

**TUTORS' PEDAGOGICAL STRATEGIES FOR
IMPLEMENTING INTEGRATED LITERATURE AT
PUBLIC PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN
KENYA**

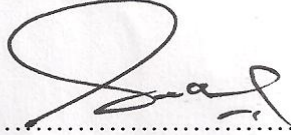
Samuel Ng'entu Kirima

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum
Studies, University of Nairobi**

2018

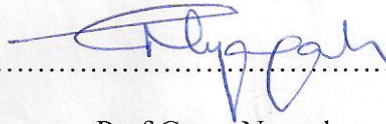
DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for degree award in any other university.



Samuel Ng'entu Kirima
E86/50715/2016

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University Supervisors



Prof Grace Nyagah
Associate Professor
Department of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Nairobi



Dr Rosemary Imonje
Lecturer
Department of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Nairobi



Prof Agnes W. Kibui
Associate Professor
Department of Educational Communication and Technology
University of Nairobi

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my year-old son Christian Mureri. I also dedicate it to my dear wife Betty Mwendu, my eldest child Edmond Muthomi, my daughter Blessings Nkirote, my mum Martha Kathure and my dad M'Kirima M'Kiambati

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I acknowledge the dedication of tutors of literature and heads of subject, English in the visited teacher training colleges for sacrificing their time out of their tight schedules to supply the information which generated the findings of this study.

I am highly indebted to my supervisors, Prof Grace Nyagah, Dr Rosemary Imonje and Prof Agnes Kibui for expertise guidance, constructive criticism and unending support they accorded me since the inception of this work. Further appreciation to the entire faculty of the University of Nairobi who sat in the panels during my oral presentations of this work. Their comments, suggestions and corrections helped to shape this work in a great way.

Appreciation to my dear wife Betty for her inspiration and challenge to begin and complete this work. Her financial, ideological and emotional support during the time I had to burn mid-night oil to knit this work together highly contributed to my success. I also appreciate her understanding and that of our children Edmond and Blessings during the time I was forced to stay away from them because of this work.

I acknowledge my dear mother Martha for her love and care. She single-handedly took me to school, provided to me tirelessly and encouraged me to work hard. Further appreciation to my dad Kirima.

TABLE OF CONTENT

Content	Page
Title Page.....	i
Declaration.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Table of content.....	v
Appendices.....	xi
List of tables.....	xii
List of figures.....	xv
Abbreviations and acronyms.....	xvii
Abstract	xix

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	18
1.3 Purpose of the study.....	20
1.4 Objectives of the study.....	20
1.5 Research questions.....	20
1.6 Significance of the study.....	21
1.7 Limitations of the study.....	21
1.8 Delimitations of the study.....	22
1.9 Basic assumptions of the study.....	22
1.10 Definition of significant terms.....	23

1.11 Organization of the study.....	25
-------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction.....	27
2.2 Literature and language teaching.....	27
2.2.1 Use of literary texts in English language teaching: historical Background.....	29
2.2.2 Literariness of materials used in ESL classes.....	31
2.2.3 The role literature in English as second language classes.....	34
2.2.4 Literature as authentic materials for English language learning.....	36
2.2.5 Literature as motivation tool for students.....	41
2.2.6 Literature as a tool for cultural, intercultural and globalization awareness.....	45
2.2.7 Mastery of vocabulary and grammar through literature.....	49
2.2.8 The role of literature in teaching language skills.....	52
2.2.9 Literature and the teaching of reading.....	54
2.2.10 Literature and the teaching of writing.....	57
2.2.11 Literature and the teaching of speaking.....	59
2.2.12 Literature and teaching of listening.....	62
2.3 Introduction of literature in primary teacher education English curriculum in Kenya.....	65
2.4 Teacher's influence on students' acquisition of proficiency in English language.....	67

2.5	Teacher training and curriculum implementation.....	70
2.5.1	Methods of teacher training.....	85
2.5.2	Importance of curriculum innovation in teacher training.....	98
2.6	Development of teacher professionalism through teacher involvement in curriculum development.....	102
2.6.1	Impediment to teacher involvement in curriculum development.....	109
2.7	The influence of teacher preparedness in curriculum implementation....	112
2.8	Teacher utilization of instructional materials in curriculum Implementation.....	119
2.9	The influence of teaching methodologies on the implementation of curriculum.....	126
2.10	The role of assessment in curriculum implementation.....	131
2.11	Summary of reviewed literature.....	138
2.12	Theoretical basis of the study.....	139
2.13	Conceptual framework of the study.....	142

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction.....	144
3.2	Research design.....	144
3.3	Target population.....	145
3.4	Sample size and sampling techniques.....	145
3.5	Research instruments.....	147
3.5.1	Questionnaire for tutors teaching literature.....	147

3.5.2 Interview schedule for heads of subject English	149
3.5.3 Observation schedule for a literature lesson.....	150
3.6 Pilot study.....	151
3.7 Validity of research instruments.....	153
3.8 Reliability of the instruments.....	154
3.9 Data collection procedures.....	156
3.10 Data analysis techniques.....	159
3.11 Ethical Considerations.....	159

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction.....	161
4.2 Return rate of the research instruments.....	161
4.3 Background information of the respondents.....	163
4.4 The levels of tutor professional development in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	167
4.4.1 Tutors' level of agreement that in-service education and training on literature was necessary.....	168
4.4.2 Provision of in-service education and training to tutors of literature.....	170
4.4.3 In-service training programs provided to tutors of literature	172
4.4.4 Training techniques used in INSET programs.....	175

4.4.5 HoSs’ English responses on the importance of INSET programs on literature.....	177
4.4.6 HoSs English responses on the extent to which tutors of literature were in-serviced.....	179
4.4.7 Challenges facing provision of INSET programs to tutors of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	183
4.5 Tutor preparedness in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	187
4.5.1 The extent of tutors of literature lessons preparation.....	187
4.5.2 Factors influencing tutors’ literature lesson preparation.....	190
4.5.3 Tutors’ literature lessons preparation strategies.....	195
4.5.4 HoSs English ways of ensuring tutors prepare literature lessons.....	198
4.5.5 The challenges facing tutors’ preparation of literature.....	201
4.6 Extent of utilization of instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature.....	204
4.6.1 The extent to which public PTTCs’ libraries are equipped with literature resource books.....	205
4.6.2 Utilization of literary texts in teaching English language.....	207
4.6.3 Use of teaching resources in the implementation of literature course..	212
4.6.4 Students’ reading of other literary books apart from the set ones.....	216
4.6.5 Strategies employed by HoSs English in ensuring tutors utilized instructional materials in teaching literature.....	218

4.6.6 Challenges facing utilization of instructional materials in literature course.....	220
4.7 To examine teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	223
4.7.1 Use of integrated approach in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	224
4.7.2 Methods in which HoSs English ensured that effective methodologies were used in the implementation of literature	230
4.8 To examine classroom assessment of literature course at Public PTTCs in Kenya	234
4.8.1 Methods of eliciting responses from students in literature classes.....	235
4.8.2 Administration of classroom assessments on literature.....	236
4.8.3 Designing, administration and marking of continuous assessments.....	243
4.8.3.1 Designing of classroom assessments.....	243
4.8.3.2 Students’ participation in classroom assessments.....	246
4.8.3.3 Marking of classroom assessments.....	247
4.8.3.4 Utilization of data emanating from classroom assessments	250

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction.....	254
5.2 Summary of the study.....	254

5.2.1 Tutor professional development for implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	255
5.2.2 Tutors’ preparedness in the implementation of literature curriculum in public PTTCs in Kenya.....	256
5.2.3 Tutor utilization of instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature.....	258
5.2.4 Teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	259
5.2.5 Classroom assessment of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.....	260
5.3 Summary	261
5.4 Conclusions.....	262
5.5 Recommendations.....	265
5.6 Suggestions for further research.....	267
REFERENCES.....	268

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letter of Introduction.....	322
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for tutors of literature.....	323
Appendix 3: Interview schedule for heads of subject English.....	329
Appendix 4: Observation schedule for literature lesson.....	330
Appendix 5: Public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya.....	331
Appendix 6: Research authorization letter.....	332
Appendix 7: Research permit certificate.....	333

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 3.1: Sample size for the study.....	146
Table 4.1: The return rate of research instruments.....	162
Table 4.2: Tutors' levels of agreement that INSETs on literature were necessary.....	169
Table 4.3: Characteristics of INSET programs provided to tutors on literature.....	173
Table 4.4: Responses on teacher in-service techniques used in inset programs on literature curriculum.....	176
Table 4.5: HoSs' English responses on the importance of INSET programs to tutors implementing literature in public PTTCs in Kenya.....	178
Table 4.6: HoSs English responses on the extent to which tutors implementing literature was in-serviced.....	181
Table 4.7: HoSs English responses on the challenges facing provision of INSET programs to tutors implementing literature.....	184
Table 4.8: The extent to which various factors influenced tutors' literature lesson preparation.....	191
Table 4.9: The frequency of lesson preparation strategies by tutors on Literature lessons.....	196
Table 4.10: HoSs English interview responses on the ways in which they ensured tutors prepared their lessons on literature.....	199

Table 4.11: The HoSs English responses on the challenges facing tutors' preparation of literature lessons.....	202
Table 4.12: Tutors' responses on the extent to which their libraries are equipped with literature resource books.....	206
Table 4.13: Tutors' responses on the frequency with which they utilized literary texts to teach the listed linguistic concepts.....	210
Table 4.14: Tutors' responses on the frequency with which they used teaching resources	213
Table 4.15: HoSs English ways of ensuring tutors utilized literature instructional materials	218
Table 4.16: HoSs' English responses on the challenges facing tutors' utilization of literature instructional materials.....	221
Table 4.17: Tutors' responses on methods of literature integration into English.....	225
Table 4.18: HoSs' English responses on the methods in which they ensured the methods used to implement literature curriculum were effective	231
Table 4.19: Tutors' responses on the methods of eliciting students' responses in literature classes.....	235
Table 4.20: Tutors' responses on the frequency in which they administered CAs.....	239
Table 4.21: Tutors' responses on the frequency in which they utilized continuous assessment methods.....	241

Table 4.22: The responses of tutors on the ways in which they	
all students participated in classroom assessments.....	246
Table 4.23: The HoSs English responses on the use of CAs data	
in the improvement of teaching of literature.....	250

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework of the study.....	142
Figure 4.1 Gender of tutors teaching literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya.....	163
Figure 4.2 Highest qualifications of tutors of literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya.....	164
Figure 4.3 Experience of tutors teaching literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya.....	167
Figure 4.4: Provision of INSETs to literature tutors.....	171
Figure 4.5: Tutors' extent of literature lessons preparation.....	188
Figure 4.6: Tutors' responses on the use of literature on teaching English language.....	208
Figure 4.7: Tutors' responses on whether or not literature students at public PTTCs read other texts apart from the set ones in.....	216
Figure 4.8: Respondents' responses on whether or not they administered classroom assessments on literature.....	237
Figure 4.9: Tutors' responses on whether or not they administered classroom assessments on literature.....	244
Figure 4.10: The response of tutors on whether they set assessments alone or with colleagues.....	245
Figure 4.11: Tutors' maximum time taken to mark students mark.....	248
Figure 4.12: Tutors' comments on students' assessment performance....	249

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AFL	Assessment for Learning
CAPS	Curriculum and Policy Statement
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CIPP	Context, Input, Process and Product
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DVI	Definitional Vocabulary Instruction
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All
EL	English Language
ELL	English Language Learning
ELV	English Language Vocabulary
ESL	English as Second Language
ESOL	English for Speakers of Other Languages
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FL	Foreign Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
FPE	Free Primary Education
GoK	Government of Kenya
HoSs	Heads of Subject
ILC	Integrated Literature Course

INSET	In-Service Education Training
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
KNEC	Kenya National Examination Council
KNUT	Kenya National Union of Teachers
LEL	Literature for English Language
LTT	Literature Teacher Trainers
MOE	Ministry of Education
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
NCMST	National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching
NACOSTI	National Commission on Science Technology and Innovation
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PRE-SET	Pre-Service Education and Training
PTE	Primary Teachers Education
PTTC	Primary Teacher Training College
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TEFL	Teaching English as A Foreign Language
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TTs	Teacher Trainers
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine tutors' pedagogical strategies for implementing integrated literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya. The main variables of tutors' strategies examined were tutors' professional development, preparation of literature lessons, utilization of relevant instructional materials in the implementation of literature, teaching methodologies used to teach literature and classroom assessment of literature course. The study is based on John Dewey's theory of learning. Survey research design was adopted for this study. The target population for this study comprised 19 public teacher training colleges, 19 heads of English and 114 tutors of literature. From this, 16 colleges participated in the actual study. From these colleges, 16 English heads, one from each college and 64 tutors, 4 from each college generated data for the study. The participants in the study were selected using purposive sampling. Colleges, heads of English and tutors who had participated in the implementation of integrated literature for at least five years and presented primary teacher education candidates for national examination for at least three years before this study, were purposively selected for inclusion in the study. The study used 3 research instruments for data collection namely, questionnaire for tutors of literature, interview schedule for heads of English and observation schedule for literature lessons. Data for this study was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences and descriptive statistics. Data is presented in text, tables, bar charts and pie charts. The study established that although majority of tutors had initial qualifications for teaching literature, only 5.6% of them were in-serviced and 36.4% of them were provided with readily prepared schemes of work by English heads meaning they do not personally plan their lessons. All the visited public teacher training colleges lacked audio visual teaching equipment and 69.2% of the colleges surveyed had insufficient literary texts. The study established that tutors did not integrate literature into English as they taught it as a distinct subject and 85.9% of them did not read the set literary texts with the students. It was also found that 93.7% of literature teacher trainers relied merely on the compulsory end of term assessments for literature evaluation most of which they did not participate in setting. The study concluded that implementation of literature course at public teacher training colleges in Kenya was inefficient. The study recommends enhanced continuous professional development of tutors, hands on practice by tutors in preparation of literature lessons, equipping of public teacher training colleges with relevant and sufficient literary texts as well as audio visual teaching gadgets, emphasis on integrative approach in the teaching of English and literature and review of assessment techniques on literature.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Integration of literature in English language classrooms has innumerable benefits to English as Second Language (ESL) students. Literature contains descriptive content presented in interesting social contexts in which language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking can be taught and learnt. The linguistic benefits of literature show that its proper implementation in English language classrooms can lead to numerous linguistic dividends. The uniqueness of literature as a teaching material in an ESL context is that in literary texts, the linguistic concepts are contextualized (Maley, 2001; Ghosn 2002; Shreshtha 2008; Liddicoat 2000 & Kramersch 2013). This characteristic of literature gives students relevant backgrounds on which to derive linguistic meanings and acquire the intended skills. Through literature, students are availed with interesting situations on which they can study and internalize words and consequently practice them in speech and writing (Hall, 2005).

English language learning to non-native speakers comes with numerous complexities and as a mitigation strategy, policy makers and educators incorporate literature. Integration of literature in Language 2 (L2) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms confirm a positive correlation between the use of literature for English language teaching and students' proficiency in English language (Bobkina & Dominguez, 2014). Scholars posit that literature

as English language teaching material is authentic (Ghosn, 2002; Shrestha, 2008); motivating (Ghosn, 2002, Van,2009); arouses cultural and inter-cultural awareness (Tayebipour, 2009; Van, 2009) provides materials for intensive and extensive reading (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011); provides avenues for knowledge of grammar and vocabulary (Maley, 1989); has innumerable authentic tokens of language for the development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills (Belcher & Hirvela, 2000, Crain,1993, Erkaya, 2005, Fitzgerald, 1993, Knight, 1993, Latosi-Sawin, 1993, Nasr, 2001, Spack, 1985, Stern, 2001, Vandrick, 1996) and it is a good medium for critical thinking enhancement among language learners (Gajdusek & van Dommelen, 1993, Ghosn, 2002, Van, 2009).

According to Bacon and Finnemann (1990) authentic materials are those texts which are made for non-pedagogical purposes. Transformation of such materials for pedagogy requires proper understanding of the content, relating various concepts, internalisation, planning and implementation. The usefulness of authentic materials in the teaching of second and foreign languages has been largely appreciated because they prepare the learner for language use in real world contexts once out of the safe and controlled classroom environment where language practise is majorly artificial. To achieve this, students must be intensively `exposed to a wide variety of literary texts covering a wide range of topics, themes, characters and styles in order to successfully present the possible contexts and forms of language use. Teachers can assign students reading tasks

on literary-based topics like politics, culture, morality, self-consciousness, tradition versus modernity and so on.

Proper integration of literature can also greatly motivate students towards extensive achievement of learning objectives. Motivation is not only one of the most important concepts in psychology to explain the reason for human behaviours and acts, but it is also of great importance in language education to explain the causes of success or failure in learning (Dörnyei, 2009). Motivation is one of the elements which can drive the learners to go ahead and achieve more. In a teaching context, motivation is especially achieved when students are exposed to what they really enjoy. Literary texts are very motivating due to their authenticity and the meaningful contexts they provide (Ghosn, 2002, Van, 2009). The use of literary texts can be a causative factor in increasing learners' motivation and this can further ameliorate learners' achievement if they are appropriately utilized.

Enjoyment of literature is hinged on the understanding of language and style as well as relating various ideas presented so as to understand the whole text. To motivate learners with literary texts, educators can read literary texts on specific themes with the students so as to address various deficiencies faced by the learners and therefore set them on the understanding path. For example, when a teacher reads a poem on the effects of colonisation on Africans with the students, taking time to explain the meaning of every line and stanza, the

students enjoy and get motivated to appreciate the effectiveness of literature in addressing this topic. They can consequently take the risk of reading even longer texts like novels which present this theme in a deeper style.

In this era of globalization when the concern for shared needs and wants as opposed to individual ones is key, literature can be used as a medium for arousing cultural and inter-cultural awareness. The study of a foreign language-and-culture cannot be limited to the study of documents or text reading comprehension. What should be the issue is the development of competences that would enable learners to work out dysfunctions inherent to a relationship with foreignness and, in the process, discover aspects of their own identities which they had not explored previously. By facilitating the reading of literary texts in English, teachers may welcome students to the world of books and engage them in a relationship with otherness. Literature emerges both as a subject of study in its own right and as a tool for intercultural learning (Matos, 2011). It comes in to deal with universal concepts such as love, hatred, death and nature that are common to all languages and cultures. The similarities and even differences between cultures and languages can further lead to our understanding and appreciation of the whole world.

For this feat to be achieved, teachers integrating literature in English language ought to depart from the notion of merely struggling to master the content as well as how to teach and test systematized knowledge of the literary texts chosen

for the study. This is because the most important aims in teaching literature is to develop the ability to read and enjoy it. With reference to Portuguese reality, Mello (1998) points out that sometimes the teacher monopolises the access to the text in almost all aspects: semantically, culturally, mythically and symbolically, by informing or decoding. Furthermore, current literature teaching practice persists in viewing literary texts as evidence of a number of aspects: historical context, social conditions, biographical data and so forth. This attitude generates hermeneutic passivity from the students who become used to studying fixed interpretations of the texts. As a consequence, students read literary histories and biographies, criticism, introductions to editions, study guides and there is often no time left to read the books themselves. Students' quest is for the sophisticated interpretation and the accepted judgement (Rosenblatt, 1995) and this can only be achieved through a globalized view and utilization of literature.

The development of skills on extensive and intensive reading among the students especially with second or foreign languages is critical and this can be greatly achieved through the use of literature. By extensive reading, it is meant that students read for a significant amount of time. Copious studies support the fact that students improve their reading by reading (Chard, 2005; Krashen, 2004; Pikulski & Silva, 2009; Therrien, 2004). Extensive reading materials provide substantial linguistic input (Bell, 1998), which is needed for language acquisition. According to Maley (2009), successful extensive reading requires

reading often and in a large quantity, reading in a wide variety of topics and genres, reading content that is interesting and compelling, reading books students themselves select, reading for pleasure and information, reading for its own reward, reading at levels appropriate for the readers and reading at a fast speed as opposed to slow.

Many studies have shown that extensive reading has positive effects on a variety of students' language skills. Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) found a correlation between extensive reading and reading ability among children. A study by Greenberg, Rodrigo, Berry, Brinck, and Joseph (2006) attained similar results with adult learners. Lee's study (2008) with children in Taiwan on sustained silent reading reveals that the longer students read, the better the reading results. The novels specifically, are resourceful for extensive reading purposes. For example, students can be given a week just to go through a novel without extensive use of the dictionary. This practice will double up their reading speed and also encourage guessing of meaning in reading. On the other hand, the best literary text for intensive reading purposes can be poetry because it involves close analysis. In this way, students can be assigned to read each stanza closely, to delve into the text and dig out hidden meaning expressed through literary elements such as metaphor, simile and allegory. Intensive reading can lead learners to extract deep meanings embedded in texts.

According to Rogers (2005), vocabulary instruction is not an easy task. Sometimes it is difficult to teach because students tend to be unwilling to learn new words as they grow up in a society where sophisticated language can be deemed undesirable. Manzo, Manzo, and Thomas (2006) reported that the influx of reality television, rap music, and other pop-cultural factors make those using intellectual language appear conceited. Literature contains context-clues which can effectively aid students in deciphering the meaning of words and adopting them for their day to day use. In his study, in a large high school in the southern United States, Rogers (2005) notes that in a pilot, qualitative study conducted there a year earlier, the researcher found that most students in the study were not interested in learning words for the sake of memorizing the definitions for tests and quizzes. They indicated that they wanted to have a reason for learning words; they wanted to understand how to use the words by seeing them used in context.

Through the use of literature, syntactic knowledge and vocabulary enrichment can be greatly accelerated because literature involves a profound range of vocabulary, dialogues and prose (Van, 2009). Though poetry is usually criticized for its complex and far-fetched syntactic structures, it can simultaneously be a good source for practicing grammatical structures. One such drill is asking the students to change the complex structures in a poem to the Standard English structure.

Literary texts are the major sources where complex structures such as inversion occur.

As an authentic material, literature appears to set an interesting ground for writing practice. Having the learners complete a poem or a short story in a cloze form is an effective practice. Also we can have the students write the end of a story in their own words or narrate a story from the point of view of another character in a short story, drama, or novel. Other similar creative activities can be developed for writing practice. To develop and sustain listening skills, learners can be exposed to the audio versions of the poems, short stories and novels. Also the musical elements in poetry stimulate the learners' desire for approximating their speaking patterns to the native speakers' norms by adhering to the principles of rhythm, rhyme, and intonation. To achieve speaking skills, the events in a poem, novel or short story can be associated with the learners' own experience in real life. Such a practice paves the way for hot topics for discussion in language classes. Having the students freely reflect on the events and having them critically comment is also facilitative for advancing speaking proficiency.

The usefulness of literature in developing critical thinking skills among the students cannot be gainsaid. Critical thinking is the cornerstone of education particularly at the advanced levels. It prepares students not to

take things for granted and to attempt to unravel the hidden agenda in every text they read. Critical thinking informs critical discourse analysis in language studies effectively providing a motley of approaches in the analysis of written, spoken and sign pieces of language. In line with these demands, literature can be used to bring about changes in the attitudes of learners and successfully set them in the path of critical thinking. According to Langer (1997), literature allows students to reflect on their lives, learning and language. Literature opens horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect, and explore. Critical thinking can successfully be imbibed in learners through debates and constructive argument sessions in and outside the classrooms. Picking debatable topics from a novel and dividing the class so as to have proposing and opposing sides will enlarge students' language learning horizons. As the text offers them the material to pass across they will be challenged to pass it in an accurate language in the spirit of competition and at the end, the exercise will offer an expansive language-learning opportunity.

Massive interest in research on the importance of literature in the teaching of English language partly emanates from an earlier exclusion of literature from ESL classrooms following some players' feelings that literature has negligible, if anything to offer English language learning and teaching. The results of the raging debate over this matter was exclusion of literature in the teaching of

English language. In the mid-1980s literature found its way back into ESL classrooms (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011), a comeback heralded by many players who felt its removal had adversely affected the learning of English language.

In the run up to their exclusion as tools for teaching English language, literary texts were perceived by some authors as containing complex and nonstandard language structures and therefore a serious impediment to students' study of English language (Mckay 2001 & Savvidou, 2004). These unfavorable arguments can be effectively addressed by adopting an integrated approach in the implementation of literature in an ESL context. Integrated approach presents an interdependence relationship between literature and English language so that as English language gets used to present literary content, literature too gets used to deliver the concepts of English language. The essence of this methodology is that in an ESL setting, we do not have students of literature and students of English language as separate groups. The same students study the two subjects which are firmly intertwined. The benefits of one to the other should therefore be identified and exploited.

Despite the enumerated worth of literature in ESL classes, scholars like Savvidou (2004) argue that works of literature are remote to conventions of Standard English language and therefore can induce problems for language learning purposes. In addition, Or, (2005), Akyel and Yalcin, (2004) argue that

literature usage in English language classes can even be detrimental because of its difficult literary language. But these anti-literature arguments in ESL classrooms can intellectually be quashed (Khatib et, al., 2011). Arguments against the use of literature in ESL classrooms has been floated by a section of scholars over years with arguments that syntactic difficulty inherent in literary texts makes it cumbersome to read. The daunting task of interpreting literary content cannot dilute the profound role played by literature in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) because these difficulties can be overcome with entrenchment of more effective pedagogical strategies and sustained practice.

Regardless of the difficulty involved, structuring of lessons around the reading of literature exposes unarguably wide range of vocabulary, dialogues and prose which is an advantage for language students seeking to improve their communication skills (Van, 2009). In addition, literature sufficiently equips the teachers of English language to address the social concerns of language utilization which could otherwise be neglected in ESL classes (Osborn, 2000 & Pennycook, 2001). Literature appeals to students' imagination, development of cultural awareness and encourages critical thinking about plots, themes and characters. This is important in bringing English language nearer to the students thus enhancing its use for day to day communication. The more students use literature for language purposes, the more their ability to overcome the linguistic challenges associated with it and the more their interest in the language under study.

Literature is integrated in ESL classrooms in many countries in the world as a dependable tool for teaching English language. In Sweden, literature plays a pivotal role in ESL classrooms. Swedish education policy considers the ability to read literature as a necessity for the accomplishment of the goals of the course as it leads to the achievement of the much needed sophistication and complexity of English language (Kubik, 2010). In addition, reading enhances the development of learning a second language. To achieve the goal of English language teaching, The Swedish National Agency for Education specifies the goals to aim for in English subject with regard to literature as: pupils to improve their ability to read with good understanding of literature in English and reflect over texts from different perspectives. In Israel, Hauner (2001) analysed the role of poetry reading task for foreign language learning. The study involved twenty female university students, registered in a teacher training course. None of the participants had degrees in English or Hebrew literature. The results of the study were clearly positive, categorizing the task of poetry reading as a useful technique in the foreign language classroom when working with advanced learners.

Research carried out by Lin (2006) was set in a secondary school in Singapore, where English language is a second language for most of the students and language and literature are usually taught as separate subjects. From the research findings, the author emphasises the pedagogical need to embed

literature into a larger framework of language classes so that the two can benefit from each other. According to Lin (2006), those teachers following this approach reported highly positive results. Bilal Anwar and Khan Rana (2010) provide the data of an empirical investigation conducted in the context of Pakistan with 280 university students enrolled in different English language and literature courses. After having analysed the students' responses to the questionnaires that had been previously administered, the authors reported that most of the students considered literature a helpful component in language studies and as an effective resource to be used in the language classes.

South African holistic curriculum reforms after apartheid coincided with scholars' critical inquiry into the role played by literature in the teaching of English language. According to Butler (2006) South African education was embroiled in unending debates about the worth of literature in ESL classrooms (South African context) from 1960s to 1980s. Butler (2006) provides an example of an attempt to incorporate literature into English language classes in South Africa. The English course he presents was implemented at the University of North West and entailed four areas of study, namely, Introduction to English Studies, Introduction to Textual Analysis, Introduction to Literary Genres and Grammar Awareness. The implementation results positively agreed with an integrated approach in the teaching of literature. Majority of the students (86.0%) were in favour of an integrated approach terming it linguistically beneficial in their Language 2 lessons.

In Kenya, literature is used as a resource for teaching English Language at all levels of education. English is studied as a separate subject and a medium of instruction for all the other subjects except Kiswahili from Early Childhood Education (ECE) to Tertiary level (Nabea, 2009). But given that majority of children at ECE centers come from challenged English language backgrounds where they may not have been adequately introduced to it, vernacular or Kiswahili for urban centers is used interchangeably with English language in giving learning instructions. Much of learning at ECE especially in Kenyan rural areas where children's background in English language is a serious challenge, learning consists of recitation of content in the form of songs and oral poems which marks children's introduction to literature for English language purposes. Despite English being a socially privileged language in Kenya owing to its use as a formal language of communication in and out of the classroom as well as a language of instruction in schools, research shows that most children are not sufficiently proficient in English at Standard Three to effectively learn the other school subjects' content purely in English language at Standard Four (Bunyi, 2008 & Gathumbi, 2008).

At secondary school, students are introduced to all the genres of literature as an integrated course in English subject primarily to enhance their proficiency in English language. Literature at tertiary level of education in Kenya is treated as a distinct subject especially in universities. However, it is incorporated as an

English language teaching and learning resource for those students undertaking English language courses or communication–related disciplines like journalism, public relations, translation and marketing communications. For teacher trainees in English, literature is a core subject in colleges and universities. Primary Teacher Education (PTE) students study English language as a compulsory subject mainly because they require it for instructional communication to their students once they become teachers. To reinforce this achievement, literature is used as a resource for teaching English language in primary teacher training colleges in Kenya. Literature was introduced in PTE English curriculum at Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in Kenya in 2006 (Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development [KICD], 2006), with the aim of enhancing teacher trainees’ mastery of English language and equip them with instructional communicative competence. The benefits of embedment of literature in PTE English curriculum was expected to trickle down to primary schools where PTE finalists are posted to teach after completion of their courses.

The aforementioned benefits of introducing and sustaining the usage of literature for English language in ESL classrooms are packaged with an application challenge which educators have to overcome for the benefit of their students. Discussion of the importance of literature in English language classrooms must therefore involve strategies of integration so that as literary content gets presented in English language, learners can also be guided to take advantage of the linguistic aspects of literature such as grammar, pronunciation,

vocabulary and spelling. The proposition here is that for every language opportunity literature presents, the question on how it is extracted so as to fully benefit the learners is integral. For example, authenticity of literary materials can only be of linguistic value to the learners if their deployment in ESL classroom is properly informed and strategized.

According to Lima (2010) teachers who try to incorporate literature in the ESL classrooms face serious problems on lack of training in the area of literature teaching, absence of clear objectives defining the role of literature, lack of necessary background knowledge in literature as well as shortage of pedagogically-well-designed materials. Lima (2010) opines that despite the support literature enjoys in its reintegration in L2 curriculum, it has to carve a niche for itself in the mainstream language teaching materials in order to answer the pertinent questions on how literature can be integrated into English language for linguistic benefits to students (Bobkina & Dominguez, 2014). Teachers are key in the implementation of any curriculum. The success of any school-based curricular is highly dependent on the teaching skills possessed by implementing teachers (Kealey et al., 2000).

Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages (TESOL) requires professional skills, relevant tools and goal-oriented approaches in order to motivate and enable the students to reap the vast linguistic benefits inherent in literature (Divsar, 2009 & Dhanapal 2010; Savvidou, 2004; Timucin 2001).To

achieve the intended linguistic benefits from literature in public PTTCs in Kenya, implementation process ought to be professionally sound and this can be entrenched through adequate training of tutors, timely lesson planning, provision of sufficient and relevant literary texts, deployment of effective methodologies and administration as well as analysis of Continuous Assessment Tests (CATs) to PTE English students. As a resource for teaching ESL, literature helps in satisfying the demands for CLT which is the hallmark for teaching second and foreign languages to non-native speakers (Khatib, Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011). The focus of communicative language teaching is communication as opposed to forms and structures. The journey towards this goal requires dynamism on the way teachers present their content and sustained evaluation of the effectiveness of their approaches, zeal to learn more as well vibrancy in the provision of the required materials and tools.

Consolidation of the numerous benefits literature offers in an ESL classroom, can only be completed by ensuring that implementing teachers are adequately prepared for it. This will enable them to depart from routine teaching of literature and adopt more student-centred approaches aimed at actualising its benefits in an ESL class. The success of any curriculum is firmly hinged on the implementing strategies adopted, deployed and reviewed by teachers. For teachers to effectively implement curriculum, they need to be properly trained and retrained, consistently plan their lessons, be supplied with sufficient and

relevant teaching resources, adopt appropriate teaching methodologies and regularly assess their students on the course being taught so as to elicit data from which they can modify their strategies. However rich a curriculum may be, its benefits may pass off if focus is distracted from teacher's pedagogical strategies.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Integration of literature in ESL classrooms the world over is aimed at easing the task of teaching and learning English language by provision of meaningful contexts in which the concepts of language can be taught and learnt thereby improving students masterly and use of language in and outside the classroom. A substantial body of scholarly works like those of Ghosn (2002) Khatib, Rezaei and Derakhshan (2011), Shrestha (2008), Tayebipour (2009 and Van (2009) herald the presence and sustenance of literature in English language classrooms for linguistic purposes.

In Kenyan English is a prestigious language whose masterly and proper usage is highly revered in educational, business, social sectors. To ensure the citizenry is adequately educated on English language, policy makers in the education sector in consultation with language educationists have sufficiently and informatively provided the road map towards improvement of English language intellectuality in the country. This is evidenced by the fact that English is a

compulsory subject at primary and secondary school levels. They have also blended English language curricula with literature at all levels of education to ensure that its learning scope is widened by availing meaningful contexts in which various possibilities of language can be practised. The Government of Kenya (GoK) through the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) has crowned these efforts with constant review of teacher education curriculum and deployment of qualified teacher trainers to train teachers of English in teacher training colleges and universities. The government has also been posting qualified teachers in primary and secondary schools to teach English as well as supplying teaching and learning materials and resources in schools, colleges and universities to create an enabling environment for English language teaching and learning. But the key determinants of success of any curriculum innovation are teachers.

Literature was integrated in PTE English curriculum in 2006 as a strategic measure for availing motivating, interesting and meaningful contexts in which various skills of English language like reading, writing, listening and speaking can be taught and learnt. Having been provided with quality pre-service training, permanent jobs as well as teaching and learning resources, tutors were expected to actualise these benefits in their PTE classrooms by adopting and utilising effective pedagogical strategies in the teaching of literature. Whereas scholars like Gichuki (2007), Magona (1999), Manyasi (2014)), Omollo (1990) and Otieno (2003) have conducted in-depth studies on the approaches used by

teachers to integrate literature at secondary schools, no attention has been paid on tutors' pedagogical strategies in integrating literature into English curriculum at teacher training colleges in Kenya. This study is therefore an attempt to fill this gap.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine tutor's pedagogical strategies for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- (a) To establish the levels of tutor professional development for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.
- (b) To analyze tutors of lesson preparation in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.
- (c) To establish the extent to which tutors utilize relevant instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.
- (d) To identify the teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.
- (e) To analyze classroom assessment of literature course at public PTTCs in Kenya.

1.5 Research Questions

- (a) To which level are tutors professionally developed to implement integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya?
- (b) What are the levels of tutors' lesson preparation in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya?
- (c) To what extent do tutors utilize relevant instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya?
- (d) Which teaching methodologies are used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya?
- (e) How is classroom assessment of literature course at public PTTCs in Kenya?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study may have both theoretical and practical implications for the future of curriculum development in Kenya. Theoretically this study is expected to add to the knowledge of teacher instructional practices by providing critique of pedagogical strategies used by tutors in integrating literature into English curriculum. Practically, the study may draw the attention of curriculum developers on the role of teachers and teacher education in curriculum implementation. Curriculum evaluators may also find this study useful in determining the parameters of curriculum implementation evaluation. The study

may be of help to trainers of teacher trainers on the influence of teacher training in developing teacher capacity.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Absence of some teacher trainers at the time of visit was also a setback. The researcher had to observe patience and flexibility in time management. Some tutors were uncomfortable with their lessons being observed by strangers. To overcome this, they were assured that neither their identities or colleges would be revealed in the report.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

Kenya has both public and private PTTCs which are implementing literature but the study was based on the public ones since their curriculum implementation is strictly regulated by the state. Integration of literature in English curriculum at public PTTCs in Kenya involves many players like curriculum developers, college administrators, curriculum implementation evaluators and so on. Nevertheless, the study targeted Heads of Subject (HoSs) - English and the Tutors of English (ToEs) to generate data for the study because they are direct implementers of English curriculum. In addition, there are several other factors that are necessary for integration of literature into English curriculum but the study concentrated on tutor pedagogical strategies.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

In the course of study, it was assumed that:

- (i) All the respondents will give accurate information which would form the basis of study findings.
- (ii) All tutors integrating literature into English curriculum at Public PTTCs in Kenya had initial qualifications in the teaching of English.
- (iii) The presence of the researcher in the classroom will not influence tutor lesson presentation and class organization.

1.10 Definition of Significant Terms

The following terms are used:

Classroom assessment refers to an evaluation of students after a certain period of teaching and learning to determine the extent to which the set objectives have been achieved.

Curriculum evaluation refers to critical inquiry into the quality of teaching and the extent of the achievement of learning objectives in curriculum implementation.

Curriculum implementation refers to actualization of curriculum in the classroom by teaching the content and evaluating the knowledge and skills acquired by the learners so as to inform further teaching.

Curriculum refers to systematically organized package of content taught in schools with the aim of achieving a specified behavioral change among the learners.

English curriculum refers to English course and its content taught at teacher training colleges

In-service training of tutors refers to the provision of refresher courses to practicing teacher trainers with the aim of improving, enhancing and modernizing their teaching skills.

Instructional resources refer to learning materials, equipment and aids used by teacher trainers to enhance instructions in the classroom.

Integration of literature refers to inclusion of literature into English curriculum so that it becomes part of it.

Lesson preparation refers to teacher trainers' prior interaction with the teaching content, preparation of learning activities and lesson time allocation with aim achieving the greatest outcomes in teaching.

Literature curriculum refers to a systematically organized course of learning comprising of literary texts like poems, novels and short stories and drama taught in schools with the aim of achieving specified objectives.

Literature refers to word creative works like novels, drama, poetry and short stories used in English as foreign language classes to teach linguistic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Pre-service training refers to initial professional training given to teacher trainers to prepare them as teachers before they begin teaching.

Teacher education refers to all the knowledge, skills and attitudes imparted to teachers before and after qualifying as teachers in order for them to give an effective teaching service.

Teacher refers to a professionally trained educational practitioner at any level of education whose sole responsibility is to teach and evaluate learners.

Teacher trainee refers to a student receiving formal teacher education and training before beginning teaching in preparation to become a teacher.

Teacher trainer refers to a teacher providing formal training to teacher trainees at teacher training colleges.

Teaching methodologies refer to a collection methods and approaches used by tutors in the implementation of curriculum.

Tutors' pedagogical strategies refers to planned actions in teaching which a tutors intend to use towards achievement of pre-determined teaching objectives.

Tutor professional development refers to continued education of tutors from time to time to equip them with the necessary knowledge and competence for curriculum implementation.

1.11 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction, which comprises introduction, the background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study and research questions among other sub-sections. Chapter two is on literature review. It entails the introduction, professional development of teachers, teacher preparation in the implementation of curriculum, use of instructional resources in the implementation of curriculum, selection of teaching methodologies in the implementation of curriculum, the importance of learner assessment in the

implementation of curriculum and the summary of reviewed literature. This chapter also entails theoretical basis of the study and conceptual framework of the study. Chapter three is on research methodology. It entails introduction, research design, the target population, sample size and sampling techniques. It also covers research instruments, validity of instruments, reliability of instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Chapter is about data analysis and interpretation of results of the study. Chapter five gives the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter entails the review of related literature for this study. It will entail teacher quality and teaching, the influence of teacher participation in curriculum development on teacher implementation of curriculum, use of literary texts in English language teaching, literariness of materials used in EFL classes, the role of Literature in EFL classes, teacher in-service training and teacher effectiveness in the implementation of curriculum, teacher lesson preparation and learner performance, influence of utilization of instructional resources in curriculum implementation, teaching methodologies and implementation of curriculum, methods of formative assessment and curriculum implementation, summary, theoretical basis of the study and the conceptual framework of the study.

2.2 Literature and Language Teaching

Literature as a resource for language teaching has enormous linguistic benefits which greatly help students to learn and master the various language concepts inherent in language under implementation. The use of literature in ESL or EFL classes gives the students an advantage because it offers authentic and contexts in which these concepts can be learnt and tested. Authentic material provides the learners with many significant advantages and promotes them with high

motivation and interest in language learning and lead to improving communicative competence (Guariento & Morley, 2001). A number of education systems in the world use Literature in the teaching of Foreign Languages (FL) as basis for drawing linguistic examples and experimenting with words.

Studies of Tehan, Inan-Karagul and Yuksel (2015) on the attitudes and opinions of students towards the use and place of Literature course in language teaching shows the essentiality of Literature in the teaching of English language. The study was carried out in the in the English Language Teaching Department of Kocaeli University, Faculty of Education, in Turkey, in the Spring Term of the 2011-2012 academic year. Twenty students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) participated in the study. This study aimed to examine the perception of Literature in an ELT program by three groups of participants: freshmen, before they take any Literature course, sophomores, while they are taking a literature course and juniors, after they take a Literature course. The responses of participants mostly highlighted the importance of Literature in the English Language Teaching curriculum.

In Libya, a study conducted by Murry (2015) on the EFL teachers working at different Libyan universities about their attitudes and reactions toward using Literature authentic materials in language teaching reveals a positive relationship between the use of Literature in an EFL context and the mastery of

FL by the students. The study involved Libyan EFL teachers with between 2 to 25 years of academic experience. An overwhelming majority of teachers stated that Literature authentic materials can provide meaningful exposure to language as it is actually used to motivate learners and help them develop a range of communicative competencies and enhance positive attitudes towards the learning of a language.

2.2.1 Use of Literary Texts in English Language Teaching: Historical Background

Over the years, researchers have held majorly controversial opinions over the usefulness of literature in English Language Teaching (ELT) to English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) classes. Whereas some of the researchers held that literature was a worthwhile resource for teaching English language to ESOL, others expressed their discomfort with its inclusion especially in consideration of its complex language. Durant (1993) draws a distinction between three conceptual phases of historical inclusion of literature in ESOL classes (Butler, 2006). The first phase (traditional phase, before 1960s), inclusion of literature in ESOL was characterised by massive support from the majority teachers who greatly felt that literature was the panacea to English language learning challenges.

The learning of literature was regarded as a consequence preceded by student's mastery of language structures. For example, after gaining sufficient

proficiency in English, a student proceeds to read short stories and selected lyrical poems followed later by a much broader range of literary texts (Durant, 1996). The study of literature in this context is regarded as more sophisticated than the study of language. Similarly, the teachers of literature were frequently the most senior and teachers of language the most junior. The outstanding feature of the first phase in the inclusion of literature in ESOL classes is that classes ELT was literature dominated with English language completely ignored or at best seen to provide a supportive role.

The second phase (1960s and 1970s) saw a drastic paradigm shift on treatment of literature as a resource for teaching English language advocating for a complete separation of English language and literature teaching. Hierarchical view of literature and English was challenged and notions of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged as a more powerfully worked out and institutionally confident set of structures (Durant, 1996). Literature was dislodged its superior position as a resource for language teaching and a higher - level test for student's mastery of English language. This shift was necessitated by the growing numbers of ESOL students studying at tertiary level for whom the traditional approach no longer seemed appropriate (Butler, 2006). The spiralling and rapid demands of proficiency in functional English language diverted attention from literary texts which required heavier investments in terms of time for text selection and reading as well as preparation for teachers.

This saw teachers and proponents of ESOL opt for a shorter route in ELT (exclusion of literary texts from the EFL syllabus).

Majority of players in ELT were uncomfortable with the functionalism approach advocated by the proponents of the second phase. Their reaction led to the birth of the third phase (late 1970s and 1980s). There was once again a place for literature in ESOL (Butler,2006). The approach was however now significantly different: literature was studied in conjunction with other kinds of non-literary discourse, and presented in various innovative ways (Butler, 2006). The third phase pointed to the possibility of integration between English language and literature as is the current practice in secondary and tertiary levels of education in Kenya.

2.2.2 Literariness of Materials Used in ESL Classes

Discussions on the integration of literature and language in ESOL contexts leads to the question of literariness of materials used in ELT with the intention of bringing realising the benefits of literature in language teaching. Proponents of separation between literature and language in ESOL context have over the years endeavoured to classify materials used in ELT as either literary or non-literary. Short (1996) refers to it as “border dispute” over territory between linguists and literary critics. Distinct classification of ELT materials as literary and non-literary has resulted to the teaching of English and literature as disconnected pedagogical practices (Carter & McRae, 1996). The practice erodes the benefits

of literature in ELT by denying the students readership of creatively written articles for linguistic purposes. This makes the study of English language a piece meal exercise because the students have to rely on limited and largely narrow classroom examples and illustrations for language learning. Separation of literature from language is a false dualism because literature is language and language can indeed be literary (Savvidou, 2004) and therefore the need for interdependence.

Traditional definition of literature as “great works” (Martín 2000 & Hanauer 2001) has been relied upon by proponents of separation of literature from language to argue that literature contains its own distinct value in curriculum especially aesthetic and cultural concerns. According to Carter and Nash (1990), rather than classifying materials as either literary or non-literary players ought to consider a variety of text types along a continuum with some being more literary than others. Savvidou (2004) cites examples of headlines: “Bookies bonanza comes at a prize” and “King Khan Goes for Gold”; advertisement statements: “Put a tiger in your tank” and “Have a break, have a Kit Kat – Kit Kat” as forms of transactional statements which despite from the surface appearing to be quite conventional, they indeed contain literary devices. The practice of integration between language and literature makes it important to look beyond the traditionally conceived genres of literature: novels, drama, short stories and poems. Literariness is found in a wide variety of texts (Butler, 2006), such as comic strips (Davis 1997 & Butler 2000), song lyrics (Moi 1997,

Saricoban & Metin 2000) and advertisements (Cock, 1990, Brodie, 1999 & Picken 1999, 2000) and all of them are potential resources of language teaching.

Genres traditionally thought as popular, sub-literary or non-literary (Butler, 2006) have been pushed into consideration for ELT by demands of integration of language and literature. In Wright's (2003) definition traditional myths and legends, personal stories, anecdotes, modern stories or legends as well as reports for real events should be incorporated as worthwhile materials in ELT for ESOL to enhance achievement of linguistic competence. Genres of oral literature especially traditional folktales (Helfrich 1993; Tylor 2000; Kennedy, 2000; Paran & Watts 2000 & Malgwi, 2003) blends linguistic concepts with culture making it not only familiar but also enjoyable for EFL students to learn the foreign language. Similar views are expressed by Karant (1994) Wright (2000, 2003), Wajnryb (2003) and British Council (2005) for narratives and stories generally.

Even in traditionally accepted forms of literature like drama, proponents of language through literature advocate for a different approach if it is to be used as an aid for language teaching. Emphasis should be on dramatic activities such as role playing, play writing and reading, mime and the dramatization of non-dramatic texts (Wessels 1991, Heath, 1993, Ainy, 2000, Elgar, 2002 & Almond, 2005). Suitability of literary materials in ELT is even dependent on genre. Short stories are frequently presented as ideally accessible forms of literature for

ESOL students (Murdoch 1992, 2002; Collie & Slater 1993; Mrozowska 1998 & Hess 2006). Ronquist and Sell (1994) stress the need to select texts that engage and are relevant to their readers, rather than canonical or abridged canonical texts. The key factor about the use of literature in ELT is its relevance for which Anglophone countries insists on the use of local literatures (Choh, 2002) in order to exploit students' familiarity with the local contexts featured in the texts for linguistic benefit.

Language through literature dictates that literature be viewed as a resource to be exploited, rather than as a something to be studied in its own right and for its own sake (Butler, 2006). This proposition revitalises literature in EFL classes and breaths hope to ESOL students interested in expanding their vocabulary and writing skills through reading creatively written works. The usefulness of literary materials in ELT is hinged on the analysis of these materials on the basis of style, content and form for language learning. This involves systematic and detailed analysis of stylistic features of a text such as vocabulary, structure and register (Savvidou, 2004) which teachers of English ought to be prepared for through training lesson planning and exhaustively implement in their classroom practices to better English language learning.

2.2.3 The Role of Literature in English as Second Language Classes

Literature plays a key role in English as second Language (ESL) classes with focus to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The benefits of literature

to English language classes that in many countries with ESOL curriculum, literature is considered an indispensable resource which has been consistently implemented in an effort to produce school leavers who are proficient in English language. Literature review reveals the conclusions of various scholars about the importance of incorporating literature in ESL classes, including, exposing students to meaningful contexts that are replete with descriptive language and interesting characters (Truong, 2009). Literature provides rich and authentic examples of the foreign language (Mourao, 2003) which learners ought to interact with to understand foreign language. Literature challenges students to find meaning of language as opposed to anticipating it (Ferradas, 2009). According to Bates (2000) poetry can handle all types of experience connected with English as Foreign Language making literature a complete resource for teaching English.

Despite the linguistic benefits of literature in EFL classrooms, its inclusion in English curriculum has been a subject of debate over years. Fierce debates over its relevance in teaching language led to its exclusion from English curriculum in 1960s and 70s (Butler, 2006; Belcher & Hirvela, 2000 & Maley, 2001). However, in 1980s there was renewed interest in literature as a tool for teaching language. This led to its gradual comeback into EFL classrooms (Paran, 2006), a move heralded by many teachers of English. The benefits efl students derive from literature include access to authentic literature material, motivation, cultural / intercultural and global awareness, intensive and extensive reading

opportunities, grammar and vocabulary acquisition as well as language skills. It is important to have a brief discussion of each of these benefits to reveal their importance in EFL classroom.

2.2.4. Literature as Authentic Materials for English Language Learning

The usefulness of Literature as a resource for language teaching in EFL context is dependably hinged on its authenticity. Authenticity is a criterion considered highly essential in the current literature in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) and this makes it a worthwhile resource (Khatib, et.al., 2011). Berado (2006) states that one of the main reason for using authentic materials in the classroom is once outside the safe, controlled language learning environment, the learner will not encounter the artificial language of classroom but the real world and language and how it is really used. According to Wallace (1992), authentic texts are “real- life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes” (p.145). Peacock (1997) says the purpose of producing this material (authentic material) is to fulfill some social purpose in the language community.

Variance in the usage of language from one community to another is as a result of differences in philosophical, cultural and social backgrounds inherent in these communities. Authentic materials reflect these backgrounds as they really are and in this sense give students Foreign Language (FL) classes an opportunity to learn linguistic concepts in the situations originally envisaged by the author. For FL students. consistent utilization of authentic materials is more effective in

covering the four language skills taught in schools than any other single language teaching strategy.

Authentic materials avail FL students an opportunity of interacting with linguistic concepts in a natural and realistic context and this enables them to better acquire the requisite skills for FL use. Research shows that using authentic materials leads to oral language development (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Miller, 2005; Otte, 2006; Thanajaro, 2000). Moreover, some other studies have confirmed that using authentic materials has great influence on developing reading comprehension by presenting new words and expressions to students (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Berardo, 2006). Berardo (2006) writes that the sources of authentic materials that can be used in the FL class are infinite and proposes four factors worth taking into consideration when choosing authentic material for the classroom. These factors are: suitability of content, exploitability, readability and presentation. He believes that the main advantages of using authentic materials in the classroom include:

- 1- Having a positive effect on student motivation;
- 2- Giving authentic cultural information;
- 3- Exposing students to real language;
- 4- Relating more closely to students' needs;
- 5- Supporting a more creative approach to teaching.

Literary texts: novels, drama, poems and short stories are examples of authentic materials used in ELT alongside newspapers, magazines, brochures as well as audio-visual materials such as TV and radio programs, movies, songs and even YouTube films. Others include travel timetables, city plans, forms, pamphlets, cartoons, advertisements, newspaper or magazine articles. Bacon and Finnemann, (1990), for instance, defined authentic materials as texts produced by and intended for native speakers for non-pedagogical purposes. Despite the many definitions of authentic materials, they are not created for educational language purposes. Authentic materials which include spoken written materials are designed for real-life goals and native speakers' communications and by this, they pass as reliable materials in the teaching of foreign language.

The common denominator in all the definitions of authentic materials is exposure to real language and its use in its own community (Kilickaya, 2004). Since the late 1980s, the inclusion of authentic materials has taken its firm place in EFL classes, and such usage has yielded an endless debate in the field of language teaching (Belaid, 2015), Despite all such discussions, the effectiveness of authentic materials has been uninterruptedly recognized, and language teachers worldwide prefer to use them rather than traditional textbook materials. There have been many empirical studies conducted before which proved the enormous positive results gained by language learners, who have had opportunities for interacting with authentic materials.

These results encompass the acquisition of the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking are improved through the use of authentic materials, (Thanjaro, 2000; Kilickaya, 2004; Al-Musallam, 2007; 2009; Miller, 2005; Otte, 2006; and Gilmore, 2007). Competence in these four areas of language learning forms the objectives of CLT and a resource enhancing its realization comes in handy. Harmer (1991), for instance, states that the use of authentic materials would improve and develop the learner's listening and reading skills in the target language, despite the heavy use of textbook materials. Bacon and Finnemann, (1990), clarified that authentic materials would improve the learner's reading skills through presenting new vocabulary and expressions to language learners. Literature is inherently authentic and provides authentic input for language learning (Ghosn 2002 & Shreshtha, 2008). Most works of literature are not created for the primary purpose of teaching a language. Thus, in a classroom context, learners are exposed to actual language samples of real life settings.

Due to the demand of coping with language intended for native speakers, students reading literary texts are challenged to become familiar with many different linguistic forms, communicative functions and meanings. Authenticity of literature is mostly envisaged in drama and novel (Khatib et al. 2011). Drama contains conversations, expression of feelings, functional phrases and contextualized expressions. Novels contain descriptive writing and other types of writing which add to the imaginative nature of human etching language in

mind. Ghosn (2002) and Van (2009) assert that literary texts are very motivating due to their authenticity and meaningful contexts they provide. Cruz (2010) believe that literature as aesthetic recreation can be considered a much more “authentic” source and can inspire more authority in the use and enrichment of language. He says literature can be regarded as a rich source of authentic material, because it conveys two features in its written text: one is „language in use“, that is, the employment of linguistics by those who have mastered it into a fashion intended for native speakers; the second is an aesthetic representation of the spoken language, which is meant to recover or represent language within a certain cultural context”.

Literature is about exploitation of language to present the intended theme(s) in a figurative style to give the reader deep insights about underlying ideas. As such literature is an authentic material and imparts diverse forms and functions of written language (Hadaway, 2002). Martinez (2002) (cited in Berardo, 2006) writes the negative aspects of authentic materials are that they can be too culturally biased, often a good knowledge of cultural background is required when reading, as well as too many structures being mixed, causing lower levels problems when decoding the texts. We can say that arguably more important than the provision of authentic texts, is authenticity in terms of the tasks which learners are required to perform with them. From what was said we can conclude that the use of literary text as an authentic material, from language teaching point of view, will be useful because these texts show how language works in

contexts. Furthermore, they show how language should be used, in which condition and situation.

2.2.5 Literature as Motivation Tool for Students

English language learning (ELL) in EFL classes can be a difficult task if teachers were to rely on textbooks and own-made notes. Literary texts motivate EFL learners by giving them an opportunity to interact with English Language Use (ELU) in various contexts to give various meanings hence setting a base for their self – study of English Language (EL). Literature has been claimed to be effective not only for learners' cognitive growth but also for their psychological development in EFL situations (Khatib & Daftarifard, 2013). As Reading motivation proves to be essential for learners' academic achievement (Takase, 2007), it is important to learn what factor might affect or ameliorate learners' reading motivation especially in ELL through literature where literary content must be experienced in the context of language for it to translate into linguistic skills acquisition.

Scholars have reemphasised the importance of motivation in learning. According to Dörnyei (2009) neither individual abilities nor appropriate curricula, on their own, may ensure student achievement unless there is sufficient motivation. In learning, motivation is one of the elements which drive learners to go ahead and look beyond the seemingly insurmountable hurdles associated with learning. The research on first language reading motivation and

second language (Dornyei 1990, 2000, 2003) indicates that motivation is a task based phenomena not just a global entity (Mori, 2000). This has made many educational researchers to make in-depth studies on the factors influencing the levels of motivation among the students. Takase (2007) studies the relationship between motivation and extensive L2 reading. Mori (2002) came up with different factors of reading motivation as (1) intrinsic value of reading, (2) extrinsic utility value of reading, (3) importance of reading and (4) reading efficacy.

Accordingly, Intrinsic Motivation refers to inner driven reasons for reading different texts. These reasons are not externally driven. On the other hand, Extrinsic Motivation refers to "perceived usefulness as explained in expectancy value theory". Importance of reading includes items such as explaining the importance of reading in coping with internationalization, following general education, broadening one's view, and developing into a more knowledgeable person. Finally, Reading Efficacy refers to reader's self-evaluation about his or her reading ability. Intrinsic motivation is claimed to be the most important kind of motivation (Khatib & Daftarifard, 2013). Motivation is not only one of the most important concepts in psychology to explain the reason of human behaviours and acts, but it is also of great importance in language education to explain the causes of success or failure in learning (Dörnyei, 2009). Motivation is an important and indicative factor in ensuring learners' success. Literary texts motivate learners in EFL classes in their efforts to acquire linguistic competence

because they deal with things which are interesting in nature hence exposing students to what they really enjoy.

The use of literary texts can be a causative factor in increasing learners' motivation and this further can ameliorate learners' achievement. Arnold and Brown (1999) believe that very little can be accomplished if the learner is not at least minimally willing or motivated. Literary texts can increase learners' motivation for several reasons. The use of literary texts in EFL contexts is one of the many ways of humanizing syllabus because literary texts account for individual differences and their diverse comprehension. To De Matos (2005), humanizing textbooks means to make learners aware of cross cultural differences. You-Jung (2009) believes that materials which lack humanistic elements disregard the fact that learners might have different feelings, intellects, interest, and attitudes. The use of literary texts in general, and poems in particular, would make learners to relate their experiences with that of what is expressed in the texts.

Students' ability to relate literary textual content to real life experiences can be enhanced through developing activities which focus both on the content of the texts and helping learners to connect it to their own lives. Learning best occurs when things are seen as part of recognized patterns, when learners' imaginations are activated, or when the information appeals to our senses (Tomlinson, 2003b). The use of literature in an EFL classroom can stimulate

multidimensional mental activity during language learning (Maley, 1996; 2001). This only works if the learners are helped and encouraged to experience the literature rather than studying it for a particular purpose. One way of achieving literary experience is to use poems which are linguistically simple but cognitively and emotionally complex (Khatib & Daftarifard, 2013). This makes learners to engage with the text personally. Another important feature of literary textbooks and materials used in English classroom is raising language awareness (Boblitho, 2003). Such textbooks require learners to explore, make comparisons, answer questions, take notes, guess or hypothesize, classify and categorize the data in the texts.

A good task will trigger one or more of the following cognitive processes: analysing, analogizing, applying existing knowledge to new contexts, revising existing beliefs and constructs, synthesizing old and new knowledge, evaluating evidence from data, and so forth. Researchers, in this regard, argue for the motivating potential of authentic materials, (Kilickaya, 2004 & Thanajaro, 2000) which is essential for successful L2 learning. Authentic materials are significant since they intensify and increase learner learning motivation. Moreover, Kilickaya (2004) claims that using authentic materials increase and develop learners' motivation because such materials offer students a feeling that they are learning the real language. Otte (2006) indicated that student motivation develops through using such materials in language teaching. Thanajaro, (2000) as well, observed an improvement in learners' self-

satisfaction and motivation after using authentic materials, (literary texts) inside classrooms. Literary texts offer students original manipulation of language to spell certain messages and themes and this is normally accompanied by humorous presentation of characters and episodes.

2.2.6 Literature as a Tool for Cultural, Intercultural and Globalization Awareness

In Foreign Language (FL) classes, students' understanding of other cultures is essential as it forms the basis of understanding the language under study. Learning a language should not just involve linguistic competence but also include intercultural competence (Rodríguez & Puyal. 2012). The need for intercultural and global approach in FL classes is in the long run beneficial to the learners because once placed in the intercultural and global scene, the student is able to send off the local and mostly narrow view of FL and broaden their learning horizons leading to greater achievement. Literary texts represent a resource that is especially suited for teaching intercultural understanding in the FL classroom (Olsbu,2014). The fictional texture of literature exposes FL students to natural contexts in which language is used. This gives the student an opportunity to study the target language as they interact with the culture of the people utilizing the language under study. The latter is an effective tool in language skills' acquisition as it enables recall of linguistic concepts and

association of these concepts with literary situations enhancing mastery of language.

The value of literature in FL classes is multi-edged, transcending beyond the mere propagation of language skills. Literary texts may offer learners opportunities to develop critical reading skills that help them understand other cultures, thus acquiring new cultural frames of reference and a transformed world view (Rodríguez & Puyal. 2012). Some authors point out the potential of fictional texts to develop critical self-awareness by engaging both students' cognitive and affective dimensions, which paves the way to intercultural awareness and understanding (Phipps and González 2004; Zacharias 2005). According to Thanasoulas (2010), exposure to literary texts not only helps students increase their language competence, but also helps them define and redefine their own cultural values by exploring and interpreting the assumptions and beliefs of the target culture. The understanding of one's beliefs, values and practices forms the basis of understanding and appreciation of others and this may have long-lasting benefits to students' academic life

Literature entails diverse cultural content which opens a window for students to observe and learn from other cultures comparing them to his or her own. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), claim that cultural awareness may be achieved through experiencing the culture, either directly through visiting a culture, or indirectly through films, music or literature. Bredella (2003) contends that art

contributes to self-reflection and imaginative immersion in otherness thus fostering intercultural skills. Corbett (2010) highlights the importance of using literary works and other cultural forms of expression as effective ways of enhancing tolerance for diversity and empathy; while Ghosn (2002) remarks on the potential of literature as a change agent since good literature contributes to the emotional development of the student by nurturing interpersonal and intercultural attitudes. Literature student's interaction with other cultures pulls students from "protection attitude" of their own to critical approaches of cultures enabling them to feel at home with poets use of language and presentation of discourse which contributes to their greater understanding of target content.

English language is internationally accepted FL and it is used for communication in scholarly, business, international and inter-personal relations. Literature is an indispensable resource in teaching English. Pulverness (2004) strongly recommends teachers to use texts and materials which relate to more than one English-speaking culture and to avoid conveying the impression that they are focusing only on British or American culture. While Cai (2002) proposes different views on how to use multicultural literature to help students to vicariously experience crossing cultural borders, some research has proven that multicultural stories induce empathetic responses to the experiences of the story characters (Hägglom 2006). It has been proven that the degree of

students' identification with the content is directly proportional to students' achievement as academic concepts are normally embedded in the content.

The debate on the usefulness of a FL in local education systems has remained an issue among education researchers and practitioners over years. Due to the demands of inter-culturalism and globalization, the debate leaned more on implementation of FL as opposed to questioning its usefulness. This trend has given rise to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). According to Martyniuk (2008), CLIL is a new paradigm in language education advocated by some researchers as a holistic approach which engages students intellectually and cognitively in both language and content and which may, therefore, have an impact on mental activities. Understanding of content enhances students power of relating concepts and precedes mastery of the language in which the content is presented. Learning contents in another language can affect our conceptual mapping, modify the way we think, and, in addition, broaden our thinking horizon (Marsh 2011). In an FL context, the issues presented are not only in FL but also from diverse cultures giving the students superior learning opportunities.

Globalization demands sensitisation of people about other cultures in order to understand them and promote deeper appreciation of theirs. Topics on ethnic diversity raise students' intercultural awareness and ethnic tolerance (Neto 2006). Literature is a cultural product which promotes inter-culturalism by

enabling us to see the world from a perspective different from our own. As it involves our prior experiences, beliefs, values etc., the literary encounter has a potential for learning that goes beyond the reception of an informative text of cultural facts (Rodríguez & Puyal. 2012). Kramersch, (2013) advocates for adoption of a late-modernist view of culture that inserts FL teaching and learning in the contemporary globalized world of cultural and linguistic heterogeneity and multiple identities. Wolff (2007) sustains that the educational objective of intercultural competence may be best implemented within CLIL approaches. Hence, the integrative nature of CLIL classes provides an opportunity for taking not only a dual-focussed but a triple-focussed approach: simultaneously combining foreign language learning, content subject and intercultural learning (Sudhoff 2010). Culturalism of literature is not only seen in the topics, settings and characters involved but also through the language used and this makes it an important inclusion in ELL context.

2.2.7 Masterly of Vocabulary and Grammar through Literature

The advent of multimedia with its short-cut use of English Language (EL) and influx of students coming from poor social - economic backgrounds where authentic material like magazines, newspaper articles and television shows are unavailable adversely affects students, acquisition of standard English Language Vocabulary (ELV) and grammar. Manzo, Manzo, and Thomas (2006) reported that the influx of reality television, rap music, and other pop-cultural factors make those using intellectual language appear conceited. Contemporary

teachers of English are faced with a greater challenge of handling students who are extensively learning and using non-standard EL as compared to their predecessors. Their willingness to teach students the value of improving their ELV in order to close the gap between the reality of the child's life and the expectations of the child's school (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004) has never been more paramount if the aims of ELT are to be achieved.

Teachers in EFL classes have been trying to strategize the ways of improving their students' vocabulary. The most commonly used method is the listing of words and looking up their definitions from the dictionary (Rupley & Nichols, 2005). This Definitional Vocabulary Instruction (DVI) strategy has been deployed in many EFL contexts as quick - fix method for ELL over years. However, the technique has been found to have serious shortcomings because relying on dictionary meaning narrows the scope of word usage in an FL situation. For example, if students took the definition of "brim" to be "edge," they may think that, "The knife has a sharp brim," is a logical sentence (Brabham & Villaume, 2002). Furthermore, vocabulary words may mean something entirely different when used in another context, or the definition of the vocabulary word may contain words that the students do not recognize (Rhoder & Huerster, 2002) hence hampering their internalization and utilization of new words in speech and writing.

Contextualization in the usage of language vocabulary is crucial because it is a practical way in which students can see operationalization of words. Dixon-Krauss (2002) argues that even after students have been plainly subjected into rigorous vocabulary tests, they had problems incorporating the words into writing, and their papers suffered from incorrect usage and incoherent paragraphs. Students' meaningful transfer of ELV into their own speech and writing cannot be achieved by mere memorization of dictionary word meaning.

Mere mastery of word meaning without the contextual exposure in word usage results to mechanical learning of language with far reaching effects of deficiency in creative use of language. Francis and Simpson (2003) in their study of the methods enhancing students' vocabulary acquisition reported that even when students were able to respond correctly to multiple-choice questions about vocabulary words, they were not able to relate words to texts that they were reading or to write significant paragraphs if they were not sufficiently exposed to reading. These deficiencies can be overcome by use of methodologies that allow all students to learn and use strategies that will enable them to discover and deepen understanding of words during independent reading" (Brabham & Villaume, 2002). This Contextual Vocabulary Instruction (CVI) has been explored and implemented for betterment of vocabulary learning in ELT contexts.

Debate ranges as to the effectiveness of CVI as compared to DVI as far as imparting ELV to EFL learners is concerned. Dillard (2005) explored DVI and CVI in four secondary English classrooms with a mixture of students in grades 10 through 12 and found that students using the contextual method of instruction outperformed the ones using the definitional, word-list approach on three of the four tests given in the study. Reading is the most effective method of putting vocabulary into context because it offers knowledge on spelling of words in addition to exposure to new words. Students who read widely have expansive vocabulary (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004). Acquisition of skills in the use of ELV is the bedrock of language competence among EFL students and this is achievable through enhancement of independent reading.

Literature affords students in EFL contexts a challenge on the words slightly above their simplistic and conservative use of language. Khatib et al. (2011) notes that literature, which contains structures such as inversion is a major resource in ELT if maximally exploited. In addition, literature adds to student's mastery of grammatical concepts. Literary texts promote EFL students' knowledge of lexical phrases and fixed expressions (Frantzen 2002; Mackenzie, 2000), grammatical knowledge (Tayebipour, 2009) and language awareness (Carroli, 2008). Inclusion of literature in an EFL context challenges the students to explore ELV and its grammaticality in various usage situations. Without literature the students will remain in their limited simplistic and limited ELV cocoons and make ELL a very unattractive exercise.

2.2.8 The Role of Literature in Teaching Language Skills

Literature is a reliable resource for teaching the four language skills, namely reading, writing, listening and speaking in an EFL context. Literature raises students' language awareness, develops students' interpretative abilities, sparks curiosity, help

s students become more productive and creative, stimulates students' language acquisition, and helps students to be more actively involved intellectually and emotionally in learning English. Nevertheless, ELT teachers regard insufficient class time, large number of students and curriculum restriction as the biggest obstacles against using literature Khatib et al. (2011).

Quite in line with the principles of CLT (Van, 2009), literature is rich with innumerable authentic tokens of language for the development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills (Belcher & Hirvela, 2000, Crain, 1993, Erkaya, 2005, Fitzgerald, 1993, Knight, 1993, Latosi-Sawin, 1993, Nasr, 2001, Stern, 2001, Vandrick, 1996). The use of literature in teaching language skills has been engulfed in controversy with some players seeing little if any value of using it.

Negative views on the importance of Literature in an EFL classrooms have led to its lukewarm implementation. Liddicoat (2000) decries the loss of literature in EFL classrooms because some teachers believe that language and literature are learned separately and for different purposes. There have been claims that

students generally do not find the study of Literature as enjoyable or relevant to their linguistic needs as their instructors perceive it to be (Martin & Laurie, 1993, cited in Hall, 2003). Attempts to draw distinct line between language and literature has led to a lukewarm appreciation of linguistic skills which students can draw from the use of literature in their language classes. But the use of literature for ELT elevates the classroom linguistic practice from artificial controlled use of language to the standard language use examples with which students can greatly better their performance.

The use of Literature in ELT enables the teachers to not only cover the four language skills comprehensively but do so simultaneously. Carter and McRae (2001) notes that apart from literature enabling students to acquire basic knowledge in literature, it also introduces them into how literature works enabling their holistic growth in the four language skills. Noaman (2013) adds that apart from being a technique for teaching the basic language skills, literature exposes students to other language areas like vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Literature enhances ELT through the elements of language in use and aesthetic representation of the spoken language (Cruz, 2010) making the interaction with language such an exciting experience. Literature is there a potential instrument in the teaching of all the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. It is therefore important to have a brief discussion of how it aids the teaching of each one of them.

2.2.9 Literature and the Teaching of Reading

Literary texts are a good motivation for students reading habits as they contain interesting stories whose unfolding episodes and character development the students would very much love to follow to the very end. Researchers such as Day and Bamford (2008) and Hunter (2009) have identified a significant impact of reading on academic achievement. Reading is one of the most important skill taught to EFL learners (Krashen, 2004, Pikulski & Chard, 2005; Silva, 2009;) and hence the gateway to their academic success because it greatly affects their performance in the other subjects. Research has shown that students improve their reading through reading and the more the reading the learner is exposed to during his/her school life the greater the possibility of overcoming class problems related to motivation and interest in learning.

Research attributes much of classroom instructional difficulties to language of instruction especially in countries where FL is used for instruction. Acquisition of reading skills is important in all levels of education as it enables learners who are struggling with their academic and literary tasks to overcome their challenges (Ness, 2009) hence improving their academic performance. Learner competence and motivation in reading is strongly hinged on the degree to which they are exposed to reading activities. Research shows that students improve their reading by reading. Lee's study (2008) with children in Taiwan on sustained silent reading reveals that the longer students read, the better the reading results. In their research, Greenberg, Rodrigo, Berry, Brinck, and

Joseph (2006) found that the more learners read, the more confident they become. Though reading is not the only skill to be taught in the language classroom, it is definitely one of the most important for many EFL learners (Carell, Devine, and Eskey, 1998). Literary texts are effective tools in inculcating reading skills in learners because they contain interesting development of characters and story settings.

On reading a literary text, the learner begins to identify with the text and empathize with the characters. The learner begins to see and understand the world according to the author. Understanding the meanings of lexical items or phrases becomes less significant than pursuing the development of the story (Hismanoglu, 2005). Literature provides (as opposed to textbooks), opportunities for language use in a more relevant and communicative way (Sánchez, Pèrex, & Gómes, 2010). This turn of events compels learners to follow the story up to the end and in the process develop the skills of relating words and episodes as well as inference of the meaning of words. Students need to receive extensive input (by reading texts beyond the course textbooks) to develop their language proficiency (Guo, 2012). This provides a break and a refresher from monotonous reading of school textbooks.

Literature in an EFL context challenges the student to go beyond the common usage of simplified language in school and in the classroom.

Literary texts provide students with the opportunity to expand on the limits of the text by integrating readers' experiences and beliefs into meanings of the text (Ozkan & Tongur 2014). Literature as an extensive reading material provides substantial linguistic input (Bell, 1998), which is needed for language acquisition. But successful extensive reading requires reading in a large quantity and a wide variety of topics and genres (Maley, 2009). Greenberg, Rodrigo, Berry, Brinck, and Joseph (2006) found a correlation between extensive reading and reading ability among the adult learners. Students early and consistent exposure to literary materials raises their consciousness to general literature, thereby developing their interest, motivation and habits in reading, hence, placing themselves for greater achievement in academics.

2.2.10. Literature and the Teaching of Writing

Students writing ability is a highly prized achievement in learning of foreign language as it demonstrates that the student is at ease with language and can comfortably use it in communication. Suleiman (2000) also stresses that writing is an essential factor of language. Writing is the backbone of knowledge transfer in the society, an exercise by which ideas are passed from generation to generation because without good writing skills, Hand, Hoheshell and Prain (2007) note that no one benefits from the technical knowledge possessed by an individual. Alexander (2008) in his studies on how good writing leads to good testing found that knowledge may be power, but how one communicates his knowledge is the prerequisite for learning within society. Writing skills are the

primary tools for communicating knowledge, especially in educational settings (Hosseini, 2013). Apart from passing knowledge, strong writing skills may enhance students' chances for success (Alexander, 2008) especially in educational systems where FL is used as a language of instruction.

Any teaching of language must incorporate writing skills component which ought to be frantically emphasised in the classroom. Any reading and language curriculum must think about the multidimensional nature of writing in instructional practices, evaluation procedures, and language development (Hosseini, 2013). The way of writing, according to Tan (2010), says a lot about a person. Without the competency and practice of basic writing skills, neither proficient works of written art can be fictional nor can any lives be influenced (Currier, 2008). Considering the enormous power of words to influence and persuade others, Hosseini (2013) states that before a student graduates from high school, a proficient writing instruction should be established. Literature provides dependable authentic materials which Teachers of English Language (TOEL) can bank on to bring the desirable changes in the writing abilities of their students.

Reading of literary texts is an exciting exercise with an inspiration to the reader to embrace writing. Literature can be a rich and inspiring source for writing; both as a model and as a subject matter (Stern, 2001). Davidheiser (2007) points out that reading works of literature, such as novels and poems, is the reason

behind the wish of many individuals to become writers. Creativity characterises works of literature from setting to character development and this gives them an enduring presence in EFL classes. Bastrukmen and Lewis (2002) assert that the notion of success in learning English creative writing is associated with self-expressions, the flow of ideas, outsider expectations, growing confidence and enjoyment of academic writing. The potential of literature as an aid for writing is anchored on its interesting nature which compels students to read it widely and extract useful components which help them to improve their own writings.

Literature addresses students' writing inadequacy by presenting expertise usage of words and patterning ideas to bring out the intended creative picture. This serves as a great source students' writing inspiration (Frank, 1995). A literary text provides students with a much clearer idea about the syntactic structure of a written text and the extent to which written language differs from spoken language (Casey & Williams, 2001; Liaw, 2001; Vandrick, 2007) which enables them to criticize their own writings and make efforts to better them. By getting used to the formation and function of sentences, to the structure of a paragraph, a section or a chapter, students' writing skills improve and their speech skill can gain eloquence (Cruz 2010). Utilization of literary texts gives EFL students examples of authentic texts from which they can learn how to organize their own writings to bring about meaning of vocabulary and phrases used.

2.2.11 Literature and the Teaching of Speaking

Speaking is an invaluable skill which every teacher of language seeks to develop in learners as it demonstrates their competence in the language which they can exploit during-school and after-school life to solve their problems. Countries with EFL in their education systems highly value school leavers in speaking in English and it is given a high status as national and international language (Gudu, 2015). Governments have deployed immense resources in the teaching of English language in terms of teacher training and teaching materials but the results are still appalling. There is a global debate about majority of high school leavers who cannot speak English language properly (Alonzo, 2014; Sarwar, *et al.*, 2014; Alharbi, 2015). It has been established that even when majority of students attain high scores in written examinations, still they have a serious problem in expressing themselves orally in English language (Sarwar, *et al.*, 2014). Acquisition of excellence in speech more so with FL requires exposure to learning situations which are not only interesting but also developing confidence.

The use of literary texts to develop oral skills in a gainful practice because as the student gets exposed to interesting and grammatically organised materials in real life contexts, they gather confidence in the language and make efforts to practice. Van (2009) shows that literature is full of instances of real-life language in various situations by providing lots of opportunities for students to ameliorate syntactic, pragmatic, cultural, and discourse awareness among learners. The teaching of literature in EFL classes is essential and can be used

as a perfect instrument to stimulate and speed up the teaching and learning process (Carter & Long, 1991). As a resource for teaching English language, literature comprises of grammatical and creative language application situations which students can learn from and improve their language competence and consequently communicative skills especially in speaking.

Of the four language skills, speaking is a productive skill as it produces language orally with the purpose of conveying ideas to other people in a persuasive manner. This activity demands knowledge of the language rules as well as the social rules for implementing this knowledge to produce speech (Noaman, 2013). Literature casts language in a social context and exposes the possibilities of utilising language to not only convey message but do so in a creative way. Carter and McRae (2001) stresses the usefulness of literature in imparting language competence to learners by upholding that literature helps students to go beyond by acquisition of basic knowledge of the language, learning about the language and understanding how language it works. According to Custodio and Sutton (1998), implementation of literature in an EFL classroom gives students a native-like competence. This inspires their speech competence which translates to consistent practice of accurate speaking in all social situations vis a vis debates and constructive arguments.

Literature broadens students' possibilities in their usage of language giving them a room to question, interpret, connect and explore language use an

opportunity which greatly contributes to students' adoption of speech skills. Contrary to the study of transactional use of language in textbooks which advocates for conformity, the study of literature can facilitate the development of critical thinking (Ghosn, 2002; Lazar, 1993; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000). The students are as result able to develop originality and pleasant usage of language in speech. Allowing students to gain access to literary materials enable them to internalize the language at a higher level (Elliot, 1990) challenging them to make own corrections and criticism of their own speech in line with demands of expertise competence. Inan (2009) claims that students will benefit from the communicative value of literary works since they will be exposed to some authentic materials. This is where literature comes in to expose students to speech language manipulation techniques away from artificial and controlled use of transactional language in the classroom.

2.2.12. Literature and the Teaching of Listening

Listening is an indispensable background for any effective speaking meaning that good speakers must first be good listeners and this makes listening a very important skill in the learning of language. Listening is one of the four skills in which a language is taught and of the two language skills which are employed when communicating orally (Andrade, 2006), and therefore a very important skill in an EFL context. Stepanovienė (2012) rates listening as one of the most key scopes of communication skills in language progress. It supplies the learner with the required input and learners can't acquire anything without the

comprehension of the specific input (Hamouda, 2013) Despite its importance in language classrooms, EFL listening skill has been ignored for a long time in lieu of the theory that listening is learnt automatically (Huei-Chun, 1998). Just like other language skills, listening ought to be determinedly taught and students guided on how to acquire the skills which can lead them to be good listeners.

Unlike speaking, listening is an internal oral language learning skill which to a great extent involves the individual efforts of the learner. According to Tyagi (2013) listening takes place in five stages of hearing, understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding. Hearing is the perception of sound waves; you must initially hear to listen, but you don't need to listen in order to hear, understanding means the comprehension of symbols we have seen and heard, we must examine the meaning of the stimuli we have perceived, remembering means that a person has not only received and clarified a message but has also added it to the brain's stockpile, evaluating necessitates the active listener to weigh evidence or sort fact from opinion, and specify the presence or absence of bias in a message, responding requires that the receiver completes the process by means of verbal or nonverbal feedback (Tyagi 2013).

Considering that literally materials can actually be transmitted in oral medium through oral reading in the classroom or using audio media like CDs, it can be concluded that literature is reliable tool in the teaching of listening skills. Ulum (2015) sustains that when we listen we do not only deal with what we listen to

or hear but also combine it with other information which we are already familiar with. Prior familiarity with information creates room for connecting ideas and contextualization of material presented which greatly aids our understanding.

The status of our minds in terms of exposure to information especially that which is presented in an interesting form like literature aids our learning of new ideas. Helgesen (2003), argues that we create meaning by integrating what we hear or experience with the data in our minds. Al-Thiyabi (2014) identifies unfamiliarity with words which mostly lead to mispronunciation as one of the problems associated with language learning and adds that such problems are severe and ought to be overcome to enhance learner's listening competency level. Ghaderpanahi (2012) argues that of the four language skills listening is the hardest to acquire. Nowrouzi, Tam, Zareian and Nimehchisalem, (2015) claim that the narrow chances of practice make listening a problematic language skill to teach.

To overcome the challenges associated with teaching listening, employment of literary texts comes in handy by providing authentic and interesting content to listen to. By listening to literary materials EFL students' understanding of the FL language is given a boost because complex linguistic concepts like vocabulary are made familiar. The study of literature is a potential source for language development (Hall, 2005) and can facilitate the development of language proficiency (Lazar, 1993) by creating a fresh and impressive atmosphere (Thom

2008) under which the learning of language takes place. Zyngier (1994) states that Literary texts are intellectually stimulating. The authenticity of literature provides authentic input for language learning (Ghosen 2002; Shrestha 2008; cited in Khatib, Ranjbar and Fathi 2012). It is crucial that EFL instructors boost learners' employment of strategies like individual knowledge and mental translation (Al-Alwan, Asassfeh and Al-Shboul, 2013) by exposing them to stimulating and interesting literary materials.

2.3 Introduction of Literature in Primary Teacher Education English Curriculum in Kenya

In Kenya, English is used as a language of official communication and a medium of instruction for all school subjects except Kiswahili. From Standard Four in primary school (Nabea, 2009), to tertiary level of education, the medium of instruction is English language. But students experience difficulties in developing adequate English proficiency to successfully learn academic content through that medium (Calderón, 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Sure & Ogechi, 2009). Research has found that most Kenyan students are not sufficiently proficient in English at the end of Standard Three to effectively learn content in English in Standard Four (Bunyi, 2008; Gathumbi, 2008).

Cummins (2003) has identified three dimensions of language proficiency which second language learners develop concurrently at various stages of the continuum: discrete language skills, academic language proficiency and

conversational fluency. Discrete language skills include the alphabetic principles (Blachman, Ball, Black, & Tangel, 2000), language conventions, and syntax, with vocabulary development as an essential part of each of these dimensions. Academic language comprises complex linguistic forms at increasingly demanding conceptual levels. Students can have different proficiency levels in each of the four domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Roy-Campbell & Zaline, 2014). Their conversational fluency may be stronger than their reading skills or the reverse. Proficiency is related to the amount of practice one receives in specific domains, and can be impacted by instruction (Elly & Mangubhai, 1983; Fielding & Pearson, 1994). There is a strong correlation between reading proficiency and the amount of reading a student does (Krashen, 2003; Postlewaite & Ross, 1992), as through extensive reading students develop strategies for constructing meaning from texts they have not previously encountered (Cummins, 2003).

Students' underperformance in English in Kenya especially in primary school has been a major area of concern among the various players because it does not only affect English as a subject but also other subjects using it as a language of instruction. To promote primary school pupils' proficiency in English language, the GoK endeavored to improve PTE English curriculum by incorporating Literature in 2006 (KICD, 2006). In this new development, teacher trainers were expected to use integrated approach in teaching the two subjects. Integration means merging two autonomous but related entities in order to strengthen and

enrich both. Through exposure to Literature the learner will improve their language skills. They will not only enrich their vocabulary but also learn to use language in a variety of ways.

Similarly, an improved knowledge of the language will enhance the learner's appreciation of literary material. On yet another scale, integration means that no language skill should be taught in isolation. Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills should complement each other. It has been established that teaching language structures in isolation is not only boring, but it also tends to produce learners who lack communicative competence (KICD, 2002). The Integrated approach has similarities with what Richards and Rodgers (2001) call the Whole Language Approach. All the skills of language: writing, reading, listening and speaking should be integrated in learning and teaching.

2.4 Teacher's Influence on Students' Acquisition of Proficiency in English Language

Students' acquisition of proficiency in English language largely depends on the teacher on whose responsibility is vested to determine the learning activities in the classroom, time allocation per learning concept, the learning pace and class motivational strategies. It is incumbent upon any teacher to set the learning mood and atmosphere in his or her classroom with a view to maximising on the time allocated and utilization of available learning resources. This is more so important in the teaching of English language which require construction of

language use examples from one learning step to another in an effort to evaluate various possibilities of using the linguistic concept. The English teacher is in this case a central figure in the language course (Mosha 2014). Literature indicates clearly that it is the teacher who sets the tone for learning activities (Allen & Valette, 1997; Quist, 2000).

Teacher's knowledge of English language and mastery of learning strategies comes in handy in the teaching of English language. Successful teaching and quality of pupil learning is closely related to the teacher's knowledge and understanding of the subject (Quist, 2000). A teacher of English must have maximum communicative competence and be knowledgeable in the language itself so that he or she can make useful decisions regarding what should be taught to whom, and how the teaching should be done (Mosha 2014). Researches demonstrate clearly that among the factors that lead to students' poor performance are qualities of teachers (Harmer, 2003; Mosha, 2004). Moreover, empirical studies showed that if early years at the school fail to provide the right foundation for learning, then no amount of special provision at later stages will be able to achieve the full potential of the child in terms of how his learning will proceed, and how beneficial his attitudes are towards his future life and learning (Quist, 2000).

A case study of Singapore secondary schools by Chi-Min and Li-Yi (2010) on the factors affecting English language teachers' classroom assessment practices was conclusive about the influential role of teachers of English on students' acquisition of proficiency in English language. However, the study which involved secondary school English Language teachers with diverse backgrounds including educational context, professional coursework or training, classroom practice including practice teaching, and schooling history found that the educational context was the most influential factor while the schooling history was the least influential factor.

In his studies based in Zanzibar rural and urban 'O' level secondary schools, Mosha (2014) involved teachers in the study to investigate the way they applied knowledge and skills in the classroom whereby emphasis was put on competence in the handling of the subject matter, methods of teaching, and use of teaching and learning materials. The study found that the presence of under qualified, untrained and incompetent teachers in the rural schools to a high extent played part in the students' poor performance in the subject. The findings of the study correlate with Harmer (2003) proposition that academic qualification of the teacher is very important in determining students' performance. But teachers PRE-SET qualifications must be augmented with quality, relevant and frequent IN-SETs for Continuing Teacher Professional Development (CTPD) to cope with the upcoming challenges in the teaching of English language (Mosha, 2014; Gaston (2006).

The findings of Ombati, Omari, Ogendero, Ondima and Otieno (2013) based in Nyamira County, on the factors influencing the performance of Kenyan Secondary School Students in English Grammar confirm the teacher's key role in the students' performance in grammar. This underlines the need for good training of teachers of English to enable them to work as professionals in the implementation of curriculum. With the involvement of head teachers, deputies and teachers of English, the majority of the respondents decried the dearth of IN-SETs on the teachers of English which had negative implications in their teaching of English grammar.

2.5 Teacher Training and Curriculum Implementation

Teachers play a critical role in curriculum implementation as they are the direct intermediaries between curriculum developers and the students, determining the pace, style and bits in which subject content will hit the classroom. They are also the key determinants of the teaching quality (McDermott & Rotheberg, 2000) hence, meaningful investment to better school outcomes should consider sufficient investment in teacher training. According to Rice (2003) training empower teachers to bridge the gap between the learner's world and the curriculum making the latter relevant and reliable in solving the problems faced by the learner. Bennaars, Otiende and Boisvert (1994) observe that untrained, poorly trained, discontented and frustrated teachers cannot bring about the anticipated economic, cultural and moral change spelt out in the aims and goals

of education. This is because achievement of educational goals requires teacher confidence and which is only founded and buttressed by training and retraining.

Highly skilled teachers are one of the single most important influences on student success. Class size and other salient variables do not impact students' learning trajectories as much as the quality of their teachers. In addition, teacher factors influence students' behaviour and academic performance throughout the important portion of their school life (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Teachers are the main drivers in the students' process of cultivating habits of mind and knowledge schemes that are prerequisites to success, meaningful contributions and prosperity in an open, technological world (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Teacher competence as measured by skills, knowledge and qualifications plays a decisive role in students' progress (Hanushek, 2003; Barber & Mourshed 2007; Varga,2007). Renewal of teachers' repertoire through continued well-planned, up to date quality courses is one of educational interventions with direct benefits to the learners.

Teacher quality is the backbone of any education because well prepared teachers do not merely implement the prescribed curriculum, rather they search for the accurate interpretations, make additions more so with consultation of colleagues and demystify curriculum by operationalizing it in their classrooms. Based on an analysis of teacher training policies in 25 countries, the OECD (2005) reports that teacher quality is the most important factor in an education system and the

second most important factor only rivaled by family background among the variety of influences affecting teacher implementation of curriculum and consequently student achievement. Education in any given society is as good as its teachers because the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). Teacher training fits individuals in the teaching profession and establishes them as givers of knowledge. For a teacher to fulfil his or her professional obligation in the implementation of curriculum, a synthesis of knowledge, attitudes and practical skills is needed (Falus, 2002). Apart from enabling teachers to specialize in their teaching subjects, teacher training makes the whole difference between teachers and other people in the society and this sets them apart to handle the increasing and ever modified society's intellectual demands.

Teacher professionalism is requisite especially in the introduction of a new program. Miller and Seller (1990) note that introduction of a new program is very complex and can only be made operational by the expertise of well-trained teachers. Momanyi (2008) asserts that effectiveness and efficiency in teaching and learning are determined by teacher's academic and professional characteristics as well as his or her experience as a teacher. Teaching is a challenging career as effective teaching comprises of creativity, discovery, challenges and conducive environment as set by the teachers (Brown, 2011), hence the need for quality and continuous training of teachers.

In Japan, much of development on teacher professionalism is done through Research Lessons (Darling-Hammond, Wei & Andree 2010). Every teacher periodically prepares a best possible lesson that demonstrates strategies to achieve a specific goal (for example, students becoming active problem-solvers or students learning more from each other) in collaboration with other colleagues. A group of teachers observe while the lesson is taught and usually record the lesson in a number of ways, including videotapes, audiotapes, and narrative and/or checklist observations that focus on areas of interest to the instructing teacher (for example, how many students volunteered their own ideas). Afterwards, the group of teachers, and sometimes outside educators, discuss the lesson's strengths and weakness, ask questions, and make suggestions to improve the lesson (Darling-Hammond, Wei & Andree 2010).

Introduction of new national school curriculum known as Curriculum 2005 (C2005) in South Africa by democratically elected Africa National Congress government after 1994 democratic elections was seriously hampered by teachers who were either unqualified or under-qualified (Breier, Gardiner & Ralphs 2008; Coleman, Graham-Jolly & Middlewood, 2003;). To deal with this problem, the authors recommended interdependent and interrelated systems to address the professional development needs and performance of teachers. Such systems included, establishment of learning area committees and departmental committees as well as workshops on the utilization of material resources,

development of assessment plans, and so forth (Coleman *et al.*, 2003; Earley & Bubb (2004).

In Kenya, the need for continuing teacher training and development was recognized as a major need at independence in 1963 when the Government of Kenya (GoK) inherited over 8,000 untrained primary school teachers from colonial administration (Lovegrove, 1968). Government pronouncements in policy documents have continued to underline the importance of Continued Professional Development (CPD) for trained teachers. However, the key players in Kenyan education system agree that little has been achieved in continuing teacher training and development. For example, the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) assessment is that, “there is an amorphous design of in-service teacher training” (Bunyi, 2003 p. 91). The MOE seems to concur.

The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 acknowledges the fact that there has been little In-Service Education and Training (INSET) for teachers with the result that few teachers have had opportunities to participate in such programs. Indeed, most of the INSET programs which go on in the country are mostly provided by a variety of local and international NGOs, book publishers and other stakeholders with no meaningful participation of MoEST. In the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 (RoK, 2005) emphasises the need for a dynamic, responsive and well-coordinated system of in-service training as a pre-requisite for the success of the Free Primary Education (FPE) initiative and the achievement of

Education for All (EFA) goals. The main stream system of policy makers must play a key role in training program of teacher because unlike temporary partners they are in a privileged position to make follow up trips, manage program sustaining resources and ensure consistency.

Teacher training broadens teachers' horizons through exposure to new ideas in subject matter and styles of teaching consequently equipping them to create a conducive classroom with numerous opportunities of learning. According to Brown (2011), effective teaching comprises of creativity, discovery, challenges and conducive environment as set by the teachers. These activities engage and motivate students to learn unlike the educational system that traditionally focused on rote learning, where students rarely asked questions or were not encouraged to think creatively (Awuor & Chemutai 2015). The nature of the contemporary society, which is characterized by wide access to information, demands an interactive learning environment where learners are free to question, add, challenge and argue about the topic under discussion. Teachers must be in the fore line to cultivate this atmosphere.

Teachers unarguably determine the students' learning behavior and interaction within the school environment (Lupascu, Panisoara & Panisoara, 2014) directly affecting their academic performance. In addition, teachers' attitudes, behaviors and beliefs strongly influence students' cognitive acquisitions (Palardy, & Rumberger, 2008). Wolk (2001) highlights this by emphasizing that, teachers

who are passionate about learning create an infectious classroom environment. Teacher training influences the passion possessed by teachers in their professional duty of curriculum implementation and determines the extent to which their knowledge, skills and attitudes trickle down to the classroom and benefit the learners. In quest for better educational practices, it is apparent that much can be achieved through quality and sustained training of teachers.

The persistent question in the minds of all those involved in the curriculum processes is the quality of teaching because it is the ultimate determinant of the success of the whole project. Quality teaching is a must in shaping the student's achievement and encouraging public confidence in schools (Darling – Hammond, 1999). According to Van't Hooft (2005), quality teaching encompasses prior knowledge activation, hands-on learning and continuous reflection. Darling-Hammond (2000) emphasized on the characteristics of the teacher in teaching effectiveness. In a study carried out by the National Commission on Teaching and American's Future on the relationship between teachers' qualification and other school variables such as class size on the achievement of students, Darling - Hammond reports that students who were assigned to several ineffective teachers in a class had significantly lower achievement and gains than those who were assigned to several highly effective teachers.

In her study based at three primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa on the implementation of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), Nkosi (2011) found that lack of quality training impeded teachers' implementation of CAPS, a serious setback to the country's quest to improve education after the return of democracy in 1994. The study interviewed qualified graduate teachers with at least ten years' experience in the implementation of CAPS on the challenges they faced. The participants gave insufficient training of teachers together with overcrowded classrooms and lack of sufficient and quality teaching materials as militating factors against CAPS implementation.

The study by Awuor and Chemutai (2015) carried out in Eldoret East Sub-County, Kenya sought to establish the role of teacher training in the implementation of Life Skills curriculum in secondary schools. The comments of Heads of Department (HoDs), teachers and Form Four students were sought on the implementation of Life Skills curriculum. The study found that teachers who were not in-serviced or who were inadequately in-serviced encountered serious impediments in the mastery of the content, deployment of teaching methodologies and selection of teaching resources in the implementation of Life Skills curriculum despite possessing pre-service qualifications

Teacher quality is so important in determining the quality of teaching that schools scramble for quality teachers while others itch to handover the less quality ones. Studies have consistently shown that teacher quality whether

measured by content, experience, training and credentials or general intellectual skills are strongly related to students' achievement (Darling - Hammond, 2000; Anderson, 1991) which is an outcome of curriculum implementation. Researchers and analysts argue that assigning experienced and qualified teachers to low performing schools and students is likely to pay off in better performance points (Adegbile & Adeyemi, 2008). Improvement of teacher quality is a sure way of improving performance of school children as it adds to teacher's knowledge repertoire positioning him/her as a master of the subject matter and the teaching strategies which he/she exploits in turn to better students' learning.

According to Adediwura and Bada (2007), in their study conducted at Ile Ife, Nigeria, nobody can teach what he or she does not know and understand. The study concludes that teachers must thoroughly understand the content of what they teach for them to harbour sufficient propensity for curriculum implementation. In line with this finding, it is manifest that curriculum implementation is more determined by teacher's level of knowledge of what to teach and how to teach than other supportive factors like salary, workload, availability of teaching resources and motivation from school administrators. Teacher mastery of the content and methods of teaching transcends a number learning determining factors because the teacher becomes an independent, self-driven professional who can teach at anytime, anywhere. Training dissolves teacher's passivity as an anticipator of outcomes and replaces it with vigour to

play a proactive role in influencing the results of learning. Teachers' knowledge in their areas of specialization (Kimberly, 2009), is a pillar for their satisfactory performance in the classroom.

Over the years, the question of the relationship between teacher competence and student's learning has disturbed the minds of numerous scholars. The report of the National Commission on Mathematics and Science Teaching for the 21st century (NCMST, 2000) shows that quality teaching helps students attain a deep conceptual understanding. Student achievement is considered an accurate measure of teacher effectiveness and has become a basis for value-added teacher assessment systems (Braun, 2005). Effective teachers are those who bring about student learning through effective implementation of curriculum (Zuzorsky, 2003). Stronge and Tucker (Holland, 2003) pointed out that students with three straight years of an effective teacher had 60 per cent greater achievement than those unfortunate enough to have a succession of ineffective teachers. Competent teachers (those adequately armed with subject matter masterly and contextualized methods of teaching) have greater possibility of positively influencing students' learning.

Schools and governments have been in the race to better education in order to achieve the set out goals of national development. A growing body of research suggests that schools can make a difference and a substantial portion of that difference is attributable to teachers (Darling – Hammond, 2000). Focus on the

professional attributes possessed by teachers, evaluation of what they do in the classrooms against certain contexts and reorganization of teaching which incorporate retraining of teachers can go a long way in positively influencing the school production of knowledgeable learners (Aina, Olanipekun & Galuba, 2015). Differential teacher effectiveness is a strong determinant of differences in students' learning far outweighing the effects of differences in class size and heterogeneity.

Teachers must prepare to teach a wide range of students in terms of interest, motivation and ability some of whom may need additional assistance. Quality teachers assess needs, abilities and preparedness on class by class basis and respond to them accordingly. Successful teaching is evaluated against learner achievement of some levels of proficiency (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005) which is achievable only through teacher betterment of their teaching styles (Wong, 2009). Although high achieving teachers are characterized by adequate possession of the knowledge and the skills needed in teaching their ability to use this knowledge and skills in a contextualized learning environment so that students learn is a necessity (Anderson, 2004) and can only be guaranteed with continuous training.

The learning outcomes of students to a large extent reflects the effectiveness of the teacher in curriculum implementation. Little, Goe and Bell (2009) assert that teacher quality influences their effectiveness and stakeholders can bank on enhancing teacher quality in their quest to improve students' performance.

Although variance in student's performance can be explained at both school and classroom level, much of this variance is about classroom level and most specifically what teachers do in the classroom (Muijs & Reynolds, 2000). Improvement of instructional practices of teachers can pay dividends in the efforts to better education than any other single intervention. Teacher quality also borders on the teachers' passion in teaching which is driven by genuine care of the students they teach (Tucker & Stronge, 2005). Beneficial initiative professional conduct among teachers in the classroom emanate more from belief in themselves and love for what they teach as opposed to pressure to cover what they should teach.

Teaching is about guiding the learner academic discovery, a role which can only be carried out if teachers have all the required knowledge and will towards the cause. Effective teachers are able to envision instructional goals for their students, then draw upon their knowledge and training to help students achieve success (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Effective teachers understand and are able to apply strategies to enable students to increase achievement. The repertoire of effective teachers consists of deep understanding of the subject matter, learning theory and student achievement; lesson planning and preparation; classroom instructional strategies; knowing individual students; assessment of students' understanding; proficiency with learning outcomes and teacher's ability to collaborate with colleagues (Wong, 2009; Tucker & Stronge 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Aitken, n.d.; Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain 2005; Darling-

Hammond, 2010; Barry, 2010.). Teachers who demonstrate these features have greater tendency to maximize instructional time for the benefit of learners.

Teacher characteristics are so essential that learner achievements can be anticipated from the professional behavior demonstrated by their teachers. Anderson (2009) claims that the effectiveness of the teacher is as a result of three components: ability, personality and knowledge. Burden and Bird (Hunt, Wiseman & Touzel, 2009) claim that the most essential teacher characteristics may be placed into three organizing categories of knowledge, skills and dispositions. An effective teacher is the one who does things right. He/ she plans the lesson, prepares learning environment, conducts proper lesson introductions, asks questions and uses instructional media materials. Teacher's ability is seen from his/her mastery and knowledge of the subject matter, and teaching techniques. Teachers must thoroughly understand the content of what they teach. The way the students perceive the teaching in terms of their (teachers) knowledge of content of subject matter may significantly affect the students' academic performance. Effective teaching requires teachers with deep knowledge of the subject and understanding of how people learn and the ability to use principles of learning and teaching to stimulate student's learning and achievement.

Effective teaching elicits the pre-existing understandings of the subject matter. Only then can teachers address misconceptions. This process takes work

expertise and knowledge of the teaching learning process. Teachers should have the knowledge and the skill required to achieve the goals (self – goals or school – goals) and be able to use that knowledge and skills appropriately if the goals are to be achieved (Anderson, 2004). It has been established that most teachers go into teaching without knowing what to teach. The ability to teach effectively depends on the teachers' knowledge of the subject matter (Fakeye,2012). Effective teachers are the ones who are intellectually challenging, motivating students, setting high standards and encouraging self-initiating learning (Darling – Hammond, 2010). The level of inquiry behavior exhibited by learners reflects teacher's explorative behavior because the students take cues from the teacher and this makes all the difference when comparisons against classes taught by different teachers are made.

While content knowledge is important and necessary, it alone cannot determine whether the teacher is able to teach so that students learn. There is a critical need for teaching knowledge that is specific to the content being taught, as well as general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of child and development as applied to teaching (Goldhaber,2006). It is therefore crucial that both existing and under-preparation teachers continually learn and practice the skills and strategies of teaching with the aim of achieving higher learning outcomes from the students. This means that teacher education especially those programs that aim to better teacher instructional practices ought to be a well-aimed continuing practice for all teachers because knowledge and generations of students are

dynamic and the way the same content was taught the previous years may prove futile for today's generation of students.

It is to be noted that pedagogical knowledge is not exactly the same thing as knowledge of the subject matter. They are nevertheless intimately linked because teachers' mastery and use of both in the classroom will indicate the depth of their knowledge of teaching. Hammond, Bransford and Lepage (2005) posit that effective teachers are able to figure out not only what they want to teach, but also how to do so, so that students can understand how to use the new information and skills. Effective teachers do not only use specific methods and techniques, but also implement a variety of strategies and skills to accommodate the unique needs and learning styles for each individual student in the classroom. Teachers have a duty to envision instructional goals for their students, then draw upon their knowledge and training to help students achieve success (Tucker & Stronge, 2005). Teachers use of various strategies in the classroom must be driven by the learning abilities of learners for them to aid learning and consequently improvement of students' performance.

Borich (2000) asserts that all other things being equal, teachers trained in particular skills performs better. However, Wayne and Young (2003) note that the success of a teacher in classroom teaching ought to be evidenced, not only by professional records but also by student acquisition of skills as set out in the subject syllabus. Levine (2000) observed that both the teachers' teaching

experience and professional qualification are positively correlated to student achievement. Borich (2000) further argues that years of teaching, affords a teacher a deeper understanding of the subject matter through broad exposure and further reading hence becoming more qualitative in teaching.

The maxim that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers clearly demonstrates the role of the teacher to the national development and consequently, the importance of teacher education programmes in national organisation and reorganisation of education (Adeosun, oni & oladipo (2009). Teacher education is that component of any educational system charged with the education and training of teachers to acquire the competences and skills of teaching for the improvement in the quality of teachers for the school system (Afe 1995). The goal of teacher education is to provide teacher trainees with both intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and to make them adaptable to any changing situation, not only in the life of their country but in the wider world. Teachers can only be effective in teaching and improve students' achievement if they themselves have strong academic skills (Hanushek, 1996), appropriate formal training in the field in which they teach (Ingersoll 1999), and a number of years of teaching experience (Murnane & Phillips 1981).

2.5.1 Methods of Teacher Training

There are two ways of training teachers namely, preservice and in-service. Whereas preservice teacher training refers to all the initial training a student teacher receives before commencing a teaching career, in-service training is an ongoing endeavor throughout teacher's professional life. Teacher training begins with pre-service training involving teachers' enrolment to a teacher training program before they begin teaching as a career. Pre-service training exposes the student teacher to principles and theories of teaching as well as expansive content of the subject of specialization. Once a teacher begins a teaching career, new orientations on curriculum requirements are necessary because the knowledge he or she is giving is on constant modification and cohorts of students being taught vary. Knowledge and skills acquired by the teacher during pre-service training cannot suffice throughout the teachers' teaching life.

Pre-service teacher education and training

Pre-Service Teacher Education (PSTE) programs are the first forms of professional study programs that individuals complete to enter the teaching profession. These programs typically consist of a blend of theoretical knowledge about teaching and a field based practice experience. The quality of training provided through PSTE programs affects teachers' practice, effectiveness, and career commitment (Eren & Tezel, 2010; Liang, Ebenezer, & Yost, 2010; Roness, 2010). Pre-Service programs are also regarded as

foundational building blocks for career-long professional development (Darling-Hammond, 1996). A strictly pragmatic perspective on teaching concerns itself with the actions and activities carried out by teachers as they do their work in the classroom (Freeman 1998). But teacher educator beliefs and thinking processes generally underlie how they influence learning in the classroom. In mitigation, provision of teacher education should involve a process of intensive exploration and discovery on the side of the teacher educator (Richards & Lockhart 1994, Freeman 1998, Gebhard & Oprandy 1999).

In a curriculum implementation context, all professional development should ultimately lead to improved teaching and learning (Bailey, Curtis & Nunan 2001). The OECD (2009) survey found that teachers do not naturally feel fully prepared to cope with the challenges of in the classroom. This means that instructional challenges can lead to teacher apathy on classroom activities or worse, teacher attrition. Implementation of integrated literature requires teacher confidence in in knowledge of the subject matter and strategies to be deployed so that teaching becomes an interesting activity resultantly lead learners to maximise on learning sessions. Pre-service teacher training is actually a catalyst of teacher retention in the teaching career. A positive correlation exists between teacher level and quality of pre-service training and the length of stay in the teaching career. In South Korea, for example, the attrition rate can be as high as 50 per cent among ESL/EFL teachers after working for just one year (Kang

2008); when compared to turnover for general education in the United States, which can reach 15 to 20 per cent per year. A commonly held view is that teachers often leave the field for lack of support and professional development opportunities, while published studies seem to indicate that effective mentoring alone can do much to stem turnover rates among beginning teachers (National Centre for Education Statistics 2011).

The contemporary question in teacher education is the challenge of shaping teacher initial training programs so that they cope with demands of the modern society. This is an important point because the direct beneficiary of curriculum implementation is the society. Since the society is in constant change learning content and the strategies of its implementation must be under continued revision which should be instilled to teachers from their initial training. Bransford et al. (2005) base their consideration of how best to prepare teachers for a changing world on four kinds of research evidence: basic research on learning, development, language acquisition and social contexts; research on how learning conditions and teaching practices influence learning; research on how teacher learning affects teaching practices and student outcomes; research on how teachers learn successful practices. They stress the importance of creating a 'cognitive map' of teaching that teacher educators must have to enable them to structure content and explain the 'big picture' to prospective teachers.

Brownell et al. (2005) identified the following characteristics in general teacher education programmes judged as highly effective. These are: (a) connections between carefully planned coursework and field work so that students connect what they learn with classroom practice; (b) the use of varied strategies by teacher educators to hold themselves accountable for pre-service teacher learning; (c) coursework and field work that emphasise the needs of a diverse student population; (d) teacher education that occurs within a collaborative professional community, that includes pre-service teachers, in-service teachers and teacher educators; (e) a heavy emphasis on subject matter pedagogy that facilitates the development of content specific pedagogy; (f) a clear vision of high quality teaching that is pervasive throughout the programme, and (g) use of active pedagogy (as contrasted with lecture) by teacher educators to promote student reflection that is likely to lead to conceptual change by pre-service teachers.

Partly because of increasing demand for teacher initial education, rogue providers of PSTE have really compromised its quality. Nuova (2009) observes that of late, teacher training is too far removed from the professional routines and cultures of teaching and suggests five proposals to influence teacher training programmes. These include a practical component that focuses on pupil learning and study of specific cases, training inside the profession to acquire professional culture and experience, attention to communication and relationships, teamwork and collective practice. Ferreira and Graça (2006) recommend that, to take full

account of the diversity of the current school population, the following aspects should be included in teacher education: learning difficulties and disabilities; emotional and behavioural problems; communication techniques and technologies; symbolic representation, signification and multiculturalism; different curricula; teaching methods and techniques and educational relationships.

Culture of a people influences their responsiveness to educational programmes on offer and therefore its consideration in the organisation of teacher education programmes can be of great benefit. To ensure culturally responsive teaching, Gay and Kirkland (2003) say that teacher education must include critical cultural self-reflection that takes place in a context of guided practice in realistic situations and with authentic examples. Baglieri (2007) proposed the incorporation of Disability Studies in teacher education to address societal diversity. Gregory and Williams (2000) highlight the need for a positive model of bilingualism in teacher education, with trainee teachers recognising bilingualism as a strength in learners.

It is clear then that teachers need to have not only theoretical and practical knowledge but also the capacity to bring about optimal levels of learning for all students. Forlin (2008) points out that teachers also need a detailed understanding of their role as teachers, requiring a 'self-critical perspective that involves constant involvement in a process of reflection and introspection'.

Effective inclusive teaching also requires a high level of ethics and morals, an understanding that the teacher's role is not only to inform and facilitate learning but also to act as a role model for guiding the development of their students and a commitment to enable inclusion to happen. Barrett and Green (2009), identify two mechanisms for helping teacher candidates become more accomplished practitioners – namely reflective practice and teachers as researchers and this finding is also supported by Rodrigues (2009). Larrivee (2000) highlights the importance of reflection, believing that when teachers become reflective practitioners, they 'move beyond a knowledge base of discrete skills to a stage where they integrate and modify skills to fit specific contexts, and, eventually, to a point where the skills are internalized enabling them to invent new strategies.

Application of knowledge and skills learnt in PSTE programs is critical and goes a long way in preparing teachers for real life situations in the classrooms in which they expect to work on becoming teachers. Effective teacher education programs need to ensure that pre-service teachers have sufficient time to apply what they have learned (Darling-Hammond, 2006) (b). Applying their knowledge and skills in a real life context enables pre-service teachers to have authentic experiences that facilitate deep learning (Kolb, 1984). Student teachers who participate in a practicum are better able to understand theory, apply concepts they are learning in their coursework, and support student learning (Koerner, Rust, & Baumgartner, 2002). Two common forms of

practicum are microteaching and school-based teaching (Zeichner & Conklin, 2008). Microteaching is a term used to describe a form of practicum whereby a pre-service teacher teaches a lesson or part of a lesson to fellow pre-service teachers. This usually occurs at the pre-service institution rather than in a school classroom with children.

In contrast, a school-based teaching practicum usually involves a pre-service teacher being assigned to a school for a period of time. The pre-service teacher works in collaboration with the regular classroom teacher, who acts as a mentor. Many researchers have emphasised the importance of developing skills in collaboration and negotiation (for example Snell and Jenney, 2000; Carroll et al., 2003, Griffin et al., 2006; Hajkova, 2007). Smith and Leonard (2005) stress the importance of collaborative skills and the ability to solve problems to enable teachers to meet students' support needs which may change regularly. Kosnik and Beck (2009) outline seven key elements of pre-service preparation for teachers which includes: programme planning, assessment, classroom organisation and community; inclusive education; subject content and pedagogy; professional identity and vision for teaching.

The quality of teaching and learning taking place in the classroom therefore depends on and reflects the quality of PSTE programs the teacher was exposed to before beginning service. However, despite its importance, the state of PSTE in developing countries is widely noted for not effectively responding to the

massive challenge of providing quality initial teacher preparation to pre-service teachers (Akyeampong, 2006; Kanu, 2005, 2007; Schwille, Dembélé, Schubert, & Planning, 2007). Because student achievement depends significantly on the quality of teachers, which in turn depends on the quality of PSTE programs, developing and preserving high-quality of PSTE programs can go a long way in the success of development activities that aim to improve the quality of teaching and learning for all children (Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Sanders & Rivers, 1996;). The findings of educational research vis a vis classroom experiences on the patterns of teaching and learner achievement can reliably inform the designing and review of pre-service teacher education

In-service teacher education and training

In-service Education and Training (INSET) for teachers refers to all the education and training that a teacher is provided with while practising as a teacher in order to expand his/her knowledge of the subject matter, acquaint him/her with more effective teaching methodologies and consequently improve his/her performance in teaching. In-service training is important because the short years of (PSTE) are not sufficient to equip the teacher with all the necessary knowledge throughout his/her career. Learning to teach is an unending process spread over one's entire teaching career through Continuing Professional Development (CPD) courses organised to address the professional challenges faced by the teacher in the classroom. Continuing Professional

Development refers to teacher participation in INSET programs or professional opportunities to update and upgrade knowledge, skills, and qualifications (du Plessis & Muzaffar, 2010).

Teachers' constant requirement that they update and expand their knowledge (Goddard & Leask, 1992) emanates from the fact that almost all aspects in the society such as generation, technology and economy are on a changing trek. Education, the main commodity expected to address these problems must be provided in recognition and appreciation of these changes. For learners to become better learners, the nature of the teaching process demands that teachers must continue to be learners throughout their careers, otherwise they will cease to be effective (Goddard & Leask, 1992). In her evaluation of the implementation of Human Immune Deficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune- Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) syllabus in Kenyan primary teacher training colleges, Kiringa (2015) found that teacher trainers who attended in-service training changed their attitude towards the implementation of HIV and AIDS syllabus.

Over their years of practice, practicing teachers do find themselves stuck in the quagmire of aligning their initial training with everyday innovations and demands in the curriculum. This eminent disconnect can ultimately be dealt with if continuing professional development of teachers is enhanced. In-service training programs have the potential to bridge the gap between pre-service

training and, the new content and the current methods of training (Jahangir, Saheen & Kazim (2012) equipping the teacher with the knowledge of the subject, classroom management, teaching methods and evaluation of students (Kazmi, Pervez & Mumtaz 2011). Refresher courses influence teachers' attitude on the subject content which forms the basis on which they understand and approach teaching. Wiley and Yoon (1995) observe that teachers' development programs whether in-service or pre-service improve students' performance level. Ekpoh, Oswald & Victoria (2013) maintains that in-service training enables teachers to evaluate critically the school culture and bring positive changes in the school environment.

Investment in in-service teacher training is motivated by qualitative evidence and international comparisons across educational systems which support the idea that teacher training should lead to student learning (Wayne et al., 2008; Vegas and Petrow, 2008). Although studies such as those of Metzler and Woessmann (2010); Chingos and Peterson (2011); Garet et al., (2011); Harris and Sass (2011); Rockoff (2004); Carnoy et al., (2008); Jacob and Lefgren, (2004), conclude that further training of teachers does not necessarily lead to more students' learning, studies conducted by Hsiao et al., (2008); Sunardi, Widyarini, and Tjakraatmadja, (2012); Angrist and Lavy, (2001); Mason, O'Leary and Vecchi, (2012) point to further training's potential to increase productivity in the classroom. Qualitative evidence supports the idea that in order for in-service teacher training to be effective, it has to have some specific

characteristics, such as being connected to practice and intensive enough, linked to incentives and continuous (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

The guarantee for quality of education provided to the citizenry has been a recurring concern in many countries with many players oscillating between teacher quality and learning infrastructure in quest to provide the solution. But teachers and the quality of their teaching are now widely recognized as the most critical of many important factors that combine to create overall quality of education (Darling- Hammond, 2000; Leu & Price Rom, 2006; UNESCO, 2004). Professional training of teachers impact on their performance more than any other single factor (Olugbenga, 2012). Yara and Otieno, (2010) stresses the potential of in-service training in shaping a country's quality of education. Studies have shown that participation in professional development has a significant positive impact on teachers' beliefs and practices, students' learning and the implementation of educational reforms (UNESCO, 2006). To bring out the anticipated results, preservice teacher education and in-service teacher professional development programs should be designed as a whole, a continuum of learning that starts with preservice education; includes periods of school-based inquiry and practice teaching; continues into an induction/mentoring period of introduction into full-time teaching (Britton Paine, Pimm, & Raizen, 2003).

Professional development programs should be shaped by data about teachers' capabilities and their students' performance (Schwille & Dembélé, 2007). In planning the content of programs to strengthen teaching, it is important to emphasize pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987), which involves a focus on subject matter content with its implications for pedagogy (planning, instruction, and assessment). Pedagogical content knowledge is different from either general subject matter knowledge or general teaching skills because it is subject specific, relating specifically to the subject being taught and focusing on ways teachers strengthen and monitor students' understanding of the subject at different levels (Grossman, 2005). Adult-oriented models of active learning, which combine theoretical and practical knowledge acquisition, skill demonstration, and hands-on, practical, learning-by-doing, are most effective in facilitating professional learning for teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2008; Floden, 2001; Sprinthall et al., 1996).

Classroom management skills can be built through an "apprenticeship approach" involving modelling, coaching and scaffolding, supplemented with didactic instruction in basic concepts and skills, structured classroom observations, and the use of case materials and simulation exercises (LePage et al., 2005). What is important with teachers, as it is with all learners is what they do with new knowledge. They process, practice, analyse, modify, and take possession of it through a process sometimes called "adaptive expertise." Integrated literature is meant to affect students' language use in the two spheres

of its application: speaking and writing. As with other school curricular, this process calls for developing a general understanding followed by trying to put this into practice, which lead to “expertise” and the ability to adapt knowledge to complex situations such as the classroom (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005). In-service programs should be structured to emphasize reflective practice, which enables teachers to analyse their own and their colleagues’ practice and the effects on learners (Schön, 1987). Reflection can have teachers individually analyse the effectiveness of each class they teach, or it can be done collectively in organized groups of teachers studying practice and its relation to student performance (Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004).

2.5.2 Importance of Curriculum Innovation in Teacher Training

Curriculum innovation in teacher training programmes is very important because it provides a reachable window for adding something new to the existing programmes so that teacher training can meet the burning needs of the contemporary society. Whereas curriculum development refers to a complete overhaul of education involving planning, construction, organisation and implementation of learning instruction especially where none existed before or total change is required, much of educational reforms in developed and developing countries are done through curriculum innovation. According to Fullan (1991) and Halpin, Dickson, Power, Whitty and Gewritz, (2004), curriculum innovation refers to a deliberate and specific curriculum change and this may range from single subject changes like addition of a reading program

to more comprehensive changes like integrated approach to teaching students of a certain age. Fullan (2000) points out, innovation does and will always originate from a variety of different sources and a combination of sources such as school, research, charismatic leaders or individuals and external agencies.

Organisation and implementation of teacher education is faced with enormous complexity which mostly emanates from the two levels of assessing its effectiveness that is trainee teacher acquisition of the necessary knowledge and skills and transfer of the same to teaching. Wangeleja (2003) notes that much of innovation in teacher education is informed by research findings. This justifies many governments' move to spend immense resources on renewal of teacher curriculum so as to improve intellectual services to the citizenry. Introduction of a new curriculum into teachers' colleges implies a process of innovation and change (Shkedi, 2006). Andersson (2002) stresses that research results within teacher education constitute the base for restructuring new teacher education programmes and this can help construct an effective teacher curriculum especially when it takes into consideration the input of teacher educators and teacher trainees.

Research on the improvement of teacher education ought to be exhaustive, taking into consideration emerging knowledge, practices and students' contemporary styles of learning. Teachers are the main determinants of pupils' learning and betterment of their training curriculum can bring innumerable

benefits in the provision of education in a country. Lewin and Stuart (2003) assert that teacher education has to lead rather than lag behind change, so that new entrants can be prepared to adopt new curricula. But for the envisaged change to be achieved, Fullan (2000) and Andersson (2002) insist that, innovation should always originate from a variety of different sources and combination of sources which inform research which is used as a base for restructuring new teacher education programs. Involvement of a wide spectrum of stakeholders including school administrators, practising teachers, students and parents among others contribute to the acceptability of the programme once implemented.

Addition of programs in teacher education must be informed by the situation in the target education system at any one given time. This is because some innovations can actually be counter-productive to improvement or are so complex that they prove impossible to implement (Harris, 2002). Fullan (2008) stresses that when innovation is the focal point, there is a need to look at the nature of the change, evidence that it is being put into practice, the determinants of successful implementation, educators' change, students' learning and achievement. Onwu and Mogari (2004) underline that teacher educators' participation in planning curriculum innovation contributes to a successful outcome. Taking into consideration the contribution of the recipients of teacher education program does not only prepare them to embrace change but also invite them to own the program. True ownership is not something that occurs

magically at the beginning, but is something that comes out the other end of a successful change process (Fullan, 2001). In fact, much of the resistance facing introduction of new programs in schools can be mitigated by adequate involvement of the key stakeholders.

Success of a learning program heavily relies on the teacher. In contrast with the other stakeholders involved in curriculum implementation, the teacher's main goal is to arrive at a coherent scheme of practice that is connected to the goals set out in the curriculum document (Fernandez, Ritchie & Barker, 2008). Teachers ought to have a clear understanding of the subject matter they teach, its history; how it has been defined and is currently being defined, in order to understand the curricular choices, they will need to make (Grossman, Schoenfeld & Lee, 2005). Teachers' understanding of the origin and rationale of change contributes to the betterment of students' learning. Harris (2002) underlines that while the instigation of change is straightforward, the subsequent interpretation and implementation of any change is much more difficult and therefore the need for holistic training of teachers not only before but also during the implementation of the new curriculum.

The exposure given to teacher trainees' count on their mastery of the subject matter and techniques of teaching. Scholars advocate for integration of the subject matter and pedagogy due to their inseparable nature in teacher education. The integration of the subject matter and pedagogy helps the student

teachers to learn subject matter knowledge and how to teach (Donahue & Stuart, 2008). But educating teachers by using integrative models needs a deep understanding of the subject matter, pedagogy and context (Al-Weher & Abu-Jaber, 2007) which teacher educators can acquire only through thorough involvement and training on the programs added to teacher curriculum. Well-equipped teacher trainers will help student teachers to assess critically the merits of what they are required to implement in the classroom rather than educating them to be in passive acceptance of the official status quo of the National Curriculum (Clark, 2005). This marks the departure point between teachers serving as information conduits and teachers out to score highly in contextualizing curriculum and enabling students of all calibre to make meaning out of school curriculum.

2.6 Development of Teacher Professionalism through Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development

Teacher involvement in curriculum development is an effective tool in the development of teacher professionalism as it gives teachers an opportunity to contribute to the content of curriculum they are expected to implement hence raising their ownership status and implementation effort. Curriculum development has been described as a stepwise process or procedure of developing a programme of study, project or course offering for a group of people such as learners in conventional schools and informal settings, artisans, prison inmates (Onwuka, 1996; Oloruntegbe, 2003; Oloruntegbe & Daramola,

2007). Generations and societies are dynamic hence the need for continuous improvement of curriculum to meet the aspirations of the unique cohort of learners in question at any given time in history. The emergence of new knowledge and practices in education against the indispensable background of new and unique challenges facing school leavers justifies the continuous practice of curriculum development (Johnson, 2001).

Considering the propositions of four curriculum theorists Franklin Bobbit's two steps (Bobbit, 1918) through Ralph Tyler's four steps (Tyler, 1963), Hilda Taba's seven steps (Taba, 1962) to Nicholls and Nicholls' five steps (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1972), the role of the teacher in curriculum development is critical. The teacher holds the key to its success. Innovations in curriculum must be locally-driven and collaborative (Nomdo, 1995, Saban, 1995) to make it widely acceptable (Oloruntegbe, 2011). As implementers of curriculum, teachers are custodians of valuable knowledge and ideas in curriculum development. The teacher is the specialist on the ground whose responsibility to actualise curriculum in the classroom affords him/her unparalleled useful information in curriculum development. Dispensing of with the teacher in curriculum development can lead to non-access to valuable ideas important in the design of worthwhile curriculum for given category of learners.

Following varied viewpoints among curriculum theorists on the stages involved in curriculum development process, scholars have been proposing various

models. Most of them have emphasized on four components: goals and objectives, content or subject matter, method and evaluation, of curriculum based on Tyler's (1949) and Taba's (1962) prescriptive models on curriculum development (Oloruntegbe, 2011). The four components revolve around teacher's practices in the classroom and the feedback on the outcomes of curriculum implementation. There is often a glaring difference between the developed curriculum and learning outcomes after implementation (Oloruntegbe, 2011) and this gap can be effectively bridged by teacher involvement because the teacher is made an active participant hence empowered (Carl, 2009). Active involvement of the teacher can help to ensure that the subject content is insightful, relevant to the objectives and goals and manageable by teachers so that they can assume the professional position of directing and facilitating learning.

The method of curriculum implementation squarely lies on the teacher. Alsubaie (2016) found that teacher involvement in curriculum development process helps to align curriculum with the needs of students in the classroom. Their methods of teaching ought to be context-based and the suggested methods of curriculum implementation can be made better by actively involving them. As evaluation is carried out, the teacher must once again be relied upon to provide feedback on what worked, what did not work and why it never worked. Teachers' suggestions on what ought to be done to improve curriculum is a valuable addition in curriculum development process. Curriculum development is an

ongoing process in education as it involves the evaluation of the nature of education a country is providing to its people and this requires an ongoing review because new knowledge is emerging daily and instructional practices are constantly changing.

The most important players in curriculum implementation are teachers owing to their professional responsibility of introducing curriculum in the classroom. It is becoming increasingly clear that no nation can rise or develop without the right calibre of teachers (FGN, 2004). As early as 1928, Rugg and Shumaker (1928) recognized the need for teacher involvement in curriculum development and suggested that teachers work collaboratively with curriculum specialists to organize content and materials (Handler, 2010). Similarly, Caswell and Campbell (1935) supported teacher participation in curriculum committees at all levels, partly because they believed such participation would help teachers align content with student needs. Tyler (1949) presents a recipe for planning curriculum which still stands as a common model for curriculum development today. The model centers the classroom teacher within the curriculum development process. Taba (1962) rejects Tyler's (1949) assumptions that curriculum should be created by curriculum specialists at the district level, but advocated that curriculum development should be a bottom-up process with teachers in central roles for development and leadership.

By the end of the 20th Century, a significant body of literature called for empowerment of teachers through control of the curriculum (Asuto, Clark, Read, McGree, & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, 1994). Contemporary curriculum scholarship places teachers in a central role in curriculum development, implementation, and evaluation (Lieberman, Saxl, & Miles, 1988/2001; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). The work of early theorists recognizes the importance of the role of the classroom teacher in curricular development at the building level (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). The teacher is viewed as a potential partner with the invaluable ideas to contribute in curricular-making processes as opposed to a helpless recipient of secretly downward trickling programs for implementation.

Teachers play a very significant role in a country as educators of the citizenry of all professionals. Teachers are nation builders (Okeke, 2004) since majority of the members of a particular society will pass through their moulding hands (Oloruntegbe, 2011). As a key stakeholder, the teacher possesses valuable information which can aid curriculum development to ensure its wide acceptance across the society. Curriculum development can be challenging, therefore the involvement of all stakeholders, especially individuals who are directly involved in student instruction, are a vital piece in successful curriculum development and revision (Johnson, 2001). With their knowledge, experiences and competencies, teachers are central to any curriculum development effort (Alsubaie, 2016).

Curriculum development however, has been a reserve of few specialists whose mandate has been to organise learning content and propose the ways in which it can be implemented. The most conspicuous of the players left out has been the teacher. Scholars across the decades have identified limited engagement of teachers in meaningful decision-making as a major flaw in educational organization and suggest that it has been elemental in the failure of meaningful educational reform efforts (Barth, 1990; Fullan, 1993; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). The teacher is part of the environment that affects curriculum (Carl, 2009) hence, the need to carefully seek his opinion when effecting changes in curriculum. Teachers are critical players in matters concerning curriculum because after everything has been effected, they are the ones to operationalize it in the classroom.

There is every need to make teachers feel part of the intended changes in school programs. Cohen & Hills (2001) posit that teachers cannot be expected to embrace new instructional approaches without sufficient training and information on why such changes are necessary or warranted and when this is done, it can often result in inadequate adoption of the curriculum mandate. Teachers' participation in the development of curriculum enhances the success of its implementation because they feel they own it and would like to make efforts to realize it (Mosothwane, 2012), hence, strengthening their professional autonomy (Taylor, 2004). Mosothwane (2012) conducted a research on the role

of senior secondary school mathematics teachers in the development of mathematics curriculum in Botswana. With a sample of sixty senior secondary school mathematics teachers, the findings of the study confirm that the majority of senior secondary school teachers' play only a minor role in the development of the Mathematics curriculum, but are active in the implementation and production stages. Participants in the study reported that full participation in the development of the curriculum would help them to better implement the material because they would feel they 'own' it.

A similar study conducted by Oloruntegba (2011) sought to find out if Nigerian teachers were always being carried along in the development and implementation of national curriculum. The sample consisted of 630 secondary school teachers drawn from the 6 South-Western States of Nigeria. The study found that teachers were often drafted to classroom implementation of curriculum reforms but were seldom involved in the development and how best to implement such reforms. The author concluded that teachers often showed resistance and lack of commitment to implementation of curriculum reforms because they were seldom involved in the development and even how best to implement them. The author equally recommended the adoption of grass root approach to curriculum development involving all stakeholders including teachers who would implement the curriculum in the long run.

This top-down approach stands to impede the development of a quality curriculum as it denies teachers the opportunity to participate and blocks the feedback they may provide from their experience as implementers. Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) submit that change is complex and that part of the complexity is teachers' attitudes in the implementation of change. Cohen and Hills, (2001) and Kubitskey and Fishman, (2006) equally maintain that the sustainability of reform initiatives relies on teachers maintaining alignment with the intent of the initiative. Teachers' involvement in curriculum development empowers them to not only use a variety of teaching methods and materials that could promote more effective learning but also feel free and confident to provide feedback that could lead to the betterment of program as implementation continues.

The solution to haphazard and carefree implementation of curriculum by teachers is to involve them in its entire process of development. Studies have shown that people will take responsibility of only what they participated in creating curricular included (Mosothwane, 2012). Teacher participation in curriculum development is favoured because it brings in local experience from various areas or locations and this enriches the curriculum (Taylor, 2004). Teacher participation in curriculum development ensures that the curriculum is relevant to students and the region (Hermsen, 2000). Taylor (2004) posits that "contextualized teaching and learning become more feasible since a

participatory curriculum development approach will inevitably become context dependant, and will involve those who know their own situation best” (p.6).

2.6.1 Impediments to Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development

Teacher’s voice in curriculum development is seriously ignored despite being the principal implementer of curricular innovations with the ill-conceived assumptions that the teacher is not specialized enough in the matters of curriculum development and hence cannot offer invaluable contribution. In a study carried out by Guateng Department of Education in South Africa on Post-Apartheid Curriculum Change (Gauteng Department of Education, 1996), it was found that even at implementation, 63 percent of teachers reported that the most serious problem in curriculum innovation was that materials were usually not sent on time or that they were not informed of the innovations beforehand. Mabry and Ettinger (1999) found teachers to have limited skills and knowledge relative to assessment of literacy and cited this as one of the “intractable problems” inherent to effective curricular leadership role fulfillment.

Teachers’ lack of skill will affect curricular implementation the same way it could have affected development hence the need for training on curricular matters. While teachers are recognized as sole implementers of curricula change, many times they receive little or no orientation on innovations. The teacher is reduced to a voiceless recipient of whatever changes are done in the curricular with no any other role to play apart from implementation. Non-involvement of teachers heightens their anxiety in the advent of curricular change which mostly

translates to reluctance to implement when it is finally brought to them. The voice of the teacher is to a large extent ignored or not sought at all (Carl, 2002 & Gauteng Department of Education, 1996) to the extent of questioning teacher skills in curriculum implementation when the envisaged learning outcomes are not realized.

Curriculum developers who relegate the teachers' opinions may greatly contribute to curriculum failure because once the teacher is unable to comprehend the subject matter and/or the proposed teaching strategies, curriculum will definitely fail. Curricula innovations in Africa and a few other parts of the world were initiated top-down, through power coercive or unilateral administrative decisions (Beswick, 2009; Oloruntegbe 2011 & Ramparsad, 2001). They are externally imposed (Zhao et al, 2002), in utter negligence of the much powerfully-embraced grassroots (Beggs, 2004; Rogers, 1995), or the normative re-educative, rational-empirical or bottom-up approach as suggested by Beswick.

Some educators argue that teachers should be excluded from participating in curriculum development because primary teachers, for example, are weak in cognate areas and may not contribute effectively to hard core curriculum disciplines such as mathematics (Carl, 2009). Teachers are viewed as possessing very little knowledge for curricular implementation thanks to their short years of training and limited exposure to theories and contextual factors determining

the texture of school programmes. Many teachers are unsure of the roles they should play in curriculum development (Saban, 1995). As a result, they too easily accept the seemingly safe passive position of being mere recipients of proposed changes and view themselves as limited in knowledge of what ought to be included in curriculum.

Even when given a chance to contribute or at least give feedback on the curricular they implement, majority of teachers either do not take interest or see it as unimportant because they believe that curriculum specialists will always have an upper hand in the entire process. Many, especially the older teachers are comfortable with “routines” (Oloruntegba,2011). They like teaching what they have known over years the same way and they viciously resist any suggestion of new way. Some researchers object to teacher involvement in curriculum development on the basis of lack of time (Carl, 2009; Bayona, 1995). They argue that teaching is a demanding and time consuming career, and that teachers will not have time to participate fully in curriculum development. Another argument raised by some scholars for the exclusion of teachers from curriculum development pertains to resources (Bayona, 1995, Carl, 2009). It is believed that if teachers become participants in curriculum development, they will ask for various curriculum implementation materials which will make the entire exercise too expensive for the government.

2.7 The Influence of Teacher Preparedness on Curriculum Implementation

Every good teaching begins with a clear planning with regard to the learning objectives to be achieved and the teaching/learning materials and the teaching approaches to be deployed to achieve these objectives. Teaching and learning are highly complex and pervasive phenomena, and therefore in a formal setting they have to be well structured for efficiency and effectiveness Musingafi, Mhute, Zebron and Kaseke (2015). Lesson planning involves selection of teaching materials', design of learning activities and grouping methods, pacing of lessons and pacing and allocation of lesson time (Merriam-Webster, 2006). According to Moon (2005), lesson planning keep teachers organized and on track while teaching thus allowing them to teach more and help students reach objectives more easily. It also provides a coherent framework for smooth efficient teaching and helps the teacher to be more confident when delivering the lesson (Scrivener 2011).

A successful formal teaching and learning process therefore requires proper selection and arrangement of the teaching items or materials. Instructional plans play a central role in teaching and creating effective learning environments (Clark & Dunn, 1991; Reiser & Dick, 1996; Shaulson, 1983 cited in Koszalka et al., 1999). Lesson planning is a major task of teachers and a key determinant of whether teaching would be successful or not. It acts as a reminder to teachers about their important responsibility on their learners by challenging them to

create logical and systematic learning process to help them achieve learning in the least time (Shrawder 2006).

The recurring concern among practising teachers is lesson effectiveness mostly characterised by students' ability to use the lesson instructions to respond satisfactorily to the problems emanating from the topic area. Many of these problems can be dealt with through lesson planning because if teachers can prepare good teaching plans, effective teaching is like half done (Moonsri & Pattanajak (2009). In addition, lesson plans play a major role in teaching as agents of constructing the efficient learning environment (Clark & Dunn, 1991; Reiser & Dick, 1996; Shaulson, 1983 cited in Koszalka et al., 1999). Teachers' lesson planning is an incontestable precursor to teaching because it helps in determining teaching goals, considering the existing resources, and designing the learning activities appropriately (Lee & Yakahashi, 2011) hence aiding the teacher in maximum utilization of instructional time and deployment of effective learning strategies in the classroom.

In their research with 60,000 students (Marzano et al., 2003) conclude that the teacher is probably the single most important factor affecting student achievement. This teachers' unrivalled influence on students' learning can be maximized through proper planning of what they teach in order to achieve a systematic approach and self-evaluation in the implementation of curriculum. Borich (2007) states that as a combination of lesson objective designing,

teaching, modeling, checking for understanding, re-teaching and teacher's self-reflection, lesson plan is a crucial element in the process of meeting national content standards and optimizing the outcome of classroom teaching and learning. Proper lesson planning also characterizes the effectiveness of the teacher in knowledge and skills transmission to the students.

Wong and Wong (2009) successfully relates teachers' commitment to lesson planning to their effectiveness in teaching by asserting that: (1) an effective teacher has positive expectations for student success; and lesson plan reflects such expectations, (2) an effective teacher knows how to design lessons for student mastery; which is reflected in lesson plan, and (3) an effective teacher is an extremely good classroom manager; which is possible via good time management during class time and that is possible only by effective implementation of a good lesson plan). Wong and Wong (2009), further views good lesson planning as an indicator of teachers as good classroom managers by postulating that characteristics of a well-managed classroom are that (1) students are deeply engaged with their work; which would be possible if their roles are described and they have a goal as provided in a good lesson plan; (2) students know what is expected; which would be possible via routinely implemented good lesson plans; (3) there is little wasted time, confusion; which would be possible via effective implementation of a good lesson plan; and (4) the climate of such a classroom would be work-oriented, but relaxed and

pleasant; which would be possible via good time management due to effective implementation of a good lesson plan.

The process of lesson planning reflects continuing challenges and dilemmas in teaching that have been recognized for decades (Berlack and Berlack, 1981). One of the major challenges and dilemmas in the provision of education especially in developing countries is the issue of diversity. Sullivan and Noyes (2013) assert that the “notion of diversity is linked to the idea of equity in education” (p. 255) and that this equity should be sought whatever the gender, ethnicity, class and disability of those in education. Teachers’ understandings of the learner difference and diversity should be the basis of their lesson planning and the subsequent lesson review process. The enactment of plans that take account of learner differences continues to be very important in contemporary school teaching, touching on questions of personalization and inclusion of pupils with additional needs, including those with Special Educational Needs (SEN) (Patterson, 2007; Booth & Ainscow, 2011).

Skrtic (1991) argues that pupil diversity should not be seen as a liability, but rather “an asset, an enduring source of uncertainty and thus the driving force for innovation, growth of knowledge and progress” (p. 36). Booth and Ainscow (2011) suggest that in an inclusive school learning should be ‘orchestrated’ so that “learning activities are planned with all children in mind” (p. 159). Panasuk, Stone and Todd (2002), and Jones (2010) regret that despite its pivotal role in

students' learning, lesson planning is treated as irrelevant by some teachers with negative effects on teaching and learning.

Methods of lesson planning have been an object of controversy especially among colleague teachers with questions on whether or not there can be a uniform method adopted by all teachers despite the backgrounds and abilities of the students they are teaching. The rational method of planning requires teachers to set goals, formulate alternatives, predict outcomes, and evaluate the effectiveness of reaching those goals (Lanski & Caskey 2009). This method agrees with Tyler's work, which was published in 1949 (John, 2006) which proposes a linear method in lesson planning. Tyler (1949) proposed that lesson planning should consist of four essential elements: educational purposes or objectives, classroom experiences to attain these purposes, effective organization of the experiences and determining whether the purposes are attained. This linear, rational type of thinking became the basis for the predominant model of planning that is taught in teacher education programs today and is considered to be the prototype for lesson plans (Jalongo, et al., 2007).

The propositions of Tyler (1949) in the planning of instructional lessons have reigned supreme over decades with later scholar just building on it. Both John (2006) and Zazkis, Liljedahl and Sinclair (2009) cite the work of Ralph Tyler (1949) as an early contribution to the development of lesson planning,

particularly in its most instructional form. Fundamental to this model is the specification of specific observable objectives, the selection and organization of learning experiences for the attainment of the objectives followed by the evaluation of the learning experiences (Zazkis et al, 2009). The model is “pervasive” (John, 2006, p.484) and the basis of most lesson plans (Capel et al, 2013; John, 2006). In agreement with the principles of Tyler’s model, Lampert (2001) describes how her planning and preparation for teaching a lesson involves thinking not only about content and structure, but also the appropriateness of tasks for the different learners in the classroom. Indeed, the outcome of a learning is best reflected in students’ behavior after they have received the instruction and this is the concern of every focused teacher.

Scholarly studies place the entire task of lesson planning squarely on the shoulders of the subject teacher in a specific classroom because he/she understands more than anybody else the nature of the students he/she teaches. Teachers decide about the form and content of their instruction, such as how much presenting, questioning, and discussing to do; how much material to cover in the allotted time; and how in–depth to make their instruction (Borich, 2007). Oketch and Asiachi, (1986) contend that teachers should take the following measures before beginning to teach;(1) read the official syllabus description of the subject, (2) selecting the broad content areas to cover by planning in such a way that it fits the content description of the subject and (3) considering whether the amount of content will be achieved within the stipulated time. In planning

the lessons (Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004), insists that teachers should use problems that students encounter in everyday life, so as to stimulate students to work to achieve the objective.

In Japan, lesson studies are used by teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their instructions in the classroom and utilizing the data collected from these studies to inform their reviewed planning of lessons. Lesson study is a professional learning process that Japanese teachers engage in continuously throughout their careers to examine systematically their instructional methods, teaching content and curriculum as well as their students' processes of learning and understanding in order to achieve their educational goals (Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004) and it exemplifies qualities of effective professional learning (Lewis & Hurd 2011). There are important benefits of the collaborative nature of lesson study that provide a benchmarking process that teachers can use to gauge their own skills. Collaboration includes continuing interactions about effective teaching methods plus observations of one another's classrooms (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999).

2.8 Teacher Utilization of Instructional Materials in Curriculum Implementation

Effective teaching of any subject will not only stimulates student's interest in the subject but also enhance their achievement in the examination. Studies by Isola (2010) found a positive relationship between instructional resources used

by teachers and students' performance. To achieve effective teaching and learning process, there is the need for use of instructional materials (Nwike & Catherine, 2013). Agun (1992) defines instructional materials as those materials which are helpful to the teachers and students and which maximize learning in various areas. Fadeiye (2005) saw instructional materials as visual and audio-visual aids, concrete or non-concrete materials used by teachers to improve the quality of teaching and learning activities. Agina-Obu (2005) submitted that instructional materials of all kinds appeal to the sense organs during teaching and learning. This means that they have a great potential of enhancing the students' grasp of instructional ideas during learning. Eniyewu (2005) posited that it is very important to use instructional aids for instructional delivery to make students acquire more knowledge and to promote academic standard.

Inadequacies in educational quality has bogged many educational systems and many suggestions on how to improve quality of education are predominant in lots of educational studies. Kochhar (2012) supported that instructional materials are very significant learning and teaching tools and can be reliable in the improvement of education at any level. This view is supported by Ajayi and Ayodele (2001) who stressed the importance of availability of instructional materials to achieving effectiveness in educational delivery and supervision in the school system. Esu, Eukoha and Umoren (2004) agreed that instructional materials are not only important but also indispensable if effectiveness in teaching and learning activities is to be achieved. Ekpo (2004) also assert that

teaching aids are always useful in supporting the sense organs and therefore can have motivational influence on the learner during instruction. Research proves that instructional materials highly facilitate learning and greatly draw learners' attention to the target language (Littlejohn, 2012; McDonough, Shaw & Mashura, 2013; Solak & Çakır, 2015; Tomlinson, 2012).

According to Abolade (2009), the advantages of instructional materials are that some of them are cheaper to produce, they are useful in teaching large number of students at a time, encourage learners to pay proper attention and enhance their interest. Olumorin, Yusuf, Ajidagba and Jekayinfa (2010) observed that instructional materials help teachers to teach conveniently and the learners to learn easily without any problem. Although, Enaigbe (2009) noted that basic materials such as textbooks, chalkboard and essential equipment like computer, projector, television and video are not readily available in many schools, the essence of the current century brings about an overwhelming amount of information which involves using efficient mechanisms to ameliorate learning and teaching activities (Kuzu, Akbulut & Şahin, 2007). Effective deployment of instructional materials in the classrooms promote students' inquiry into topics enhancing their initiative in learning (Corpuz & Lucido, 2008; Dale 2010 & Ogbu, 2015).

The findings of Akinleye (2010) attested that effective teaching and learning requires a teacher to teach the students with instructional materials and use practical activities to make learning more vivid, logical, realistic and pragmatic. Ogbondah (2008) warns against gross inadequacy and underutilization of instructional materials necessary to compensate for the inadequacies of sense organs and to reinforce the capacity of dominant organs. As a remedy, he advocated for of teachers 'resourcefulness and also encouraged them to search for the necessary instructional materials through local means to supplement or replace the standard ones. Oso (2011) also agreed that the best way for teachers to make use of their manipulative skills is to improvise so as to achieve their lesson objectives at least to a reasonable extent. This view is reinforced by Jekayinfa (2012) who observes improvisation of instructional materials as making learning concrete and real, substitutes one thing for another, allows the students to participate in the production of materials, economical and more teacher-student resource oriented. Abdu-Raheem (2014) submitted that improvisation of locally made teaching aids could assist to improve quality of graduates turn out from schools and standard of education generally. Abdu-Raheem and Oluwagbohunmi (2015) also corroborated the idea that resourceful and skillful teachers should improvise necessary instructional materials to promote academic standard in Nigerian schools.

Abdu-Raheem (2011) asserted that non availability and inadequacy of instructional materials are major causes of ineffectiveness of the school system and poor performance of students in schools. Ahmed (2003) confirmed that in most secondary schools in Nigeria, teaching and learning take place under a most un-conducive environment without access to essential materials. Obanya (2004) asserted that several studies carried out in some areas in Nigeria indicated that the results of Senior School Certificate Examinations were completely bad in nearly all subjects offered by the students. He stressed further that only about 10% of candidates ‘meaningfully passed’ the examination. He noted that school teachers should try their possible best in the provision of locally made materials in substitution for the standard ones to promote their lessons.

Tok (2010) categorizes instructional materials into two groups: printed ones such as course-books, workbooks, teacher’s guides etc.; and non-printed ones such as computer-based materials, videos etc. Correspondingly, Tomlinson (2012) classifies the language teaching materials in terms of instructional purposes as follows: informative (informing the learning about the target language); instructional (guiding the learner in practicing the language); experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use); eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language); and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language). In teaching Literature in EFL classrooms, literary materials such as poems and stories enhance students’

understanding of social contexts in which various concepts of English language is used. Hismanoglu (2005) observes that resources such projectors, sufficient literary texts, tape recorders and videos compensate for teacher's absence in learning grammar and pronunciation. Emphasis on instructional resources produces students who are more positive in engaging in interactive learning and this makes learning activities interesting and involving for students.

Richards (2001) asserts that instructional materials generally serve as the basis of much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. Instructional materials in an EFL context have an indispensable role as they facilitate language learning (Tomlinson, 2008), draw learners' attention, motivate learners towards foreign language learning, provide comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) and authentic language (Lee,1995), make learning more concrete and more meaningful, and guide the learner in practicing the language. According to Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011), course-books play a pivotal role in language classrooms in all types of educational institutions – state schools, colleges, language schools – all over the world. Sheldon (1988) regards the course-book as the visible heart of any ELT program and she puts forth a number of reasons to justify the widespread use of course-books in the teaching of English as a foreign or second language throughout the world. They are the universal elements of language teaching (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994) for many teachers as they have ready-made materials and syllabi designed by the specialist in the field.

In Cunningsworth's (1995) words, "course-books provide a resource, a source of activities, a reference, a syllabus, a great support for inexperienced teachers, and serve as a source for self-directed learning or self-access work" (p.7). On the contrary, Richards and Renandya (2002) claim that many of the course-books as preplanned teaching materials have some possible following disadvantages (as cited in Kayapınar, 2009): (a) they fail to present appropriate and realistic language models; (b) they propose subordinate learner roles; (c) they fail to contextualize language activities; (d) they foster inadequate cultural understanding; (e) they fail to teach idioms. In consistent with this claim, Tsiprakides (2011) believes that among the main negative effects of the use of course-books is that they may contain inauthentic language, may distort content, may not satisfy students' needs, and may be expensive to buy. It is widely accepted that presenting the target language only through ready-made printed materials does not always contribute to comprehensive and meaningful understanding.

Thus, apart from the course-books or textual materials, teaching should also be supported by other visual materials such as pictures, flashcards, posters, tables, charts, etc. In this context, Mayer (2009) claims that visual materials play an important role in assisting instruction in order to clarify, define and explain the related teaching point. Therefore, it is safe to say that in order to create a meaningful learning atmosphere and to offer a comprehensible input, word and pictures need to be presented simultaneously. In this way, learners have a

chance to construct both verbal and pictorial mental schemas and build connections between them (as cited in Kuzu, Akbulut & Şahin, 2007). The contribution of visual materials to language learning is that they assist teachers by giving them time for necessary classroom activities like drills, exercises, instructions and explanation (Abebe & Davidson, 2012).

As ShamyLee and Phill (2012) agree, the tradition of English teaching has been drastically changed with the entry of technologies. In this respect, language teachers cannot disassociate themselves from new technology, which allows for the application of scientific knowledge to practical tasks (Çakır, 2006). Technology satisfies both auditory and visual senses of the students in learning environments (Shyamlee & Phil, 2012). Some of the basic audio-visual aids that are frequently used in foreign language teaching include audio books, mp3, sound files, podcasts, the Internet, CDs, songs, videos, etc. Ali, Ghani and Ali (2010) maintain that the history of the audio-visual aids can be traced back to the Greek Period, however, the technological advancements have brought new innovations in the form of computer assisted programs and accessories. In this sense, technology is seen that it is not a new issue concerning only modern teachers. This long history also explains the effectiveness of audio-visual materials (Rao & Jyoti, 2012).

2.9 The Influence of Teaching Methodologies on the Implementation of Curriculum

Teaching methodologies employed by the teacher in the classroom determine the understanding levels, learning pace and learner motivation. According to Tebabal and Kahssay (2011), the primary purpose of teaching at any level is to bring a fundamental change in students' learning. Until today, questions about the effectiveness of teaching methods on student learning have consistently raised considerable interest in the thematic field of educational research Hightower, Delgado, Lloyd, Wittenstein, Sellers and Swanson (2011). Hightower et al., (2011) indicated that teaching methodologies have great influence in the achievement levels of students. According to Ayeni (2011), teaching is a process that involves bringing about desirable changes in learners so as to achieve specific outcomes.

Learner acquisition of knowledge and skills is the hallmark of any teaching endeavor. In the light of this, Ganyaupfu (2013) posited that in order to facilitate the process of knowledge transmission, teachers should apply appropriate teaching methods that best suit specific objectives and level exit outcomes. It, therefore, follows that the greatest need of teachers in achieving teaching-learning effectiveness is for them to be conversant with different teaching methods and strategies that recognize the magnitude of complexities of concepts to be covered (Adunola, 2011). The scholar further affirmed that regular poor academic performance by the majority of students is fundamentally linked to

application of ineffective (or unsuitable/ inappropriate) teaching methods by teachers in the process of imparting knowledge to learners.

There mainly three approaches to teaching namely: teacher-centred, learner-centred and teacher-learner interactive method. In Teacher-centered methods, the teacher controls the transmission and sharing of knowledge and attempts to maximize the delivery of information while minimizing time and efforts. Zakaria et al. (2010) observed that this method does not help students since the teacher merely focuses on dispensing rules, definitions and procedures for students to memorize without actively engaging the students. Consequently, Bala, (2006) asserted that the method often creates frustration and learning difficulties for most students which lead to poor academic performance. The instructor is at the centre of this model delivering factual knowledge to the whole group of learners and having a complete authority in the classroom. The students have a minimum role to play here and they are just at the receiving end of the transmission (Orlich et al. 1998).

The limiting factors of this approach can be summarized as (a) this is a one-way transmission of knowledge; (b) the knowledge is purely factual; (c) students' feedback and queries are very limited or even non-existent at times; (d) course material is limited to the pre-prepared lectures and text books; (e) insufficient elements of interest and engagement for the learners; (f) applied and real life knowledge is least discussed and focus is purely based theory; (g) the system

promotes memorizing skills of student and least concerned with the understanding. This approach is based on theory and memory as opposed to practicability and applicability of knowledge (Teo & Wong, 2000). Bala (2006) noted that the use of lecture method in which the teacher is most active often creates frustration and learning difficulties for some students.

Teacher-centered approach in curriculum implementation also emphasizes teaching more than learning and pays little or no attention to the process of learning thereby dwarfing students' creative thinking which is necessary in today's workplace (Eze, Ezenwafor & Molokwu, 2015). Consequently, the current developments in research and technology have given rise to the adoption of new methods of teaching which have the potential of efficiently meeting the learning needs of today's students (Senchi, 2005 and Uba, 2006). It is important, therefore, to engage students' creative thinking in order to develop their problem - solving skills by adopting student-centered methods.

In learner-centered approach, the focus is the learner as the driver of learning and this is done by actively involving the learner in learning activities. According to Greitzer, (2002), the advent of the concept of discovery learning made many scholars adopt learner-centered methods to enhance active learning. Activity based learning encourages student to learn real life problems based on applied knowledge and keep the interest and understanding of the students at its highest level (Boud & Feletti, 1999). Students perform better (in terms of class

attendance and exam results) when interactive learning model was used rather than a lecture. Hesson and Shad (2007) posited that learner-centered methods promote interest, analytical research, critical thinking and enjoyment of the teaching-learning process among the students. Consequently, the method is considered to be more effective in improving students' academic performance since it does not centralize the flow of knowledge from teacher to students.

Teacher-learner interactive method combines teacher-centered and learner centered approach based on the opinion that although the learning style and pace are supposed to be dictated by the learner ability, the teacher's pivotal role in the facilitation of learning cannot be disputed. Ganyaupfu, (2013) explained that this method is a combination of the teacher-centered and student-centered methods where the subject information produced by learners is remembered better than the same information presented to them by the teacher. This method encourages learners to search for relevant knowledge rather than the teacher monopolizing the transmission of information to them and has been reported as an effective method of teaching in improving students' academic performance. Specifically, for Literature, teacher – student interactive method has been found to yield immense results as the teacher merely directs class discussions and debates and provides the main textual insights to ignite interpretation as the students delve in detailed analysis of texts (Ganyaupfu, 2013).

Adunola (2011) indicated that in order to bring desirable changes in students, teaching methods used by educators should be best for the subject matter. Furthermore, Bharadwaj and Pal (2011) sustained that teaching methods work effectively mainly if they suit learners' needs since every learner interprets and responds to questions in a unique way. As such, alignment of teaching methods with students' needs and preferred learning influence students' academic attainments. The individual needs of the students cannot be fulfilled with one standard teaching method as every student comes from a different background and possesses different questions about the things being taught and has a different focus towards the environment around him or her.

Multi-method approach to teaching results to more learner achievement (Ismail, Rahman, Noordin & Mustafa 2013) especially when emphasis is laid on learner-centered approaches (Kang'ahi, Indoshi, Okwach & Osodo, 2012). According to Maryellen (2009), good teachers create learning tasks appropriate to the student's level of understanding. They also recognize the uniqueness of individual learners and avoid the temptation to impose "mass production" standards that treat all learners as if they were exactly the same. In this sense, teachers should select appropriate methodologies for achieving the proposed objectives, using as a reference, the academic profile and the various characteristics of learners (Cañibano, 2008). So until and unless the things get cleared in the mind of students, the conventional methods are mostly measuring the memorizing skills of the students instead of bringing clarity in their minds.

2.10 The Role of Assessment in Curriculum Implementation

Assessment is an integral part of classroom instruction as it reflects the extent of achievement of learning objectives and serves as an informative tool both to the teacher and the learners on what to relearn. Accomplishment of learners in every academic endeavour is measured depending on the results of their learning outcome at the termination of the learning period, term, academic calendar or at the end of a programme (Eremina & Reginald, 2016). Assessment also serves as a motivational tool to students' learning as research has revealed that students adjust their learning processes according to the particular type of assessment used (Wass, Van der Vleuten, Shatzer, & Jones, 2001). Innovative and engaging assessments encourage active learning in the classroom (Cowan, 2005). Comparatively, students who are exposed to frequent and purposive tests have been found to have better mastery of learning content, interest in learning and more accurate approaches in answering questions (Adoye, 2010); Kara, Njagi & Kimani 2013).

Formative assessments, which constitute assessments administered to students in the course of curriculum implementation are effective instruments in the planning, organisation, deployment and review of educational instructions. Formative assessments, mainly characterised by Continuous Assessments (CAs) provide feedback that assists students in the preparation of topics (Wass et al., 2001; Carrillo-de-la-Peña et al., 2009). Continuous Assessment is

associated with a more distributed learning effort throughout the course and is thought to promote deeper learning, greater motivation, and consequently improved understanding of course material (Van der Vleuten, 2000; Butler & Roediger, 2007). Achievement is “a result oriented construct terminates at the realization of the attainment of the programme” aimed at accomplishing a particular task.

The level of academic achievement of a learner is determined based on assignment, test/examination scores, and marks or grades assigned by the instructor, teacher or examiner. The amount and quality of the expected behavior manifested in form of performance are determined through the process of assessment (Hassan, 2001). Assessment from educational perspective according to Ukwuije (2012:): “is a process of documenting, usually in measurable terms, knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, practice or generally what behaviour a learner does or does not have, acquire or develop before, during and at the end of instruction, or a course of study”. Furthermore, assessment has been defined as; “a process of obtaining information used to make educational decisions about students, to give feedback to the students about his or her progress, strengths and weaknesses, to judge instructional effectiveness and curricular adequacy and inform policy” (American Federation of Teachers (AFT), National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME); & National Education Association (NEA), (in Kellaghan & Greaney, 2001:19).

Best practices the world over demand that teachers integrate assessment in their classroom instruction and see it as an effective tool in their enhancement of knowledge and skills acquisition among the learners rather than a distant process divorced from the instructions given in the classroom. Research findings indicated that giving recognition to assessment as a constituent of teaching improves achievement for learners and also shows a connection that classroom practices are relevant to bodies of research, such as: feedback, motivation, attribution and self-regulated learning” (Wiliam, 2011). Recognition of assessment as tool is class teacher’s prerogative and can only be effective if teachers desire so. According to Hattie, (2009), teachers make a difference and efforts to improve students’ learning outcomes must focus on teacher practices. This is because it is impossible to talk about assessment divorced from pedagogy. The approach that the teacher uses underpins the quality and nature of learning in the classroom (Wiliam & Thompson, 2007). Such approaches include the use of Assessment For Learning (AFL) – identifying a student’s ‘readiness to learn’ (Griffin, 2000) so that planned learning experiences are maximally effective.

Kallaghan and Greaney (2001), observed that teachers’ assessment of their students in the classroom deserves a second consideration in terms of improving the quality of education. Thus, for assessment to be an integral part of instruction, it has to be carried out formatively. Stiggins and Chappius (2005:18) identified three approaches to formative assessment. These include: “More

Frequent Testing: this refers to increase in the frequency of summative assessments from once to several times a year. Effective Data Management: this approach involves the accumulation, summarizing, analysing and providing a feedback on effective assessment with diligence. The third approach is Assessment For Learning (AFL). In Assessment For Learning, the emphasis is on transferable learning. Here, assessment becomes a much more transparent process, which is based on critical information that is shared with learners, and thus the learners are responsible for their own learning and assessment.

It is apparent that assessments conducted with the aim of improving instruction ought to be done in AFL approach. For Assessment For Learning to be effective in curriculum implementation, it must be frequent and data emanating from it systematically collected, reviewed and utilized to modify instruction (Race, Brown & Smith 2005). Based on research findings and interviews conducted with teachers who had practiced AFL in their classrooms, Black, Harrison, Marshall, Lee and Wiliam (2003:2) identified the following AFL strategies:

- Teachers use of questioning: refers to the use of questions by teachers to diagnose and extend students' ideas and to scaffold students' thinking. The teacher adjusts questioning to accommodate students' contributions and thinking in a neutral rather than evaluative manner.
- Feedback through marking: refers to the use of written comments instead of grades to inform students on their area of strength and

weaknesses. This approach guides the students to analyse their strengths and improve on their weakness.

- Peer and Self-assessment by Students: Peer assessment according to is defined as “the process whereby groups of individuals rate their peers. While self-assessment refers to “the involvement of learners in making judgements about their own learning, particularly about their achievements and the outcomes of their learning”
- Formative use of summative assessment: refers to the use of items from past examination and test papers that are relevant to the topics being taught by the teacher to assess on-going learning process”.

As far as classroom instruction is concerned, AFL has comparatively superior learning tokens to offer the learners. Black, Harrison, Marshall, Lee and Wiliam (2002), refer to Assessment for Learning “as every exercise embarked on by instructors and learners that serve as information which forms and advances the instruction and study exercise undertaken within the classroom”. The researchers have observed that in most developing countries (such as Nigeria and Kenya) assessment practices focus primarily on examinations (summative assessment) in which little or no emphasis on classroom assessment methods are made (Eremina & Reginalds, 2016). According to Black et al (2002) Assessment for Learning is mainly non-formal and embedded in instruction and learning. It takes place frequently in each unit of instruction. Their study

revealed that comments made by teachers were more effective and productive than the award of marks or simultaneous use of comments and marks. Stiggins and Chappius (2005) asserted that Assessment For Learning does not only monitor the students' learning but turns the classroom assessment process which result to the instructional intervention.

For there to be an improvement in learners' performance, there must be extensively informative feedback on their performance. The findings on a study on formative assessment by Black and Wiliam (1998) showed that, it is descriptive feedback that produces the highest improvement in performance and not letter grades or scores. Similarly, Elawar and Corno (1985) in their study stated that teachers' written feedback, in terms of students' homework amounted to twenty-four percent difference in terminal accomplishment. The attainment of learners subjected to comments was better than that of their counterparts who were assigned grades; hence grades hinder accomplishment. Butler (1988), revealed that where comments are personalized to students they obtained predominantly higher scores up to thirty percent on specific assignment. There was visible reduction in accomplishment of learners' assigned grades only, as well as those exposed to both comments and grade. Harrison and Harlan (2006) in their study on the effect of self/peer assessment strategy on academic achievement of students revealed that this strategy is effective, in facilitating learners' deliberation on a specific exercise or

assignment, their learning methods and enhances thorough rather than superficial learning process.

Assessment for learning has been tested in a number of educational studies and has been found to quite effective in the improvement of learning when it is implemented knowledgeably. Eremina & Reginalds, 2016 in their study on effect of Assessment For Learning on Biology academic achievement of senior secondary students in Rivers State, Nigeria, found that Assessment for Learning strategies are effective in improving and enhancing Biology achievement of students. Specifically, students subjected to use of questioning, comment only marking and self/peer assessment strategies performed better than those subjected to formative use of summative assessment strategy and those in the control group. The study revealed that comment only marking strategy is the most effective in enhancing learning outcomes of students.

2.11 Summary of Reviewed Literature

Literature was reviewed on literature and language, introduction of literature in primary teacher education English curriculum in Kenya, teacher's influence on students' acquisition of proficiency in English language, teacher training on curriculum implementation and development of teacher professionalism through involvement in curriculum development. It was also done on the influence of teacher preparedness in curriculum implementation, teacher utilization of instructional materials in curriculum implementation, the

influence of teaching methodologies on the implementation of curriculum and the role of assessment in curriculum implementation. This sections also provides reviewed literature on theoretical basis and the conceptual framework of the study.

Scholars across the world are unanimous that literature has a plethora of fore deals when it is integrated in English curriculum in an English as second language classroom (ESL) (Butler,2006; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Murry, 2015 & Tehan, Inan-Karagul and Yuksel, 2015). They all assent that introduction and sustenance of literature in an esl context can be a great boon to the learners of English language in acquisition of all the skills on offer. However, much of these works have heavily concentrated on exposing these benefits with little concern for the pedagogical strategies which ought to be deployed by teachers of English to realize these benefits.

2.12 Theoretical Basis of the Study

This study is guided by John Dewey's theory of learning. According to Dewey education should be concerned about the child's experiences in school and in natural environments outside the school (Sikandar, 2015). In the process of learning by experience, Dewey says, the starting point is a particular problem situation, because the problem itself is the provocative element in the experience that calls upon the mind and puts it into operation. In line with this principle, this study emphasizes that the rationale of implementation of integrated

literature is generally the need to impart communicative competence to the learners. Specifically, it is expected that once teacher trainees go through the course, they will better their English language proficiency with resultant benefits in curriculum implementation at primary schools they are posted to teach on completing their training. Dewey views learner's growth as the ability to correlate learning experiences (Gutek, 1997, p.105), an idea addressed in the implementation of integrated literature. Students are required to exploit and apply linguistic concepts learnt in literature in their day to day use of English language either by reading, writing, listening and speaking.

In Dewey's theory, the teacher is an indispensable figure in the process of education as the one who guides and nurtures student's development by providing link between the subject matter and the student's developing experience. He argues that teachers give these experiences value and direction by selecting appropriate stimuli for gaining new experience. So, the intervention and the control of the teacher is an integral part of the educational work, and his experience and maturity are essential in providing normal conditions (Dewey, 1974a, p. 348-349) for the child's development. In agreement with this condition, this study has professional development of teacher trainers as an objective in recognition that they need professional maturity which is mainly contributed to by training in order to effectively implement integrated literature.

According to Dewey, learning processes should be planned considering the aptitude, learners' former experiences and their present experiences. It is the teacher's responsibility to observe the interest of the students as well as the directions they naturally take and then help them to develop problem-solving skills through articulate planning of learning experiences. In this study, inquiry on the planning of lessons as a pedagogical strategy in the implementation of integrated English is an objective. The proposition is that updated, collaborative and strategically-paced lesson plans can aid students in greater achievement in the study of literature.

Acquisition of effective teaching methods is given prominence in this theory. Dewey (1974) refers to teaching methods as the method of an art and asserts that as every artist should be thoroughly acquainted with materials and tools with which he works, so the teacher must be in possession of the methods used by others, which experience has shown to be more efficient in the process of acquiring knowledge. Dewey's method of teaching was based on his pragmatic philosophy-the Pragmatism, and he is of the opinion that direct experience is the basis of all methods. In resonance with this idea, this study critiques the various teaching methods used in literature and argues in favor of more student-centered methods like extensive reading, fast reading, reading vocabulary and participation in literary texts – based debates which could lead to more linguistic benefits for the learner.

To Dewey (1916), reconstruction or reorganization of learning experience adds to the meaning of experience and increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience. Such experiences raise the child's curiosity and hope, and gives him a purpose to carry out school activities. In the context of this study, this principle is addressed through advocacy for continuous assessment of students on the assessment of students on the implementation of integrated literature and more beneficially, analysis and utilization of data emanating from these assessments to inform further implementation.

2.13 The Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework of this study focuses on tutors' pedagogical strategies for implementing integrated literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya as shown in Figure 2.1

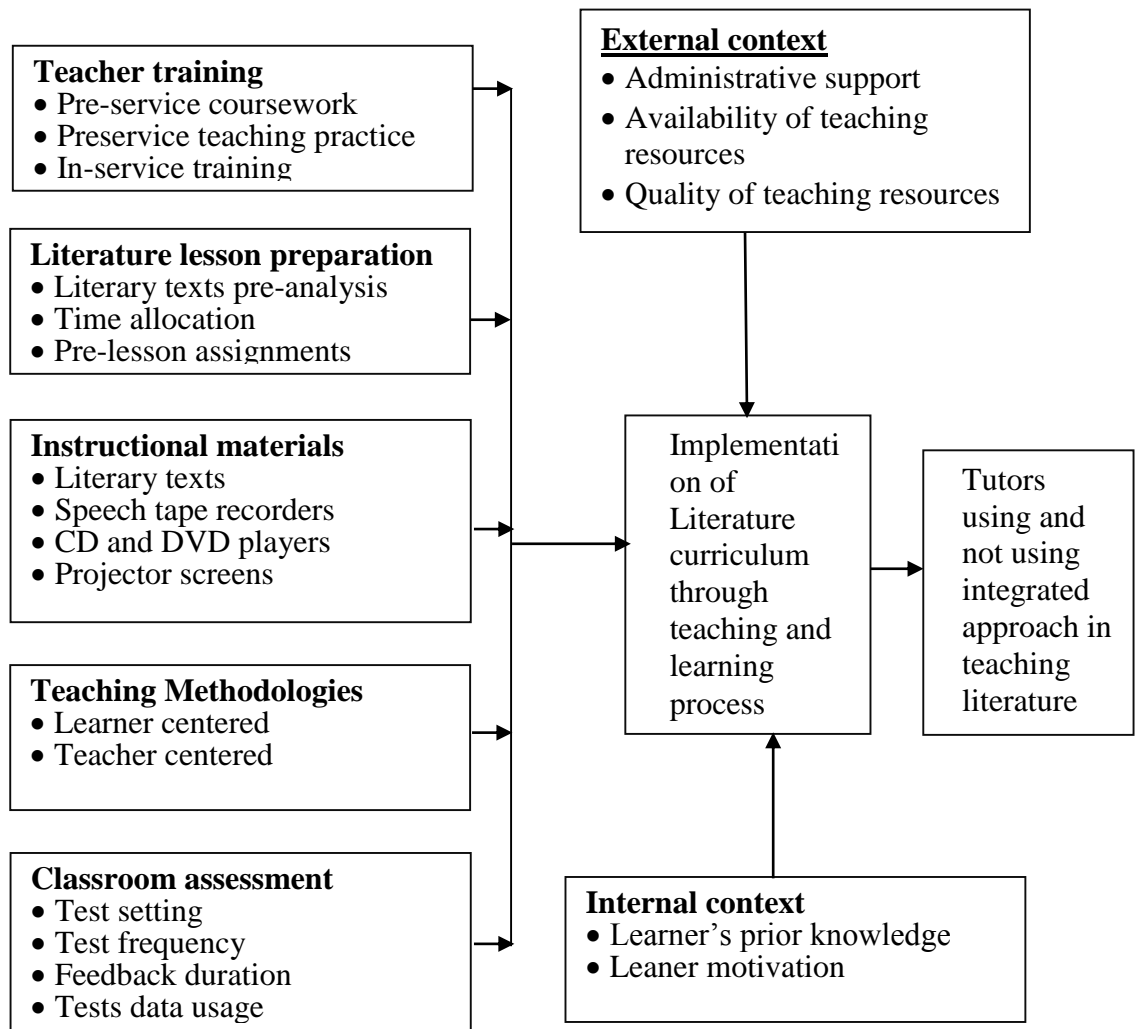


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework representing tutors' strategies in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.

The framework focuses on tutors' strategies for implementing integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The framework shows that once integrated literature program is received from KICD, it is given to tutors whose professional duty is to implement. Tutors are expected to adopt and modify the proposed implementation strategies in their literature lessons. Their implementation of integrated literature is determined by such factors as tutor professional development, literature lesson preparation, instructional materials, teaching methodologies and classroom assessments. It is also influenced by external as well as internal context factors. Interaction of these factors result to users and non-users of integrated literature program among the tutors in public PTTCs in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter entails research design, target population, sample size and sampling techniques as well as research instruments. It will also entail instruments validity, reliability of instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques and ethical issues.

3.2 Research design

The research design adopted for this study was survey research design. According to Kraemer (1991), survey research design enables the researcher to quantitatively describe specific aspects of a given population, collect the required data from people and to select a portion of population from which the findings can later be generalized back to the population. This design was selected for this study because it enables the gathering of demographic data that can be used to describe the composition of the sample (McIntyre, 1999). Data on the age, qualifications and experience of tutors in the implementation of integrated literature gave the nature of the sample the study was dealing with which made it possible to relate responses and make conclusions. The design also makes it possible to study various variables (Bell, 1996). Using the design, the study variables: tutor professional development, tutor literature lesson preparation, utilization of instructional materials, selection of teaching

methodologies and class assessment on literature were studied and generalizations were made based on the findings.

3.3 Target population

The target population for this study comprised of 19 public PTTCs spread in 17 counties in the country. The study targeted the colleges which had implemented integrated literature and presented candidates to KNEC for PTE examinations for at least five years by the year 2015. From these colleges, the study targeted Heads of Subject (HoSs) - English and tutors of literature. The HoSs – English had a supervisory role in the implementation of integrated literature so they could be relied upon to provide the required data for the study. Tutors of literature were also targeted because being the direct implementers of integrated literature, they were expected to possess rich information concerning its implementation. The targeted colleges gave a population of 114 tutors of literature and 19 HoSs - English (TSC, 2015). The respondents comprise those who were in session during the time of the study.

3.4 Sample size and sampling techniques

A sample is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis (Best & Kahn, 1998). By observing the characteristics of a sample, one can make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn as long as the sample is representative of the entire population (Best & Kahn, 1998). Sampling refers to taking a portion of the population or

the universe as a representative of that population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The sample size for this study is shown in table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Sample size for the study

Sample category	Population	Sample size	Percent
Counties	17	16	94.12
HoSs English	19	16	84.20
Tutors of literature	114	64	56.14
Total	150	96	64.00

From table 3.1, the sample size for this study comprised of purposely selected 16 counties across the country. These counties were Meru, Murang'a, Kiambu, Elgeyo Marakwet, Vihiga, Uasin Gishu, Kakamega, Nyeri, Siaya, Machakos, Kitui, Baringo, Kericho, Migori and Mombasa. From the 16 counties, 16 public PTTCs which had not been visited for piloting were chosen for study. In counties with more than public PTTC, only one was randomly selected for the study. From each of the public PTTC selected, the HoS - English was included in the study sample giving a total 16 HoSs English. Four tutors of literature, who had at least five years of experience in the implementation of integrated literature from each visited college were purposely selected with the help of HoS English to participate in the study. This gave a total of 64 sampled tutors

of literature. According to Niles (2006), the sample size ought to be as large as possible in order to minimize margin error.

3.5 Research Instruments

Three research instruments were used in this study for data collection. It used a Questionnaire for Teacher Trainers Teaching Literature (Appendix 2), Interview Schedule for Heads of Subject English (Appendix 3) and A Literature Lesson Observation Schedule (Appendix 4). The content of research instruments was based on the research questions to ensure consistency. The sequence of items in the research followed the sequence of research questions in a logical manner (UNESCO, 2005).

3.5.1 Questionnaire for tutors teaching Literature

A questionnaire was preferred for tutors of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya. A questionnaire made it possible to collect data simultaneously from several of tutors of literature within a short time (Orodho, 2005). It also allowed them sufficient time to consider the questions and provide the required data. Questionnaire for tutors of literature sought to collect data on their experiences, actions and views concerning the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The questionnaire contained two sections namely, part A and Part B. Part A contained 3 questions with 3 items which sought information on tutors' demographic data: gender, highest qualification and the number of years of teaching literature in public PTTCs in Kenya.

Part B sought information on research questions. Questions 1 – 3 contained 20 items on in-servicing of tutors of literature on the teaching of literature. These items sought information on the extent to which the respondent agreed that in-servicing was important for his or her performance in the teaching of literature, whether the respondent had ever been in-serviced on the teaching of literature in public PTTCs and how in-servicing courses had been carried out if at all they were provided. Questions 4 and 5 contained 14 items which sought information on tutors of literature lesson preparation. The focus was on how often a respondent prepared literature lessons, factors influencing his or her literature lesson preparation and preferred strategies in literature lesson preparation.

Questions 6 – 10 consisted of 20 items which sought information on tutors of literature utilization of learning resources in the teaching of literature. The questions were concerned with the tutors of literature opinion on the extent to which their college library was equipped, whether or not literary texts were used to teach English language and the extent to which they were used to teach named linguistic concepts. Information was also sought on how those concepts were taught. The items also focused on search of information on the extent to which the named teaching aids were used in Literature lessons and whether or not the college students read other literature books apart from the set ones.

Questions 11 and 12 were concerned with methodologies used in the teaching of literature. They contained 5 items on the approaches the respondent used in

the teaching of literature. The items also entailed the methods through which respondents ensured participation of students during Literature lessons. Questions 13 – 16 contained 11 items aimed at searching for respondent's response on the issues concerning formal assessment of students on integrated literature. The items sought information on whether or not tutors of literature administered Continuous Assessment Tests (CATs) and the frequency with which tutors utilized the assessment methods in their literature classes. Information was also sought on whether or not tutors of literature designed their class assessments alone or with colleagues. The items also sought information on the ways in which tutors of literature ensured maximum students' participation in the assessment tests, whether or not tutors gave performance remarks on literature tests after marking and how they used assessment data to improve their classroom instructions on literature. Question 17 of the questionnaire sought PTE English examination mean scores posted by public PTTCs in the last 3 years.

3.5.2 Interview Schedule for Heads of Subject English

An interview schedule was preferred for the Heads of Subject (HoSs) English for this study so as to give the respondent deep insights on the topic through researcher's clarifications of the items on the instrument and hence enable him or her to provide the required information. Also due to their busy supervisory roles, it was anticipated that HoSs English may not have luxury of time to provide the required information on their own. An interview schedule also

enabled the researcher to probe more information through request for more details on questions to the respondent, seeking clarity on vague responses and encouraging the respondent to give the required information. The Interview schedule contained nine questions hinged on the research topic and arranged according to the research questions of the study. Questions 1 – 3 sought information on in-service training of tutors of literature in a college.

Questions 4 and 5 were on tutors of literature preparation of Literature lessons while Question 6 and 7 entailed utilization of learning resources in the implementation of integrated literature. Question 8 sought information on the methodologies used to implement integrated literature and question 9 was on the ways in which HoSs English ensured that data emanating from formal assessments on literature was utilized to improve integrated literature implementation.

3.5.3 Observation Schedule for a literature lesson

this study was on curriculum implementation and therefore an observation schedule for the lesson was necessary to see live implementation of integrated literature in the classroom. Literature Lesson observation was done in both first and second years' classrooms. Ten observations were done on second year classes and six on first year classes. The schedule contained 10 areas of observation. These were tutors of literature mastery of the subject matter, involvement of learners in the lesson, systematic presentation approach,

possession and use of lesson notes as well as the use of literary texts to draw lesson examples and illustrations. The researcher also observed tutors' of literature use of instructional media such as tape recorders and videos in the classroom. Class reading of literary texts, relating of the literary story to familiar events and review of the previous lesson was also observed. The observer also observed the tutors' assignments to the students after the lesson.

3.6 Pilot Study

A pilot study is an essential initial step in a research and this applies to all types of research studies (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). A pilot study refers to feasibility studies which are small-scale versions or trial runs done in preparation for the major study (Polit et al. 2001). In a pilot study, methods and procedures to be used in a large scale study are put to test in a small scale (Porta 2008), in order to improve the quality and efficiency of the main study (Hazzi & Maldon 2015). A pilot study enables the researcher to develop and test the adequacy of research instruments, assess the feasibility of a full-scale study or survey and assess the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). In a pilot study, the researcher gets an opportunity to actualise the study in the field on a test scale in order to determine the chances of success of the main study.

The pilot study for this study was conducted in February 2016 in the population which was not included in the main study. According to Baker (1994) and Fisher

et al (2000) cited in Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), 10% of the target population is enough for a pilot study. The target population for this study was 17 counties (those hosting public PTTCs) 19 public PTTCs, 19 HoSs English and 114 tutors teaching literature. From this population, the pilot study was conducted in 2 counties (Meru and Embu), 2 public PTTCs (Meru and St. Mark's Kigari), on 2 HoSs English and 11 tutors teaching literature.

The counties and therefore the HoSs English for the pilot study were purposively selected so as to involve only those colleges which the researcher was very sure had implemented integrated literature in the pilot study. With the help of HoSs English, was able to identify tutors of literature who had participated in the teaching of integrated literature for at least five years. Pilot study was done to enable the researcher examine the feasibility of the intended approach for the main study (Leon et al, 2011). From the results of the pilot study, the researcher modified the research instruments by removing the items which proved complicated for the respondents, adding the missing items for data reliability and improving wording for respondent's understanding. The instruments were then submitted to the University's Department of Educational Administration and Planning as part of the study proposal and the study supervisors approved them before the actual study was carried out.

3.7 Validity of the Research Instruments

Validity is a vital characteristic of research instruments. According to Gregory (1992) and Satterley, (2000) validity is the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure. Researchers use different instruments to collect data. The quality of these instruments is very critical because the conclusions researchers draw are based on the information they obtain using these instruments (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). In this study, content validity: both sampling validity and items validity of the instruments was established before the actual study was carried out. Content validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended area as per the objectives and research questions of the study (Gay et al., 2006). Item validity was concerned with whether items were relevant to the measurement of the intended content area. Sampling validity was concerned with how well the items sampled the total content area being measured.

To ensure validity of the instruments in this study, items in each section of the questionnaire and each item in the interview schedule and observational schedule was constructed to address a particular objective in the study. The instruments were then presented to the supervisors who are specialists in curriculum studies for verification and approval. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), expert advice is suitable and admissible for ascertaining research instrument validity. With the help of the supervisors, any item which was found to be unsuitable was modified or replaced altogether. Pilot study was

also conducted to ensure the content validity of the instruments. After the study, each item on the instruments was examined against the responses given by the participants. Any item which was found to be unclear, ambiguous or irrelevant was revised with the help of the supervisors.

3.8 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability refers to consistency and stability of an instrument and its ability to produce the same results every time it is applied (Kothari, 2008). The most important aspect of reliability is the consistency of scores obtained by the same individuals when re-examined with the same measuring instrument on different occasions, or different but equivalent or parallel instruments on the same or different occasions, or under variable examining conditions (Majumdar, 2005).

Test – retest reliability was applied for quantitative instruments: questionnaire in this study. Test - retest reliability is the degree to which scores on the same test are consistent over time (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). It provides evidence that scores obtained in a test at one time are the same or close to the same when the test is re – administered some other time. Test - retest was applied by administering the questionnaire twice to the respondents two weeks apart. The period between the first and the second testing should neither be too long for extraneous factors to interfere with the variables being measured nor should it be too short for the respondents to remember their first responses and merely repeat them. (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). According to Orodho (2003), the

number of pre - test cases should be 10% of the entire population sample. For this study, two public PTTCs: St Marks - Kigari and Meru were selected for test – retest. From them, two HoSs - English were interviewed and questionnaires administered to six tutors of literature. One observation of literature lesson was also done in each of these colleges. The Pearson *r* formula, which deals with two sets of scores was used to compute the coefficient of correlation between the test and re - test scores using the formula as per (Gay et al., 2006). This gave the reliability coefficient.

Formula

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N\sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N\sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

Where: *r_{xy}* = coefficient of reliability

N = the number of pairs of test and retest scores

∑ = sum of

X = deviation of x measures from assumed mean

Y = deviation of y measures from assumed mean

XY = means multiply x and y where x and y are test and retest scores

From the responses obtained, Pearson Product Moment Formula was used to calculate the coefficient correlation at ±0.5 level of significance in order to establish the extent to which the items in the questionnaires were consistent in

eliciting the same response every time they were administered (internal consistency test). The coefficient was found to be 0.76. This is evidence that the questionnaire yielded data that had high test – retest reliability (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

For qualitative instruments: interview schedule and observation schedule, reliability was observed through critical reflection of methods to be used during interviewing and observation (with the assistance of supervisors) to ensure sufficient depth and relevance of data collection and analysis (Smith & Noble, 2014). It was also guaranteed by inclusion of verbatim description of participants' accounts to support the findings (Long & Johnson, 2000) as well as demonstration of clarity in terms of thought processes during data analysis and subsequent interpretations (Rolfe, 2006).

3.9 Data collection procedures

The research permit for this study was acquired from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Authorization to visit public PTTCs and collect data was then sought from county offices of education across the country. Research assistants were trained on communication etiquette, interviewing procedures and organization and filing of information to assist in data collection. Research assistants were recruited from teachers and teacher trainers most of whom possessed Master's Degrees hence knowledgeable in data collection procedures. The assistant researchers were

then given one-day briefing on the requirements of the study and their role in data collection.

The researcher made prior visits to the target public primary teacher training colleges. Courtesy calls were paid to the college principals and they were briefed on researcher's mission. They then directed the researcher to deans of curriculum who in turn consulted with HoSs English after which arrangements on the appropriate date and time for carrying out the study were made in consideration of tutors' tight schedules. It was also important to make prior arrangements with HoSs English on the appropriate dates for Literature lesson observation because English lessons were utilized for teaching English language or Literature.

Before the administration of the questionnaire for tutors of literature, the researcher introduced himself and explained his mission to them. The questionnaire targeted the tutors of literature who had taught literature in public PTTCs for at least 3 years. The HoSs English helped in identifying them after which the questionnaire was administered. The questionnaire was answered as the researcher waited but in situations where it was difficult to collect the answered copies of the questionnaire the same day, arrangements were made with HoSs English on when and how they could be collected within the week. After administration of questionnaires for tutors of literature, the researcher interviewed the HoSs English in their offices or other convenient places.

The interview had to be paced from questionnaire administration to enable the researcher to concentrate fully on each task. Venues for interviews had to be disruption-free to ensure that the participants focused on the topic under study and freely provided the required information for each question. During the interview, the researcher played the role of a facilitator and guide to the respondent with the aim of probing for as much information as possible from the respondent. Data collection for this study was done in second term before the Second Years began their final examinations and towards First Years' completion of their first year in college. This ensured both groups were thoroughly familiar with literature in Teacher Education Curriculum and would satisfactorily participate in literature lessons during lesson observation. A total of ten and six literature lessons were observed for Second Years and First Years respectively.

Due to their higher level in literature curriculum implementation, Second Years' lessons were expected to have more data to offer to the study with respect to tutor practices and students' response during the lessons. On entry into the classroom, the tutors introduced the researcher and briefly explained his/her reason for the visit. The researcher then greeted the class and took a seat at the back of the classroom. This was important to relieve learners' tension, have a full view of the entire class and create rapport with the learners. As the tutors of literature proceeded with the lesson, the researcher observed and marked the tutors' demonstration of mastery of the subject matter, development of the

lesson, utilization of instructional resources, selection of teaching methodologies and assignment of relevant lesson follow-up work to the students.

3.10 Data analysis techniques

The completed research instruments were checked to ensure completeness and accuracy of the information obtained. Data were then coded appropriately based on the objectives of the study. They were entered in the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Excel Software. Data from instruments was presented in tables, pie charts and bar graphs to allow for data interpretation, conclusions and recommendations as per the, research objectives of the study. Quantitative data were collected using tutors of literature questionnaires concerning their pedagogical strategies towards integrated literature implementation and was analysed through descriptive statistics. The questions that elicited qualitative data were grouped into themes and categories based on research questions and objectives and descriptive statistics used to interpret them.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct this study was sought from NACOSTI, MoEST and public PTTCs' administrations before any respondents were contacted or instrument administered. The researcher made prior visit to the public PTTCs selected for the study to inform them the objectives of the study and that their

colleges had been selected to participate. Modalities of the actual study were then laid with HoSs English proposing the appropriate days when the study could be carried out. During data collection, the respondents were clearly informed that there would be no financial gain emanating from their participation in the study and that their participation was completely voluntary. They were also informed that the study was purely for academic purposes and it would not be used to victimize any of them. The research instruments had no space for respondents' names and they were fully assured of confidentiality of their responses before they participated in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of data analysis, presentation and interpretation. Data analysis is based on study objectives, namely, to establish the tutors' professional development for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya, to analyze the tutors' level of lesson preparation in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya, to establish utilization of literature resources to teach English language at public PTTCs in Kenya, to identify the teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya and to analyze classroom assessment of literature, course at public PTTCs in Kenya.

Analyzed data is presented in tables, pie charts, bar graphs and text. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze quantitative and qualitative data while content analysis were used to analyze some of qualitative data. The interpretation and discussion of the findings was linked to the review of related literature and current practice.

4.2 Return Rate of the Research Instruments

The return rate of the research instruments is the proportion of the reliable research instruments received back from the study to those which were

administered. This exercise involved the evaluation of the research instruments to identify the ones which had blank spaces. The research instruments for this study were: The questionnaire for tutor of literature, interview schedule for heads of subject - English and an observation schedule for a literature lesson. The return rate of the research instruments is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

The return rate of research instruments

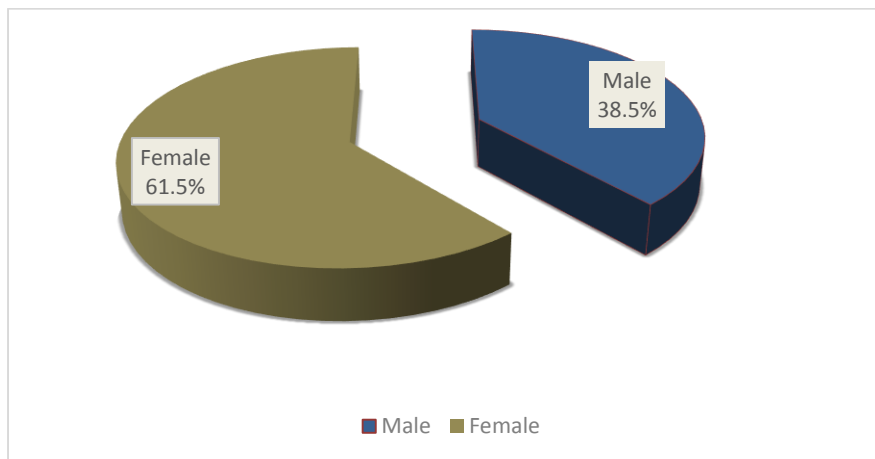
Category	Sample	Returned	Percent
Questionnaire for tutors of literature	64	52	81.3
Interview schedule for HoSs English	16	11	68.8
Observation schedule for literature lessons	16	10	62.5
Total	84	73	86.9

Table 4.1 shows that there was 81.3% return rate of the 52 Questionnaires for tutors of literature distributed. Also from the targeted 16 HoSs for interview, the researcher was able to interview 11 HoSs English (68.8%) and from a target of 16 literature lessons for observation, the researcher observed 62.5% of the lessons. It was possible to achieve 100% observation because in some of the colleges visited, it is English language lessons which were in progress and in

others tutors of literature were absent. According to Kothari (2004), a 60% return rate of research instruments can provide a reliable data for research.

4.3 Background information of the respondents

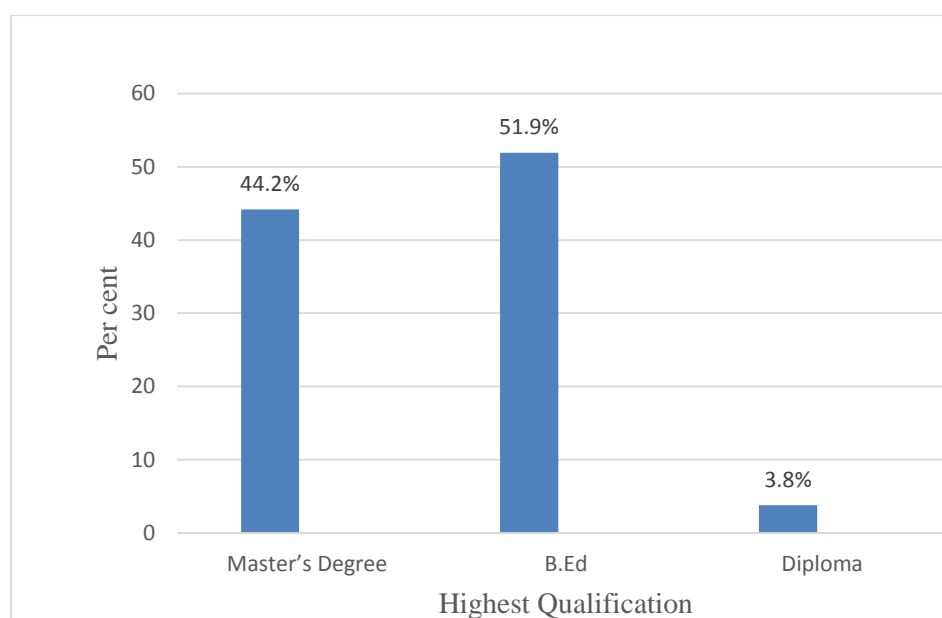
This section entails the analysis of the background information of tutors teaching literature in public Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in Kenya. This analysis was important for gaining insights about the respondents for the study. Teacher trainers' personal characteristics such as the level of highest professional qualifications and years of experience are bound to influence their implementation of curriculum (Hopkins & Ainscow, 1993). Background information of teacher trainers was analyzed on their gender, highest qualification as teacher trainers and years of experience as a teacher trainer teaching Literature in a public primary teacher training college. Figure 4.1 shows the gender of tutors teaching literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.



n = 52

Figure 4.1 Gender of tutors teaching literature at Public Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya

Figure 4.1 shows that from 52 teacher trainers sampled, 61.5% were female while 38.4% were male. This revealed a gender disparity in the staffing of teacher trainers of Literature in public PTTCs in Kenya. The highest qualifications of tutors teaching literature at public PTTCs was sought. The findings are presented in Figure 4.2.



n = 52

Figure 4.2: Highest Qualifications of tutors of literature at Public Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya

From Figure 4.2, out of 52 tutor respondents, 44.2% possessed a Master's degree and 51.9% Bachelor of Education in English and literature (B.Ed). From the figure, majority of tutors had the basic initial qualifications for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya as prescribed by Teachers Service Commission (TSC), the government employer of teachers. The figure shows that the teacher trainers with a Master's degree were almost

at par with those who held a B. Ed. However, interviews with HoSs English revealed that post B.Ed. courses chosen by literature tutors were mostly instigated by their attitudes towards teaching and had had implications in their implementation of integrated literature. Asked why some tutors preferred taking further studies in other fields apart from education or their subjects of specialization, a HoS English responded:

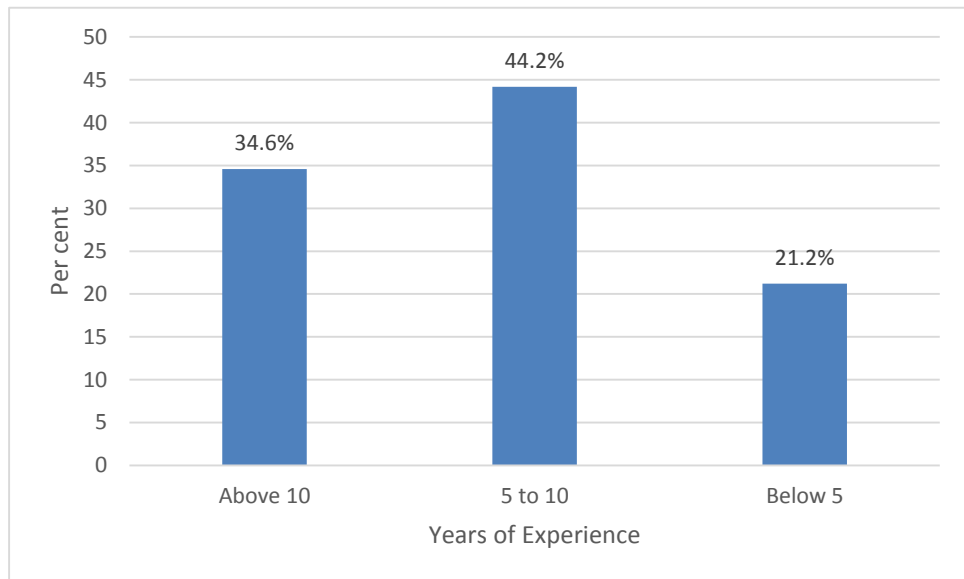
Many of them argue that teaching career is not rewarding due to low pay, long hours of working and heavy workload (A HoS English, February 2016)

HoSs English also observed that in comparison, tutors who had taken further studies in their job-related courses like literature, linguistics or education were more at peace with their teaching career than those who had ventured into other disciplines like business administration, project planning and the like. One of them asserted:

The former expressed more confidence and appeared to be at ease with their college teaching duties and were more likely to be found in college at any one given time. They were also more likely to take voluntary leading roles in college activities whether curricular or co-curricular (A HoS English, February 2016)

Initial and post qualifications of teachers influence their effectiveness in the implementation of curriculum as they dictate the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired and consequent transfer to the classroom (Johnson & Irujo, 2001). The study shows that B.Ed. was a sufficient initial qualification and placed the teacher trainer at the performance path. Post-qualification studies had implications on tutors' attitude towards teaching as it dictated the length of time they expected to stay on the job.

Teacher's experience in the classroom highly contributes to teacher quality, which is very important for students' performance (Bembry, Jordan, Gomez, Anderson, & Mendro, 1998). Teachers who have been in the classroom for long are known to produce better outcomes because they have had a chance to practice their competence with students of various abilities in different contexts. This study sought the experience of tutors teaching literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The findings are represented in Figure 4.3.



n = 52

Figure 4.3: Experience of tutors of literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya

Figure 4.3 shows that 34.6% of the sampled tutors had an experience of more than 10 years teaching literature in public PTTCs and 44.2% possessed 5 – 10 years of experience. This means 78.8% of tutors implementing integrated literature in public PTTCs in Kenya had over 5 years of literature teaching experience. This positions them as reliable implementers of integrated literature and generators of information which can be used by policy makers to better the course.

4.4 Objective (a): The levels of tutor professional development in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

This section entails report on the In-service Education and Trainings (INSETs) of teacher trainers of Literature at public Primary Teacher Training Colleges

(PTTCS) in Kenya. The section will present teacher trainers' level of agreement that in-service education and training on literature was necessary, provision of in-service education and training to teacher trainers of literature, in-service training programs provided to tutors of literature, training techniques used in literature INSET programs, HoSs English responses on the importance of INSET programs on literature, HoSs' English responses on the extent to which tutors of literature were in-serviced and challenges facing provision of INSET programs to teacher trainers of literature.

Data analysis for this section is presented tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. It will also be shown in Figure 4.4.

4.4.1 Tutors' level of agreement that in-service education and training on Literature was necessary

The researcher used Likert-type scale (Likert, 1932) to investigate the tutors' views on the extent to which they viewed teacher trainer in-service education and training on Literature as necessary to them. The results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Tutors' levels of agreement that INSETs on Literature were necessary

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Strongly agree	39	75.0
Agree	10	19.2
Undecided	3	5.8
Disagree	0	0.0
Strongly disagree	0	0.0
Total	52	100.0

n = 52

Table 4.2 shows that out of a sample of 52 teacher trainers 75.0% strongly agreed 19.2% plainly agreed that INSETs were necessary in enhancing their effectiveness in implementing literature. This reveals that without INSETs, tutors felt disoriented and inadequate to effectively confront the challenges associated with teaching and learning of literature in their classrooms. This occasions a routine and defensive teaching and its effects can completely jeopardize the role of literature in the Kenyan PTE English curriculum.

These findings imply that pre-service training given to tutors could not be exclusively relied upon in the implementation of literature. They needed

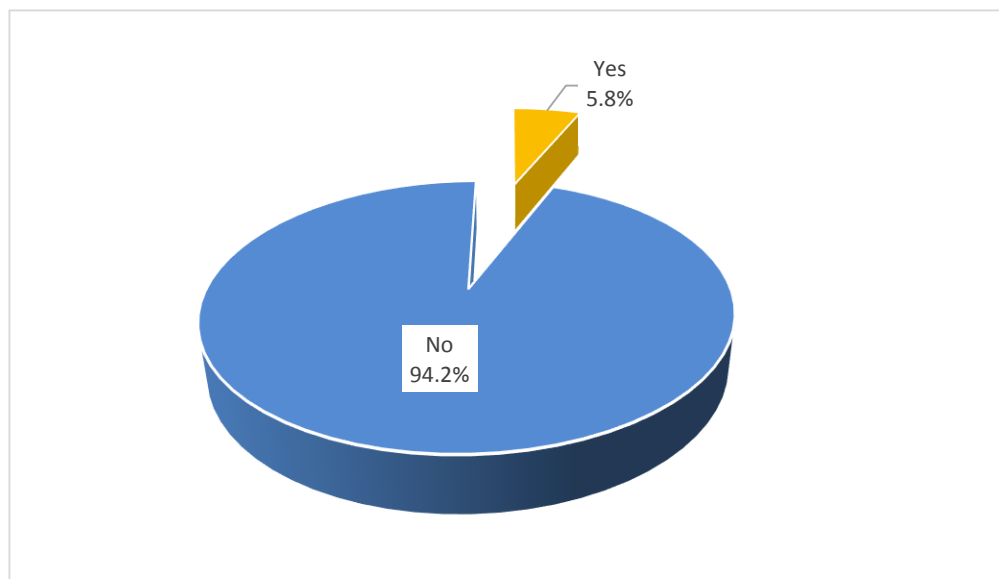
refresher courses to be informed about new innovations in the syllabus, new teaching strategies and appropriate work organization so as to achieve the set objectives. This echoes the assertions of du Plessis and Muzaffar (2010) and Goddard and Leask (1992) that reliance on pre-service teacher education and training in the implementation of curriculum was unproductive. Teacher in-service education and training has been found to be effective in changing teachers' attitudes on the implementation of curriculum.

The findings of Kiringa (2015) on the implementation of HIV and AIDS syllabus in Kenyan primary teacher training colleges revealed that the teacher trainers who attended in-service training changed their attitude towards the implementation of HIV/AIDS syllabus. Positive attitude is critical for all teachers because the amount of learning for any group of students can be equated to the attitude teachers have about the subject matter and the students. Non-provision or inadequate provision of in-service training therefore means that Literature curriculum implementation is bound to suffer ineffectiveness and fail to achieve the set objectives.

4.4.2 Provision of in-service education and training to tutors of literature

The researcher inquired into provision of INSETs on the implementation of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya. Interest was on provision of inset programs to tutors of literature within a period of 3 years prior to the time of the study. Three years within the appropriate period by which teachers can acquire new

knowledge and implement the same in the classroom. According to Jahangir, Shaheen and Kazmi, (2012), teachers who attend in-service training programs on regular intervals perform effectively in their teaching performance level in subject knowledge, classroom management, lesson planning, teaching method and new trends for the evaluation of students' performance. Figure 4.4 shows tutors' responses on whether or not they were provided with in-service training on the teaching of literature in the last 3 years prior to the study.



n = 52

Figure 4.4: Provision of INSETs to literature tutors at public PTTCs in Kenya

Figure 4.4 shows that out of 52 tutors surveyed, a negligible number, 5.8% said they were provided with INSETs but lamented that the programs were largely ad hoc and lacked in appropriate quality which was expected to add to tutors' knowledge on the subject matter and teaching methods. A majority of tutors, 94.2% denied any participation in an INSET program on the implementation of

literature since its inception in 2006. This means, teacher trainers were left on their own devices to implement literature in the way they knew how. The respondents regretted that MoEST and college administrations have given their needs for INSETs a blind eye. This, they said negatively impacted on their classroom performance as it took away their morale and confidence in delivery. Tutors' concerns resonate with those of Mahmood, Gondal, Shah and Saghir (2015). In a study on Pakistan teacher professional development, Mahmood et al (2015) regrets that teachers are only trained before joining the teaching profession because in-service professional training of teachers though present does not work effectively. This makes them fail to reach the international standards in teaching /learning process.

4.4.3 In-service training programs provided to tutors of literature

This study sought information from the tutors of literature on the INSET programs they were provided with to inform their implementation of literature. Only 3 (5.8%) tutor respondents said they had participated in an in-service training program on the implementation of literature. Their responses on the characteristics of INSET programs they participated in are provided in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3**Characteristics of INSET programs provided to teacher trainers on Literature**

Characteristic	Responses	f	%
Frequency of training	Ad hoc	3	100.0
Main organizers	College	2	66.7
	MoEST	1	33.3
Charges(free or paid)	Free	1	33.3
	Paid	2	66.7
Venue (away or within the college)	Away	3	100.0
Duration of training	One day	3	100.0
Topics covered	Book plot	3	100.0

n = 3

From Table 4.3, it is evident that all the 100.0% training programs provided were totally ad hoc. They were irregular, unpredictable and impromptu giving no room to tutors to make prior research on the topics to be covered and avail themselves for the programs in time. This deviates from the views of Ronald (2004) who insists that for INSET programs to bring about the intended changes in behavior and attitude of teachers, they ought to be regular and predictable. Frederick and Stephen (2010) sustain that one step ahead in ensuring effectiveness in curriculum leadership is to involve teachers in a regular learning and development process. National Council for Educational Research and Training ([NCERT], 2016) in India, in their evaluation of in-service training

programs in the country found ad hoc and unevaluated in-service training programs to be ineffective. They recommended proper planning of in-service programs to give room for evaluation which in turn would provide feedback about the strength, gaps and suggestions about the programme for future improvement.

Table 4.3 shows that 66.7% of the INSET programmes were offered away from college environment. During interviews for HoSs English, one of them said:

...workshops provided are mainly a one-day off programmes with no follow-up interventions (A HoS English, February 2016)

Lack of follow-up interventions after in-servicing tutors trivialises the entire training exercise reducing the application of knowledge and skills learnt to option as opposed to compulsory. They viewed this deficiency as having negative implications in their quest to effectively implement the curriculum. Their concerns concur with the conclusion of Woods and Mcquarrie (1999) that school-based in-service training of teachers is more effective because concrete problems faced in the local environment can be raised and teachers can receive immediate feedback on actual teaching. The table also demonstrates that 100.0% of INSET programs provided took only one day and the topic covered was merely book plot discussion. In response to this scenario, HoSs English

termed such trainings as unhelpful to teacher trainers. Their conclusions agree with the assertions of Evans and Popova (2015) that although one-off workshops were quite common in schools, there was no evidence of their effectiveness. Qualitative evidence supports the idea that in order for in-service teacher training program to be effective, it has to have some specific characteristics, such as being connected to practice, intensive and continuous (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

4.4.4 Training techniques used in Literature INSET programs

This study aimed to identify the quality of the INSET programmes provided to teacher trainers of Literature on the implementation of Literature curriculum. To achieve this, teacher trainers were asked to rate their trainers' utilization of each of the given teacher in-service training techniques as either weak, average or strong. The summary of responses is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4**Responses on teacher in-service training techniques used in INSET programmes on Literature curriculum**

	Weak		Average		Strong	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Building on participants knowledge and skills	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0.0
Use of interactive techniques	0	0.0	2	66.7	1	33.3
Participants practice of learnt techniques	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0.0
Involving apathetic trainees	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0.0
Completion of set topic	0	0.0	1	33.3	2	66.7
Use of audio-visual aids	0	0.0	2	66.7	1	33.3
Issue of handouts	2	66.7	1	33.3	0	0.0
Information summary and synthesis	1	33.3	2	66.7	0	0.0

n = 3

Table 4.4, reveals that facilitators offering INSET programs on literature were not keen on building on participants' knowledge and skills 66.7%. Feiman-Nemser (2008), Floden, (2001) and Sprinthall et al. (1996) advocate for Adult-oriented models of active learning in Continuing Professional Development (CPD) of teachers. Adult-oriented models are generally most effective when new skills are built on teachers' previous knowledge and skills (Mezirow,

1991). These models combine theoretical and practical knowledge acquisition, skill demonstration, and hands-on practice, learning-by-doing (Feiman-Nemser et, al., 2008). According to Schwille and Dembélé, (2007) teacher CPD programs should be shaped by data about teachers' capabilities and their students' performance.

The respondents also pointed out that facilitators were weak in allowing participants to practice learnt techniques 66.7%, eliciting participation from apathetic trainees 66.7% and giving handouts to participants 66.7%. This offends the principles of training: creating awareness and instilling ability to practice. According to Baker and Smith (1999), good teacher training must be guided by concrete and realistic goals. LePage et al. (2005) contend that classroom management skills can be better built through an apprenticeship approach involving modelling, coaching and scaffolding, supplemented with didactic instruction in basic concepts and skills, structured classroom observations, use of case materials and simulation exercises.

4.4.5 HoSs' English responses on the importance of INSET programs on Literature

To gather data on the views of supervisors on literature course implementation, the study sought the views of HoSs English on their perception of the importance of INSET programs to tutors of literature. Table 4.3 shows HoSs'

English views on the importance of in-servicing tutors on the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.

Table 4.5

HoSs' English responses on the importance of INSET programs to teacher trainers implementing Literature in public PTTCs in Kenya

Response	Frequency	Per cent
Improvement of teaching methods in Literature	9	81.8
Acquisition of new literature teaching skills	5	45.5
Impact technological skills in teaching Literature	2	18.2
Literature knowledge sharing opportunity for TTTLs	4	36.4
Broaden tutors' knowledge on the subject matter	3	27.3

n = 11

Table 4.5 shows that out 11 HoSs English interviewed, majority, 81.8% felt that INSETs were important in that they led to the improvement of teaching methods in literature while 45.5% felt that INSETs assisted tutors implementing literature to acquire new literature knowledge and skills. These findings concur with views of Udoh (2014) who argue that in-service training to workers in well-managed organisation is aimed at making the workers to acquire new skills and knowledge, increase their level of productivity and in turn contribute to the attainment of the organizational goals. Some of the respondents, 36.4% held the view that INSETs provided tutors of literature with an opportunity to share knowledge on literature with their counterparts from other colleges, a paltry

18.2% felt that INSETs were effective in imparting technological skills to participants on the implementation of literature course while 27.3% observed that INSETs broadened tutors' knowledge on literature subject matter.

The general response among HoSs English was that INSET programs on Literature have numerous expertise-inculcating benefits to teacher trainers and this would to a large extent translate to teacher trainees' more learning. Although Cohen and Hill (2000) contend that professional development of teachers has small impact on students' achievement level, the findings of the study resonates with Wayne et al., (2008); and Vegas and Petrow, (2008) that teacher training should lead to student learning. A study by Abong'o (2013, in Karachuonyo district, Kenya, found that teachers of Biology who had consistently attended SMASSE INSET programs had increased the number and quality of Biology experiments.

4.4.6 HoSs' English responses on the extent to which tutors of Literature were in-serviced

Data were also analyzed to reveal the extent to which HoSs English felt that tutors implementing literature under their supervision were in-serviced. Asked if tutors implementing literature in their colleges were in-serviced, a HoS English responded:

Not at all! There has never been any workshop on teaching literature since its inception in 2006 (A HoS English, February 2016)

The stated HoSs' English confessions were catastrophic in the implementation of literature course in public PTTCs in Kenya. They were disconsolate that many a times they felt inadequate to satisfactorily address the concerns of tutors regarding the teaching of literature due to lack of updated knowledge on subject matter and teaching strategies. They heaped blame on KICD for failure to entrench mechanisms of ensuring that curriculum is not only being implemented but more importantly implemented appropriately. In extended verbatim with the researcher, HoSs reported that their desire to organize even internal workshops had not been successful as the college administrations complained of inadequate funds, tutors did not take them seriously and themselves they felt inadequate as far as organization and facilitation of such forums was concerned.

For the minority who reported that their tutors of literature had been trained on the job, majority 27.7% confirmed that it was through internally organized workshops that they replenished the skills of their colleagues. Table 4.6 shows HoSs' English responses on whether or not their tutors of literature had been provided with INSET programs.

Table 4.6

HoSs' English responses on the extent to which tutor implementing literature were in-serviced

Response	Frequency	Percent
INSET provided by MoEST, KNEC and book publishers	2	18.2
INSETs through college organized workshops	3	27.3
No INSETs at all	6	54.5

n = 11

Table 4.6 shows that a negligible number of HoSs English 18.2% reported that teacher trainers implementing Literature in their departments were in-serviced by MoEST, KNEC and book publishers. Another small number of HoSs English 27.3% reported to have organized own-INSET programs within the colleges through discussion forums, seminars and workshops. However, the majority of HoSs English interviewed 54.5% reported that they had not had an INSET program on Literature, whether externally or internally organized. Non-provision of in-service training of teacher trainers is to a large extent to blame for teacher trainer lack of tact in curriculum implementation.

In the Literature lessons observed in this study, 45.5% of them had teacher trainers who began their literature lessons without revising the previous ones. Many students were taken aback at the beginning of the lessons. Many looked

stranded (gaping at the teacher trainer) or turning pages of their books, an indicator that they were struggling to find a relationship between what the teacher trainer was teaching and what was taught previously. It was found that 63.6% of the lessons observed had tutors who demonstrated adequate mastery of the subject matter and majority of them 45.5% also made a systematic presentation of the lesson. This was encouraging but it cannot reliably be taken to mean teacher trainer competence because interviews with HoSs English revealed that they had taught literature with the same books for ten years and therefore they had mastered the content.

In majority of the lessons observed 54.5% tutors adequately involved students in their literature lessons. This was due to the fact that students had read books in advance and had worthwhile material to contribute. They repeatedly responded, added and commented on the topic concepts as the lesson progressed. HoSs English said that lack of INSET programs also had negative implications in their supervisory roles as they themselves required updates on the current demands and expectations of the literature course so that they could be more productive in guiding the tutors. Their worries correspond with conclusion of Hsiao et al., (2008); Sunardi, Widyarini, and Tjakraatmadja, (2012); Angrist and Lavy, (2001); Mason, O'Leary, and Vecchi, (2012) that training has the potential to increase productivity.

From the 2 HoSs English who reported that their teacher trainers of literature attended INSET programs organized outside the college by either MoEST, KNEC or book publishers, all of them 100% agreed that the INSET programs were ad hoc hence prospective participants did not prepare for training. Of the 3 HoSs English who reported that they organized their own college-based workshops and seminars 66.7% reported that they organized them only when a need arose. These needs ranged from declining students' mean scores in English, difficulty in understanding literature set books by tutors to within-college student symposiums on literature. Britton Paine, Pimm, and Raizen, (2003) argue that preservice teacher education and in-service teacher professional development programs should be designed as a whole, a continuum of learning that starts with preservice education includes periods of school-based inquiry and practice teaching; continues into an induction/mentoring period of introduction into full-time teaching.

4.4.7 Challenges facing provision of INSET programs to tutors of literature

This study sought to establish the challenges facing provision of INSET programs to tutors of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya. Through interviews, the HoSs English were probed on the challenges. Table 4.7 shows HoSs English responses.

Table 4.7

HoSs English responses on the challenges facing provision of INSET programs to teacher trainers implementing Literature

Response	Frequency	Percent
Non-provision of INSETs by MoEST	8	72.7
LTTS' refusal to attend INSETs	1	9.1
Non-Provision of college organized INSETs	2	18.2
Commitment of LTTs to college organized INSETs	2	18.2
Inadequate time to organize college based INSETs	2	18.2
Lack of organizational and facilitation skills for internal INSETs	4	36.4
Lack of finances to facilitate college based INSETs	2	18.2
Non-separation of English from Literature	1	9.1
Lack of information on INSETs	1	9.1

n = 11

From table 4.7, out of 11 HoSs English who were interviewed, the majority, 8 (72.7%) felt that the greatest challenge to provision of Literature INSET programs to teacher trainers was MoEST's failure to organize and facilitate those programs. They felt that INSET programs were so crucial, owing to their potential to raise teacher trainers' professionalism and could not be left in the hands of non-experienced volunteers or unpredictable organizations. The respondents' views are buttressed by the assertions of Adesina (1998), who saw

in-service training as an avenue where non-professionals could actually become professionals. Kennedy in Tom (2010) and Nkang (2002) asserted that retraining means receiving in-service education which implies exposing an individual to further teaching and practice after the initial training so as to increase their effectiveness by updating their knowledge and skills in their technical areas. In-service training thus complements initial training by giving practicing teachers an avenue for acquiring and accumulating more knowledge as well as grasping and utilizing more applicable strategies necessary for implementation of curriculum at hand.

For the internally organized INSET programs within the colleges, 36.4% of HoSs English felt that lack of organizational and facilitation skills was a serious setback which discouraged many them and barred some tutors from participating. Their feelings correspond with those of Knowles, Holton and Swanson (2005) who insist that the quality of trainers is crucial to teacher learning, just as the quality of teachers is crucial to student learning. Of the 11 interviewed HoSs English, 18.2% were unanimous that non-provision of within-the-college INSET programs, non-commitment of teacher trainers to college-organized INSET programs, inadequate time to organize college-based INSET programs on literature and lack of finances to organize college-based INSET programs was a major stumbling block to in-service training.

Minority of HoSs English 9.1% felt that teacher trainers' refusal to attend INSET programs, non-separation of literature from English language and lack of information on INSET programs jeopardized the provision of literature INSET programs to teacher trainers. Bourgeois and Nizet (1997) postulate that INSET programs are important in equipping teachers with knowledge so that they can evaluate their own progress towards their teaching goals. To have a greater impact on teacher professionalism, Villegas-Reimers (2003) states that subject-specific pedagogy is likely to be the most effective, as different subjects require radically different pedagogies.

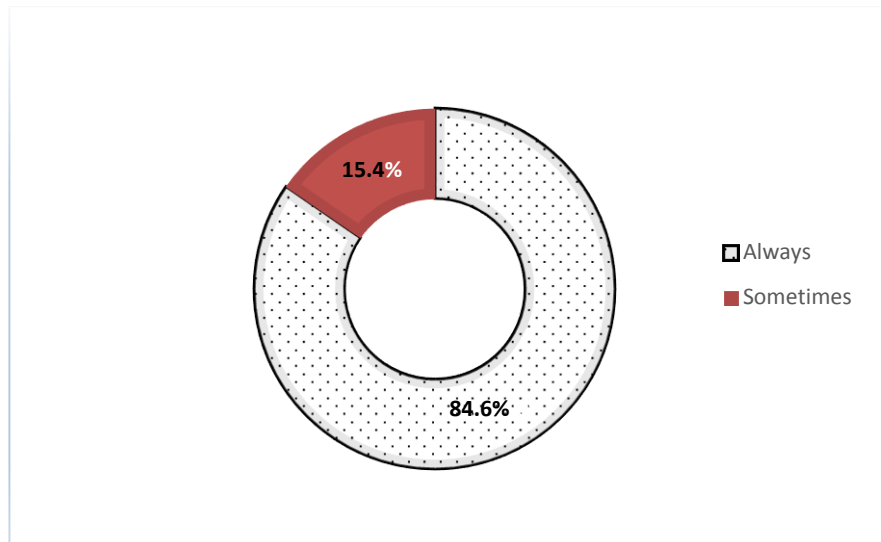
In summary, the piecemeal and haphazard retraining of tutors of literature as found in this section to a large extent rolls back the envisaged gains in the implementation of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya. The responses of tutors of literature imply that they were ready to attend INSET courses even on termly basis provided the programs were effective enough to address the challenges they were facing in their classrooms. Interviews with HoSs English exposed their continued sink into despondency if their concerted clamor for INSETs is not heeded. They said INSETs could give them a clear road map on how to guide tutors and inform them about the products to anticipate from literature implementation process. Observation of literature lessons in the classrooms were informative that with INSET programs, tutors could demonstrate more competence in introduction and development of their lessons leading to greater realization of the set objectives.

4.5 Study objective (b): Tutor preparedness in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

This section concerns the study findings on analysis of tutor preparedness in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. Teacher preparedness in lesson delivery is a vital component of teacher effectiveness. In line with Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003), who in a study with 60,000 students concluded that the teacher is probably the single most important factor affecting student achievement, teacher preparedness can solve most of classroom problems associated with learning. In this section the study sought information on teacher trainers and HoSs English on literature lesson preparation. It entails the extent of tutor literature lessons preparation, factors influencing tutor literature lesson preparation, tutor literature lessons preparation strategies, HoSs English ways of ensuring tutor prepare literature lessons and the challenges facing tutors' preparation of literature lessons. Data for this section is analyzed in Tables 4.8, 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11. It will also be presented in Figure 4.5.

4.5.1 The extent of tutors of literature lessons preparation

Information was sought from teacher trainers on the extent to which they prepared literature lessons. The findings are presented in Figure 4.5.



n = 52

Figure 4.5: Tutors' extent of Literature lessons preparation

Figure 4.5 shows that out of 52 teacher trainers surveyed, majority of teacher trainers 44 (84.6%) always prepared their Literature lessons while 8 (15.4%) did it sometimes. In the 11 literature lessons observed, 45.5% had tutors with notes which they utilized during the lesson while in 27.3% the usage was average. In an interview with HoSs English, the researcher probed for information as to why some tutor did not utilize notes during the lesson. One of them responded:

Literature set books have not been changed for ten years and therefore many tutors feel that they mastered almost everything in those books (A HoS English, February 2016).

According to HoSs English non-change of literature set books for a long time made tutor apathetic to literature lessons. To many, it is the same content to the students of the same level so it should be taught the same way. New set books according to them could get tutors back to their preparation desks, an endeavor which could bring them face to face with literary concepts they had all along ignored, a plus in their effectiveness. The study found that majority of teacher trainers took Literature lessons preparation as an important task. Asked what literature lessons preparations involved, a HoSs English responded:

Literature lesson preparation involved pre-plan of lesson content, prior reading of literary texts, lesson notes - making and allocation of time for each specific content (A HoS English, February 2016).

This agrees with the opinion of Borich (2007) who views teachers as deciders of form and content in their instruction, such as how much presenting, questioning, and discussing to do; how much material to cover in the allotted time; and how in-depth to make their instruction. Lesson preparation, which involves breaking down a unit into smaller topics and sub-topics (Okai, 2010) is a vital component of teacher effectiveness. Taruvinga and Moyo (2000) point out that a lesson plan supplies guidance and feelings of confidence to the teacher in the art of teaching.

4.5.2 Factors influencing tutors' literature lesson preparation

Learner achievement is the driving force in curriculum implementation. Learning has nothing to do with what the teacher covers but what the student accomplishes (Wong, 2009). Factors such as time allocation, learner ability, learning materials, learning objectives, lesson topic, other teachers' views, student assessment data and the type of the lesson influence teacher preparation of lessons. Using Likert five- point scale, the study sought information from tutors on the extent to which various factors influenced their preparation of literature lessons. The results are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8**The extent to which various factors influenced teacher trainers Literature lesson preparation**

Factor	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Times allocation	30	57.7	9	17.3	5	9.6	6	11.5	2	3.8
Learns ability	15	28.8	18	34.6	11	21.2	6	11.5	2	3.8
Learning materials	21	40.4	16	30.8	7	13.5	6	11.5	2	3.8
Learning objectives	24	46.2	10	19.2	4	7.7	12	23.1	2	3.8
Lesson topic	13	25.0	12	23.1	10	19.2	16	30.8	1	1.9
Other TTTLs views	1	1.9	10	19.2	14	26.9	25	48.1	2	3.8
Students assessment data	9	17.3	11	21.2	9	17.3	19	36.5	4	7.7
Type of the lesson	15	28.8	14	26.9	9	17.3	12	23.1	2	3.8

n = 52

From Table 4.8 it is evident that out of 52 teacher trainers surveyed, time allocation 57.7% almost always, 17.3% often and 9.6% sometimes influenced tutors' preparation of literature lessons. This shows that an overwhelming majority 84.6% of tutors considered the time allocated for each lesson as an important determinant of what to teach at any given time. They tend to agree with Wong and Wong (2009), who sustains that time management is key in creating a relaxed and pleasant classroom environment in which an effective lesson can occur. In the discussion of Turkish educational practices, Cicek and Tok (2015) asserted that a teacher should plan time well because time is the only quality that is the same for all students unlike the physical conditions, students' intellect, their age and socio-economic status.

Majority of teacher trainers said they considered the learners' ability in preparation of Literature lessons with 28.8% saying it almost always influenced them, 34.6% often and 21.2% sometimes. Only 11.5% and 3.8% reported that learners' ability seldom and never respectively influenced their Literature lessons' preparations. The enactment of plans that take account of learner differences are very important in contemporary school teaching, touching on questions of personalization and inclusion of pupils with additional needs, including those with special educational needs (Patterson, 2007; Booth & Ainscow, 2011).

Learning materials were found to have a high influence on tutors of literature, Literature lessons preparation with 40.4% almost always and 30.8% often putting them into consideration. Learning objectives were considered by 46.2% almost always and 19.2% often as an important factor in lessons preparation. Objectives are critical to effective instruction, because they help instructors plan the instructional strategies and activities they will use, including the materials and resources to support learning. However, a considerable number of tutors, 23.1% reported that they seldom considered learning objectives in their preparation of literature lessons which points to a remarkable deficiency in lesson delivery. Sepešiová (2015), sustains that planned work is always much more effective than unplanned work thus the most important thing to do while planning is to identify (and consider) the aims and objectives of learning.

Lesson topics were found to greatly influence tutors in their preparation of literature lessons with 25.0% tutors saying they almost always considered them, 23.1% often and 19.2% sometimes. However, almost a third of tutors surveyed 30.8% observed that they seldom considered lesson topics as a factor in their preparation of literature lessons. This means that a third of tutors implementing literature did not practice differentiated instructions according to specific topics from time to time. Barroso and Pon (2004) uphold that the information to be presented to the learners in each lesson is the key determinant of learning activities, instructional aids and teacher approach. The influence of other tutors' opinions appeared to have little influence with three quarters, 26.9% and 48.1%

saying they sometimes and seldom respectively, considered them in their preparation of literature lessons. Majority of tutors, 75.0% were found to be lone rangers in their teaching of literature consequently missing out on the professional benefits derived from collaborative links with colleague tutors. Higher levels of teacher collaboration are associated with improvement in teacher performance and students' achievement (Ronfeldt, Farmer, McQueen, & Grissom (2015). Literature review by Brownell, Yeager, Rennells, and Riley (1997) reveals that collaboration among school professionals can be developed and sustained, and positive outcomes such as shared vision for student learning and teaching are shown both for students and teachers.

On consideration of students' assessment results on preparation of literature lessons, more than half of surveyed tutors were either sometimes 17.3%, seldom 36.5% or never 7.7% considering them in their preparation of literature lessons. This poses the question: assessment for what purpose? The results of student assessment should always count in strategizing and re-strategizing of class instructions. In an experiment with Arizona and Texas students, Grant and McTighes, (1998) conclude that when teachers failed to take time to think through the ways in which their students would demonstrate mastery of standards (to avoid past pitfalls), their lessons often undershoot the mark, featuring simplistic or unrelated explanations and activities.

The type of the lesson for example discussion of themes, text characterization or employed literary style was found to have a lot of influence on tutors' preparation of literature lessons with more than 70.0% of the tutors surveyed answering in the affirmative: almost always 28.8%, often 26.9% and sometimes 17.3%. This approach forms an appropriate basis for literary text analysis especially the novel and short stories. Guiding students to dissect a literary text along the main dimensions of themes, characterization and style places them at the path of literature appreciation and the attendant benefits of linking book context to their own experiences accrue. This enables them to relate the events in literary books to their own situations thus grasping linguistic concepts evident in the text. Their practices agree with the assertions of Barroso and Pon (2005) that the topic derives the lesson objective or desired results—the concepts and ideas that learners are expected to develop and the specific knowledge and skills that learners are expected to acquire and use at the end of the lesson.

4.5.3 Tutors' literature lessons preparation strategies

The study inquired into the frequency with which tutors practiced various lesson preparation strategies in their preparation of literature lessons. The tested lesson preparation strategies were group-work activities, lesson continuous adjustments, lesson-ongoing review and reflection on lesson effectiveness. Likert's rating scale, Almost always, Often, Sometimes, Seldom and Never was used for testing. The question was responded to by 52 teacher trainers teaching Literature. The r responses are analyzed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

The frequency of lesson preparation strategies by teacher trainers on literature lessons

Lesson preparation strategy	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Group related activities	28	53.8	16	30.8	7	13.5	1	1.9	0	0.0
Lesson continuous adjustment	9	17.3	26	50.0	12	23.1	5	9.6	0	0.0
Lesson ongoing review	9	17.3	14	26.9	21	40.4	5	9.6	3	5.8
Reflection on lesson effectiveness	9	17.3	20	38.5	18	34.6	4	7.7	1	1.9

n = 52

From Table 4.9 group-related activities were a quite practiced lesson preparation strategy with 53.8% saying they always practiced it. Emphasis on group-related activities in literature especially discussions on how writers tackle themes in their works is an effective learning activity in ESL classrooms. In his study on Kilifi county, Kenya on the cultural practices hindering the mastery of English language in primary and secondary schools, Kisaka (2015) recommends inclusion of tutorials, group presentations, and discussions as methods of teaching English language especially when students are split into small manageable groups. The use of continuous lesson adjustments in literature lessons was average with 17.3% of tutors reporting that they always practiced it and 50.0% saying they practiced it very often. Those who were found to sometimes use it were 23.1%.

Adjustments of lessons according to students' ability and time allocated was found to have 90.4% prevalence. The practice brings out tutors of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya as hands-on practitioners keen on lesson effectiveness. If this practice could be coupled with differentiated instruction (giving each pupil instructional attention according to their ability), which was found to lack in literature classrooms at public PTTCs, then greater benefits in the implementation of literature can be reaped. Their practices are in line with the assertions of Mundy (2008) who views the teacher as the most critical participant in an educational reform, particularly in one that touches on what goes on in the classrooms. Lessons on-going review as a preparation strategy

were found to be used by majority of tutors teaching literature. Those found to be using it always were 17.3%, 26.9% very often and 40.4% sometimes. From data collected, 84.6% of tutors were actively factoring in lessons review in their literature lessons' preparation to allow more time for masterly and practice of concepts. In literature for English language contexts, this is an encouraging trend because as postulated by Cummins (2006), language learning requires a lot of exposure and teachers of English are faced with the sole burden of helping learners develop competence in English within limited time in their lessons (Anyiendah, 2017). On the reflection on the effectiveness of the lessons, majority of tutors responded in the affirmative with 17.3% reporting that they always did so, 38.5% very often practiced it and 34.6% saying they sometimes reflected on their lessons' effectiveness. From these results, it can be appreciated that owing to their desire for effectiveness, 90.4% of tutors implementing literature had time to think about the effectiveness of the teaching strategies they were applying, hence making informed decisions on remedial teaching.

4.5.4 HoSs English ways of ensuring tutors prepare literature lessons

Preparation of lessons is an effort-demanding task. Therefore, the researcher through an interview probed information from 11 HoSs English on the ways in which they ensured teacher trainers prepared their Literature lessons. Table 4.10 shows the interview results on this question.

Table 4.10

HoSs English interview responses on ways to ensure tutors prepare lessons on literature

Response	Frequency	Percent
Provision of readily prepared schemes of work	7	63.6
Provision of readily prepared teaching notes	4	36.4
Provision of literature resources materials	3	27.3
Encouragement of teacher trainers	1	9.1
Checking of teacher trainers' records	7	63.6

n = 11

Table 4.10 shows that provision of readily prepared schemes of work by HoSs English 63.6% and checking of tutors' records 63.6% were the most prevalent ways in which HoSs English ensured that tutors prepared their literature lessons. Provision of literature resource materials as well as encouragement of tutors to prepare their lessons ranked low: 27.3% and 9.1% respectively on HoSs' English check strategies on literature lessons' preparation by teacher trainers. Provision of readily prepared schemes of work to tutors, 63.6% and even worsening it with provision of readily prepared teaching notes 36.4% is tantamount to making the tutor a mechanical instrument in the classroom and shatters the idea of inclusivity and diversity in the consideration of the learners' learning needs. Asked why they did so, one of the HoSs English responded:

The syllabus is the same. Implementing the same scheme of work will help in uniform syllabus coverage and systematic monitoring of the work covered (A HoS English, February 2016).

Although it might be argued that schemes of work merely give the course outline, it is important to note that it includes selection of content and learning activities against time allocated for each period of instruction. Hands-on-preparation of the schemes of work by the very teachers who will implement them enables them to be thoroughly conversant with the planned content and the strategies which can bring about learning during the lesson in consideration of learners' differences. From the work of Ralph Tyler (1949), a credible lesson preparation strategy begins with specification of specific learning objectives, and selection and organization of learning experiences (John, 2006; & Zazkis, Liljedahl & Sinclair, 2009).

Encouragement of learners to prepare their lessons, was found to be very rare among HoSs English as a strategy for ensuring that literature tutors prepare their lessons. A mere 9.1% of the HoSs English were in its favor. Encouraging a colleague towards a goal is the first step in team-building and this cannot be more beneficial to any other practice than pedagogy. The trend shows that person to person collaboration between HoSs English and tutors under their supervision was not a very popular commitment. This is one sign of a widened

gap between supervisors and workers and it can be detrimental particularly in curriculum implementation where goals-oriented consultations should be an ongoing activity given the mutating myriad of instructional challenges in the classrooms. Wesley and Buysse, (2004), King, et al., (2009) and Trepanier-Street, (2010) assert that the support of professionals in several different fields may be required for children to thrive in inclusive settings

Teachers ought to personally take charge of their own work; from learner learning needs assessment to evaluation because the learning abilities and needs for each category of learners vary. Planning of learning activities ought to be done with all children in mind (Booth & Ainscow, 2011). Florian and Black-Hawkins' (2011) advocate for creating learning opportunities that are sufficiently made available for everyone; extending what is ordinarily available for all learners. This is as opposed to using teaching and learning strategies that are suitable for most alongside something 'additional' or 'different' for some who experience difficulties; and focusing on what is to be taught (and how) rather than who is to learn it." Teachers in England, regardless of what stage they have achieved in their career, are expected to "adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils" (DfE, 2013).

4.5.5 The challenges facing tutors' preparation of literature lessons

The study sought information from the HoSs English on the challenges facing tutors during literature lessons preparation. During interviews, HoSs English

were requested to give various issues which they thought were impediments to tutors' preparation of literature lessons in their colleges. The interview responses are shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

The HoSs' English responses on the challenges facing tutors' preparation of literature lessons

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Absence of tutors in subject meetings	3	27.3
Tutors' non commitment to planning	5	45.5
Student lack of necessary literature resource books	6	54.5
Lack of audio-visual resources	3	27.3
Inadequate training of teacher trainers on Literature	7	63.6

n = 52

Table 4.11 shows that the greatest challenge to tutors' preparation of literature lessons was inadequate training of tutors' on literature implementation, 63.6%, students' lack of necessary literature resource books 54.5% and tutors' non commitment to planning 45.5%. HoSs English opined that lack of continuous, sufficient and relevant up to date training on literature implementation made tutors to view teaching as routine with nothing new to aim for as they plan. Planning and re-planning based on previous performance gives teachers an opportunity to explore the subject matter more deeply and select instructional approaches more critically for greater outcomes. Scholars like (Hsiao et al.,

2008; Sunardi, Widyarini, and Tjakraatmadja, 2012; Angrist and Lavy, 2001; Mason, O’Leary, and Vecchi, 2012), submit that training has the potential to increase productivity. However, qualitative evidence supports the idea that in order for in-service teacher training to be effective, it has to have some specific characteristics, such as being connected to practice, intensive enough, linked to incentives, and continuous (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

A HoS English said:

It is rare to find tutors in colleges during off-class hours and even when they are there, they are rarely found reading literature... are normally busy with other things (A HoS English, February 2016).

This verbatim explains tutors’ non commitment to planning of literature lessons. Planning of lessons is a professional task which requires investment of not only intellect and resources but also time. Teachers investment of time to his instructional duties has definite benefits for the students entrusted to his/her care because instructional plans play a central role in teaching and creating effective learning environments (Shaulson, 1983 cited in Koszalka et al., 1999). Tutors’ disinterest in reading literature can also be a consequence of dearth of interesting, relevant and quality literature texts in colleges. According to HoSs English, lack of relevant resource books on literature led to tutor non-preparation or under preparation of literature lessons. This was further complicated by non-change of literature set books. The study found that the set

books: novel, play and anthology of short stories which were being used had been unchanged for ten years. Most of the teacher trainers had taught literature using them for those ten years and could not see the use of fresh preparation.

Teacher preparation of lessons as the first step in a teaching process is a crucial undertaking. It gives the teacher an opportunity to not only grasp but also internalize the teaching content as well as devise the best methods for its implementation so as to benefit the students. Preparation also gives teachers ample opportunity to carefully select and explore teaching and learning materials so as to gain a firm grip of the topic. Further, preparation allows for necessary adjustments in approach based on students' past performance in related topics and sections. There needs to be an equilibrium between the demands of curriculum under implementation and the status of students to be taught. Consideration of students' varying learning needs enables the teacher to offer differentiated instructions. Organization and deployment of teaching strategies which can rhyme with students' abilities are all products of good lesson planning and have innumerable benefits to the learners.

4.6 Study objective (c): Extent of utilization of instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature

This section is on the extent to which teacher trainers implementing integrated literature curriculum in public PTTCs in Kenya utilize relevant instructional materials. Instructional materials are the different teaching aids or apparatus

which a classroom teacher employs to facilitate his or her teaching for the achievement of stated learning objective (Nwike & Catherine, 2013). Utilization of literature instructional materials is a critical factor in the implementation of integrated literature especially in ESL context. In this situation, teachers are expected to take advantage of literary content and utilize it to impart linguistic skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. The section comprises findings on the extent to which public PTTCs' libraries were equipped with literature resource books, the extent to which literature is utilized to teach English language, use of teaching apparatus in the implementation of integrated literature, students' reading of other literary books apart from the set ones and the challenges facing utilization of instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature. Data on this section are analyzed in Tables 4.12,4.13, 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16. it is also presented in Figures 4.6 and 4.7

4.6.1 The extent to which public PTTCs' libraries are equipped with literature resource books

Information was sought from tutors in public PTTCs on the extent to which they agreed that their libraries were adequately equipped with literature resource books. Likert five-scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree was used. The analysis of the responses is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.12

Teacher trainers' responses on the extent to which libraries are equipped with literature resource books

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	6	11.5
Agree	4	7.7
Undecided	6	11.5
Disagree	14	26.9
Strongly disagree	22	42.3

n = 52

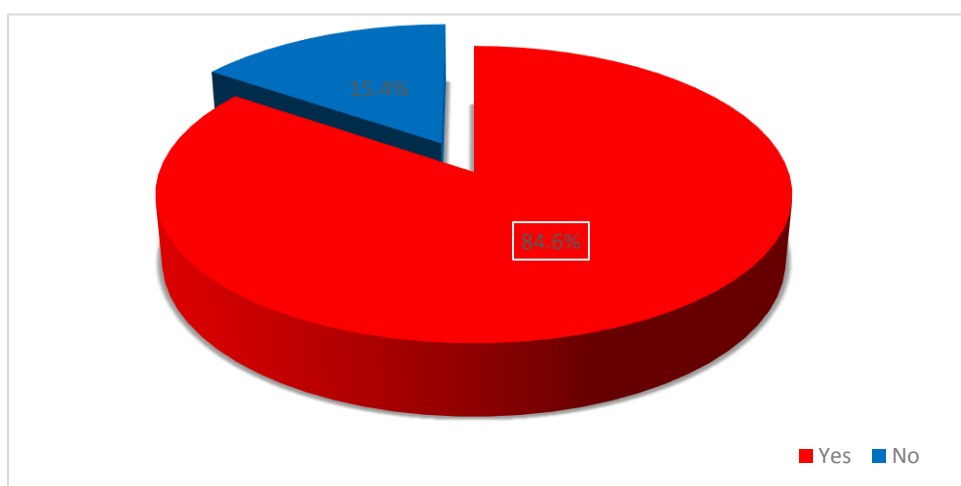
From Table 4.12, it is evident that 26.9% disagreed and 42.3% strongly disagreed that libraries in public PTTCs where they teach are equipped with literature resource books. Combined, this is 69.2% of tutors who disagreed that libraries in public PTTCs are rich in literature resources. Only 19.2% of tutors agreed that their libraries were literature resourced while 11.5% were undecided. About the undecided proportion, it can be deduced that the tutor respondents were either not visiting the library or were not very sure about the status of a literature-resourced library. This can be detrimental in curriculum implementation because the subject teacher is supposed to evaluate the learning and teaching resources available from time to time and then based on this advise the administrators accordingly on the areas of improvement.

Tutors and HoSs English decried the dearth of literature resource books which they said were necessary for updating and deepening their knowledge of the subject matter as well as improving their instructional practices. In literature lessons observed, 45.5% and 36.4% of tutors were found to strongly and averagely use literary texts respectively. However, none of the lessons observed used audio visual gadgets like computers, audio cassettes, CDs or projectors for instruction. As a result, linguistic concepts like pronunciation were difficult to explain and many students demonstrated dividend attention when the teacher was explaining them. This is a proof that unavailability or inadequacy of teaching and learning resources hampers curriculum implementation. Olagunju (2000) found a remarkable difference in the achievement scores of students taught with various instructional materials and those not exposed to instructional materials. Instructional resources are key to curriculum implementation as in addition to filling the gaps in instruction, they motivate learners towards the learning by providing both audio and visual medium in which they interact with content concepts.

4.6.2 Utilization of literary texts in teaching English language

In Kenyan, English is taught as a second language for educational, social and economic purposes. Masterly of English language poses a great challenge especially for the students from economically poor backgrounds. Conventional English language textbooks are not sufficient for teaching as they offer “artificial grammar” (Cruz, 2010). Literary texts like novels, poems and short

stories offer “language in use” contexts and can be extensively used to diagnose linguistic deficiencies prevalent among ESL students. Incorporation of literature in the teaching of English language gives the students an opportunity to see language in real social contexts as opposed to idealist constructions. As a result, they immensely benefit from the authors’ manipulation of language to present their themes. This study sought information from the respondents on whether or not they utilized literature in teaching English language. The responses provided are analyzed in Figure 4.6.



n = 52

Figure 4.6: Tutors’ responses on use of literature in teaching English language

Figure 4.6 shows that an overwhelming majority of tutors, 84.6% said that were using literary texts in their teaching of English language. This demonstrates

their complete awareness that they were implementing an integrated curriculum where English and literature were interdependent in inculcating communicative skills to trainee teachers.

Information was also sought on the frequency with which the respondents utilized literary texts to teach the listed linguistic concepts. The analysis of the responses is shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4. 13

Tutors' responses on the frequency with which they utilized literary texts to teach the listed linguistic concepts

Linguistic concept	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Stress	17	32.7	18	34.6	9	17.3	6	11.5	1	1.9
Grammar	21	40.4	19	36.5	9	17.3	2	3.8	1	1.9
Vocabulary	21	40.4	26	50.0	3	5.8	1	1.9	1	1.9
Spelling	17	32.7	27	51.9	3	5.8	3	5.8	2	3.8
Intonation	16	30.8	23	44.2	5	9.6	6	11.5	2	3.8
Pronunciation	15	28.8	28	53.4	4	7.7	3	5.8	2	3.8

n = 52

Table 4.13 shows that from a total of 52 tutors, an overwhelming majority of tutors either always or often used literature to teach the listed English linguistic concepts in their implementation of integrated literature. Utilization of literature in teaching students speaking skills was prevalent as evidenced by the teaching of stress, intonation and pronunciation. Combined, a total of 67.3%, 75.0% and 82.2% of tutors were found to teach stress (in words and sentences), intonation and pronunciation respectively, either almost always or often using literary texts. In equally high proportions, tutors were found to teach writing-related skills using literary texts. Of the respondents, 76.9%, 90.4% and 84.6% were found to teach grammar, vocabulary and spelling respectively either almost always or often using literature texts like novels, short stories, plays and poems.

These instructional practices show that tutors understood the value of literature in imparting linguistic skills: speaking and writing to the students and were out to take full advantage of it. Implementation of integrated literature in this manner agrees with the assertions of Alemi (2011) who postulates that the worth of literature in an ESL context is hinged on its language enrichment. He observes that texts of literary works describe “things which mattered to the author when he or she wrote them”. Compared to the language samples in the textbooks, the language in literary texts is more relevant in imparting linguistic concepts in students. According to Collie and Slater (1988), literature provides students with an approach to the language nourished by different linguistic and rhetorical uses of the language as well as forms and conventions of the written

mode, irony, exposition, argument, narration and so on. By asking students to explore the literary language, they will be encouraged to familiarize themselves with different language uses, forms or conventions.

4.6.3 Use of teaching resources in the implementation of literature course

Teaching apparatus are key in the implementation of any curriculum as they make understanding of the content easier and learning an interesting exercise. Using Likert five-scale rating information was sought from tutors on the frequency in which they utilized the listed teaching apparatus in their implementation of literature. The results are shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14**Tutors' responses on the frequency with which they used teaching resources**

Teaching resources	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Tape recorder	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.8	16	30.8	34	65.4
Audio cassette player	0	0.0	1	1.9	4	7.7	11	21.2	36	69.2
Charts	3	5.8	13	25.0	15	28.8	8	15.4	13	25.0
Film projector	2	3.8	2	3.8	5	9.6	10	19.2	33	63.5
VCD player	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	7.7	14	26.9	34	65.4

n = 52

Table 4.14 shows that audio visual aids were scantily used by tutors in their implementation of literature. Out of 52 tutors surveyed, 30.8% said that they rarely used tape recorders and 65.4% said they never used them. Audio cassette players were found to be seldom used by 21.2% and were never used by 69.2% of tutors implementing literature. More than half of teacher trainers surveyed reported to be using wall charts in their implementation of literature with 25.0% using them often and 28.8% using them sometimes. Film projectors were found not to be extensively used in literature classes in public PTTCs in Kenya with 19.2% of tutors saying they rarely used them and 63.5% saying they never used them in their teaching of literature. A Video Compact Disc (VCD) player, an audio visual teaching aid was rare in public PTTCs literature classrooms. Of those surveyed, 26.9% of tutors reported to be rarely using them but a massive 65.4% said that they never used them.

Inadequate use of the necessary teaching resources as evidenced in Table 4.14, reveals visible gaps in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. Teaching resources are essential in the implementation of curriculum because they are used by teachers to aid explanations and make learning of subject matter understandable to students during teaching learning process (Abdu-Raheem, 2014). Ikerionwu (2000) saw instructional materials as objects or devices that assist the teacher to present a lesson to the learners in a logical and manner. The sole worth of literature in an ESL context is to aid the learning of English language. Maximum attainment of this objective can only be

guaranteed by introduction of teaching resources which make the linguistic concepts real. Adequate utilization of tape recorders, audio cassette and VCD players can put the explained concepts like pronunciation into real and practical terms and effectively aid learners' understanding. That wall charts were found to be in greater use than all the other teaching resources, points to tutors' willingness to utilize teaching resources provided they are available in their colleges. In the absence of other teaching resources, tutors might have found refuge in wall charts because the materials (manila papers and the marker pens) are cheaper and wall charts are easier to prepare.

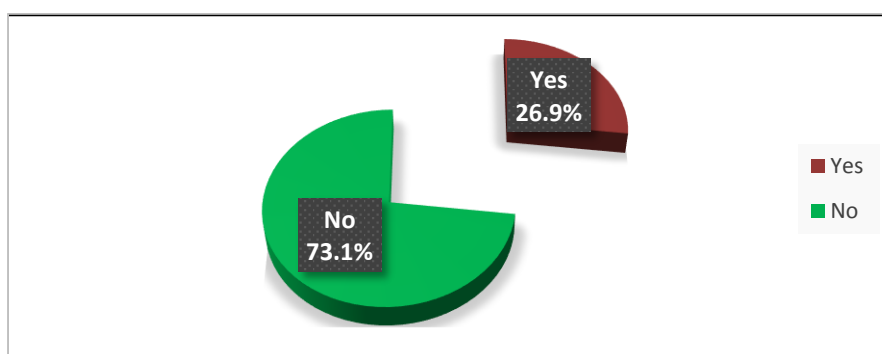
Inadequate availability of literature teaching resources was an issue of concern to the most respondent HoSs English who felt that the situation frustrated their efforts to take full advantage of literature to teach English language. In an interview with HoSs English, on the extent to which tutors utilized teaching resources, one of them said:

Teaching resources such as CD and VCD players are not extensively used because they are unavailable. As consequence, tutors face serious difficulties in teaching linguistic concepts of literature like story dramatization, pronunciation, reading and writing without these audio visual apparatus (A HoS English, February 2016).

HoSs English observed that such instruments could not only stimulate students' interest but also improve their performance in examinations. Their sentiments agree with the findings of Nwike and Catherine (2013) that those students taught with instructional materials performed better than those taught without instructional them.

4.6.4 Students' reading of other literary books apart from the set ones

Students' extensive reading of literature is beneficial in that it enables the students to internalize the language and reinforce the points previously learned, provide students with a genuine language contexts and a focal point for their own efforts to communicate and motivate them (Hill, 1994). This study sought information from the respondents on whether or not their students studied other literary books apart from the set ones. The response to the question was either "Yes" or "No" and the analysis of the responses gotten are shown in Figure 4.7.



n = 52

Figure 4.7

Tutors responses on whether or not Literature students in public PTTCs read other literary texts apart from the set ones

Figure 4.7 shows that from 52 tutors surveyed, an overwhelming 73.1% had information that their student of literature do not at all read other literary books apart from the set ones. Those who answered in the affirmative were 26.9%. The respondents regretted that even the set texts majority of students had to be coerced to acquire and read. The general observation was that majority of public PTTCs students had low motivation for extensive reading of literature. This can be attributed to most colleges' failure to stock college libraries with not only sufficient but also relevant and interesting. Ajayi and Ayodele (2001) stressed the importance of availability of instructional materials to achieving effectiveness in educational delivery and supervision in the school system. Ogbondah (2008) alerted on the gross inadequacy and underutilization of instructional materials necessary to compensate for the inadequacies of sense organs and to reinforce the capacity of dominant organs

Failure to do extensive reading of literary texts implies that student teachers in public PTTCs miss out on the benefits of aesthetic reading. According to Rosenblatt, (1978) reading-for-meaning can be divided into two categories: efferent reading and aesthetic reading. Whereas efferent reading aims at gaining information in a text, aesthetic reading aims at enjoying the experience of reading. It increases student motivation and further develops reading proficiency. In addition, it can be beneficial to writing and speaking. Aesthetic

reading can be used not only for reading classes but can be successfully incorporated into writing and speaking classes as well, the tenets of implementation of literature in an ESL context.

4.6.5 Strategies employed by HoSs English in ensuring tutors utilized instructional materials in teaching literature

Curriculum implementation leadership is crucial in that it gives curriculum participants command and direction towards the achievement of objectives. The HoSs English were required to provide information on the ways in which they ensured tutors fully utilized literature instructional materials. The analysis of their responses is provided in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

HoSs English ways of ensuring tutors utilized literature instructional materials

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Frequent subject meetings	4	36.4
Provision of Literature resource books	5	45.5
Persuasion	3	27.3
None	7	63.6

n = 11

Table 4.15 shows that out of 11 HoSs English interviewed, the majority, 63.6% had no defined measure in which they ensured tutors under their supervision

satisfactorily utilized literature instructional materials in their implementation of literature. This means that tutors were their own masters in curriculum implementation. On lesson preparation, objective (b) of this study, tutors were found not to be very keen on pre-preparation of their literature lessons as evidenced by the fact that they were rarely found in college during off-class hours and days. A combination of this anomaly, with the fact that many HoSs had no way of ensuring that literature tutors utilized instructional materials can spell doom for literature implementation. HoSs English reported that that majority of the tutors were either too busy for faculty sharing or believed too much in themselves. It was found that most HoSs English preferred to keep a distance in such situations for fear of altercations. Others mentioned some measures like provision of literature resource books, 45.5%, frequent subject meetings in which literature implementation issues were discussed, 36.4% and persuasion of tutors to use literature learning resources 27.3%.

Curriculum leadership is key to its implementation. Leaving teachers on their own may result to piecemeal and ununiformed manner in teaching which in the long run derails the achievement of learning objectives. Fullan, (2007) points out that change is hard to conceive and harder to implement. It requires the support and leadership within schools from subject leaders, vice-principals and principals and at higher levels such as directorates and within the Ministry of Education (Fullan, 2007). HoSs off hand supervision of literature implementation portends a roll back to the benefits envisaged in the introduction

of literature in PTE English curriculum. In their study on the improvement of education quality in South Africa, Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaul and Armstrong (2011) recommend the monitoring of the use of textbooks and other curriculum support materials in schools to ensure effectiveness.

That minority of them were in disfavour of persuasion as a method of ensuring tutors utilize literature materials is a pointer to widened gap between curriculum implementers and leaders. This demonstrates an inadequate collaboration between the tutors and HoSs English on the task of literature implementation. Persuasion with its off shore benefits like positive attitude towards collaboration, consultation and team work in strategy can only thrive where the gap between the supervisor and the worker is narrowed. It behoves curriculum supervisors to be in in the fore line in addressing the problems affecting teachers in their curriculum implementation task by offering their unwavering personal support. Mitchell (2016), notes that personal support can minimize the effects of anxiety and often identified resistance to change.

4.6.6 Challenges facing utilization of instructional materials in literature course

Utilization of instructional materials in curriculum implementation is prone to some challenges due to the school environment, limitation of resources, teachers' attitudes and competence as well learner abilities (Abdu-Raheem, 2016). This study sought information from HoSs English on the instructional

materials-related challenges they faced in the implementation of literature curriculum. The findings are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

HoSs' English responses on the challenges facing tutor utilization of literature instructional materials

Response	Frequency	Percent
Inadequacy of literature materials	7	63.6
Lack of media resources	3	27.3
Non commitment of TTTLs to reading literature	2	18.2
TTTLS non competence in some literature genres	4	36.4

n = 52

Table 4.16 shows that the majority of HoSs English 63.6% said that the greatest impediment to tutors' utilization of literature instructional materials was inadequacy of literature resource books. This situation detrimental to the implementation literature. Tutors failure to utilize instructional materials in literature will have cascading effect on the students. Abdu-Raheem (2011) found that the objectives of Social Studies were yet to be achieved as a result of poor teaching and lack or inadequacy of instructional materials to motivate students in Ekiti state secondary schools in Nigeria. In line with Ikerionwu (2000) argument, instructional materials assist the teacher to present a lesson to the learners in a logical manner. Agina-Obu (2005) stresses that instructional materials of all kinds appeal to the sense organs during teaching and learning.

For this reason, a teacher should maximise their utilization during teaching to diagnose students' difficulties in understanding the subject matter as well as ameliorate the learning contexts especially when dealing with underprivileged students.

Following the findings in this study, it is incontestable that instructional materials and resources are indispensable in curriculum implementation because of the major role they play in motivating students towards the learning objectives. Their importance in curriculum implementation notwithstanding, instructional materials have been found as either unavailable or inadequate in many classrooms (Ahmed, 2003; Abdu-Raheem 2014). This state of affairs can be attributed to insufficient resources allocated to curriculum implementation and, poorly prioritized and wasteful spending practised by some protagonists in many education systems. To mitigate the situation, teachers can search for the necessary instructional materials through local means to supplement or replace the standard ones (Ogbondah, 2008). Jekayinfa (2012) also identified the importance of improvisation of instructional materials as making learning concrete and real, substitute one thing for another and allow the students to participate in the production of materials. He also notes they are economical and more teacher-student oriented. In the context of this study, tutors of literature can improvise using mobile phones for audio visual concepts like pronunciation and dramatization. They can also compensate inadequacy of literature texts with newspaper articles when teaching grammar, vocabulary and writing.

4.7 Study objective (d): To examine the teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya.

The primary purpose of teaching at any level of education is to bring a fundamental change in the learner (Tebabal & Kahssay, 2011). Change in learners is basically the product of academic experiences they are exposed to during their years in school. To a great extent, the teaching methodologies influence students' learning in school and their overall demonstration of competencies imparted. To facilitate the process of knowledge transmission, teachers should apply appropriate teaching methods that best suit specific objectives and level exit outcomes (Ganyaupfu, 2013). It is therefore the obligation of teachers to not only organise the subject matter but also they ought to determine the most appropriate teaching methodologies which will aid transmission of concepts in the subject matter.

This section comprises of the teaching methodologies used by teacher trainers in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The study sought information from the respondents on the methodologies they were using to implement literature. This information is analyzed and discussed under subsections: use of integrated approach in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya and methods in which HoSs English ensured that effective methodologies were used in the implementation of literature. Data analysis is presented in Tables 4.17 and 4.18.

4.7.1 Use of integrated approach in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the goal of introducing literature in ESL classrooms. Towards this end, literature is used a resource for teaching English language thus should be integrated into it. Literature is rich with innumerable authentic tokens of language for the development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills (Belcher & Hirvela, 2000, Erkaya, 2005, Nasr, 2001, Stern, 2001, Vandrick, 2003). For this reason, literature is integrated in English language and used as a tool for teaching linguistic skills as opposed to teaching it for its sake. In this study, information was sought from the respondents on the extent to which they used integrated approach in their implementation of literature. The analysis of responses is represented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17**Tutors' responses on the methods of literature integration into English**

Integrative approach	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Essay writing on literary texts' themes	1	1.9	2	3.8	6	11.5	25	48.1	18	34.6
Loud pronunciation of words in literary texts	13	25.0	19	36.5	10	19.2	5	9.6	5	9.6
Soliciting students' opinions on literature themes	6	11.5	11	21.2	13	25.0	13	25.0	9	17.3
Class group discussion of literary texts	1	1.9	1	1.9	5	9.6	25	48.1	20	38.5
Dramatization of episodes in literature set texts	1	1.9	1	1.9	3	5.8	20	38.5	27	51.9

n = 52

From table 4.17, most tutors said that the method in which they integrated literature into English was asking students to loudly pronounce words found in literary texts during class reading. The tutors who used this method were 25.0% almost always, 36.5% often and 19.2% sometimes. This is an effective strategy because it enables the students to practice pronouncing correctly spelt words and the ones they can see for themselves in print as opposed to the ones a tutors give them orally or the ones they write on the chalk board. A number of tutors were also found to integrate literature into English through solicitation of students' opinions on the themes found in literary texts with 11.5%, 21,2% and 25.0% of tutors using it almost always, often and sometimes respectively. This method has positive effects on students' application of book contexts in their own situations and the society in general. Soliciting own opinions on literature themes can be influential in inclining students to associate the language use in text contexts with their day to day as well as imaginative use of English language. The long run dividends of this practice will be students' acquisition of vocabulary, syntactical arrangements of words in sentence, masterly of word meaning and gain of skills in word spelling.

However, the study found that tutors rarely gave essay writing assignments to students based on literary texts they were using in classrooms. From the respondent tutors, 48.1% and 34.6% responded that they seldom and never, respectively used the strategy. In interviews with HoSs English, the reason why

many tutors were not keen on giving students writing exercises in literature emerged. One of the HoSs English candidly observed:

Writing assignments especially on literary topics have immense time cost for the tutors because they have to be critically marked and explanations offered on the award of various marks. Many tutors are uncomfortable with this task (A HoS English, February 2016).

Marsh and Willis (2007) recognize that finding time by those charged with the curriculum implementation as one of the challenges around the process but very essential for its success. It is imperative for teachers especially those handling languages to find time not only for teaching but also for giving relevant assignments to students and marking. Literature has the potential to greatly motivate students towards writing. A literary text provides students with much clearer ideas about the syntactic structure of a written text and the extent to which written language differs from spoken language (Casey & Williams, 2001; Liaw, 2001; Vandrick, 2007). The more the students interact with words in meaningful contexts like the ones presented by literature, the more they master their spelling and meaning and this can lead to adoption of these words in their own diction and meaningfully use them in their own writings. Studies have confirmed that using authentic materials like literary texts has great influence

on developing reading comprehension by presenting new words and expressions to students (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Berardo, 2006).

Class discussion of literature themes was found to be seriously underutilized as a method of integrating literature into English. Although tutors in the lessons observed were found to have sufficient mastery of the subject matter, many of them used lecture method with high levels of dominance in class talking time. Even where they elicited students' contributions, the latter's views were normally attached to certain tutor's pre-conceptions as opposed to putting them into their own perspectives and finding out why students held such views. Learner involvement through meaningful class discussions was therefore found to be insufficient. Due to insufficient freer environment for learner participation, it was noted that majority of students in the observed lessons did not actively participate. They merely nodded in agreement to everything the tutor said.

Of the tutors whose responses were sought, 48.1% seldom and 38.5% never used class group discussions in teaching literature. Probed on this during face to face interviews, one of the HoSs English blamed time constraints:

Time allocated for each lesson is not sufficient enough to conduct effective class discussions on issues depicted in literary texts under implementation (A HoS English, February 2016).

Lack of class group discussion of literary texts means that the students' avenues for airing their views concerning the lesson subject matter and for raising pertinent concerns regarding their learning were slim. The trend has definite negative implications for implementation of literature. Discussions bring teachers face to face with the exact learning problems the students are struggling with and they can effectively use them to make concepts clearer to students by addressing these problems and fixing them (de Garcia, 2013). Due to their role in determining students' learning especially with tertiary institutions' students, group discussions are absolutely necessary in the classrooms and tutors of literature ought to find time for them. Unwillingness of tutors of literature to use group discussions in their classrooms can also be attributed to many tutors' feelings that group discussions do not necessarily lead to students' deeper understanding of the subject matter. The students may be hesitant to contribute or their understanding of concepts at hand may be too little which can lead to wastage of valuable time. Students' deformities in group discussions are treated by ensuring that they not only understand the topic but they are also aware of discussion objectives. Research shows a positive correlation between the quality of classroom discussion and how well students understand what they have learned (murphy et. al, 2009).

Dramatization of episodes in literary texts was also missing in literature classes at public PTTCs in Kenya. The tutors who said they seldom used it were 38.5% while 51.9% said they never used it. Dramatization includes mimic of characters

in literary texts especially when one is using them to teach oral skills like intonation. Absence of dramatization or its underutilization in public PTTCs' literature classes is catastrophic. The trend continues to mystify literature and students cannot linguistically benefit from its apparent worth. Attempting to talk exactly like a certain character depicted in a story during class oral reading, demystifies literature in ESL classes and this becomes the gateway into other linguistic benefits offered by literature.

4.7.2 Methods in which HoSs English ensured that effective methodologies were used in the implementation of literature

Monitoring of the methods in which curriculum is being implemented is important not only for identifying gaps but also providing the needed support so that the envisaged learning objectives can be achieved. This study interviewed HoSs English on the methods in which they ensured that the methodologies used to implement literature were effective. The analysis of the responses is presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18

HoSs' English responses on the methods in which they ensured the methods used to implement Literature curriculum were effective

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Emphasizing common approach to teaching	3	27.3
Utilization of student feedback	5	45.5
Subject meeting	7	63.6
Tutors' collaboration	2	18.2

n = 52

Table 4.16 shows that out of 11 HoSs English interviewed, the majority 63.6% favored subject meetings as a method for ensuring effectiveness in the methodologies used in the implementation of literature. Asked how they ensured that there was satisfactory participation of literature tutors in subject meetings, one of them said:

We issue meeting notices in time but still there are some of our colleagues who fail to attend a series of subject meetings (A HoS English, February 2016).

A follow up question on the action taken against such tutors could not elicit any different response because on the findings of the extent to which HoSs English ensured that tutors prepared their lessons discussed elsewhere in this study, it

was found that they do not press them so as to avoid altercations with their colleagues. This means that they could only bank on hope that tutors of literature would find subject meetings important and not only attend but also actively participate in them. Failure to attend subject meetings means that concerned tutors were completely detached from the prevailing learning problems affecting their subjects and the deliberated steps towards their diagnoses.

Utilization of emphasis on common approach to teaching and tutors' collaboration were found be in disfavor of many HoSs English as methods of ensuring effective methods were used in the implementation of literature with a usage of 27.3% and 18.2% respectively. The trend reveals a lone style of teaching among tutors of literature. This can be an ineffective method of curriculum implementation especially for students divided in streams per grade. Disparity in teaching the students of the same grade, can lead to high levels of ununiformed knowledge dispensation to students and dissatisfaction of curriculum implementation supervisors. The role of consultation and partnership among tutors in teaching literature cannot be gainsaid. This is because teaching using literary texts is strongly hinged on how interpretations of various ideas found in these texts are made and this may vary from one tutor to another. Partnership and collaboration in this context will give tutors an opportunity to complement each other. Partnerships with professionals emphasise the need for teachers from a range of backgrounds to work together (collaborate) to achieve the best outcomes for students (Bruder, 2010 &

Lumsden, 2005). Collaboration provides opportunities for professional development through formal and informal learning from peers with diverse experience and expertise (Kelley,1996; Wesley et al., 2001; Rush et al., 2003; Green et al., 2006; McWayne, et al.2008).

From the findings in this section, it has been found that the methods tutors were using for implementation of literature require sufficient review. Such methods as lecture are largely tutor-centered and may not have desirable effects in the teaching of a subject like literature to advanced students. If these methods are exclusively continued, the evident value of literature in ESL classes can astonishingly be rolled back. Deploying more of learner-centered methods like class group discussions is one way in which the situation can be arrested. Although this comes with the challenge of time creation as has been found in this section, it is worth the struggle. It has been found that greater learning outcomes result from meaningful class group discussions because as opposed many other methods, students get an ample opportunity to freely air their views on the topic and slowly learn from their counterparts as opposed to authorial direction of the teacher. Class group discussions also enable the teachers to come face to face with learners' learning deficiencies during supervision of groups and synthesis of ideas from various groups. As a problem solver, the teacher consequently begins search for the diagnosis of these deficiencies in earnest for the benefit of the learner.

4.8 Study objective (e): To examine classroom assessment of literature curriculum at public PTTCs in Kenya

This section is on the classroom assessment of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. Assessment is a process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information about teaching and learning in order to make informed decisions that enhance student achievement and the success of educational programs (Genesee & Upshur, 1996; O'Mally & Valdez-Pierce, 1996; Rea-Dickens & Germanie, 1993;). Classroom Assessments (CAs) are used by teachers to find out the effectiveness of implemented curriculum. There are two forms of assessment: formative and summative.

Formative assessment is also known as classroom assessment. Whereas summative assessment is used at the end of the learning period for grading and certification of students, classroom assessment shows whether or not learning has been successful and also helps to clarify the expectations of the teacher to the students. This study sought information from the respondents on classroom assessment of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The findings are presented and discussed under methods for eliciting responses from students in literature classes, administration of classroom assessments on literature and administration and marking of continuous assessments. Data analysis is done in Tables 4.19, 4.20, 4.21 and 4.22. It is also presented in Figures 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13.

4.8.1 Methods of eliciting responses from students in literature classes

Students' responses during the lesson is vital as it informs the teacher on the extent to which learning is taking place. This study intended to find out the methods in which teacher trainers elicited students' responses during their literature lessons. The methods were from volunteers, meaning relying on students who volunteer to answer questions, nominating respondents, that is soliciting for answers even from apathetic learners or both. The analysis of the respondents' responses is shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

Tutors' responses on the methods of eliciting students' responses in literature classes

Method	Frequency	Percent
volunteer	6	11.5
Nomination	1	1.9
Both volunteer and nomination	7	63.6

n = 52

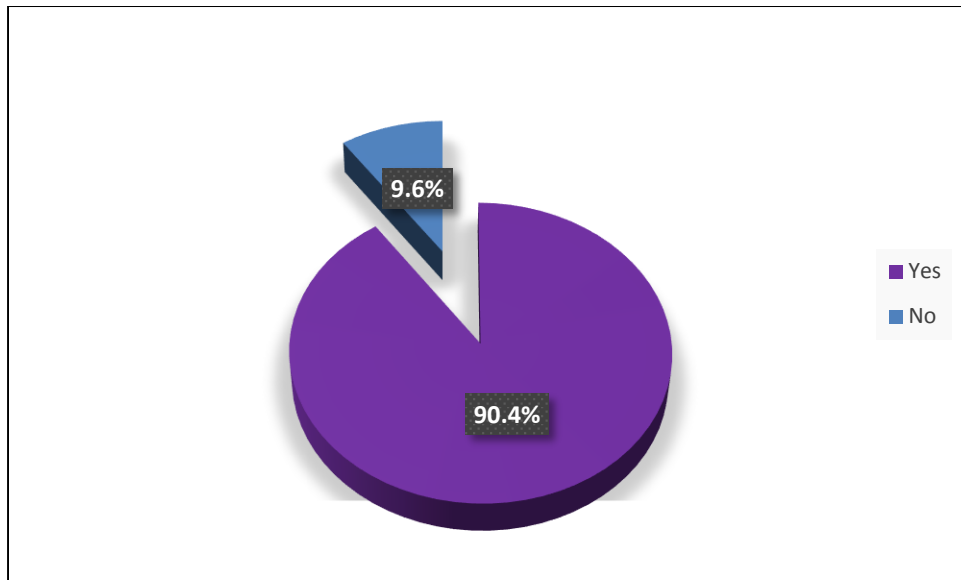
Figure 4.8

From Table 4.19 it is evident that from a total of 52, an overwhelming majority of tutors 86.5% said they used both volunteer and nomination methods to elicit responses from students during literature lessons. The respondents said that this method was effective in ensuring equal participation of both willing and apathetic students in the classroom. They reported that usage of both methods

ensured that as much as the highly self-motivated students were encouraged to go further by giving them requested attention, the less self-motivated ones as well as the hesitant ones were not left behind. The method ensured that all students were at par in following the lesson since the more they participated, the more they understood and enjoyed the lesson. Their arguments align with the assertions of Park (2003) that students who actively engage with what they are studying tend to understand more, learn more, remember more, enjoy it more and be abler to appreciate the relevance of what they have learned, than students who passively receive what they are taught.

4.8.2 Administration of classroom assessments on Literature

Classroom assessments are administered in the course of curriculum implementation to gather data from students on the extent to which subject matter concepts have been understood and consequently inform further implementation of curriculum. In this study, it was found that public PTTCs did not practice opening or middle of the term centrally programmed Continuous Assessment Tests (CATs). Only the end of the term tests was done and so tutors had to devise their own ways of classroom assessments. Information on Continuous Assessments on literature was sought on tutors' administration of after-lesson assignments, quizzes, group assignments and course projects. Information was sought from the respondents on whether or not these assessments. The responses are represented in Figure 4.8.



n = 52

Figure 4.8

Respondents' responses on whether or not they administered classroom assessments on literature

Figure 4.8 shows that from 52 teacher trainers 90.4% administered classroom assessments. This is a pointer that tutors were really interested in evaluating the extent to which their students were achieving the anticipated competences after being taught literature. It is also evident that tutors understood the importance of classroom assessment in student achievement. Black and Wiliam (1998) synthesized over 250 studies linking assessment and learning, and found that the intentional use of assessment in the classroom to promote learning improved student achievement. Effective teachers do not merely teach the concept. They reteach it using a variety of strategies based on the responses they receive from the learners. During interview with HoSs English information was sought on how they ensured that tutors under their supervision administered such

assessments to students as after-lesson assignments, quizzes, group assignments and course projects. One of them responded:

Tutors are professionals and are normally expected to do their work perfectly even without supervision (A HoS English, February 2016).

According to HoSs English, tutors of literature are sufficiently knowledgeable, self-driven and objective to give quality and regular assessments to students. Western and Northern Canadian Protocol for Collaboration in Education [WNCP, (2006)] notes that classroom assessment involves complex processes requiring teachers' professional judgement. Teachers decide how to assess, what to assess, and when to assess. They also interpret students' learning according to reference points for success, such as curricular learning outcomes. To make the inferences that teachers make about students learning credible, fair, free from bias, and connected to their intended purposes, there ought to be a healthy involvement of curriculum supervisors and enhanced collaboration in the faculty particularly those who teach students of the same level. Little et. al, (2003) found that when teachers were invited to look closely together at evidence of student learning, it opened up the dialogue about what counts and what is good evidence. Contrary to this is occasioning a disjointed trend in curriculum implementation. active participation of curriculum implementation supervisors at all stages ensure uniformity, quality and support and they can help avert numerous malpractices.

The study also sought information on the frequency in which Continuous Assessments (CAs) were administered. The results are represented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20

Tutors' responses on the frequency in which they administered CAs

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Always	3	5.8
Very often	29	55.8
Undecided	13	25.0
Rarely	7	13.5
Never	0	0.0

n = 52

Table 4.19 shows that although a combination of more than half of tutors who responded, (5.8% always and 55.8% very often) administered continuous assessment tests. This points to their commitment to effectiveness in the implementation of literature. However, a quarter of the respondents, 25.0% were undecided as to the frequency in which they administered classroom assessments on literature. This points to carefree or offhand practices in teaching. Genesee (cited in Carter & Nunan, 2001) reaffirms that the purpose of classroom assessment is to guide classroom instruction and enhance student learning on a day-to-day basis. He further presents classroom assessment as an effective tool in curriculum implementation because it concerns suitability of general instructional goals and objectives associated with an individual lesson

or unit plans, effectiveness of instructional methods, materials and activities used to attain instructional objectives and adequacy of professional resources required to deliver instruction. It thus imperative that classroom assessments are offered as frequently as possible: quizzes at the end of each concept, assignment at the end of each lesson and tests at the end of a certain period of learning. This is geared towards frequent and sustained collection of instructional data upon which remedies like remedial teaching can be deployed.

On the preferred methods of CAs, the tutors provided the frequency with which they utilized them. Their responses are analyzed in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21

Tutors' responses on the frequency with which they utilized various continuous assessment methods in their implementation of Literature curriculum

Testing method	Almost always		Often		Sometimes		Seldom		Never	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Continuous assessment quizzes	5	9.6	24	46.2	15	28.8	4	7.7	4	7.7
Class group presentations	27	51.9	18	34.6	5	9.6	2	3.8	0	0.0
Individual class presentation	13	25.0	16	30.8	12	23.1	5	9.6	6	11.5
Essay presentations	3	5.9	15	28.8	14	26.9	10	19.2	10	19.2

n = 52

Table 4.21 shows that out 52 tutors sampled, most of teacher trainers 86.5% utilized class group presentations as a method of assessing their students on literature with 51.9% using them almost always and 34.6% often. Utilization of continuous assessment quizzes and individual class presentations was used averagely with 55.8% of the tutors using them either almost always or often. Preference of group or individual class presentations can be attributed to tutors' feelings that students at teacher training colleges are advanced enough to take charge of their own studies with minimal supervision. They can therefore carry out research, write papers and present them to class whether as a group or as an individual. However, considering that tutors identified insufficient lesson time allocation as a roadblock to their effectiveness in the implementation of literature, it means that these the researched papers were either hurriedly presented in class or not presented at all.

However, tutors teaching literature showed to be in disfavor of essay presentations as a method of classroom assessment on literature. Of the 52 teacher trainers studied, 65.4% reported not to be using it. A further probe on the question during the interview with HoSs English revealed that majority of tutors shied away from this form of assessment because it is more demanding in terms of time and skills involved in the judgement of students' achievement. Hişmanoğlu (2005) views literature as a powerful and motivating source for writing in ESL / EFL, both as a model and as subject matter. One benefit of having literature as the reading content of a composition course is that the

readings become the subject matter for compositions. In a composition course whose reading content is Literature, students make inferences, formulate their own ideas, and look closely at a text for evidence to support generalizations. Thus, they learn how to think creatively, freely and critically. Such training helps them in other courses which require logical reasoning, independent thinking, and careful analysis of the text (Spack 1985).

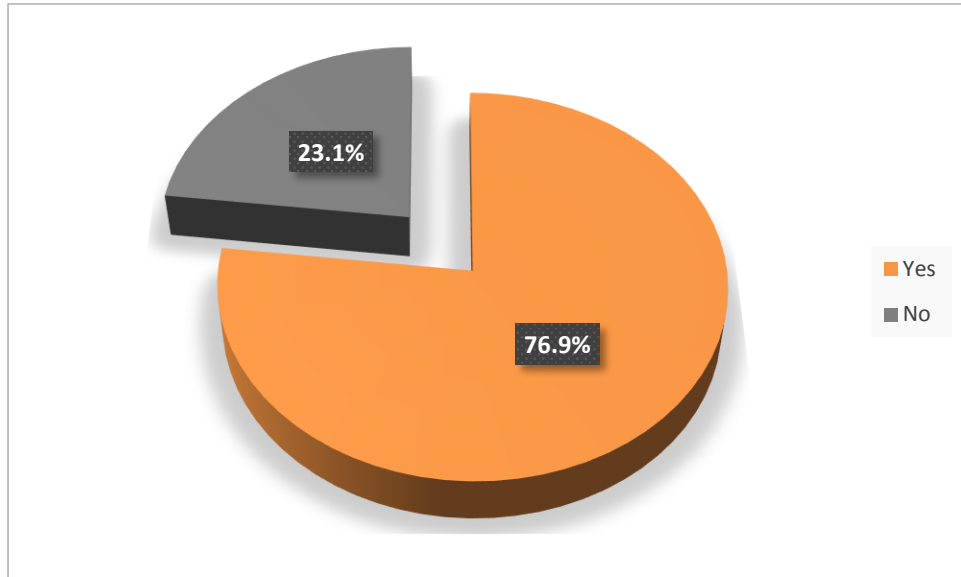
4.8.3 Designing, administration and marking of continuous assessments

Designing, administration and marking of curriculum evaluation assessments is a key component in the implementation of curriculum. Well-constructed tests factor in various knowledge behaviors expected from students and the contexts in which they are expected to demonstrate them. This study sought information from the trainers on whether they designed their own assessments on literature, with whom they designed, how they ensured all students participated in assessments, the maximum time taken to mark assessments and whether or not they gave remarks on the scores achieved by students. Heads of subject English were interviewed on the ways in which they ensured data emanating from assessments on literature were used to improve instruction.

4.8.3.1 Designing of classroom assessments

Classroom assessments are aimed at informing curriculum participants especially the implementers on the extent to which the envisaged curriculum objectives are being achieved. This study intended to find out whether tutors

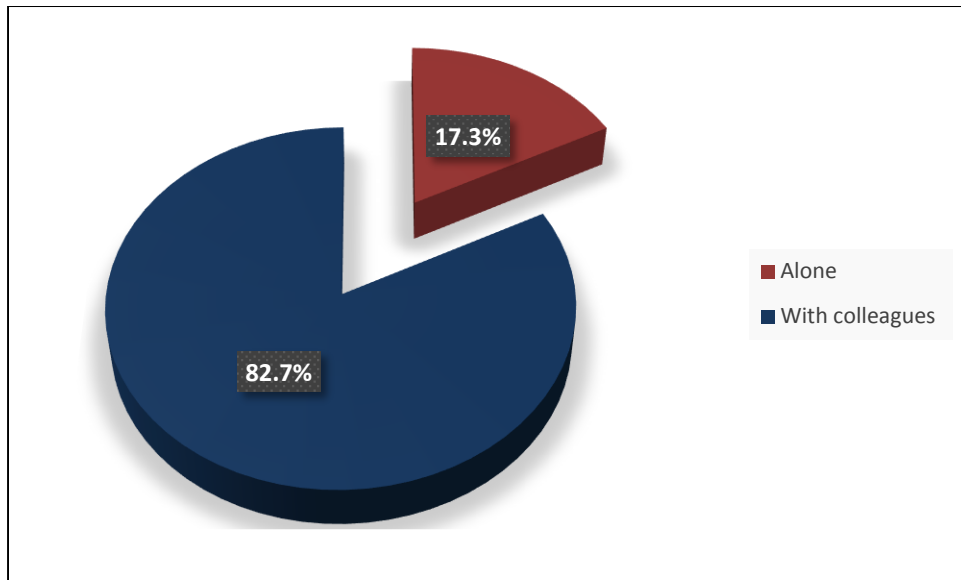
designed assessments themselves. The summary of the responses is shown in Figure 4.9.



n = 52

Figure 4.9: The response of tutors on design of classroom assessments

Figure 4.9 shows that all the teacher trainers studied, 98.1% designed CAs for their own students. This means that most of the assessments done were informative to tutors on the extent of literature implementation. However, researchers advocate for collaboration between teachers in the designing of assessments. Lumsden, (2005) and Bruder, (2010) argue that partnerships between teachers bring together diverse experience and expertise of teachers to meet the increasingly heterogeneous needs of learners. Data were collected on whether teacher trainers designed classroom assessments alone or with colleagues. The responses provided are presented in Figure 4.10.



n = 52

Figure 4.10: The responses of tutors on whether they set assessments alone or with colleagues

Figure 4.10 shows that majority of tutors 82.7% collaborated with their colleagues on CAs design meaning testing was a teamwork exercise and enabled tutors to benefit from the expertise of their colleagues on various areas of literature course. This agrees with the findings of Helm, (2007); McWayne et al., (2008) and Wesley and Buysse, (2001); who found professional partnerships among early childhood professionals from various backgrounds to be effective in ensuring that the child's best interests are at the centre of all decisions in curriculum implementation.

4.8.3.2 Students' participation in classroom assessments

The researcher was also interested in the ways in which tutors ensured that their students participated in class assessments. The analysis of responses is represented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22

The responses of tutors on the ways in which they ensured all students participated in classroom assessments

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Timed when the class was full	10	19.3
Announced the CAs date in advance	12	23.1
Gave CAs to those present	30	57.7

n = 52

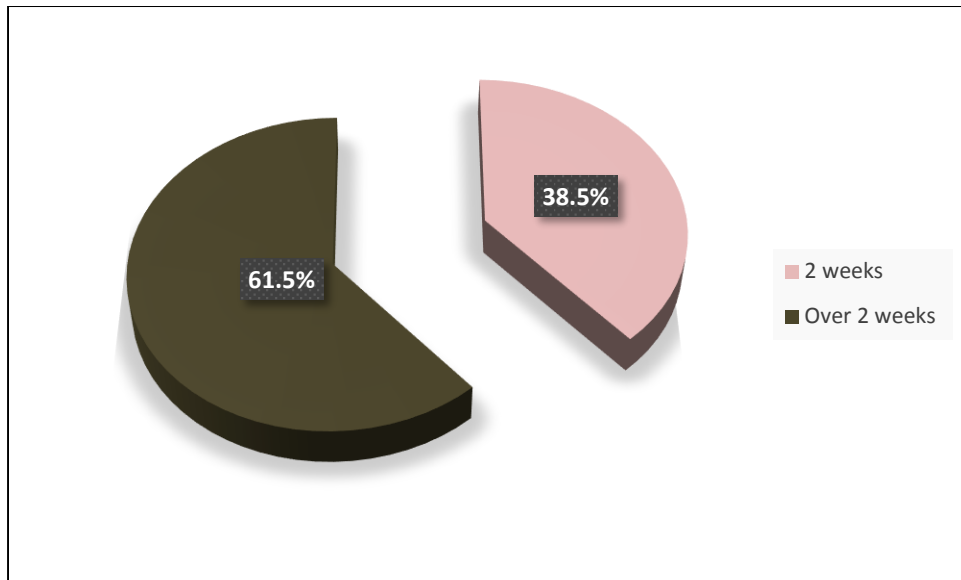
Table 4.22 shows that while 23.1% of the tutors surveyed announced the date for classroom assessments in advance and another 23.1% administered assessments when the class was full, majority of teacher trainers 57.7% gave assessments to the students present. This shows that at any one given time, some students were left out of assessments if they were not in colleges at the time of assessment administration. The trend leads to a fragmented follow up of students' performance which can hinder effectiveness in curriculum implementation. the researcher wanted to find out whether colleges had a way of reaching out to students who miss assessment tests. During interviews one of them said:

There is no definite way because these tests do not necessarily count in their end of term or end of course scores (A HoS English, February 2016).

The practice implies that students who are out of colleges during class assessments are not tested even when they come back. Apart from detaching these students from classroom academic activities which to some extent is demoralizing, the apparent partial assessment of students does not agree with underlying tenets of curriculum implementation. Best practices demand that as much as possible, all students should participate in continuous assessment tests so that the teachers can consolidate information about each student's individual performance and devise corrective measures based on it. Elicited assessment data form a solid foundation upon which teachers can strategize individualized instruction to students in their classes. WNCP (2006) assert that to learn about students' behavior, assessments ought to be frequent and varied for all students.

4.8.3.3 Marking of classroom assessments

The marking of students' work by the teacher provides the students with expertise feedback on the extent of their understanding of the subject matter. Marked tests guide students on revision by revealing their areas of strength and weakness. This study sought information on the maximum period of time tutors took to mark classroom assessments. The summary of responses provided by tutors of literature is shown in Figure 4.11.

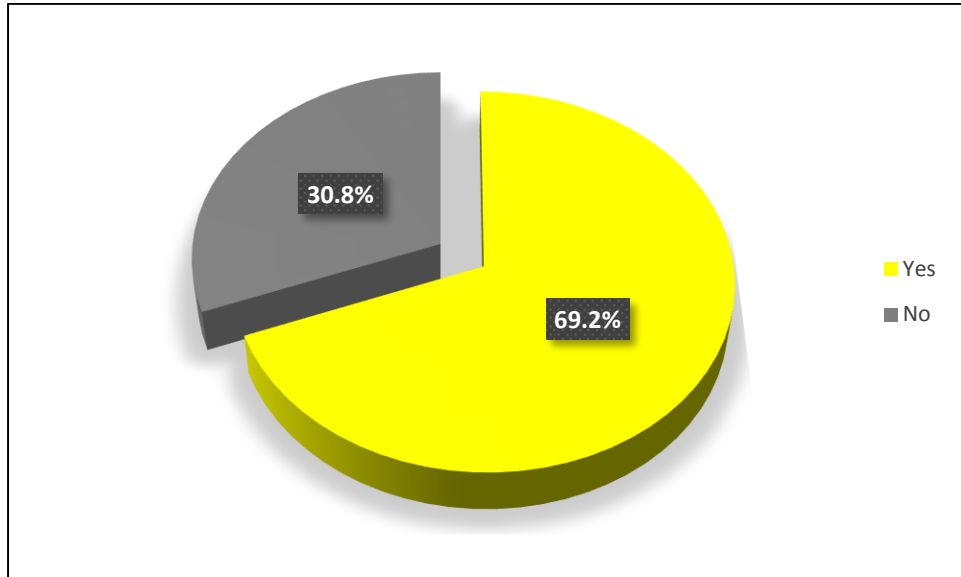


n = 52

Figure 4.11: Tutors' maximum time taken to mark students' work

Figure 4.11 shows that while 38.5% teacher trainers took below 2 weeks to mark students' assessments, the majority, 61.5% took over 2 weeks to mark and give feedback on class assessments. Withholding students' assessment results for more than two weeks can cause unnecessary anxiety among the students. It can also make test lose meaning because tests are supposed to inform students on their performance so that they can evaluate their own study patterns and make improvements as necessary. Although in some instances, temporarily withholding assessment feedback is needed to allow the students to internalise and process the demands of the assessment task as advocated by (Hattie and Timperley, 2007), in most cases, feedback has to be given as soon as possible after the completion of the assessment task because students need to see feed-forward comments incorporated into subsequent performance (Spiller, 2009).

Further inquiry was made as to whether tutors commented on students' performance after the marking of assessments with words such as poor, fair or good. The results of the responses are shown in Figure 4.12.



n = 52

Figure 4.12: Tutors' responses on whether or not they commented on students' performance in CAs

Figure 4.12 shows that majority of tutors, 69.2 % commented on students' performance in literature assessments. This demonstrates tutors' informative assessment of students on literature. It also shows that tutors were specific about the performance levels which their students ought to reach in order to term implementation of literature as successful. It further shows tutors' intention to motivate and challenge high achieving and low achieving students respectively towards realization of literature learning objectives. With these comments, the students were able gauge the tutors' perception of their performance in literature helping them to plan for their future learning behavior. Comments on students'

performance has been found to be more effective than grading which discourages low-performing students (WNCP, 2006). As opposed to grading, teachers' comments on students' performance enhance their motivation by providing feedback to move learning forward.

4.8.3.4 Utilization of data emanating from classroom assessments

The main role of assessment in curriculum implementation is to elicit data that can inform further implementation of curriculum. Data were sought from HoSs English on the ways in which they ensured data emanating from CAs was used to better the teaching of literature. The responses they provided are presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23

The HoSs' English responses on the use of CAs' data in the improvement of the teaching of literature

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Subject - based discussions of exam results	8	72.7
Setting subject performance targets	3	27.3
Persuasion of teacher trainers	1	9.1
n = 11		

Table 4.23 shows that out of 11 interviewed, most of HoSs English 72.7% heavily relied on subject meetings to discuss the assessment results and determine the way forward. Subject meetings were therefore the focal point for

assessment results' evaluation and discussion and missing subject meetings meant missing out on the faculty deliberations concerning students' performance and measures to be taken. The effectiveness of this strategy is in doubt. Table 4.11 indicates that tutors' non-commitment to subject meetings was identified by 27.3%, almost a third of the respondent HoSs English as a challenge facing tutors' preparation of literature lessons. If a number of tutors fail to attend subject meetings, the point is that their opinions do not count and they may not willingly adopt the decisions made. The secret lies on influencing tutors' attitudinal change through training, collaboration and motivation. Jabbarifar (2009) in his study on the importance of classroom assessment and evaluation in Malaysian educational system concludes that effective classroom assessment and evaluation calls on teachers to become agents of change in their classrooms actively using the results of assessment to modify and improve the learning environments they create. This calls for teacher's clear understanding of the importance of assessments in their classrooms which curriculum leaders can achieve by working with and listening to teachers as opposed to coercing them.

It is evident that the Class Assessment (CA) methods practised at public PTTCs in Kenya on literature course leaves a lot to be desired. There were no within-term centralised tests for evaluation of literature implementation. Only end-of-term centrally-organised tests existed and in the rest of the term, tutors were free to test the effectiveness of their teaching in their own ways. Although most

of the tutors were found to administer CAs in form of after-lesson assignments, projects, quizzes and so on in their literature classes, most of them were in favour of assessment methods which had no much time cost on their side like class presentations. This made them to depart from such testing methods like writing essays-based on set texts which would mean that they find time to mark students' work. HoSs English were also found to be averse to testing methods used by tutors. They only presided over the administration of end-of-term assessment tests. The rest of the term, class assessment was at the discretion of tutors who were under no obligation to share results with the supervisors. This can have far reaching negative implications particularly in the classrooms where tutors are not so keen on following up individual students' performance. For effective implementation of literature course in public PTTCs in Kenya concerted efforts are paramount on the betterment of class assessment methods.

Chapter summary

This chapter analyzed data on the objectives of this study. It was found that although most of the tutors of literature had initial professional qualifications as teachers of literature, INSETs were necessary for their effective implementation of integrated literature. However, majority of tutors had not been in-serviced on the teaching of integrated literature since its inception ten years before this study. It was found that tutors' literature lesson preparation was characterized by inadequacies. Although a number of tutors claimed to prepare their lessons, it was found many of them spent the weekly day-off dedicated for lessons

preparation away from college doing other things. The schemes of work were prepared by HoSs English from which every tutor teaching literature got a copy. Instructional materials were found to be inadequate with majority of respondents decrying the dearth of literature texts in college libraries. Audio visual resources for teaching linguistic and dramatized concepts of literature were also completely lacking in majority of the colleges visited. The teaching methodologies for implementing integrated literature were also found to be inappropriate. Most tutors resorted to lecture method as opposed to oral reading of literary texts with students which could provide a perfect opportunity for extracting linguistic concepts from texts. Finally, the chapter provides an analysis of classroom assessment methods employed for literature course at public PTTCs in Kenya. It was found, in all colleges visited, only end-of-term tests were centrally organized for each college. There were no within-the-term classroom tests to inform tutors on the effectiveness of course implementation.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. It is divided into the following sub-sections; introduction, Summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations. The last sub-section of this chapter is suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine tutors' pedagogical strategies for implementing of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya. The objectives of the study were to establish the levels of tutor professional development for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya, to analyze the tutors' level of lesson preparation in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya, to establish utilization of literature resources in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya, to identify the teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya and to analyze classroom assessment of integrated literature course at public PTTCs in Kenya.

The respondents in this study comprised of 52 tutors of literature and 11 Heads of Subject (HoSs) English responsible for supervising the implementation of integrated literature course. The research instruments of the study entailed

questionnaire for tutors of literature, interview schedule for HoSs English and the observation schedule for literature lessons. The research instruments were validated through a pilot study with 2 HoSs English and 11 tutors of literature in the sampled colleges. The corrections on the research instruments were done following the recommendations of the study supervisors. The collected data for the study comprised of quantitative and qualitative data. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The findings of this study were based on the study objectives.

5.2.1 Tutor professional development for implementation of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

The study revealed that majority of the tutors implementing literature in public PTTCs are adequately qualified for the task with majority of them possessing masters' degrees and a very small number holding a diploma. The qualifications place them at an advantaged position of productively interpreting integrated literature course and implementing it. It was further established that three quarters of tutors had taught literature in teacher training colleges for more than five years. This gave them the requisite experience in the implementation of integrated literature.

However, the study found that the greatest problem in the implementation of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya was non-provision of in-service education and trainings (INSETs) to tutors. The HoSs English specifically blamed the

Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) for this anomaly and confidently averred that the absence of these trainings were adversely affecting the implementation of literature. They insisted that tutors of literature needed quality and frequent INSETs so that they can get an opportunity to interact with experts on literature subject matter, have constructive sharing with colleagues and acquaint themselves with new methodologies in the implementation of literature. The need was so dire that HoSs English resorted to college-based internal trainings. They nevertheless decried lack of college-backed budgets for such programs, dearth of professional experts to conduct the programs and non-commitment of their colleagues in such forums. Tutors of literature thus continued to teach literature relying on their pre-service training and self-taught knowledge and skills which HoSs English termed as making the teaching of literature in their classrooms quite a routine with nothing new to strive for.

5.2.2 Tutors' preparedness in the implementation of Literature curriculum at public PTTCs in Kenya

Although majority of tutors of literature reported that they prepared their lessons, a major problem was found in the scheming of work. HoSs English confessed that they schemed work to be covered after which each tutor was given a copy. A further probe revealed that scheming of work was regarded as tedious by most of the tutors and therefore HoSs English preferred to do it themselves to lessen work for their colleagues. Lack of in-service training and the fact that teacher trainers were rarely found in college when not teaching also

necessitated this practice by HoSs English. In addition, due to lack of continuous training many HoSs English did not see the need for individualized scheming of term's classroom work by teacher trainers. Practically teachers do not possess similar abilities and even their pace of syllabus coverage vary. The most important factor in the planning of classroom work is the students to be taught. Students' abilities and the learning environment vary from one classroom to another. For this reason, a centralized planning of term's work across all the classrooms could disadvantage slow learners. It can resort tutors' rush over topic areas just to be at par with colleagues.

Problems related to the use of a common, centrally written scheme of work was further complicated by the fact that, for many tutors of literature, time was the most important factor to consider when it came to planning teaching work. They planned what they could cover within the allocated time in order to avoid carry-overs across the lessons. The literature lessons observed showed that majority of tutors either ignored or refused to make reviews of the previous lessons. In addition, the study revealed collaboration and team teaching was a rare practice among tutors of literature hence encouraging a lone ranger style in teaching. Non provision of INSETs did not help matters. Due to lack of continuous updates on lesson preparation methods, majority of tutors did not value hands on practice in planning teaching. A close probe of HoSs English revealed that, tutors spent the one day off per week dedicated for research and preparation of

lessons on personal engagements like doing businesses, travelling and staying with their families.

5.2.3 Tutor utilization of instructional materials in the implementation of integrated literature

The study found that inadequacy of instructional materials in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs impeded tutors' efforts. Majority of tutors, 69.2% disagreed that the college libraries were adequately stocked with relevant text books and learning materials for literature. The fact that tutors taught linguistic concepts with literature then means that they over relied on limited literary texts hence missing on the benefit of wide variety and varied examples which come with using a variety of texts. It was also found that the non-change of literature set books over many years derailed tutors' morale in teaching literature. The literature set books which were being read at the time of this study had remained in the syllabus for ten years.

Inadequacy of instructional materials for teaching literature was demonstrated by the absence of audio visual means of instructional communication in literature classrooms. The colleges did not have computer labs and internet services, CD or DVD players or projectors for teaching. Instruction was purely through talk and chalk which majority of HoSs English blamed for lack of spark for teaching and learning literature. In all the literature lessons observed, none of them was found to use audio visual means in instructional communication.

This denied students a chance for visible and audible strands of language concepts inherent in the literary texts they were using.

5.2.4 Teaching methodologies used by tutors in the implementation of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

The study found that most tutors do not read literary texts with the students. Although over 80.0% of tutors in public PTTCs in Kenya exposed students to literary texts, majority of them evaded classroom reading of the texts. The majority of tutors of literature just instructed their students to read books on their own and then used lecture method to analyze them in the classroom. The assumption that students read books on their own denied tutors an opportunity to go through the text with the students giving them tokens of insights which could deepen their understanding of the text. Failure to read literary texts with the students in the classroom also revealed that the students missed out on the oratory benefits like pronunciation, stress and intonation which come with reading literary texts aloud. Oral performance of literature especially with the teacher giving instructions, highly contributes to students' mastery of reading and speaking in the language under study.

Reading of the literary texts in the classroom combined with teacher explanation of various concepts regarding the story leads to better understanding of the story from which students can compose their own writings. This study found that majority of tutors were really in disfavor of literature - based writing. This could

emanate from the fact that students had limited knowledge about the story having read it without the teacher. A probe of HoSs English revealed that some students were utterly disoriented in reading literature and had to be pushed. Teacher instructional interventions through the story diagnoses students' lack of interest in literature because even the dullest student will be sufficiently motivated to read a story which he or she thoroughly understands.

5.2.5 Classroom assessment of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya

It was found that as much as tutors of literature were doing classroom assessment on literature, much of the assessments were at their discretion meaning that there were no subject regulating measures to monitor how they gave them. In the literature lessons observed, it was noted that majority of tutors were not keen on giving after-the-lesson assignments meaning learning ended with the lesson. Effectiveness in the students' grasp of the lesson concepts is derailed if students are not given related topic exercises to accomplish before the next lesson. The fact that most of the tutors did not really consider their colleagues' opinions when planning teaching or constructing tests aggravates the situation of ineffectiveness in the classroom assessment of literature. Lack of collaboration among teachers teaching the same subject denies teachers and students the benefits of team work which are normally about the improvement of instruction.

HoSs English are literature curriculum supervisors at teacher training colleges. However, their supervisory role in the classroom assessment of literature was put to question. They had not established measures through which they could monitor the classroom assessment of the subject by tutors. They did not have within-the-term joint tests or symposiums, or forums through which tutors could share ideas on assessment. Curriculum implementation leadership calls for well-aimed strategies to monitor the curriculum status and improve the quality of teacher instruction. The summative assessment nationally conducted at the end of teacher-trainees' two-year course, was spelling doom to the integrative approach in the teaching of literature. It separated Literature from English and many tutors were already responding by specializing in teaching either of the two subjects. This problem needed urgent address from the policy makers because continuing it could distort the essence of introducing literature in PTE English curriculum.

5.3 Summary

In summary the implementation of literature has very little to write home about. Knowledge and skills possessed by tutors, tutors' literature lessons preparation, instructional materials used in its implementation, the teaching methodologies and assessment methods practiced on the teaching of literature leave a lot to be desired. To reap maximally from envisaged benefits of literature in ESL contexts these aspects of integrated literature implementation must be addressed.

5.4 Conclusions

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that tutors were adequately equipped with pre-service training necessary for implementation of integrated literature owing to the fact that majority of them possessed Bachelor of Education degree in English and literature. In addition, a number of tutors were either undertaking or had completed Master's degree programs. This deepens their academic exposure and extensively contributes to their understanding of the content they teach with ripple effects to the students. Further, they had the requisite experience in the teaching of literature majority of them having taught it for over 5 years in teacher training colleges. Even with these qualifications, tutors of literature clamor for INSETs on the implementation of integrated literature was relentless. In this regard, it can be concluded that tutors implementing literature at public PTTCs in Kenya did not adequately have specific knowledge and skills necessary for the task.

Tutors' preparation of literature lessons at public PTTCs in Kenya was found to be unsatisfactory. HoSs English prepared schemes of work to be used by all tutors of literature under their supervision and served them with copies. This is an evidence of hands-off lesson preparation by tutors because classrooms are heterogeneous. The learning abilities of students is different across classes in any educational set up hence the need for differentiated planning by teachers. It was also found that tutors spent the weekly day-off dedicated to lessons' preparation outside college on personal engagements like business, family and

so on. HoSs English revealed that even when in college, it was rare for tutors to be found seriously researching on literature. Due to this, this study concludes that tutors' preparation of literature lessons was inadequate.

It was found that tutors' utilization of relevant literature instructional materials in the teaching of literature was hampered by inadequate literary texts and non-existent modern methods of instructional communication. Majority of the respondents revealed that their college libraries were scantily equipped with literature resource books and seriously lacked audio visual means of instruction communication such as CD and DVD players, internet-enabled computer labs and projector screens. Tutors therefore had no option but to rely on the three set books which they had taught for ten years by the time of this study and the scanty poems they stumbled upon from time to time to actualize integrated literature in their classrooms. The medium of instructional communication was purely talk and chalk. Based on these findings, this study concludes that the teaching of integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya is inadequately resourced.

Methodologies employed by tutors to implement literature at public PTTCs in Kenya were found to distort the required integrative approach and consequently the rationale of literature in ESL classrooms for which Kenya is an example. The method of instruction was majorly lecture. Majority of the tutors surveyed did not read literary texts with students, encourage classroom discussions on

literature topics or assign students to write essays on literary subjects. Students seriously missed out on oratory benefits like pronunciation, stress of words, intonation in sentences and dramatization of literature episodes inherent in literary texts. Following these findings, the study concludes that the methods used to teach integrated literature at public PTTCs in Kenya deviate from the importance of introducing literature in ESL classrooms and are therefore ineffective.

Finally, the classroom assessment of literature was found to be haphazard. There was no within-the term standardized and centrally organized tests in teacher training colleges visited to inform HoSs English about the extent of integrated literature implementation. Only end-of-term tests for each individual college were offered. In the rest of the term, tutors were free to assess their students in their own ways without any obligation of sharing results with curriculum implementation supervisors. In the literature lessons observed, tutors were not so keen to give after-the-lesson assignments to students. The national method of testing integrate literature did not help matters. English language and literature papers were demarcated with very little borrowing from the other. This had effects on tutors' attitude as they had started specializing as either tutors of English or literature meaning that the aspect of literature-English integration was internally lacking currency. It can therefore be concluded that the mode of classroom assessment practiced in public PTTCs in Kenya on literature contravenes the principles of curriculum implementation which

among other things advocates for holistic and frequent assessment as well as discussion of assessment results with everyone involved for strategy and preplanning purposes.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- i. The newly created Directorate of Teacher Education should provide tutors of literature in public PTTCs in Kenya with continuous, relevant and adequate in-service education and training to deepen their knowledge on the teaching content and refresh their teaching skills by offering one-day workshops during school terms and residential week-long sessions during school holidays in all counties in the country. This can be actualized by selecting facilitators from literature tutors' fraternity, training them and hiring them to train their colleagues during these forums.
- ii. Tutors of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya in collaboration with HoSs English should practice continuous and constantly reviewed preparation of integrated literature lessons at all times on all areas of literature teaching by finding time to critically reflect on what they intend to teach at any one given time so as expand their knowledge of the subject matter and devise the most appropriate methods of teaching. HoSs English should stop preparing schemes of work for tutors of literature. Instead they should be supportive but keen to collect and peruse them from

tutors alongside other teaching evidential documents like lessons' attendance, students' progress and class assignments' records on weekly basis to know the extent of integrated literature implementation.

- iii. The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) in consultation with the director of tertiary education in the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) should do regular surveys on the quality and adequacy of literature teaching materials available at public PTTCs in Kenya on yearly basis by visiting the colleges and interviewing HoSs English and deans of curriculum. Upon harnessing this data, KICD should develop or approve literary texts and make recommendations to MoEST to get them purchased for colleges.
- iv. Tutors of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya with support from HoSs English should employ integrated approach at all times in their teaching of literature to reap the benefits of literature in an ESL context. This can be achieved by carrying out class reading of literary texts with students for oratory benefits like masterly of pronunciation of words and assigning students to write on literature subjects evidenced in the literary texts they are using to improve their writing skills.
- v. Literature classroom assessments at public PTTCs in Kenya should be revamped. Tutors of literature should give sufficient within-the-term assessments to their students through after-the-lesson assignments, after-the-topic tests and term-opening and mid-term tests in form of essays and presentations. They should also keep progressive reports for

all students in order to understand their performance and by extension, effectiveness in the implementation of literature.

5.6 Suggestions for further research

Taking into account the delimitations for this study, the following suggestions of further research are made:

- i. The relationship between tutors' effectiveness in the teaching of literature at public PTTCs in Kenya and their areas of specialization during pre-service training
- ii. Effects of contemporary reading habits by students at public PTTCs in Kenya and their performance in literature.
- iii. The impact of literature on students' performance in English at public PTTCs in Kenya

REFERENCES

- Abdu-Raheem, B. O. (2011). Availability, adequacy and utilisation of social studies instructional materials in Ekiti State secondary schools. *Journal of Current Discourse and Research*, 3, 242-255.
- Abdu-Raheem b o (2016). Effects of Instructional Materials on Secondary Schools Students' Academic Achievement in Social Studies in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *World Journal of Education* Vol. 6, No. 1; 2016
- Abdu-Raheem, B. O. (2014). Improvisation of instructional materials for teaching and learning in secondary schools as predictor of high academic standard. *Nigerian Journal of Social Studies*, XVII(1), 131-143.
- Abdu-Raheem, B.O., & Oluwagbohunmi, M.F. (2015). Pre-service teachers' problems of improvisation of instructional materials in social studies in Ekiti State University. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(3),160-163.
- Abebe. T. T., & Davidson. L. M. (2012). Assessing the role of visual teaching materials in teaching English vocabulary. *Language in India*, 12(3), 524-552.
- Abolade, A.O. (2009). Basic criteria for selecting and using learning and instructional materials. In I.O. Abimbola & A.O. Abolade (Eds.), *Fundamental principles and practice of instruction*, Department of Science Education, Ilorin. pp 497-504.
- Abong'o O J (2013). *Effect of SMASSE in-service education and training on Biology teachers' pedagogical skills and attitudes towards teaching biology in Karachuonyo South district, Homabay County, Kenya.*
- Adediwura, A.A. & Bada, T. (2007). Perception of teachers' knowledge, attitude and teaching skills as predictor of academic performance in Nigerian secondary schools. IleIfe, Nigeria. *B Academic Journals*. Volume7(2).p.165171.Retrieved on January10,2011from<http://www.academicjournals.org/> ERR
- Adegbile, J.A. & Adeyemi, B.A. (2008). Enhancing quality assurance through teachers' effectiveness. Ile-Ife, Nigeria. *Academic Journals*. Volume 3(2).p.61-65. Retrieved on January 10, 2011 from <http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR>

- Adeosun, O., Oni, A., & Oladipo, A., (2009). Teacher training quality and effectiveness in the context of basic education: An Examination of Primary Education Studies (PES) Programme in Two Colleges of Education in Nigeria *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, Vol.12 No.1 (2009) pp.107 ~ 125
- Adesina, S. (1998). *Some aspects of school management*. Ibadan: Board Publishing Limited.
- Adoye, A. F. (2010) *Impact of Systematic Assessment of Instruction on Secondary School Students' Physics Achievement at Cognitive Level of Knowledge*: Eurasian Journal Physics and Chemistry Education 2(1): 44 – 52, 2010
- Adunola, O. (2011), "The Impact of Teachers' Teaching Methods on the Academic Performance of Primary School Pupils in Ijebu-Ode Local cut Area of Ogun State," Ego Booster Books, Ogun State, Nigeria.
- Afe, J. O. (1995). *Reflections on becoming a teacher and the challenges of teacher education*. Inaugural Lecture Series 64, Nigeria: University of Benin.
- Agina-Obu, T.N. (2005). The relevance of instructional materials in teaching and learning. In I.Robert-Okah & K.C. Uzoeshi (Eds.), *Theories and practice of teaching*, Port Harcourt: Harey publication.
- Ahmed, T.M. (2003). Education and national development in Nigeria. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 10, 35-46.
- Agun, I. (1992) Importance of Audio Visual Instruction. *West African Journal of Education* 20 (2)
- Akyeampong, K. (2006). Reconceptualizing teacher education in the African context. Centre for International Co-operation in Education. Hiroshima University, Japan. Retrieved from http://eprints.sussex.ac.uk/44/01/Reconceptualising_Teacher_Education_In_The_Africa_N_Context.pdf.
- Ajayi, I.A., & Ayodele, J.B. (2001). An introduction to educational planning: Administration and supervision. Ado-Ekiti: Yemi Prints Publishing Services.
- Akinleye, G.A. (2010). Enhancing the quality of life in this complicated but dynamic world. 25th Inaugural lecture, University of Ado-Ekiti, April 6.

- Akyel A & Yalcin E., (2004). *Literature in EFL class: A study of goal achievement incongruence*, *ELT journal* 44/3: 174-180
- Aina, J. K., Olanipekun, S. S. and Galuba, I. A. (2015). Teachers' effectiveness and its influence on students' learning. *Advances in Social Sciences. Research journal*2(4) 88 - 95
- Ainy, S. 2000. Conversation and dramatic dialogue: Is drama useful for teaching conversation? *IATEFL issues*, 155: 11-13.
- Albarico, H. S., Tagura, O. M., Visitacion, L. R., Zabula, B. V., Magretico, A. J. & Ramayan, R. J. (2014) *Adequacy of Instructional Materials used by Teachers in Teaching Technology and Livelihood Education*. International Conference on Law Education and Humanities. Jan. 30 – 31, 2014 Pattaya (Thailand)
- Alemi, M., (2011). The Use of Literary Works in an EFL Class Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 177-180, ISSN 1799-2591
- Alexander M., (2008). *Good writing leads to good testing*. Retrieved from <Http://www.stickyminds.com/sitewide.asp?ObjectId=3391&Function=edetail&ObjectType=ART> on March 26 2012.
- Al-Alwan, A., Asassfeh, S., & Al-Shboul, Y. (2013). EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension and Awareness of Metacognitive Strategies: How Are They Related? *International Education Studies*, 6(9), p31.
- Ali, Z., Ghani, F., & Ali, A. (2010). The use of instructional technology in private schools and national education policy. *The Dialogue*, 6(2), 161-172.
- Allen, E., & Valette, R. (1997) *Classroom techniques: Foreign languages and English as a second language*. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Almond, M. 2005. *Teaching English with drama*. London: Modern English Publishing.
- Al-Musallam, E. I. (2009). College instructors' and learners' attitudes to authentic EFL reading materials in Saudi Arabia (Doctoral dissertation, King Saud University)
- Alsubaie A. M. (2016). Curriculum Development: Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development. *Journal of Education and Practice* ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.7, No.9, 2016 retrieved from www.iiste.org on 1st December, 2016

- Al-Thiyabi, M.S. (2014). Need Analysis for EFL Listening Skills at the ELL. *English for Specific Purposes World*. 43(15), 1-32.
- Al-Weher, M., & Abu-Jaber, M. (2007). The effectiveness of teacher preparation programmes in Jordan: A case study. In T. Townsend, & R. Bates (Eds.), *Handbook of teacher education: Globalisation, standards and professional in times of change* (pp. 241-265). AA Dordrecht: Springer.
- Andersson, C. (2002). What should govern teacher education? The impact of unclear governmental prescriptions: is there something more effective? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 25(2 &3), 251-262.
- Anderson, G. (2009). *Achieving Teaching Excellence: A Step-by-Step Guide*. Amazon.com
- Anderson, L.W. (2004). Increasing teacher effectiveness. UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning. *Fundamental of Educational Planning* 79
- Anderson, L.W. 1991. Increasing teacher effectiveness UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning. Paris and secondary school academic performance. *Africa Journal of Educational Planning Policy Studies*, 1(2) : 107-115.
- Andrade, M. E. A. D. (2006). Improving How Listening Skills are Taught in the EFL Classroom: Guidelines to Producing Better Speakers of the English Language.
- Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., & Fielding, L. F. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 285-303.
- Angrist, J.D., and V. Lavy. (2001). "Does Teacher Training Affect Pupil Learning? Evidence from Matched Comparisons in Jerusalem Public Schools." *Journal of Labor Economics* 19:343-69.
- Anyiendah M. S., (2017). Challenges Faced by Teachers When Teaching English in public primary Schools in Kenya. *Frontiers in Education*. published: 05 May 2017 doi: 10.3389/feduc.2017.00013
- Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. 1999. "A map of the Terrain". In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in Language Learning* (pp.1-25). Cambridge: CUP.

- Asuto, T. A., Clark, D. L., Read, A. M. McGree, K., & deKoven Pelton Fernancez, L. (1994). *Roots of reform: Challenging the assumptions that control change in education*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation
- Ayeni, A.J. (2011), "Teachers professional development and quality assurance in Nigerian Secondary Schools," *World Journal of Education*, 1(2):143-149.
- Bacon, S. M., & Finneman, M. D. (1990). A study of the attitudes, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74(4), 459-473. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1990.tb05338.x>
- Bagherkazemi M., Alemi, M. (2010). Literature in the EFL/ESL classroom: Consensus and controversy. *LiBRI. Linguistic and Literary Broad Research and Innovation*, 1 (1), 1-12.
- Baglieri, S. (2007) *Constructing the LRE*. Paper presented at Disability Studies in Education conference. Chicago, IL
- Bailey, KM, Curtis, A and Nunan, D (2001) Pursuing professional development: The self as source. Heinle & Heinle.
- Baker, S., & Smith, S. 1999. Starting Off on the Right Foot: The Influence of Four Principles of Professional Development in Improving Literacy Instruction in Two Kindergarten Programs. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 14:4. [
- Baker, T. L. 1994. *Doing social research*. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc. 499 p.
- Bala B (2006). *Quantitative method for computing Student (An active learning approach)*. London: ADP Publication.
- Barber, M. _ Mourshed, M. (2007). *How the World's Best Performing School Systems Come Out on Top*. McKinsey & Company.
- Barrett, D. and Green, K. (2009) Pedagogical content knowledge as a foundation for an inter-disciplinary graduate program. *Science Educator*, Spring 2009, 18 (1)
- Barry, R. A. (2010). *Teaching effectiveness and why it matters*. Maryhurst University and the Chalkboard Project. Department of Education Maryhurst University

- Barth, R. (1990). *Improving schools from within*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bastrukmen, H., & Lewis, M. (2002). Learner perspectives of success in an EAP writing Course. The University of Auckland, New Zealand: *Assessing Writing*, 8(1), 31-46. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1075-2935\(02\)00032-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1075-2935(02)00032-6)
- Bates, M. (2000). Crossing the divide? Literature and cultural studies. *IATEFL*
- Bayona, E. L. M. (1995). *Curriculum design and development: the role of teachers*. Gaborone: Lentswe La Lesedi
- Beggs, A. (2004). *Curriculum Development in Statistics Education*, Sweden
- Belcher, D. & Hirvela, A. (2000). Literature and L2 composition: Revisiting the debate. *Journal of second language writing*, 9(1), 21-39.
- Bell, S. (1996). *Learning with information systems: Learning Cycles in Information Systems Development*. Newyork: routledge.
- Bell, T. (1998). Extensive reading: Why? and how? *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(12). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Bell-Reading.html>
- Bembry, K. L., Jordan, H. R., Gomez, E., Anderson, M. C., & Mendro, R. L. (1998). *Policy implications of long term teacher effects on student achievement*. Retrieved November 16, 2003, from http://dallasisd.org/depts/inst_research/aer98rm1.html
- Bennaars, G. A., Otiende, J. E., & Boisvert, R. (1994). *Theory and Practice of Education*. Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers Ltd.
- Berardo, S. (2006). The use of authentic materials in the teaching of reading. *The Reading Matrix*, 6(2), 60-69.
- Berg, S., Taylor, S., Gustafsson, M., Spaul, N., Armstrong, P., (2011). *Improving Education Quality in South Africa*. Report for the National Planning Commission. Department of Economics, University of Stellenbosch
- Berry, B. Daughtrey, A & Wieder, A. (2009). *Collaboration: Closing the Effective Teaching Gap centre for quality teaching*. Teacher leadership. Research. Policy
- Best, J. W. & Kahn J. V. (1998). *Research in Education*, 8th ed.: Allyn and Bacon

- Beswick, C. (2009). Innovation...Is it top down or bottom up? FC Member Blog.
- Bilal Anwar, R., & Khan Rana, A. (2010). Perceptive Study "Teaching English Literature through English Language". Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.
- Khurshid F. and Ansari U. (2012). Effects of Innovative Teaching Strategies on Students' Performance. *Global Journal of HUMAN SOCIAL SCIENCE Linguistics & Education* Volume 12, Issue 10, Version 1.0
- Blachowicz, C., & Fisher, P. (2004). Vocabulary lessons. *Educational Leadership*, 61(6), 66-69.
- Blachman, B. A., Ball, E. W., Black, R. & Tangel, D. M. (2000). *Road to the Code*. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.
- Black, P. and Wiliam, D. (2009) Developing Theory of Formative Assessment: Education Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability 21: 1 February 2009 p.8 [http:// teacherscollegesj.edu/docs](http://teacherscollegesj.edu/docs).
- Black, P., and D. Wiliam (1998a). "Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards through Classroom Assessment." *Phi Delta Kappan* 80.2 139-148.
- Black, P. and Wiliam, D. (1998b). "Assessment and classroom learning", *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice*, CARFAX, Oxfordshire; 5, (1), 7-74. Retrieved March 20; 2013 from [area.fc.ul.pt/en/./ Assessment % 20 and % 20 classroom % 20 learning.doc](http://area.fc.ul.pt/en/./Assessment%20and%20classroom%20learning.doc).
- Black, P. Harrison, C., Lee, C. Marshall, B. & Wiliam, D. (2002). *Assessment for Learning: putting it into practice*. Maidenhead, Open University Press. Retrieved February 18, 2013 from [www.amazon.co.uk>books? science of Natures>Education](http://www.amazon.co.uk/books?science%20of%20Natures%20Education).
- Black, P. Harrison, C., Lee, C. Marshall, B. & Wiliam, D. (2003). *Assessment for Learning: putting it into practice*. Maidenhead, Open University Press. Retrieved February 18, 2013 from [www.amazon.co.uk>books? science of Natures>Education](http://www.amazon.co.uk/books?science%20of%20Natures%20Education).
- Bobbit, F. (1918). *The Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company (Chicago: University Press)
- Bobkina, J., and Dominguez E., (2014). The Use of Literature and Literary Texts in the EFL Classroom; Between Consensus and Controversy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature* Vol.3 No.2

- Boblitho, R. 2003. "Materials for Language awareness". In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (pp. 422-425). New York: Continuum.
- Booth, T & Ainscow, M (2011) *Index for inclusion, 3rd ed.* Bristol: CSIE.
- Borich, C. (2000). *Developing teachers: The Challenge of lifelong learning.* London: Falmer Press.
- Borich, G. D. (2007). *Effective teaching Methods, Unit and Lesson Planning*, six edition, Pearson, Merrill Prentice Hall, Ohio.
- Boud, D. & Feletti, G. (1999), "The challenge of problem-based learning," (2nd Ed.), London, Kogan Page.
- Bourgeois, E., & Nizet, J. (1997). *Aprendizaje y Formación de Personas Adultas.* París: Presses Universite de France.
- Brabham, E. G., & Villaume, S. K. (2002). Vocabulary instruction: Concerns and visions. *The Reading Teacher*, 56(3), 264-268.
- Barroso, K., & Pon, S. (2005). *Effective lesson planning, A facilitator's guide* California Adult Literacy Professional Development Project. American Institutes for Research, Sacramento, CA.
- Bransford, J., Darling-Hammond, L. and LePage, P. (2005) Introduction in Darling-Hammond, L. Bransford, J. (eds.) (2005) *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What teachers should learn and be able to do.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Braun, H. J. (2005). Using students' progress to evaluate teachers: A primer on value-added models. Princeton NJ, educational testing service, available online at <http://www.ets.org/research/pic>
- Bredella, L.(2003). 'Afterword. What Does It Mean to Be Intercultural?'. Geof Alred, Michael Byram and Michael Fleming, eds. *Intercultural Experience and Education.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. 225-39.
- Breier, M., Gardiner, M. and Ralphs, A. 2008. *Conundrum, Compromise and Practical Wisdom: recognition of prior learning in a teacher upgrading programme* Cape Town: HSRC Press.
- Britton, E., Paine, L., Pimm, D., & Raizen, S. (2003). *Comprehensive teacher induction: Systems for early career learning.* Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Brodie, J. S. 1991. Creative advertising as a teaching tool. *Journal of Kyoritsu Women's Junior College*, 34: 99-114.

- Brownell, M.T., Yeager, E., Rennells, M.S., & Riley, T. (1997). Teachers working together: What teacher educators and researchers should know. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 20, 340-359.
- Brownell, M. T., Ross, D. D., Colon, E. P. and McCallum, C. L. (2005) Critical features of special education teacher preparation: A comparison with general teacher education. *The Journal of Special Education*, 38 (4), 242-252
- Brown, S. (2011). *Four elements of effective classroom instructions. Teachers' college, Columbia University*. Retrieved May 20, 2012 from: <http://www.facebook.com/note.php>
- Bruder, M. B. (2010). Early childhood intervention: A promise to children and families for their future. *Exceptional Children*, 76(3), 339-355.
- Bunyi, G. W. (2008). *Introduction to English language teaching and learning in Kenya*. In T.
- Bunyi, G. W. (2008). Introduction to English language teaching and learning in Kenya. In T.
- Butler, A. C., & Roediger, H. L. (2007). Testing improves long term retention in a simulated classroom setting. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 19, 514–527. doi:10.1080/09541440701326097
- Butler, I., (2006). *Integrating language and literature in English studies: A case study of the English 100 course at the university of North West*, thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of doctor of literature and philosophy in the subject English at the University of South Africa
- Butler, I., (2000). We have to talk about these things: AIDS and ESL in South Africa. *IATEF global issues*, 1(9): 5-9.
- Butler, R. (1988). Enhancing and undermining intrinsic motivation: the effects of task-involving and ego-involving evaluation on interest and performance, *British Journal of Educational psychology*, 88: 261 – 271.
- Cai, M., (2002). *Multicultural Literature for Children and Young Adults. Reflection on Critical Issues*. Westport, ct.: Greenwood.
- Çakır, İ. (2006). The use of a video as an audio-visual material in foreign language teaching classroom. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5(4), 67-72.

- Calderón, M. (2007). *Teaching reading to English language learners, grades 6-12: A framework for improving achievement in the content areas*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Cañibano, L. (2008). *Higher education in "Business Administration" in Spain: Adapting to the European Area of Higher Education*. Paper presented at the I Convegno Nazionale of SIDREA: La Ragioneria e l'economia aziendale: dinamiche evolutive e prospettive di Cambiamento. Siena, Italy.
- Capel, S., Leask, M & Turner, T. (eds.) (2013) *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School. A companion to School Experience 6th Edition*, Abingdon: Routledge
- Carell, P. L, Devine, J. & Eskey, D. E. (1998). *Interactive approaches to second language reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carl, A. E. (2009) *Teacher empowerment through curriculum development: Theory into practice (2nd Ed.)* Cape Town: Juta.
- Carnoy, M., et al. 2008. "How schools and students respond to school improvement programs: The case of Brazil's PDE." *Economics of Education Review* 27:22 – 38.
- Carrillo-de-la-Peña, M-T., Baille`s, E., Caseras, X., Marti´nez, A., Ortet, G., &Pe´rez, J. (2009). Formative assessment and academic achievement in pre-graduate students of health sciences. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 14, 61–67. doi:10.1007/s10459-007-9086-y
- Carroli, P. (2008). *Literature in Second Language Education*. London and New York: Continuum.
- Carroll, A., Forlin, C. and Jobling, A. (2003) The impact of teacher training in special education on the attitudes of Australian pre-service general educators towards people with disabilities. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 30 (3), 65-79
- Carter. R. and D. Nunan (2001) *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carter, R & McRae, J. (Eds). 1996a. *Language, literature and the learner: Creative classroom practice*. London: Longman.
- Carter, R., & McRae, J. (2001). Reading language: A fifth skill. *IATEFL Issues*, 165, 10.

- Carter, R., & Long, M.N. (1991). *Teaching Literature. United States of America: Longman*
- Carter, R. & Nash, W. 1990. *Seeing through language: A guide to styles of English writing*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Casey, B., & Williams, J.Q. (2001). Book Clubs Make Reading Fun for Adults. *ESL Magazine*, 4(6): 22-24.
- Caswell, H. L., & Campbell, D. S. (1935). Curriculum development. New York: American Books.
- Center for Public Education, (2013). *Teaching the Teachers: Effective Professional Development in an Era of High Stakes Accountability*. Alexandria: National School Boards Association. (On-line) Available at; www.centerforpubliceducation.org/main-menu/.../.../pdf Retrieved on; 30.04.2015
- Chih-Min, S. & Li-Yi W., (2010). *Factors Affecting English Language Teachers' Classroom Assessment Practices - A case study at Singapore secondary schools*. Research Brief ISSN 2010-3093 NO 13-010
- Chingos, M.M., and P.E. Peterson. 2011. "It's easier to pick a good teacher than to train one: Familiar and new results on the correlates of teacher effectiveness." *Economics of Education Review* 30:449 – 465.
- Choh, C. 2002. Selecting the right text in a multi-cultural setting: The challenges ahead. *IATEFL literature and cultural studies*, 24: 9-13.
- Cicek & Tok (2015). Effective Use of Lesson Plans to Enhance Education in U.S. and Turkish Kindergarten thru 12th Grade Public School System: A Comparative Study *International Journal of Teaching and Education* 2 ISSN 2336-2022 Vol. II (No. 2)
- Clark, J. (2005). Curriculum studies in initial teacher education: the importance of holism and project 2061. *The Curriculum Journal*, 16 (4), 509-521.
- Cohen, D. F. and Hill, H. C. *Instructional Policy and Classroom Performance: The Mathematics Reform in California*. Teachers College Record. 102(2): 294-343.
- Cohen, D. K., & Hill, H. (2001). *Learning policy: When state education reform works*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

- Coleman, M., Graham-Jolly, M. and Middlewood, D. (Eds) 2003. *Managing the Curriculum in South African Schools*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Collie, J. and Slater, S. (1988). *Literature in the Language Classroom: A Resource Book of Ideas and Activities*. Cambridge University Press.
- Collie, J. & Slater, S. 1993. *Short Stories for creative language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cowan, J., (2005) In: *Designing assessment to enhance students' learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.Heacademy.ac.uk>. on 7th February, 2014.
- Corbett, J. (2010). *Intercultural Language Activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge up.
- Corpuz, B. B., & Lucido, P. I., (2008), *Educational Technology 1* Qezon City, Metro Manila: Lorimar Publishing Inc.
- Crain, J. (1993). Four comments on two views on the use of literature in composition. *College English*, 55, 672-679.
- Creswell, J. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey: Pearson: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Cruz, J.H.R. (2010). The role of literature and culture in English language teaching. http://www.relinguistica.aza.uam.mx/no007/no07_art09.html (accessed 8/11/2011).
- Cummins, J. (2003). Reading and the bilingual student: Fact and fiction. In G. Garcia (Ed.).
- Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your course-book*. Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann ELT.
- Currier D., (2008). *Essay on the importance of writing – need feedback please*. Asian ESL Journal. Retrieved from Gloria, Essay Writing Feedback/EssayForum.com on 8/17/2010 Journal 80 183
- Custodio ,B .and M .sutton.1998 ."literature –based ESL for secondary school student "in TESOL journal .Vol 7,No 5 ,p.p :19-23
- Dale, D., (2010). Importance of Instructional Materials in Curriculum Implementation. Available in [http:// www.doublegist.com](http://www.doublegist.com)

- Daniel, W. W. (2013). *Biostatistics: a foundation for analysis in the health sciences*. New York: John Wiley and Sons
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2012). *Creating a Comprehensive System for Evaluating and Supporting Effective Teaching*. Stanford, CA. Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education (On-line). Available at; <http://edpolicy.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/publications/.../pdf> Retrieved on; 25.05.2015
- Darling-Hammond, L., et al. 2009. "Professional Learning in the Learning Profession: A Status Report on Teacher Development in the United States and Abroad." Working paper, National Staff Development Council and The School Redesign Network at Stanford University
- Darling - Hammond, L. (2010). Evaluating teacher effectiveness. How Teacher Performance Assessments Can Measure and Improve Teaching. Center for American Progress.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006) (a) *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs*. San Francisco: John Wiley and sons, Inc.21.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2006) (b). Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57 (3), 300
- Darling – Hammond L. (1999). Solving dilemma of teacher supply demand and standards: How we can ensure a competent, caring and qualified teacher for every child. New York: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000) (b). How teacher education matters. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(3), 166-173.
- Darling – Hammond L. (2000) (a). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. A peer reviewed scholarly electronic journal. Vol.8, No. 1
- Darling-Hammond, L., Wei, R. C. & Andree, A. (2010). *How high-achieving countries develop great teachers - Research brief*. Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1996). What matters most: A competent teacher for every child. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 78(3).

- Davidheiser, J. C. (2007). Fairy tales and foreign languages: Ever the twain shall meet. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40, 215–225. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2007.tb03198.x
- Davis, S. S. 1997. Using the discourse of American superhero comics as teaching tools in the EFL classroom. In Davis & Iwata 1997: 89-98.
- Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (2000). Reaching reluctant readers. *English Teaching Forum*, 38(3). Retrieved from <http://eca.state.gov/forum/vols/vol38/no3/p12.htm>
- de Garcia, L.A. (2013). How to Get Students Talking! Generating Math Talk that Supports Math Learning. *Mathsolutions*, <http://www.mathsolutions.com/documents/How-To-Get-Students-Talking.pdf>, downloaded in May.
- Devellis, R.F. (1991) *Scale Development: Theory and Applications*, *Applied Social Research Methods Series* 26, Sage: Newbury Park.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: *Free Press*, 578, 53-60.
- Dewey, J. (1974). *The Child and the curriculum*. In Archambault, R.D.(Ed.). *John Dewey on education*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 339-358.
- DfE. (2013) *Teachers' Standards: revised 2013*, [Online] https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/208682/Teachers__Standards_2013.pdf.
- Dhanapal, S. (2010). Stylistics and reader response: An integrated approach to the teaching of literary texts. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, 1 (4), 233-240
- Divsar, H., Tahriri, A. (2009). Investigating the Effectiveness of an Integrated Approach to Teaching Literature in an EFL Context. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 2 (13), 105-116.
- Dixon-Krauss, L. (2002). Using literature as a context for teaching vocabulary. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 45(4), 310-318.
- De Matos, F. G. 2005. "The EFL Teacher as a Humanizer". *IATEFL Issues*.
- Dillard, M. (2005, December). Vocabulary instruction in the English classroom. *Studies in Teaching 2005 Research Digest*, 21-25.

- Donahue, D., & Stuart, J. (2008). Working towards balance: arts integration in pre-service teacher education in an era of standardization. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(2), 343-355.
- Dornyei, Z. 2003. "Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivations in Language Learning: Advances in Theory, Research, and Applications". *Language Learning*, 53, 1-32.
- Dornyei, Z. 1990. "Conceptualizing Motivation in Foreign Language Learning". *Language Learning*, 40, 46-78.
- Dornyei, Z. 2000. "Motivation in Action: Towards a Process-oriented Conceptualization of Student Motivation". *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70, 519-538.
- Dörnyei, Z. 2009. *The Psychology of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gajdusek, L. 1988. Toward Wider Use of Literature in ESL: Why and how. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(2), 227-257.
- Dupuy, B. (2000). Content-based instruction: Can it help ease the transition from beginning to advanced foreign language classes? *Foreign Language Annals* (33), 205-223.
- du Plessis, J., & Muzaffar, I. (2010). *Professional learning communities in the teachers' college: A resource for teacher educators*. Educational Quality Improvement Program 1 (EQUIP1). Washington, DC: USAID and American Institutes for Research.
- Durant, A. 1996. Designing group work activities: A case study. In Carter & McRae 1996a: 65-88.
- Durant, A. 1993. Interactive approaches to teaching literature in Hong Kong. In: Brumfit & Benton 1993:150-171.
- Earley, P. and Bubb, S. 2004. *Leading and managing continuing professional development: Developing people, developing schools*. London: Paul Chapman.
- Eastment, D. 2002. Literature. *ELT journal*, 56 (4): 438-440
- Egbo, B. (2011). *Teacher Capacity Building and Effective Teaching and Learning: A Seamless Connection*. Proceedings of the 2011 International Conference on Teaching, Learning and Change. Omoku, Rivers State, Nigeria: September 5-8, 2011. International Association for Teaching and Learning. (On-line) Available at: www.hrmas.com/admin/pics/331.pdf. Retrieved on; 29.09.2013

- Ekpo, O. E. (2004). Instructional strategies and the challenges of implementing school curriculum in Nigeria, Lead paper presented at 17th Annual Conference of the Curriculum Organisation of Nigeria (CON) held at University of Uyo, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, 14th – 17th September.
- Ekpoh, V. I., Oswald, A., & Victoria, Staff Development Programmes and Secondary School Teachers' Job Performance in Uyo Metropolis, Nigeria, *Journal of Education & Practice*, Vol.14, No.12. (2013).
- Elawar, M. C., & Corno, L. (1985). A Factorial experiment in teachers' written feedback on student homework: changing teacher behaviour a little rather than a lot. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 77,162 – 173.
- Elly, W.B. & Mangubhai (1983). The impact of reading on second language learning, *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19, 53-67.
- Elgar, A. G. 2002. Student playwriting for language development. *ELT journal*, 56 (1): 22-28.
- Enaigbe, A. P. (2009). Strategies for improving supervisory skills for effective primary education in Nigeria. *Edo Journal of Counselling*, 2(2), 235-244.
- Eniyewu, J. (2005). Effect of instructional materials on teaching of economics in secondary schools in Akoko North-East Local Governemnt Area of Ondo State. *Ikere Journal of Education*, 7, 117-120.
- Eremina A. H. A., and Reginald, P. U., (2016). Effect of Assessment for Learning (AFL) on Biology Academic Achievement of Senior Secondary Students in Rivers State. *European Journal of Educational and Development Psychology* Vol.4, No.2, Pp.12-24,
- Eren, A., & Tezel, K. V. (2010). Factors influencing teaching choice, professional plans about teaching, and future time perspective: A mediational analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(7), 1416-28.
- Erkaya, O. R. (2005). Benefits of using short stories in the EFL Context. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8, 1-13.
- Esu, A.E.O., Erukoha, O.I.T., & Umorem, G. U. (2004). Curriculum development in Nigeria for colleges and universities. Owerri: Whyte and Whyte Publishers.

- Evans, D. K. & Popova, A. 2015. What Really Works to Improve Learning in Developing Countries? An Analysis of Divergent Findings in Systematic Reviews. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 7203.
- Eze, T. I., Ezenwafor, J. I. and Molokwu, L. I., (2015). Effect of meta-learning teaching method on the academic performance of building trades students in technical colleges in South-East Nigeria. *International Journal of Vocational and Technical Education* Vol. 7(10), pp101 - 108
- Fadeyiye, J.O. (2005). *A social studies textbook for colleges and universities*. Ibadan: Akin-Johnson Press and Publishers.
- Fakeye O. D. (2012). Teachers qualification and subject mastery as predictors of achievement in English language in Ibarapapa Division of Oyo State. *Global Journal of Human Social Science* Vol 12 (3) Version 1.0 February 2012
- Falus V. (2002). The Teacher Who Learns 76 - 83
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2008). Teacher learning: How do teachers learn to teach? In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, & D.J. McIntyre (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed., pp. 697–705). New York: Routledge.
- Fenstermacher G. D. and Richardson, V. (2005). On making determinations of quality in teaching. *Teachers' college record* 107(1), 186 – 213.
- Ferreira, H. and Graça, R. (2006) Special educational needs: An experiment in teacher education in Portugal. In Gash, H. (ed.) *Beginning teachers and diversity in school: A European Study*. Instituto Politécnico de Bragança Report of research undertaken within Comenius Project 94158-CP-1-2001-FR
- Fernandez, C., & Yoshida, M. (2004). Lesson study: A Japanese approach to improving mathematics teaching and learning. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Fernandez, T., Ritchie, G., & Barker, M. (2008). A sociocultural analysis of mandated curriculum change: the implementation of a new senior physics curriculum in New Zealand schools. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 40 (2), 187-213.
- Ferradas, C., (2009). *Enjoying literature with teen and young adults in the English language class*. (London, British Council).
- FGN (2004). National Policy on Education. Federal Government of Nigeria.

- Fielding, L.G. & Pearson, P.D. (1994). Reading comprehension: What works, *Educational Leadership*, 51(5), 62-68.
- Fitzgerald, J. (1993). Literacy and students who are learning English as a second language. *The Reading Teacher*, 46(8), 638-647.
- Floden, R. (2001). Research on effects of teaching: A continuing model for research on teaching. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (4th ed., pp. 3–16). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Forlin, C. (2008) Education reform for inclusion in the Asia-Pacific Region: What about Teacher Education? In Forlin, C. and Lian, Ming-Gon John (eds.) (2008) *Reform, Inclusion and Teacher Education: Towards a new era of special education in the Asia-Pacific region*. London: Routledge
- Florian, L. & Black-Hawkins, K. (2011) Exploring inclusive pedagogy, *British Educational Research Journal*, 37:5, 813-828.
- Francis, M. A., & Simpson, M. L. (2003). Using theory, our intuitions, and a research study to enhance students' vocabulary knowledge. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 47(1), 66-78.
- Frank, M. (1995). *If you are trying to teach kids how to write . . . you've gotta have this book!* (2nd ed.). Nashville, TN: Incentive Publications.
- Frantzen, D. (2002). Rethinking foreign language literature: Towards an integration of literature and language at all levels. En V. Scott, & H. Tucker (ed.), *SLA and the Literature Classroom: Fostering Dialogues* (pp.109-130). Boston: Heinle&Heinle.
- Frederick, B. J. A., & Stephen, O. O. Teachers' Perceptions of Staff Development Programmes as it Relates to Teachers' Effectiveness: A Study of Rural Primary Schools' in Kenya, *Educational Research & Review*, Vol.5(1). (2010).
- Freeman, D (1998) *Doing teacher research*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Fullan, M. (2008). Curriculum implementation and sustainability. In F.M. Connelly (Ed.), *The sage publications handbook of curriculum and instruction* (pp. 25-44): Los Angeles: Sage Publications Publications.
- Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of education reform*. London: The Falmer Press.

- Fullan, M. (1991). *The new meaning of education change*. London: Cassell Educational Limited.
- Fullan, M. (2000). *The new meaning of education change*. London: Cassell Educational Limited.
- Fullan, M. (2001). *The new meaning of education change* (3rd ed.) New York: Teachers' college, Columbia University.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *The new meaning of educational change* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Gajdusek, L., & van Dommelen, D. (1993). Literature and critical thinking in the composition classroom. In J. Carson & I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 197-215). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Ganyaupfu, M. E., (2013), Teaching Methods and Students' Academic Performance. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*. Vol. 2 Issue
- Garet, M., et al. 2011. "Middle school mathematics professional development impact study: Findings after the second year of implementation." Working paper, Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education.
- Gathumbi, A. W. (2008). The process of developing English literacy norms. In T. Groenewegen, (Ed.). *Benchmarks for English language education* (pp 45-88). Nairobi: Phoenix Publishers. 9, pp. 29 – 35.
- Gay, G. and Kirkland, K. (2003) Developing cultural critical consciousness and selfreflection in pre-service teacher education. *Theory into Practice* 42 (3), 181-187
- Gay, L.R.; Mills, G.E.; Airasian, P. (2006) *Educational research: Competencies from Analysis and Application* (8th edition). Published by Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall, New Jersey, Columbus, Ohio.
- Gauteng Department of Education (1996) Working Document on Curriculum Change. Pretoria: Government Printer
- Gebhard, J and Oprandy, R (1999) *Language teaching awareness: A guide to exploring beliefs and practices*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Genesee, F. and J. Upshur (1996) *Classroom-Based Evaluation in Second Language Education*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ghaderpanahi, L. (2012). Using Authentic Aural Materials to Develop Listening Comprehension in the EFL Classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 5(6), 146-153.
- Ghosn, I. (2002). Four good reasons to use literature in primary school ELT. *ELT Journal*, 56, (2), 172-179.
- Gichuki, A. W. (2007). Challenges facing teachers implementing revised English curriculum in secondary schools in Othaya division, Nyeri district, Kenya. Unpublished master's for master's degree, Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E., & Chadwick, B., (2008) *Methods of Data Collection in Qualitative Research: Interviews and Focus Groups*. *British dental journal* 204, 291-295 published online:22 march 2008/doi:10.1038/bdj.2008.192
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language teaching*, 40(02), 97-118
- Goldhaber, D. *Everyone's doing it, but what does teacher testing tell us about teacher effectiveness?* <http://www.crpe.org>. Center on Reinventing Public Education. Paper presented at the AERA annual meeting April 4, 2006, 31. (pdf article on crpe.org website. Search by author or title on website).
- Grant W., and Jay McTighe J., (1998). *Understanding by Design*. Alexandria: ASCD, 1998, 8-9.
- Greenberg, D., Rodrigo, V., Berry, A., Brinck, T., & Joseph, H. (2006). Implementation of an extensive reading program with adult learners. *Adult Basic Education*, 16(2), 81-97.
- Green, B. L., Everhart, M., Gordon, L., & Gettman, M. G. (2006). Characteristics of effective mental health consultation in early childhood settings: Multilevel analysis of a national survey. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 26(3), 142-152.
- Gregory, E. and Williams, A. (2000) *City Literacies*. London: Routledge
- Gregory, R.J. (1992) *Psychological Testing: History, Principles and Applications*, Allyn and Bacon: Boston

- Greitzer, F. A. (2002), "Cognitive Approach to Student-Centered E-Learning, Human Factors and Society," 46th Annual Meeting, Sept 30 – Oct 4.
- Griffin, C. C., Jones, H. A. and Kilgore, K. L. (2006) A Qualitative Study of Student Teachers' Experiences with Collaborative Problem Solving. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 29 (1), 44-55
- Griffin, P. (2000). Students! Take your marks, get set, learn. Identifying 'Readiness to Learn' as a benefit of outcomes based education. Keynote address delivered at the Education Queensland Mount Gravatt Symposium, Assessment and Reporting in an Outcomes Framework, July 17, 2000.
- Grossman, P. (2005). Research on pedagogical approaches in teacher education. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. Zeichner (Eds.). *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (pp. 425-476). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association and Erlbaum.
- Grossman, P., Schoenfeld, A., & Lee, C. (2005). Teaching subject matter. In L. Darling-Hammond, & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 201-232). San Francisco: Jossey-bass.
- Guariento, W., & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 55(4), 347-353. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.4.347>
- Guo, S. (2012). Using Authentic Materials for Extensive Reading to Promote English Proficiency Canadian Center of Science and Education English Language Teaching; Vol. 5, No. 8; 2012
- Gurney P., (2007) *Five Factors for Effective Teaching*: New Zealand Journal Teacher's Work Vol. 4 Issue 2, 89 – 98
- Gutek, G.L. (1997) *Philosophical and Ideological Perspectives in Education*. MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hadaway, N. (2002). Literature-based instruction with English language learners, K-12. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Häggbloom, C., (2006). *Young efl Pupils Reading Multicultural Children's Fiction: An Ethnographic Case Study in a Swedish Language Primary School in Finland*. Abo:Abo Akademi up.

- Hajkova, V. (2007) *Nová profesionalita pedagogů v inkluzivní školní praxi* [The New Expertise of Teachers in Inclusive School Practice]. In Šimoník, O., Škrabánková, J., Šťáva, J. (eds.) *Dimenze pedagogické práce s nadanými žáky*. Sborník referátů z mezinárodního semináře [CD-ROM]. Brno: MSD, spol. s.r.o. 94-103
- Hall G.E and, Hord SM (1987). *Change in schools: facilitating the process*. State University Press, Alban
- Hall, G. (2005) *Literature in Language Education*. Palgrave: macmillan
- Halpin, D., Dickson, M., Power, S., Whitty, G., & Gewirtz, S. (2004). Curriculum innovation within an evaluative state: issues of risk and reflection. *The Curriculum Journal*, 15 (3).
- Hammerness, K., Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. with Berliner, D., Cochran-Smith, M., McDonald, M., & Zeichner, K. (2005). How teachers learn and develop. In L. Darling- Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world* (pp. 358-389). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hammond, L.D., Bransford, J.& LePage, P. (2005) *Preparing teachers for a changing world: what teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. p.88.
- Hamouda, A. (2013). An Investigation of Listening Comprehension Problems Encountered by Saudi Students in the EL Listening Classroom. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*. 2(2), 113-155.
- Hanauer, D. (2001). The task of poetry reading and second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 295-323.
- Hand B., Hohenshell L., Prain V., *Instructional Science* 35(4) (2007) 343(31).
- Handler, B., (2010). Teacher as curriculum leader: a consideration of the appropriateness of the role assignment to classroom – based practitioners. *International journal of teacher leadership* vol. 3 no. 3 retrievd from <http://www.csupomona.edu/ijtl> on november 15. 2016
- Hanushek, E. A. (1996). A more complete picture of school resource policies. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(3), 397-409.
- Hanushek E A (2003). The Failure of Input-Based Schooling Policies. *Economic Journal*, 113 February, F64-F98.

- Harmer, J. (2003) *The practice of English language teaching*. Malaysia: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.
- Harris, D.N., and T.R. Sass. 2011. "Teacher Training, Teacher Quality and Student Achievement." *Journal of Public Economics* 95:798–812.
- Harris, A. (2002). *School Improvement: What's in it for Schools?* London: Routledge.
- Harrison, C. & Harlen, W. (2006). 'Children's Self and Peer-assessment In Harlen W. (Ed) *ASE Guide to primary science Education*. Hatfield: Association for Science Education.
- Hassan, T. (2001). Students' performance and certification. Proceeding of the 16th Annual, Congress of the Nigerian Academy of Education Held in the University of Jos. Jos, 68-81.
- Hattie, J. A. C. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of meta-analyses relating to achievement*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77, 81-112.
- Hazzi O. A. and Maldon I. S. (2015). *A pilot study: Vital methodological issues*. Department of Business Administration, Damascus University, Damascus, Syrian Arab Republic VGTU Press
- Heath, S. B 1993. Inner city life through drama: Imagining the language classroom. *TESOL quarterly*, 27 (2): 177-192.
- Helfrich, G. V. 1993. Using fables. *English teaching forum*, 31 (4): 36-37.
- Helgesen, M. (2003). Listening in Practical Language Teaching, edited by David Nunan.
- Helm, J. H. (2007). Energize your professional development by connecting with a purpose: Building communities of practice. *Young Children*, 62(4), 12-17.
- Henson, R.K. (2001) Understanding Internal Consistency Reliability Estimates: A Conceptual Primer on Coefficient Alpha, *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 34:177-188.

- Hess, N. 2006. The short story: Integrating language skills through the parallel life approach. In Paran 2006a: 27-43.
- Hesson M, Shad KF (2007). A student-centered learning model. Amer. J. Appl. Sci. 628-636.
- Hightower, M. A., Delgado C. R., Llyod, C. S., Wittenstein, R., Sellers k. & Swanson, B. C., (2011). *Improving Student Learning by Supporting Quality Teaching: Key Issues, Effective Strategies*. Editorial projects in education, inc
- Hill, J. (1994). Using literature in language teaching. London: Macmillan.
- Hişmanoğlu, M. (2005). Teaching English through Literature, Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, vol.1 No. 1, April 2005.
- Hoadley, U., P.Christie & C.Ward. 2009. "Managing to learn - Instructional leadership in South African secondary schools". *Research and Development Programme (TEP) Conference* 138-151. Boksburg.
- Holland, G. R. (2003). *To Build a Better Teacher: The Emergence of a Competitive Education Industry*. Westport: Praeger.
- Hopkins, D. & Ainscow, M. (1993). *Making sense of school improvement: An interim account of the IQEA project*. Paper presented to the ESRC Seminar Series on School effectiveness and School Improvement, Sheffield
- Hornberger, N. H., & Vaish, V. (2008). Multilingual language policy and school linguistic practice: Globalization and English-language teaching in India Singapore and South Africa. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative Education*, 39(3),305-320
<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/03057920802469663>
- Hosseini, M., Taghizadeh, M. E. Abedin, M. J. Z. & Naseri E. (2013). In the Importance of EFL Learners' writing Skill: Is there any Relation between Writing Skill and Content Score of English Essay Test? *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences Online*: 2013-09-25 ISSN: 2300-2697, Vol.6, pp 1-12
doi:10.18052/www.scipress.com/ILSHS.6.1
- Howson, G., Keitel, C., & Kilpatrick, J. (1981). Curriculum development in mathematics. London: Cambridge University Press.

- Hsiao, C., Y. Shen, B.Wang, & G. Weeks. 2008. "Evaluating the effectiveness of Washington state repeated job search services on the employment rate of primeage female welfare recipients." *Journal of Econometrics* 145:98 – 108, The use of econometrics in informing public policy makers.
- Huei-Chun, T. (1998). A Study of EFL Listening Comprehension Strategies. Eric. 1-19.
- Hunter, A. (2009). Join the literacy club. *Principal Leadership*, 9(9), 36.
- Hunt, G., Wiseman, D. G., & Touzel, T. J. (2009). *Effective teaching: preparation and implementation*. Springfield: Charles C. Thomas Pub Limited
- Hutchinson, T., & Torres, E. (1994). The textbooks as agent of change. *ELT Journal*, 48(4), 315-328.
- Ikerionwu, J.C. (2000). Importance of aids and resources in classroom teaching. In A.M. Oyeneyin (Ed.), *Perspective of classroom teaching*. Abuja: Martmonic Investment Ltd.
- Inan, B. (2009). Teaching the humanistic culture of Socrates, Erasmus and Thomas More through textual analysis (*Unpublished doctoral dissertation*). İzmir, Turkey: Dokuz Eylül University.
- Ingule F.& Gatumu H., (2013), *Essentials of Educational Statistics*, Nairobi: East Africa Educational Publishers.
- Ismail, S. I., Rahman, A. B., Noordin, M. N., & Mustafa, S. M., (2013), *The relationship between Learning Approaches and Academic Achievement Among Intec Students, Uitm Shah Alam*. 6th International Conference on University Learning and Teaching
- Isola, O. M. (2010) *Effects of Standardized and Improvised Instructional Materials on Students' Academic Achievement Secondary School Physics*. M.Ed Thesis, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.
- Jacob, B.A., and L. Lefgren. 2004. "The Impact of Teacher Training on Student Achievement: Quasi-Experimental Evidence from School Reform Efforts in Chicago." *Journal of Human Resources* 39. Lee, D.
- Jabbarifar, T. (2009). The importance of classroom assessment and evaluation in educational system. Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference of Teaching and Learning (ICTL 2009) INTI University College, Malaysia

- Jahangir, S. F., Saheen, N., & Kazmi, S. F., (2012). *In-service training: A contributory factor influencing teacher's performance*. International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development. Vol. 1, No.1.
- Jalongo, M. R., Rieg, S. A., & Helderbran, V. R. (2007). *Planning for learning: Collaborative approaches to lesson design and review*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Jekayinfa, A.A., (2013). *Effects of Instructional Resources on Academic Performance of Students of History in Nigeria*. Retrieved from <https://www.unlorins.edu.ng/.../2>
- Jekayinfa, A.A. (2012). *Fundamentals of instructional methods*. Ilorin, Kwara State, Olives Production Ltd.
- John, P. (2006) Lesson planning and the student teacher: re-thinking the dominant model, *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38:4, 483-498.
- Jones, J., (2010) *Lesson Planning: Towards purposeful learning and effective teaching*. Kings college. University of Lodon
- Johnson, B and Irujo, S (2001) *Research and Practice in Language Teacher Education:Voices from the Field*. Selected Papers from the First International Conference onLanguage Teacher Education.
- Johnson, J. A. (2001, August 28). Curriculum revision that works. In *principles of effective change*. Retrieved March 10, 2014
- Kang'ahi, M., Indoshi, F., Okwach, O. T., & Osodo, J. (2012), *Teaching styles and Learners' Achievement in Kiswahili Language in Secondary Schools*. International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development.
- Kang, S-W (December 30, 2008) Half of native English instructors quit after a year. *Korea Times*. Available online at www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/include/print.asp?newsIdx=37020
- Kanu, Y. (2005). Tensions and dilemmas of cross-cultural transfer of knowledge: Post-structural/postcolonial reflections on an innovative teacher education in Pakistan. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 25(5), 493–513.
- Kanu, Y. (2007). Tradition and educational reconstruction inAfrica in postcolonial and global times: The case for Sierra Leone. *Tradition*, 9(3).

- Kara, M. A., Njagi, W. L., and Kimani, N. G. (2013) *Teacher Factors Influencing Students' Academic Achievement in Secondary Schools in Nyamira County, Kenya*. International Journal of Education and Research. Vol. 1 No.3 March 2013.
- Karant, P. 1994. *Grammar through stories*. New York: St. Mark's Press.
- Kayapınar, U. (2009). Course-book evaluation by English teachers. *Inönü University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 10(1), 69-78.
- Kazmi, S. F., Pervez, T., Mumtaz, S. (2011). *In-service training in Pakistan schools and total quality*. Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, March Edition, 2011.
- Kealey K.A., Peterson A.V., Jr, Gaul M.A., Dinh K.T. (2000). *Teacher training as a behavior change process: principles and results from a longitudinal study*. Health Educ Behav.;27(1):64–81. [PubMed]
- Kellaghan, T. & Greaney, V. (2001). Using assessment to improve the quality of education, UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning, Retrieved February 20, 2013 from <http://www.unesco.Org/iiep>.
- Kelley, M. F. (1996). Collaboration in early childhood education. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 7(3), 275-282.
- Kennedy, C. & Kennedy, J. (1996). *Teacher attitudes and change Implementation*. Elsevier Science Ltd.
- Kennedy, S. 2000. Teaching language through storytelling using Irish myths and legends. *Folio*, 6 (1): 19-20.
- Keraro, F.N; Okere, M.O & Mondoh, H.O. (2004). Nature and Quality of Teacher-pupil interaction in Primary Science Lessons: A Constructivist Perspective. *Journal of Technology and Education in Nigeria*, vol 9. No.1 2004, p19.
- Kerlinger, F. N. & Lee H. B. (2000) (4th ed.) *Foundations of Behavioural Research*, New York: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Khatib M. & Daftarifard P. (2013). *The Effect of Reading Poems on Learners' Reading Motivation*. Journal of Literature, Culture & Media Studies vol. 9 & 10.
- Khatib M. Ranjbar S. and Fathi J.(2012). 'The Role of Literature in EFL Classroom from an EIL Perspective', *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies*. Vol. 2(2) February 2012, pp. 12- 21.

- Khatib, M., Rezaei, R., Derakhshan, A. (2011). Literature in the EFL/ESL classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 4(1), 201-208.
- KICD (2006) *A Report of the Orientation of PTE College Lecturers on the Revised PTE Curriculum*: Teacher Education Division
- KICD (2002). Kenya Secondary School English Curriculum. Retrieved from http://www.elimu.net/Secondary/Kenya/KCSE_Student/English/English.htm
- Kilickaya, F. (2004). Authentic materials and cultural content in EFL classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 10(7).
- Kimberly, B. 2009. Characteristic of effective teachers. Edu books. USA. Retrieved July 6,2011 from <http://www.edubooks.com/author/kaback/> .p.10
- Kimeu, R. M., Tanui, E. & Ronoh, A., (2015). *Influence of Instructional Resources on Secondary Schools Students' Academic Performance in Makueni County, Kenya*. *International Journal of Scientific Research and innovative technology*. Vol. No. 1 January, 2015.
- King, G., Strachan, D., Tucker, M., Duwyn, B., Desserud, S., & Shillington, M. (2009). The application of a transdisciplinary model for early intervention services. *Infants and Young Children*, 22, 211-223.
- Kioko, A. N., & Muthwii, J. M. (2001). Demands of a changing society: English in Education in Kenya today. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 14(3)201 - 213. <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/07908310108666622>
- Kiringa, N. G., (2015) *Implementation of HIV/AIDS syllabus in primary teacher training colleges in Kenya: An evaluation study*. A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of doctor of philosophy in curriculum studies, University of Nairobi
- Kisaka, J., (2015). *Cultural Factors Hindering Mastery of English Language In Primary and Secondary Schools: A Case of Kilifi County, Kenya*. *British Journal of Education* Vol.3, No.2 February, 2015
- Knight, L. (1993). Four comments on `Two views on the use of literature in composition. *College English*, 55,672-679.
- Knowles, M., Holton, E., & Swanson, R. (2005). *The Adult Learner*. Oxford: Elsevier.

- Koerner, M., Rust, F., & Baumgartner, F. (2002). Exploring roles in student teaching placements. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 29(2), 35–58.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Kosnik, C. and Beck, C. (2009) *Priorities in Teacher Education: The 7 Key Elements of Pre-service Preparation*. Oxford: Routledge
- Koszalka, T., Breman, J., & Moore, M. K. (1999). Sharing lesson plans over the World Wide Web: Important components. *Education and Information Technologies*, 4, 143-151.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1009647900657>
- Kothari, C. R. (2008). *Research methodology and techniques* (Second revised edition). New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.
- Kraemer, K.L. (1991). Introduction. Paper Presented at The Information Systems Research Challenge: survey research methods
- Krashen, S. (2003). *Explorations in language acquisition and use: The Tapei lectures*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis*. Torrance, California: Lored Publishing Co.
- Krashen, S. (2004). *The power of reading* (2nd Ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Kramersch, C. (2013). Culture in Foreign Language Teaching. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1 (1), 57–78.
- Kubik, L. K., (2010). *Using literature in EFL education - the connection between theory and practice*. Examensarbete 30 hp Engelsk didaktik lärarprogrammet 90
- Kubitskey, B. & Fishman, B. J. (2006). *Professional development design for systematic curriculum change*. American Education Research Association AERA. The Centre for Highly Interactive Curricular and Computing in Education, Michigan: university of Michigan p.1 – 2
- Kuzu, A., Akbulut, Y., & Şahin, M. C. (2007). Application of multimedia design principles to Visuals used in course-books: An evaluation tool. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 6(2), 8-14.
- Langer, J. (1997). Literacy acquisition through literature. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 40, 602-614.

- Larrivee, B. (2000) Transforming training practice: Becoming the critically reflective teacher. *Reflective Practice*, 1 (3), 293-307
- Latosi-Sawin, E. (1993). Four comments on `Two views on the use of literature in composition. *College English*, 55,672-679.
- Lazar, G. (1993). Literature and language teaching. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, S. Y. (2008). Storytelling and sustained silent reading in foreign language acquisition: Evidence from Taiwan. Retrieved from <http://www.kzneducation.gov.za/Portals/0/ELITS%20website%20Homepage/IASL%202008/professional%20papers/leepp.pdf>
- Lee, W. (1995). Authenticity revisited: text authenticity and learner authenticity. *ELT Journal*, 49(4), 323-328.
- Lee, Y. A., & Takahashi, A. (2011). Lesson plans and the contingency of classroom interactions. *Human Studies*, 34, 209-227. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10746-011-9181-1>
- Lenski, S. J., & Caskey, M. M. (2009). Using the Lesson Study Approach to Plan for Student Learning. *Middle School Journal*, 40(3),50-57.
- Leon, A. C.; Davis, L. L.; Kraemer, H. C. 2011. The role and interpretation of pilot studies in clinical research, *Journal of Psychiatric Research* 45(5): 626–629. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2010.10.008>
- LePage, P. (2005). Classroom management. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.). *Preparing teachers for a changing world* (pp. 327-357). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Leu, E., & Price-Rom, A. (2006). *Quality of education and teacher learning: A review of the literature*. Washington DC: USAID/EQUIP1.
- Levine, R. (2000). *In Ensuring learning takes place: A focus in literacy*. Paper prepared for Human Development Week, World Bank, Washington D.C. March.
- Lewin, K.M., & Stuart, J.S. (2003). *Researching teacher education: New perspective on practice, performance and policy*. Multi-Site teacher education research project (MUSTER): Synthesis report. London: Department for International Development.
- Lewis, C. C., & Hurd, J. (2011). *Lesson study step by step*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

- Liang, L. L., Ebenezer, J., & Yost, D. S. (2010). Characteristics of pre-service teachers. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 19(1), 11.
- Liaw, M. L., (2001). Exploring literary responses in an EFL classroom. *Foreign language annals* 34 (1) 35-45
- Liddicoat, A. C. (Ed.). (2000). *Teaching Languages, Teaching Cultures*. Melbourne: Language Australia.
- Lieberman, A., Saxl, E. R., & Miles, M. B. (1988/2001). Teacher leadership: Ideology and practice. In *The Jossey-Bass reader on educational leadership*, (pp. 348-365). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Likert R. A. (1932) Technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Arch Psychology*. 22(140):55.
- Lima, C. (2005). Is the rest silence ...? *IATEFL* (186). Retrieved from <http://www.iatefl.org/iatefl/iatefl-voices>.
- Lima, C. (2010). Selecting Literary Texts for Language Learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 15 (1-2), 110-114.
- Lin, B. (2006). Exploring the literary text through grammar and the re-integration of literature and language teaching. In A. Paran (ed.), *Literature in language teaching and learning* (pp.146-151). Virginia: TESOL.
- Littlejohn, A. (2012). Language teaching materials and the (very) big picture. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(1), 283–297. Retrieved from: <http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/v9s12012/littlejohn.pdf>.
- Little, J.W., et al, (2003) “Looking at Student Work for Teacher Learning, Teacher Community, and School Reform.” *Phi Delta Kappan* 85.3, 185-192.
- Little O., Goe, L. and Bell, C. (2009). A practical guide to evaluating teacher effectiveness: National Comprehensive Centre for Teacher Quality. Learning point associates: ETS
- Long, T. and John, M. (2000). Rigour, reliability and validity in qualitative research *Clin Eff Nurs* 4: 30-7
- Lumsden, E. (2005). Joined up thinking in practice: An exploration of professional collaboration. In T. Waller (Ed.), *An Introduction to Early Childhood: A multidisciplinary approach* (pp. 39-54). London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

- Lupascu, R. A., Panisoara, G. and Panisoara, I. (2014). Characteristics of effective teacher. *Parocedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*. Bucharest: Elsevier
- Mabry, L., & Ettinger, L. (1999). Supporting community-oriented educational change: Case and analysis. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 7(14). Retrieved February 4, 2008, from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v7n14.html>
- Magona, C. M. (1999). *Teacher related factors which influence the implementation of integrated English course in secondary schools: a case of Ibacho division, Kisii central district*. Unpublished master's thesis, Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Majumdar, P.K. (2005). *Research Methods on Social Science*. Vinod Vasishtha.
- Maley, A. (1989a). Down from the pedestal: Literature as resource. In R. Carter, R. Walker & C. Brumfit (eds.), *Literature and the learner: methodological approaches*. (pp. 1-9). Modern English Publications and the British Counsel.
- Maley, A. (2009). Extensive reading: Why it is good for our students... and for us. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/extensive-reading-why-it-good-our-students%E2%80%A6-us>
- Maley, A. (2001) Literature in the language classroom. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Maley, A. 1996. "That's for your Poetry Book". In R. Carter & J. McRae (Eds.), *Language, Literature and the Learner: Creative Classroom Practice* (pp. 100-117). Longman: Longman.
- Malgwi, G. J. 2003. Building a class library using local folktales. *English teaching forum*, 41(4): 48-49.
- Malhotra, N.K. (2004) *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation* (4th edn) Pearson Education, Inc: New Jersey.
- Manyasi N. B. (2014) Integrated Approach in Teaching English Language: The Practice in Kenya. *International Journal of Education and Research* Vol. 2 No. 4
- Manzo, A. V., Manzo, U. C., & Thomas, M. M. (2006). Rationale for systematic vocabulary development: Antidote for state mandates. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 49(7), 610-619.

- Marsh, D., (2011). 'An Introduction to CLIL for Parents and Young People in Ten Languages'. David Marsh and Gisella Langé, eds. *Using Languages to Learn and Learning to Use Languages*. Jyväskylä: U of Jyväskylä.
- Martin, I. 2000. Theoretical, practical and didactic reasons for using contemporary British poetry in the ELT classroom. *IATEFL literature and cultural studies*, 19: 3-15.
- Martinez, A. (2002). *Authentic materials: An overview*. *Karen's linguistic Issues*.
- Martyniuk, W., (2008). 'CLIL-at the Core of Plurilingual Education?'. Robert Wilkinson and Vera Zegers, eds. *Realizing Content and Language Integration in Higher Education*. Maastricht: Maastricht U Language Centre. 13-20.
- Maryellen, W. (2009). *Finding the Best Method In: Effective Strategies for Improving College Teaching and Learning*. The Teaching Professor. Magna Publication (2009).
- Marzano, R. J.; Marzano, J. S.; Pickering, D. J. (2003) *Classroom Management That Works: Research-Based Strategies for Every Teacher*, Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development Publications, 1.
- Mason, G., B. O'Leary, and M. Vecchi. 2012. "Certified and uncertified skills and productivity growth performance: Cross-country evidence at industry level." *Labour Economics* 19:351 – 360.
- Matos, a. g., (2011). (Re)placing Literary Texts in the Intercultural Foreign Language Classroom. *International Education Studies* Vol. 4, No. 5; December 2011
- Mayer, R.E. (2009). *Multimedia learning* (2nd ed). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mbacho, W. N., & Githua, B. N. (2013) Effects of Jigsaw Cooperative Learning Strategies on Students' Achievement in Secondary School Mathematics in Laikipia East District, Kenya. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences and Education*. Vol. 2 No. 3, July 2013.
- McDermott, P., & Rothenberg, J. (2000). *The Characteristics of Effective Teachers in High Poverty Schools: Triangulating our Data*. Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans (ERIC Document Reproduction Service NO. ED 442887). Educational Association, New Orleans.

- McDonough, J., Shaw, C., & Masuhara, H. (2013). *Materials and methods in ELT: A teacher's guide* (3rd edition). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell
- McKay, S. (2001) Literature as Content for ESL/EFL. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Heinle & Heinle.
- McIntyre, L.J. (1999). *The Practical Skeptic: Core Concepts in Sociology*. Mountain View CA: Mayfield Publishing
- McWayne, C., Broomfield, M., Sidoti, J., & Camacho, N. (2008). Facilitators of and challenges to interagency collaboration: An early childhood perspective. *NHSA Dialog: A Research-to-Practice Journal for the Early InterventionField*, 11(2), 90-109.
- Mello, C. (1998). *O Ensino da literatura e a problemática dos géneros literários*. Coimbra: Almedina.
- Merriam-Webster, Inc. (2006). *Webster New Explorer Encyclopedia Dictionary*. Springfield MA: Author, P. 138
- Metzler, J., and L.Woessmann. 2010. "The Impact of Teacher Subject Knowledge on Student Achievement: Evidence from Within-Teacher Within-Student Variation." IZA Discussion Papers No. 4999, Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA).
- Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Miller, M. (2005). *Improving aural comprehension skills in EFL, using authentic materials: an experiment with university students in Nigata, Japan*. Unpublished Masteral thesis, University of Surrey, Guildford, UK.
- Miller, P., & Seller, W. (1990). *Curriculum Perspectives and Practice*. Toronto: Copp Clark Pitman Ltd.
- Minkoff, P. (2006). Talking it over in class. In A. Paran (ed.), *Literature in language teaching and learning*. Virginia:TESOL.
- Mitchell, B. (2016). Curriculum Construction and Implementation. *International Journal of Liberal Arts and Social Science*. Vol. 4 No. 4 May, 2016

- Mahmood T, Gondal B. M., Shah A. S., Iqbal, S., (2015) Effectiveness of In-Service Science Teaching Training for Better Science Teaching Practices at Elementary Level. *International Journal of AYER* Vol. 1, 2015- Page 456-462
- Moi, C. (1997). Reading rock poetry in the EFL class. *Folio*, 4 (1): 28-31.
- Momanyi, E. (2008). *Effects of Instructional Resources on the Academic Achievements of Secondary School Students in Kisii District* (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Moi University, Eldoret.
- Moon, J. (2005) *Children Learning English*. Macmillan
- Moonsri, A. Pattanajak A. (2009). Lesson Planning in Primary School Using Lesson Study and Open Approach Psychology 2013. Vol.4, No.12, 1064-1068 Published Online December 2013 in SciRes (<http://www.scirp.org/journal/psych>)
- Mori, S. 2002. "Redefining motivation to read in a foreign language". *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14(2), internet page downloaded from <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/october2002>
- Mosha, H. (2004) New directions in teacher education for quality improvement in Africa. *Papers in Education and Development*, 24, 23-28.
- Mosha, M. A., (2014). *Factors Affecting Students' Performance in English Language in Zanzibar Rural and Urban Secondary Schools*. *Journal of Education and Practice* ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.5, No.35, 2014 retrieved from www.iiste.org on june 1, 2017
- Mosothwane, M. (2012). The Role of Senior Secondary School Mathematics Teachers in the Development of Mathematics Curriculum in Botswana. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, 5(2), 117-129. Retrieved [DATE] from <http://www.ijrsre.com>.
- Mourão, S. (2003) *Realbooks in the Primary Classroom* (Southam: Mary Glasgow Scholastic).
- Mrozowska, H. 1998. *Adventure for the reader*. Warsaw: Wydawnictwa Szkolne I Pedagogiczne.
- Mugenda, O.M, and Mugenda, A.G. (2003) *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approach*. Nairobi: Act Press.
- Mullis,L, Kennedy, A., Martin, M., & Sainbury,M., (2004). *Assessment Framework and Specifications*. Chestnut Hill MA: Boston College.

- Mundy, K. E. (2008). *Comparative and International Education: Issues for Teachers*. Toronto; New York: Canadian Scholars' Press, Teachers College Press.
- Murdoch, G. S. 1992. The neglected text – A fresh look at teaching literature. *English teaching forum*, 30 (1): 2-9.
- Murdoch, G. S. 2002. Exploiting well-known short stories for language skills development. *IATEFL literature and cultural studies*, 23: 9-17.
- Murname, R. J. & Phillips, B. R. (1981). Learning by doing, vintage & Selection: three pieces of puzzle relating teaching experience and teaching performance. *Economics of Education Review*, 1, 691-693.
- Murphy, K., Soter, A., Wilkinson, I., Hennessey, M., & Alexander, J. (2009). Determining the Effects of Classroom Discussion on Students' Comprehension of Text: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychological*, 101(3), 740 – 764. Retrieved September, 2015.
- Musingafi, M.C., Mhute, I., Zebron, S. & Kaseke, K. E. (2015). Planning to Teach: Interrogating the Link among the Curricula, the Syllabi, Schemes and Lesson Plans in the Teaching Process *Journal of Education and Practice* Vol.6, No.9, 2015
- Mydans, S. (2007, April 9). Across cultures, English is the word. *New York Times*.
- Nabea, W. (2009). Language policy in Kenya: Negotiation with hegemony, *The Journal of Pan African Studies*, 3(1), 211-138.
- Nasr, N. (2001). The use of poetry in TEFL: Literature in the new Lebanese curriculum. *Revista de Filología y su Didáctica*, 24, 345-363.
- National Center for Education Statistics: Institute of Education Sciences (September 2011) *Beginning teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the first through third waves of the 2007–08 beginning teacher longitudinal study*. Available online at <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2011318>
- National commission on mathematics and science teaching (NCMST) 2000). *Before it is too late*. Jessup, md: educational publications centre.
- NCERT (2016). *Evaluation of In-service Training Programmes of NCERT A Report*

- Ness, M. K. (2009). Reading comprehension strategies in secondary content area classrooms: Teachers use of and attitudes towards reading comprehension instruction. *Reading Horizons*, 49 (2), 143-166
- Neto, Félix. 2006: 'Changing Intercultural Attitudes over Time'. *Journal of Intercultural Communication* 12 <<http://www.immi.se/intercultural/>> (Accessed 21 January, 2010)
- Nicholls, A. & Nicholls, S.H. (1972). *Developing a Curriculum: A Practical Guide*. London, George Allen and Unwin.
- Niles, R. (2006) "Robert Niles' Journalism Help: Statistics Every Writer Should Know" Robertniles.com Retrieved June 26, 2006 from <http://www.robertniles.com/stats/>.
- Nkang, I. E. (2002). *Fundamentals of educational administration*. 1st ed. Uyo: Afangide and Bross Printing and Publishing Company.
- Nkosi, P. T., (2014). *Teachers' experiences of the implementation of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement: a case study of three primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal Province*. Unpublished dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Education studies at the University of KwaZulu- Natal in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Education (Curriculum studies).
- Nomdo, I. (1995). *Collaborative Curriculum Development through Action Research*. University of Sussex: Institute of Education
- Noaman N. N. (2013). Literature and language skill. *Al-ustath* No 204 volume 2, 1434-321
- Nowrouzi, S., Tam, S. S., Zareian, G., & Nimehchisalem, V. (2015). Iranian EFL Students' Listening Comprehension Problems. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(2), 263-269.
- Nuova, A. (2009) Para una formacion de profesores consruida dentro de la profesion [Towards a teacher training developed insider the profession] *Revista de Educación*, 350, Septiembre-Diciembre, 203-218
- Nunnally, J.C., and Bernstein, I.H. (1994) *Psychometric Theory*, (3rd edn), Mcgraw-Hill: New York
- Nwike, C. M., & Catherine, O., (2013). Effects of Use of Instructional Materials on Students Cognitive Achievement in Agricultural Science *Journal of Educational and Social Research* Vol. 3 (5) ISSN 2239-978X

- Nye, B., Konstantopoulos, S., & Hedges, L. V. (2004). How large are teacher effects? *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 26, 237–57.
- Obanya, P. (2004). *The dynamics of secondary education: A synthesis of studies in four states of the federation*. Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- OECD (2009) *Creating effective teaching and learning environments – first results from TALIS* Available on line from: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/17/51/43023606.pdf> Last accessed 22/03/10
- OECD (2005) *Teachers matter. Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* Paris OECD. [Http://www.oecd.org/document/9/0,3343,en-2649-39263231-11969545-1-1-1-1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/9/0,3343,en-2649-39263231-11969545-1-1-1-1,00.html)
- Ogbondah, L. (2008). An appraisal of instructional materials used to educate migrant fishermen’s children in Rivers State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, 1(1), 13-25.
- Ogbu, E. J., (2015) *Influence of Inadequate Instructional Materials and Facilities in Teaching and Learning of Electrical/ Electronic Technology Education Courses*. International Journal of Vocational Technical Education. BVol.7 (3), p. 20 – 27 April 2015
- Okai, A.U. (2010). *History methods*. Lagos. National Open University of Nigeria.
- Okeke, B.S. (2004). *Teaching in Nigeria: The Bureaucracy and Professionalism*. Enugu: Mercury International Publishing.
- Oketch, J.G., and Asiachi, A.J. (1986). *Curriculum Development for Primary Schools*. Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- Olagunju, I. (2000) Strategies & Utilization of Improvised Biology of Instructional Materials and Students. Achievement and attitudes in Ekiti State Secondary Schools Nigeria. *International Journal of Research in Education* 3(2)
- Oloruntegbe, K.O. (2003). *Curriculum: Concept, Development, Implementation and Revision*. Nigeria: Ikare-Akoko; Calvary Ways Publishers
- Oloruntegbe, K.O.& Daramola, C.A. (2007) Facilitation of Curriculum Development in Schools: Instructional Materials as a Case Study. Ed. *Thought*,6, 2, 24 – 33.

- Oloruntegba, K. O. (2011). *Teachers' Involvement, Commitment and Innovativeness in Curriculum Development and Implementation*. Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS) 2(6): 443 – 449.
- Olsbu I., (2014). The future of literary texts in the L3 classroom *Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo* Vol. 8. Nr. 2. Art. 10
- Olugbenga, J.A., (2012). *Effects of Teacher Qualification on the Performance of senior secondary school Physics students: Implication on Technology in Nigeria*. English Language Teaching. Vol.5 No.6 June 2012
- Olumorin, C. O., Yusuf, A., Ajidagba, U. A., & Jekayinfa, A. A. (2010). Development of Instructional materials from local resources for art-based courses. *Asian Journal of Information Technology*, 9(2), 107-110. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3923/ajit.2010.107.110>
- O'Malley, J. M. and L. Valdez- Pierce (1996) *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners: Practical Approaches for Teachers*. Reading, MA: Addison- Wesley.
- Ombati, J.M., Omari, L.N., Ogendo, G.N., Ondima, P.C., & Otieno, R.R.O., (2013) Evaluation of factors influencing the performance of Kenyan Secondary School Students in English Grammar: A Case of Nyamaiya Division, Nyamira County, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice* ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222- 288X (Online) Vol.4, No.9, 2013 retrieved from www.iiste.org on June 1, 2017
- Omollo, D. A. (1990). An investigation into the techniques and problems in integrating the teaching of language and literature in English in secondary schools within Kisumu district. M.Ed thesis. Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Onwu, G.O.M., & Mogari, D. (2004). Professional development for outcomesbased curriculum implementation. the case of Uniwemalashi, South Africa. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 30 (2), 161-177
- Orlich, D. C; Harder, R. J; Collahan R. C; Trevisen, M. S and Abbie, H. (1998). *Inquiry Teaching and higher level thinking*. Boston, New York Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Ornstein, A. C., & Hunkins, F. P. (2004). *Curriculum: Foundations, Principles and Issues* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon

- Or, W.W., (2005). *Reinstating literature in the EFL syllabus: Issues in the study of language and language curriculum renewal*. Hong Kong: Language Centre, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology
- Orodho J.A. (2005) *Techniques of Writing Research Proposals and Reports*. Nairobi: Kanazja.
- Osborn, T. A. 2000. *Critical reflection and the foreign language classroom*. Westport, CT: Bergin and Garvey.
- Oso, L. (2011). Need for improvisation in classroom teaching. *The Punch*, June 20.
- Otieno, N. O. (2003). Relationship between secondary school teachers' attitudes towards integrated English approach and their performance: a study of Rachuonyo district, Kenya. M.Ed thesis, Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Otte, J. (2006). Real language to real people: A descriptive and exploratory case study of the outcomes of aural authentic texts on the listening comprehension of adult ESL students enrolled in an advanced ESL listening course. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 67(4), 1246B. (UMI No. 3212979)
- Ouwuka, U. (1996) *Curriculum Development for African*. Publishers Ltd. Second Edition
- Panasuk, R., Stone W. & Todd J. (2002). *Lesson Planning Strategy for Effective Mathematics Teaching*, *Education* 22(2) 714, 808-827.
- Paran, A. (Ed.). 2006a. *Literature in language teaching and learning*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Paran, A. & Watts, E. (Eds). 2003. *Story telling in ELT*. Whitstable: IATEFL.
- Park, C. (2003). Engaging students in the learning process: the learning journal *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, Vol. 27, No. 2, pp. 183–199
- Parkinson, B., & Thomas, H. R. (2000). *Teaching literature in a second language*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Paterson, D (2007) Teachers' in-flight thinking in inclusive classrooms, *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 40:5, 427–435.

- Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, 51(2), 144-156.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/51.2.144>
- Pennycook, A. 2001. *Critical applied linguistics: A critical introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Picken, J. D. 1999. State of the ad: the role of advertisements in EFL teaching. *ELT journal*, 53 (4): 249-55.
- Picken, J. D. 2000. Why use ads in the foreign language classroom? *JALT journal*, 22 (2):341-355.
- Pikulski, J. J., & Chard, D. J. (2005). Fluency: Bridge between decoding and reading comprehension. *The Reading Teacher*, 58(6), 510-519.
- Phipps, A., & Gonzalez M., (2004). *Modern Languages: Learning and Teaching in an Intercultural Field*. London: Sage.
- Polit, D. F.; Beck, C. T.; Hungler, B. P. (5th Ed.) 2001. *Essentials of nursing research: methods, appraisal, and utilization*. Philadelphia:Lippincott Williams and Wilkins. 544 p.
- Porta, M. 2008. *A dictionary of epidemiology*. 5th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 320 p.
- Postlewaite, T. N. & Ross, K. N. (1992). *Effective schools in reading: Implications for educational planners. An exploratory study*. The Hague, The Netherlands: The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Pulverness, A., (2004). Here and There: Issues in Materials Development for Intercultural Learning. Paper given at the Culture ELT Seminar <<http://elt.britcoun.org.pl/forum/handt.htm>> (Accessed 4 February, 2010)
- Quist, D. (2000) *Primary teaching methods*. London: Macmillan.
- Race, P., Brown, S., & Smith, B., (2005). *500 Tips On Assessment (2nd Ed)* London:Routledge
- Rahimpour, M., & Hashemi, R. (2011). Textbook selection and evaluation in EFL context. *World Journal of Education*, 1(2), 62-68.
- Ramparsad, R. (2001). A Strategy for Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Development. *South African Journal of Education*, 21, 4, 287-291.

- Rao, T.S., & Jyoti, A. A. V. (2012). Utilization of audio-visual aids in teaching English at primary level. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Educational Research*, 1(2), 311-318.
- Rea-Dickins. P. and K. Geimanie (1993) *Evaluation* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Reche G. N., Bundi, K. T., Riungu, N. J., & Mbugua, K. Z., (2012). Factors Contributing to Poor Performance in Kenya Certificate of Primary Education in Public Day Primary Schools in Mwimbi Division, Maara District, Kenya. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*. Vol. 2 no. 5
- Rice, J. K. (2003). *Teacher Quality: Understanding the Effectiveness of Teacher Attributes*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Richards, JC and Lockhart, C (1994) *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Renandya, W. A. (Eds.) (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. (2001). *Curriculum development in language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. and T. Rodgers (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F., (2005). *Teacher, Schools and Academic Achievement*. *Econometrica* vol.73, no.2 (march, 2005), 417 - 458
- Rivkin, S.G., Hanushek, E.A., & Kain, J.F., (2008). *Teacher, Schools and Academic Achievement*. National Bureau of Economic Research. Working Paper 6691
- Rhoder, C., & Huerster, P. (2002). Use dictionaries for word learning with caution. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 45(8), 730-736.
- Rockoff, J.E. 2004. "The Impact of Individual Teachers on Student Achievement: Evidence from Panel Data." *The American Economic Review* 94: pp. 247–252.

- Rodrigues, D. (2009) *Inclusion and Teacher's Education: who reforms the reformers?* Cross-National Invitational Symposium Teacher Education for Inclusive Education University of Aberdeen 18-20 October 2009
- Rodriguez G. M. L. & Puyal B. M. (2012) Promoting Intercultural Competence through Literature in CLIL Contexts. *ATLANTIS Journal of the Spanish Association of Anglo-American Studies* 34.2 (December 2012): 105–24 ISSN 0210-6124
- Rogan, J. M. & Grayson, D. (2003) *Towards a Theory of Curriculum Implementation with Particular Reference to Science Education in Developing Countries*. *International Journal of Science Education*, 25, 1171 – 1204
- Rogan, J. M. (2007) *How much Curriculum Change is Appropriate? Defining a Zone of Feasible Innovation*. *Science Education* 91(3) 439 – 460
- Rogers, D. H., (n.d). Teaching Vocabulary Through Literature: Effects of Context-Clue Instruction on Tenth-Grade Students. Valdosta State University
- Rogers, E.M. (1995). *Definitions of Innovations*. Fourth Edition, New York, The Free Press.
- RoK (2005). *Sessional paper No. 1 of 2005 on a policy framework for education, training and research*. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Rolfe, G. (2006). Validity, trustworthiness and rigour: Quality and the idea of quality research. *J Adv Nurs* 53: 304 – 10.
- Ronald, W. R. (2004). *Human Resource Administration in Education: A Management Approach*, U.S.A.: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Roness, D. (2010). Still motivated? The motivation for teaching during the second year in the profession. *Teaching and Teacher Education*.
- Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Center.
- Ronfeldt, M., Farmer, S., McQueen, K., & Grissom, J. (2015). Teacher collaboration in instructional teams and student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 52(3), 475-514.
- Ronnquist, L. & Sell, R. D. 1994. Teenage books for teenagers: Reflections on literature in language education. *ELT journal*, 48 (2): 125-32.

- Rosenblatt, L. (1995). *Literature as exploration*. New York: The Modern Language Association of America.
- Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978). *The reader, the text and the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Roy-Campbell, Zaline M. (2014). Teaching English as a 'second language' in Kenya and the United States: Convergences and divergences. *Global Education Review*, 2 (2). 84-97
- Rugg, H. & Shumaker, A. (1928). *The child centered school*. New York: World Book.
- Rupley, W. H., & Nichols, W. D. (2005). Vocabulary instruction for the struggling reader. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 21(3), 239-260.
- Rush, D. D., Shelden, M. L., & Hanft, B. E. (2003). Coaching families and colleagues: A process for collaboration in natural settings. *Infants and Young Children*, 16(1), 33-47.
- Saban, A. (1995). Outcome of teacher participation in the curriculum development process. *Education*, 115
- Sánchez, R. C., Pérez, A. S., & Gómez, P. C. (2010). An attempt to elaborate a construct to measure the degree of explicitness and implicitness in ELT materials. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10(1), 103-129.
- Sanders, W.L., & Rivers, J.C. (1996). Research project report: Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future Student academic achievement. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Value Added Research and Assessment Centre.
Retrieved from <http://www.mccsc.edu/~curriculum/cumulative%20and%20residual%20effects%20of%20teachers.pdf>.
- Saricoban, A. & Metin, E. 2000. Songs, verse and games for teaching grammar. *The internet TESL journal*, 6 (10). Accessed online 26 February 2006: [Http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Saricoban-Songs.html](http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Saricoban-Songs.html).
- Savvidou, C., (2004). *An Integrated Approach to Teaching Literature in EFL Classroom*. Available: <http://iteslj.org/techniques/savvidou/literature>.
- Scrivener, J., (2011) *Learning Teaching*. Macmillan
- Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Schwille, J., & Dembele, M. with Schubert, J. (2007). *Global perspectives on teacher learning: Improving policy and practice*. Paris: UNESCO-IIEP.
- Scrivener, J., (2005). *Learning teaching: Macmillan books for teachers. A guide for English language teachers 2nd* (Eds): Macmillan
- Sepešiová M., (2015) in Pokrivčáková, S. et al. (2015). *CLIL in Foreign Language Education: e-textbook for foreign language teachers*. Nitra: Constantine the Philosopher University. 282 s. ISBN 978-80-558-0889-5.
- Senchi BB (2005). Effects of multiple intelligence-based instructional approach on students' performance of psychomotor tasks in auto mechanics in technical colleges. Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis. Department of VTE, University of Nigeria Nsukka.
- Shang, H. (2006). Content-based Instruction in the EFL Literature Curriculum. *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. XII, 11.
- Shazu, I. R. 2014. Use of Literature in Language Teaching and Learning: A Critical Assessment. *International Journal of African and Asian Studies - An Open Access International Journal* Vol.5
- Sheldon, L.E. (1988). Evaluating ELT course-books and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(4), 237-246.
- Shkedi, A. (2006). Curriculum and teachers: an encounter of languages and literature. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(6), 719-735.
- Short, D.J. & Fitzsimmons, S. (2007). *Double the work: Challenges and solutions to acquiring language and academic literacy for English language learners*. NY: Alliance for Excellent Education. Retrieved from <http://www.all4ed.org/files/DoubleWork.pdf>.
- Short. M. 1996. *Exploring the language of poems, plays and prose*. London: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Shrawder, H. J. (2006) *Planning a Successful Lesson*. South Lake Tahoe. Pentronics
- Shrestah, P. N. (2008). Using stories with young learners. In M. Krzanowski (ed.), *Current developments in English for academic, specific and occupational purposes*. Garnet publishing, UK

- Shyamlee, S. D., & Phil, M. (2012). *Use of technology in English language teaching and learning: an analysis*. International Conference on Language, Medias and Culture IPEDR. 33. (pp. 150-156). Retrieved from <http://www.ipedr.com/vol33/030-ICLMC2012-L10042.pdf>
- Sikandar, A. (2015). John Dewey and his Philosophy of Education. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*. Vol. 2 No. 2 (December 2015) 191 – 201
- Silva, J. P. (2009). Extensive reading through the Internet: Is it worth the while? *International Journal of English studies*, 9(2), 81-92.
- Skrtic, T (1991) Students with special educational needs: artefacts of the traditional curriculum. IN M. Ainscow (Ed) *Effective Schools for all*, London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Slavin, R. E. (2000). *Principles of Effective Instruction: General Standards for Teachers and Instructional Designers*. Journal of Instructional Psychology 2005.
- Smith, J. Noble, H. (2014). Bias in research. *Evid Based Nurs* 17: 2-3
- Smith, R. and Leonard, P. (2005) Collaboration for Inclusion: Practitioner Perspectives. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, 38, 269-279
- Snell, M. E. and Janney, R. E. (2000) Teachers' problem-solving about children with moderate and severe disabilities in elementary classrooms. *Exceptional Children*, 66 (4), 472-490
- Solak, E. & Çakır, E. (2015). Exploring the effect of materials designed with augmented reality on language learners' vocabulary learning. *Journal of Educators Online* 12(2). Retrieved from <http://www.thejeo.com/Archives/Volume12Number2/SolakCakir.pdf>
- Spack, R. 1985. "Literature, Reading, Writing, and ESL: Bridging the Gaps" in *TESOL Quarterly*. Vol 19, No.4, p.p: 703-721.
- Spiller, D. (2009). Assessment: Feedback to promote student learning. *Teaching Development| Wāhanga Whakapakari Ako*
- Sprinthall, N., Reiman, A., & Thies-Sprinthall, L. (1996). Teacher professional development. In J. Sikula, T. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 666–703). New York: Macmillan.

- Stepanovienė, A. (2012). Barriers to Academic Listening: Research Perspectives. *Darnioji daugiakalbystė*, (1), 134-141
- Stern, S. L. (2001) An Integrated Approach to Literature in ESL/EFL. In M. Celce-Murcia (ed.) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Heinle & Heinle.
- Stiggins, R. & Chappius, S. (2005). Putting Testing in Perspective: It's for learning. Retrieved february20, 2012 from www.Mc3edsupport.org/.../putting-testing-in-perspective-its-for-learning
- Stigler, J. W., & Hiebert, J. (1999). *The teaching gap: Best ideas from the world's teachers for improving in the classroom*. New York: The Free Press.
- Stufflebeam, D. L. (1985). Stufflebeam's improvement-oriented evaluation. In Tanner, D., & Tanner, L. (1995). *Curriculum development: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill
- Sudhoff, Julian 2010: 'clil and Intercultural Communicative Competence: Foundations and Approaches towards a Fusion'. *International clil Research Journal* 1.3: 30-7.
- Suleiman M. F., (2000). *The process and product of writing: Implications for elementary school teachers*. ERIC Digest, ERIC Identifier ED 442299,
- Sullivan, S & Noyes, A (2013) Chapter 4.4. Responding to Diversity in S. Capel, M, Leask & T. Turner *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School 6th Edition A companion to the school experience*, Abingdon: Routledge
- Sunardi, O., M. Widyarini, and J.H. Tjakraatmadja. 2012. "The Impact of Sales Forces Training Program to Employees Behaviour Styles (A Quasi-Experimental Case Study in a Medium Sized Enterprise)." *Procedia Economics and Finance* 4:264 – 273, International Conference on Small and Medium Enterprises Development with a Theme? Innovation and Sustainability in SME Development? (ICSMED 2012).
- Sure, N. & Ogechi, E. (2009). *Linguistic human rights and language policy in the Kenyan education system*. Oxford, UK: African Books Collective
- Swaffar, J. (2000). The case for foreign languages as a discipline. *ADFL Bulletin* (30), 6-12.
- Taba, H. (1962). *Curriculum Development*. New York: Harcourt Brace Ovanovich Inc.

- Takase, A. 2007. "Japanese High School Students' Motivation for Extensive L2 Reading". *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 19, 1-16.
- Tan K. E., (2006) *Asia Pacific Journal of Educators and Education (Journal of Educators and Education)* 23-45.
- Taruvinga, C.R. (2000). *Interactive teaching and learning of history in secondary schools*. Harare. Zimbabwe Open University
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha *International Journal of Medical Education*. 2011; 2:53-55
- Tayebipour, F. (2009). In Defence of Teaching literature to EFL students in the era of Globalization. In L.J. Zhang Limited
- Taylor. P. (2004). How can participatory processes of curriculum development impact on the quality of teaching and learning in developing countries? Paris: UNESCO.
- Taylor, E. K. (2000). *Using folktales*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tebabal A, Kahssay G (2011). The effects of student-centered approach in improving students' graphical interpretation skills and conceptual understanding of kinematical motion. *Latin Amer. J. Phys. Educ.* 5(2):374-381.
- Tehan, P., Inan-Karagul, B. and Yuksel, D (2015). *The Place of Literature in an English Language Teaching Program: What Do Students Think About It?* *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal* Volume 15, Number 2, September 2015
- Teijlingen van, E.; Rennie, A. M.; Hundley, V.; Graham, W. 2001. The importance of conducting and reporting pilot studies: the *Business: Theory and Practice*, 2015, 16(1): 53–62 61 example of the Scottish Births Survey, *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 34(3): 289–295. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2648.2001.01757.x>
- Thanajaro, M. (2000). *Using authentic materials to develop listening comprehension in the English as a foreign language classroom*. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia.

- Thanasoulas, D. (2001). The Importance of Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Classroom. *Radical Pedagogy* <<http://radicalpedagogy.icaap.org/content/thanasoulas.html>> (Accessed 20 February, 2010) issue3_3/7-
- Thom N. T. T. (2008). *VNU Journal of Science, Foreign Languages* .24 120-126.
- Tyler, R.W. (1949). *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. USA: University of Chicago Press
- Tebabbal, A. & Kahssay, G. (2011). *The effects of student – centered approach in developing students’ graphical interpretation skills and conceptual understanding of kinematical motion*. *Latin American Journal of Physical Education* 5(2): 374 – 381.
- Teo, R. & Wong, A. (2000), “Does Problem Based Learning Create A Better Student: A Reflection?,” Paper presented at the 2nd Asia Pacific Conference on Problem Based Learning: Education Across Disciplines, December 4-7, Singapore.
- Therrien, W. J. (2004). Fluency and comprehension gains as a result of repeated reading: A meta-analysis. *Remedial and Special Education*, 25(4), 252-261.
- Timucin, M. (2001). Gaining insight into alternative teaching approaches employed in an EFL literature class. *Revista de Filología y su Didáctica* (24), 269-293.
- Tok, H. (2010). TEFL textbook evaluation: From teachers’ perspectives. *Educational Research and Review*, 5(9), 508-517. Retrieved from <http://www.academicjournals.org>.
- Tom, C. A. (2010). Human resources development strategies and teachers’ effectiveness in Akwa Ibom State Secondary Schools. *Unpublished Ph.D Thesis*, University of Uyo, Uyo.
- Tomlinson, B. (2003b). Humanizing the course book. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (pp. 162-173). New York: Continuum.
- Tomlinson, B. (2008). Language acquisition and language learning materials. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *English language teaching materials* (pp. 3-14). London: Continuum.

- Tomlinson, B., & Masuhara H., (2004). Developing Cultural Awareness. *Met* 13.1: 1–7.
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*. 45(2), 143-179.
- Tongur, N. A. & Ozkan A. (2014). Use of literature in reading comprehension classes by ELT teachers. Dilfen Language School, Maltepe University, Faculty of Education ozkanahmet@hotmail.com, 2nejattongur@maltepe.edu.tr
- Trepanier-Street, M. (2010). Education and medical professionals collaborating to prepare early childhood teachers for inclusive settings. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 31(1), 63 - 70.
- TSC (2015) Education Management Information System (EMIS): Teacher Training College Data Return Form “A” (retrieved from www.tsc.go.ke/index.php/downloads/.../9-data-return-forms on November 26, 2015)
- Tsiplakides, I. (2011). Selecting and English course-book: Theory and practice. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(7), 758-764.
- Tucker, D. P. and Stronge, H. J. (2005). Linking teacher evaluation and student learning. Association for supervision and curriculum development. Washing D. C.
- Tyagi, B. (2013). Listening: An Important Skill and Its Various Aspects. *The Criterion an International Journal in English*. 12, 1-8.
- Uba AA (2006). Using computer aided instruction, learning and design. Retrieved on July 26, 2006.
- Udoh, E. M. (2014). In-Service (Professional) Training and Teaching Effectiveness in Secondary Schools in Uyo Senatorial District of Akwa Ibom State. *Journal of Education and Practice*. ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.5, No.27, 2014
- Ukwuije, R. P. I. (2012). *Educational Assessment*. A sine Qua Non for Quality Education. An Inaugural Lecture Presented at University of Port Harcourt. Inaugural Lecture Series No. 83, March 15th, 2012.
- Ulum O. G. (2015). International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education (IJHSSE) Listening: The Ignored Skill in EFL Context. 2 (5): 257-270

- UNESCO (2005) *Educational Research: Some Basic Concepts and Terminology*, International Institute of Educational Planning. Module 1
- UNESCO. (2004). *EFA global monitoring report 2005: The quality imperative*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2006). *Teachers and educational quality: Monitoring global needs for 2015*. Montreal: Author.
- Uwezo (2010): Kenya National Learning Assessment report 2010, Uwezo, Nairobi, Kenya
- Van der Vleuten, C. (2000). Validity of final examinations in undergraduate medical training. *British Medical Journal*, 321, 1217–1219.
- Vandrick, S. (1996). Issues in using multicultural literature in college ESL writing classes. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5(3), 253-69.
- Vandrick, S., (2003). Literature in the teaching of second language composition. In B. Kroll (Ed.) *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 263 – 283). Cambridge MA: Cambridge University Press
- Van, T. T. M., (2009). The relevance of literary analysis to teaching literature in an EFL classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 47(3), 2 – 9. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ923454>
- Van't Hooft, M. (2005). The effect of the “Ohio school going solar” project on student perceptions of the quality learning in middle school science. *Journal of Research in Technology Education* 37(3), 221 – 244
- Varga J. (2007). Who becomes a teacher? An empirical analysis of teaching choices 609 - 627. <http://www.mktudegy.hu/?q=system/files/vargaj.pdf>
- Vegas, E., and J. Petrow. 2008. *Raising Student Learning in Latin America: The Challenge for the Twenty-First Century*. The World Bank.
- Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). *Teacher professional development: an international re-view of the literature*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.
- Wangeleja, M. (2003). What is new in the new teacher education curriculum? *The Tanzania Education Journal*, 21, 22-29.
- Wajnryb, R. 2003. *Stories: Narrative activities for the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wallace, C. (1992). *Reading oxford*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Wass, V., Van der Vleuten, C., Shatzer, J., & Jones, R. (2001). Assessment of clinical competence. *The Lancet*, 357, 945–949.
- Wayne, A.J., et al. 2008. “Experimenting With Teacher Professional Development: Motives and Methods.” *Educational Researcher* 37:469–479.
- Wayne, A. M., & Young, P. (2003). *Teachers Characteristics and Students Achievement Gains: A Review of Educational Research*.
- Wesley, P. W., & Buysse, V. (2001). Communities of practice: Expanding professional roles to promote reflection and shared inquiry. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 21(2), 114-123.
- Wessels, C. 1991. From improvisation to publication on an English through drama course. *ELT journal*, 45 (3): 230-236.
- Western and Northern Canadian Protocol for Collaboration in Education (2006). *Rethinking Classroom Assessment with Purpose in Mind: Assessment for Learning, Assessment as Learning, Assessment of Learning*
- Wiley, D. E. and Yoon, B. Teacher Reports on Opportunity to Learn: Analyses of the 1993 California Learning Assessment System (CLAS). *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 17(3): 355-370. (1995).
- Wiliam, D. & Thompson, M. (2007). Integrating assessment with instruction: What will it take to make it work? In C. A. Dwyer (Ed.) *The future of assessment: Shaping teaching and learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Wiliam, D. (2011). What is assessment for learning? Retrieved April 18, 2012 from <http://ww.udir.no/pagefiles/vurderir>.
- Wolff, Dieter 2007: ‘Eine Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache gebrauchen: Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht und deutschsprachiger Fachunterricht’. Buenos Aires 30 10- 1.11.2007. *Ausgewählte Texte zu einzelnen Aspekten des Seminars* <<http://seeger>>.
- Wong, H. K.; Wong, R. T. (2009) *The First Days of School: How to Be an Effective Teacher*, Harry K. Wong Publications, 12, 81, 87
- Wong, H. (2009, a). Teachers are the Greatest Assets: Teachers Net Gazette.
- Woods, F., McQuarrie, F. (1999) On the job learning. *Journal of Staff Development*, 20 (3), 10-13.

- Wright, A. 2000. Stories and their importance in language teaching. *Humanising Language Teaching* 2/5 (September). Accessed online 8 July 2006: <http://www.hlomag.co.uk/sep00/mart2.htm>.
- Wright, A. 2003b. You are a story absorber and a story teller. *Developing Teachers. com*. Accessed online 8 July 2006:

http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/stories_andrew.htm
- Yara, P. O., & Otieno, O. K., (2010). *Teaching/Learning Resources and Academic Performance in Mathematics in Secondary Schools in Bondo District of Kenya*. *Asian social science*
- You Jung, K. 2009. “Integrating text driven approaches and CLT into storybook material”. *Issues in EFL*, 7 (1), 33-59.
- Zacharias, N. T., 2005: ‘Developing Intercultural Competence through Literature’. *Celt* 5.1: 27-41.
- Zakaria, E., Chin, C.L. & Daud, Y. (2010), “The effect of cooperative learning on student mathematics achievements and attitude towards mathematics, *Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2): 272-275. Available on <<http://dx.doi.org/10.3844/jssp.2010.272.275>>
- Zare, P., (2012). *Learning Language Strategies among EFL/ESL Learners: A Review of Literature*: *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. Vol. 2 no. 5; march 2012
- Zazkis, R., Liljedahl, P., & Sinclair, N. (2009). Lesson plays: Planning teaching versus teaching planning. *For the Learning of Mathematics*, 29: 1, 40-47.
- Zeichner, K., & Conklin, H. G. (2008). Teacher education programs as sites for teacher preparation. *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts* (pp. 269–89). New York: Routledge.
- Zhao, Y., Pugh, K., Sheldon, S. & Byers, J. (2002) Condition for classroom technology innovations. *Teachers College Record*, 104, 3, 482-515.
- Zuzovsky R (2003). Teachers qualifications and their impact on student’s achievement: Findings from TIMSS 2003: data for Israel, centre for science and technology education. Tel Aviv university.

APPENDIX 1

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

P O Box 2665 - 60200

MERU

E-mail: samngek@gmail.com

Cell. No: 0737 794 554

Dear Respondent,

RE: INTRODUCTION

I am a student at the University of Nairobi pursuing the degree of the Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum Studies. To meet the requirements for the award of this degree, I am carrying out a study on the tutors' pedagogical strategies for implementing integrated literature at public primary teacher training colleges in Kenya.

Kindly provide me with the data I require for this study. Your identity as a respondent will be strictly confidential and information you give will be used for research purpose only.

Yours faithfully,

SAMUEL NG'ENTU KIRIMA (MR)

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TUTORS OF LITERATURE

The aim of this study is to find teacher trainer implementation of literature in public Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in Kenya. The identity of the respondents to this questionnaire will be strictly confidential. (Tick as appropriate where applicable).

PART A

1. Tick your gender: Male [] Female []
2. What is your highest qualification as teacher trainer?
Diploma [] B. Ed [] Master's []
3. For how many years have you taught literature in PTTCs?
Below 5 [] 5-10 [] Above 10 []

PART B

1. To what extent do you agree that in-servicing is important to enhance your effectiveness in teaching literature?
Strongly agree () Agree () Undecided () Disagree () Strongly disagree ().
2. (a) Have you been in-serviced on teaching literature in the last 3 years?
Yes [] No []

(b) If 'yes' above complete the table.

How frequent was training?	
Who were the main organizers?	
How much were charges for participation?	
Where was the training venue? (away or within the college)	
How long was the duration of training?	
Which topics were covered?	

(c) To what extent did facilitators utilize these training techniques?

Training techniques	Weak	Average	Strong
Recognizing and building upon the knowledge and skills of participants			
Use of interactive techniques, brainstorming, and working on the questions or issues raised, small groups' work and sharing with the entire group.			
Giving participants a chance to practice trained techniques and giving them feedback.			
Encouraging participation from reluctant and apathetic trainees.			
Completing selected content			
Using various visual communication techniques to highlight information.			
Giving handouts on the main points of training.			
Summarizing and synthesizing information.			

3. (a) Are there trainings you failed to attend? Yes [] No []

(b) If 'yes', why?.....

4.(a) How often do you prepare your lessons before teaching?

Always [] Sometimes [] Rarely []

b) If yes, which challenges do you face.....?

c) To what extent do the following factors influence your lesson preparation?

	Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Time allocation					
Learners ability					
Learning materials					
Learning objectives					
Lesson topic					
Other tutors views					
Students' assessment data					
Type of the lesson					

5) How often do you practice the following lesson preparation strategies in preparation of literature lessons?

	Always	Very often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Group-related activities					
Continuous lesson adjustments					
Lesson-ongoing review					
Reflection on lesson effectiveness					

6. To what extent would you agree that your library is adequately equipped with literature books?

Strongly agree [] agree [] undecided [] disagree []
strongly disagree []

7. (a) Do you utilize literary texts like poems, novels and short stories to teach English language? Yes [] No []

(b) If 'yes' how often do you utilize them to teach linguistic concepts to your students?

Concept	Always	Very often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Stress					
Grammar					
Vocabulary					
Spelling					
Intonation					
Pronunciation					

8. To what extent do you utilize the following teachings resources in teaching literature?

Teaching aids	Always	Very often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Tape recorder					
Audio cassette player					
Charts					
Film projector					
VCD player					

9 a) Do you use literary texts to teach linguistic concepts to your students?

Yes [] No []

b) In which ways do you use them?

Linguistic deficiency	Method used
Pronunciation	
Writing	
Reading	
Vocabulary	

10. Do your students read other literary books apart from the set ones?

Yes [] No []

11. How often do you use the following methodologies in teaching literary texts?

	Almost always	Often	sometimes	Seldom	Never
Essay writing on literary texts' themes					
Loud pronunciation of words in literary texts					
Soliciting students' opinions on literature themes					
Class discussion of literature themes					
Dramatization of episodes in literature set texts					

12. How do you elicit responses from your students when teaching literature?

From volunteers [] Nominating respondents [] Both []

13 a) Do you give continuous assessment tests to your students? Yes []

No []

b) If yes how often? Always [] Very often [] Undecided []

Rarely [] Never []

14. How often do you use the following methods in assessment of literature?

Assessment method	Quite often	Often	Average	Rarely	Very rarely
Continuous assessments quizzes					
Group class presentations					
Individual class presentations					
Essay presentations					

15 (a) Do you design your own assessments? Yes [] No []

b) If 'yes' in which way? Alone [] with colleagues []

c) How do you ensure all students participate in assessments?

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

16 (a) How many weeks do you take to mark assessments?

Min [] Max []

b) Do you give marking remarks to your students such as poor, fair, good etc

Yes[] No []

c) How do you use assessment results to improve your teaching?

.....

(Thank you for your cooperation)

APPENDIX 3

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADS OF SUBJECT - ENGLISH

The aim of this study is to find out the extent to which teacher trainers implement literature curriculum in public Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) colleges. The identity of respondents to this interview will be strictly confidential.

1. In which ways would you say that in-service courses are important to teacher trainers of literature?
2. To what extent are literature teacher trainers in your college in-serviced?
3. In your opinion, which challenges are facing in-servicing of literature teacher trainers in public PTTCs in Kenya.
4. How do you ensure that your literature teacher trainers plan their lessons?
5. Which challenges are facing preparation literature lessons in your college?
6. In which ways do you ensure literature teacher trainers in your college utilize learning resources in the implementation of literature?
7. Which challenges do literature teacher trainers in your college face concerning utilization of learning resources?
8. As literature subject head in your college, how do you ensure that the methodologies used to implement literature curriculum are effective?
9. How do you ensure that data emanating from formal assessments is utilized to improve implementation of literature curriculum in your department?

APPENDIX 4

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR LITERATURE LESSON

The aim of this study is to find out the extent to which teacher trainers implement literature curriculum in public Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) colleges in Kenya. The identity of the tutor under observation will be kept confidential.

Tutor Behavior	Rating scale		
	Strong	Average	Weak
1 Tutor masterly of the subject matter			
2 Involvement of the learners in the lesson			
3 Systematic approach to presentation			
4 Possession and use of lesson notes			
5 Use of literary texts to draw examples and illustrations			
6 Use of tape recorders and videos			
7 Class reading of literary texts			
8 Relating the events in the story to familiar events			
9 Review of the previous lesson			
10 Giving of assignments after the lesson.			

APPENDIX 5

PUBLIC PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN

KENYA

College name	County
Asumbi	Homabay
Baringo	Baringo
Bondo	Kisumu
Egoji	Meru
Eregi	Kakamega
Kaimosi	Vihiga
Kamwenja	Nyeri
Kericho	Kericho
Kilimambogo	Kiambu
Kitui	Kitui
Machakos	Machakos
Meru	Meru
Migori	Migori
Mosoriot	Uasin Gishu
Murang'a	Murang'a
Shanzu	Mombasa
St. Mark's Kigari	Embu
Tambach	Elgeyo Marakwet
Thogoto	Kiambu

APPENDIX 6

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 3310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying Please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P. O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No.

NACOSTI/P/16/11895/12443

Date:

21st September, 2016

Samuel Ngentu Kirima
University of Nairobi
P.O. Box 30197-00100
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Evaluation of teacher trainer implementation of literature curriculum in Public Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya*," I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **all Counties** for the period ending 29th July, 2017.

You are advised to report to the **County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, all Counties** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:


The County Commissioners
All Counties.

The County Directors of Education
All Counties.

APPENDIX 7

RESEARCH PERMIT CERTIFICATE

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. SAMUEL NGENTU KIRIMA
of UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI, 2665-60200
Meru, has been permitted to conduct
research in All Counties
on the topic: EVALUATION OF TEACHER
TRAINER IMPLEMENTATION OF
LITERATURE CURRICULUM IN PUBLIC
PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES
IN KENYA
for the period ending:
29th July, 2017
Permit No : NACOSTI/P/16/11895/12443
Date Of Issue : 21st September, 2016
Fee Received :ksh 2000



Samuel Kirima
Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officer will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one (1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice



REPUBLIC OF KENYA



National Commission for Science,
Technology and Innovation

RESEARCH CLEARANCE
PERMIT

Serial No. **11038**

CONDITIONS: see back page