached, impartial position in relation to what is being observed.	➢ Social reality is something that is constructed and interpreted by people-rather than something that exists objectively "out there" waiting to be observed (Ontology) ➢ Humans react to the knowledge that they are being studied (Epistemology) ➢ Humans react to the knowledge produced by being studies. e.g. if research leads to certain predictions, those with influence responsibility, vested interest might react to the knowledge and activity takes steps to ensure that the predictions do not become a reality. ➢ It is not possible to gain objective knowledge about a social phenomenon because values and expectations of those undertaking research will always influence the outcome. (Epistemology) ➢ Researchers cannot claim to be objective because explanations are inevitably influenced by researchers' expectations and conceptions of the social world. ➢ There is always a scope of altenative and competing explanations, each of which can claim validity. i.e. Interpretivists' accounts are always open to the possibility that another researcher might see things differently and produce a different account.

Source: Adapted from Denscombe (2002:14-22).

These two paradigms have influenced the perception of the distinctions between quantitative and qualitative research visions (Denscombe, 2002). Quantitative research rests upon the positivist assumptions while qualitative research rests upon those assumptions of interpretivism (Herbert, 1990). These are two visions of social reality. In other words they are paradigms which are the perspectives that inspire and direct a given science. Lincoln and Guba (1985: 105) also defined a paradigm as "the basic beliefs or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontological and epistemological fundamental ways". As mentioned earlier, paradigms are vital in guiding the design and conduct of research. Hughes (1990:13) emphasised that:

> *Every research tool or procedure is inextricably embedded in commitments to a particular vision of the world and ways of knowing that world made by researchers using them. To use a questionnaire, an attitude scale of behaviour takes the role of a participant observer; selects a random sample to be involved in conceptions of the world which allow these instruments to be used for the purposes conceived. No technique or method of investigation is self-validating. Its effectiveness and its very status as a research instrument are dependent ultimately, on philosophical justification.*

The research was in agreement with the above quotation and hence the use of several techniques and methods in this research. This study employed a pragmatic world view, a position that was thought to be well suited to mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Pragmatism, also referred to as *what-works* approach, is now a widely accepted paradigm in mixed methods research (Creswell and Plano Clark 2007, Bryman 2007) and Punch (2007:291) believed that "it is the main one". The pragmatic approach prescribes that the research question is of primary importance and should drive the research into whatever areas that seem most appropriate to answer the question at hand (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). This study as mentioned above employed different data gathering methods, both in the quantitative and qualitative paradigms. A question may be asked as to what the rationale to this approach was.

3.2.Rationale for Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methodologies

Qualitative and Quantitative research design are better understood when contrasted with each other in the way that positivism has been contrasted with interpretivism above. This does not in any way suggest that either of the research approaches is not legitimate in its own right, as they do not need to be compared to merit respectability (Creswell, 1998). The two, however, overlap in many cases (Patton 1990). To start with, quantitative research imposes restrictions on the scope of the investigation (Hebert, 1990). This is because of its requirements for rigidly adhering to certain procedures such as sampling procedures and data analysis techniques. Quantitative research is interested in details that can be measured so as to produce the sort of results which can be generalised. It often uses statistical analysis. The assumption of quantitative research, as pointed out by Travers (1969:87), is that "without resort to measurement, knowledge usually lacks precision and is often hopelessly vague."

Generally, quantitative research is considered to be more precise and hence more reliable although the information it gives requires more careful evaluation for meaning (NECO, 1997).

Qualitative research on the other hand tends to be sceptical about the use of 'scientific' methods as statistical analysis for the study of human beings, arguing that data about individuals' feelings, attitudes or judgement are too complex to be quantified (NECO, 1997; Verma and Mallick (1999). Qualitative research, therefore, is concerned with what goes on in social settings. Its goal is "to understand the social phenomenon" (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:373). We could argue that the information that is arrived at in qualitative research is more localised and relative. According to Kirk and Miller (1986), qualitative study is a particular tradition in social science that depends on watching people in their own territory. In contrast with a quantitative study, a qualitative observation identifies either the presence or the absence of something, while a quantitative observation involves measuring the degree to which some feature is present.

Qualitative researchers express a commitment to viewing events and the social world through the eyes of the people that they study. The social world must be interpreted from the perspective of the people being studied, rather than as though those subjects were incapable of their own reflections on the social world (Bryman, 2001). It is no wonder then that qualitative research is identified with Sociology and Anthropology and is seen as naturalistic and participatory (Freebody, 2003; Bryman, 2001). The nature of this study seemed to suit this combination of the two approaches as it seemed to offer the researcher the right options to achieve the objectives and answer the research questions. In order for the researcher to understand the problem that this study was exploring, the research was required to elicit both qualitative and quantitative data, hence the adoption of the pragmatic mixed method paradigm.

3.3.The Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed methods research combines the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data into one empirical study. Besides, it integrates the strengths and minimizes the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Thus the rationale for mixing the two in this study was for the reason that neither quantitative nor qualitative approach was deemed adequate in itself to capture and reveal the details of the situation of the teacher education curriculum designing and the quality of its

products. For instance, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) suggested that quantitative research may be weak in revealing the contexts and situations in which people respond to questions about a certain phenomenon, and as quantitative research is primarily about numbers, participants' explanations are not so important. Qualitative research may be viewed as deficient because personal subjective interpretation may introduce some interviewer bias and it may be difficult to generalize findings of a small sample to a larger population. Mixing research methods is seen as a way of improving some research outcomes as it 'provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5). Thus when carefully used in combination, quantitative and qualitative approaches complement each other and allow for more complete analysis and understanding (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Historically, there have been many different names given to studies which combine both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Punch (2009) suggested that recently there has been agreement on the use of the term mixed methods as an overarching expression that describes the many ways of combining, linking and integrating various approaches. However, mixed methods research is now seen as a distinct and increasingly popular form of research (Punch, 2009). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) also explained that there has been much discussion about the names given to mixing methods of research over the last 50 years but today it is commonly known as mixed methods research. Mixed methods research has several designs. The section that follow explains the research design that was used in this study.

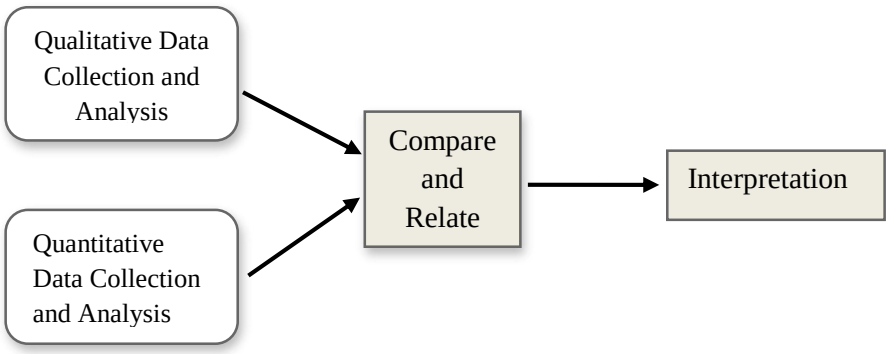
3.4.Research Design

There are six different types of mixed methods designs namely; (i) the explanatory sequential design, (ii) the embedded design, (iii) the convergent parallel design, (iv) the transformative design, (v) the exploratory sequential design and (vi) the multiphase design (Creswell and Clark, 2011). This study used the convergent parallel design. In this design the researcher simultaneously collected both qualitative and quantitative data, compared them, and then used the results to provide answers to the research questions (Creswell, 2012). Creswell (2012) further explained that this design is also appropriate when the researcher is dealing with a research problem whose questions are designed to elicit different types of data as either qualitative or quantitative. For instance, in this study, research questions i and ii and demanded mostly quantitative

data while research questions iii, iv and v elicited quantitative data. The basic rationale for this design is that one data collection form supplies strengths to offset the weaknesses of the other form and that a deeper and probably complete understanding of the research problem is realised. Thus this design provides a platform, on which the researcher collects both qualitative and quantitative data, analyzes them separately, compares the findings from both data sets and makes an interpretation as to whether they support or contradict each other (Creswell, 2012). It is this direct comparison of the data sets which provides a 'convergence' of data sources (Creswell, 2012). Figure 3.1 gives a visual illustration of how the convergent parallel design is applied.

Figure 3.1

Convergent Parallel Design Illustration



Source: Creswell, 2012

Maxcy (2003) explained that in a mixed methods study, there is a need to build the knowledge on pragmatic grounds, asserting that truth is 'what works'. He further explained that often researchers settle for approaches, variables and units of analysis which are most appropriate for the research questions and objectives (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The pragmatism, or simply mixed methods' main principle, is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible. Masaiti (2013) explained that this, by implication, means that both numerical and text data collected either concurrently or sequentially should lead the researcher to understand the research problem. In the design of a mixed methods study, Green and Caracelli (2011) stated that the following three issues need consideration: priority, implementation, and integration. Creswell (2012) explained that 'priority' refers to which method, either quantitative or qualitative, is given more prominence in the study and 'implementation' refers to whether the qualitative and quantitative data or desk review collection and analysis

come in chronological stages or in sequence, one following the another, or in parallel or concurrently. While 'integration' refers to the stage in the research process where the mixing or connecting of quantitative and qualitative data occurs.

As mentioned earlier on, this study employed the mixed methods design: convergent parallel design in which both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. In fact Creswell (2002, 2003 and 2012) consistently mentioned that this is one of the most popular and effective design in educational research. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected in the same period. The quantitative phase was used to find out the extent to which the students on the English language teacher education programme of the University of Zambia had acquired the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools. The data was used to determine the quality of the student teachers on the Bachelor of Arts with Education English language teacher education programme. The qualitative data helped to collect text data through individual interviews with the teacher educators (lecturers), Heads of Departments and Deans. Text data, from the qualitative phase, helped to explain the criteria that was used to arrive at the content that was in the courses on the programme being studied and it was also used to find out the intentions of the designers of the programme so as to establish its relevance with the knowledge and skills that were supposed to be taught in secondary school. The quantitative data and results helped to give a detailed picture of the kind of skills and knowledge that students were exposed to while at university and also to give the researcher an insight into the quality of the graduates the university was graduating. On the other hand, the qualitative data and its analysis helped the researcher to explain and link the statistical outcomes by explaining participants' view in further depth and comparing the two data sets so as to make interpretations and to come to a conclusion.

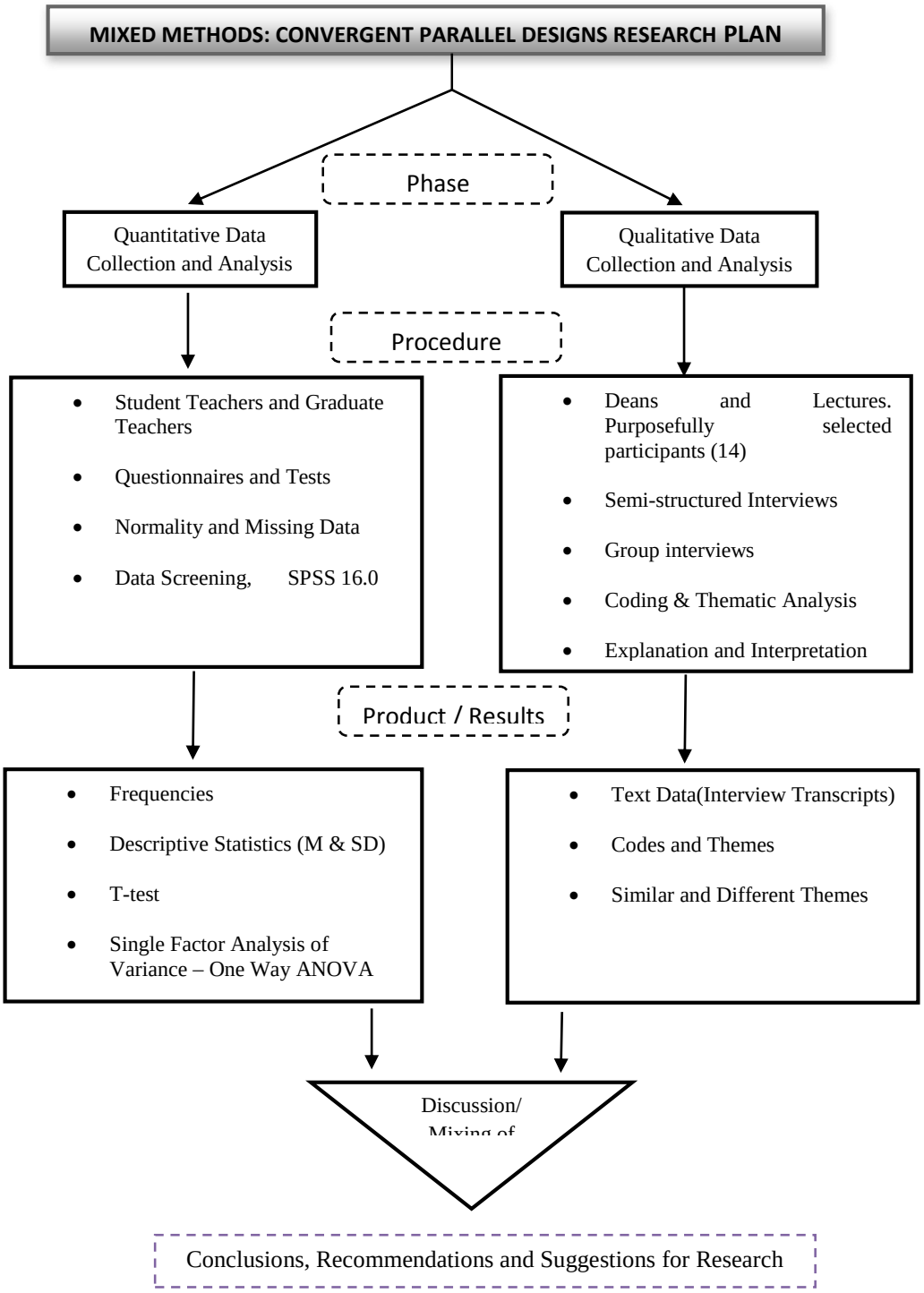
3.4.1. Framing the Research Project (visual model)

Figure 3.2 illustrates a visual model of the convergent parallel mixed methods as it was applied in this study. The model shows the two distinct symmetrical and parallel approaches that the research used. Both qualitative and quantitative phases began with the collection and analysis of data. The model depicts the procedures followed and the kind of results of the data analysis. Details of the procedures are explained in the

preceding sections of this chapter while the findings and the discussion are presented in chapters four and five respectively.

Figure 3.2

A visual plan of the procedures for the Convergent Parallel Design



While the qualitative method shed more light on the quantitative analysis by exploring the research themes the study, as shown in figure 3.2, was predominantly quantitative

since it had the major aspect of data collection. However, both data sets were helpful in realising the objectives. The results of both qualitative and quantitative approaches were then integrated during the discussion of the whole study as detailed in chapter five.

3.4.2. Strengths and Limitations of the Design

Several scholars have widely discussed advantages (or strengths) and limitations (or weaknesses) of the mixed methods research (Creswell 2012; Moghaddam, Walker & Harre, 2003; Haines, 2011; Green & Caracelli, 1997). The strengths of the mixed methods design are;

a. Each of the two methods, qualitative and quantitative, build on the strength of the other since none of them is comprehensive.

b. When variables and procedures are well defined, the mixed methods approach is easy to carry out.

c. One approach may be given more prominence and the other can be complementary depending on the nature of the study. This study was predominately quantitative in the sense that the findings of the qualitative data helped to clarify and confirm those from the quantitative data.

d. The design gives likelihood of understanding the research problem since it facilitates the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time.

The design also has the following limitations:

a. It demands the researcher's ingenuity in order to analyze both data types.

b. Just like any other mixed methods design, the convergent parallel design demands a lot of time to complete it.

c. Mixed methods are likely to confuse the researcher if the problem is not well understood.

d. Discrepancies might occur between qualitative and quantitative findings.

Of the four limitations of the design, Creswell (2003) explained that the fourth one has proved to be the most critical when it comes to data processing and interpretation. Although such discrepancies were not experienced in this study, available literature does not give much guidance on how to resolve the discrepancies and integration challenges (Creswell, 2003). Issues relating to integration of qualitative and quantitative data in one study have, however, been addressed by McConney, Rudd and Ayres (2002) by demonstrating a flexible method of integrating such data that can be suited to particular research studies and situations. With regard to the question of how to resolve possible discrepancies in qualitative and quantitative data, mixed methods researchers such as Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), Patton (2002) and Ritchie (2003) have pointed out that such discrepancies should not necessarily be seen as a problem. Instead they should be regarded as an opportunity rather than a constraint, as they may simply point to the fact that further studies or more work is required to for somebody to understand what is going on, studies which may possibly lead to more interesting findings (Darlington and Scott, 2002). This then confirms the point that Ritchie (2003) made that the purpose of mixing qualitative and quantitative methods is not to get the same results from different angles, but to get an extended understanding of phenomena that neither method alone can facilitate. Hence discrepancies in mixed methods are expected and what matters is how researchers respond to them.

3.5.Target Population

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, this study used a mixed methods approach to analysing the problem of the English language teacher that was identified for investigation. It will thus be appropriate at this point to explain what the target population for this study was before discussing the qualitative and quantitative phases each one in turn. A population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects or events, that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalize the findings. (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006; Newby, 2010). Kombo and Tromp 2006) also explained that a population is the entire set of objects, events or group of people which is the object of research and about which the researcher intends to determine some characteristics. They, in addition, stated that a population also refers to the larger group from which the sample is taken. Kombo and Tromp (2006) further explained that the greater the diversity and differences that exist in the population, the larger the researcher's sample size should be. This is to allow for capturing the

variability in population and hence more reliability of the study. The target population for this study were all the student teachers on the Bachelor of Arts with Education programme studying English language as a teaching subject in the fourth year of the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 cohorts and former students (graduates) from the Bachelor of Arts with Education programme who studied English language as a teaching subject in the last six years from the time this study was done. Student teachers were composed of the in-service and pre-service students. The population also included Deans of the two schools, School of Education and the School of Humanities and Social Sciences of the University of Zambia, all the lecturers who taught content courses of English language and those who taught English teaching methods together with their respective heads of sections.

3.6.The Quantitative Research Phase

In the quantitative phase of this study, there were two research questions which demanded for quantitative data. These were: a) To what extent did the English language teacher education programme have the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools? b) What was the quality of the products (teachers) of the English language teacher education curriculum? The data which helped to answer these two questions was collected by administering questionnaires and tests to student teachers and graduate teachers. Factor variables which contribute to producing an effective teacher of English were indentified. These factors were arrived at mostly through job analysis (details are given in chapter two) of a teacher of English language in Zambian schools. Thus the questions survey questionnaire for this study were designed based on the components of the different competence areas of a teacher of English language.

3.6.1. Questionnaire Development

In order to determine the extent to which the content of the English language teacher education curriculum had been preparing student teachers for teaching in secondary schools, the following areas were covered in the questionnaires based on the student teachers' and graduate teachers': a) confidence to teach after graduation, b) what they had covered in content courses and c) what they had covered in methodology courses (see appendices 2 and 3); These were;

a) Different types of composition

b) Summary

c) Note taking and note making

d) Structure

e) Listening comprehension

f) Speaking

g) Reading comprehension

h) Vocabulary

i) Reading

j) Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation

The questionnaire also included a measurement of the extent to which students had been prepared to use the syllabus and design professional documents such as schemes of work, lesson plans and records of work. The extent to which students had been prepared in educational assessment was also measured. The questionnaire also had items on the coverage of different types of teaching methodology.

These items were measured on a continuous 5-point Likert-type scale in the questionnaire. The questionnaire also had a few open ended questions which were designed to clarify and follow up answers on close-ended questions where there were needed. Demographic characteristics, such as gender and type of student (either in-service or pre-service), were also included in the questionnaire.

3.6.2. Questionnaire Development: Design considerations

One of the major advantages of self-completion survey questionnaires is that they are a totally standardized measuring instrument because the questions are always designed in exactly the same way for each respondent (Sapsford, 2007). This phase was primarily designed to gather facts rather than opinions and so most of the questions were of the close-ended type with specific options provided on a likert-scale as mentioned before. Close-ended questions are more likely to be answered than open-

ended questions in self administered questionnaires (Dillman, Smyth and Christian 2009). Most of the close-ended questions were designed in a table form so as to make them as clear as possible and compelled respondents to choose a response from a scale.

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) explained that close-ended questions have their own set of design requirements that must be considered if the research is to capture quality data. In the questionnaire, many close-ended questions in form of a table were developed to measure such things as levels of confidence to teach, coverage and assimilation of relevant content knowledge in content and methodology courses, and coverage of various teaching methods. Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2009) discussed some of the many design considerations in choosing this type of question; the most relevant ones are summarised here below:

- When a question is included that requires a response to an either/or question, make sure that both sides of the question are included. If that does not occur then there may be a strong bias to the one side that was mentioned.
- When constructing lists ensure that responses are mutually exclusive.
- Asking respondents to rank long lists can be confusing; the longer the list the more confusing and the higher the possibility is of respondents skipping or avoiding answering (that is why this study opted for short tables with descriptions of themes before each one of them).

These and other design recommendations were carefully considered when designing the questionnaires. These design considerations did, in many ways, make the design a bit simpler a process as it added logic to asking questions that required answers that could be analysed.

Where occasional open-ended questions were used they were designed to let the respondent provide additional information which could not have been given if an ordinal scale was used on its own. Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2009) further explained that in order for a survey question to be successful, it must be designed in such a way that every person who is required to answer it can make an attempt at doing so, which may mean simplification to the basic yes or no response. To maximise response rates, questions must be easily understood and so must not double-barrelled in nature; that is, there must be only one issue addressed in each question. If issues and

concepts are referred to, it is necessary to ensure that they are simple terms and are explained in complete sentences. All the above design points were intended to compel the respondents to answer all the questions and provide the researcher with non-ambiguous information. This was a process of refinement that continued during the development process and after the questionnaire testing phase before the instruments were administered to the intended sample.

3.6.3. Assessment Tests

Two assessment tests were developed and administered to two cohorts of the English language students, the 2012/2013 and the 2013/2014 cohorts, in each case within a month before they left for their school experience. For these cohorts, school experience was taken at the end of their programme. Thus at the time they were writing the tests, they had finished all the course work in both content and methodology. For the tests, a second cohort was included so as to determine the quality pattern of performance by students on the programme for at least two consecutive years as opposed to just relying on one cohort. All the two tests were based on what is taught in English language lessons in secondary schools in Zambia where most of the student teachers were expected to go and teach. The first test consisted of items on sentence transformation commonly known as rewrites, pronunciation, punctuation, summary, structure, comprehension and reported speech exercises (see appendix 7). These items were obtained from Grades ten, eleven and twelve pupils' text books that are used in schools and which the Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education had recommended through the Curriculum Development Centre. The second test was a composition exercise which was a Grade twelve 2001 final examination question (see appendix 9). Each of all these tests was marked out of ten and thus the total mark was eighty since there were eight exercises all together.

3.6.4. Reliability and Validity

This section discusses the reliability and validity of the quantitative instruments. Quantitative data was collected using two questionnaires; one for student teachers and the other one for graduate teachers. Assessment tests were designed to obtain quantitative data. In quantitative research, issues of the reliability and validity of the instruments are very important aspects for minimizing errors that might arise from measurement procedures (Ivankova, 2002).

3.6.4.1.Reliability

Reliability of research instruments refers to the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure (Thorndike, 1997; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999; and Creswell, 2012). Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) further stated that reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. For the two questionnaires, the test-retest reliability of the survey instrument was obtained through the pilot testing of the instrument. The questionnaire that was meant for graduate teachers was pre-tested on fifteen UNZA graduate teachers of the English language in Kabwe schools while twenty one questionnaires were piloted among English language university students in the fourth year of the 2011/2012 cohort. Blair and Czaja (2014) advised that each subsequent response and item on the questionnaire, if not well developed, can lead to inaccuracy. They further stated that the success of a questionnaire is measured by the response accuracy in the completion rate to questions and the quality of data collected. Therefore, pretesting of questionnaires in this study was considered as one of the most important strategy of the instrument's designing process. Therefore the piloting of questionnaires for this study was aimed at identifying the following potential problems and challenges:

- Respondents' understanding of the meaning of each question.
- The clarity of the wording and sentence structure.
- The clarity of instructions to respondents.
- The adequacy of response options.
- The logic of the order of sections and questions.
- Design elements that may confuse respondents.

The following comments and suggestions were made by the pilot respondents. They are indicated here below exactly as they were given by respondents.

- The document is generally fine, I see no problems with most of the content, the questions are in plain English, easy to read, however, increase the likert scale from a four point to a five point.

- The only thing I would suggest is that you could add a question about whether the graduates are fully prepared or not so as to get a general picture.
- The numbering system in the tables is cumbersome. Make it uniform.
- Remove the table about the content leant at diploma level, it is not necessary.
- Add the aspect of pre-service and in-service for student teachers since some of them have diplomas in Education already, this can help to make good comparisons.

These were the suggestions that were made and all of them were incorporated into the survey. This stage of testing questionnaires identified possible areas where participants could have encountered difficulties and the researcher collected useful suggestions for improving the questions. Thus, piloting of the questionnaires was designed to make the instruments as robust as possible. Reliability of the results was done mainly through factor analysis in which the Cronbach's alpha (α) values were used to check the reliability of the quantitative instruments (confidence to teach, content courses, methodology courses, preparation of professional documents and types of teaching methods). With coefficients ranging from 0.00 to 1.00, the larger indices indicated a higher degree of reliability. The Cronbach's alpha (α) for the two questionnaires were as follows;

Table 3.2

Cronbach's alpha for questionnaire items

	Confidence to teach	Content Courses	Teaching Methodology Courses	Preparation of Professional Documents	Types of Teaching Methods
Student Teachers	0.91	0.80	0.74	0.81	0.78
Teachers	0.94	0.82	0.75	0.80	0.83

These values are acceptable measures of reliability because they are more than 0.70, the thresh hold value of acceptability as a measure of reliability. The tests were not subjected to any reliability testing because they had been obtained from pupils textbooks that had been written by experts in the area and these text books had been rigorously evaluated before they were declared suitable for use in schools. Thus the

researcher trusted the quality of the exercises and the final examination questions that were used in this study.

3.6.4.2. Validity

Validity refers to the level to which an instrument truthfully reflects or assesses the precise concept or construct that the researcher is attempting to measure (Mertler & Vannatta, 2010). Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) further explained that validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on the research results. In other words, validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Content validity, which is the measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents a specific domain of indicators of content of a particular concept, was in this study established with the help of English language teacher education experts at the University of Zambia. Thus in this case experts ensured that the questions were representative of the possible questions about teacher education curriculum designing. Construct validity, on the other hand, is a measure of the degree to which the data obtained using an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflects or represents a theoretical concept. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) explained that to assess construct validity, there should exist in a study a theoretical foundation regarding the concept to be measured. The measurement thus should conform to the theoretical expectations in order for the instruments to have construct validity. This study was supported by three theoretical foundations of curriculum designing that have been explained in chapter two. The three theoretical foundations helped the researcher to identify the correct concepts for measurement. Moreover, construct validity was also established with the help of English language teacher education experts at the University of Zambia. The questionnaires were given to them so that they could make comments on the extent to which all the relevant concepts were accurately captured in the instruments. This helped to assess whether the questions which demanded quantitative data were appropriate for the concepts they were aimed to measure, and if they had been well constructed.

3.6.5. Data Collection Procedures

Rudestam and Newton (2001) stated that a description of procedures of data collection should not only explain how the data were collected but should also mention how

access to research sites and population were obtained and the exact steps taken to contact research participants and to gain their co-operation. Following this advice, the researcher does not only describe the population, its sample and how data was collected in this section but he also explains how access to the sample was gained.

3.6.5.1.Sampling Procedure

A sample was defined by Bless and Achola (1988) as the sub-set of the whole population which is actually investigated by a researcher and whose characteristics will be generalized to the entire population. The target population in this study was student teachers on the Bachelor of Arts with Education taking English as the teaching subject, former graduates from the same programme who had graduated from UNZA in the last six years from the time this study was being done and their lecturers in both the subject content and teaching methods courses. For the purpose of the quantitative phase of the study a purposively drawn sample were selected from fourth year student teachers who were taking English language as the teaching subject. Kombo and Tromp (2006) confirmed that in purposive sampling, the researcher purposely targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study and thus the power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information rich cases related to the central issues being studied. Kombo and Tromp (2006) further explained that purposive sampling can be used with both quantitative and qualitative studies since it can be carried out in addition to probability sampling. This type of purposive sampling has been referred to by Kombo and Tromp (2006) as *critical case purposive sampling* since it looks for critical cases that can make a critical point in the study. Fourth year students were selected as part of the sample because these had done all the courses on the programme and were thus in a better position to give valuable data on the relevance and coverage of the curriculum that they had just gone through. Moreover, students were the direct beneficiaries of the teacher education curriculum and thus their views on the programme were regarded as critical to the study.

In the case of the test, the sample was taken from two cohorts, the 2012/2013 cohort comprised 82 students while the 2013/2014 cohort had 78 students. In both cohorts the number of participants was less than the actual class size because some students did not take part in all the tests thus their responses were not included during analysis on account of incompletion (see table 3.3). This was not a problem to the study because

the data that was collected, from the students who took part in the study, was sufficient. All the students who were willing to participate in the study were asked to fill in a consent form as a way of getting their consent (see appendix 1).

As for the sample for graduate teachers, the following process was followed. A list of 250 teachers of English who were teaching in secondary schools and had graduated from UNZA in the last six years before the time the study was conducted was generated through the Human Resource Office of the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) in Lusaka. The list also included the teachers' school name and their mobile phone numbers where it was possible. Generating this list was a very difficult task since the office of DEBS, Lusaka, had just been updating its records at the time. It took the researcher almost four months to access a complete list. Sampling was then employed to group participants into strata of male and female. Cluster sampling was preferred here to ensure that both male and female were represented in the sample. Simple random sampling was then used to sample sixty (60) teachers from each cluster giving the sample a total of one hundred and twenty (120) teachers. In order to arrive at a sample of 60 from each cluster each member was assigned a number and then, using a computer programme, 60 teachers were randomly selected from each group.

3.6.5.2.Access to Research Sites and Data Collection

The researcher obtained permission from the Dean, School of Education, UNZA to collect data from students on the English language Bachelor of Arts with Education programme. Permission was also sought from the District Education Board Secretary's office to conduct the study in secondary schools in Lusaka district (see appendixes 12 and 13). The two tests were administered to student teachers after they had willingly agreed to take part in the study; this was confirmed by them filling in a consent form. The time to write the first test was suggested by the students themselves since they were also taking other courses on the programme. The first cohort wrote the first test on a Saturday, when all were free to do so, while the second cohort invited the researcher to give the test during one of the lecture hours when. Not all the students in these cohorts were willing to take part in the writing of the test for reasons best known to themselves. However, all of them agreed to answer the questionnaire items. It is important to note that the questionnaire was distributed only to the first cohort. After the researcher had explained the purpose of the study, students were given a chance to

ask questions before those who were willing to take part in the study filled in the consent form. Table 3.3 shows the numbers and percentages of students who sat for the tests.

Table 3.3

Status of administered tests

		Number of Students who sat for the Tests					
Cohort	Total in Cohort	Pre-service	In-service	Male	Female	Total	%
2012/13	115	39	43	40	42	82	71
2013/14	102	38	40	37	41	78	77
	217	77	83	77	83	160	74

Distribution and collection of questionnaires for graduate teachers around schools in Lusaka were the most tedious, time consuming, expensive and challenging tasks. The researcher was assisted to do this task by two research assistants whom he had recruited and trained in the basic ethics and procedures of collecting data using a questionnaire. In order to ensure that the research assistants did the right thing the researcher did not only train them but also ensured that they were recruited from among master of education students at UNZA, school of education, who at the time had done a course in research methodology. The researcher made prior appointments with all the teachers by visiting the schools where it was possible and also by phone where it was far and in cases where teachers were not found in the school at the time of the planning. This planning made the data collection exercise lighter although the distribution of questionnaires was easier than collecting them. In some cases, the researchers had to go back to the school two or three times before a questionnaire was retrieved. Before a questionnaire was given to the teacher, permission was sought to do so through the head teacher or the deputy head teacher. Going through the head teacher was not only for permission's sake but it also helped the researchers to collect the questionnaire from the teacher in those cases where the teacher was not found in school since the head teacher or the deputy would collect it.

Table 3.4

Status of questionnaire distribution and returns

Participants	Given	Returned	%
Graduate Teachers	120	96	80.0
Student Teachers	114	111	97.4
Total	234	188	80.3

From table 3.4, it is shown that initially 120 questionnaires were given to graduate teachers and only 96 (80.0%) were completed and returned although 14 were discarded, due to incompleteness, at the time of analysis so that the actual number that was subjected to analysis was 82. As for student teachers, 114 were distributed and 111 (97.4%) were returned while 5 were also discarded at analysis owing to incompleteness of data and inconsistencies which were realised during the test for normality as explained later on. Thus 106 were the ones that were analysed. As can be observed from table 3.4, the distribution and returns of the questionnaire from the surveyed institutions shows a combined response rate of 80.3 per cent (n=188).

3.6.6. Data Analysis

Data analysis for questionnaires was preceded by a statistical scrutiny of the quantitative data. Data screening helped in identifying potential abnormalities in the data (Ivankova, 2002). For instance, a normality test was thus used to determine whether the data had a normal distribution and to determine how likely an underlying random variable was to be normally distributed. It was also discovered that some respondents just routinely rated a particular experience. Thus based on this observation some of the questionnaires were not included in the analysed data as explained earlier.

Respondents' responses to items in the two questionnaires were analysed by means of a combination of descriptive and inferential statistics. Quantitative data in questionnaires were mainly answering the research question; 'To what extent did the English language teacher education programme had the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools?' The five point likert-scale tables had demanded respondents to indicate the extent to which they were confident to teach different aspects of English language at the time of graduation and

the coverage of the same aspects in content and methodology courses. The use and availability of professional materials such as syllabus and the coverage of different teaching methods were also measured in the same way.

For data regarding their confidence to teach, content and methodology coverage of different aspects of English language, an independent samples t-test was used to compare the in-service and pre-service mean scores so as to determine the students' coverage and understanding of the different aspects of the English language as it is taught in secondary school. The t-tests also showed if there was any significant difference in the student teachers' and teachers' coverage of the English language teacher education curriculum contents of the different aspects of English language teaching in Zambia. The data was further analyzed to compare the teachers and student teachers in their confidence to teach, coverage of content and methodology aspects using single factor analysis of variance (One Way ANOVA) test. This facilitated to give a clear picture of the teachers' and student teachers' experiences on the English language teacher education curriculum coverage of different aspects of the English language as it is taught in schools. More specifically, ANOVA was targeted to find out in the areas in which the respondents were better or worse among the three, i.e., confidence to teach, content coverage and teaching methodologies. Student teachers' general perception of the emphasis on skills that are relevant for teaching as they covered them in the whole teacher education programme were analysed by the use of frequencies and percentages. Data on the adequacy of the participants' preparedness in applying types of teaching methods and designing of professional materials was analysed using independent samples t-tests too.

The other research question which needed quantitative data was; how was the quality of products (teachers) from the English language teacher education curriculum? As mentioned earlier on, this question demanded eliciting of data by way of administering tests to two consecutive cohorts of student teachers. The raw data scores from the tests were analysed using the minimum, maximum, range and mean of the scores, out of ten for each skill that student teachers got in the tests that they wrote in various aspects of the secondary school English language. It was further analysed using independent samples t-tests so as to compare the performance of in-service and pre-service students.

3.7.The Qualitative Research Phase

Qualitative research lends itself to describing *what is going on* with a specific topic, as well as presenting a detailed analysis of a topic as it is in its natural setting (Creswell, 2002). However, as earlier mentioned, the use of quantitative methods to examine a phenomenon calls for the use of predetermined categories of analysis that may undermine levels of depth, detail, and openness (Patton, 2002). Those constraints could hinder the development of a holistic examination of the teacher education curriculum design. Contributing towards qualitative inquiry, Patton (1985) explained that:

> *Qualitative research is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting…the analysis strives for depth of understanding (Patton, 1985:1).*

It has been stressed that qualitative research methods can provide a deeper understanding of social phenomenon under study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:10);

> *Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Researchers seek answers on how social experiences are created and given meanings.*

Combined with quantitative methods as the case is with this study, qualitative inquiry would help answer the research questions of what is going on in a particular activity setting by examining the experiences and views of the subjects under study within a professional activity system. Two research questions, iii and iv, demanded qualitative data, these were;

- What were the intentions of the curriculum designers for the teacher education programme for English language?

- What criteria were followed in selecting the content for courses in the English teacher education curriculum?

This next section describe the sampling procedure for the qualitative phase.

3.7.1. Sampling Procedure

According to Silverman (2005) qualitative research designs tend to work with a relatively small number of cases. It has been noted that qualitative researchers "are prepared to sacrifice scope for detail" (Silverman, 2005: 9). The detail in qualitative research is found in the precise particulars of such matters as people's views, values and opinions. This is because qualitative research tends to use a constructivist model of reality.

Qualitative research uses non-probability sampling as it does not aim to produce a statistically representative sample or to draw statistical inferences. In this phase of the study purposive sampling was employed in identifying the participants, which demanded strategically selecting individuals to facilitate understand the central phenomenon (Creswell, 2012: McMillan & Schumacher, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The idea was to purposefully select informants who would answer the research questions and who were "information rich" persons (Patton, 1990). With a purposive sample, the number of participants in a study is less important than the criteria used to select them (Creswell, 2012). The characteristics of individuals were thus used as the basis for the selection of the research participants.

Flick (2002:87) expressed similar ideas as he stated that:

> *What is decisive for choosing one sampling strategy over the other is whether it is rich in relevant information. Sampling decisions always fluctuate between the aims of covering as wide a field as possible and of doing analyses that are as deep as possible. The former strategy seeks to represent the field in its diversity by using as many different cases as possible. The latter strategy, on the other hand, seeks to further permeate the field and its structure by concentrating on single examples or certain sectors of the field. Considering limited resources (human power, money, time etc.) these aims should be seen as alternatives rather than projects to combine.*

This statement by Flick (2002) was taken as very crucial in the study. In particular, the researcher targeted the two deans from the schools that serviced the programme under study, and ten lecturers; five from content courses and five from methodology courses were purposively sampled. Merriam (1998:61) suggested that "purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which most can be learned". Purposive sampling means that the "researcher handpicks the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of his/her judgement of their typicality" (Cohen *et al.,* 2000: 103). Lecturers and heads of sections from the two schools were purposively sampled because they were the ones who taught the students on the programme under investigation and they were the ones who designed the courses.

Fourth year students were also targeted because they were thought to be in a better position to have understood the programme since they had done all the courses and thus would be able to make honest and critical views about the programme. The researcher also involved convenient sampling by selecting student teachers who showed willingness to participate in the group interview. This was done on the assumption that it was going to be unethical to force individuals to participate in the study after they had spent their time writing the tests. It was also a way of getting a sample that would willingly express their views.

3.7.2. Interviews

The primary technique used in conducting semi-structured interviews with three categories of respondents which included Deans, lecturers and student teachers was triangulation. Triangulation of different data sources is important in qualitative data collection as it helps in comparing and contrasting information from different sources (Creswell, 1998; Creswell, 2010). Thus the Interview Protocol included open-ended questions which could facilitate further probing.

3.7.2.1.Semi-structured interviews with Deans and Lecturers

The semi-structured interview (see appendix 4) was one of the techniques used to collect data from Deans and lecturers in this study. Interviews consisted of oral questions asked by the interviewer and oral responses made by the research participants. Interviews typically involve just one respondent at a time, but there is

increasing interest in conducting group interviews as it was done in this study with student teachers. Respondents own words, and their responses were recorded by the interviewer, for later transcription. The recorded interviews also facilitated the extracting of verbatim expressions from the interviewees. While the respondents were expressing themselves the researcher took handwritten notes as well.

Sapsford (2007) stated that a semi-structured interview does not have a standard format but there is an agenda that is used as a reminder to ensure that all the basic points are covered. The advantage is that semi-structured interviews can give greater depth than a questionnaire, because the researcher can probe or encourage respondents to elaborate their answers and also can crosscheck information. By this strategy, one is able to pursue useful information by asking questions relating to why and how a given phenomenon occurs. The researcher used Sapsford's observation convinced that it would work by probing more on the issues of the intentions of the two schools in designing the programme and the criteria followed in selecting the content of the courses on the programme which the two qualitative research questions were trying to address. Sarantakos (2005) noted that an interview guide or schedule is developed around a list of topics without fixed wording or fixed ordering of questions. The context of the interview is focused on the issues that are central to the research questions, but the type of questioning and discussion allow for greater flexibility than does the survey questionnaire. Creswell (2012) observed that the advantage of the interview guide is that it ensures that basically the same information is obtained from a number of people by covering the same material. The interview guide helps make interviewing across a number of different people more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting in advance the issue or issues to be explored. The content of the interview guide was based on the research questions in line with the research objectives. The interviews were conducted wherever the respondents felt most convenient and comfortable. However, all lecturers and heads of sections preferred to use their offices. This worked to the advantage of the interview because they could access information from their files which were readily available in the offices. During the interview process, the researcher was able to probe further as well as to counter-check some of the major and interesting issues arising from the responses.

3.7.2.2.Group Interviews with student teachers

Group interviews (appendix 5) were conducted at the end of the student teachers' tests. The researcher used them to find out what participating students had experienced and what they thought about the tests they had written in relation to what they were expected to teach in secondary school and the content that they had been learning at university since the researcher had mentioned to them that the tests they had just written had been taken from secondary school pupils' books.

French et al., (2001:132) explained that group interviews are interviews where-by "several participants are interviewed at the same time and place". Such interviews are useful in evaluating educational programmes such as the Teacher Education Curriculum that has been running for a long time in a university. In this case, the groups interviewed comprised student teachers who were the direct beneficiaries of the curriculum. This is in line with what Patton (2002) and Cohen et al. (2000) recommended that this type of interview is most effective when used among participants who have had presumably the same understanding and experience of the phenomenon being studied. A major disadvantage of group interviews, as Gillham (2000) and French et al. (2001) explained is that if the groups consist of participants of different statuses, it is possible for the 'high status' members to dominate or inhibit the views of other members of the group. It is therefore important to ensure either that there are no marked differences in the statuses of participants or that the interviews are managed skilfully to reduce the likelihood that some group members will dominate the discussion (Gillham, 2000). In this study, all the participants in the group interviews were fourth year students who had been together since they had enrolled on the programme being studied and were thus similar in social status.

3.7.3. Document analysis

Weiss (1998:260) suggested that documents are "a good place to search for answers. They provide a useful check on information gathered in an interview." He further added that when "other techniques fail to resolve a question, documentary evidence can provide a convincing answer." Another similar view by Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:156) about document evidence is that "it would be hard to conceive of anything approaching ethnographic account without some attention to documentary material in use". Apart from providing evidence, Weiss (1998) has noted that document analysis

also allows the analyst to become thoroughly familiar with the materials and helps to save on time. The usefulness of documents as research tools is that they help corroborate and strengthen the evidence gathered using other tools such as questionnaires, tests and interviews as was the case with this study. Guba and Lincoln (1982) supported this view as they stated that documents serve as checks and balances to the truth and falsity of the information obtained from interviews.

This study made use of document analysis. The documents analysed consisted largely of the English language senior secondary school syllabus and course outlines for the English language teacher education curriculum. These were used to compare with what respondents gave in questionnaires and interviews especially on the coverage of content areas that were relevant for teaching in secondary schools and on the aims of the programmes under investigation.

However, Patton (2002) warned that existing documents should be used with caution. It is important to determine their authenticity and accuracy before using them, since it is possible that the information that organisations release to members of the public might differ from that which they keep in their own files (Mason, 2002; Merriam, 1998 & Patton, 2002). As these authors indicated, once questions of authenticity and accuracy have been considered, existing documents can be used in much the same way as data from interviews and observations. In order to ensure authenticity of the secondary school syllabus, the researcher bought the English school syllabus from the Curriculum Development Centre, a Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education department that has the legal mandate of developing school syllabi, and used the university school hand books for course outlines, having gotten permission from heads of sections.

3.7.4. Qualitative Data Analysis

Creswell (2012) contended that qualitative research is based on the theoretical and methodological principles of interpretive science. As a result, qualitative analysis might involve a minimum of quantitative measurement, standardization and mathematical techniques. Its process brings together collection and analysis of data in such a way that identifying data automatically involve the analysis, which in turn directs the area in which data should be sought and identified in order to be analysed again. This process leads to the development of new concepts and theories by relating evidence to abstract concepts and to theory generation. In this standard form, analysis

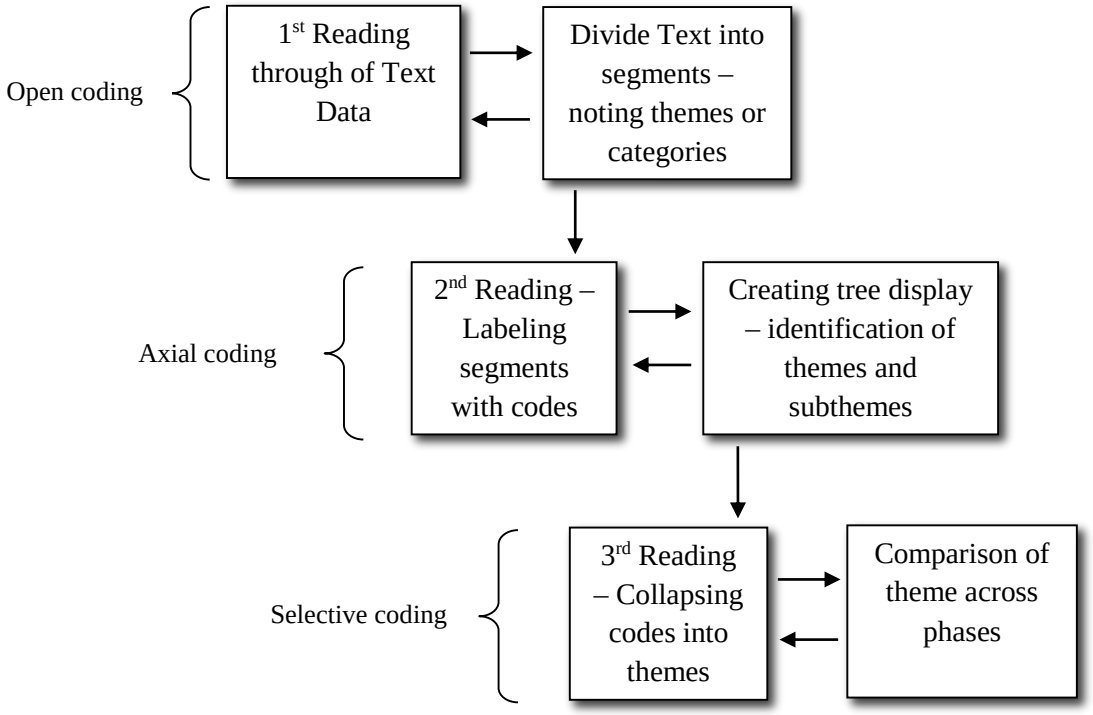
goes together with data collection and evaluation. While more data are collected analysis continues and evaluation and interpretation follow, and the circular process is repeated themes all units have been studied and the research issue is saturated (Sarantakos, 2005).

For this type of traditional qualitative research, data collection, analysis and evaluation are done at the same time. Nevertheless, for some researches and a number of studies, qualitative analysis is also performed, in part, after the completion of the collection stage of the study. In such cases, the result of the collection process ends up with a large amount of data. In this study, most of the analysis was done during data collection and the rest of it was done after the completion of the collection process. One of the biggest challenges that the researcher faced in analyzing this data was the process of synthesizing all the large volumes of interviews and the quantity of information which was collected. This made the task overwhelming. This difficulty involved in the actual transcription and the lengthy amount of time it took to complete even just one single interview transcription was overwhelming. However, with time and determination, it was realized that despite appearing intimidating at first, transcription is a skill which became easier with practice. It is this realization that made the completion of the exercise possible. Secondly, the use of research questions as a guide to analyzing different types of data also helped the researcher in grouping data of the same theme with less difficulty.

Once all transcriptions were done, the researcher did all the analysis manually, using the constant comparative method (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994; Neuman, 2003; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Neuman (2003) explained, that the constant comparative method involves mainly making three passes through the data. The first one called *open coding* required reading through the data as carefully as possible while noting the themes or categories which are referred to as codes which were there. The second pass through the data, called *axial coding*, involved trying to see how the categories already identified were related, so that major categories and sub-categories could be identified. This helped the researcher to assess how major categories related to each other and their subcategories as Neuman (2003) had observed. The final stage, called *selective coding*, was intended to bring together the themes identified in the data to determine how they related together. This process could be visualized as in figure 3.3 that follows;

Figure 3.3

Visual model of the Constant Comparative Method of Qualitative Data Analysis



Following the procedure in the model, each transcript was read through a number of times so as to relate different themes which would later be used to structure the presentation and discussion of results supported with appropriate verbatim quotes.

In general, qualitative analysis is not as abstract as quantitative analysis, and is not guided by a large body of formal language. During data analysis the researcher searches for patterns of data, for example, in the form of recurrent behaviours or events.

When such patterns are identified, the researcher interprets them, moving from description of empirical data to interpretation of meanings.

3.7.5. Validity and reliability of data

Establishing credibility of data is extremely essential in qualitative surveys. Here the criteria for judging a qualitative study differ from that used to judge quantitative research. The four primary forms used in this qualitative phase of the study were: in the fore was triangulation – converging different sources of information (interviews, documents); then member checking – getting the feedback from the participants on the accuracy of the data, followed by providing rich, thick description and lastly external

audit – asking a person from outside the project to conduct a thorough review and report back (Creswell, 2003; Creswell, 2002; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

In qualitative research, therefore, validity and reliability are terms loaded with meanings and connotations as a result of the way they are used by quantitative researchers (Flick, 2002). Valid data in qualitative research is 'data that actually does get at what one aims to find out through data collection' (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). In the case of this study, it is important to note that the data collected was meant to get at the designing and partly implementation processes of the English language teacher education curriculum. A careful designing of research tools was done to make sure that the data collected was valid. This involved refining the questions that were thought to be ambiguous to the extent that they had to be clear. The research tools were also subjected to refinement after testing them on other lecturers who had taught at the University of Zambia in the school of education and school of humanities and social sciences but had joined Zambian Open University and Mulungushi University as lecturers. Group interview guides were also tested on some former students from Kabwe district to make sure that they were comprehensive, appropriate and ready for use on student teachers. Any ambiguities that were observed during the piloting process were corrected.

Reliability in qualitative research involves collecting data from different participants while making sure that participants' understanding of what is asked of them is as close as possible to what the researcher mean, as well as being as close as possible to the research participants (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). In this case, different participants should understand the same interview questions in the same way. To ensure reliability an attempt was made to talk to all student teacher participants at the same time, to read to them all the questions and find out if they understood what each question was asking. Where participants expressed ignorance of the issues the question was addressing, explanations were made to the whole group.

The other aspects of validity and reliability take the form of the credibility and trustworthiness of the data. Most researchers aspire that others who read their research report should have confidence in their data and should have good grounds for respecting its integrity (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). In this sense, sound research will only be produced from good quality data. One of the ways to ensure quality of data is to check with research participants to ensure that what researcher has as data is

what the participants meant and not otherwise. In this study, the quality of data was subjected to participant checking. This involved showing participants the data assembled from the tools and asking them to verify if what had been recorded was what they had meant. Where participants rejected the data, the clarification that they gave was instead added to replace the misconstruction from the assembled data. Importantly, participants confirmed that the data that had been captured from them reflected their views and experiences. Attempts were made to minimise the amount of variation in the research instruments so that reliable and valid data could be obtained.

To further check the trustworthiness of the data in this study, the approach that was adopted was that of using a number of tools for data collection. The participants were given interview schedules, tests, and questionnaires. Document analysis was also done. Issues that were addressed by the data collection tools were similar so as to address the bigger picture of the study. This was done so that the strategy could act as some kind of triangulation.

In summary, qualitative research is characterized by the fact that it is not as standardized and structured as quantitative research. It is interwoven with data collection and employs diverse methods.

3.8.Ethical Considerations

The researcher maintained and acknowledged his responsibility to the educational research community by adhering to appropriate ethical conduct throughout the entire process of the study. Ethical concerns are a very important component of any social research. Cohen *et al.,* (2000:347) explained that:

> *Ethical concerns encountered in Educational research in particular can be extremely complex and subtle and can frequently place researchers in a moral predicament, which may appear quite irresolvable.*

In educational research and other social research, therefore, ethics is concerned with ensuring that the interests and the well-being of research participants are not harmed as a result of research being done (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). Harm can range from people experiencing affronts to their dignity and being hurt by conclusions that are drawn about them all the way through to having their reputations or credibility undermined publicly (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). This aspect was particularly important for this study because student teachers were given tests that were taken from secondary school pupils' books whose results, as indicated in chapter four, were quite

poor. Researchers would harm the individuals or groups they studied when research participants experience anxiety, stress, guilt and damage to self-esteem during data collection and in the interpretations made from the data they provide. Therefore, this study paid attention to ethical considerations that were meant to protect those who were involved in the research, some of whom would not be able to represent themselves in the event that their views were misrepresented. This was also very important for this study since the researcher dealt with students some of whom might have been students in the courses that he taught. Thus when administering tests, questionnaires, interviews and doing document analysis for this research and all throughout this research project, it was considered imperative that ethical issues were taken into consideration and followed. The ethical issues that governed the design and conduct of this study are discussed in this section here below.

3.8.1. Researcher and participant relationship

At the time of collecting data from students in the university, the researcher noted that the research study being carried could have led to the researcher having close relationships with some participants. This was the case because some of the questions students asked suggested that some informal relationship was likely to be established. Paradoxically, the closer the researcher gets to the participants, the higher the chances that the participants will feel freer to express themselves (Creswell, 2002). This is good for research as it is likely to reduce the artificial behaviour of participants when they are not familiar with the researcher. However, this calls to being careful when building such relationships with research participants. It was realized that, to some extent, this was beneficial for the researcher because it helped to approach the participants as equals. It also helped to minimize power relations that mostly work to the disadvantage of the researcher. This is the case because in most cases a researcher seem to have more powers and participants would not feel very free to express themselves. It is particularly the case in African societies where boundaries of power are highly adhered to and elder people are supposed to be treated with deference. This treatment would mean that those with less power would hold back some information to some research questions. That is where it was thought equal power relations and the closeness to the participants helped in a way. However, this does not mean that there was no professional boundary between the participants and the researcher. The

researcher operated on common sense judgment and always withdrew from situations that would bring unethical closeness.

Patton (2002) observed that in interviews, informants may feel embarrassed about the opinions they hold or because they do not hold opinions on matters about which the interviewer expects them to have opinions. To avoid the probable fear of embarrassing participants in this study, it was made sure that participants took part in the study on their own volition without force of any kind. They were also told that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. It was also made clear that they participated because they had felt that they would be able to answer most of the questions that the study was addressing. In addition, the fact that respondents did not have to be identified by names meant that their contribution to the study would not necessarily betray who they were.

3.8.2. Time and validity of research design

"Qualitative research inquiry which takes the form of naturalistic inquiry takes the researcher into the real world where people live and work, and may be more intrusive and involve greater reactivity" (Patton, 2002: 407). In addition, data collection can be time consuming and participants can easily be made to feel under pressure, inadequate, invaded and so on (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004). In this study, most of the ethical considerations such as risk to the participants, reciprocity, and confidentiality were addressed as explained later in the sections below. The informed consent form that participants signed, especially students, when they agreed to participate in this study (see appendix 1) illustrate the precautions that were made to obtain informed consent from participants. Therefore, these ethical considerations were taken so as to make the participant aware of the time that the study may demand from them.

Another ethical issue that needed consideration in this study involved the study having a valid research design. This was necessary because poorly designed studies may waste participants' time and often lead to refusal to participate in other research studies. Mertens (1998) reminded researchers that faulty research is not only a waste of time and money but also cannot be conceived as being ethical because it does not contribute to the well being of the participants. In order to come up with a valid research design for this study, the researcher read widely and made consultations with other scholars on teacher education curriculum designing, mixed methods research

designs and theoretical foundations of curriculum designing. The literature read provided appropriate grounding to design what was thought a valid research.

3.8.3. Assurance of confidentiality

Each time the researcher met new participants and respondents he revealed his full identity to them. In any research study, the researcher is charged with the duty of assuring that the privacy of research participants is guaranteed and upheld (Patton, 2002). This is done to make sure that participants are not easily identifiable in a research project and as a way of minimizing any repercussions on the participants in light of the results from any study, particularly when the results do lead to some controversial and sensitive findings.

It should be noted that the need for participant' privacy in this study was necessary. In the first place, some student teachers tests were graded and some students including lecturers may have thought that the university might reprimand them for expressing what could be considered as 'unpopular' views during the interviews. They may have thought that by expressing their views on the quality of the teacher education curriculum designing process, they were criticizing their fellow lecturers and the university as a whole. As a way of assuring that participants would remain anonymous, participants in the study were not referred to by name. This is a traditional ethical requirement aimed at minimizing negative repercussions for participants in light of the outcomes of the study.

It must, however, be pointed out that assuring confidentiality and anonymity may actually be quite difficult to put into practice in some research. This is the case where some institutions or participants may be readily identifiable because they may have unique features which make them easily recognizable (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). These features may be recognized as the researcher describes the settings of the study and the profiles of research participants. In this study, efforts were made to ensure that the presentation of findings did not enable readers to easily identify the participants by name by referring to the participants' official position, such as head of section, student teacher etc. However, it was pointed out to participants, especially Deans and lecturers, of the possibility of being identified even though their names were not to be used. In such cases the participants were asked if they were still willing to be part of the study. One participant expressed concern that her views about

the quality of students graduating from UNZA may not be appreciated, but she still accepted to take part in the study. It would appear that this particular member of staff would have opted out of the study had it been that there were a number of other who had felt uncomfortable.

3.8.4. Reciprocity

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:112) noted that "research is best practised as a two-way street". The goodwill and generosity of research participants can be reciprocated with favours and commitments on the part of the researcher. This action has been commended for helping to build a sense of mutual identification (Glazer, 1982). This has been further commended because it demonstrates the researcher honouring the contribution of participants rather than taking it for granted and actively seeking to put something back in return for what has been requested (Lankshear and Knobel, 2004).

The issue of whether or not to compensate research participants in cash or kind as a way of reciprocity is controversial because compensation can affect the level and quality of data (Patton, 2002). It is also recommended that compensation should also be discouraged on the grounds that it may induce unnecessarily 'favourable' responses from participants with a view of pleasing the researcher. Researchers must do the best to make sure that efforts in ensuring reciprocating research participants does not affect the quality of data (Patton, 2002).

In this study the researcher did not intend to make any monetary compensation to participants as a way to return favours. In the first place, the money was not there. If anything, money was needed more to help with other research logistics other than compensating participants. It must be mentioned that one participant asked if the researcher was going to pay him at the end of the research. It was reasoned with the participant that there was going to be no monetary reward. Further, it was made known that this research was purely academic and it would benefit participants in the sense that they might be helping to improve our understanding of teacher preparation.

Patton (2002:415) suggested that offering complete transcriptions of interviews or copies of interview tapes to participants demonstrates that researchers 'value what participants give by offering something in exchange'. In this study, participants were asked whether they wanted to cross-check transcriptions of interviews. Copies of interview schedules were also provided to participants and the researcher asked them if

there was anything they wanted to add. It was assumed that the actions that were taken were in line with the right steps of reciprocating the favours from the participants. However, not all the participants were able to cross-check the data transcripts.

3.9.Setting of the English Language Teacher Education Curriculum

Since 1966, the University of Zambia through the School of Education has been preparing teachers of English language and other subjects for secondary schools and quite recently, in 1995, for primary schools as well. Moreover, for a very long time the University of Zambia has been the only institution preparing teachers of English at degree level for senior secondary school while Colleges of Education that have their diploma programmes affiliated to the University of Zambia through the School of Education prepare teachers for junior secondary school at diploma level. Thus, the University of Zambia has been playing a leading role in Teacher Education in Zambia for a long time. Teacher education at the University of Zambia follows a model which can be described as concurrent, meaning that student teachers study both subject content courses, methodology and educational or professional courses at the same time. The English language teacher education curriculum is part of the Bachelor of Arts with Education degree programme whose entry requirement is a school certificate of the quality of at least five 'O' levels. Students are registered in the School of Education. However, the school of education does not have expertise in terms of lecturing staff in the subject content courses but relies on the expertise from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences that design such courses and do the teaching. Table 4.18 in chapter four has depicted the number of courses that students take from the school of education and the number of courses that they take from the school of humanities and social sciences in the department of literature and languages. This is the situation with most subject content areas on the Bachelor of Arts with Education.

3.10. Areas of difficulty and challenge in the study

One of the challenges faced by the researcher in this project was the fact that he had studied the programme and had gotten information from students and lecturers as an insider, lecturer and colleague. This created some level of discomfort and stress sometimes, during the study and the writing of the final report, because he knew that at least some of the lecturers apart from the supervisors were going to read it as well.

In conducting this study, the researcher took the risk that students and lecturers on the programme may feel uncomfortable being interviewed and written about, and that they may not have revealed or disclosed all the relevant aspects of their experiences in the programme for fear of being judged, revealed, or in some way exposed or embarrassed. The researcher tried to alleviate that as much as possible by disclosing the nature of the study.

Conclusion and Summary

The mixed methods approach employed in this study helped to collect data in various settings but with some limitation in some cases as discussed in this chapter. The qualitative and quantitative procedures, data collection and analysis frameworks used constituted the methodology of this study. Various research tools used supplemented one another and enhanced the validity and reliability of research instruments. Although initially there was no main method but that all were to be of equal strength, the truth on the ground was that questionnaires and tests proved to be more effective than the others. The next chapter presents the research results.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Overview

This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results. These results are based on the data that was collected through questionnaires, tests, semi-structured interviews, group interviews and document analysis which were administered to graduate teachers, student teachers, Deans and lecturers. Rudestam and Newton (2001) observed that results chapters begin with a description of the sample from which the data was collected by giving for instance demographic details relating to participants or respondents before presenting findings for each research question. This is what has been done in presenting findings of this study. The data from questionnaires, tests, interviews and document analysis provided several themes, but the analysis was narrowed only to those which related to and answered the research questions.

4.1. Demographics of the Respondents

As a reminder, this section will present the demographics of the respondents who took part in this study. All the groups that took part in the study were requested to provide background data before they completed the questionnaires, answered the test items and took part in the interviews. Two categories, namely gender and type of student teachers were identified as the most important for the analysis. As seen in Table 4.1, on the next page, the numbers of student teachers in terms of gender were almost the same. 49.06% of the respondents were male while 50.94% were female. Of the same group, the majority of them 60.38% were pre-service while the rest, 39.62%, were in-service.

Table 4.1

Frequency and Percentage distributions according to Gender and Type of Student for Student Teachers

Variable	*f*	*%*
Gender (n = 106)		
Male	52	49.06
Female	54	50.94
Type of Student (n = 106)		
In-service	42	39.62
Pre-service	64	60.38

The gender distribution of teachers and a combined gender distribution of teachers and student teachers were as displayed in Table 4.2. As indicated in this table, the male and female percentages of teachers were almost the same with only a difference of 2.44% between the two gender distributions. The same thing applied to the combined gender distribution of both graduate teachers and student teachers who had only a frequency difference of 4 although in percentages the difference seemed to appear as if it was significant, 48.94% males and 51.06% for females.

Table 4.2

Frequency and Percentage distribution according to gender for graduate Teachers and a combination of student teachers and graduate teachers

	Teachers (n = 82)		Graduate Teachers & Student Teachers Combined (n =188)	
Gender	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Male	40	48.78	92	48.94
Female	42	51.22	96	51.06

The third table of the participants' demographics, Table 4.3, shows the gender and type of student teachers who took part in the writing of tests. As indicated in the previous chapter, these participants were a combination of two cohorts. Of the 160 respondents

48.13% identified themselves as male while the rest (51.87%) were female. The same group had both in-service and pre-service student teacher respondents who were distributed as 51.87% and 48.13% respectively.

Table 4.3

Frequency and Percentage distributions according to Gender and Type of Student for Student Teachers in the tests

Variable	*f*	*%*
Gender (n= 160)		
Male	77	48.13
Female (n = 160	83	51.87
Type of Student (n = 160)		
In-service	83	51.87
Pre-service	77	48.13

Additionally, the samples also included the following respondents who took part mainly in interviews as follows;

- Two (2) Deans from the two schools that provided content and methodology courses to the programme under study.
- Ten (10) lecturers, five from the department where English methods were taught in the school of education and five from the department of literature and language, in the school of humanities and social sciences, where English content courses were taught to student teachers.
- Of the five lecturers from the sections, one on each side was the head of section.

4.2. Findings of Research Questions

As mentioned earlier in chapter three, research questions one and two elicited quantitative data while the other three questions three, four and five elicited qualitative data. The data that was elicited from Deans and lecturers who responded to research

questions three and four was transcribed and reported verbatim. However, for the sake of coherence the researcher punctuated most of their responses so as to allow for ease reading and comprehension of what the respondents expressed. Although the two data sets are presented separately according to their respective research questions, this report keeps on referring to other questions and the relevant data in cases where they are suggesting similar conclusions. However, in chapter five, where the findings have been discussed, the interpretation compares and mixes them to facilitate the researcher's holistic understanding of the problem that was studied.

4.3.Research Question One

As earlier mentioned, at the beginning of this chapter, research question one sought to evaluate the extent to which the English language teacher education curriculum had the relevant knowledge and skills for the teaching of English language in Zambian secondary schools. This question was very important for this study because the relevance of the course content was vital to the quality of the product in relation to the student teachers' future responsibilities. The question was stated as follows;

To what extent did the English language teacher education programme had the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools?

In order to answer this question, the researcher got information from students who had gone through the English language teacher education programme. Two categories of respondents were key to providing answers to this research question. These were student teachers who had come to the end of the programme and teachers who had graduated from the programme in a period of six years, counting backwards from the time the study was being done. Learners are the direct beneficiaries of any curriculum and are therefore thought to be in a better position to tell if the programme benefited them or not. Two questionnaires, asking for the same information were administered to both student teachers and graduate teachers requesting them to indicate the extent to which they had covered the relevant knowledge and skills in the content and methodology courses that they studied in preparation for teaching the English language in secondary schools. In order to get a deeper understanding of the data from the questionnaires *independent t-tests* were carried out to compare means of in-service and pre-services teachers, graduate teachers and student teachers. A one way *ANOVA test*

was finally carried out to give an overall picture showing the area in which the graduates from this programme were most well prepared or not well prepared. Survey questions two through to thirteen for student teachers and questions four through to twelve dealt with research question one (see appendices 2 and 3).

4.3.1. Student Teachers' and Graduate Teachers' Confidence to teach the English language

The ultimate goal of any teacher education programme is to ensure that the students who graduate from the programme are able to effectively teach what they are prepared for. Questionnaire items two and four requested student teachers and graduate teachers respectively to indicate on a five point likert scale (1 = not well, 2 = fairly well, 3 = well, 4 = very well and 5 = excellent) how confident they felt to teach different aspects of the English language at the time that they first taught the English language in schools after going through the teacher education programme. It is important to note that this questionnaire was given to student teachers immediately after they had come back from their school experience exercise.

Table 4.4 show *t-test* results. The mean differences between in-service (n = 42) and pre-service student teachers (n = 64) on each of the skills and knowledge areas that they taught in secondary school on their confidence to teach were as shown in table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Independent t-test results showing student teachers' own rating of their confidence to teach various skills in English language in secondary school

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				-1.58	104	0.12
	In-service	2.88	0.63			
	Pre-service	3.08	0.63			
Summary				0.46	104	0.65
	In-service	2.79	0.56			
	Pre-service	2.72	0.83			
Note Taking and Note Making				0.55	104	0.59
	In-service	2.50	0.55			
	Pre-service	2.44	0.59			
Structure				-3.35	104	0.001
	In-service	2.24	0.69			
	Pre-service	2.70	0.70			
Listening Comprehension				-0.69	104	0.49
	In-service	2.17	0.69			
	Pre-service	2.28	0.89			
Speaking				-1.99	104	0.05
	In-service	2.07	0.60			
	Pre-service	2.36	0.80			
Reading Comprehension				0.76	104	0.45
	In-service	2.74	0.83			
	Pre-service	2.63	0.70			
Vocabulary				3.60	104	0.00
	In-service	2.67	0.53			
	Pre-service	2.20	0.72			
Extensive Reading				-2.04	104	0.04
	In-service	2.05	0.99			
	Pre-service	2.41	0.81			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				-0.46	104	0.65
	In-service	1.21	0.42			
	Pre-service	1.27	0.65			
Total				-1.13	104	0.26
	In-service	23.31	3.21			
	Pre-service	24.09	3.58			

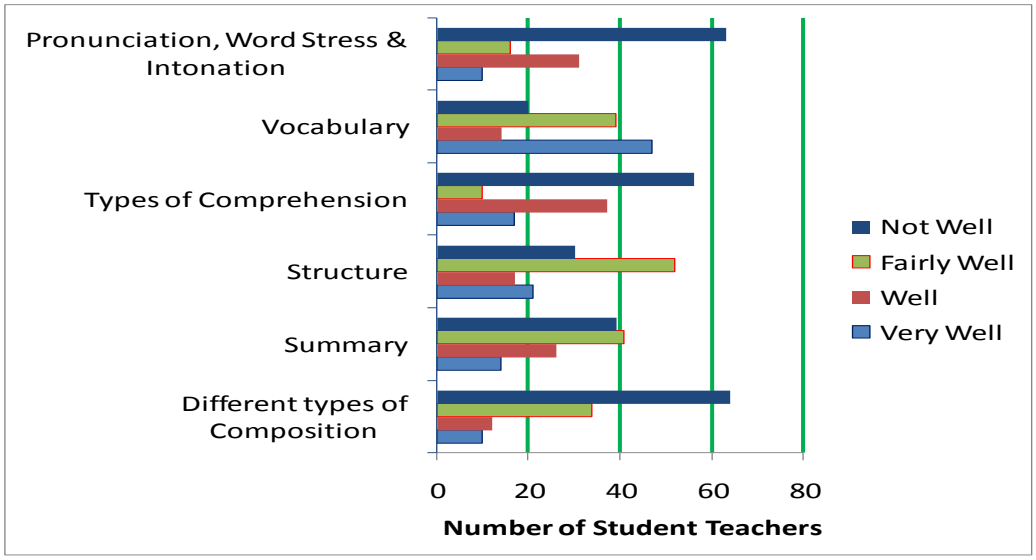
*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n =106

The analyses revealed that the mean differences of the two sets of respondents showed that in 4 items (namely extensive reading, vocabulary, speaking and structure), there was a significant difference at the confidence level of $p<0.05$ while the other 7 items were not statistically significant as shown in Table 4.4. However, in all the four items

the differences did not suggest that any one of these two groups (in-service and pre-service) were any better. For instance in vocabulary the in-service mean was at 2.67, SD = 0.53 and p = 0.00 while in extensive reading the mean for pre-service was at 2.41, SD = 0.81 and p = 0.05 implying that for vocabulary in-service students were thus only well confident while for extensive reading the pre-service were only fairly well confident following the five point likert scale description as indicated in the questionnaires. The total mean for both groups gives a more clear picture of 23.31 for in-service and 24.09 for pre-service suggesting that none of these groups actually was above half since the highest score on the five point likert scale was 50 for the 10 items (knowledge and skills). These results suggested that student teachers were not confident enough to teach the different items of the English language. This was actually further confirmed by the data in figure 4.1. Appendix 6 which also gave the same picture when a *t-test* on the same data which was carried out comparing means for males and females. Figure 4.1 below shows the results of the same data but from a graphical point of view. Most of the students, as shown in figure 4.1, rated themselves as not confident enough to teach the secondary school English language skills since the majority of them had indicated that they were either not well or were fairly well confident except in vocabulary where the data suggested that a number of them were very well confident. The overall results in tables 4.4, appendix 6 and figure 4.1 actually matches with the test results in tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16 which revealed poor understanding of the knowledge and skills that these student teachers were being prepared for.

Figure 4.1

Student teachers self rating on their confident to teach in some English language skills during their school experience in secondary schools



Graduate teachers were also asked the same question regarding their confidence to teach after their graduation. While Table 4.4 showed the student teachers rating (pre-service and in-service), Table 4.5 compared the means of student teachers and graduate teachers. An independent *t-test* was conducted to compare student teachers' and graduate teachers' rating of their confidence to teach various aspects of the English language in secondary school during the student teachers' school experience and at the time the graduate teachers started teaching after their graduation.

As shown in Table 4.5, the independent *t-test* revealed a statistically significant difference at the confidence level of $p<0.05$ in eight of the ten variables between graduate teachers and student teachers, except in note taking and note making, and in structure.

Table 4.5

Independent t-test results showing student teachers and graduate teachers own rating of their confidence to teach various skills in English language in secondary school.

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				-7.97	186	0.00
	Graduate Teacher	2.13	0.86			
	Student Teachers	3.00	0.63			
Summary				-5.02	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.22	0.69			
	Student Teachers	2.75	0.73			
Note Taking and Note Making				-1.79	186	0.07
	Graduate Teachers	2.31	0.52			
	Student Teachers	2.46	0.57			
Structure				-1.59	186	0.11
	Graduate Teachers	2.34	0.79			
	Student Teachers	2.52	0.73			
Listening Comprehension				2.49	186	0.01
	Graduate Teachers	2.52	0.74			
	Student Teachers	2.24	0.82			
Speaking				2.20	186	0.03
	Graduate Teachers	2.48	0.67			
	Student Teachers	2.25	0.74			
Reading Comprehension				-4.69	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.17	0.68			
	Student Teachers	2.67	0.75			
Vocabulary				-3.84	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.00	0.68			
	Student Teachers	2.39	0.68			
Extensive Reading				-6.04	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.59	0.54			
	Student Teachers	2.26	0.89			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				-2.05	186	0.04
	Graduate Teachers	1.09	0.37			
	Student Teachers	1.24	0.57			
Total				-6.16	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	20.87	2.88			
	Student Teachers	23.77	3.45			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

However, like in Table 4.4, the results in Table 4.5 show that all the eight variables, though suggesting a statistically significant difference, did not suggest that between the graduate teachers and student teachers any of these groups had enough confidence to teach the different skills of English language since the means are between 3.00 and

1.09, which fall between well and not well on the five point likert scale. Moreover, even if the total mean gives a statistically significant difference between the two groups, as p = 0.00, mean 20.87 and SD = 2.88 for teachers and p = 0.00, mean 23.77 and SD = 3.45 for student teachers, the mean scores do not even go above half for the 10 items whose maximum mean score is 50.

Again, these results suggested that both graduate teachers and student teachers were below average in their confidence to teach different aspects of English language at the time that they had started teaching. The data that this section was presenting was about graduate teachers and student teachers confidence to teach English language skills. The data is suggesting that both graduate teachers and student teachers did not feel confident enough to teach various skills of the English language in secondary schools. These results seem to suggest that they were not well prepared for their teaching job.

4.3.2. Graduate Teachers and Student Teachers Coverage and Understanding of English language Content for Teaching

Survey question 3 in the student teacher's questionnaire and question 5 in the graduate teacher's questionnaire asked respondents to rate their coverage and understanding of the various skills of English language that they studied in the courses during the four years that they had studied English language in readiness for teaching in secondary school. The independent *t-test* results which first compared in-service and pre-service respondents among student teachers are presented in Table 4.6 and the results were to a large extent similar to the earlier results in Tables 4.5 and 4.4 on confidence to teach.

Table 4.6

Independent t-test results of student teachers rating of their coverage and understating of various skills in English language in Content Courses

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				1.59	104	0.11
	In-service	2.74	0.49			
	Pre-service	2.56	0.59			
Summary				4.39	104	0.00
	In-service	2.55	0.67			
	Pre-service	2.03	0.53			
Note Taking and Note Making				0.72	104	0.47
	In-service	2.26	0.63			
	Pre-service	2.17	0.63			
Structure				2.27	104	0.03
	In-service	2.55	0.59			
	Pre-service	2.22	0.81			
Listening Comprehension				1.35	104	0.18
	In-service	2.23	0.73			
	Pre-service	2.03	0.79			
Speaking				0.98	104	0.33
	In-service	2.26	0.73			
	Pre-service	2.11	0.82			
Reading Comprehension				1.24	104	0.22
	In-service	2.14	1.12			
	Pre-service	1.91	0.85			
Vocabulary				0.65	104	0.52
	In-service	1.88	0.89			
	Pre-service	1.78	0.68			
Extensive Reading				-5.57	104	0.00
	In-service	1.57	0.59			
	Pre-service	2.34	0.76			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				2.12	104	0.04
	In-service	1.31	0.47			
	Pre-service	1.14	0.35			
Total				1.79	104	0.08
	In-service	21.50	3.59			
	Pre-service	20.29	3.23			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 106

Table 4.6 above shows that there is no statistically significant difference in different types of composition, in note taking and note making, in listening comprehension and reading comprehension, in speaking and in vocabulary of the knowledge and skills coverage and understanding between in-service and pre-service students. However, the

results reveal a statistically significant difference between in-service and pre-service students in summary and reading with p values of 0.00 in both cases, in structure with p values of 0.03 for in-service, 0.01 for pre-service and in pronunciation, stress and intonation with p values of 0.04 for in-service and 0.05 for pre-service. Although four of the skills and knowledge coverage and understanding indicated a statistically significant difference, the means revealed that in all the content areas the coverage and understanding were either just well, fairly well or not well and the total mean once again revealed a below average mean rating of 21.50 for in-service and 20.29 for pre-service with no statistically significant difference since the *p value* was at 0.08 for both groups.

As a follow up to the student teachers' rating of their understanding and coverage of the various skills and knowledge that they were taught in content courses, student teachers were asked (in survey question 4) for their views on how much emphasis was made during their studies in the English language knowledge and skills that were relevant for teaching the English language in secondary school.

The students' perceptions on the emphasis that lecturers made in the teaching of various skills were as shown in the frequency and percentage Table 4.7. The results in table 4.7 show that the lecturers sometimes, seldom and rarely emphasised compositions, summary, note-taking and note-making, structure, listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, vocabulary, extensive reading and mostly never emphasised pronunciation, stress and intonation. These results show a skewing of high percentages towards sometimes, seldom and never as indicated in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7

Student Teachers' perceptions of emphasis made in Content Courses in knowledge and skills that were relevant for teaching the English language.

	Always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
Knowledge and Skills	*F*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Composition	0	0	0	0	71	67	31	29.2	4	3.8
Summary	0	0	2	1.9	31	29.2	63	59.4	10	9.4
Note-Taking	0	0	1	0.9	31	29.2	63	59.4	11	10.4
Structure	0	0	4	3.8	42	39.6	47	44.3	13	12.3
Listening Comprehension	0	0	5	4.7	23	21.7	57	53.8	21	19.8
Speaking	0	0	5	4.7	28	26.4	53	50	20	18.9
Reading Comprehension	1	0.9	6	5.7	25	23.6	34	32.1	40	37.7
Vocabulary	0	0	0	0	23	21.7	41	38.7	42	39.6
Extensive Reading	0	0	5	4.7	20	18.9	55	51.9	26	24.5
Pronunciation/Stress and Intonation	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	20.8	84	79.2
Total	106	100	106	100	106	100	106	100	106	100

The results in Table 4.7 are suggesting that content lecturers did not always and often pay attention to the knowledge and skills that were relevant for preparing student teachers for teaching the English language in secondary schools. These results actually match with what was revealed in Table 4.14 where it was shown that student teachers performed very poorly in tests which were taken from exercises done by pupils in secondary school. Moreover, qualitative data was also similar with the data from student teachers since on several occasions content lecturers had indicated that their

mandate was not to produce a teacher of English and that their focus was not on specific knowledge and skills as required by the syllabus in secondary school.

Similarly, teachers were also asked in survey question 5 to rate themselves on their understanding and coverage of secondary school relevant knowledge and skills in content courses at the time that they were in university on the English language teacher education curriculum. Teachers and student teachers means were compared in a *t-test* that was carried out as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Independent t-test results of student teachers' and graduate teachers' rating of their coverage and understating of various aspects of English language in Content Courses

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				-8.48	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.78	0.82			
	Student Teachers	2.63	0.56			
Summary				0.32	186	0.75
	Graduate Teachers	2.27	0.74			
	Student Teachers	2.24	0.64			
Note Taking and Note Making				0.49	186	0.63
	Graduate Teachers	2.26	0.73			
	Student Teachers	2.21	0.63			
Structure				-1.87	186	0.06
	Graduate Teachers	2.13	0.83			
	Student Teachers	2.35	0.74			
Listening Comprehension				-0.72	186	0.47
	Graduate Teachers	2.04	0.66			
	Student Teachers	2.11	0.77			
Speaking				0.78	186	0.44
	Graduate Teachers	2.26	0.69			
	Student Teachers	2.17	0.79			
Reading Comprehension				1.19	186	0.23
	Graduate Teachers	2.15	0.61			
	Student Teachers	2.00	0.97			
Vocabulary				-0.51	186	0.61
	Graduate Teachers	1.77	0.59			
	Student Teachers	1.82	0.77			
Extensive Reading				-2.13	186	0.03
	Graduate Teachers	1.80	0.67			
	Student Teachers	2.04	0.79			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				6.80	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.80	0.78			
	Student Teachers	1.21	0.41			
Total				-1.06	186	0.29
	Graduate Teachers	20.26	3.23			
	Student Teachers	20.77	3.41			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

Table 4.8 show that there were statistically significant differences between graduate teachers and student teachers in the coverage and understanding of different types of composition where graduate teachers had a mean of 1.78, SD = 0.82 and p = 0.00, while student teachers had a mean of 2.63, SD = 0.56 and p = 0.00. In extensive

reading graduate teachers had a mean of 1.80, SD = 0.67 and p = 0.03, while student teachers had a mean of 2.04, SD = 0.79 and p = 0.03 and finally in pronunciation, stress and intonation graduate teachers had a mean of 1.80, SD = 0.78 and p = 0.00, while student teachers had a mean of 1.21, SD = 0.41 and p = 0.00. However, for the rest of the areas, there was no statistically significant difference. Although student teachers had a higher mean than graduate teachers in most of the skills and knowledge areas, the overall picture in Table 4.8 suggests that both student teachers and graduate teachers had not understood these areas well and neither was the coverage good enough since even the total mean was at 20.26 for graduate teachers and 20.77 for student teachers which were below average out of a maximum of 50 for the ten items. These results were suggesting that both student teachers and graduate teachers, who in this case did their studies sometimes back, all had a below average understanding and coverage of content that was relevant for teaching the English language in secondary school. The data which has been presented in this section was elicited from the survey questions which required graduate teachers and student teachers to rate themselves on their coverage and understanding of various skills in the English language in the content courses in readiness for teaching in secondary school. The data revealed that both graduate teachers and student teachers were not adequately prepared in various skills of English language since their coverage and understanding was below average.

4.3.3. Relevance of University Courses to the job of Teaching the English Language

The open-ended question (Question 5 in student teachers' questionnaire and question 6 in teachers' questionnaire) required respondents to describe how relevant were the courses that they did in subject content in relation to what they had to teach in secondary school. Participants expressed their concern and views as follows;

50 out of the 188, 26.59%, expressed the view that the courses that they did in content courses were too theoretical and were thus not relevant to what they taught in secondary school. Both graduate teachers and student teachers had expressed this view in different ways. However, the three statements below indicate how some participants had expressed it.

a. *Most of the courses I did were not relevant to the teaching of English in secondary school. They were too theoretical*
b. *The courses are too theoretical*

c. *Some courses were too theoretical and thus not good for one who is being prepared to teach in secondary school*

In responding to the same question, some respondents compared the university curriculum that they had studied to the secondary school content that they had taught. In their comparisons, 62 of them, 32.98%, expressed the view that the English language programme that they had followed in preparation for teaching English in secondary school was not related to what they taught. Below are some of the views as they were stated.

a. *I feel the content of the programme I did at UNZA did not relate or match with what we teach in schools. Only a quarter of it relates.*
b. *I feel the content done during the UNZA programme has no direct connection to what I have experienced from the time I graduated.*
c. *It is somehow more academic than the acquisition of knowledge and skills for teaching English language in Schools. What is taught at UNZA is different from what we teach in schools. The links are there but too loose.*

Other participants, 10 of them, who made 4.26% of the total, expressed that they had found the programme good although they felt that it was not helpful for preparing one to teach English language in secondary school. Below are some of the views as they had expressed them.

a. *UNZA courses in English language are good but they are too theoretical such that it is difficult to apply them in schools*
b. *It was fairly good but my experience was not very good. There was a lot of theory taught and not relating it to the teaching of English. It was difficult to apply them in school.*
c. *The courses are good for the sake of learning English but there is a need to bridge the gap that is there between the UNZA courses which are too theoretical and the practical aspect of teaching in class*
d. *It is a good detailed programme but it is not related to what is taught in schools.*

36.17% (68) of both student teachers and teachers expressed that the courses they had followed were not relevant for their future duty of teaching the English language in secondary school and so they suggested that the courses that were being taught at the university should be redesigned to suit the expected job description of a teacher of the English language. Below are some of their views and suggestions;

a. *I feel that more relevant courses should be designed for secondary school teachers*
b. *The programme I went through helped me in presentations and research but it needs to be restructured so that it can match with the secondary school syllabus of English language*

c. *Make adjustments in the content courses so that they are in line with what is taught in schools*
d. *There is a need to re-design both the methodology and content courses so that they are practical to the jobs*
e. *I feel the courses should be revised to suit what is in schools because it took me a lot of time to start teaching what is in school well. It was as if I have not been to university*
f. *There is need to have courses that are a true reflection of what is in schools*
g. *Revise the courses in content to suit the school syllabus and extend the teaching practice period*

The 26.59% who expressed the view that the courses they had done were too theoretical, the 32.98% who stated that the courses were not related to what was taught in schools, the 36.17% who suggested that the courses be revised so as to make them relevant for teaching the English language in schools and the 4.26%, who though found that the courses were good, stated that they were not relevant all pointed to one thing, that the university courses were not helpful in preparing a teacher of English. The results in Tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 are all suggesting that the content courses that the students did in preparation for teaching English language in secondary school did not have the relevant skills and knowledge that would effectively and adequately prepare a teacher of English.

4.3.4. Graduate Teachers' and Student Teachers' Coverage and Understanding of English language Skills in Method of Teaching

Survey question 6 in the student teacher's questionnaire and question 7 in the teacher's questionnaire required respondents to rate their coverage and understanding on a five point likert scale (1 = not well, 2 = fairly well, 3 = well, 4 = very well and 5 = excellent) of the various skills in the English language that they had done in the methodology courses when they studied English language in readiness for teaching in secondary school. An independent *t-test* was performed to compare the ratings by respondents among student teachers and the results are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Independent t-test results of student teachers' rating of their coverage and understanding of various skills of English language in Methods Courses

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				3.32	104	0.00
	In-service	3.12	0.55			
	Pre-service	2.78	0.49			
Summary				0.99	104	0.33
	In-service	2.64	0.62			
	Pre-service	2.53	0.53			
Note Taking and Note Making				-1.31	104	0.19
	In-service	2.45	0.50			
	Pre-service	2.61	0.66			
Structure				0.09	104	0.92
	In-service	2.36	0.53			
	Pre-service	2.34	0.80			
Listening Comprehension				0.32	104	0.75
	In-service	2.29	0.51			
	Pre-service	2.25	0.59			
Speaking				1.67	104	0.09
	In-service	2.40	0.63			
	Pre-service	2.16	0.82			
Reading Comprehension				2.31	104	0.02
	In-service	2.40	0.66			
	Pre-service	2.08	0.74			
Vocabulary				1.06	104	0.29
	In-service	2.05	0.85			
	Pre-service	1.89	0.67			
Extensive Reading				0.39	104	0.69
	In-service	2.05	0.73			
	Pre-service	1.98	0.86			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				1.07	104	0.29
	In-service	1.14	0.35			
	Pre-service	1.08	0.27			
Total				2.01	104	0.05
	In-service	22.90	2.65			
	Pre-service	21.70	3.22			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 106

As can be seen from Table 4.9, the results show that there was no statistically significant difference in almost all the knowledge and skills between in-service and pre-service student teachers except in the different types of composition where the mean for in-service students teachers was 3.12, SD = 0.55 and p = 0.00 while for pre-

service the mean was 2.78, SD = 0.49 and p = 0.00 as well. Although the results indicate no statistically significant difference in eight of the skills the means suggest that in almost all the areas except in note taking and note making, in-service student teachers rated themselves higher, although the margins are not so big. This seem to influence the *p values* which indicate no statistically significant difference, suggesting that the two groups were the same. Again like in content courses the results suggested that in methodology courses the coverage and understanding of the different skills of the English language were, just well in the case of different types of compositions where there is a mean of 3.12 for in-service and 2.78 for pre-service and most of the areas were rated fairly well and almost not well in vocabulary and reading for pre-service and in pronunciation, stress and intonation. Once again, the total mean is just below average for both groups although the *p value* indicated a statistically significant difference, p = 0.05 for in-service and p = 0.04 for pre-service. These results suggest that student teachers' understanding and coverage of the different skills that were relevant for teaching English language in secondary school were not adequate in methodology courses.

An independent t-test was further conducted to compare graduate teachers' and student teachers' means in the coverage and understanding of different areas that were relevant for teaching English language in secondary school in relation to what the respondents had done in methodology courses. Table 4.10 below indicates that there were statistically significant differences in the different types of composition, in summary, in speaking, in reading comprehension, pronunciation, stress and intonation and in the totals for of all the areas, whose *p value* for both groups was 0.00. The means for the two groups, however, are still like in the other findings discussed earlier still indicating a fairly well to not well rating. But of interest in these results was the fact that the means were higher for student teachers. Thus being better than graduate teachers who had passed through the programme over the past years.

Table 4.10

Independent t-test results of student teachers' and graduate teachers' rating of their coverage and understating of various aspects of English language in Methods Courses

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition				-9.66	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.99	0.78			
	Student Teachers	2.92	0.54			
Summary				-5.68	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.11	0.54			
	Student Teachers	2.58	0.57			
Note Taking and Note Making				-1.52	186	0.13
	Graduate Teachers	2.40	0.70			
	Student Teachers	2.55	0.60			
Structure				-0.07	186	0.94
	Graduate Teachers	2.34	0.72			
	Student Teachers	2.35	0.70			
Listening Comprehension				-0.70	186	0.48
	Graduate Teachers	2.19	0.79			
	Student Teachers	2.26	0.56			
Speaking				-3.48	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.85	0.82			
	Student Teachers	2.25	0.76			
Reading Comprehension				-0.12	186	0.91
	Graduate Teachers	2.19	0.71			
	Student Teachers	2.21	0.73			
Vocabulary				0.59	186	0.56
	Graduate Teachers	2.01	0.59			
	Student Teachers	1.95	0.75			
Extensive Reading				-3.20	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.66	0.65			
	Student Teachers	2.01	0.81			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation				5.73	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.52	0.67			
	Student Teachers	1.10	0.31			
				-4.51	186	0.00
Total	Graduate Teachers	20.28	2.59			
	Student Teachers	22.18	3.05			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

However, consistent with the other *t-test* results that have been shown in Tables 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9, Table 4.10 shows that although there are statistically significant differences between the means of graduate teachers and student teachers in a number of skills, the means and total means for both graduate teachers and student

teachers suggest that their coverage and understanding of knowledge and skills were below average, suggesting that they did not acquire these knowledge and skills to an acceptable level.

4.3.5. Differences in Confidence to teach, Content and Methodology courses among Groups

In order to establish the aspect in which respondents rated themselves as being either better or worse among confidence to teach, content and methodology courses coverage and understanding, a one-way analysis of variance, ANOVA test, was conducted to compare the graduate teachers' and student teachers' means.

As shown in Tables 4.11a and 4.11b, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) show that student teachers and a combination of student teachers and graduate teachers had a statistical significant difference, $F(2, 315) = 21.84$, $p = 0.00$ for student teachers and, $F(2, 561), = 16.81$, $p = 0.00$ for the combination of both graduate teachers and student teachers. However, there was no statistically significant difference for teachers, $F(2, 243), = 1.15$, $p = 0.32$.

Table 4.11a

Means and Standard Deviations Comparing participants' Confidence to teach, Coverage of knowledge and skills in Content and Methods Courses

	Student Teachers			Graduate Teachers			Combined		
	n	*Mean*	*SD*	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*
Confidence to Teach	106	23.77	3.45	82	20.87	2.88	188	22.51	3.51
Coverage in Content	106	20.77	3.41	82	20.26	3.23	188	20.55	3.33
Coverage in Methodology	106	22.18	3.05	82	20.28	2.59	188	21.35	3.01
Total	318	22.24	3.52	246	20.47	2.91	564	21.47	3.38

Table 4.11b

One–Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table Comparing Student Teachers, graduate Teachers and a combination of both graduate teachers and student teachers

		Sum of Squares	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
Student Teachers	Between Groups	477.63	2	238.81	21.84	0.00
	Within Groups	3444.73	315	10.94		
	Total	3922.36	317			
Graduate Teachers	Between Groups	19.55	2	9.77	1.15	0.32
	Within Groups	2059.69	243	8.48		
	Total	2079.24	245			
Combined	Between Groups	364.03	2	182.02	16.81	0.00
	Within Groups	6074.39	561	10.83		
	Total	6438.43	563			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

The results in Table 4.11a suggest that the mean differences of student teachers and the combination of the two groups on confidence to teach, content and methodology were statistically significant at the level of $p < 0.05$. The results thus indicate that the participants were worse in content as manifested by the lower mean differences of 20.77 for student teachers, 20.26 for graduate teachers and 20.55 for a combination of both graduate teachers and student teachers than in the other two. However, it is important to note that although they were worse in content, in all the three areas the mean ratings were below half since the total score on the five point likert scale of the ten items in the questionnaire is 50. Thus the results are further suggesting that the graduates of this programme were not adequately prepared in both content and methodology courses.

4.3.6. Graduate teachers and Student teachers preparedness in preparing professional documents

In teaching methodology courses, students are also prepared in the preparation and use of different professional documents, assessment items, marking of learners' tests and class exercise items and in peer teaching. Respondents were asked in both the graduate teachers' and student teachers' questionnaires to rate themselves on a five point likert

scale (1 = not well, 2 = fairly well, 3 = well, 4 = very well and 5 = excellent) on the extent to which the teaching methodology courses had prepared them in the preparation of professional documents. The results in Table 4.12 show that the means ranged from 3.35 to 1.11 for student teachers and from 2.55 to 1.15 for teachers. For both graduate teachers and student teachers remedial teaching was rated the least. Student teachers rated themselves higher than teachers in five areas. How to use the syllabus was rated the highest (M = 3.35, SD = 0.62) followed by preparation of lesson plans (M = 2.92, SD = 0.79) then followed by preparation of schemes of work (M = 2.77, SD = 0.84) and the last three being making, selection of learning resources and formulation of appropriate learning objectives being last highest. Teachers rated themselves higher than student teachers in six areas the highest being in making self evaluation during and after teaching (M = 2.51, SD = 0.59), followed by preparation of records of work (M = 2.45, SD = 0.63), then setting of assessment instruments such as tests (M = 1.76, SD = 0.62) and the last three being marking pupils exercises and tests, peer teaching and remedial teaching being least rated.

Table 4.12

Independent t-test results of student teachers and graduate teachers own rating of their preparation of professional documents in Methods Courses

	Type of Student	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Use of the syllabus				-7.33	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.55	0.88			
	Student Teachers	3.35	0.62			
Preparation of Schemes of work				-2.19	186	0.03
	Graduate Teachers	2.50	0.85			
	Student Teachers	2.77	0.84			
Preparation of Lesson plans				-2.12	186	0.04
	Graduate Teachers	2.67	0.77			
	Student Teachers	2.92	0.79			
Formulation of appropriate learning objectives				-1.79	186	0.07
	Graduate Teachers	2.33	0.79			
	Student Teachers	2.51	0.59			
Making, selection and using learning resources				-1.07	186	0.28
	Graduate Teachers	2.50	0.77			
	Student Teachers	2.61	0.67			
Making self-evaluation during and after teaching				2.39	186	0.02
	Graduate Teachers	2.51	0.59			
	Student Teachers	2.27	0.73			
Preparation of records of work				8.37	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.45	0.63			
	Student Teachers	1.58	0.75			
Setting of assessment instruments such as tests				6.73	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.76	0.62			
	Student Teachers	1.22	0.48			
Marking pupil's exercises and tests				8.64	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.95	0.63			
	Student Teachers	1.24	0.51			
Peer teaching				3.44	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.73	0.97			
	Student Teachers	1.35	0.54			
Remedial Teaching				0.55	186	0.58
	Graduate Teachers	1.15	0.47			
	Student Teachers	1.11	0.35			
Total				2.30	186	0.02
	Graduate Teachers	24.09	3.69			
	Student Teachers	22.93	3.22			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

As shown in Table 4.12 above, student teachers rated themselves higher in five areas while graduate teachers rated themselves higher in six areas. An independent *t-test*

revealed that most mean differences between graduate teachers and student teachers were statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. The mean differences on formulation of appropriate learning objectives, making, selection and using learning resources and remedial teaching were not statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) between the two respondents.

The results, however, indicate that although there were statistically significant differences in most of the areas all the means for both graduate teachers and student teachers were below 3.4 on the five point scale (1 = not well, 2 = fairly well, 3 = well, 4 = very well and 5 = excellent). The results thus suggested that participants were between well and not well prepared. Just like the results for confidence to teach, content and methodology courses, the total average in this case was also below half, suggesting that even in this area participants rated themselves as not adequately prepared.

4.3.7. Graduate teachers' and Student teachers' preparedness in teaching strategies

In order to adequately prepare teachers for teaching in schools, the teaching methodology course should expose prospective teachers to different types of teaching strategies. This is in a bid to equip them with wider pedagogical knowledge and skills which they can apply in different lessons once in schools. Therefore, respondents were also asked in both questionnaires to rate themselves on the extent to which the teaching methodology courses had prepared them in different types of teaching methods or strategies. The results in Table 4.13 show that the means of the rating on the 11 teaching strategies ranged from 3.41 to 1.10 for student teachers and from 2.87 to 1.02 for graduate teachers with application of technology rated the least in both groups. Graduate teachers rated themselves higher than student teachers in five strategies, the highest being contest ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 0.70$), followed by project ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 0.75$) then debate ($M = 1.78$, $SD = 0.70$) and the last two field trip ($M = 1.72$, $SD = 0.80$) and team teaching ($M = 1.29$, $SD = 0.51$). On the other hand, student teachers rated themselves higher than graduate teachers in six strategies the highest being demonstration ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.63$), followed by question and answer ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.79$), then followed by group and pair work ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.88$), then discussion brainstorming ($M = 2.69$, $SD = 0.88$), then role play ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 0.80$) and finally application of technology ($M = 1.10$, $SD = 0.31$). It is interesting to note that both

graduate teachers and student teachers had almost the same number of types of strategies in which they both rated themselves highest.

Table 4.13

Independent t-test results of student teachers' and graduate teachers' own rating of their understating of teaching strategies in Methods Courses

Teaching Strategies	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*T*	*df*	*p*
Demonstration				-6.21	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.87	0.56			
	Student Teachers	3.41	0.63			
Question and Answer				-1.98	186	0.05
	Graduate Teachers	2.78	0.52			
	Student Teachers	2.98	0.79			
Group and Pair work				-1.53	186	0.13
	Graduate Teachers	2.71	0.78			
	Student Teachers	2.89	0.88			
Project				0.44	186	0.66
	Graduate Teachers	1.79	0.75			
	Student Teachers	1.75	0.73			
Field Trip				3.99	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	1.72	0.80			
	Student Teachers	1.33	0.53			
Debate				2.41	186	0.02
	Graduate Teachers	1.78	0.70			
	Student Teachers	1.53	0.72			
Role play				-3.69	186	0.00
	Graduate Teachers	2.18	0.74			
	Student Teachers	2.60	0.80			
Discussion and Brainstorming				-1.64	186	0.10
	Graduate Teachers	2.48	0.89			
	Student Teachers	2.69	0.88			
Contest				1.62	186	0.11
	Graduate Teachers	2.05	0.70			
	Student Teachers	1.86	0.87			
Team Teaching				0.45	186	0.65
	Graduate Teachers	1.29	0.51			
	Student Teachers	1.25	0.62	0.46	185.25	0.65
Application of Technology				-2.14	186	0.03
	Graduate Teachers	1.02	0.16			
	Student Teachers	1.10	0.31			
Total				-1.33	186	0.18
	Graduate Teachers	22.67	2.97			
	Student Teachers	23.41	4.25			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 188

An independent t-test was conducted to compare the mean differences for each of the teaching strategies between graduate teachers and student teachers. The results in Table 4.13 show that the mean differences of the two sets of respondents on 6 strategies (demonstration, question and answer, field trip, debate, role play and application of technology) were statistically significant at the confidence level of $p < 0.05$, while the mean differences of the remaining 5 methods between the two groups were not statistically significant at the same confidence level. Although there are mean differences which are statistically significant in 6 strategies the results still indicate, like in other t-tests, that have being shown earlier that the participants were below average in terms of preparedness in the different types of teaching methods as the overall mean indicate, 22.67 for teachers and 23.41 for student teachers. Once again the results indicate that although there are statistically significant differences in 6 of the strategies all the means for both graduate teachers and student teachers were below 3.4 on the five point likert scale (1 = not well, 2 = fairly well, 3 = well, 4 = very well and 5 = excellent). The results thus are suggesting that participants were between well and not well prepared, implying that they were still not adequately prepared even in the types of teaching strategies.

4.4. Summary of the Results on Student Teachers' and Graduate Teachers' acquisition of relevant knowledge and skills for teaching in secondary school

The purpose of this section was to present results to answer research question one: *To what extent did the English language teacher education programme had the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools?* Overall, respondents indicated that they had not been well prepared in content and methodology courses that they studied at university. In particular, results show that although respondents had not been fully prepared in both content and methodology, they were worse off in content as ANOVA results indicated. The results consistently revealed in all the tests that graduates of the English language teacher education programme were not fully prepared since their own rating in all the areas were below half. This is also an indication that although the programme had some knowledge and skills that could be relevant for secondary school, the implementation was not focused on what was to be taught in secondary school.

4.5. Research Question Two

This section presents results of the data to answer research question two. *What was the quality of the products (teachers) of the English language teacher education curriculum?* As explained earlier in chapter three, student teachers from two consecutive cohorts were given tests taken from (pupils' textbooks) what they were to teach in secondary school during their school experience.

4.5.1. Quality of graduating teachers

Table 4.15 shows the results as minimum, maximum, range and mean scores which were computed from the test scores of both cohorts. In at least four knowledge and skills areas (namely; sentence transformation, comprehension, summary and reported speech) participants got between 0 (0%) and 7 (70%) as indicated by minimum and maximum scores. All the tests were marked out of ten. More interestingly was what the mean revealed for each of these scores. In transformation for instance, participants for the 2012/2013 cohort got a minimum of zero and maximum of four, the mean is actually 0.89, suggesting that most of the scores were around zero and one. The same thing can be said of the 2012/2013 cohort in the same area. In summary as another case where scores range from zero to seven but the means are 2.77 and 2.28 for the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 cohorts respectively, again indicating that most respondents' scores were around two and three out of ten. The same performance was noted in reported speech though in comprehension, the means were slightly close to half (five out of ten). Results however, indicate that respondents performed better in punctuation, pronunciation and composition in comparison with the other areas. The total which is out of eighty indicates that the lowest got 18.60 in the 2012/2013 cohort and 17.70 in the 2013/2014 cohort while the highest got slightly above half, 42.50, in the 2012/2013 cohort and 44.20 in the 2013/2014 cohort, and the means of 36.49 and 36.54 which are far way below half for both cohorts. One wonders how these student teachers would be able to teach English language in secondary school if they were not able to perform well in tests that were taken from the pupils' textbooks, the exact knowledge and skills that they were supposed to teach.

Table 4.14

Student Teachers Performance in Tests (Scores out of Ten)

Knowledge and Skills	Cohorts	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Mean
Sentence Transformation	2012/2013	0 (0%)	4 (40%)	4.00	0.89
	2013/2014	0 (0%)	7 (70%)	7 00	2.42
Structure	2012/2013	2 (20%)	5 (50%)	3.00	3.34
	2013/2014	1 (10%)	6 (60%)	5.00	4.61
Pronunciation	2012/2013	1 (10%)	9 (90%)	8.00	4.78
	2013/2014	1 (10%)	9 (90%)	8.00	4.72
Comprehension	2012/2013	2 (20%)	7 (70%)	5.00	4.39
	2013/2014	0 (0%)	7 (70%)	7.00	4.23
Punctuation	2012/2013	4 (40%)	10 (100%)	6.00	6.52
	2013/2014	3 (30%)	10 (100%)	7.00	6.35
Summary	2012/2013	0 (0%)	7 (70%)	7.00	2.77
	2013/2014	0 (0%)	7 (70%)	7.00	2.28
Reported Speech	2012/2013	0 (0%)	6 (60%)	6.00	1.77
	2013/2014	0 (0%)	6 (60%)	6.00	1.79
Composition	2012/2013	3 (30%)	7.5 (75%)	4.50	5.44
	2013/2014	2 (20%)	5.5 (55%)	3.50	4.73
Total	2012/2013	18.6 (23.25%)	42.5 (53.13%)	18.90	36.49
	2013/2014	17.7 (22.13%	44.2 (55.25%)	21.50	36.54

The results in Table 4.14 are suggesting that the student teachers who took part in the tests had had a poor mastery of the knowledge and skills that they were expected to teach in secondary school upon graduation. These cohorts were composed of pre-service and in-service students. The in-service students, as earlier explained, were those who already had secondary teachers' diplomas in English. Independent *t-tests* were conducted to compare the two groups so as to find out if there was any statistically significant difference in their means. It was expected that in-service students would do better than the pre-service ones but the results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Table 4.15

Independent t-test results showing the 2012/2013 student teachers performance in tests in various skills of secondary school English language

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Sentence Transformation				1.39	80.00	0.17
	In-service	1.03	0.96			
	Pre-service	0.77	0.72			
Structure				0.56	75.00	0.19
	In-service	1.05	0.97			
	Pre-service	1.12	1.03			
Pronunciation				0.41	80.00	0.63
	In-service	4.87	2.09			
	Pre-service	4.69	1.75			
Comprehension				0.49	80.00	0.62
	In-service	4.46	1.29			
	Pre-service	4.33	1.21			
Punctuation				0.08	80.00	0.94
	In-service	6.54	1.42			
	Pre-service	6.51	1.76			
Summary				0.69	80.00	0.49
	In-service	2.92	1.91			
	Pre-service	2.62	1.93			
Reported Speech				-1.56	80.00	0.12
	In-service	1.46	1.67			
	Pre-service	2.05	1.72			
Composition				-0.58	80.00	0.56
	In-service	5.38	0.69			
	Pre-service	5.48	0.77			
Total				0.36	80.00	0.72
	In-service	26.67	4.32			
	Pre-service	26.34	3.83			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ $n = 82$

Tables 4.15 and 4.16 show (in the *p value* columns) that there were no statistically significant difference at $p<0.05$ between the pre-service students and the in-service students. These results, in both tables, therefore, were suggesting that both groups were the same in terms of their masterly of the skills and knowledge that was relevant for teaching the English language in secondary school.

Table 4.16

Independent t-test results showing the 2013/2014 student teachers performance in tests in various skills of secondary school English language

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Sentence Transformation				-0.95	76.00	0.35
	In-service	2.20	1.76			
	Pre-service	2.60	1.95			
Structure				0.65	77.23	0.64
	In-service	3.96	1.46			
	Pre-service	3.89	1.52			
Pronunciation				-0.35	76.00	0.73
	In-service	4.63	2.18			
	Pre-service	4.79	1.88			
Comprehension				-0.45	76.00	0.65
	In-service	4.14	1.57			
	Pre-service	4.30	1.54			
Punctuation				0.57	76.00	0.57
	In-service	6.46	1.34			
	Pre-service	6.26	1.71			
Summary				0.52	76.00	0.60
	In-service	2.43	2.37			
	Pre-service	2.16	2.14			
Reported Speech				0.25	76.00	0.98
	In-service	1.80	1.71			
	Pre-service	1.79	1.68			
Composition				0.29	76.00	0.76
	In-service	4.78	1.38			
	Pre-service	4.69	1.46			
Total				-0.49	76.00	0.62
	In-service	26.24	4.89			
	Pre-service	26.79	3.96			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ n = 78

At the end of the tests, group interviews were conducted which were meant to find out from student teachers, as a way of triangulation, their opinions and views about the tests that they had done in relation to the knowledge and skills that they were to teach in secondary school. Two group interviews were conducted, one from each cohort, comprising six interviewees from the 2012/2013 cohort and seven interviewees from the 2013/1014 cohort, thus making a total of thirteen interviewees. The first question required the participants to explain the extent to which they had applied the knowledge and skills that they had learnt in the teacher education programme in answering the

items in the test. Participants expressed that what they had learnt from the English language teacher education programme was not so helpful as they had to mostly either depend on what they knew before coming to university or to struggle to relate the many theories they had learnt from the university programme to the test items. Some participants expressed the following;

> *As a prospective teacher, am honestly worried and disappointed that I was struggling to answer a number of those questions which I remember meeting in secondary school. I am disappointed because I could not effectively apply what I have been learning here after all this time that I have spent here. I have to depend on what I generally know (participant 12).*

> *The many courses that we do here are too theoretical and do not touch what we were doing in the test. What was in the test was so simple but we are not sure if the answers I gave were actually correct (participant, 11, 3 and 8)*

> *The test was simple but tricky because we have been doing other things here at university, leaving out what we actually need for teaching. The second year courses had some of the things in the test though we did them at a much higher level (participants 3, 4, 9 and 7).*

When asked to describe the link between what they did at university and the items in the tests, student-teachers perceptions were that there was a very weak link since most of the courses were too academic and theoretical.

> *The link is somehow there but a very weak one because for instance what was in the test about stress and intonation, we did them in one of the courses but we had no practice. Even what the test required us to answer about parts of speech we did that but as a lecture only and no details were given or an exercise and not even linked to secondary school (participants 1, 8, 5 and 6).*

> *There was no direct link. Otherwise I would have managed to confidently answer most of the test questions (participant 4).*

> *Ah me, am sure there was no connection for most of the things (participant 10)*

Participants were asked to identify the items that they found easy to answer and the ones they found difficult. Participant 3 gave an interesting answer, that;

> *All the items were easy but tricky because I was not sure if the answers I was giving were correct.*

Then others commented that;

> *Rewrites and reported speech were really difficult because I do not remember ever having done them here (participants 3, 4, 7, 8, 9 and 10)*

We did not do most of these things here (participant 5)

The views and opinions of some of the student teachers who wrote the tests actually confirmed the poor performance in the tests as shown in Table 4.16. The participants' views in the group interviews were suggesting that what students did in the tests, which were based on the secondary school syllabus, was loosely linked to what they studied at university on the English language teacher education curriculum.

4.6. Research Question Three

As already mentioned in the overview of this chapter, research question three sought to find out what the intentions of the curriculum designers were. The question was thus framed on the premise that the intentions of the curriculum designers of the programme had implications on how the programme was implemented and what kind of a product the designers visualised for the intended industry and future duties of the prospective teacher. The question was stated as here below;

What were the intentions of the curriculum designers for the teacher education programme for the English language?

4.6.1. Intentions of the English language Teacher Education Curriculum Designers

The interview guide questions (see appendix 4) guided the researcher in eliciting of data for research question three and four. The participants who were mainly Deans and lecturers were asked for their understanding and their schools' aims regarding the BA Ed (English) programme on which the students that they were teaching were registered. The responses that the lecturers from the two schools gave revealed, that although the two departments were teaching the same students, their understanding of the intent of the programme was different. For instance, upon being asked Dean 1 said;

> Our vision in the department is to produce a graduate who would develop a critical sensitivity to the question of power, ideology, and good public relations. But if they go to teach in school they should have enough formation to teach. We need teachers who are fully baked however, the courses they do are not 100% preparing them for teaching. But it would be good if they can become analytical.

This vague understanding of the English language curriculum for education students by Dean 1 was shared by all the participants from his school who were interviewed. While the respondents indicated that they partly knew about the students' primary

needs regarding preparation for teaching, it did not seem to be one of their important points of focus as it was expressed by the head of section that;

> I am not really sure if I know the aim of the BA Ed programme is it only to produce teachers? But I know, for instance, the aim of the course that I teach to BA Ed students and other students who register for the same course. In my department, we do not only teach education students but we also have students from other programmes although education students tend to be more. So concentrating on education students will not be the right thing for me to do as a lecturer. Thus I just ensure that students get the concepts as the course outline prescribes.

This comment came from the lecturer who was teaching one of the first year courses, which is an introductory course for students of English. What the head of section had said could be what worried a lecturer from the school of education, lecturer 6, when he was asked, in a separate interview, about the aim and relevance of the courses that students study in content courses. He said;

> Yes, I know we have a problem with what students learn in the programme but the problem is even much worse when some lecturers literary ignore the programme's aims on which the students are registered for in the hope of meeting the needs of the staff rather than the students and the society. I know of courses that have been designed based on what the lecturer has studied and not what is needed on the programme and then when we inquire about such things colleagues accuse us of diluting the degree. But who needs a concentrated irrelevant degree programme?

However, all the five lecturers from the school of education teaching methodology who were asked about the aim of the programme expressed the same view of how to produce an effective teacher who is able to teach all the different skills in English language. Although they had expressed the same view in different ways, their sentiments seemed to echo what Dean 2 said;

> The main aim of the BA Ed programme is to prepare a teacher who, in this case for English, will effectively teach English language and Literature in English in secondary school from grades 8 to 12 in Zambia. Of course some of our students may find themselves in other regions where they will have to teach English. So they need a wider scope than just Zambia. But Zambian schools come first for us. This intention is very clear for us in the school of education and all our efforts are geared towards that, although the period for teaching practice is too short but we are trying.

4.6.2. Type of Graduate Envisaged

Respondents (Deans and lecturers) were further asked to explain the kind of graduate that they intended to produce. Although part of the question might have been answered in the data by interview question one, the researcher wanted the respondents to elaborate more on the aim by being specific about the type of product that they envisaged. This was in a bid to expand on the explanations of the curriculum designers of the English language teacher education programme. From the school of education respondent's point of view it was made clear in their responses as indicated above that their aim was that of producing a teacher of English but respondents from the school of humanities and social sciences seemed to have many and divergent intentions as it was expressed in the following views. One participant, lecturer 3, commented as follows;

> As a department we do not have a specific area of concentration for our students. It is not our expectation to have all the English language graduates enter teaching. They are free to enter the teaching profession but they are not restricted to it. And this influences the way I present my course and material. Secondary Schools are not our main target.

This view seemed to have been supported by another lecturer from the same department who also felt that it was not their mandate to produce a teacher of English language and in supporting this view the lecturer contended that:

> It is good to have a well-rounded graduate who can teach English language also. But we in my department we just give them the content believing that there will apply it anywhere. But mostly they should have analytical skills so that they can analyse data that has been presented to them in which ever form. I strongly feel the skills and knowledge to teach should be gotten from the school of education.

The position of the department on this view was made much stronger when lecturer 2 from the same department expressed her thoughts as follows;

> To tell you the truth, we just aim at finishing what is in the course outline. As to whether students have skills and knowledge to teach English language in secondary school or not that is not our mandate. I am a lecturer of linguistics. Actually I do not teach English as it is meant for secondary school. I teach linguistics. And I think that is our focus to produce students who can use English and Literature anywhere they will find themselves.

Apart from the two departments having different points of focus about the type of product they aim at producing we see in the views a recurrence of what lecturer 6 had mentioned that some courses are only designed to suit the lecturer and not the students' needs. Lecturer 2 above is referring to herself as being a lecturer of linguistics and that seemed to be more important for her than the needs of the students and their future. From the above views of respondents (lecturers) from the school of education and those from the school of humanities and social sciences, the data is suggesting that while the school of education aimed at producing a teacher of English language, the school of humanities and social sciences aimed at producing a graduate who would not specifically teach English language in secondary schools.

4.6.3. Expected knowledge and skills for teaching

As mentioned earlier in this section, research question three was framed on the premise that the intentions of the curriculum designers of the programme had implications on how the programme was implemented and what kind of a product the designer visualised for the intended industry or future responsibilities. To this effect the interviewees (Deans and lecturers) were asked to indicate the kind of skills and knowledge that their graduates were expected to have acquired from the curriculum and where they would have to use such knowledge and skills. Although some of them had already mentioned some skills, such as analytical skills, much more was, however, given when the questions were directly asked to them. As lecturer 6 said as follows;

> When I taught at Nkhumah College of Education what we taught was what students went to teach later in schools. I went through the same programme myself. But now here at UNZA, it is not the case no wonder schools prefer diploma students to our students. The second year courses are a bit close to what the students will go and teach but it is not enough. For instance, grammar, compositions and summary are lacking throughout the programme and grammar for instance is central to the teaching of English language in secondary school. I taught English in secondary school and I know what I am talking about. I supervise students on teaching practice, and we are just from there, and I could see that really our students do not have the required skills and knowledge in grammar. But you know university programmes are very difficult to change. It takes time just to convince everyone that this is what is good for the students and the industry. But your study might take us somewhere now.

What lecturer 6 said regarding lack of skills and knowledge in grammar and composition in the English language teacher education curriculum was actually

confirmed by the very low scores that the student teachers got when they were given tests in this study. The knowledge and skills that were in the tests were based on what was taught in secondary school as the results in Tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16 show. All the lecturers from the school of education had expressed worry about the lack of understanding by students of important knowledge areas that were taught in secondary school. In emphasizing this point, one of them who had similar concerns like the other interviewees said as follows;

> We expect students to acquire skills and knowledge that are relevant for teaching English language in secondary schools. Skills such as how to write compositions, summary skills, note taking and note making, knowledge of tenses, grammar and many more but these are the very areas in which most of the students are weak. I see this when they prepare to teach in peer teaching. A student will be struggling with simple things such as tenses. Uuuh it is a problem.

This observation seemed to have been similar with what one lecturer from the school of humanities who also mentioned that students were not grounded in the skills that in fact were seen to be important for teaching. He said as follows:

> The programme is supposed to help our students acquire the skill to write, edit documents, teach English in schools off course but we have no time for all this because during lectures I teach and explain concepts and students take notes. I do not give them any exercise to find out if they can write, edit or do any such things. All that counts here is that they will have to pass the continuous assessments and final examinations.

However, regarding the acquisition of skills and knowledge for teaching, the two sides, subject content and methodology lecturers, seemed to be involved in a blame game. It is referred to as a blame game here because such issues are most revealed during projects such as this study. Just as we have noted in some statements by lecturers from the school of humanities that preparing students as teachers was not their mandate, the school of education also expected students to have learnt the appropriate content for teaching from the school of humanities as it was argued by a lecturer from the school of education as follows:

> When students come here (school of education), we expect them to have acquired skills in summary, composition writing, grammar, pronunciation, comprehension and all the others. Therefore, our duty is to prepare them (on how) to teach all these skills and not to help them acquire them again since literature and language

> department would have done so. Moreover, they did these things in secondary school as well.

Student teachers were not only expected to have acquired the skills and knowledge from the school of humanities or from school of education but they were also expected to have learnt these knowledge and skills relevant for teaching from their previous levels of education. It was thus assumed that the student teachers on the BA Ed programme who were studying English already had the knowledge and skills necessary for teaching. Most of the lecturers who were interviewed expressed this view. In stressing this point, a lecturer from the department of literature and languages in the school of humanities remarked as follows:

> Students should in fact come with most of the basic English language skills and knowledge from secondary school or those who have diplomas from colleges and experience in teaching. Therefore our duty is to teach them higher theories in English not what they already know. It would be wasting their time and resources for the university. May be teaching methods should emphasize the skills and knowledge for secondary school.

If we juxtaposed the views of lecturers from the school of humanities and those from the school of education we would notice clear opposing positions that these two schools have about the same students. But again the views of the lecturers from school of humanities gave the impression that they were not so clear about what type of knowledge and skills the students they taught should have. The data show that each lecturer seemed to have concentrated on their courses without having a common aim for the department in mind even if their aim was not to produce teachers.

Following these analyses, it seemed clear from the views of the lecturers in the two departments that although they were teaching the same students, their intentions were not geared towards producing the same type of graduate and this indeed had implications on how they designed and taught the courses. The findings of research question one were clearly pointing to the fact that the two schools had different points of focus for the BA Ed English language curriculum.

4.7. Research Question Four

Research question number four was designed to elicit data about the criteria that was followed in selecting content for the English language teacher education curriculum.

The next section presents the interviewees' perceptions and views on the criteria for the selection of content for the programme. Research question four stated as follows;

What criteria were followed in selecting the content for courses in the English language teacher education programme?

The interviewees were the Deans and lecturers, who have been referred to already under research question three. Curriculum designing in higher institutions of learning like the university is done by the lecturers who actually teach the courses that they have developed. Thus Deans and lecturers in this case were the right respondents to answer research question four, regarding the criteria that was followed during the selection of curriculum content.

4.7.1. Selection criteria for the programme's knowledge and skills

When asked to explain how they determined the content material that made up the courses that they taught to students, a lecturer from the school of education explained as follows;

> We try to have content which is in line with secondary schools by all means. We even have the school syllabus with us. So all our course content is based on secondary school material. It is the guiding criteria. But we spend very little time on the skills that students should teach. It all comes back to being theoretical than practical actually. The other problem we have is that colleagues at humanities teach something else and that is where our students get most of the content courses. Here they only do two to three methodology courses that is all.

The view that the content of the school of education courses was based on what was taught in secondary schools was shared by all the lecturers from the school of education who were interviewed. This was actually confirmed through analysis of the teaching methods course outlines from the school of education. In two of the teaching methods courses the following were the aims.

> *This course aims at equipping students with knowledge, values, attitudes and skills to teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language.*

And for the other course the aim read as follows:

> *This course aims at consolidating the theoretical and practical work on second language teaching methods covered in the third year course.*

However, it was also found that though the content was appropriate the teaching of it was too theoretical and that the sister department was not sharing the same views. Regarding this matter a lecturer from the school of education confirmed as he stated as follows:

> You know sir, having the right content is one thing but teaching it as it should is a different thing altogether. As I said earlier, we are not all the time in touch with secondary schools. So I know you are trying to find out if the content we have is related to secondary schools content. Therefore, a course with appropriate content for secondary school will end up becoming theoretical as is the case for some of these courses. By the way, we even have some colleagues who have not taught in secondary school before but they are here teaching others how to teach what they never taught. How do you expect the student to understand these things surely? Mr Mulenga, it is impossible.

The aspect of having lecturers who had not taught in secondary school but who were teaching others how to teach was also expressed as a concern by students in the questionnaire responses as it has been reported later in this study. The question as to which criteria were followed to determine the content that constituted the courses for the programme was also asked to lecturers in the school of humanities. In answering this question, one lecturer from humanities lamented (judging from the tone of his voice) as follows:

> Unfortunately, some of the course content and courses taught are based purely on what lecturers have specialised in. I say unfortunately so because mostly such courses tend not to be linked to the reality on the ground, in this case what the students are expected to be in future. Lecturers who teach such courses tend to remain in their own world of that course at the expense of the students.

Another lecturer from the same department commented as follows:

> Most of the courses have been there for a very long time. I actually found most of these courses. Thus I do not even know how they came to be. It is all about the memory of the institution. I hear we will be going back to the term system and I am told that it will be a matter of joining courses that are in the two semesters into one and all will be done. So the same courses will continue but now in the term system. Nothing will change much. Even as we will be moving to the term system, I do not see a criterion to follow when reviewing

> these courses. But is joining the two courses into one a review? I don't know. This is all about institutional memory as the main criteria, since all we do is go back to what has been prevailing in the past about a particular course.

While the students on the BA Ed English language teacher education programme would be teaching English language in schools, it was found that the content selection criteria did not consider what was taught in secondary school (analysis of the job of teaching English language) just as it was mentioned in chapter two. What had been revealed was that institutional memory and lecturer's specialisation seemed to be the unwritten criteria that the department of literature and language, in the school of humanities and social sciences, followed as a guide to content selection.

4.7.2. Lecturer's awareness of the Secondary School Curriculum's content

Guided by the interview schedule, the researcher asked whether the lecturers from the two schools were actually aware of the content that their students would have to teach once in schools as teachers. A lecturer from the school of humanities attested as follows:

> I have taught in secondary school before and I know that there is a big gap between what is taught in secondary school and what we teach here. We do not talk about the simple things they have to teach in secondary school. They have to look for books and read because the content we offer them is too advanced. When it comes to teaching content, the school of education should provide. Are you saying that we need specific courses for the school of education? But as I said earlier, we do not teach only education students.

The researcher understood that the curriculum for preparing a teacher cannot be exactly the same as what was taught in secondary school. The student teacher needs to be better in the understanding of the subject matter than the pupils. However, the stance that the staff in university seem to take, where what is taught is completely alienated from what is taught in secondary schools, is an extreme case of content mismatch for a professional curriculum such as the Teacher education one. All the lecturers from the school of humanities who were interviewed expressed this notion that students on the English language programme needed to do complicated subject matter. Another lecturer emphatically affirmed as follows:

> University education cannot be confined in a box called secondary school content. Students need to learn a lot about the subject matter. Then later on they will apply it as need arises. University education is about the development of higher levels of cognition and not

> learning verbs, tenses, types of compositions as is the case in secondary school. May be that is the mandate of the school of education but not us.

The views of lecturers from the school of humanities consistently gave the impression that the two schools, education and humanities, were not in agreement about the subject matter that students on the programme were supposed to take. One lecturer observed that things had just changed because during the time he was a student the content that he studied was in line with what he taught in secondary school as a teacher of English. What he seemed to be saying was that things had changed along the way because the two schools had not been reviewing the courses according to the changes in secondary schools. He commented as follows;

> I studied English here at the University of Zambia, for teaching in schools many years ago but what I see our students learning now cannot help them teach English language effectively. I do not know at what point did things change to what we have now. Each time I observe lessons during teaching practice, I always have a feeling that these students are not learning what is needed for Zambian schools. What your research is trying to unravel is good but we need to seriously change what both schools education and humanities are doing. We need serious change. Otherwise our students cannot teach well with the content they get. Maybe it is the reason why we get students who come from these secondary schools with very poor writing, reading and listening skills. It is because the teachers we produce are not good enough. It is a vicious cycle anyway.

Still insisting on the aspect of teaching theoretical content which is advanced, another lecturer stated as follows;

> What we teach and what the department is interested in is not the various skills such as note-taking, note-making, composition – academic essays may be. We do not really teach them composition writing here. It is more in theory and not practice. Here we are interested in academic work – research. But the expectation is that the content they do will help them to teach English because I presume 70% of the courses are directly related to school English.

Awareness of the content that was taught in secondary school seemed to have been there among some of the lecturers from the school of humanities especially the three that had a secondary school teaching background since they could even cite courses from their department which had strong elements of content that would be relevant for teaching English language in secondary schools. However, the challenge that the data

was bringing out was that university teacher education tended to be theoretical as lecturer 3 explained as follows:

> Most courses in the department that education students take have elements here and there that would be relevant for teaching; for instance Morphology, Phonology, Syntax and Discourse Analysis are important for teaching English in schools. However we teach them from a very theoretical point of view. When I did my diploma for teaching English, when we did a course which involved composition writing we did not end at defining what a composition is and what theories and types of compositions that do exist but we went on and wrote the composition itself. But here we end on the theoretical part and students will reproduce that in the tests and examination. May be it is the school of education to concretise these things.

It was also found that it was not only lecturers from the school of humanities who had challenges with establishing a linkage between university content and secondary school content but even those from the school of education did recognise this challenge as one of the lecturers from education observed as follows:

> Yes, I am aware of the content students are to teach in school and it is not very much related to what they do here. What they are doing here is way too advanced and sometimes may give them problems when it comes to coming down to the level of pupils in school.

Interestingly, the head of section from the school of education confessed regarding him being aware of what is taught in secondary school by saying as follows:

> I left secondary school teaching so many years ago I do not know if the same content I left is still being taught. But I do have a glimpse of some of the content when we go to observe students on teaching practice. Peer teaching follows the syllabus but so much has changed and it is students who concentrate on preparing the peer teaching lessons and not the lecturers.

Another lecturer from humanities remarked about the criteria to follow in the development of courses when he said as follows:

> I would be lying to say that I know what is taught in secondary school now. I have taught in secondary school yes but that was more than fifteen years ago. And ever since I joined this department at UNZA the research that I am mostly involved in has nothing to do with secondary schools. I am more in the development of language side than anything else. So I just teach our students what the course outline says that's all. As to what criteria was followed in developing it I think lecturer's specialisation matters a lot.

The revelations that were made about research question four regarding the determination of content and not knowing the type of content that was taught in secondary school further makes job analysis as a preliminary ingredient for curriculum designing for teacher education vital. However, this point is discussed in greater detail in the next chapter. The data in this section, however, was suggesting that institutional memory and lecturers' specialisation seemed to have been the criteria that guided curriculum designing of the content courses in the department of literature and languages. While the methods courses in the school of education seemed to have been guided by what was taught in secondary school.

4.7.3. Coordination of the Curriculum Designing and Implementation

Since the Teacher education curriculum was taught by two units in the same university but with a different administrative school structure, the researcher thought it would benefit this study if he could find out whether there was any form of coordination between the two units in relation to the English language teacher education curriculum designing. It was found that coordination between the two schools regarding the designing and implementation of the English language teacher education curriculum did not exist. This view was shared by almost all the lecturers who were interviewed. One of the lecturers actually observed as follows:

> There has been no coordination between the school of education and school of humanities. We work on assumptions that what we are both doing is ok for the students. I have been working for over ten years in this department. I have consistently noticed for instance that the school of humanities want students to do social linguistics in most of the semesters but I think psycholinguistics is better for teachers because it explains how humans acquire language and teachers will definitely need that more. Thus if there was coordination this would not be a problem.

Regarding the same issue another lecturer said as follows:

> Our courses are coordinated by the heads of sections and thus if there could be any coordination the two heads of department from humanities and education should do it. I saw last semester one colleague from education coming to ask us which courses are available for teaching but I am not sure if that was a way of finding out which ones should the students from education take and as a way of coordination, but I feel we can do more than that. We need to even share ideas at the time of curriculum development of these courses so that education students can take appropriate courses and not the way things are. What is off course done by the Senate

> curriculum review committee to which the two schools belong cannot be called coordination because senate is not a representation of the experts in the area of the English language teacher education. Students just guide themselves without knowing what they are doing. In fact the two departments should review their courses together since most of the students that we teach are from education.

The data from the two research questions revealed a number of issues regarding the criteria followed during selection, and the aim of the curriculum designers and thus the aim of the whole programme. Table 4.17 below gives a summary of the findings of research questions three and four. At this point the researcher could not actually go ahead to ask the last question as to whether the two sections from the two schools shared the same vision about the students and the programme because it was clear from the data that the two schools did not have the same aim about the English language teacher education curriculum.

4.8. Summary of the TE English language Curriculum's Intents and Content Selection

Table 4.17

Summary of lecturer's views about the aims and curriculum designing procedures for the English language programme

Content Lectures' Views	Methodology Lecturers' Views
• Held the view that their intent was to produce a linguist and not a teacher of English. Students were free to enter any industry upon graduation.	• To produce a teacher of English language for secondary schools.
• Believed that it was the duty of the methods lecturers (Applied Linguistics) to make the content relevant for schools.	• Assumed that students had learnt the relevant content from the content courses and thus in methods they are taught how to teach that content.
• Courses were also arrived at based on what lecturers in the department had specialised in.	• Have been accused of wanting to dilute the degree each time they what to make the courses related to the secondary school syllabus.
• Courses are arrived at based on institutional memory and what is viewed as important for any student of English language.	h. Based on what is taught in secondary school.

4.9. Research Question Five

Research question five sought to establish the challenges that the English language Teacher education curriculum that had been designed without conducting job analysis would present.

What challenges might a curriculum designed in this way present to the students on the programme?

4.9.1. Challenges arising from the designing process

The challenges were identified based on the data that the four earlier research questions had revealed as follows;

a. Because there was no common ground on which to base the aim of the programme and eventually that of the individual courses, the two schools, education and humanities and social sciences, did not share the same aim of the programme, which was to produce an effective teacher of the English language for secondary school. While the school of education aimed at producing a teacher of English the other school did not. The challenge was that even among lecturers, who are the curriculum implementers, those from the school of humanities and social sciences actually had not understood the aims of the programme. This challenge is clearly shown in the qualitative findings of research question three as explained earlier in this chapter.

b. Secondly, as a result of the first challenge described above, the English language teacher education curriculum was being implemented as a general curriculum and not as a professional education curriculum, where students were theoretically taught general concepts, principles, facts etc about English. This was a critical challenge because students on the programme were not being prepared for the profession they were to join upon graduation.

c. Research questions one and two suggested another challenge, namely that the English language teacher education curriculum did not have all the relevant skills and knowledge that were vital to adequately prepare a teacher of English. Data from research question four revealed that curriculum designers had used institutional memory and lecturers' specialisation as criteria for course content

selection instead of job analysis. As a consequence, the programme lacked the right content. Particularly the ANOVA test showed that subject content was the most poorly designed.

d. The challenges are sequential in the sense that not conducting job analysis led to a poorly designed programme and then the products were also likely to be affected. The other challenge was what research question two revealed that graduating teachers on the English language teacher education programme were not adequately prepared to teach English language in school because they lacked the right, relevant and appropriate content. The lack of appropriate subject content had further challenges which affected the teaching and learning of teaching methods. Since the students did not have the right subject content they also failed to understand and apply the methods that they had learnt in teaching methods.

e. Finally, it followed then as the findings had clearly indicated that the graduates were not fit for teaching the English language in Zambian secondary schools.

The other challenge that was revealed was that student teachers actually did more courses from the school of humanities although lecturers from the school claimed that their aim was not to produce a teacher of English. Document analysis revealed the following;

Table 4.18

Number of courses done over a four year period

Year	Subject Content Courses	Educational Content Courses	Methodological Courses	Practicum
1	6	2		
2	6	2		
3	6		1	
4	5	1 or 2	1	1

As can be seen in table 4.18, prominence was given to courses in the subject matter areas; i.e students took more courses from these areas each year, at a ratio of 6:2. It was in these same courses that earlier findings have revealed that what the student teachers were studied was not closely related to what they were supposed to teach in secondary school.

The challenges that have been expressed above were what led participants to make the following suggestions.

4.10. Suggestions from graduate teachers and student teachers on how to improve the programme

Given the experience in teaching English language that teachers who have graduated from the English language teacher education programme have had and the experience that student teachers also have had on the programme and during school experience, the questionnaire had for both respondents an open ended question which required them to make suggestions on how the university could possibly improve the curriculum for the English language for the better. The responses to the open-ended question revealed information which repeated the participants' strong position as they had indicated earlier when they were asked about the relevance of the English language content courses in relation to their job description.

Overall, the suggestions were critical about three main areas: (1) suggestions critical of the irrelevance of the courses; (2) suggestions on the need to link theory to the practice of teaching; and (3) suggestions on increasing the time and content scope in method courses.

Category 1: Suggestions critical of the irrelevance of the programme which need revision

The majority of the respondents, 112 out of 188 (59.57%), expressed a need of making the programme relevant by redesigning and reviewing courses on the English language teacher education curriculum in order to have the content which can produce an effective teacher of English language in schools. It was also suggested that having a richer curriculum would entail that student teachers study the content which is much more detailed than what is in secondary school but without ignoring what is relevant for teaching in schools. Given is a summary of what respondents had expressed;

a. *There is need to revise the courses to relate them more directly to school and peer teaching and methodology to have more courses*
b. *I think there is need to modify the content at least to make it directly relevant to what is expected to be experienced in the classroom in addition to the teaching methods course to enrich the teachers to be.*
c. *Revise the curriculum to be in line with what is in schools*
d. *Revisit the English language curriculum at UNZA so that it can much the one in schools*
e. *Make adjustments in the content courses so that they are in line with what is taught in schools*
f. *Tailor the programme to match with what is taught in secondary schools and have a longer period of teaching practice*
g. *Whilst it is important that a teacher should be above the learner or know far more than what the learner knows, it is also important the teachers at UNZA should acquire much of the knowledge and skills based on what they are going to teach when they graduate from university*
h. *Review the whole curriculum to suit what is in secondary school*
i. *I would suggest that the content of the programme at UNZA should match with what teachers are going to teach in schools although the teacher should do something a bit higher*
j. *I feel the UNZA programme is different from what is expected of us in schools. Let the course content at UNZA tally with what is taught in schools.*
k. *Much needed to be done in order to improve pupils' performance in our country. Let the courses that are taught be beneficial to the end user in the schools who is the pupil. As at now the courses at UNZA are too theoretical for the teacher.*
l. *I feel that more relevant courses should be designed for secondary school teachers.*
m. *Most of the courses in programme are good but they should be redesigned to help make teachers.*

Category 2: Suggestions on the need to link theory to the practice of teaching.

Just as they had expressed before, 40 (21.28%) of the respondents also made suggestions regarding the link between the theoretical orientations of the programme in and the actual practice of teaching in schools. A summary of what they stated is presented here below;

a. *Concentrate more on the practice of the content for schools rather than on the theory of linguistics. I found teaching in the early years really difficult because what I did at UNZA was too theoretical.*
b. *There is need to balance between theory and practical work. Lecturers should be giving examples related to the school syllabus*
c. *There is a need to bridge the gap that is there between the UNZA courses which are too theoretical and the practical aspect of English language teaching in class*

d. *What is offered at UNZA is more detailed as compared to what we teach at secondary school but sometimes it is too far away from what a teacher of English needs to teach English language. Make it practical and relevant*
e. *It is somehow more academic than the acquisition of knowledge and skills for teaching English language in Schools. What is taught at UNZA is different from what we teach in schools. The links are too loose. There is a need to make it practical by teaching what is in secondary school*
f. *The programme should be more practical oriented by relating it to what is taught in schools*

Category 3: Suggestions on increasing the time and content scope in method courses

36 (19.15%) of the respondents also suggested that methods courses should be given more time and that the scope of what is taught should be expanded so as to capture all that student teachers need to be prepared in, in terms of how to teach all the skills of English language as the secondary school curriculum stipulates.

a. *The content courses should be revised to suit schools while the methodology courses should ensure that all the techniques of teaching topics are taught*
b. *Teaching methods should be started as early as second year. It is sad that the most important courses such as teaching methods have very little time compared to content courses which most of them are not relevant*
c. *A lot more needs to be done in the methods department to equip teachers with methodologies on how to teach different components of English*
d. *More time should be taken to familiarise students with the content that they will be teaching in schools, more especially need to be done on how to teach summary, composition and structure.*

The above suggestions by student teachers and graduate teachers who themselves were products of UNZA are a further confirmation that the English language teacher education curriculum had challenges of producing teachers of English language who are fully prepared for the job of teaching English language. Borrowing the word of Biggs (2001), it can be concluded that these graduates were not 'fit for the purpose' of teaching English language in Zambian schools due to the ill designed curriculum that they followed.

Summary

Based on the five research questions that this chapter has presented, the findings that were arrived at through both qualitative and quantitative data sets strongly suggested that the teacher education programme had a number of challenges that had greatly contributed to compromising the quality of the graduate teacher. Particularly, the

findings revealed that the two schools had different aims for the same programme. While the School of Education aimed at producing teachers of English language, the School of Humanities and Social Sciences aimed at producing a graduate who could venture in any job. Secondly, the criteria for the selection of subject content for the courses of the programme were not based on what is taught in secondary school but mostly on institutional memory (what the university had been teaching over the years) and what the lecturer had specialised in. Furthermore, the data revealed that the implementation of the courses tend to be more theoretical than the application of the knowledge and skills in the teaching of the different aspects of the English language. Despite some of the lecturers knowing what was taught in secondary school, the data revealed that their understanding of university education was that of doing high theoretical content, in the name of developing cognitive thinking, regardless of whether it saved the right purpose or not. Such lecturers did not understand the fact that university education has a public responsibility of providing the right kind of human resource to meet the needs of society. The findings also revealed that both in-service and pre-service teachers and student teachers were not adequately prepared in the subject content and teaching methods and as a result their readiness to teach the English language is questionable. Specifically, the tests that student teachers did, which were taken from secondary school pupils' books, were poorly performed, a confirmation that the quality of graduating student teachers was poor. The chapter isolate five challenges that the programme presented as a result of ignoring the analysis of the job of a teacher of English. Graduate teachers and students teacher had made suggestions on how to improve the programme based on their experience of the programme. The next chapter is a discussion of the findings that have been presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and their implications on teacher education. The findings are discussed in relation to the research objectives and the existing knowledge in teacher education curriculum designing. In this chapter, effort has been made to reflect, confirm and extend current knowledge and thinking in teacher education curriculum designing. This has helped to interpret and outline what the findings meant to this study.

5.1. Graduates acquisition of Subject Content Knowledge and Skills for Teaching

One of the hallmarks of a profession is the mastery by the practitioner, in this case the teacher, of a body of knowledge and skills and autonomy in practice in the application of the knowledge and skills. Thus student teachers on any teacher education curriculum should, by the time of graduation, have acquired the knowledge and skills needed for the trade and be able to confidently apply them effectively in their practice.

Student teachers and graduate teachers (former UNZA students) were asked to rate themselves on their confidence to teach various aspects of the secondary school knowledge and skills as at the time of their completion of their studies. Findings from the analysis of the data that was collected, as shown in tables 4.4, 4.5 and figure 4.1, suggested that in-service, pre-service student teachers and teachers were not confident enough to teach. In fact for all the *t-tests* carried out it was clear that the total difference in the means was below average. This finding is worrisome because the participants in this study were prospective teachers of English. It may be argued that confidence to teach may not be acquired to an acceptable level at the beginning of one's teaching career. However, the question that we need to ask here is that of the in-service student teachers who have been teaching before. A question worth asking is that of wanting to know why they rated themselves the same as the pre-service. This is an interesting finding, and one that needs further analysis and follow up. In order to have a comprehensive answer especially about the in-service students, it is being recommended that a study be conducted about the quality of the teacher education programmes in the colleges of education that graduate such students with diplomas

since this study focused on university teacher education curriculum designing in English language. However, this is a new discovery because it has been assumed and taken for granted that in-service teachers are better than the pre-service teachers and that those from colleges of education are well prepared in knowledge and skills for teaching than university teacher graduates.

The data about the students' own rating of their understanding and coverage of the subject content knowledge and skills that are indicated in tables 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 provide some answers that are worth discussing in this section. The findings for both student teachers and teachers suggest that they did not cover and understand to an acceptable level, the content that was relevant for teaching in secondary school to an since the *t-tests* showed that the total mean differences were below average. The frequency and percentage tables actually show that the knowledge and skills that were relevant for secondary school teaching were mostly sometimes, seldom or never emphasised during lectures. The respondents' own answers in the open ended question that followed even gives more insight into the findings above. It would be beneficial, at least at this point, to reflect the percentages of what students said about the relevance of the subject content courses. 32.98% expressed the view that the content of the courses were not related to secondary school's knowledge and skills for teaching. 26.59% said that the course content was too theoretical, meaning that the university courses were not relevant for secondary school as well. 36.17% wanted the courses to be revised so that they could reflect secondary school knowledge and skills too. While 4.26% simply mentioned that the course content could not lead to a student teacher being prepared to teach the English language. If this was how the courses in the subject content were, it means that the students did not acquire the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching in secondary school and that explains the findings in the *t-test* tables that have been mentioned earlier. Thus a question would arise as to where a student teacher could get the confidence to teach what they did not cover and understand at university. Further confirmation about the relevance of the knowledge and skills that student teachers were taught was reflected in what the university curriculum designers and implementers themselves said. They claimed that their duty was to teach theories of English language and what was meant for secondary school should be for the school of education. The respondents (lecturers) from the school of education also say that their duty was to teach how to teach what students should have acquired in the subject

content courses. These findings clearly pointed to the achievement of research objective one in that the subject content courses did lacked the relevant knowledge and skills for secondary school teaching. The bigger question that this study should now answer at this point is that of not knowing what the implications of these findings about subject matter content could be. In order to answer this question we shall discuss and analyse the role of subject matter in teaching in the section that follows.

5.2. The role of Subject Content in teaching

Although subject content is widely acknowledged as a central component of what teachers need to acquire, findings in this study on teacher education curriculum designing have revealed that the English language curriculum in question did not have the relevant teachers' subject content. Yet to ignore the teachers acquisition of subject content knowledge is to undermine its importance in learning how to teach and in teaching. Philosophical arguments as well as common sense support the conviction that teachers' understanding of the subject content influences their strategies to help their pupils to learn. Conant (1963:93) wrote that "if a teacher is largely ignorant about the subject content he can do much harm". When teachers possess inaccurate information or conceive of knowledge in narrow ways, they may pass on the same incorrect ideas to their pupils. They may fail to challenge and correct pupils' misconceptions; they may use texts uncritically or may alter them inappropriately. Subtly, teachers' understanding of knowledge influence their practice, the kinds of questions they ask, the ideas they reinforce and the sorts of tasks they prepare for their pupils. This study has tried to prove a point on the relevance of subject content for teaching. The data and the findings on English language subject content knowledge, may have made this work move the field of teacher education beyond the counting of course credits as a measure of teacher knowledge. The graduate teachers who took part in this study had long graduated from the university and the university had declared them ready for teaching the English language in secondary school based on the courses that they had done and the credits or points that they had accumulated. But are credit points a correct criteria of what universities should use as a measure of who should take up the duties of teaching in schools. There should be more to it than just points or credits that have been accumulated. The teacher’s understanding of what they should teach is vital. In fact, what teachers need to know about the subject matter they are to teach should extend beyond the specific topics of the secondary school curriculum.

Shulman (1986:9) suggested that "teachers must not only be capable of explaining to pupils the defined skills and knowledge for secondary school's domain. They must also be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing and how it relates to other propositions and concepts". This kind of learning encompasses an understanding of the intellectual fabric and essence of the subject matter itself. For example, while teachers of English must acquire knowledge and skills on how different words are pronounced so as to teach pupils too, they will (at college or university) need to know the whole English vowel and consonant sound system in great detail something that they will not teach in its same focus and nature to secondary school pupils. Scheffler (1973:89) wrote that this kind of subject matter understanding "strengthens the teacher's powers and, in so doing, heightens the possibilities of his art". It is for this reason that one cannot argue by saying that what student teachers had learnt when they were once pupils in secondary school is sufficient to enable them teach the English language at the same level, secondary school. Some lecturers in the interviews expressed the view that student teachers will instead not need to learn what they learnt at secondary school since they understood it. Indeed, they may have understood it as pupils while in secondary school but in this case, as student teachers at university, they had to learn it for teaching.

Beers (1988) explained that the understanding of subject matter for teaching also includes a host of understandings about the subject-for example, the relative validity of different ideas or perspectives, the major disagreements within the field (in the past as well as current), how claims are justified and validated, what is entailed in doing and engaging in the discourse of the field. Beers (1988) further explained that while epistemological issues are rarely made explicit in secondary school classrooms, they are implicitly represented in the content and organisation of the curriculum, in the interaction between teachers and pupils, and in the nature of the classroom activity and discourse. Therefore, student teachers need to acquire knowledge and skills of the subject matter at the university level in order to teach it confidently to pupils in secondary schools. This is not to support the idea that student teachers should study lofty theories that have no relation to what is taught in secondary school. In an effort to highlight teacher education curriculum as a professional education curriculum, Ball and Bass (1999) explained that teacher education should focus on the knowledge and skills relevant for teaching, arguing that teaching requires a great deal of knowledge that is specific to the work of teaching. Similarly, Shulman (1986) had tried to

differentiate the kind of knowledge a well-educated person might acquire from a general curriculum about a subject from the specialized knowledge of a subject required for teaching. In this study, the lecturers who thought that university education was about learning theories in the subject matter that are not related to the practice of teaching would make good lecturers if they taught on a general curriculum and not on a professional curriculum such as the teacher education curriculum.

Lieberma and Wood (2003) explained that a number of large scale studies have found that when student teachers have opportunities to interact with their subject matter in ways that they aim for their own pupils in secondary school to do, they are more likely to engage in those practices in their classrooms at the time of teaching. Moreover, Ericsson, Krampe and Tesch-Romer (1993) also explained that cognitive psychologists have found that deliberate practice and purposefully study of certain skills and knowledge were particularly important to the development of expertise. Thus in order to develop the expertise in student teachers for English language the subject content they have to study should be purposefully selected. Finally, Darling-Hammond, Hammerness and Shulman (2005) concluded from their research, titled 'Situating learning in productive contexts for teachers', by saying that modern learning theory makes clear that expertise is developed within specific domains and learning is situated within specific contexts where it needs to be developed and from which it must be helped to transfer. It can thus be said about the findings in this study on subject content acquisition that whereas the English language teacher education curriculum had focused on generic conceptions of knowledge and skills development, as the lecturers from the school of humanities would like the courses to be designed, it now seems clear that, to be relevant, teachers learning should be developed in ways that connect to the content they are to teach. This can be made possible only if curriculum designers conduct job analysis before selecting such content. If this is not done, the results are obvious as this study is revealing that the curriculum content will be irrelevant and the products of the teacher education process will not be fit for the purpose.

5.3. Graduates acquisition of Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Being part of a profession involves making judgements every day that relate practice to a knowledge base of that profession. Teaching is a profession in which the practitioners must constantly make informed decisions so as to structure the learning

experiences for pupils in a particular way. Learning to teach is a continuum that only begins with a teacher education programme and extends throughout the teacher's career of teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). A teacher does not, therefore, learn such professional skills or acquire a body of knowledge, in a week-end seminar or in a one day in-service training session. Prospective teachers acquire a body of knowledge and develop skills over a long period of time through a coherent programme of study that includes subject content as well as teaching methods. In this study student teachers and practising teachers were asked to rate their coverage and understanding of different aspects of secondary school English language that they learnt in the methods courses. The rationale for asking participants to indicate how well they thought they had covered and understood these aspects in the teaching methods courses is that each knowledge type and skill will require a particular attention when it comes to teaching it to learners since all the skills and knowledge cannot be batched under one method. The results, as shown in *t-test* results in tables 4.9 and 4.10 in chapter four, suggest that both in-service and pre-service student teachers and graduate teachers were well or just well prepared in all the aspects and that the total mean differences for both groups, like in the subject content case, were below average. If the method courses do not prepare them well enough for teaching the different aspects of the specialised subject then one wonders how they will do their job. A specific operational description of pedagogical knowledge was proposed by Shulman (1987). The distinction is made between content knowledge of the field to be taught and the pedagogical content knowledge that involves the application of the content knowledge to teaching and involving the representation of that content in a comprehensible relevant manner to learners. What the findings were suggesting in this study was that the graduates of the English Language Teacher Education curriculum who took part in this study were lacking in their pedagogical content knowledge. A question might be asked as to what the source of this problem was. Lecturers of teaching methods courses from the school of education and indeed the aims for the course outlines indicated that the aim was to produce a teacher of English unlike the other group of lecturers from the other school of humanities whose aim was different as explained earlier. Lecturers who were interviewed from the school of education also indicated that the courses were taught in such a way that they captured the content that was in secondary school. The only problem could be that most of lecturers from the school of education left secondary school a long time ago and that there were some who had never taught in secondary

school at all. To argue at this point that teachers need to know the subject content matter they teach in order for them to teach effectively would just seem almost tautological, since a student teacher cannot teach what he/she does not understand. Conant (1963), Shulman (1996) and Darling-Hammond (2000) all suggested that the extent to which a student teacher understands content knowledge and skills will greatly affect how such a one understands the pedagogical content knowledge. The findings of the one way ANOVA in tables 4.11a and 4.11b actually point to what the three scholars above are referring to. A comparison of confidence to teach, coverage of subject content, and coverage of methodology among student teachers, teachers and a combination of the two groups, teachers and student teachers, showed that the mean differences in the three variables are lowest in content. This means that although the means are below average even in the other two areas content was the lowest. These findings were pointing to the fact that the understanding of subject content is vital for the understating of pedagogical content knowledge for teaching. The content knowledge that supports good teaching may is different from that which is generally acquired by individuals who may pursue a university major in a content field that makes them study anything and everything in that subject. It can be argued once again that, at a minimum, prospective teachers of English language need a solid foundation in the subject matter they plan to go and teach and requisite tools to continue learning (learning how to learn) in the subject matter throughout their careers, an argument which is consistent with the findings of this study. Once again this discussion brings the discourse back to the thesis statement of this study that job analysis is a vital preliminary ingredient in the designing of a teacher education curriculum because it will make the curriculum designer have the right subject content on the curriculum and eventually influence the acquisition of pedagogical content knowledge.

Although the term pedagogical content knowledge was introduced by Shulman, the idea is not new, Dewey (1902:35), for example, talked about the need to "psychologise the subject matter," to connect disciplinary knowledge to student teachers' future classroom experiences of teaching. In order to teach learners, one may not rely on only one way a particular skill or knowledge is to be taught but may rely on other general methods of teaching since there may be no one right answer in a given situation; because there are also approaches and methods that do not help every learner to learn.

In this study, participants were thus further asked to rate how well they were prepared in teaching methods and in the preparation and use of professional documents. The

findings are as reflected in tables 4.13 for teaching methods and table 4.12 for designing professional documents. The findings in both cases were that student teachers and graduate teachers were not adequately prepared at the time of their graduation since in both cases (student teachers and graduate teachers results) the total mean difference between the two groups was below average. In teaching methods, for instance, some teaching strategies such as the application of technology had almost a 1.0 mean difference between student teachers and graduate teachers, an indication that the curriculum content did not include modern ways of preparing teachers in term of technology in teaching. Remedial teaching in the professional document Table 4.12 was also almost 1.0 mean difference between graduate teachers and student teachers. However, even the other variables were indicating that there was the problem of inadequate preparation.

It is important at this point to reflect on the implications of teachers not knowing different types of teaching methods. In their work on models of teaching, Joyce and Weil (2003) had explained that different approaches to teaching are associated with different goals and objectives for learning. English language has these different objectives which include skills and knowledge to be acquired in speaking, reading, listening and writing. From this perspective then student teachers can learn or choose teaching methods or strategies in relation to the objectives of the lesson, drawing from multiple models as they balance the many objectives they prepare for pupils' learning and development. The difficulty that student teachers who do not learn a number of these strategies are likely to face is that they will be limited in terms of the variety of strategies from which to choose from, in order to meet the different objectives. From the data that this study has presented, students on the English language teacher education curriculum that this study was analysing are in danger of not having acquired skills and knowledge in a variety of teaching methods.

The ability to effectively participate in a professional community, such as that of teachers, will require that a prospective teacher is initiated into the practice of how certain documents in the profession are developed, used and interpreted, and how other practices such as team teaching and remedial teaching should be done. The process of professional induction into a community of practice should occur through the regular formal induction programme. During this process, new student teachers learn the culturally accepted norms of practice and thought associated with the community of practice. This socialization process shapes the future practice of many novice teachers.

Once again, student teachers in this study fall short of this expectation. The implication is that they will not be able to function as they should since they do not have the required understanding and skill of how to prepare and use their professional documents.

5.4. The Quality of graduating Teachers

Teachers must know the subject content matter that they teach. Indeed, there may be nothing more foundational to teacher competency than mastery of the subject content matter that a teacher has to teach. The reason is simple: Teachers who themselves, do not know the subject content well are not likely to help pupils learn the same content. It is the mastery of the relevant subject content matter for teaching, as we have previously consistently stressed, which gives meaning to the definition of quality of graduating teachers. Even if a student teacher graduates with a distinction, if such a one does not have the knowledge and skills for teaching, then he/she is not fit for the purpose of teaching and thus is of poor quality in terms of ability to teach a particular subject.

The second research objective in this study was aimed at assessing the quality of teachers that were to graduate from the English language teacher education programme. In order to achieve this objective two cohorts of student teachers were given tests that were the very skills and knowledge that they were expected to teach in secondary school. In fact the tests were taken from secondary school pupils' textbooks as indicated in appendix 8. Tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16 presents the results of the tests. Data collected from the tests showed that student teachers performed extremely poorly in most of the tests to the extent that some even got zero in some of the tasks. Appendix 11 shows some of the real answers that these students gave. One can see that their performance was way below that which is expected of a teacher. Their difficulties ranged from poor grammar, wrong spelling, lack of logic in composition writing and simply not having the knowledge of the subject. This is a clear manifestation that these students did not learn the relevant knowledge and skills through the university teacher education curriculum that they followed. Unfortunately, this is the end result of having courses whose content is not based on the knowledge and skills that the student teacher is to teach upon graduation. Because job analysis was not done so as to identify the relevant content subject matter, the course content in the English language teacher preparation curriculum was simply academic in both the best and worst sense of the

word, scholarly and irrelevant, either way remote from classroom teaching. It is for this reason that student teachers could not perform well in the tests were taken from pupil's textbooks of secondary school. Academic and theoretical knowledge, if it is not based on the analysis of the job of teaching, is likely to be oriented in directions other than teaching, towards the discipline of English linguistics courses, toward knowledge and methods for doing linguistics or mathematics courses toward knowledge and methods for doing mathematics. Such courses are likely to become an end in themselves and thus will not save the right purpose.

5.5. A lost Vision

The findings regarding the aim of the English language teacher education programme in this study show that the two schools, the school of humanities and social sciences where subject content was taught and the school of education where teaching methods were taught, had different aims for the same programme and students. While the curriculum designers in the school of education had the intentions of producing a teacher of English language, the curriculum designers in the school of humanities and social science expressed that it was not their mandate to produce a teacher of English language. This state of affairs is what this study is referring to as a 'lost vision'. It is a lost vision in the sense that student teachers needed to acquire the right skills for teaching English language in schools if they were to actually appreciate and put into practice what the methods courses would be requiring them to do. Methods courses are designed in such a way that they help student teacher on how to teach the skills that they would have covered in the subject content courses. However, several times the findings revealed that lecturers from the school of humanities thought that it was up to the school of education methods courses lecturers to teach what was relevant for secondary schools. One wonders then why students had to spend four years studying whatever they studied in the subject content when they were actually registered on a Bachelor of Arts with Education (BA Ed) programme whose aim was to provide the society with a teacher. Lacking a clear sense of purpose, a solidly developed teacher education philosophy, and strategies for accomplishing purposes, teacher education curriculum designers may not yield a positive outcome for which the curriculum is meant. Numerous scholars, critics, and pundits have commented on the kind of teacher education curriculum that is necessary for the twenty-first century, the type of skills

and knowledge teachers will require for teaching by stressing the role that aims of teacher education should play in coming up with the right kind of curriculum which is responsive to the needs of the student teacher and society (Boyer and Baptiste, 1996; Garcia, 1996; Good, 1996; Haberman, 1996). Darling – Hammond (1996) also suggested that the quality of the teacher education programme depends on the vision that the teacher education curriculum designer and implementer has for the programme. Moreover, the world of curriculum designing has never lacked theories that clearly describe and give guidance on how the aims of a teacher education curriculum should be arrived at. Being a professional education curriculum, as explained in chapter two, the aims of any teacher education curriculum should be based on the competency-based curriculum design approach whose genesis should be job analysis. Job analysis would in this case help teacher education curriculum designers at the University of Zambia to identify the competencies that are relevant for a teacher education curriculum. It is these same competencies which should describe the aims of the English language teacher education curriculum.

The data also show that lecturers from the school of humanities claimed that in teaching the subject content their aim was to prepare students develop analytical skills and high levels of cognition. They further claimed that it was not they mandate to teach skills such as summary, parts of speech, composition and other such skills that are taught in secondary school. To begin with, students on the programme that this study was looking at were being prepared to be teachers of English in schools. Thus teaching them all that was mentioned by lecturers from the school of humanities was good but the question worth asking would be, for what purpose. In the explanation of the philosophies of education in chapter two, we tried to answer this question regarding the purpose of education. In this case, the essentialist view of curriculum design and implementation seems to be preferred by the school of humanities curriculum designers. According to Oliva (1997), the essentialist philosophy of education is that curriculum design which is developed on the premise that what is to be learnt is selected by the teacher without consideration of the students' future and present needs. This is exactly what this study has revealed since the lecturers determined the content knowledge without consideration of the student's future duties. The problem and challenge with this type of curriculum is that students are taught irrelevant knowledge and skills as manifested by the test results in table 4.15 which

show that students performed poorly in the knowledge and skills that they should have acquired at university. The problem was that curriculum designers who provided curriculum subject content were ignorant of the fact that even high levels of cognitive development should have a purposeful direction. One would question the direction in which the student teachers' cognitive development should go if not towards the acquisition of knowledge and skills to teach in secondary school. It is lack of understanding to imagine that a student teacher who is being prepared to teach, for instance, summary or composition in school cannot develop any cognitive or intellectual skills. Clearly the teaching of summary, composition or any other skill in English language really requires clear thinking and application of cognitive skills. Let us take the teaching of composition writing as an example. For any type of composition, the teacher will require to have the three basic thinking skills of composing the ideas, organising the ideas and expressing the ideas. Each of these three skills has a pattern of cognitive thinking that the writer of a composition should have and in order for the teacher to teach it to learners such a teacher should have the skills. To be more specific, in order to teach an argumentative composition, Luangala (in press:195) explained as follows:

> *'that the teacher would have to help the learner present an argument and the effect desired is to persuade the reader to agree with either the argument or point of view espoused in the argument. The main challenge in this discourse type arises from the need to be rational in the presentation of the argument'.*

Thus it is not true that it is only in the subject content that the student teachers would be helped to develop their cognition or the ability to think.

The findings further suggest that because of differing aims the two schools envisaged to produce a graduate who unfortunately was being prepared by the two schools that had two opposing aims. It is important at this point to clearly reflect in this discussion that teacher education, like any other professional education curriculum has a public responsibility to fulfil. The public responsibility should in the end determine the aims of the curriculum.

5.6. Teacher Education's responsibility for Public purpose

The theoretical perspectives that have been discussed in chapter two all emphasise the fact that teacher education curriculum design should be anchored on the purpose of the

programme which is usually well defined by job analysis. Job analysis identifies the skills that are needed by the candidates of a professional education curriculum in order for them to effectively execute their duties upon graduation. What the theories are saying in other words is that teacher education has a public responsibility to fulfil and it follows then that educational institutions such as colleges of education and universities are accountable to the society which needs the teachers that they produce. The findings in this study as based on both qualitative and quantitative data sets are revealing that the English language teacher education curriculum in question is producing a teacher of English who is not well grounded in the subject content for teaching and in teaching methods because the intentions of the curriculum designers are wrong right from the design and implementation stages. This implies that the teacher that the institution gives to the public falls short of the expected quality.

Frazier (1999) explained that universities tend to treat schools of education and the preparation of teachers like any other department, school or college without bearing in mind the peculiarities that the school has in order for it to fulfil its societal obligation of producing a teacher for the public. This was what was observed in the case of teacher education curriculum designing in this study where the lecturers that taught subject content had the programmes' intent which was not in line with the needs of the end users, who are learners and schools. What the public expects from the teacher education curriculum cannot be ignored by the designers and implementers since doing so would simply render the teacher education curriculum irrelevant. Once the public loses confidence in the products and the programmes that the university offers, the consequences for the higher institutions of learning can be huge. For instance, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education in Zambia had asked the University of Zambia, School of Education and School of Natural Sciences, to upgrade diploma holding Science and Mathematics teachers to a degree level under a special programme which was designed for a distance model of learning with the support of residential school periods and modules under the name Fast Track Teacher Education Programme. After two years, the Ministry decided to withdraw the programme from the highest institution of learning in Zambia, UNZA, and gave it to a private and new University. The Ministry of Education's reason for withdrawing their teachers was that they did not have enough funds to support the teachers. This did not, however, match with their actions because the teachers who were sent to the private

university under the same arrangements were still paid for by the Ministry of Education. However, at the launch of the Fast Track Teacher Education Programme on 22nd August 2014 at DMI-St. Eugene University Main Campus, where the programme was taken, the then Minister of Education commented in his speech as follows;

> *I took my teachers to the University of Zambia to learn mathematics and science for teaching in secondary schools but they taught them something else that had no relation to what our teachers needed to make good teachers of science and mathematics and which most of them continued failing.*

The Ministry's action of withdrawing the programme from the university and giving it to another institution and the comment made by the Minister during the launch were a clear demonstration of the Ministry's loss of confidence in the curriculum and product of mathematics and science teacher education. This is what can happen when a curriculum is not based on the needs of the profession for which it is meant. Moreover, the University of Zambia's motto is 'service and excellence' while its mission is "To provide relevant higher education through teaching, research and community service" (UNZA, 2012: 16). It is thus clear from the motto and the mission statement of the institution that excellence in academic achievement by its students should be designed to serve the society who actually own the education system that UNZA is part of. The mission statement also has it clear that relevance of its programmes is vital if the community is to receive the expected service. Therefore, understanding the fact that teacher education has a public mandate to fulfil is far more important than what some lecturers in this study claimed that their mandate was to teach linguistics, make student teachers critical thinkers etc. This study is not overlooking the duty that universities have of generating new knowledge and new practices to improve life in society. But what we are saying is that the university's new knowledge and skills should meet the needs of society. This can be achieved by designing a curriculum this is based on situational or job analysis.

5.7. Teacher Education and the Practice of the Profession

One of the perennial dilemmas of teacher education is how to integrate theoretically based knowledge that has traditionally been taught in university lecture rooms with the experience-based knowledge that has traditionally been located in the practice of teachers and the realities of classrooms and schools.

Darling- Hammond (2000) reported that traditional versions of teacher education have often had students taking batches of front-loaded course work in isolation from practice and then adding a short dollop of student teaching to the end of the programme often in classrooms that did not model the practices that had previously been described in abstraction. However, the most powerful programmes require students to spend extensive time in the field throughout the entire programme, examining and applying the concepts and strategies they are simultaneously learning about in their courses alongside teachers who can show them how to teach in ways that are responsive to learners (Lampert, 2001).

Findings in this study point to the fact that the courses are too theoretical and each time the school of education suggested redesigning of subject content that was taught in the school of humanities so as to make it practical for schools they were accused of wanting to dilute the degree. In fact one lecturer had strongly opposed the idea that teacher education curriculum should reflect the knowledge and skills which match with the practice of teaching English language in secondary schools when the participant said that 'we cannot confine university education to a box called secondary school'. First of all, this mentality is a reflection of the top down approach to teacher education curriculum designing where the university staff who are up there would have to select the knowledge and skills for the secondary school down there. The practice of the teacher education curriculum being designed and implemented along theoretical and content-based approaches is what made most student teachers fail to answer the test questions that were taken from secondary school pupil's textbooks since what they had done at university was all too theoretical with no connection to secondary school knowledge and skills. It is what participant 12 in the group interviews referred to when he said that he was struggling to apply what had been learnt from the teacher education curriculum. However, the crust of the matter is that teacher education cannot afford to be only theoretical because it is a professional education curriculum which should be practice oriented. Its quality is judged by how its graduates are able to put into practice what they learnt. In this study, the lack of connection between the English language that is taught in secondary schools and the academic content in the English language teacher education programme was pointed out to be the reason why graduating teachers are not adequately prepared to meet the needs of the secondary school

syllabus. Findings are pointing to the fact that student teachers were not learning the skills that they were going to teach in secondary school. This divide between theory and practice in teacher education is best exemplified by the historical separation between university-based course work and fieldwork in schools. An underlying assumption to this separation is that the theoretical resides in university teaching methods and the practical resides in school-based placements (Rosaen & Florio-Ruane, 2008). Numerous scholars have challenged this assumption. In 1904, John Dewey argued that professional instruction for teachers necessarily must include both theoretical and practical work, raising the question of how theory and practice relate in the context of professional education. Since then, and particularly once teacher education became part of the university, teacher educators have been challenged to conceptualize the relationship between theory and practice and to develop structures and practices within professional preparation that support prospective teachers to develop theories and practical strategies for teaching. In other words, the teacher education curriculum should be designed in such a way that its subject content courses from the school of humanities and its teaching methods courses from the school of education should be designed and implemented not from the theoretical point of view but with a view of how it can help the graduate teacher teach in schools.

If teachers are to be able to teach composition writing, changing a text from direct speech into reported speech, help students learn to write clear paragraphs, and diagnose pupils' difficulties with sentence structures, then their teacher education curriculum must be designed to prepare them to be skilful in these tasks. It is unrealistic to assume that most people can learn these difficult practices while trying to teach real students, or through observing and talking with more experienced teachers. Thus for a professional curriculum, such as the teacher education curriculum, theory cannot be learnt in isolation from practice.

5.8. The Wisdom of Practice – Teacher Education link with Industry

The lack of connection between the teacher education curriculum at UNZA and the school curriculum in Zambia was not the only challenge that this study has found in terms of the link between teacher education programmes and the needs of their industry, the schools. When asked as to whether curriculum designers in the university know what is taught in secondary school it was discovered that in fact the problem was

not only about the content but that most of the lecturers who taught on the teacher education programme at UNZA left secondary school teaching many years ago and that some have even never taught in secondary school before even if they now teach either methods courses or content courses.

This study would urge teacher educators to learn the 'wisdom of practice' in that it would help them link their own university practice with that of the industry, the schools. Lecturers in universities may tend to think that the development of new knowledge and the teaching of theories are the primary driving forces of their practice. However, the need for the presence of teacher education staff in the schools where they send their graduates has been a repeated mantra of many teacher educators for the past decades (Hansen, 1995; Zeichner, 2005; Vick, 2006; Stones and Morris, 1977 and Holland, 2004). Wisniewski (1989:142) suggested that; "a normal part of the ideal professor's week would regularly be spent in the schools. This expectation should apply to all lecturers of education with no distinction regarding the area of specialty. The equivalent of one full day each week would be the minimal expectation for this type of activity". A question which may arise would be what difference this could make. This will definitely help lecturers on the teacher education programme to get to know what is expected of them when they are teaching prospective teachers. This will actually take care of the concern that one lecturer participant expressed when he said that having a teacher education curriculum which is linked to the schools is one thing but implementing it accordingly is another thing altogether. If lecturers had no experience in teaching at secondary school level it would be extremely difficult for them to teach others how to teach in secondary school. Having lecturers on the teacher education curriculum programme who have experience about what is taught in secondary school is unacceptable since such lecturers do not know where to start from in preparing student teachers for their teaching duties upon graduation. Unfortunately, results have indicated that the English language teacher education curriculum in this study has some of such staff on it. This had partly explain why some students had complained about the curriculum being too theoretical. A lecturer who has never had the experience of the industry for which he/she is preparing students will most likely end up reading theoretical notes to students and expect them to reproduce the same notes during assessments. Moreover, a lecturer who left secondary school many years ago would be giving outdated examples and most likely would not be conversant with

the modern ways of teaching the subject. The end result would be that student teachers would not learn the practical side of their professional duties at all.

In the discussion of findings in this chapter, we have talked about how the problem that the researcher was analysing can be overcome from a curriculum theory and practice point of view. How about from the educational policy point of view. Could there be any structural organs, departments or units in the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education that should ensure that institutions of higher learning provide the society with the right products? In the 1996 Education policy document, Educating our Future, it was proposed that a Higher Education Authority be established so that issues related to quality assurance of higher institutions of learning in the country could be dealt with through that organ. Specifically, out of its twelve objectives those that were related to the issue under study here were that the authority should;

- ensure that the programmes offered in publicly-funded institutions maintain relevance to the human, occupational and skills needs of the country.
- ensure that quality assurance procedures are put in place, followed and monitored.

If these two objectives were implemented most likely we may not have had a situation as the one this study has analysed regarding the relevance of teacher education curriculum. However, up to this day the Higher Education Authority that was dreamed of nineteen years ago has not been established. Supposing it was established, could things have improved in teacher education? The mandate of this authority had weaknesses. One of the weaknesses was that it did not include universities and private higher institutions of learning. But the challenges that this study has shown in teacher education were actually in a university teacher education curriculum. This study is thus proposing what we would call the establishment of a National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education whose mandate should be to ensure that all universities providing teacher education and colleges of education demonstrate that their curriculum are designed according to the needs of society and current research findings and best practices and that the students and faculty alike should demonstrate the relevant knowledge and skills of teacher education and which should be the criteria for accreditation, failure to which such institutions should be stopped to practice.

Summary

Student-teachers in this study have demonstrated in the tests, in their opinions about the programme that they followed and in their own rating of teaching competences, that as prospective teachers they were not being adequately prepared to teach the English language in secondary schools and that their lecturers were not providing them with quality learning experiences in relation to what they were supposed to teach upon graduation. This can be linked to the definition of quality as defined by Biggs (2001:28) as "fit for the purpose". The core function of any teacher preparation programme is to help the student teachers acquire appropriate skills, knowledge, values and attitudes so that they can offer quality teaching experiences to their learners (Futrell, 2010). If the institutional curriculum does not allow for this to happen, student-teachers cannot be fully prepared for the job of teaching. Findings in this study suggested that it is unlikely that student teachers who graduated from the programme under study will effectively facilitate the process of learning the English language among pupils in Zambian secondary schools.

Additionally, since student teachers form their identities by modelling the behaviour of those who teach them, the university needs to examine the placement of staff in relation to those who are trained in pedagogy versus those who are not. The role of teacher educators is becoming increasingly demanding (Ben-Perez 2001). One of the roles of the teacher educator is to assist students in becoming effective practitioners within their field. However, this can only be achieved if the teacher educator understands his/her role and is guided by the course outlines or the whole curriculum which is designed to facilitate the acquisition of necessary competencies needed to effectively guide student-teachers. The findings in this study were that teacher educators had contradictory intents and points of focus of the programme. Teacher educators for methodology and content had opposing aims for the programme. While the former felt that student teachers needed to be prepared for their future duties of teaching the later did not have such an intention for the programme. Additionally, it is required that teacher educators reflect on their practice and address weaknesses that this study had found (Miller et al, 2011). The student-teachers in this study expressed

concern about the balance between theory and practice in their teacher preparation programme. They felt that they were not getting enough practice in their preparation for classroom teaching. Practice in teacher preparation is critical as this is what allows the student teacher to interact with lecturers, fellow student teachers and content; engage in proactive decision-making and then model observed behaviours (Hollins, 2011). One assumes, therefore, that this process should translate into helping student teachers to acquire the competencies for teaching a particular subject area. Creating a balance between students‟ expectations and institution expectations can be more problematic for some institutions. While university education prescribes that students study theories and abstract content, it is also important that this is guided the analysis of the job so as to identify the relevant knowledge and skills which can be acquired by the students in order to prepare them for the particular future duties of the profession. The curriculum for any teacher preparation programme is one of the criterion used to judge the quality of the programme. Therefore, it must be carefully designed to incorporate all the elements that will contribute to positive outcomes. Student' performance in tests, their self rating of teaching experiences, their opinions about the curriculum that they followed and lecturers' interviews suggest that the curriculum needs to be reviewed to allow the student teacher's success in teaching and to enable them to make a credible contribution to society's future development. This view is supported by some researchers who use an outcomes-based approach to education, as explained earlier and those who judge quality in terms of outcomes (Harvey 2006). This approach is also based on the premise that if the curriculum is designed to achieve clearly defined outcomes then it will increase the likelihood of all students being successful. A teacher education curriculum is a professional curriculum and, its content should be based on the demands of the profession. By employing a bottom-up approach to curriculum development, designers of the teacher education curriculum in Zambia and indeed in any other institution in the world are likely to provide the trainee teacher with the relevant and appropriate skills, values, attitudes and knowledge for their future responsibilities of teaching. In our view, a teacher preparation curriculum should have clearly defined outcomes which may then be used to judge its quality.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This final chapter is an attempt to show that the research questions raised in chapter one have been answered. The researcher has also endeavoured to show that the gap in knowledge that was identified during the literature review has been filled. In this chapter efforts have been made to remind the reader of the purpose of the study and then a summary of the main research findings as answers to the research questions has been presented. The chapter also presents the study's recommendations. Theoretical and practice related implications of the results of the study and its contribution to new knowledge are later presented. This is followed by some suggestions on areas for future research and interventions since some of the findings may require further research and may invite more academic debates on them.

6.1. The Main Research Findings and Conclusions

As a reminder to the reader, this study was looking at the designing of the English language teacher education curriculum. The problem that was identified for investigation in this study was that of not knowing what happens to the subject content and products (students) of a professional education curriculum such as the English language teacher education curriculum if job analysis is not done at the beginning of the designing process. The summary of the main findings are presented here below as guided by the research questions.

6.1.1. Course content lacking in relevant knowledge and skills for teaching

Research question one sought to elicit data which provided answers on the extent to which the English language teacher education curriculum had the required content which was relevant for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools. The results of lecturers' interviews and questionnaire responses from student teachers and graduate teachers clearly showed that the courses, which made up the English language teacher education curriculum, did not contain the relevant English language knowledge and skills to adequately prepare prospective teachers for teaching in secondary school. The analysis of data using *t-tests* and one way ANOVA clearly

revealed that pre-service student teachers, in-service student teachers and graduate teachers did not cover and understand relevant content to enable them to effectively teach in secondary school. Actually, student teachers' own self rating on their confidence to teach English language confirmed this finding. The study further revealed that the lack of relevant knowledge and skills in subject content courses affected the students' understanding of the pedagogical content knowledge. The study also showed that the graduating students' readiness to prepare and use professional documents, such as the syllabus, and schemes of work was also inadequate.

6.1.2. Quality of products from the English language Teacher Education Programme

Research question two was meant to facilitate the collection of data which would provide answers to the question of the quality of the products (teachers) of the English language teacher education curriculum. Test results for student teachers further confirmed that student teachers were mostly studying irrelevant knowledge and skills. This conclusion was arrived at because the content of the tests that student teachers wrote were the exact class exercises that these prospective teachers were going to later on teach to their pupils. However, they themselves could not answer the test questions correctly. Thus the study concluded that the quality of the products from the English language teacher education programme was poor.

All the above findings just confirmed one thing, that a teacher education curriculum that is not based on the analysis of the job of teaching cannot have a relevant curriculum which is likely to produce a quality, fit for the purpose, teacher.

Furthermore, the study has reinforced the need for government, through the Ministry of Higher Education, to establish a National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education which should look into the issues of the relevance of the teacher education curriculum in the country. The council should take up the quality assurance role for all teacher education programmes.

6.1.3. Differing in the perceptions of the purpose of the Teacher Education Curriculum Designing

Research question three solicited data which helped the researcher to get to know the intentions of the curriculum designers for the teacher education programme for English language. The results of the study established that they were different perceptions of purpose in the aims of the courses in the subject content areas that were offered in one school and in the methods courses that were offered in another school. While the method courses designers' (lecturers) intentions were to prepare student teachers for teaching in secondary school the subject content courses designers (lecturers), who in fact were supposed to prepare the students in the subject knowledge and skills of the English language, had different intentions altogether. The differing in the perception of purpose made the curriculum designers of subject content course select knowledge and skills which were irrelevant for the English language teacher education curriculum. The study had further revealed that the student teachers were the main victims of this problem as they had to learn mainly theories of linguistics in the subject content and then were expected to learn how to teach English language in the methods courses.

6.1.3.1. Theoretical Implementation of the Curriculum

The study further revealed that most of the subject content and method courses were taught from a theoretical point view instead of linking them to the actual knowledge and skills that are to be taught in secondary school. Therefore student teachers could not acquire the relevant knowledge and skills for teaching in secondary schools.

6.1.3.2. Teacher Education Curriculum Designers' Ignorance of Secondary School Syllabus.

The study revealed that most of the lecturers teaching on the English language teacher education programme were not aware of the knowledge and skills that was taught in English language in secondary school. Those who once taught in secondary school only did so many years ago and others had never taught in secondary school at all. This finding made the researcher to conclude that the theoretical teaching of the courses on the English language teacher education programme seemed to have been as a result of having lecturers who were ignorant about what is taught in secondary

school. Thus such lecturers could not teacher the course content in the light of what is to be taught in secondary school by student teachers upon graduation.

6.1.4. Criteria for Course Content Selection

The question of the criteria which were followed in selecting the content for the English language teacher education curriculum was answered by the data that was solicited by research question four. The study had revealed that curriculum designers had no clear criteria to follow when selecting course content for inclusion in the curriculum. The findings were that that content lecturers especially, depended on what their department had thought was the right content for the many years that the courses had been in existence. Thus, their curriculum designing process was dependent on institutional memory as a guide for content selection and implementation. The other discovery was that course content was also selected on the basis of what lecturers thought they were capable of teaching. In other words, curriculum implementers' area of specialisation was another criterion that was applied. Once again the needs and future responsibilities of learners were ignored just as in the findings about the aims of the programme. The conclusion here is that the teacher education curriculum designing under study did not follow a criterion for content selection which could provide a relevant curriculum for prospective teachers.

Research question five sought for data that provided answers to the challenges that a curriculum designed in the way the English language teacher education curriculum at UNZA was designed might have presented to students and lecturers. The four research questions whose findings have been presented in this chapter have indicated the challenges of the English language teacher education programme as discussed in the details of chapter four.

6.2. Theoretical Implications of the Study

The findings in this study are consistent with the tenets of curriculum designing theoretical perspectives described in chapter two which all point to the importance of job analysis. For example, the student teachers' failure to answer most test questions that were taken from secondary school pupil's textbooks suggested that what English language student teachers were studying at university lacked knowledge and skills that were relevant for teaching in secondary school. Furthermore, the student teachers' and

practicing teachers' own rating of their confidence to teach at the time of graduation, their rating of the extent to which they had covered and understood the knowledge and skills in subject content courses and teaching methods courses that were relevant for secondary school revealed that these participants had not been adequately prepared to teach the English language. This is all because the curriculum designers did not adhere to the proper procedures of selecting content for the professional education curriculum courses that is; by first analysing the job of teaching so as to identify the relevant knowledge and skills that a prospective teacher should acquire. Thus, the curriculum designers' (lecturers) ignorance about how professional education curricula should be designed and implemented also add to the relevance of the theoretical perspectives that this study relied on. Therefore, appropriate prior knowledge about how a competency based and professional education curriculum should be designed and implemented is an essential element in curriculum designing (Harvey, 2006; Ben-Petetz, 2001; Biggs, 2001 & Zeichner, 2010). Thus the primary lesson from this study was that in order for curriculum designers to effectively design a teacher education curriculum job analysis should precede the process.

6.3. Implications for Practice

The findings in this study have instructional implications related to the student teachers' and practicing teachers' ability to teach English language in secondary school. It is evident from the findings in this study that the student teachers and practicing teachers lacked adequate knowledge and skills English language for teaching in secondary school. Furthermore, the lecturers' wrong conception of how a teacher education curriculum should be designed is actually the central challenge. The findings of this study, regarding the student teachers' and practicing teachers' lack of relevant knowledge and skills for teaching, have important implications on teacher education and teaching and learning in secondary schools. In order to produce an effective teacher of English language, the English language teacher education curriculum courses need to have relevant English content of the English language for teaching in schools. According to Darling-Hammond (2000) and Hammerness (2006), teachers need a thorough and coherent knowledge of the subject matter in order for them to develop appropriate pedagogical skills. Lecturers in the university who teach on this programme should be those who have secondary school teaching background

and should keep in constant touch with the developments in the content knowledge of secondary school.

6.4. Recommendations

In the light of the findings in chapter four, the following recommendations are being made.

a. While designing courses that will provide a wider understanding of the English language, teacher education courses at the University of Zambia should capture all the knowledge and skills that are relevant for teaching the English language in secondary school.

b. Teacher educators who are both the curriculum designers and curriculum implementers need to practice how to teach and experiment with how best to help novice teachers to develop the teaching of the knowledge and skills that students acquire during their teacher education years.

c. The university administration in both the school of education and humanities and social sciences should get rid of the historical divisions that exist in the education of teachers. These include the curricular divide between subject content and methods courses; this may imply that the two schools should think about bringing the two departments under one school or simply have courses that are specifically meant for school of education students.

d. The university should ensure that those lecturers who prepare student teachers should themselves have taught the English language in secondary school and should in some way remain in touch with what is taught in secondary school. Either as part-time teachers or take short breaks from university lecturing for the purpose of teaching for a short while in secondary school. This may mean that the University of Zambia should have a demonstration school where both lecturers and student teachers will need to teach.

e. Finally, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should urgently concluded the process of setting up a National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The Council's mandate should be to closely monitor the quality of teacher education

programmes in the country in relation to their job description and the quality of graduating students from universities and colleges of education.

6.5. Originality of this thesis, innovations and contribution to new knowledge

It is important that I address the issue of originality in this thesis not only because it is one of the criteria of assessing quality in a doctoral research, but also, because it ensures that the study made significant contribution to English language teacher education curriculum designing from a Zambian perspective.

The originality of this thesis is that it exposes the trends of the emerging and contemporary struggles for comprehending the importance of job analysis as a preliminary ingredient of an effective teacher education curriculum design in universities and colleges of education. The theoretical frameworks and perspectives which guided the research are practical and now tested examples which have been strongly recommended by renowned teacher education scholars and researchers such as Linda Darling-Hammond, Lee Shurman, C. P. Chishimba, Grossman Pamela, Robert Roth, Kelvin Zeichner and curriculum specialists such as Raph Tyler, Murry Print, John Biggs, Hildah Taba, Stenhouse and D. K. Wheeler that have been mentioned in chapter two.

The study used the mixed method research approach and more specifically the 'convergent parallel design' to analyse teacher education curriculum designing in the oldest public university in Zambia. It is the first study of its kind in Zambia to empirically appraise the current situation of teacher education based on student teacher's confidence to teach what they learn, coverage and understanding of subject content and method courses of knowledge and skills that are relevant for secondary school. The significance of this study also lies in the fact that there is very limited prior empirical and theoretical studies, if any, that has been conducted to examine the importance of job analysis of teacher education curriculum designing using mixed methods. Therefore, this study makes a considerable contribution to the literature and largely to the field of teacher education curriculum designing in Zambia using a mixed method design. The study thus lays a ground for future studies.

The conclusions on this study are not imposed on the study but reflect various situations and views expressed by various respondents in the study and supported by literature. The study has contributed to the awakening debate on the relevance of job analysis to all teacher education curriculum designers. The aspect that had been at the

centre of this study had been whether teacher education curriculum designers can come up with a relevant curriculum which has the relevant knowledge and skills to prepare teachers, if designers had not first conducted analysis of the job of teaching. This thesis used theoretical perspectives, philosophies of education and the Zambian education policies which had confirmed the importance of analysing the job of teaching (see chapter two). To the best knowledge of the researcher, some of the information gathered during this research has not been documented anywhere. The new knowledge includes the revelation that student teachers of English language in this study were not adequately prepared in the subject content and as a result this had affected their understanding of the pedagogical content knowledge of the subject. Once again this is a point for further research on other teacher education programmes as it has been recommended later in this thesis. The other new finding is that in-service student teachers are also affected in the same way just like the pre-service student teachers in the preparation for teaching despite having a diploma in education.

Indeed the application of theoretical perspectives to the problem the study investigated had made this work unique in the sense that while literature reviewed indicated that most studies on teacher education only defined 'the what' of the problems of poor quality of graduate teachers, instead this study used the theoretical perspectives which are anchored on job analysis to analyse and explain 'the why' about the poor quality of graduates. The researcher thus made a critical analysis of some of its findings and highlighted some issues that may require further research.

This study established that the need to establish a Higher Education Authority Board (MoE, 1996) is necessary and neither has the essence of the 'message' itself changed since the quality of teacher education programmes, as exemplified by the English language curriculum in this study, still needs critical attention. While the higher education authority was to look at the whole higher education family of educational institutions, this study supports the Ministry of Higher Education's idea of a National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education which will ensure relevance of teacher education curriculum to the job description of a teacher in all institutions producing teachers. This is likely to be a more focused and an effective Council because it will concentrate on teacher education and nothing else.

6.6. Suggestions for Further Research

Research on any topic in education is never ending or exhaustive. Thus the mentality that should shape and control the minds of education researchers, scholars and evaluators is the one which indicates that if there is nothing wrong with an aspect of education, then researchers, scholars and evaluators should be looking into possibilities of improving it before wrong happens. In the case of teacher education curriculum designing in the institution under study it can be said that there was already something wrong as findings, discussions and recommendations have indicated. Therefore, the following areas are being suggested here as areas for further research.

i. There is a need to carry out similar studies on the other teacher education programmes in Zambia.

ii. It would also be vital to conduct research by analysing the quality of teacher educators in Zambian colleges and universities in relation to the programmes that they teach on.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Student Teachers' Consent Form

Introduction

I am seeking your consent to be involved in a study related to student teachers that I am carrying out.

Description

The study is titled *Teacher Education Curriculum Design for English Language at the University of Zambia.* It will involve you writing tests on some of the knowledge and skills that teachers of English teach in Zambian secondary schools and filling in of a questionnaire after you have done your school experience.

Risks and Benefits

Occasionally, people do not like to be participants in research studies. This is the only risk associated with this study. The benefits, which may reasonably be expected to result from this study, are that you may be helping to improve our understanding of teacher education especially the aspect of Curriculum design in institutions of higher learning in Zambia.

Ethics and Participant's rights

This study adheres to research ethics and I assure you that:

1. The study will not interfere with your activities and programme of study at the University of Zambia.
2. You will not be identified or named.
3. You can choose to withdraw from the study at any time.

Thank you for considering this.

Participant's Consent

Name ……..... Signed .....…

Programme and year of study ……..... Date ……

Appendix 2

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENT TEACHERS

I am a PhD student carrying out an academic research study in which your assistance is very important. Please kindly respond as truthful as possible to the items in the instrument **by a tick (√) or an explanation in the spaces provided.** The information you will give will be treated with utmost confidence and will only be used for the sole purpose of this particular study.

Instructions

a. Do not write your name on this questionnaire.
b. Do not mention any name of any person in this questionnaire.
c. Read the questionnaire items carefully before you answer them.

1. a. Indicate your gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
   b. Indicate type of Student: In-Service [ ] Pre-Service [ ]

2. Indicate by ticking **(√)** in the appropriate space to your right hand side the extent to which you can **confidently teach** the following aspects (see table below) of English Language having gone through the English Teacher Education programme at UNZA?

Skills	**Excellent** 5	**Very Well** 4	**Well** 3	**Fairly well** 2	**Not Well** 1
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

3. How do you rate your understanding and coverage of the following aspects (see table below) of English language after doing content courses at UNZA in the Department of Literature and Languages. Tick**(√)** in the appropriate box to your right hand side.

Skills	**Excellent** 5	**Very Well**	**Well** 3	**Fairly well**	**Not Well**

		4		2	1
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

4. How much emphasis was made by the lecturers during content courses on the following aspects of English language in relation to what is taught in English language for secondary school teaching? Tick**(**√ **)** in the appropriate box to your right hand side.

Skills	**Always** 5	**Often** 4	**Sometimes** 3	**Seldom** 2	**Never** 1
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

5. a). Where all the courses that you did at UNZA in the Department of Literature and Languages relevant to what you taught? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b). Justify your response in 4 a).
   .....

6. How do you rate your understanding and coverage of the following aspects (see table below) of English language in preparation for your teaching job after doing teaching methodology courses (LSE 332 and LSE 431) at UNZA in the Department of Language and Social Sciences Education. Tick **(√)** in the appropriate box to your right hand side.

Skills	**Excellent** 5	**Very Well** 4	**Well** 3	**Fairly well** 2	**Not Well** 1
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

7. Rate by ticking **(√)** in the appropriate space to your right hand side the extent to which English Teaching methodology courses (LSE 332 and LSE 431) prepared you in the following areas.

	Excellent 5	**Very Well** 4	**Well** 3	**Fairly well** 2	**Not Well** 1
How to use a syllabus					
Preparation of Schemes of work					
Preparation of Lesson plans					
Formulation of appropriate lesson objectives					
Making, selection and using of teaching / learning aids					
Making self evaluation after teaching					

Preparation of records of work					
Setting of assessment instruments such as tests					
Marking of pupils exercises, tests and examinations					
Peer Teaching					
Remedial Teaching					

8. Tick **(√)** in the appropriate box to your right hand side to show the extent to which you were prepared in English Teaching methods (LSE 332 and LSE 431) to use the following methods / techniques of teaching.

	Excellent 5	**Very Well** 4	**Well** 3	**Fairly well** 2	**Not Well** 1
Demonstration					
Question and answer					
Group – work / Pair Work					
Project work					
Field trip / Educational Visit					
Debate					
Role play / Simulation					
Discussion / Brain storming					
Contest					
Team Teaching / Team Planning					
Technology e.g Video, CD ROMs					

9. Give your personal opinion about the programme (English) you went through at UNZA in relation to what you experienced during your teaching practice.....
.....
.....

10. a). Would you say that UNZA English curriculum is preparing fully baked graduates for teaching English in schools? Yes [ ] No [ ]

b). Explain your response in 18. a). .....

.....

11. What suggestions would you give to improve the programme (English) that you went through at UNZA?.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for your responses and time

Appendix 3

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS (UNZA GRADUATES)

I am carrying out an academic research study in which your assistance is very important. The study is entitled '*The English Language Teacher Education Curriculum Design: A Case of the Bachelor of Arts with Education at the University of Zambia'* Please kindly respond as truthful as possible to the items in the instrument **by a tick (√) or a brief explanation in the spaces provided.** The information you will give will be treated with utmost confidence and will only be used for the sole purpose of this particular study.

Instructions

a. Do not write your name on this questionnaire.

b. Do not mention any name of any person in this questionnaire.

c. Read the questionnaire items carefully before you answer them.

1. Indicate your gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Year when you last graduated from UNZA .....
3. Years of teaching experience, below 5 [ ] 5 – 10 [ ]
   11 – 15 [ ] 16 and above [ ]

4. Indicate the extent to which you were **confident to teach** the following aspects (see table below) of English Language when you started teaching after you graduated from UNZA?

Skills	**Excellent 5**	**Very Well 4**	**Well 3**	**Fairly Well 2**	**Not Well 1**
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					

Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

5. At the time of your graduation how did you rate your understanding and coverage of the following aspects (see table below) of English language when you did content courses at UNZA in the Department of Literature and Languages.

Skills	**Excellent 5**	**Very Well 4**	**Well 3**	**Fairly well 2**	**Not well 1**
Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

6. Explain how relevant were the courses that you did in the Department of Literature and Languages to what you have been teaching?

   .....
   .....
   .....
   .....

7. How did you rate your understanding and coverage of the following aspects (see table below) of English language in preparation for your teaching job when you did teaching methodology courses (LSE 332 and LSE 431) at UNZA in the Department of Language and Social Sciences Education.

Skills	**Excellent 5**	**Very Well 4**	**Well 3**	**Fairly well 2**	**Not well 1**

Different types of Composition					
Summary					
Note taking and Note making					
Structure					
Listening Comprehension					
Speaking					
Reading Comprehension					
Vocabulary					
Reading					
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation					

8. Rate by ticking **(√)** in the appropriate space to your right hand side the extent to which English Teaching methodology courses (LSE 332 and LSE 431) prepared you in the following areas.

	Excellent 5	**Very Well 4**	**Well 3**	**Fairly well 2**	**Not Well 1**
How to use a syllabus					
Preparation of Schemes of work					
Preparation of Lesson plans					
Formulation of appropriate lesson objectives					
Making, selection and using of teaching / learning aids					
Making self evaluation after teaching					
Preparation of records of work					
Setting of assessment instruments such as tests					
Marking of pupils exercises, tests and examinations					

Peer Teaching					
Remedial Teaching					

9. Tick **(√)** in the appropriate box to your right hand side to show the extent to which you were prepared in English Teaching methods (LSE 332 and LSE 431) to use the following methods / techniques of teaching.

Method / Technique of Teaching	**Excellent 5**	**Very Well 4**	**Well 3**	**Fairly well 2**	**Not Well 1**
Demonstration					
Question and answer					
Group – work / Pair Work					
Project work					
Field trip / Educational Visit					
Debate					
Role play / Simulation					
Discussion / Brain storming					
Contest					
Team Teaching / Team Planning					
Technology e.g Video, CD ROMs					

10. Give your personal opinion about the programme you went through at UNZA in relation to what you have experienced from the time you graduated.

    .....
    .....
    .....
    .....
    .....

11. According to your experience, after the number of years or months that you have been teaching, were you adequately prepared by the UNZA programme to teach English Language in schools?

    Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. What suggestions would you give to improve the programme that you went through at UNZA?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for your responses and time

Appendix 4

Deans and Lecturers' Interview Schedule

1. What is the main aim of the Bachelor of Arts with Education (English) programme?
2. What kind of a graduate do you expect to come from your programme (English)?
3. What are some of the skills that the programme specifically prepares the graduates in?
4. Where, after graduation, do you expect the students to go and use the knowledge and skills that they acquire from the programme? Which industry is likely to absolve the graduates of your programme?
5. How do you determine the content that constitutes the courses that you offer to your students?
6. Are you aware of some of the content that some of the graduates from your programme teach when they are employed by the Ministry of Education to teach in schools?
7. Is there any kind of coordination between the courses that your department offers the students and the methodology courses that are offered in the school of education?
8. Do you share the same vision with the sister school about the kind of student that your programme aims at producing?

Appendix 5

Group Interview Guide

1. To what extent did you apply the knowledge and skills that you have learnt from the English Language Teacher Education programme that you have studying in answering the items of the test.

2. How do you describe the link between what you have been studying in your teacher education programme and the items in the tests?

3. Which items did you find easy to answer and which ones did you find difficult to answer?

4. Explain your answer in 4.

5. Can you make any suggestions about the programme that you have been studying in relation to the experience that you have had when writing the tests.

Appendix 6

Independent t-test results showing student teachers confidence to teach various aspects of English language in secondary school.

Knowledge and Skills	*Type of Student*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Different types of Composition	Female	3.00	0.73	0.00	104	1.00
	Male	3.00	0.52			
Summary	Female	2.67	0.80	-1.13	104	0.26
	Male	2.83	0.65			
Note Taking and Note Making	Female	2.43	0.60	-0.67	104	0.51
	Male	2.50	0.54			
Structure	Female	2.50	0.69	-0.27	104	0.79
	Male	2.54	0.78			
Listening Comprehension	Female	2.13	0.78	-1.36	104	0.18
	Male	2.35	0.86			
Speaking	Female	2.20	0.71	-0.59	104	0.56
	Male	2.29	0.78			
Reading Comprehension	Female	2.52	0.69	-2.15	104	0.03
	Male	2.83	0.79			
Vocabulary	Female	2.29	0.69	-1.39	104	0.17
	Male	2.48	0.67			
Reading	Female	2.29	0.88	0.37	104	0.71
	Male	2.23	0.92			
Pronunciation, Stress and Intonation	Female	1.20	0.49	-0.77	104	0.44
	Male	1.29	0.64			
Total	Female	23.24	3.20	-1.64	104	0.11
	Male	24.33	3.62	-1.63	101.45	0.11

*Significant at $p < 0.05$

Appendix 7

TEST ONE

Sentence Transformation

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is ...
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most ...
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal ...
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely ...
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling ...
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate ...

Change the following passage into direct speech

However, after discussing last Sunday's incident with the church elders, he had chosen to give the boy a chance to save his soul. The teacher had therefore decided to whip the boy ten times on his naked buttocks in front of the whole assembly. After the beating, Chanda would have to say thank you to the teacher and also recant his words of the previous Sunday.

Pronunciation

Copy the following words and underline the stressed syllable when the words are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude
2. mag/a/zine
3. ter/ror/ised
4. a/troc/i/ties
5. sav/ag/e/ry
6. un/par/don/a/ble
7. pun/ish/ment
8. di/spar/a/ging
9. en/gi/neer
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus

Punctuation

Punctuate the following passage correctly.

the day came 29th august 1945 the uncles had bought two oxen for slaughter there were big crowds of people to feed a large canvas tent was pitched for the guests in some part of the yard rebeccas mother had asked one of the tenants to vacate a room for special use by aunt dora grandmother my three uncles brother and a sister and a few close relatives as custom demanded the hostess had ready a special waitress to cater for the grooms people the prerogative of being fussy and fastidious grandmother in particular didn't like the tea because it wasnt good she would have been surprised if it were well brewed she didnt like the flirtatious eyes of their young waitress of course word had long been sent before that she didnt eat beef mutton had to be procured

Parts of Speech

Identify the part of speech to which the underlined words belong.

1. The flower fell <u>off</u> the sill.
2. At noon the doctor went <u>out</u>.

3. Most of the people who hold their pens too tight have bad handwritings.

Identify the direct and indirect objects from each of the following sentences red direct object and blue indirect object.

4. Jane gave her friends vegetables from her garden.
5. We catalogued the books for the library.
6. The courier delivered the package to him.
7. She bought her sister a sweater.

Underline the prepositional phrase in each of the sentences below

8. Did you see the lights around the window?
9. The man with the gray suit is my father.
10. The footballers were kept in good condition.

Comprehension

Text 1

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow;

What do Western ceremonies and customs mean to independent Africa? A lawyer friend of mine was ordered by a judge to "dress properly" before he would appear before his client. The advocate was in a black suit, but that was not enough. He went back to his office and put on the black robe and the little white wig; little beads of sweat covered his face. And the judge in his frightening red robe and big wig now listened to the case. The black prosecutor, the black defence counsel, and the black judge were all so strange and foreign and spoke such a foreign language, that when at the end of the trial the man was acquitted, he had not even begun to understand what the whole thing was about! Why must the servants of justice be so very frightening to the very people they serve? Would the judgement be less just if our judges did not wear their red robe? *(from Africa's Cultural Revolution by Okot p'Bitek)*

Circle the letter of the best answer for each of the following:

1. At first the judge refused to listen to the case because
   A. the lawyer was dressed in a black suit.

B. the lawyer was not wearing a wig.
C. he said the lawyer was improperly dressed.
D. the client was improperly dressed.

2. "little beads of sweat covered his face" because
   A. it was a very hot day.
   B. he was frightened of the judge.
   C. he felt nervous about the case.
   D. of the clothes he was wearing.

3. The peasant did not understand anything because
   A. everything was so strange.
   B. the judge and lawyers were foreigners.
   C. he was acquitted.
   D. he was too frightened.

4. What is the writer's main point?
   A. Legal procedures should be simplified.
   B. Foreign clothes should be banned.
   C. Independent Africa should not follow foreign customs.
   D. The peasant should have been convicted, not acquitted.

Text 2

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow;

Journey from Nouakshott

Ahmed warned me that almost certainly I would have to begin my journey elsewhere, for in Nouakshott, he said, there were very few camels to be had, and they were of extremely poor quality. Mauretania was now entering its fourth year of drought, the desert was littered with carcasses, and beasts strong enough for a long passage into the interior were more likely to be found further north, at Akjoujt, where there was still good grazing. Moreover, I should not expect to get away before the middle of November, for Islam had just entered Ramadan, the month in which the Koran was

revealed to Mohammed, and Ahmed's kinsman would not wish to leave his encampment until the great feast was over. In the meantime, it might be an advantage if I spent a few days out of town, in camp with some nomads, where I could learn how to ride camels and begin to pick up a little Hassaniya, the local dialect of Arabic, of which I so far knew nothing.

Circle the letter of the best answer for each of the following:

1. Where were the writer and Ahmed?
   A. In Nouakshott.
   B. In Ahmed's encampment.
   C. In the desert.
   D. In camp with some nomads.

2. Why did Ahmed advise the writer to go to Akjoujt?
   A. To avoid the drought.
   B. To get some strong camels.
   C. Because Ramadan had just started.
   D. To learn a little Hassaniya.

3. Why was there a better chance of finding strong camels at Akjoujt?
   A. Because the whole of Mauretania was suffering from drought.
   B. Because the desert was littered with camels.
   C. Because there was still some good grazing there.
   D. Because it was further north.

4. We can infer that the writer wanted to make his journey ...
   A. with Ahmed.
   B. with Ahmed's kinsman.
   C. with both Ahmed and his kinsman.
   D. with neither Ahmed nor his kinsman.

Summary

Instructions: Read the following text very carefully. In it, the author states **four** specific hints for general reading. Sum up these directions in **four** numbered sentences.

For general reading, there are several hints you might bear in mind; you will say, 'How very obvious these hints are!' Agreed; but are they so obvious that they have become second nature?

Don't expect the literature of knowledge or information – expository books – to contain a 'story'. If the information (history, geography, criticism, science, techniques, etc.) is conveyed in an orderly, lucid manner, that should be enough. In fact, however, you will find that much history, geography, criticism and even science is attractively written, but you have no business to expect it to be attractive. The pleasures of expository literature are primarily intellectual, only secondarily aesthetic.

On the other hand, don't expect the literature of imagination – poetry, drama, novels, short stories – to have a moral or 'message', for primarily it is no didactic. It aims to delight – to enrich us emotionally – to move us. Nor is imaginative literature as matter of logic – of arguments and propositions; it is not to be criticized by the standards applicable to the literature of knowledge, except in so far as all literature whatsoever should be artistically coherent and consistent.

Midway between the literature of knowledge and the literature of imagination stand the essay and the imaginary conversation, of which the latter usually approximates more closely to the literature of knowledge, whereas the former may emphasize either the one or the other. Do not, therefore, be dogmatic about this halfway literature, wherein the writer has considerable freedom.

As, on the one hand, the literature of knowledge may be structural, as in history; analytical as in a thesis; critical as in literary or artistic or musical criticism; structural and analytical and critical, as in philosophy; or persuasive, as in theology or propaganda: so, on the other hand, the literature of imagination is of various kinds, poetry being epic, lyrical, dramatic, reflective, etc.; drama being comedy, farce, tragedy, tragedy – comedy; fiction being short or long, the novel itself being historical,

domestic, adventurous, satirical, etc. Be careful not to condemn one genre for differing from another.

Appendix 8

Marking Key For Test One

Rewrites **(From grades 10, 11 and 12)**

1. What a mattress needs is firmness but enough resilience to support the spine in a horizontal position.
2. Most of my patients were getting sicker, I noticed.
   Or : Most of my patients, I noticed, were getting sicker.
3. It was legal obligation for people to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
4. Immunisation has largely led to / been responsible for / the elimination of canine rabies in some countries.
5. Fulfilling certain requirements (legalises marriage) ensure that marriage is legal.
6. The levirate marriage is where a man inherits his brother's widow.

Direct Speech **(Grade 12 work)**

The teacher said, "However, after discussing last Sunday's incident with the church elders, I have chosen to give the boy a chance to save his soul. I have therefore decided to whip the boy ten times on his naked buttocks in front of the whole assembly. After the beating, Chanda will have to say thank you to me and also recant his words of last Sunday."

Pronunciation **(Grade 11 work)**

1. at/ti/tude
2. mag/a/zine
3. ter/ror/ised
4. a/troc/i/ties
5. sav/ag/e/ry
6. un/par/don/a/ble
7. pun/ish/ment
8. di/spar/a/ging
9. en/gi/neer
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus

Punctuation (Grade 12)

The day came, 29th august 1945. The uncles had bought two oxen for slaughter there were big crowds of people to feed. A large canvas tent was pitched for the guests in some part of the yard. Rebecca's mother had asked one of the tenants to vacate a room for special use by aunt Dora, grandmother, my three uncles, brother and a sister and a few close relatives. As custom demanded the hostess had ready a special waitress to cater for the groom's people. The prerogative of being fussy and fastidious, grandmother in particular didn't like the tea because it wasn't good she would have been surprised if it were well brewed. She didn't like the flirtatious eyes of their young waitress. Of course word had long been sent before that she didn't eat beef; mutton had to be procured.

Parts of Speech (From grades 10 and 11)

1. Preposition
2. Adverb
3. Adjective
4. Vegetable - direct object garden - indirect object
5. Books – direct object library – indirect object
6. Package and him both indirect object
7. Sister – in-direct object Sweater – direct object
8. Did you see the lights around the window?
9. The man with the gray suit is my father.
10. The footballers were kept in good condition.

Summary

For general reading, there are several hints you might bear in mind; you will say, 'How very obvious these hints are!' Agreed; but are they so obvious that they have become second nature?

Don't expect the literature of knowledge or information – expository books – to contain a 'story'. If the information (history, geography, criticism, science, techniques, etc.) is conveyed in an orderly, lucid manner, that should be enough. In fact, however, you will find that much history, geography, criticism and even science is attractively written, but you have no business to expect it to be attractive. The pleasures of expository literature are primarily intellectual, only secondarily aesthetic.

On the other hand, don't expect the literature of imagination – poetry, drama, novels, short stories – to have a moral or 'message', for primarily it is no didactic. It aims to delight – to enrich us emotionally – to move us. Nor is imaginative literature as matter of logic – of arguments and propositions; it is not to be criticized by the standards applicable to the literature of knowledge, except in so far as all literature whatsoever should be artistically coherent and consistent.

Midway between the literature of knowledge and the literature of imagination stand the essay and the imaginary conversation, of which the latter usually approximates more closely to the literature of knowledge, whereas the former may emphasize either the one or the other. Do not, therefore, be dogmatic about this halfway literature, wherein the writer has considerable freedom.

As, on the one hand, the literature of knowledge may be structural, as in history; analytical as in a thesis; critical as in literary or artistic or musical criticism; structural and analytical and critical, as in philosophy; or persuasive, as in theology or propaganda: so, on the other hand, the literature of imagination is of various kinds, poetry being epic, lyrical, dramatic, reflective, etc.; drama being comedy, farce, tragedy, tragedy – comedy; fiction being short or long, the novel itself being historical, domestic, adventurous, satirical, etc. Be careful not to condemn one genre for differing from another.

Answers

1. Don't expect the literature of knowledge or information to contain a 'story'.
2. Don't expect the literature of imagination to have a moral or 'message',

3. Do not, therefore, be dogmatic about this halfway literature, wherein the writer has considerable freedom.

4. Be careful not to condemn one genre for differing from another.

Appendix 9

Test Two

Sentence Transformation

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1 (a) He did not stop running until he reached home.

b) Only ...

2 (a) It is easier to adopt an old idea than to start a new one.

b) It is not so ...

3.(a) I waited for the right moment to escape.

b) I awaited ...

4.(a). I have fled to my father for refuge

b). I have taken ...

Composition

Mutinta has written to the School of Nursing applying for admission. You as her teacher, have been asked to write a reference to be sent to the School of Nursing.

Using the material given below, write to the School of Nursing, outlining Mutinta's character and recommending that she be accepted.

The length of your reference should be between 250 and 350 words.

Mary Mutinta worked very hard at school. She was in Grade 12 and was looking forward to sitting for the School Certificate examination and finishing school.

For a long time she had been fascinated by the work that she saw nurses doing both at clinics and in hospitals. She admired their dedication, knew the long hours that they spent at their work, but above all she was very serious about the part that the nurses played in bringing healing and comfort to the sick. And Mutinta liked the uniform as well.

Her mother had been sickly for as long as Mutinta could remember. She loved her mother very much and spent many hours looking after her and trying to make life

easier for her helping around the house, cooking the meals, washing the baby, doing messages, giving her mother medicine and so on.

She was a cheerful girl, mixed well with her friends who often would help her as they knew the situation at home.

Mutinta knew what she wanted. To be a nurse was her ambition. Everything else became secondary to this. That was why she worked so hard at school. Wasting time at school was not for her. Sometimes her friends did not really understand why she was so serious about her books.

As for boy friends, they did not understand her at all. She did not have one nor did she want one. Time enough later on when she had finished school and qualified as a nurse. So many of her acquaintances had got mixed up with boys. Some became pregnant and had to leave school. Others married before they were qualified for anything and regretted losing their independence. Besides, looking after her mother took up a great deal of her spare time.

She was a girl of high principles. This she got from her religion as she was a good Christian. She knew right from wrong and tried to live up to what her religion taught her to do. Because of what she believed was right, she disapproved of certain things her friends did at school. However, she was very friendly to all in spite of this and her friends looked up to her.

Appendix 10

Marking Key for Test two

Sentence Transformations

1. Only when he reached home did he stop running.
2. It is not so easy to start a new idea as to adopt an old one.
3. I awaited the right moment to escape.
4. I have taken refuge with my father.

Composition

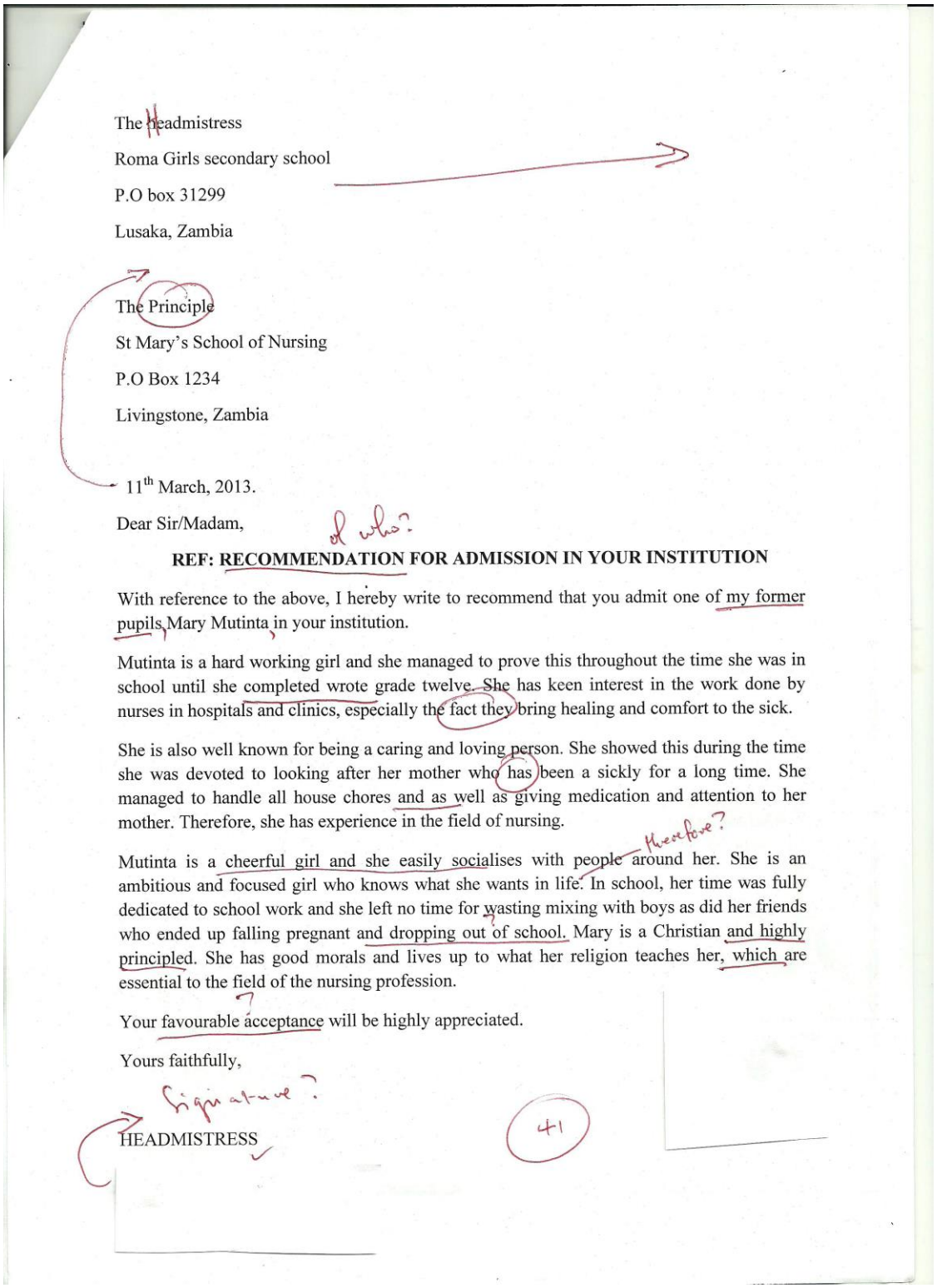
1. ***Layout must be that of a formal letter***
    a. Writer's address in the appropriate spot
    b. Receiver's address in the appropriate spot
    c. Date in the appropriate spot
    d. Salutation
    e. Subject statement
    f. Statement of purpose in introductory paragraph
    g. Paragraphing (8 paragraphs)
    h. Explicit statement of recommendation
    i. Signing off (Yours faithfully)
    j. Signature
    k. Name
    l. Designation in capital letters
2. ***Selection of Relevant points***
    - Hardworking at school; she will work hard as a student and a as a nurse
    - Knows what nurses do and is ready for it: making informed choice on career
    - Nursed her mother; so, has had experience of giving care.
    - Focused: will not be distracted
    - Principled: knows right and wrong
    - Friendly and dependable: easy to work with, and will be good to patients.
3. ***Style of presentation of the above points according to purpose***

NB: Each of her attributes must be linked to her suitability for the intended course and eventual career.

4. ***Use of Language***
    a. Spelling
    b. Use of appropriate vocabulary
    c. Sentence construction
    d. Punctuation
5. ***Adherence to length specification***

Appendix 11

Samples of Composition Answer Scripts



The Headmistress

Roma Girls secondary school

P.O box 31299

Lusaka, Zambia

The Principle

St Mary's School of Nursing

P.O Box 1234

Livingstone, Zambia

11th March, 2013.

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: RECOMMENDATION FOR ADMISSION IN YOUR INSTITUTION

With reference to the above, I hereby write to recommend that you admit one of my former pupils Mary Mutinta in your institution.

Mutinta is a hard working girl and she managed to prove this throughout the time she was in school until she completed wrote grade twelve. She has keen interest in the work done by nurses in hospitals and clinics, especially the fact they bring healing and comfort to the sick.

She is also well known for being a caring and loving person. She showed this during the time she was devoted to looking after her mother who has been a sickly for a long time. She managed to handle all house chores and as well as giving medication and attention to her mother. Therefore, she has experience in the field of nursing.

Mutinta is a cheerful girl and she easily socialises with people around her. She is an ambitious and focused girl who knows what she wants in life. In school, her time was fully dedicated to school work and she left no time for wasting mixing with boys as did her friends who ended up falling pregnant and dropping out of school. Mary is a Christian and highly principled. She has good morals and lives up to what her religion teaches her, which are essential to the field of the nursing profession.

Your favourable acceptance will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

HEADMISTRESS

Fatima Secondary School,

P.O. Box 320048,

Ndola.

15/02/13.

write in full.

The Pricipal,

Marcha School of Nursing,

P.O .Box. 630123,

Choma.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RECOMMENDATION LATTER FOR MARY MUTINTA.

As the subject states above, I wish to recommend my former pupil to study as a nurse at your institute.

Mutinta joined our school as a pupil from 2009 to 2013 and I was privileged to be her class teacher. In the years I have been with her, I have known her as a social, kind and humble person who related very well with teachers and pupils.

During her stay at the school, Mutinta worked very hard and fully participated in various school activities. This included her sacrificial and kind assistance to the school clinic were she committed herself during her spare time in assisting nurses to look after patients who were admitted.

Muntinta did her work at the clinic diligently and as a result, she was appointed as a community healthy worker within the school community. Some of her duties included collecting medicine from the clinic and distributing it to sick pupils. She ensured that such pupils took their medication as prescribed by the clinical officer and arranged for the pupils who were very sick in the dormitories, to be taken at the school clinic to receive agent treatment and as well as sensitising the school community on health precautions.

Mutinta performed exceptionally well in all her subjects, receiving the best student's awards in English, Mathematics and Biology. Apart from good performance in her academics she also participated in sports such as netball. In addition, as a Christian, leading a spiritual life caused her to be admired by both pupils and teachers.

With reference to the above stated capabilities, I therefore recommend her to study as a nurse, knowing that she will be able to deliver any assignment given to her with excellence.

Yours Faithfully,

40

Mumbwa High School,

P.O Box 830110,

Mumbwa.

Date?

The Principal,

Kasama School of Nursing,

P.O Box 450025,

Kasama.

Dear sir/madam.

REFERENCE: MUTINTA ANNIE, EXAMINATION NUMBER 123456.

This is to certify that Mutinta was a pupil at our school from 2004 to 2009 when she completed Grade twelve (12). She studied eight subjects which include English, Mathematics, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, Civic Education and Religious Education. She passed with good grades in all the subjects.

Whilst at school her academic standard was very good. She worked very hard because her ambition was to become a nurse. She was so serious with her books such that her friends began to wonder why. The girl had no time for other things she just concentrated on studies in order to fulfill her ambition. Moreover, Mutinta was admiring the nurse's uniform just from the beginning that is why she worked tirelessly hard so that she could obtain good grades to allow her to join the nursing career.

Although Mutinta knew that nursing is involving she could not change her mind because she had a passion for nursing. Her dream was to become a nurse one day and take care of the patients. Therefore, she had no time to waste rather than studying.

Additionally, Mutinta had a nursing experience which she gained when she was nursing her mother who had been sick for a long period of time. She managed to take care of her sick mother doing everything possible for her. Giving her medicine was not an exception. Because of this experience she is capable of becoming a nurse. Besides, Mutinta is easy to work with because she is social and could mingle with her friends freely.

Despite being social, Mutinta was a principled girl she had no boy friend like other girls. She knew the consequences of having a boy friend. She knew that there will be enough time when

she had completed her school and qualified as a nurse. Moreover, she was a good Christian she could choose between good and bad. She lived according to the standards of her religion. She could even discourage her friends from doing bad things. Nevertheless, she was liked by her friends so much that her friends looked up for her.

Generally, Mutinta's conduct was good .Therefore, I recommend her to be fit for the nursing profession.

Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Class Teacher.

in capitals.

53

Male ( ) **Female** (✓) **Pre-service** ( ) **In-service** (✓)

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is ... firmness but ~~not~~ resilient to support the spine in a horizontal position. ✗
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most ... patients were getting sicker from what I saw. ✗
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal ... for people to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police. ✗
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely ... been eliminated through immunisation ✗ in some countries.
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling.... ~~certain requirements in marriage certain requirements for have to be fulfilled for any marriage to be legal~~.
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate ... is another name for inheriting a brother's widow. ~~is a man who inherites his brothers widow~~ ✗

Pronunciation

Underline the stressed syllable in the following words when they are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude ✗
2. mag/a/zine ✓
3. ter/ror/ised ✓
4. a/troc/i/ties ✓
5. sav/ag/e/ry ✗
6. un/par/don/a/ble ✓
7. pun/ish/ment ✓
8. di/spar/a/ging ✓
9. en/gi/neer ✓
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus ✓

0/10

2/10

Male ( ) **Female** (✓) **Pre-service** ( ) **In-service** ( )

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is ... enough ~~resiliency~~ resiliency to support the spine in a horizontal posit
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most ... ~~of~~ My patients that I saw were getting sicker.
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal ... ~~for the~~ people to report all contacts with foreigners to local policy
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely ... eliminated canine rabies in some countries
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling ... my marriage needs certain requirements to be ~~to~~ legalised.
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate ... marriage is where a man inherits ~~his~~ brother's widow.

1/6

Pronunciation

Underline the stressed syllable in the following words when they are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude
2. mag/a/zine
3. ter/ror/ised
4. a/troc/i/ties
5. sav/ag/e/ry
6. un/par/don/a/ble
7. pun/ish/ment
8. di/spar/a/ging
9. en/gi/neer
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus

4/10

Male (✓) **Female** ( ) **Pre-service** (✓) **In-service** ( )

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is ...firm and resilient enough
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most ...of my patients were getting sicker and this is what I saw.
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal ..to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely ..eliminated canine rabies in some countries
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling ..certain requirements is what is needed for any marriage to be legal
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate ..marriage is one or is a type or is a kind of marriage where a man inherits his brothers widow.

0/6

Pronunciation

Underline the stressed syllable in the following words when they are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude
2. mag/a/zine
3. ter/ror/ised
4. a/troc/i/ties
5. sav/ag/e/ry
6. un/par/don/a/ble
7. pun/ish/ment
8. di/spar/a/ging
9. en/gi/neer
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus

3/10

Male ( ) **Female** (✓) **Pre-service** ( ) **In-service** (✓)

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is firmness and resilience to support the spine in a horizontal position. ✓
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most of my patients were getting more sick according to my observation. ✗
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal obligation that people reported all contacts with foreigners to the local police. ✓
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely eliminated canine rabies in some countries ✗
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling certain requirements makes any marriage legal. ✗
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate marriage is when a man inherits his brother's widow. ✓

2/6

Pronunciation

Underline the stressed syllable in the following words when they are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude ✓
2. mag/a/zine ✗
3. ter/ror/ised ✗
4. a/troc/i/ties ✓
5. sav/ag/e/ry ✗
6. un/par/don/a/ble ✓
7. pun/ish/ment ✓
8. di/spar/a/ging ✓
9. en/gi/neer ✓
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus ✓

7/10

Male (✓) **Female** ( ) **Pre-service** ( ) **In-service** (✓)

Rewrite the following sentences without altering the meaning of the first one (a). Begin as indicated in b.

1. a) The mattress should be firm but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position.
   b) What a mattress needs is ...firmness but resilient enough to support the spine in a horizontal position ✓
2. a) What I saw was that most of my patients were getting sicker.
   b) Most ...of my patients I saw were getting sicker. ✓
3. a) People were legally obliged to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police.
   b) It was legal ...to report all contacts with foreigners to the local police. ✓
4. a) In some countries canine rabies has been largely eliminated through immunisation.
   b) Immunisation has largely ...eliminated canine rabies through immunisation in some countries. ✓
5. a) For any marriage to be legal, certain requirements have to be fulfilled.
   b) Fulfilling ...certain requirements are necessary for any marriage to be legal. ✓
6. a) There is also the marriage known as the levirate, that is a man inheriting his brother's widow.
   b) The levirate ...~~Marriage means that a man inherits~~ Marriage is also known in which a man inherits his brother's widow. ✓ (½)

Pronunciation

Underline the stressed syllable in the following words when they are pronounced

1. at/ti/tude ✓
2. mag/a/zine ✓
3. ter/ror/ised ✗
4. a/troc/i/ties ✓
5. sav/ag/e/ry ✓
6. un/par/don/a/ble ✓
7. pun/ish/ment ✓
8. di/spar/a/ging ✓
9. en/gi/neer ✓
10. hip/po/pot/a/mus ✓

7/10

Appendix 13

Letter of Permission to conduct Research in Schools among Teachers

All correspondence should be addressed
to the District Education Board Secretary
Telephone: 0211 240250 / 240249/ 0955 623749
E-mail: desbsisk@yahoo.co.uk

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE, VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EARLY EDUCATION

In reply please quote:

No.:.....

101/1/29

DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY
P.O. BOX 50297
LUSAKA

7th February, 2013

Mr. Innocent .M.Mulenga

The University of Zambia
School of Education
LUSAKA.

Dear Sir /Madam

RE: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH: MR. INNOCENT .M.MULENGA

Reference is made to the above subject.

I write to inform you that this office has no objection for your request and authority has been granted for you to curry out your reaserch.

Accordingly, Headteachers are informed through this letter to welcome and give you all the necessary support.

Joel Kamoko (Mr.)
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY
LUSAKA DISTRICT

Appendix 13

Letter of Permission to conduct Research among Student Teachers

The University of Zambia
School of Education, Department of LSSE,
P.O Box 32379
LUSAKA.

9th February, 2013

UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA DEAN'S OFFICE RECEIVED 10 FEB 2013

The Dean
School of Education
The University of Zambia
Great East Road Campus
LUSAKA

Dear Sir

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FROM FOURTH YEAR STUDENTS ON THE BA ED ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM

Reference is made to the above captioned subject. I am writing to request for permission to carry out a research among Bachelor of Arts with Education English Language fourth year students in your school.

The study involves evaluating the extent to which the English language teacher education curriculum in your school has the relevant skills and knowledge which can enable graduates effectively teach English language in Zambian secondary schools upon their graduation. Thus it will require students giving some information related to their coverage and understanding of the skills and knowledge that is relevant for teaching in secondary school. To this effect they will be asked to respond to questionnaires and writing of tests.

This study is in fulfillment of the requirements of the researcher's PhD in Curriculum Studies at the University of Zambia.

Thank you in anticipation for your assistance.

Yours faithfully,

Innocent M. Mulenga,
Lecturer in Curriculum Studies
Student Computer Number: 53054945

Permission Granted Acting Dean.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA SCHOOL OF EDUCATION DEAN'S OFFICE P.O. BOX 32379, LUSAKA.

Appendix 14

Publications

a. Journal Articles

Mulenga, I. M. and Luangala, J. R. (2015). Curriculum Design in Contemporary Teacher Education: What makes job analysis a vital preliminary ingredient? *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education.* Vol. 2 No. 1. ISSN: 2349-0373 (print), ISSN: 2349-0381 (online).

Mulenga, I. M. (**In press**). Preparing Teachers – The importance of connecting Univesity Teacher Education Curricula to Secondary School knowledge and skills contexts. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences.* University of Namibia.

b. Book of Abstracts

Mulenga, I. M. (2014). Are they being fully prepared? University student teachers mastery of knowledge and skills for teaching English language in Zambian secondary schools. *Southern African Comparative and History of Education Society (SACHES) Annual Conference Book of Abstracts.*