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JAMIA MILLIA ISLAMIA

(A Central University by an Act of Parliament)

Maulana Muhammad Ali Jauhar Marg, New Delhi-110025

Tel.: 26984650, 26985180, **Fax.:** 0091-11-26981232 | **Email:** vc@jmi.ac.in, tahmad@jmi.ac.in | **Web:** jmi.ac.in

Professor Talat Ahmad

FNA, FASc., FNASc., J.C. BOSE Fellow

Vice Chancellor

جامیاء میلیا ایسلامیاء

(संघीय अधिनियमद्वारा केन्द्रीय विश्वविद्यालय)

मौलाना मुहम्मद अली जौहर मार्ग, नई दिल्ली-११००२५

جامعه ملیہ اسلامیہ

(پارلیمینٹری ایکٹ کے تحت ایک مرکزی یونیورسٹی)

مولانا محمد علی جواہر مارگ، نئی دہلی-۱۱۰۰۲۵

پروفیسر تلات احمد

एफएनए, एफएएससी, एफएनएससी, डी.सी. बोस फेलो

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پروفیسر طلعت احمد

ایس۔ این۔ ایف۔ ایس۔ جی۔ بی۔ ایف۔ این۔ ایس۔ ڈی۔ سی۔ بھائی فیلو

شیخ الجامعہ



(ACCREDITED "A" GRADE BY NAAC)

April 24, 2017



Vice Chancellor's Message

I am pleased to know that the latest issue of *Jamia Journal of Education* (6th edition) is ready for timely publication. I am glad to note that themes and policies taken up for current issue, hold great significance as they play a prominent role in the making of educational sphere as well as the collection of laws and rules that govern the operation of education systems. It assumes even more importance as various policies pertaining to education are in the offing.

I am proud that our academics have continuously worked towards raising the bar in terms of the quality and depth of research done in broadening the scope of the research work to ensure maximum impact across disciplines.

I believe that the articles and research papers in the journal would broaden the horizons in educational sphere.

I am sure that the faculty would ensure that the journal would be in reach of as many readers as possible till it becomes an International journal in true sense of the word.

Last but not least, I appreciate the entire Editorial Team for the strenuous work that they have done to bring out this journal in its present format. My best wishes for the uninterrupted publication of the journal in the years to come.

(Prof. Talat Ahmad)

EDITORIAL

Education is considered to be the foundation on which a nation is built and prosper. It is through education that individuals reach their full potential in terms of productive members of the economy as well as responsible and principled citizens. Every nation at different era has its own set of challenges and opportunities that are usually catered to with the formulation of policy by the respective government or the concerned authority.

Policy, which is a broad direction or perspective that the government lays down to take decisions for coping with various problems and demands of the time, plays a pivotal role in preserving a country's socio-cultural identity. Therefore, every nation develops its own education policy in order to evolve its system of education to carry forward its socio-cultural heritage and also meet the challenges of the time. Like many developed nations, in India too, the maiden policy called "National Education Policy" was formulated in 1968 followed by the National Policy on Education, 1986 keeping pace with the changing time and dynamics of the global requirement.

In keeping with the vision to provide education of equitable quality in order to fully garner the country's human resource, India had achieved a historic milestone when the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act, 2009 had come into effect on 1st April 2010, proving to be a momentous step forward for universalising elementary education across the country.

The RTE Act has made some positive impact on the Teacher Education Policy in India which has evolved over time. In addition, National Curriculum Framework of Teacher Education was prepared in the background of the NCF, 2005 and the principles laid down in the RTE Act, 2009.

Since policy-making is a dynamic process and keeping in view the changing dynamics of the people's requirements with regards to education, education policy requires amendment/modifications from time to time. As we entered into the 21st century, the needs and requirement of the present time is quite different. Hence, India's Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) has been working on formulating New Education Policy 2016 that is likely to be in place anytime soon.

Considering the above mentioned development, the Faculty of Education, Jamia Millia Islamia has chosen the theme of "Policies In Education" for its latest issue of Jamia Journal of Education—An International Biannual Publication. We are extremely glad to have received the overwhelming response from contributors round the globe. Significantly, a number of both scholarly articles and research papers were received on the theme from various colleges and universities across the world. Further, the

papers approved for publication in the ensuing journal, had been rigorously peer-reviewed by a panel of experts.

We believe that we will keep getting such an overwhelming response from all stakeholders, namely teacher educators, educational administrators, policy makers, research scholars, and of all those who are engaged in the field of education.

We also believe that the scholarly articles and research papers accommodated in the journal will stimulate the reader to have a better understanding of various aspects of policies and also help them develop a new way to look at policies-making.

Editors

Students' attitude towards the use of Interactive Video Instructional Package for Teaching Pottery in Basic Technology in Kwara State Upper Basic Schools, Nigeria

**Amosa A. Alasela¹, Obielodan, O. O²,
Yusuf, M. O³ & Ogunlade, O. O⁴**

Department of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education,
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.
Email: aaalasele@hotmail.com

Abstract

Interactive video instructional package improves the acquisition of practical skills in basic technology since the subject is a practical oriented. Yet, the teaching and learning of the subject is confronted with inadequacy of instructional materials, which expected to stimulate the students' interest. Thus, utilization of the package for learning will be a possible solution to the sustainability of the students' attitude towards learning. The objectives of this study were to: examine the students' attitude towards the utilization of interactive video for teaching pottery in basic technology and to examine the attitude based on gender. Thus, a pre-experimental design of one group was adopted for the study. Two research questions were raised and one hypothesis was formulated. 32 upper basic school students were sampled for the study. Two research instruments were used, namely; interactive video based instructional package and students' attitude package questionnaire to collect data. Research question one was answered using mean while research question two was answered through the corresponding hypothesis one, which was tested using paired t-test statistical tool. The study found out that: the students had positive attitude and no significant difference existed between male and female students' attitude towards the instructional package. The study concluded that interactive video encourages positive attitude of students and more so, gender is not a determinant of students' attitude towards interactive video instructional package. The study recommended that basic technology teachers should put in more effort on creating the students' attitude towards the package.

Keywords: *Interactive Video Based Instructional Package, Upper Basic School, Students' Attitude, Gender and Basic Technology*

Introduction

The syllabus and the course books of basic technology are structured and written in ways that would require use of tools and equipment in appropriate environment, such appropriate environment may be found especially in the laboratory or workshop. Some of the topics covered in basic technology curriculum are processing of materials such as ceramics (clay), wood, plastics, metal and rubber used in engineering works. Students of basic technology are exposed to the identification, properties, processing, products, tools and machines in relation with these materials. Students make use of materials like wood, metal, clay, rubber, glass and ceramics and they are exposed to their properties and uses of ceramics, clay treatment, ceramic working tools and machines, clay throwing methods, glazing and firing ceramic wares. (NERDC, 2007). Hence, out of all these materials, clay material constitutes a major part of this study.

Language also creates social differences and hierarchies. Inclusive Clay is the major raw material useful in the production of traditional pottery products. Pottery is the art of using clay to make products like pots, plates and enamels. Before using clay for traditional pottery, impurities like sand, stones and grasses must be removed. After preparing clay, we can use two common ways to make objects. These ways are pinch pot method and potter's wheel method. Smaller pots are made by pinch pot method. This method is the simplest and easiest way of making pot. Bigger pots are produced by potter's wheel.

The teaching and learning of basic technology can be facilitated by the use of information and communication technology (ICT), instructional materials and other audio-visual materials like interactive video-based instruction. The contents under each theme are made to reflect the basic nature of technology (i.e. knowledge, skills, creativity and attitude). Audio-Visual instructional materials such as interactive video instructional package combine the effects of both seeing and hearing in teaching and learning. Also, two-dimensional materials are flat pictures, graphs, charts, diagrams posters, cartoons, slides, films, trips and films. These are also non-projected materials, which have length but no height.

The importance of instructional materials is to enable the future professional technologist and engineers to develop necessary science skills,

process skills and practical skills. Ideally, the best way to facilitate learning is by doing. This is the more reason teachers should employ the use of instructional materials and use variety of strategies for the presentation of lessons (Amosa, 2013). Therefore, the teacher would talk less, as the instructional materials complement his teaching through which the students are initiated. Lack of suitable instructional materials reduces the effectiveness of a good deal of teaching that goes on in the schools.

In teaching and learning, interactive video instructional package assists learners to comprehend the concepts of learning and acquisition of practical skills. Learners are always satisfied with the instructions accompanied with interactive video instructional package, which can particularly offer learners the opportunity to see actual video cases, which can facilitate new knowledge discovery. The interactive video instructional package guarantees productive learning experiences and encourage self-assessment by students irrespective of gender (Amosa, 2016). Instructional system design models classically spell out a method that if pursued, will aid the transfer of knowledge, skills and attitude to the learner, trainee or receiver of the instruction.

Lehman (2006) noted that empirical research has identified significant advantages of interactive video instructional package over traditional teaching methods in selected areas of instruction. Interactive video instructional package has brought about efficient instruction delivery in teaching and learning process in schools. It makes teaching and learning easier where innovative technologies are available for learners. The use of interactive video makes teaching to be on with the supervision of the operator and can be effective as it is part of the motivational factors.

Teaching and learning process is facilitated by making interactive video instruction a complement to conventional means of teaching. Moreover, the use of interactive video instructional package has become popular in several ways to facilitate the bringing of the world to the classroom to make learning to be beyond the immediate environment. Abolade (2009) reported that 80% of learning is gained through sensory modality of sight, 11% of knowledge is achieved through the medium of hearing while the remaining 9% of learning is from the senses of smelling and tasting. This is the fact that the video- based instruction that caters for the senses of hearing and sight takes the high percentage of 91.

Interactive video based instruction is a learning material that caters to the need of individual differences pertaining to learning. The integration of interactive video instruction in teaching and learning process will broaden the possibility of using audio-visual materials, as the projection could be done through a monitor or projector. Indeed, its use encourages the positive attitudes of learners towards learning.

Attitude modifies all aspects of life. Students' attitudes on learning, positive or negative are established by their ability, eagerness, and readiness to learn. Positive students' attitudes to learning are likely to have resulted in successful learning. Students' attitude toward learning using interactive video instructional package on the acquisition of practical skills bring about deep understanding in all subjects across all levels of education. Academic achievement as an attitude is an essential aspect of outcomes of science education in secondary schools. Thus, inspiring positive attitude of students in the field of science as a subject is one of the main duties of every science teacher. Yusuf (2005) reported that mediated instruction significantly influence students' attitude towards instructional content than the conventional teaching method.

Indeed, lukewarm attitudes of some teachers towards the use of interactive video-based instruction in teaching basic technology may influence lack of interest of school administrators at both public and private schools. Students' attitude on interactive video instructional package in teaching and learning basic technology determines their interest towards the use of innovative technology. Olawale (2013) reported that beside teachers' background, which is one of the main obstructions in students-teacher's relationship, students can equally be affected by teachers' method of teaching, teachers' ability; students' interest towards learning and students' lack of orientation.

Teaching and learning process becomes boring when learners are taught with conventional method, but students might become excited to create meaningful attitudes towards learning when they are taught using interactive video-based instruction. Clothier (2013) reported that in teaching and learning, learners have unique opportunities to interact with varieties of interactive media to acquire learning experiences.

Interactive video instructional package is one of the interesting

inducements, which bring about formation of positive attitudes of students towards learning. Therefore, teachers' adoption and use of innovative technologies in teaching and learning process might become imperative. Students' attitude toward learning basic technology may relies on the use of stimulating learning materials such as interactive video instructional package, which is one of the prominent learning packages that encourage individualized learning. Hong, Ridzuan and Kuek (2003) posited that the teaching and learning process in the recent years seem to be experiencing impressive awareness, which has noticeable improvements on the students' attitude on learning.

Students with better skills in the use of computer and assisted with conducive learning environment will have positive attitude towards the use of interactive video instructional package. The importance of motivation in the teaching and learning of basic technology and attitude towards the use of interactive video instructional package should be the responsibility of teachers across all levels of education.

Purpose of the Study

The study sought to examine the students' attitude towards the utilization of interactive video instructional package for teaching pottery in basic technology in Kwara State upper basic schools, Nigeria. Specifically, the study was to:

1. Examine the effect of interactive video instructional package on students' attitude to teach in pottery in basic technology.
2. Determine the interactive effect of gender on students' attitude when taught pottery in basic technology using interactive video instructional package

Research Questions

The following research questions were answered in the study.

1. What is the effect of interactive video instructional package on students' attitude to teaching pottery in basic technology basic technology?
2. What is the difference between the attitude of male and female students taught pottery in basic technology using interactive video instructional package?

Research Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between the attitude of male and female students taught pottery in basic technology using interactive video instructional package.

Methodology

All upper basic school students in Kwara State, Nigeria constituted the population of the study while the target population was students from one upper basic school in Kwara State. The sample for the study comprised 32 students of males and females from one-sampled upper basic nine which was purposively selected and stratified based on gender. The study adopted a pre-experimental design of one group. The two instruments were used to gather the relevant data for this study: interactive video instructional package (treatment) and students' attitude towards interactive video instructional package questionnaire. The students received the treatment using the interactive video based instruction (treatment) alongside expository method. Thereafter, respondents based on gender were administered the students' attitude questionnaire. Descriptive research of the survey type using questionnaire (students' attitudinal questionnaire) was used to elicit responses about students' attitude towards the use of the interactive video instructional package on pottery in basic technology. The instrument on students' attitude was rated based on 4-point likert scale: Strongly Agree (SA=4), Agree (A=3), Strongly Disagree (SD=2) and Disagree (D=1). Finally, the research question one was answered using mean, while research question two was answered through its corresponding hypothesis one, which was tested using the paired t-test to ascertain whether any significant difference exists at 0.05 significant levels.

Results

This section presents the analysis and interpretation of data collected for this study. Data obtained in respect to research questions were analyzed using mean and paired t-test was used for the hypothesis.

Research Question One: What is the effect of interactive video instructional package on students' attitude to pottery in basic technology?

Table 1: Analysis of Students' Attitude towards Interactive Video Instructional Package S/N Statement Mean

1.	Learning using interactive video instructional package motivates and catches students' attention	3.4
2.	Interactive video instructional package is a learning assisted instruction for its interactivity	3.3
3.	Interactive video instructional package influences students' academic performance in basic technology	3.5
4.	Interactive video instructional package provides varieties of contents which help learners in concentration and long retention of information	3.4
5.	Students have better understanding of the subject matter when taught using the package	3.5
6.	The package provides comprehensive information on the production of pottery	3.3
7.	I feel comfortable using interactive video package	3.6
8.	The package makes teaching-learning more meaningful	3.3
9.	Interactive video instructional package assists learners to learn and to progress at their own pace	3.6
10.	The package facilitates delivery of instruction in basic technology	3.2
	Grand Mean	3.4

Table 1 showed the analysis of students' attitude towards interactive video instructional package. Using an average of 2.0 as the benchmark, the results reveal that the students who involved in the experimental group had positive attitude towards the use of interactive video instructional package with the grand mean value of 3.4.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference in the attitude of male and female students when taught pottery in basic technology using interactive video instructional package.

Table 2: The t-test Analysis of Male and Female Students' Attitude Taught using Interactive Video Instructional Package

Variable	No	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	t-value	Sig.(2-ailed)	Remarkd
Male	16	31.94	4.155	15	1.630	0.124	Accepted
Female	16	28.63	6.054				

NS -Not Significance at $p > 0.05$

In Table 2, the analysis established that the t-value = 1.630, with p-value of 0.124 > 0.05 alpha level. It means that the null hypothesis two, which states

that there is no significant difference in the attitude of male and female students taught using interactive video instructional package, is accepted. This implies that the attitude of male and female students taught using interactive video instructional package showed no significant difference. Hence, the hypothesis was accepted.

Summary of Major Findings

Based on the analysis of students' responses, it was revealed that:

1. Student had positive attitude towards the interactive video instructional package.
2. The attitude of male and female students taught using interactive video instructional package to teach pottery showed no significant difference.

Discussion and Conclusion

The focus here was to determine the effect of interactive video instructional package on students' attitude:

Research question one which sought for the effect of interactive video instructional package on students' attitude was answered in table 1. From the findings, it was implied that interactive video instructional package encourages positive attitude of students. This finding agreed with the report by Lehman (2006) who revealed that students were generally satisfied with their course and the dialogue with the instructor, which was made possible with interactive video. Also, Lehman stressed further that the use of interactive video-based instruction in teaching and learning process substitutes concrete and real life experiences.

Moreover, the instructional package is also useful in schools where there is shortage of teachers. Interactive video instructional package provides a high-quality vehicle for active learning because they can be used to arrest and stimulate the interest of the learners. Moreover, the finding also corroborates the earlier findings of Schare, Dunn, Clark, Soled and Gilman (1991) that students learning by interactive video possess more positive attitudes toward learning than those learning by traditional lecture method of instruction.

The interactive effect of gender on students' attitude when taught using interactive video instructional package:

Research hypothesis one sought the difference between the attitude of male and female students when taught using interactive video instructional package. The finding of the null hypothesis two (H_{01}) as discussed in table 2 was accepted. This implies that the attitude of male and female students taught using interactive video instructional package to teach pottery shows no significant difference. The outcomes agree with the finding by Russell and Newton (2008) who reported that interactive video gaming was a valuable instrument for enhancing students' motivation and mood for proficient physical exercise. The finding gives credence to Yusuf (2005) assertion that mediated instruction significantly influences students' attitude towards instructional content than the conventional teaching method.

Finally, the finding was also consistent with the earlier findings by Hong, Ridzuan and Kuek (2003) who reported that the teaching and learning process in the recent years seem to be experiencing impressive awareness, which has noticeable improvements on the students' attitude on learning. The basis for the agreement of the submissions of Russell and Newton (2008), Clothier (2013), Yusuf (2005) and Hong, Ridzuan and Kuek (2003) with the present study was the interactive video instructional package, which is one of the interesting inducements that bring about formation of positive attitudes of students towards learning. Therefore, students' attitude toward learning basic technology relies on the use of stimulating learning materials such as interactive video instructional package.

Recommendations

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

Basic technology teachers should continue to focus attention on the teaching strategies that can sustain the positive attitude and positive attitudes of students.

More so, gender is not a determinant of students' attitude towards the interactive video instructional package. Therefore, basic technology teachers should put in more effort on equal distribution of attention to both male and female students.

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Five Decades of Teacher Education in India – Retrospect and Prospect (1986-2036)

L.C. Singh

Former Professor of Education,
Department of Teacher Education, NCERT, New Delhi-16
lcsinghphd@gmail.com

Abstract

Kothari Commission (1964-66) has been a significant landmark in the history of teacher education development during the post-independence India. A policy resolution was adopted in 1968 to provide focus to Teacher Education in particular. After 20 years, National Policy of Education (1986) was approved by Parliament which focused on setting up educational institutions including NCTE (Statutory). A non-statutory NCTE established in Department of Teacher Education, NCERT, in 1973, made valuable contribution to the cause of Teacher Education in its own way. The govt of India, through its Centrally Sponsored Scheme funded for creating teacher education institutions like ASCs, IASEs, CTEs, SEERTs, DIETs, etc.

Government of India's policy of liberalisation, privatization and globalisation led to rapid expansion and proliferation of teacher education institutions at all levels which resulted in deterioration of quality and standards, beginning of malpractices and commercialisation leading to redundancy of lakhs of trained teachers in the country. In 2014 NCTE came up with several new programmes and restructuring the old programmes with higher ideational content and process resulted partly fall in enrolment and emerging non attending culture in the teacher education institutions. In response to such crisis, the Govt. of India initiated formulation of New Education Policy (1916) and NCTE Review Committee (1916) for needed reforms.

This paper discusses the preparation of teachers during the last three decades in the light of policy perspective and changes in school content and process and to interlink them in teacher preparation programme. A vision of education of the Indian teacher for the 21st Century's challenges is presented with a mission to provide right

education to prospective teachers in the light of NCTE Review Committee (2015) recommendations appointed by M/HRD.

Keywords: *National Policy, globalisation, commercialisation, non attending culture.*

Policy Perspective: in Retrospect

Kothari Commission (1964-66), the most significant landmark in the development of policy perspective in Teacher Education since independence, has been extremely meaningful with far reaching implications to bring teacher education into the main stream academic life. Earlier the University Education Commission (1948-49) and Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) addressed the cause of university and secondary in particular with a few observations made in respect of teacher preparation in casual and general way. However, Kothari Commission devoted a full-length chapter on teacher education, focusing significantly on the intricacies of this phenomenon as a discipline in itself like any other subject. It made several tangible observations as well as recommendations such as an indigenous model totally in tune with country's aspirations, to restore teaching as respectable and noble professions. Kothari Commissions manifestations deserved special attention to refurbish teacher education as an independent self inclusive and self directed discipline to be carried out under one roof for all levels of preparation of teachers in a cohesive way under the garb of Comprehensive College of Education supported by school complexes, pro-active community involvement in a big way, to guard against isolation between theory and practice, between teacher education institutions and schools, between time-old hackneyed techniques of practice teaching and the dynamics of pedagogy an ever-growing science of the teaching and learning process and to make room for systematic reconstruction of teacher education curricula, programme duration, and intensive grooming of teachers in teaching the subject content through more scientific and innovative ways as an integrated component of their professional and academic acumen.

Resolution on National Policy on Education (1968)

Based on the recommendations of Kothari Education Commission, the policy resolution laid stress in the need for radical reconstruction of the entire education system to improve the quality at all stages; using the

development of science and technology inputs; besides cultivation of moral and social values, and a closer relation between education and the life of people, highlighting the role of education in promoting national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture, and in strengthening national integration.

National Commissions on Teachers (I and II) (1985), under the chairmanship of Chattopadhyaya and Rais Ahmed respectively made recommendation on training, recruitment and condition of school and college teachers. Chattopadyhaya recommended among other things, a five-year integrated training programme after senior secondary school (+2) for secondary school teachers, which was not implemented at that point of time while Rais stressed on the revival of Indian Education services in tune with Kotharis observations in this regard besides other service matters.

National Policy on Education (NPE, 1986) envisaged a national system of education to commend that “upto a given level, all students irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex have access to education of comparative quality”. It focused on setting up of new structures like ASCs, NCTE (as a statutory body), DIETs, upgrading SIEs into SCERT, etc to streamline teacher education. The NPE (modified 1992) sought a turning point in the growth and development of teacher education at all levels. The existing 19 ASC, [now renamed by as Human Resource Development Centres (HRDCs)] are envisaged to be responsible for organising orientation programmes and refresher courses in different disciplines for college teachers.

Centrally Sponsored Schemes (1988)

The NPE (1986) a modified framework of educational reconstruction addressed reorganising of C.S.S. in teacher and reorganisation of teacher education to ensure quality improvements via providing for additional physical infrastructure, resources development and capacity building of teacher education institutions. The centrally Sponsored Scheme of Teacher Education launched in 1987-88 aimed at (i) establishment of DIETs, (ii) upgrading of selected secondary teacher education Institutions into Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) and Institutions of Advanced Study in Education (IASEs) and (iii) strengthening of SCERTs. As on August, 2016, there are 588 DIETs, 118 CTEs 32 IASEs, and 32 SCERTs, in the

country. This scheme is only monitored, with Mid Term Review (MTR) done at the end of each five-year plan period.

Librealisation Policy of the Central Govt. initiated in early nineties, made great impact on rapid growth of teacher education. It got a big boost under privatisation of education and teacher education. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), set up by an Act of Parliament (1993) as a regulatory authority for planned and coordinated development of teacher education in India, seems to have failed and faltered to carry out planned due to against the strong wave of ploriferation and commercialization of teacher education. (In this context-MHRD Govt. of India, appointed NCTE Review Committee (2016) has made a few very significant and meaningful recommendations which are under consideration of the Govt of India).

Privatistion and Globalisation of higher education both general and professional got a big boost to set up a large number (736 as of now) of govt and private universities, resulting in a vast variety of teacher education programmes being offered in the country.

Justice Verma Commission (JVC), in its reported entitled, 'Vision of Teacher Education in India: Quality and Regulatory Perspective' (2012) had suggested a number of reforms in teacher education to be carried out by NCTE as a regulatory body for proper maintenance of regulations, norms and procedures. Its salient recommendations included enhancement of duration of teacher education programmes, institutional capacity for preparation of teacher educators be increased and preparation of Masters in Education programme of 2 year duration with provision of branching out for specialisation in curriculum and pedagogic studies, management, policy and other areas of emerging concerns in education.

NCTE Review Committee (2015)

Facing severe public criticism due to several reasons, the MHRD of Govt. of India appointed NCTE Review Committee, under the chairmanship of Prof Mohd Akhtar Siddiqui in (Oct 2015) addressed issues as related in some of the terms of reference of the Review Committee as: (1) Evaluate the performance of NCTE in fulfilling the objective of achieving planned and coordinated development of teacher education system (ii), suggest additional measures consistent with Justice Verma Commission's recommendations for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the

NCTE, (iii) Review the system, put in place for appraisal of applications for recognition at Regional Committee level, (iv) Draw upon international experience and suggest improvement in regulatory processes at the NCTE Hqrs, etc.

National Education Policy – A Draft (2016)

Keeping in view the larger goal of improving the quality of education some of the recommended salient policy initiatives are:

- Merit-based norms and guidelines for recruitment of teachers, principal, and other faculty be formulated in consultation with the state governments. State governments Independent Teacher Recruitment Commissions be set up to facilitate transparency.
- All vacancies in teacher education institutions and all positions of head teachers and principals be filled up. Leadership training for head teachers and principals be made compulsory.
- Issues relating to teacher absenteeism, teacher vacancies and lack of teacher accountability be resolved with strong political consensus and will. Disciplinary powers be vested with the School Management Committees (SMCs) in case of primary schools and head teachers/principals in upper primary and secondary schools to deal with absenteeism and indiscipline, assisted by technology for recording attendance with mobile phones and biometric devices.
- At the National level, a Teacher Education University be set up covering various aspects of teacher education and faculty development. The Regional Institutes of Education under NCERT be developed and converted in to Teacher Education Universities at the regional levels.
- Programmes for enhancing the capacity, motivation and accountability of teachers to deliver quality education and improvements in learning outcomes of students be accorded priority.
- Periodic assessment of teachers in government and private schools be made mandatory and linked to their future promotions and release of increments, as applicable. They may have to appear and clear an assessment test every 5 (five) to adjudge year which assesses their pedagogic skills and subject knowledge.

- A separate cadre for teacher educators be established in every State. The large number of vacancies in SCERTs, DIETs and other teacher education institutions be filled up to strengthen and build capacity of these institutions

Curriculum Perspective

National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) appointed by MHRD, Govt. of India as a non-statutory body (1973) to advise the government on matters related to teacher education developed, among others a **Teacher Education Curriculum: A Framework (1978)** to make teacher education curriculum relevant to socio personal needs of school children, coupled with flexibility, mobility and interdisciplinary and integrated approach to teacher education, practice teaching/internship with semester and stage-wise objective structures and methodology.

National Curriculum for Teacher Education (1988)

National Policy on Education (1986) provided guidelines for reorientation of content and process of school education. The National Commission on Teachers – I (NCT-I) also considered at length the question of strengthening teacher education programme. All these developments had necessitated the renewal of the earlier NCTE curriculum Framework (1978). The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (1988) presented objectives, curriculum designs, methodology of curriculum transaction for different teacher education programmes. It also consisted of programme and strategies for in-service and continuing education of teachers alongwith plan and strategies for implementation. The second framework design comprised: a) foundation courses 20%; (b) stage relevant specialisation 30%; (c) additional specialisation 10%; (d) practical / field work including internship 40%.

Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (1995)

The establishment of the NCTE by, as a statutory body (1993) to regulate development of teacher education, brought curriculum issue for a fresh look at the centre stage. A discussion paper initially developed and published in 1996, followed country wide discuss in workshops organised at regional and national levels with the help and collaboration of several institutions and university departments, teacher education institutions and other stakeholders. The curriculum framework, thus developed (published

in 1998) highlighted the need for value inculcation within the constitutional ideology and Indian ethos. The stage-wise course design comprised of: specific objectives, theory, optional courses, practice teaching and practical work supported by a rationale for each component. It worked well to be adopted and implemented by universities in all teacher education institutions.

National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) an outcome to address new concerns of school curriculum NCF (2005) and the expected transactional modalities for all stages of school education issues related to inclusive education, perspectives for equitable and sustainable development, gender perspectives, role of communities knowledge in education, ICT in schooling as well as e-learning, became the centre stage in this fourth framework of teacher education curricula with a new approach to curricular areas, highlighted and broadly dealt with under foundations of education, curricular and pedagogy and internship scheme. The rationale of each major area along with curricular provisions, both in theory and practicum, indicated lasting scope for individual reflection on the part of institutions and the associated academics. Pre-service and inservice components of teacher education being inseparable on a continuum, considerable focus is given in the framework for continuing professional development strategies, besides, a fresh perspective on preparation of teacher educators as well in detail.

Emerging Challenges: Prospect

Decline in Quality of Teacher Education

Overall quality of education is a major challenge before the country. Evidently the quality of education is a direct consequence and outcome of quality of teachers and teacher education system. With the quantitative expansion, the quality naturally goes down. Preparing quality teachers has been the foremost objective specially of the last two Curriculum Frameworks (1998 and 2009). However, the quality of teacher education is declining due to several reasons. First, due to its commercialisation and privatisation, where teacher education is considered as a commodity for a mad run for business and entrepreneurship in quite a big way for politicians, big business and media houses as well as the powerful elite of

today. Economic gain is priority at the cost of philanthropic or social service attitude of the enterprise.

Non-attending Culture

Secondly, the quality of teacher preparation has been a victim of non-attending culture which is increasingly influencing the system. Teacher education is now considered as a programme of seeking admission and then appearing in the examination to get certified for a teaching job, which, in deed, is rarely available for the mass of teachers trained. Admission to teacher education programme are made through touts/brokers who arrange candidates for registration to a course on the prior condition that the candidates would not be attending the course regularly and in some cases, not-attending consideration of cost effective institutions involved in malpractice. The quality of such products is questionable.

Have and Have-nots

A large number of private universities and institutions set up at all levels of teacher education during the first decade of 21st century evinced a keen interest in running the higher professional courses in teacher education with much better infrastructure and instructional facilities, as well as superior environs along with overall larger fees in private universities than the stand alone courses in private teacher education institutions. A clear class-divide between 'have' and 'have-not' institutions made the rich clientele of students prefer to join private universities and 'A' grade NAAC accredited private teacher education institutions than the government owned and aided institutions, probably because of deteriorating facilities and lack of full faculty in position therein.

Composite vs Comprehensive Colleges of Education

Ideally, the idea of conducting specially the integrated teacher education programme in composite colleges (U.G, PG colleges in liberal arts and sciences) recommended by Teacher Commission (1985) and recently by Justice Verma Commission (2012) is far from the ground level reality as subjects like education and teacher education are considered to be enjoying a low academic and social prestige and thus this faculty, stands by and far neglected. A recent recommendation to conduct teacher education in composite colleges stands redundant in this context.

The concept of Comprehensive College of Education, the cherished and beloved child of Kothari is dear to many hearts too who believe in the intrinsic strength of this system as a new deal; the most original contribution that carries a magic wind of sorts to renew and renovate teacher education system in its entirety, thus raising the level of schooling at all levels and subjects.

The tone and temper of the proposed central university for Teacher Education and Regional constituents would succeed only in the spirit and shape of Comprehensive College of Education than in any other mode. The teaching community in India ought to feel proud and grateful to Kothari for suggestion in a singularly unique scheme of things to boost and promote quality teacher education in a comprehensive way and in the quality of schooling as well as quality of life of the populace.

Programme Duration and Entry Qualification

Duration of teacher education programmes varies from 2 years to 6 years, such as D.El.Ed (2 years), B.Ed (2 years), M.Ed (2 years), B.Ed-M.Ed integrated (3 years), B.El.Ed (4 years), BA/B.Sc Ed (4 years), BA/B.Sc + M.Ed (6 years). Entry qualification of Sr. secondary school examination or equivalent for diploma and graduate degree for PG level courses B.Ed/M.Ed. For primary teacher job candidates study upto 12 and teach upto class 5 – study only 7 years more while BA/B.Sc Ed study upto 14 years and teach classes upto 10th years higher study only four years which is inadequate in subject knowledge.

Envisioning Teacher Preparation for 21st Century

Visualising the policy and curriculum perspective as a backdrop, the new vision of preparation of Indian teacher for the 21st should address the following issues.

Multiple Teacher Education Programme has been promoted by NCTE to serve stage specific needs of teacher preparation. Siddiqui Committee's (2016) observation, in this context, is that "The Regulations, 2014 trying to usher in a big basket of 15 programmes with proliferated nomenclatures may lead to problems of equivalence/mobility, both horizontal and vertical. For each type of TEP, say pre-school education, elementary education secondary education, physical education, art education (Visual Arts) and (Performing Arts) and others Designing Diploma degree, Post Graduate

(PG), Part time, Open and Distance Learning (ODL) etc. There may not be sufficient career opening and some of these levels and nomenclature differentiation may become redundant. A common shortlisting of nomenclatures of just three levels of TEPs namely Diploma in Education (DEd), B.Ed, and Master in Education (M.Ed) (giving the branches/fields/levels within parenthesis) is recommended. Further a common academic core being fundamental for any TEPs must definitely being all the TEPs under a single curricular genus” (2014, p. 61).

Inter - and Intra-programme Integration

The vertical combination of UG and PG programmes courses of the same discipline eg. B.Ed and M.Ed integrated into 3 year M.ED programme with or without exit option is called inter-programme integration without conferment of separate UG degree. The intra-programme integration means wherein the student gains to different degrees eg. BA, B.Ed, B.sc, B.Ed, etc. The understanding of content of one degree (B.A) is enabled by the other degree (B.Ed). But due to practical exigencies as it happens in multi-faculty institutions, in the first three years basic subject papers are taught alongwith other non-BEd students and pedagogy paper is kept for the fourth year, which is only an imperfect integration.

Five year Integrated Teacher Education Programme – A Proposal

Now since, the B.Ed. programme is of two years, the three year degree programme in liberal arts and sciences has a good possibility of a five year integrated teacher education programme which was strikingly recommended by Chattopadhy Commission (1983-85).

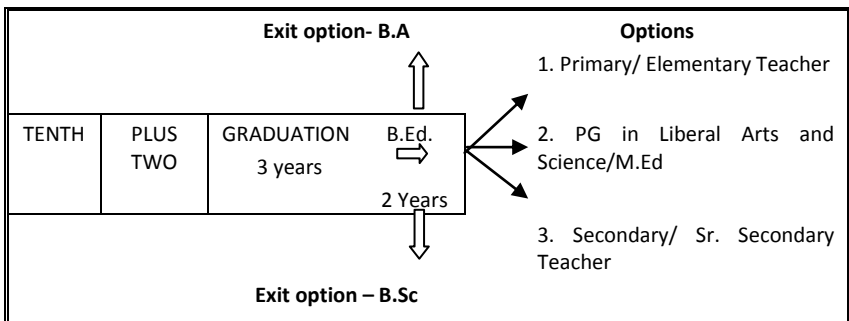


Fig: Five Year Integrated Teacher Education Programme

The main features of the proposed programme are:

- It is meant for preparation of both elementary and secondary level of teachers with subject domain of under graduate.
- It has exit option for getting B.A/B.Sc degrees as students may like to change their career preference during the programme.
- It provides for implementation of two year B.Ed programme with long internship.
- It should be launched in RIEs, Central Universities and some reputed private universities.
- It may be started during 2020-21 session after plus two if approved by the NCTE. Teachers with sound in subjected matter and pedagogy will be available for the school system in 2025-26.

The above vision programme is based on recommendation of the NCTE Review Committee headed by Prof. Mohd Akhtar Siddiqui (2016) as the futuristic vision which reads:

“The futuristic vision should be to move forward into a perfectly integrated five-year-post-plus-two TE programme as envisaged by the National Commission on Teachers – I, as early as 1983 -85 and as remarkably successful model working quite commendably in Finland. The five year programme would be meant for preparation of all levels of teachers and would lead to award of an M.Ed degree with specialisation mentioned in the parenthesis, instead of a B.Ed. degree, as equivalent to other Master’s degrees. There should be no exit option, no dual degree and the whole programme should be exclusively committed to the teaching career. The teacher preparation is a fine blending of education theory, subject content and rigorous pedagogy and a long school internship. The programme is a research based one and run by outstanding and excellent teacher educators. This model would obviate the evils of the present non-committed and foot-loose behaviour of trained teachers, who are looking for any career including teaching, if available.

To start with, the above model be launched in Regional Institute of Educations (RIEs), Institute of Advanced Studies in Educations (IASEs), Autonomous Colleges, University Department and few reputed Arts and

Science Colleges only after sufficient preparation and due environment and capacity building for the five year programme” (2016)

Conclusion

Policy perspective discussed in historical development of teacher education also focussed curricular perspective as a content of emerging challenges and issues of teacher education in the country. Comprehensive colleges are better option than composite colleges running teacher education programme. It is matter of conviction that teacher education institutions could be organised on the right lines and become dynamic centres of progressive education, monumental, in the whole task of educational reconstruction. Envisioning teacher education is prescribed proposing a new ‘five year integrated programme’ leading to B.A/B.Sc, B.Ed. degree to be conducted in comprehensive Colleges of Education for preparation of teacher of the 21st country in India, while Siddiqui Committee has recommended five year integrated programme leading to B.A/B.Sc, M.Ed. degree based on Finland Model.

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Judicial Route to Educational Policies and Practices

Suman Lata¹ & Harjeet Kaur Bhatia²

¹Research Scholar & ²Professor and Head

Department of Educational Studies,

Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

E-mail: sumanlata6@gmail.com, harjeetkaurbhatia@gmail.com

Modern day formal system of education is a planned and deliberate enterprise regulated by the State. The legislature and executive parts of the government are responsible for making and implementing policies. These two wings of the government represent the will of people through their elected representatives. Judiciary on the other hand does not consist of elected representatives but serves as custodian of Constitutional guarantees and guardian of people's rights. Thus democracies work on the principle of separation of powersⁱ and checks and balances with a little inevitable overlap here and there. However, at times, the judiciary through its activity of adjudication tends to step in to the domain of policy making. All over the world, the phenomenon of judicial route to policy making has been noticed. Stamp of judicial intervention can be seen in many areas. A pro active role played by the judges while disposing of cases has attracted the nomenclatures 'judicial activism', 'judicial overreach'ⁱⁱ and even disapprovingly as judicial adventurism.

In India, judiciary has been able to enter the domain of policy making mainly through the instrument of PIL or Public Interest Litigation. PIL is a unique instrument in that it does not exactly flow from the Constitution of the country. Rather, it evolved because of the judiciary's acceptance of change in the concept of locus standi. In simple words it means that earlier only the aggrieved person or persons could approach the courts but in the seventies, the courts began accepting petitions filed by the concerned citizens on behalf of others in the larger public interest. Extensive use of PIL mainly by the Non Governmental Organisations working in the area of education has brought about major policy changes. The present paper

traces the judicial route to major policy formulations through PILs in the area of school education in India from 1992 onwards.

Inclusion of right to education as a Fundamental Right in the Constitution of India is a major shift in the education policy in India. But the journey has not been without pitfalls. When the independent India adopted its Constitution, free and compulsory education up to fourteen years of age, figured in part IV of the Constitution, containing the Directive Principles of State Policy. This meant that the Constitution makers expected the State towards working in the direction of making education for children up to fourteen years i.e., up to elementary education free as well as compulsory. But being part of the DPSP also made this right non-justiciable. The issue was debated in the Constituent Assembly and there was also a proposal to include primary education as a Fundamental Right. But after discussions, right to education was included in the DPSP and not as part of Fundamental Rights. The debates reveal that “an amendment was moved to alter the draft Article relating to FCE(free and compulsory education).By this amendment the term ‘entitled’ was removed from the draft Article to ensure that education remained a non-justiciable policy directive in the Constitution.”ⁱⁱⁱ Ultimately, right to education found its way in the Directive Principles of State Policy as Article 45 which stated:

“The State shall endeavour to provide, with in a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.”^{iv}

It is noticeable that this was the only Article in the Directive Principles that described an objective to be achieved by the State within a prescribed time limit of ten years. However, that did not happen even after four decades until finally the Supreme Court declared that right to education up to fourteen years of age was an implicit Fundamental Right.

Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009, referred to as RTE or Act herein after, is a direct outcome of judicial intervention. The journey of shift of this right to elementary education from non justiciable Directive Principle to justiciable Fundamental Right is an interesting one. It seems like a chance occurrence. Generally, the decision of the Supreme Court of India to declare right to education as a Fundamental Right is attributed to the court’s judgment in the famous Unnikrishnan case^v, but the

history of the enactment of the revolutionary RTE Act goes back to year 1992 to the Mohini Jain v. State of Karnatka case^{vi}, in the Supreme Court of India. It is interesting to note that both the cases actually pertained to the issues related to higher education. It was the issue of capitation fee in private higher education institutions that incidentally brought the issue of right to education before the apex court. The Court looked in to the issue whether right to education was a Fundamental Right or not. In this landmark judgment, the Supreme Court of India ruled that though as per the Constitution, right to education does not figure as a Fundamental Right, yet it is implicit in the right to life and liberty granted by the Constitution in Article 21 as a Fundamental Right. In the words of the Court:

“The dignity of a man is inviolable. It is the duty of the State to respect and protect the same. It is primarily the education which brings-forth the dignity of man...The right to education is a fundamental right that flows directly from the right to life. The right to life under Article 21 and the dignity of an individual cannot be assured unless it is accompanied by the right to education .The State government is under an obligation to make endeavour to provide educational facilities at all levels to its citizens.”^{vii}

Thus through this judgment the Court interpreted the Right to Life and Personal Liberty specified in Article 21 of part iii of the Constitution liberally by defining the right to life as much more than mere physical existence. Court had extended such liberal interpretation to Article 21 earlier also. Equating right to life with right to education broadened the ambit of Fundamental Rights granted to Indian citizens like never before. However, this was a sweeping judgment covering all the segments of formal education including higher education. The Court revised its own decision in the well known case of Unnikrishnan JP v. State of Andhra in 1993 wherein the Court reiterated the implicit nature of the right to education in the right to life and liberty but narrowed down its ambit to education up to fourteen years of age as mentioned in Article 45 of The Directive Principles of the State policy. The Court observed that it was the duty of the State to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen years and that it was a Fundamental Right of the citizens. This brief legislative historical background of the RTE Act shows that the Act is a gift of the judiciary to the nation as against the legislature of the country that had failed to provide even universalisation of primary

education, leave alone elementary education in the country. Here is an example of how judiciary stepped in the domain of legislature and the executive as the latter, failed to provide the needful. As a result of this judgment, 86th constitutional amendment was introduced to insert Article 21 A in the Constitution that stipulated:

“The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such a manner as the State may, by law, determine.”

At the same time, the original Article 45 was also amended as follows:

“The State shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.”

Critics have rightly pointed out that the government actually took away from the citizens what the Constitution had originally given and what the Supreme Court delivered. (Anil Sadgopal 2009). But what is striking is that it took almost nine years by the government to bring about the constitutional Amendment and another seven years before the RTE Act actually became legally effective! Supreme Court judgment in Mohini Jain case came in 1992, Unnikrishnan judgment in 1993, 86th Amendment in 2002, 93rd Amendment Act in 2005, RTE in 2009 and became effective in April 2010 and that too with a window period of three to five years for implementation of many of its provisions. This is a clear pointer towards government’s willful failure to implement the right to elementary education.

RTE is quite a comprehensive Act, going much beyond the mere judicial pronouncement of declaring education up to fourteen years of age. It is a detailed legal document on the education policy of the country. It contains many hitherto non- existent provisions with a potential to change the face of schooling in India. Some of the provisions of the Act ruffled many a feather and many posed huge challenge to the prevalent system. A careful scrutiny of some such provisions again takes us back to the court room battles. Genesis of some revolutionary provisions lies in the court judgments.

One of the provisions of the Act relates to the reservation of twenty five percent seats for the children of economically backward sections of the society. This is the most challenged clause of the Act that the private

unaided schools kept on resisting and challenging in the courts till April, 2012, when the Supreme Court finally closed the matter by upholding the constitutionality of this provision.^{viii} How did this provision find its way in the Act? Answer to this question takes us to the Public Interest Litigation^{ix} filed in the Delhi High Court against private unaided schools for violation of the terms of agreement while they were allotted land for their schools at nominal rates by the government. The schools that had taken land from the government at concessional rates (almost free) were supposed to reserve fifteen percent of the seats for the economically weaker sections. This was after many court reminders that government got in to action. The provision found its way in the RTE with an increased percentage and in all the private schools all over the country including those that had not taken land at the concessional rates.

Another significant provision of the Act pertains to prohibiting corporal punishment in schools, something that had lot of acceptance in society and to some extent had legal sanction as well. Delhi was the first State to ban corporal punishment in schools after a prolonged battle in the Court followed by some other states till the provision got included in the RTE, 2009. Similarly, prohibition of screening of parents or children at the time of admission by the private schools too originated in the Delhi High Court. This was a major policy initiative sparing the tiny tots and their parents the ordeal of facing tense moments in the name of screening and at times euphemistically called 'interaction'. Other judiciary initiated or judiciary mediated important policy measures in school education include supply of cooked mid day meal in government schools as against the practice of providing dry rations, guidelines for safe transportation of children to and from schools, provision for fire safety measures in schools, introduction of environment studies in school curriculum, banning junk food in school canteens, prohibition of non academic work except election and census related work and appointment of Justice Verma Commission on teacher education! It is not only in the area of school education but many other areas such as environment, right to food, pollution, human rights, gender issues and recently safety on the roads and even respecting the national anthem that judiciary has taken a pro active stance. Phenomenon of judicial activism or overreach is not peculiar to India alone. Activist role of judges is almost a universal and much debated phenomenon in all democracies.

What are the challenges faced by teachers and schools as a result of judicial intervention in the school policies and practices? Since judiciary can only adjudicate and eventually its orders have to be implemented by the executive only, there are many hurdles in the compliance of judicial decisions. Any major initiative that has not come from the government itself and is imposed on it from above would face implementation challenges. This is what has happened in case of judicial intervention in school education policies. As mentioned earlier, it took almost sixteen years after the Unnikrishnan judgment for the right to elementary education to become a legal reality because the government was not prepared for its implementation at such a large scale. Since the government was not ready with the ground work, too many gaps in the implementation of RTE are staring at us even after more than six years of its coming in to effect. Teachers in both private and government schools are facing a number of challenges.

One major challenge faced by the teachers in the private schools is dealing with children from economically weaker sections (EWS). Private schools and teachers were not used to an inclusive school system given the prominent divisive system of school education in our country. Such students are still not welcome in elite schools. Schools put forward all sorts of arguments against the inclusion of children from EWS category. They kept on scuttling and delaying the process as long as they could. It is still not a smooth sailing for the parents and children admitted under EWS category. Research has documented lack of implementation of this provision by the schools. In a study conducted by IIM –Ahmadabad, Central Square Foundation and Accountability Initiative, it was found that only 29 per cent of the 21 lakh seats reserved for the EWS category students have gone to them. Only Delhi (92%), Madhya Pradesh (88%) and relatively Rajasthan (69%), have fared well on this indicator of RTE.^x Teachers face the challenge of rising above their own biases as well as pedagogical challenges. Private school teachers need to be equipped with pedagogical practices to handle socially and economically heterogeneous classes; otherwise the purpose of inclusive education is likely to backfire.

Another challenge faced by the government schools is the clause of the Act related to admission of children to a class appropriate to their age. Although this particular clause did not emanate directly from the judicial

intervention, but the exigencies of limiting the right to free and compulsory education only up to fourteen years of age coupled with the government's intention to do the minimum needful led to the inclusion of this clause in the RTE. As a result, each class has a bunch of children who have directly been admitted to certain classes without studying in the lower classes. It is a big challenge to teach these children. As observed and experienced by our B.El.Ed interns in the government schools, these children find it difficult to cope up and teachers are unable to plan and teach them separately because of big class sizes. Such children will keep getting promoted till fourteen years of age and then move out of the system without much learning.

Lack of proper infrastructure and student teacher ratio as stipulated in the RTE Act is another challenge faced particularly by the government schools and their teachers. Apart from the infrastructure part, the success of the implementation of the Act depends on the qualified teachers. Number of teachers is still much less than the required minimum. Teachers are finding it difficult to cope up with large class sizes leading to poor quality of teaching. States were given five years to implement the Act i.e. till March 31st, 2015. But even now the targets are far from being met. Every other day, media reports point to the failure of implementation of the Act on all fronts, whether it is about large number of out of school children, shortage of teachers, and lack of trained teachers, cases of corporal punishment or poor quality of teaching. According to Nobel Prize winner, Kailash Satyarthi, "Today, education is a fundamental right under the Right to Education Act, 2009. However, failures in implementation and policy gaps have rendered it less effective."^{xi} Just a cursory glance at some of the recent newspaper headlines gives us an idea of the challenges thrown by RTE Act:

"Right to Education: At least a lakh left out" (The Times of India, New Delhi, October 6, 2016 p.4)

"Many Class vi students can't read do simple calculations" (The Indian Express, New Delhi, August 10, 2010, p.6)

RTE: HRD seeks time to extend teacher training deadline" (The Indian Express, New Delhi, October 27, 2016 p. 9)

According to another report in April 2015, “Even after five years, less than 10% of all the government schools comply with all the norms and standards of the Act. There is presently a shortage of more than 1.2 million trained and qualified teachers in India.”^{xii}

Lack of proper teacher education to meet the requirements of the RTE is a major challenge. In 2010, the government introduced Teacher Eligibility Test to improve the standards of teacher education. The results are very discouraging. On an average, only eight percent of candidates have been passing the test so far. As R. Govinda has pointed out, “We are the only country in the world which has left teacher training to the private sector.....over 95% (teacher training institutes) are privately managed.”^{xiii} RTE requires that all teachers in schools should be professionally trained and allowed a period of five years to meet this requirement. And now the HRD ministry has sought the extension of the deadline for teacher training till 2020 under the RTE Act.

As is clear from the background of the RTE Act, it has come to us through a liberal, activist interpretation of the Article 21 of the Constitution by the judiciary. But the challenges to its implementation even after so many years are plenty. According to a recent (March, 2016) assessment study of the impact of the Act, “The Right to Education (RTE) Act is still a mirage in a number of cities and towns. Though enrollment rates have improved, learning outcomes have not shown much progress...disparity...still exists with regard to the access to education in the nation, pointing to the fact that provisions of the Education Act have failed to target those in the society who need it most.”^{xiv} Government is still struggling to comply with the norms framed by the government itself. In the process, schools and mainly teachers continue to struggle to meet the challenges. In the process, a large number of children still remain deprived of access to quality education.

End Notes

Separation of powers refers to the division of government responsibilities into distinct branches to limit any one branch from exercising the core functions of another. The term was coined by eighteenth century philosopher Montesquieu in his publication, *Spirit of the Laws*.

Black’s Dictionary 850(1999) defines Judicial Activism as a philosophy which motivates the judges to depart from the strict adherence to judicial precedent in favor of progressive and new social policies...is commonly marked by decisions calling for social engineering and occasionally represents intrusions in the legislative and executive matters. The term Judicial overreach is generally used synonymously for judicial activism. In India the rise

of Public Interest Litigation in seventies brought out the activist nature of judicial pronouncements.

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Predictors of Academic Stress of Adult learners in National Teachers' Institute Study Centre, Minna, Niger State

**Mary O. Esere¹, Betty Ruth N. Iruloh²,
Adetoun O. Idowu³ & John O. Okunlola⁴**

^{1&4}Deptt. of Counsellor Education, University of Ilorin.

²Deptt. of Educational Psychology, Guidance and Counseling,
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria &

³Deptt. of Library and Information Science, University of Ilorin, Ilorin
Email: eserem@unilorin.edu.ng

Abstract

Academic stress involves strains, challenges or inconveniences experienced by students in the course of their academic pursuit. This study investigated the predictors of academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers' Institute Study Centre, Minna, Niger state. The correlation method was adopted for the study. The target population for the study was all adult learners in National Teachers' Institute Study Centre, Minna, Niger state. One Hundred and Eight (108) respondents were purposively selected for the study. A questionnaire titled 'Predictors of Academic Stress of Adult Learners' was administered on the respondents to collect relevant data. Three research questions and two null hypotheses were raised and tested at 0.05 level of significance using stepwise regression analysis. The result showed that Family, Institutional, Economic and occupational factors significantly predicted academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers' Institute Study Centre, Minna. Based on the findings, it was recommended that institutions should provide adequate facilities that will make learning interesting to the adult learners and counsellors should be made available in NTI study centre Minna to attend to the needs of the adult learners.

Keywords: *Academic stress, Adult Learners, National Teachers' Institute.*

Introduction

Stress is an inevitable aspect of human existence that one can safely assert that to live is to experience stress. Human experiences mild, serious, pleasant or aversive, are to some extent stress-producing. Stress has

become such a devastating issue that medical doctors, psychologist and counselors are working tirelessly to reduce its occurrences in all human endeavours. According to Akinade (2007), stress is something that occurs when people are faced with events they perceive as challenging to their physical or psychological wellbeing. Stress is any situational demand on the body that one perceives or that requires a reaction leading to a change or adaptation to it. Signs of stress can be behavioural, physical, emotional and physiological.

One form of stress that is constantly being experienced by adult students is stress in relation to academic concern. Academic stress is a form of strains, challenges or inconveniences experienced by students in the course of their academic pursuit. It is the product of a combination of academic related demands that exceed the adaptive resources available to an individual (Wilks, 2008).

Academic stress pervades the life of students and tends to impact adversely their mental and physical health and their ability to perform school work effectively (Felsen & Wilcox, 1992). Stress associated with academic activities has been linked to various negative outcomes such as poor health (Lesko & Summerfield, 1989) depression and poor academic performance. Linn and Zeppa, (1984) found a significant positive correlation between the incidence of illness and the number of examinations and assignments as a link to academic stress.

Adult learners face unique challenges such as work, family and numerous responsibilities and obligations that they must juggle while pursuing a degree with limited time and financial resources. Many adult learners have responsibilities (family and jobs) and situations (e.g. transportation, child care, domestic violence and need to earn more income) that can interfere with the learning process. Most adults enter educational programmes voluntarily and manage their classes around work and family responsibilities. Additionally, most adult learners are highly motivated and task oriented (Merriam & Cafferella, 1999).

A study by Agolla and Ongori (2010) on an assessment of academic stress among undergraduate students: The case of University of Botswana found out that academic workload, inadequate resources, low motivation, overcrowded lecture hall, inadequacy of learning facilities, negative

attitude of lecturers and overshooting of lecture period and uncertainty of getting job after graduating from the university lead to stress among students. Agolla and Ongori's (2010) study was foreign-based. The current study is built on the foundation of Agolla and Ongori (2010) study in Nigeria with adult learners being the focus of investigation. Toward this end, this study investigated the predictors of academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers' Institute study centre, Minna, Nigeria.

Methods

The correlational research method was adopted for this study. The population for the study is all adult learners undergoing Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) in the National Teachers Institute Minna, study centre, Niger state. The target population is 150 which is the number of PGDE students in NTI Minna study, centre. The sample is all PGDE students in NTI, Minna study centre. Purposive sampling technique was used to select NTI centre Minna. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents. The instrument that was used for the study was titled "Predictors of Academic Stress of Adult Learners Questionnaire" to determine the predictors of academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers Institute study centre, Minna, Niger State. The instrument was content validated by experts with a reliability coefficient of 0.76. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the research questions while Correctional Matrix was used for the hypotheses.

Results

Research Question One: *What are the factors that predict academic stress among adult learners in National Teachers' Institute, study centre Minna?*

Table 2: Mean and Ranking of the Predictors of Academic Stress of Adult Learners in National Teachers' Institute study centre, Minna

Item No.	The following constitute academic stress to me;	Mean	Rank
Family Factors			
1.	finding it difficult to combine family and college work	3.19	4 th
2.	having increasing marital demands	2.18	20 th
3.	lacking support from my spouse	2.41	18 th
4.	unavailability to my children due to academic demands	2.48	17 th

5.	unsupportive family members	2.30	19 th
Institutional Factors			
6.	dealing with unapproachable lecturers	2.82	13 th
7.	lack of basic learning facilities such as study materials, libraries etc.	2.96	9 th
8.	too much academic workload	3.14	7 th
9.	unconducive learning environment	3.24	2 nd
10.	overcrowded classrooms	3.37	1 st
Economic Factors			
11.	poor financial status	3.22	3 rd
12.	Challenges in paying school fees	3.17	6 th
13.	paying for my children school fees/day-care services	2.80	15 th
14.	high cost of internet services	2.88	11 th
15.	lack of personal computer to do my assignment	2.90	10 th
Occupational Factors			
16.	Lack of cooperation from my boss/employer	2.81	14 th
17.	finding it difficult to combine work and school	2.99	8 th
18.	lack of cooperation from co-workers	2.65	16 th
19.	workplace demand	2.85	12 th
20.	time constraint	3.18	5 th

Table 2 shows that sixteen out of the twenty items have mean scores that are above the mid-mean score of 2.50, then it can be said that majority of the respondents attest to the fact that the stated items are predictors of academic stress among adult learners in NTI study centre.

Research Question Two: *Which of these factors best predict academic stress among adult learners in NTI study centre Minna?*

Table 3: Mean and Sub-Sectional Rank Order on the predictor of academic stress among adult learners in Minna Metropolis

Predictors of Academic Stress	Mean	Rank
Institutional factor	3.10	1 st
Economic factor	3.00	2 nd
Occupational factor	2.90	3 rd
Family factor	2.51	4 th

Table 3 shows that institution plays a major role in academic stress of adult learners. If an institution does not have the necessary facilities needed by the adult learners for academic attainment, the institution will further expose the students to academic stress.

Hypothesis 1: *Family, institutional, economic and occupational factors will not correlate academic stress among adult learners in National Teachers' Institute study centre Minna.*

Table 4a: Correctional Matrix for Factors Predicting Academic Stress among Adult Learners in NTI study centre

Step	Predictor(s)	R	R ²	Adj R ²	R ² Change	F (sig)	df
1	F	0.802	0.644	0.624	0.644	0.000	18
2	F,I	0.866	0.750	0.721	0.106	0.016	17
3	F,I,E	0.956	0.913	0.897	0.163	0.000	16
4	F,I,E,O	0.971	0.942	0.927	0.029	0.015	15

$\alpha = 0.05$

Keys

F: Family factor, **I:** Institutional factor
E: Economic factor **O:** Occupational factor

Models

1. $AS = 6.494 + 0.385 F$
2. $AS = 3.702 + 0.316 F + 0.205I$
3. $AS = -0.319 + 0.261 F + 0.218 I + 0.251 E$
4. $AS = 0.651 + 0.192 F + 0.138 I + 0.162 E + 0.173 O$

Where AS = Academic Stress

F, I, E, and O = Added factors

Note: The different factors and academic stress were significantly related in each of the models ($p < 0.05$)

Table 4b: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Correctional Matrix Predicting Academic Stress from different Factors (Predictors).

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
1.	Regression	18.379	1	18.379	32.525	0.000
	Residual	10.171	18	0.565		
	Total	28.550	19			
2.	Regression	21.411	2	10.706	25.495	0.000
	Residual	7.139	17	0.420		
	Total	28.550	19			
3.	Regression	26.066	3	8.689	55.958	0.000
	Residual	2.484	16	0.155		
	Total	28.550	19			

4.	Regression	26.894	4	6.724	60.902	0.000
	Residual	1.656	15	0.110		
	Total	28.550	19			

$\alpha = 0.05$

Tables 4a and 4b show the correctional matrix of academic stress with some factors that contribute to academic stress. Four (4) models were generated with the addition of a factor as the regression step increased. The correlation coefficients (R) of the models were close to 1 which implied that there were significant relationships between academic stress and the predictors included in each model. The coefficient of determinant (R^2) of all the models were also above 0.6, which implied that the models explained more than 60% of the data used for the model; Model 1 explained 64.4% of the data, Model 2,3 and 4 explained 75%, 91.3% and 94.2% of the data respectively. Since the model explained a high percentage of the data set, therefore the models fit the data but the best model was model 4, which explained 94.2% of the data. From model 4, all the predictors contributed significantly to the model which implied that all the predictors together contributed to the academic stress but since the R^2 value of model 3 was not far in value from model 4, which implied that the addition of occupational factor to the model 4 did not have much effect which shows that occupational factor contributed less to the academic stress of the respondents.

Hypothesis 2: *Age, marital status, number of children and occupational status will not correlate academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers Institute study centre Minna*

Table 5a. Correctional Matrix for Academic Stress among Adult Learners in NTI Study centre.

Step	Factor(s)	R	R2	Adj. R2	R2-Change	F(sig)	df
1	A	0.072	0.005	-0.050	0.005	0.762	18
2	A,M	0.219	0.048	-0.064	0.043	0.762	17
3	A,M,C	0.365	0.133	-0.029	0.085	0.227	16
4	A,M,C,O	0.587	0.344	0.169	0.211	0.044	15

$\alpha = 0.05$

A-Age, **M**- Marital status, **C**- No. of Children, **O**-Occupational status

Models

1. $AS = 11.694 + 0.064 A$
2. $AS = 10.800 - 0.027 A + 0.638 M$
3. $AS = 10.908 - 0.114 A + 0.222 M + 0.538 C$
4. $AS = 13.019 - 0.197 A + 0.173 M + 0.436 C - 1.332 O$

Where AS = Academic Stress. A, M C, O = Added Factors

Note: All the factors added except occupational status were not significantly ($p > 0.05$) related to Academic stress in the models. Only the addition of occupational status to all other factors were significantly ($p < 0.05$) related to academic stress in model 4.

Table 5b: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Correctional Matrix for Academic Stress from different Factors (Predictors)

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Squares	F	Sig
1.	Regression	0.149	1	0.149	0.095	0.762
	Residual	28.401	18	1.578		
	Total	28.550	19			
2.	Regression	1.372	2	0.686	0.429	0.658
	Residual	27.178	17	1.599		
	Total	28.550	19			
3	Regression	3.808	3	1.269	0.821	0.501
	Residual	24.742	16	1.546		
	Total	28.550	19			
4	Regression	9.882	4	2.456	1.967	0.152
	Residual	18.728	15	1.249		
	Total	28.550	19			

$\alpha = 0.05$

Tables 5a and 5b shows the correctional matrix of academic stress with demographic factors (Age, marital status, number of children and occupational status).

The R value of models 1,2, and 3 were less than 0.4, which showed that the relationship of the demographic factors with academic stress were weak. The R value of model 4 was above 0.5 which showed a moderate

relationship between the factors included in this model and academic stress.

The R^2 value of the models 1, 2 and 3 are very low; Model 1 explained 0.5% of the data while models 2 and 3 explained 4.8% and 13.3 % of the data. Model 4 explained 34.4 % of the data which made it the best fit model for the data set. From Model 4, only occupational status contributed significantly to the model while others such as age, marital status and number of children did not contribute significantly to the model. This implies that occupational status added to the other demographic factors caused significant academic stress to the respondents.

Discussion

The main focus of this research work was to find out the predictors of academic stress of adult learners in National Teachers' Institute study centre, Minna.

The result in Table 2 shows that 16 out of the 20 items have mean scores that are above the mean score of 2.50, which can be said that majority of the respondents agree to the fact that Institutional, Economic, Occupational and family factors are predictors of academic stress among adult learners in NTI Minna study centre. This is in consonance with Terell 1990; Carney-Crompton and Tan (2002) who stated that family, institutional, occupational and Economic and other factors can hinder adult learners from achieving their educational goal.

Research question two asked which of these factors best predict academic stress among adult learners in NTI study centre, Minna. Table 3 shows that Institutional factor had the highest mean score of 3.10 and was therefore ranked 1st. This result is in line with Agolla and Ongori (2010) who found out that inadequate learning material, high-tuition fees, overcrowded classroom are forms of Institutional factors that contribute to academic stress.

Hypothesis one was rejected which implies that family, institutional, economic and occupational factors predict academic stress of adult learners in NTI Minna study centre. This is in agreement with previous studies which reported that institutional factors are one of the major obstacles discouraging adult students from participating in educational activities. Clark, Morgan-Klein, Raffle and Schuller, (1987) found out that

overcrowded classrooms, in-adequate textbooks, school buildings and facilities which are not designed to suit adult learners may constitute stress for them. Terrell (1990) also stated that Economic factors plays a significant role in the ability of adults to complete their academic goal such as challenges in paying school fees, paying for textbooks, internet services, their children's school fee etc. Carney-Crompton and Tan (2002) stated that family factors affect adult learners especially mothers of young children experience more role conflict and guilt over being unavailable to their children and a times find it difficult to combine school and family. Onumah (1997) also stated that increase responsibilities from both nuclear and extended families as well as other social responsibilities affect adult learners.

Hypothesis two states that age, marital status, number of children and occupational status will not significantly predict academic stress among adult learners in NTI study centre, Minna. The result shows that all predictors except occupational status will not significantly predict academic stress of the respondents. Which implies that age, marital status and number of children do not predict academic stress of the respondents. This is consistent with Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner, (1993) who found out that intelligence does not reduce through the aging process. This is also supported by Hassett (1983) who stated that competence with words is not reduced through aging process. Jarvis (1987) also found out that family commitments indicate stability, maturity and contribute significantly to academic success, so the marital status of the respondents may not predict their academic stress. The combination of age, marital status, and number of children do not have significant influence on academic stress of the respondents but the addition of occupational status to other demographic profile has significant effect on the academic stress of the respondents. Almost 71% of the adult learners at NTI Minna study centre are employed. Combining family, school and work can be a very stressful experience for working adults due to the demand of the workplace such as long hours of work, lack of support from the boss and co-workers.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, adult learners in NTI study centre Minna cited Institutional, Economic, Occupational and family- related concerns as factors predicting academic stress.

Implication for Counseling

The stress adult learners encounter can undoubtedly affect their attitude towards learning since the failure to complete the academic programme of some of them is traceable to these academic stresses. The academic stress adult learners face demand for a kind of intervention that would enable them maximize their participation and achieve the desired goals and objectives. From this understanding, it will not be difficult for the adult educators and counsellors to make smooth achievement in terms of helping their clients (adult learners) achieve their educational goals.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommend the following;

- Education Policy makers should ensure that Counselling Centres are provided in National Teachers' Institutes devoted to helping adult learners deal with stress and anxiety;
- Orientation programmes should be designed exclusively for adult students, such events would provide them with basic skills needed to cope with family, college and employment responsibilities;
- The school administrators in institutions of learning should make the learning environment conducive for adult learners and provide basic learning facilities that suit adult learners and make provision for spacious lecture hall to avoid overcrowding.

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National Policy on ICT in School Education: A Critical Analysis

Ankita & Ilyas Husain²

²Professor and Dean

Faculty of Education, JMI, New Delhi

Email: thakranankita@gmail.com & ilyashusain2004@gmail.com

Abstract

In 21st century, technology is being used in each and every sphere of our lives thereby becoming an indispensable part of the modern society. Technology has seeped in the roots of every unit of the digital society in such a way that no organisation can achieve maximum and better results without using it in its everyday practices. Schools are not an exception therefore time has arrived where schools have to maximise the use of technology and have to produce better results (Busch, 2009). In this direction, Ministry of Human Resource and Development (MHRD), Government of India has brought a National Policy on ICT in School Education 2012. The present paper is an attempt to critically analyse the policy to assess the preparation of schools from infrastructure point of view and the possibility of its implementation.

Keywords: *ICT, Policy, Digital Resources, Capacity Building*

Introduction

Tinio (2002) states that ICT has the potential of increasing access and improving quality of education in developing countries. To remain competitive in this era of globalised period, governments everywhere are trying to make a move from an industrial to information society. ICT plays a vital role in all the aspects of a country's economy, particularly education. 'If appropriately applied, ICT can significantly help achieve some critical priorities in the countries education sector' (Kasinathan-2008). So, in order to make a country's workforce better skilled competitors and global citizens, every country is investing in technology and specifically technology in education. Working along these lines, developed countries such as Australia, UK and US have evolved their detailed national policies on using ICT in school education. Even Singapore has established a marked stone on effective ways of using ICT in school

education. It is a stated fact that even the developed countries like Ethiopia have the national policy for using ICT in Education. Working along the same line, Ministry of Human Resource and Development (MHRD), Government of India; including the Department of School Education, taking the strategic help from GeSCI (Global e-school and communities Initiative) – which is a United Nation ICT Task force founded organization, bringing the partners from Centre for Science, Development, and Media Studies (CSDDMS), formulated a National Policy on ICT in School Education, 2012 that was implemented in 2013 by Government of India.

The particular document (which one?... not clear) is an effort to read between the lines of NATIONAL POLICY ON ICT IN SCHOOL EDUCATION. While analyzing the policy documents the following questions have been raised, such as;

1. What does the policy talk about?
2. What has been left out in the policy?
3. What are the hidden ideas lying in the stated ideas?
4. How is the policy related to educational goals? (in specific to national focus group on Aims of Education) etc. will be some of the issues raised and dealt while analyzing the policy document

Before moving towards the policy document, there is a need to know what is ICT

Information and Communication Technology

“ICTs refer to all the technologies used for handling and communication of information in School Education” (National Policy on ICT in School Education, Draft Version)

“Information and Communication Technologies are defined as all devices, tools, content, resources, forums, and services, digital and those that can be converted into or delivered through digital forms, which can be deployed for realising the goals of teaching learning, enhancing access to and reach of resources, building of capacities, as well as management of the educational system. These will not only include hardware devices connected to computers, and software applications, but also interactive digital content, internet and other satellite communication devices, radio

and television services, web based content repositories, interactive forums, management systems, and management information systems.” (Source...?)

“These will also include processes for digitisation, deployment and management of content, development and deployment of platforms and processes for capacity development, and creation of forums for interaction and exchange.”(National Policy on ICT in School Education 2013).

The National Curriculum Framework 2005 (NCF, 2005) clearly highlights the importance of ICT in school education. In order to inculcate requisite skills in the students, affordable ICT tools and techniques should be integrated into teaching learning process right from the primary stage. Certainly technology is beneficial for the society and has become an indispensable part of it. But the role of technology in education is still somewhere questionable too and it is supported by Apple (year?) too where he says '*Is the New Technology part of the Solution or part of the Problem in Education*'.

According to Apple (1990) it is important to read the texts – by whom and how texts are produced. It follows there is a history behind the discourse. While reading out the texts there is also a need to study what has been left in the text. (Giroux, 1988)

Effort to read between the lines of National Policy on ICT in School Education 2013

Analysis of the Policy Document

- **Vision of the Policy**

ICT would undoubtedly contribute to the development of the economies worldwide. It would increase the diffusion of knowledge, information and innovative contents, applications and services without giving due consideration to geographic location. Clearly, mobile and internet would enhance the quality of life and the ability of people to effectively participate in democratic and social life. Moreover, it would also give the needed infrastructure for increasing e-literacy that will alleviate the digital divide.

While critically examining, the vision is directly stating that it will create a knowledge society that will lead to socio economic development of the nation and global competitiveness. There has been a considerable consent

among the countries of the world that technological investment in the schools will directly lead to economic competitiveness (Chandaran, 2011).

• **ICT in School Education**

Talking about ICT LITERACY AND COMPETENCY ENHANCEMENT, the policy made a spiral curriculum that can be introduced at any class in the form of three levels to be achieved by the students.

It has been considered spiral as it will start from the basic (such as connect to internet, use e-mail, connect, disconnect, operate and troubleshoot digital devices etc.), via intermediate (using web sites, search engines to locate, installing, uninstalling etc.) will lead to the advanced skills (undertake research, carry out projects using web resources, awareness of cyber security, copyright and safe use of ICT etc.) that would be developed among the students.

Analysing it from the Teacher's perspective, how is the facilitator going to effectively merge technology inside the classroom situations within the ongoing set of performance criteria? The hours that are available for the teacher are limited and fixed; that basically implies that s/he essentially has got the same time as s/he used to get before to deliver a lesson. Mingling the lessons with the technology, what difference would it bring to the learner, if the time spent is the same, what is being taught is also the same, only the mode of delivering being different? And importantly, what sort of delivery is used?

There is a lack of teachers in the schools. "Out of 19.84 lakh sanctioned teacher posts under SSA, 14.8 lakh teachers have been recruited and another 5.04 lakh are yet to be recruited as on Sep, 30, 2013. Bihar (1.75 lakh to be recruited) and U.P (1.24 lakh) are the farthest behind." (Source: Lok Sabha Starred Question No. 188 Answered on 18.12.2013)

When there are no teachers in the schools, then there is a need to ponder upon the immediate need of the society, teachers for the large number of enrolled students or ICT coordinators even when the ICT infrastructure is not available.

ICT Enabled Teaching Learning Processes

In OECD countries, research consensus holds that the most effective benefits of ICT are those in which the teacher, aided by ICTs, can ignite

pupils' understanding and thinking, whether through whole-class discussions or through individual/small group work using ICTs. ICTs are considered as vital tools to enable and favor the move from traditional 'teacher-centric' method to more 'learner-centric' teaching style.

Analysing it critically, the use of ICTs as mere presentation tools through electronic whiteboards, overhead and LCD projectors, television, guided "web-tours", where students simultaneously view the same resources on computer screens is seen to be of mixed effectiveness. It may promote class understanding of difficult concepts (especially through the display of simulations),but such uses of ICTs can re-establish and re-enforce traditional pedagogical practices and divert the attention from the content of what is being displayed or discussed to the tool being utilized.

- **ICT Infrastructure**

According to the Policy, the schools would be provided with at least one computer laboratory with at least 10 networked computer accesses to begin with. Each laboratory will have a maximum of 20 access points, accommodating 40 students at a time. There would be one printer, scanner, projector, digital camera, audio recorders and such other devices as part of the infrastructure.

Looking at this point critically, the report of RTE Forum (year?) shows that 95.2 percent of schools are not in accordance with the complete set of RTE infrastructure indicators, and in 2009-10 only 4.8 percent of government schools had all infrastructure facilities that has been mentioned under the RTE Act.

Under the Act, schools must have basic infrastructure facilities like an all-weather building with at least one classroom for every teacher and an office for the head teacher.

The report says that Sixty percent of schools are not electrified and only one in every five schools has the accessibility to a computer. Also, 40 percent of primary schools have a student classroom ratio higher than 1:30, as indicated by the Act.

When we are unable to provide this basic infrastructure for the schools, then there is a need to think whether the investments for the computers will be made or it will remain only a thought in the papers and if the government is providing computers, then does the Policy apply to the

private schools too? If the policies apply only to public schools, what sort of digital divide would be created between the public and the private schools?

When the schools are in such poor infrastructural conditions, then there are chances that the school doesn't have a water proof ceiling, and in such conditions there is a need to think that having any electronic equipment inside such infrastructural conditions can be risky. There is a need to give thought to find out the answers to such questions while implementing the policies.

- **Digital Resources**

Making educational audio and video resources digitized and available in different languages will make the content available for the larger section of the society. Students would also be able to access the textbooks and the supplementary material in their mother tongue that will take the learning at a new platform.

Critically looking at the production of digital content, while there is an apparent focus on the training of teachers and providing IT literacy to them, it is not necessary that it would lead to effective use of technology in the classroom. When a teacher is using digital resources and internet then his/her role becomes very significant. H/she can't be a mere communicator of information, but there is a need to be an active facilitator arranging the learning situation and scaffolding the learners in such a way that will lead to fruitful and meaningful learning. It raises some questions, "what sort of training does such a skill entail? Is the Government considering such a skill relevant at all? If it does, how does it plan to incorporate inside the teacher training routines? Adding to that, some contents are easily delivered through digital resources where others cannot. While simulations can teach physics, digital teaching of music and arts is not straightforward." (Chandaran, 2011).

One-off training would not be enough or sufficient. Teachers require not only extensive, but also an on-going exposure to ICTs that would enable them to evaluate and select the most appropriate and useful resources. However, the development of efficient pedagogical practices is seen as more vital than that technical mastery of ICTs and for this, the policy undoubtedly talks about capacity building of in-service teachers and

capacity building through pre service teacher education. But the point we want to raise here is would it be successful in the era of Para Teachers? When the teachers are not even well qualified how are they going to integrate ICT skills? Would introduction of ICT in these schools where teachers are unqualified add one more layer of complexity, or in Selwyn's (2011) words, it is similar to applying technical fix to a social problem.

- **Capacity Building**

“Training in ICT will be integrated with general training programme organized for teachers and school leaders at all levels in order to popularise its use and to demonstrate effective practices in ICT.” (Source..?)

While examining it critically, the teachers who are already trained have not studied ICT. A much rigorous in-service training would be needed so that they can effectively integrate ICT in school education. While introducing ICT as a subject for pre-service teachers, there would be a need to provide the necessary infrastructure (primary and secondary both) to these pre service teacher education institutions so that such technical skills can be inculcated in the future teachers. Moreover, ICT should not be seen mere a subject. There should be an emphasis for asking the pupil teachers to formulate and deliver the ICT enabled lesson.

Teacher inexperience and skill deficiencies can be a factor inhibiting the effectiveness of ICT use in education by students.

In this regard, there would be a need to provide additional motivation and incentives to the teachers for participating actively in professional development activities. A variety of incentives can be used -professional advancement, certification, pay increases, paid time off to participate in professional development, formal and informal recognition at the school and community levels and among peers, reduced isolation, and enhanced productivity. These types of initiatives could have been mentioned in the Policy.

- **Accessibility**

The Policy has particularly focused on the secondary schools, but what about the primary schools? Don't they need any core ICT infrastructure? Not to speak of computers, there is no talk of providing radio or television to the primary schools as an ICT tool.

“Government of India has announced 2010-2020 as decade of innovation. Reasoning and critical thinking skills are necessary for innovation. Foundation of these skills can be laid only at primary level of education. Students who enter school are very curious, creative, and capable of learning many things.” (source...?)

At this level, the statement “a Picture is worth a thousand of words” is very true in case of teaching –learning process. Introducing ICT in the initial stages of education will help students to be comfortable with ICT at an early stage. In the childhood period, students take much interest in animations and cartoons. They understand more through animated pictures. So if the same environment is provided in schools that which will focus on using ICT for teaching kids at primary level it may bring about some marvelous changes in the education. (Devi et al, 2012)

• **Use of ICT and Indian Education**

There is need for the students to become active learners rather than becoming passive listeners. Students should be continuously involved in the construction of their own knowledge with the use of ICTs. Here there is a need to ask whether the introduction of ICT in schools will help achieve that? Or will it simply enforce the existing power structures by empowering the administration and the teachers would reinforce the existing learning practices?

To achieve what is being mentioned above, the school system should be strong enough to use technology in the classroom. On one hand, in countries like Denmark, to be precise, students take exams with full access to internet (Judy Hobson, 2009) on the other hand, in our country India, the ground reality is completely different.

Talking first about access to computers and internet, development has to be made to make learners the consumers of the technology first and then active producers of their knowledge. To get there, the schools must provide the scope and affordance. Here the role of the school should not be limited just to produce a skilled workforce that would favour the country’s economy by complementing it the role should be to produce enlightened citizens confident of understanding and interacting with the world. The way technology will be adopted in the schools needs to be chosen very carefully.

The vision and the learning needs of every school vary from each other. A school located in harsh geographical locations, can be hillside or a remote village might need a good Science teacher as its primary requirement. In that case, there is no sense of providing the school with a computer. If the School is not ready for technology, so let it be. The immediate need or concerns of the schools need to be addressed first before arming them with the technology. On the other hand, Schools with sufficient manpower might need a good ICT infrastructure and broadband a necessity. These schools might also require Teacher Training in terms of IT literacy and beyond. It makes sense to allocate budgets for that school for the same.

Conclusion

The use of ICT in school education will bring a paradigm shift from traditional learning to E- learning that will make education available anytime anywhere for all the sections of the society by bridging the social divides.

There are equity issues related to the uses of ICTs in education. On the one hand, there is a real danger that uses of ICTs can further marginalize groups already excluded or on the edge of educational practices and innovations. On the other hand, with supportive policies and careful planning and monitoring, ICTs hold out the promise of facilitating greater inclusion of such groups.

The technology will bring revolution but while critically examining ICT, NCF (2005) sees technological explosion as a ‘double edged sword’ and considered its demerits also.

The Policy was formulated in 2012 and was implemented in 2013 but even after four years of implementation, the majority of schools have not incorporated the Policy directives. There are gaps between policy and the practice that needs to be addressed.

The Policy will certainly bring some positive results for the sections of the society even if there are some loopholes in it that need to be plugged. There are some prerequisites that should be provided to the schools so that the policy can bring desired results. The needed infrastructure that includes core infrastructure that provides ICT tools (Computers; as mentioned in the Policy) and the enabling one that includes providing necessary facilities in the form of electricity and wireless fidelity; should be supportive enough to

incorporate the policy. Teachers should be trained enough at the pre-service level so that they can properly use the skills of using ICT and in an effective manner. All the teachers need to be trained enough to deal with the upcoming technology.

On a concluding note, there is a need to link policy and practice at all levels. The global needs should be incorporated while keeping in view the local needs of the society.

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Policy on Education for Peace: Initiatives Undertaken by Government and Non-Government Organizations for Training of School Teachers in India

Kaushikee

Associate Professor

Nelson Mandela Centre for Peace & Conflict Resolution

Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

Email: kaushikee@jmi.ac.in

Abstract

Twenty-one focus groups were constituted as part of the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), New Delhi. Education for Peace was one of them. The NCF 2005 laid stress on developing attitudes, values and skills among teachers for organizing activities, to promote and nurture peace among children. However, to train students in peace, we first need to train the teachers. Some government as well as Non-governmental Organizations took up some initiatives to operationalize Education for Peace. Most of these initiatives focused on peace education and training teachers in this area. The present paper is an attempt to reflect on some of these initiatives—undertaken by one government organization viz. NCERT and two non-government organizations—with which the author was associated with, and contributed to, as a resource person, over the past decade or so.

Keywords: *Education for Peace, Peace Education, Culture of Peace, Peace, Positive Peace, Conflict Resolution.*

The Context and Background of Education for Peace in India

In 2004, NCERT undertook an exercise to review the National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE)-2000 on the directions of the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Government of India in the wake of the report, *Learning without Burden* (1993). Twenty-one focus groups were constituted as part of the NCF 2005, Education for Peace being one of them.

Key Concepts and their Definitions

Education for Peace and Peace Education: The NCF 2005 *Position Paper: National Focus Group on Education for Peace* defines the concept of Education for Peace and distinguishes it from Peace Education.

In the latter, peace is a subject in the syllabus. In the former, peace becomes the shaping vision of education... Education for peace is education for life, and not merely training for a livelihood. Equipping individuals with the values, skills and attitudes they need to be wholesome persons who live in harmony with others and as responsible citizens is the goal of education for peace. (National Curriculum Framework 2005, 2006, p. 1)

Peace Education thus has a narrow outlook as it focuses on integrating peace concerns in education while Education for Peace is a broader concept and as per the NCF 2005 “a long-term proactive strategy to nurture peaceful persons who resolve conflicts non-violently” (p. 4). The end goal of Education for Peace is to build a ‘culture of peace’.

Culture of Peace: In 1998, the United Nations General Assembly in its Resolution A/52/13 defined Culture of Peace as consisting of values, attitudes and behaviors that reject violence and endeavor to prevent conflicts by addressing their root causes with a view to solving problems through dialogue and negotiation among individuals, groups and nations. The 1999 United Nations Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace listed eight action areas to build a culture of peace—fostering a culture of peace through education was the first among them—and also the base upon which the other seven action areas can be built.

Peace: ‘Peace’ is generally seen as the absence of war or overt violence but this is a negative conception. The alternative perspective is ‘positive peace’, a multi-dimensional concept which aims to transform violence and establish universal values such as respect for life, liberty, justice, economic well-being, human rights, equality between men and women, and ecological balance. This involves the transformation of overt conflict and overt violence as well as structural conflict and structural violence.

Conflict Resolution: Conflict Resolution addresses the root causes of conflict and seeks to build new and lasting relationships between hostile groups. It refers to non-violent processes that include different approaches

and tools such as dialogue, negotiation, mediation and facilitation, to resolve conflicts.

NCERT Initiative for Training School Teachers in Peace Education

NCERT is the premier institute for research, development and training in the area of school education in India. Taking a cue from NCF 2005, the NCERT took up several initiatives to operationalize Peace Education in schools.

Resource Book for School Teachers

In 2006, the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations of Education (DEPFE), National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) initiated the process of developing a Resource Book on Peace Education for school-teachers. The book, *Ways to Peace: A Resource Book for Teachers* was published in April 2010. The Resource Book had been developed with the aim of giving school-teachers access to ready-to-use guidelines, illustrated material and activities to be used with students in the teaching-learning process. It defined the key concepts of peace and conflict in the Indian context and tried to look at these issues holistically in the context of school education. It dealt with how peace and conflict resolution could be taught and the role of the teacher therein, which included the pedagogy aspect. It emphasized that if teachers had to teach peace values to their students, they first had to practice the same in and within their own lives.

Trainings in Peace Education

The NCF 2005 emphasized on developing attitudes, values and skills among teachers for organizing activities and promoting and nurturing peace among children. To make this operational, the NCERT organized several training courses for developing the capacity of school-teachers. One of the departments that undertook such trainings was Department of Educational Psychology & Foundations of Education (DEPFE). In the summer of 2005, the NCERT organized for the first time a six-week Training Course on Peace Education for school-teachers. The six-week training in NCERT, New Delhi was an annual feature for five-years until 2009. From 2010 onwards however, these trainings went regional and one each was held in each of the four zones of the country—north, west, east and south—for five-days consecutively. These were organized by the

NCERT in collaboration or jointly with the Regional Institutes of Education (RIEs) or the State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs) or Departments of State Educational Research and Training (DSERTs).

All the trainings were targeted at teacher educators, District Institute of Education and Training (DIET) faculty, State Institute of Educational/Education Technology (SIET) faculty and teachers. These trainings consisted of various sessions some of which pertained to 'Understanding Conflict and Violence' and 'Strategies and Skills for Dealing with Conflicts/ Strategies and Skills of Conflict Resolution'. In these sessions, an effort was made to initially explain and clarify terms such as conflict, violence and peace. Later sessions focused on the skills of conflict resolution such as listening, communication, negotiation, mediation, facilitation etc., which were conducted in experiential mode and through games, activities and role-plays.

Since 2014, the trainings or Enrichment Programmes organized by the DEPFEE do not directly pertain to Peace Education but are concerned with Psychology, Educational Psychology or Guidance and Counseling, which are meant for Teacher Educators teaching Psychology or for practicing Counselors etc. So while the DEPFEE no longer conducted trainings focused entirely on Peace Education, it tried to accommodate a few sessions on peace and conflict resolution skills and strategies within the disciplines of Psychology and Guidance & Counseling.

Another NCERT department that conducted some sessions on Peace Education was the Department of Teacher Education & Extension (DTEE). Here the trainings were mainly focused on Pedagogy and targeted Teacher Educators.

Multimedia Modules on Peace Education

Between 2013 and 2014, DEPFEE undertook a project on development of multimedia modules on Peace Education. The multimedia modules were to be used as a pedagogical tool in training of school-teachers.

The DEPFEE undertook another project in 2014-15, which concentrated on developing a package for enhancing conflict resolution skills of teachers. These were in the form of video recordings, which aimed to enable

teachers to develop the skill and attitude of conflict resolution so that they could convey the same to their students.

Reflections on NCERT Initiatives

The NCF 2005 on Education for Peace laid the foundation for other peace education initiatives in India. However, it was a policy document and thus many points and issues raised therein were abstract in nature. The NCERT took a step-by-step and top-to-bottom approach to operationalize and concretize Education for Peace in India by focusing initially only on one aspect – peace education. Peace Education here consisted of two key aspects—educating about conflict, which included an understanding of how conflict operates, the general patterns and dynamics it follows, and useful concepts for dealing with it in more constructive ways—and imparting skills of conflict resolution, which consisted of training in specific techniques and approaches for dealing with conflict, in the form of analytical, communication, negotiation, or mediation skills. The NCERT first started providing peace education trainings to teacher educators and school-teachers. But these trainings could only touch a small minority of teacher educators and school-teachers. Hence it came out with a Resource Book as well, which could be used by even those who had been unable to participate in these trainings. Moreover, initially the trainings were conducted in New Delhi but later these were taken to four different regions so as to create more awareness and spread the initiative across the country. The NCERT initiatives may seem like a drop in the ocean but they set a tone and provided a platform for similar such attempts by other government and non-government organizations in different parts of the country.

Initiatives by Non-Government Organizations for Training School Teachers in Peace Education

This section is devoted to two initiatives undertaken by two Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) – the Control Arms Foundation of India (CAFI) initiative undertaken in Manipur and the Save the Children Bal Raksha (SC BR), Bharat initiative undertaken in Jammu and Kashmir (J & K).

CAFI Initiative in Manipur

In December 2014, CAFI engaged the author as a consultant to develop a 'Training Module on Women, Peace & Security and Rights Education' under the title 'Peace Time' targeting to empower women for peace and development in the North-Eastern region of India. CAFI in its research found that themes such as women, peace and security were missing from the educational curriculum and aimed to bring about a change in the behavior and attitude of the younger generation (12-18 year olds) by making them aware of these issues.

Draft Framework. The first step was to develop a Framework, which gave brief information of what and how concepts/themes would be dealt with in the 'Peace Time' Module. This was in the form of a draft, subject to change. It consisted of basic details – aims and objectives of the module, the target group, and how it intended to fulfill its purpose. It also mentioned the themes that the module would deal with – conflict, conflict analysis, culture, gender, rights, violence, peace, trauma, justice, security, development, conflict resolution, and evaluation.

'Peace Time' Module: The first draft of 'Peace Time' Module was prepared and forwarded to CAFI and the project donors for their inputs and feedback. Based on the feedback, changes were introduced in the Module and some more experiential activities and reflections were added. After the Training of Trainers, more changes were included based on the reflection and inputs from the participants and the module was finalized.

On the one hand, the Module focused on the conceptual and theoretical understanding of themes and issues pertaining to peace, conflict resolution and peace-building and on the other, on their practical and experiential knowledge. The Module was divided into several sections and sub-sections, which were interspersed with several activities for facilitating learning by doing or learning through experience. It included several narratives, folklores and stories from Manipur so as to make it culturally and contextually relevant and socially appropriate. Gender issues were dealt with in a separate section altogether but it was also an underlying and crosscutting theme. This was done to highlight the fact that though all human beings are affected in a conflict situation but women are more likely to be doubly disadvantaged or likely to suffer twice or even more because

of their gender. Rights were another crosscutting theme as their violations can lead to conflict.

Training of Trainers: A three-day “Training of Trainers for Introduction of Peace Education in Manipur” was organized in Imphal in June end and beginning of July 2015 with the aim of transacting ‘Peace Time’ Module to the participants, who were mainly school-teachers of private educational institutions. During the training, concepts pertaining to conflict, violence and peace were discussed and transacted through experiential activities.

Reflections on the CAFI Initiative: For most trainees, the training was a unique experience for the simple reason that many of them had never undertaken an experiential workshop of this kind and especially on this theme. They had come to the workshop with skepticism but felt enthused towards the end. The participants liked the participatory activities and experiential exercises that they undertook. As teachers they specially connected to some of the pedagogical aspects that were inherent in the training and opined that they could use these in their own teaching-learning practices. The folklore stories of Manipur that were used for a couple of analytical activities were much appreciated. The participants liked the fact that it came from their own cultural settings and was not just any story.

Save the Children Bal Raksha (SC BR), Bharat Initiative in J & K

SC BR initiated a project that aimed to develop appropriate and context-specific training modules on Peace Education for school-teachers, so that the same could be used for children in J&K. SC BR further intended to integrate the training module on Peace Education with teacher training and its usage by teacher training institutes.

One-day Consultation Workshop: In September 2015, a one-day consultation workshop was organized with relevant stakeholders in Srinagar as the first step towards the development of module on peace education. The consultation initially focused on the concerns – in connection with children and their education. This was more of a freewheeling discussion. Later, a brainstorming session was held, so as to develop a list of themes for inclusion in the module on Peace Education.

Two-day Workshop for Development of Training of Trainers Module on Peace Education: Towards the end of year 2015, a two-day detailed and structured consultation was organized with relevant stakeholders in

Jammu. Here, the participants finalized the themes, format and structure of the Module. They also identified ‘gender’, ‘human rights’ and ‘exclusion’ as the crosscutting themes.

Peace Education Manual. Based on the inputs gathered from the consultation workshops, a draft of the Peace Education training manual was developed.

Six-day Training of Trainers for Teachers on Peace Education: Based on the draft Manual, a six-day intensive training was designed and organized in March 2016 in Jammu. All the themes of the draft Manual were covered within the six-day training. Each session was built around at least one activity that was connected to one of the key themes of the Manual such as conflict, violence, peace, gender, identity, rights etc. and each contained some reflective questions. The concluding session pertained to evaluation and reflection.

Training for Peace Education: Manual for School Teachers of the State of Jammu & Kashmir: Based on the inputs in the six-day workshop, some changes were carried out in the draft, after which the Manual was finalized and submitted in April 2016 under the title ‘Training for Peace Education: Manual for School Teachers of the State of Jammu & Kashmir’.

Evaluation and Review of the Manual: A four-day training of teachers on Peace Education was undertaken in November 2016 with the aim of evaluating and reviewing the Peace Education Manual and training. The participants evaluated and reviewed the Manual as well as the training and in doing so discussed how they had been impacted by it and in what ways. Participants were requested to give inputs on operational challenges faced by them in implementing peace education in their respective schools and also suggest ways to tackle those.

Reflections on the SC BR Initiative: The participants were happy about the activities that they were made to perform. Moreover, they felt empowered during the course of the workshop especially when they were made to analyze the conflicts in their contexts. Besides, they admitted that they not only learnt from the training but also learnt from other participants. They found almost all the themes useful and relevant to the school context. Some in fact openly admitted that the workshops made

them realize how violent they were in their teaching-learning processes and that their attitude towards their students had changed and that the same was reflected in their relations and behavior. They also acknowledged that their sense of responsibility as a teacher had improved.

The SC BR training was targeted at teachers of government schools, compared to the CAFI training, which aimed to train teachers of private schools, though in both cases, J & K in the former and Manipur in the latter, had been witness to violence over a period of time. Also, the SC BR initiatives included all the stakeholders right from the beginning of the process – from consultations to the final outcome. Further, this initiative was spread over more than a year, with two intensive short-term trainings, interspersed with gaps in between, which gave the participants time to think, reflect and the training to sink in. Interestingly, in both the NGO initiatives, gender and rights were the crosscutting themes, as per the inputs of the respective organizations and the participants.

Concluding Thoughts and Way Forward

In the above sections, an attempt has been made to reflect on the process and content of Peace Education for training school-teachers in India. The ultimate aim is to impart peace skills to the students/children. However, there is no point in introducing Peace Education in the school curriculum if the teachers who implement it and teacher educators who train them are ignorant about the content and relevant pedagogical skills to teach it. The role of the teacher and their training thus assumes significance in contextualizing Peace Education in schools.

NGOs have taken up the cause of Peace Education to address issues of violence in their respective contexts, which needs to be appreciated. However, government institutions too need to continue to work on furthering peace education and sustaining these initiatives so as to derive long-term benefits.

Education for Peace as a policy has a long-term approach and peace education is just one part of it though a very important one. The latter facilitates the training of teachers in the pedagogy of peace and helps integrate peace values and concerns in the classroom. However, this alone will still not lead to peace in the lives of the children, as there are other stresses and strains in the present education system, which need urgent

attention. Peace education trainings have laid the foundation and now we need to build on it, so that other components of Education for Peace too can be attended to. This would entail reducing the curriculum load, revising the curriculum and bringing it in tune with peace values, reviewing the present system of examination, evaluation and assessment, and changing the whole school setup and environment – a long-drawn list but essential to further concretize the policy of Education for Peace.

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Education for All: A Cross Country Comparison between India and its Neighbours

Abdul Kadir¹ & Waseem Ahmad Khan²

²Professor

¹Anglo Arabic Sr. Sec School

²Department TT&NFE (IASE), JMI, New Delhi

Email: kadirjamia@gmail.com, wakhan@jmi.ac.in

Abstract

India and its neighbours have been trying to accomplish their commitments towards Education for All. Universalization of primary education, quality education, gender parity, retention, survival rate, and dropout rate at all levels of education are still challenges before nations. In this paper an effort has been made to analyze strengths and weaknesses of India and neighbouring nations related to their commitment and success towards Education for All. It is found that India and all neighbouring countries achieved commendable progress towards net enrollment ratio (NER), absolute increase in adult literacy rate (ALR), youth literacy rate (YLR), and constitutional arrangement for making primary education free and compulsory for the children age between (6-14) years.

Keywords: *Education for All, Primary Education, free and compulsory education, education policies.*

Introduction

In India, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, a Nationalist leader of Congress, in the year 1910 first propounded the Bill of Free and Compulsory Primary Education for boys and girls. This resolution was discarded by British Govt. In the year 1937, Wardha Educational Conference was held under the patronage of Gandhi Ji which gave resolution of free and compulsory education at nationwide scale. A committee, under Dr. Zakir Hussian, was appointed to *formulate scheme of basic education*. When India got freedom, this entitlement to free and compulsory education was put into state policy of directive principle under article 45 of Indian Constitution. Since 1947, India has instigated various committees and commissions and

intervention programmes for provision of education to its habitants, among them 86th constitutional amendment 2002 which inserted Article 21-A in the Constitution of India to provide free and compulsory education for all children in the age group of (6-14) years, NPE1986 (revised 1992), provision of mid-day meal and SSA proved to be landmarks on the Indian path to universalisation of elementary education..

Education for All and Its Genesis: A Global Endeavour

Education has been recognized as a human right since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. This has been affirmed in many global Human Rights treaties, including the United Nations Educational, Scientific Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1981). These treatises establish an entitlement to free, compulsory primary education for all children; and obligation to develop secondary education; as well as equitable access to higher education; and responsibility to provide basic education for individuals who have not completed primary education [UNICEF (2007).]

Some 1500 participants, experts of education and policy-makers assembled in Jomtien Thailand on 5-9 March, 1990. They discussed Education for all at 48 roundtables and a plenary commission and reiterated the assertion that “*everyone has right to education*” made through *Universal Declaration of Human Rights more than 40 year back*. Participants assembled in Jomtien reached the conclusion that- *education is fundamental for all people, women and men, of all ages, throughout the world, it can help to ensure a safer, healthier, more prosperous and environmentally sound world and it is indispensable for social and economic development of the world*. All participants came to the conclusion that sound basic education is essential for strengthening higher education.

The *World Education Forum* (26-28 April 2000, Dakar) adopted the *Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*. Here, participants reaffirmed the vision of the *World Declaration on Education for All* adopted in Jomtien, Thailand, 1990. It

was committed by the participants that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, would have access to completely free and compulsory primary education of good quality. In addition to this, firm steps would be taken to remove gender disparities in education, enhancing access and improving quality of primary education. To achieve these goals all participating nations firmly re committed themselves to the cause of education in the context of *World Declaration on Education for All* (Jomtien, 1990) and *Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments* (Dakar, 2000).

India and its neighbouring countries i.e. China, Bhutan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and Pakistan recorded remarkable progress in quantitative expansion of education but there still remains a long way to go. Notwithstanding the number of internal challenges i.e. poverty, ethnic conflicts, security issues, these countries achieved tremendous qualitative and quantitative advancement in education. Besides sharing some common success there are common unfinished goals before these nations pertaining to education which are still to be achieved.

Education for All: Review of India and Neighbouring Nations

India:

Before world commitment for Education for All, India had already started its journey to achieve universalization of elementary education. In NPE 1986 (revised in 1992), it was clearly stated that “*In our national perception, education is essentially for all*”. India has achieved an incredible progress towards all levels of education in last three decades. Number of primary schools has increased by 34 percent, and number of upper primary schools just got doubled during the period of 2000-01 to 2013-14. About 98 percent rural habitations have a primary school within a distance of 1 km. and a school imparting upper primary education within a distance of 3 km. Overall dropout rate for class I-VIII has declined by 11.4 percent during the period of 2000-01 to 2008-09 but it is still high. The transition rate from primary to upper primary level increased from 81.1 percent to 89.6 percent during the period of 2008-09. Youth literary rate has shown an upward trend. Literacy rate among population aged 7 and above increased from 64.84 percent in 2001 to 72.99 percent in 2011. But the gender gap in education continued to remain wide and required sincere

attention. Total enrollment of girls as percentage of total enrollment in primary education has increased from 43.8 percent to 48.2 percent during 2000-2001 to 2012-13, while the enrollment of girls as percentage of total enrollment in upper primary education increased from 40.9 percent to 48.6 percent. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) for GER in primary education improved from 0.82 in 2000-01 to 1.03 in 2013-14, while the GPI for GER in upper primary education improved from 0.75 to 1.08 during this period. GPI for adult literacy rate improved from 0.65 in 2001 to 0.75 in 2011. Along with quantitative expansion, improvement in quality of education is the prime thrust of policy makers in India. Total number of teachers engaged in primary education increased from 5.2 million in 2006-07 to 7.7 million in 2013-14. The pupil teacher ratio at primary level has improved from 36:1 in 2006-07 to 25:1 in 2013-14. National Assessment Test for different levels conducted during 2012-13, showed that overall Class III students were able to answer 64 percent of language items and 66 percent of mathematics questions correctly.

China:

China has the largest education system in the world with almost 260 million students and over 15 million teachers and about 514000 schools (National Bureaus of Statistics of China, 2014), excluding higher education institutions. China is very close to attaining universalization of 9 years of compulsory basic education in keeping with the commitment made by the country in the year 1986. China reached nearly 99.8 percent GER in primary and junior middle school with very negligible dropout rate. It is important to note here that absolute number of enrollment in primary and junior middle school in china continued to decline during 2000 to 2010 due to implementation of Chinese state population policy. Persons with no schooling within china's population aged 6 years old and above accounted in 2000 for 7.7 percent of the total; this proportion fell to 5 percent in 2010. Adult literacy rate in china is just 95 percent with gender gap of only five percent while this difference was around 19 percent in 1990. China achieved almost 100 percent GER parity with boys. Gender Parity Index (GPI) in adult literacy rate improved from 0.9095 in 2000 to 0.9511 in 2010 for China as a whole. For assessing the quality of primary education China introduced Programme of International Assessment (PISA) and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) along

with National Center for Assessment of Basic Education Quality. PISA 2009 assessed the performance of 15 year-old students on reading, science and math. Among the 17 participating economies in the Asia-Pacific region, the performance of Shanghai was among the highest in the world together with OECD countries. Majority of the teachers teaching in primary level are equipped with appropriate qualifications according to national standards. The pupil teacher ratio came down to 17:1 in primary, 16:1 in junior middle and 15:1 in senior middle school.

Bangladesh:

The education system of Bangladesh consists of some 150000 institutions, 40 million students and a million teachers. This country adopted Compulsory Primary Education Act just before the world conference in Jomtien. This country showed a considerable change in its NER which increased from 87.2 percent to 93.3 percent during the period of 2005 to 2013 with very negligible gender gap. Repetition rate has sharply fallen and an average dropout rate has decreased from 10.2 percent to 4.3 percent during the period of 2005 to 2013. The adult literacy rate in population aged 15 years and above reached 59.82 with gender gap around 8 percent in the year 2010 which is very less as compared to others. There has been a remarkable increase in the number of female students and female teachers during the period of 2005-2012. Regarding quality, an assessment of learning at the end of grade 8 was carried out in 2012. It showed that percentage of pupils who acquired nationally defined basic learning competencies of grade 8 were 44 percent for Bangla language and 35 percent for mathematics. In another instance, 90 percent head teachers were given subject based and sub-cluster training. Pupil teacher ratio recorded a poor 46:1.

Pakistan:

In Pakistan, there are 146,185 formal primary, 42147 middle level and 29,874 secondary schools; 75 percent are public sector schools; 10 percent are private sector schools along with *Deeni Madrassas*. In addition to this, Pakistan also has a non-formal basic education network till V class. Formal sector conducts the examination and allows admission to grade six in formal education. Educational performance of Pakistan is still low. Here, about one third primary school age children are out of school, 42 percent of

population aged 10+ is illiterate. At national level two third women of above 15+ years of age cannot read and write and 35 percent girls remain out of school. Gender Parity Index (GPI) in case of participation in primary education is 0.82. It is confirmed in an estimation that only 66.8 percent children survive till Class V and 33.2 percent dropout before completing the primary level . A survey was conducted in 127 districts which showed that 24 percent students scored higher than the scaled mean score in the language test , whereas in mathematics test, only 19 percent of students scored higher than the mean score. In science test, 33 percent students scored higher than the mean and in social studies, 43 percent of students got the mean score. Youth literacy rate has increased from 63.1 to 71.6 percent during the period of 2001-02 to 2012-13. Adult literacy rate increased from 46.5 percent to 56.2 percent during the period of 2001-02 to 2012-13. Gender gap in adult literacy rate is shockingly high. Gender Parity Index (GPI) is only 0.63. Poor budget allocation which ranges between 1.5 to 2.1 percent of total GDP during the period of 2001 to 2012-13 is cited as the prominent cause of educational backwardness which prevails in Pakistan.

Sri Lanka:

Sri Lanka has better place in HDI among these eight countries which clearly reflects its success in performance on various social and economic indicators. In Sri Lanka literacy rate is very high (2012-91.2 percent: male 92.6 percent and female 90 percent). In 1946, the overall literacy rate in Sri Lanka was 57.8 percent. By 2013, the literacy rate of 15-24 year olds was 98.7 percent, NER at primary level was almost 97.5 percent and the primary completion ratio had reached 99.6 percent. The literacy rate of 15-25 year old females was 97.7 percent while that of males was 98.6 percent in 2015. Sri Lanka had achieved universal primary education along with gender parity by the year 2006 itself. Although Sri Lanka has managed to achieve high levels of literacy, it has been unable to provide students with high quality educational services (World Bank, 2013). Sri Lanka ranks poorly in terms of science and math education achievement of the students.

Bhutan:

In general education system, there are 522 schools, which consist of 486 public schools including 51 central schools, and 36 private schools. The

total enrollment from Pre-primary through to Class XII within the country for the current year is 169560 with total of 9081 teachers. NER in basic education (PP-X) is 96.2 percent. Survival rate in class (I-V) is 89% which shows incidence of dropout at primary level of education. Bhutan is able to equalize Gender Parity Index (GPI) at primary and secondary level of education. According to a recent survey youth literacy rate is 86.1 percent while adult literacy rate is 63 percent. Net enrollment in primary education is 94.7 percent with repetition rate of 5.7 percent and a dropout rate of 2.9 percent in 2016 which used to be very high in past. Pupil teacher ratio is 19:1 at national level which is better than other neighbouring nations.

Nepal:

Nepal is a mosaic of social diversities- it is inhabited by people of diverse social, cultural, ethnic and religious backgrounds. Political instabilities, poverty, geographical adversities were the responsible causes for slow educational progress in Nepal. According to the NLSS/2010-11, almost 39.1 percent people in the age group of 6 years and above and 43.5 percent in the age group of 15 years and above are still deprived of the opportunity to be literate. Nearly 55.5 percent females, as compared to 28.4 percent males, lack knowledge and skills to read and write a simple sentence. Despite there having been many repeated efforts a huge gender gap of 28.4 percent still exists in education. Overall almost all households, 99.25 percent in the urban area and 93.43 percent rural households, have access to a primary school within 30 minutes distance. But access to upper primary, secondary and higher secondary still needs to improve. Net enrollment ratio (NER) is increased from 90.4 percent in 2008-09 to 95.3 in the year 2012-13. Youth literacy rate is 84.7 percent, but gender gap is high. Adult literacy rate of 15+age group population was 64.0 percent in 2015 with very high gender gap between male and female population. Completion rate in grade 5 and 8 is 84.1 and 69.4 percent respectively which shows high level of dropout till 8th grade. The National Assessment of Student Achievement (NASA) showed that learning achievement is below 50 percent in all subject areas. Gender Parity Index (GPI) is near 1 in primary education. Gender Parity Index (GPI) of teachers shows poor representation of female teachers across all levels in Nepal.

Myanmar:

Today there are 39305 primary, 3871 middle, 1737 high school and 151 universities and colleges along with 1500 monastic schools in Myanmar. Before 2010 education in Myanmar was in a very pathetic condition due to military rule. In recent years, the govt. has increased the expenditure on education from 0.6 percent before 2010 to 2.1 percent in 2013-14 financial year. Around two third of the total budget is allocated to primary education. Here, primary school is accessible to habitations within an average of 2 km. distance. Gross enrollment ratio (GER) showed an upward trend increasing from 89.5 percent in 2010-11 to 100.6 percent in the year 2013-14 but completion ratio of primary, lower secondary and upper secondary levels is just 73.8, 74.2 and 31.0 percent respectively. This shows high level of dropout at later stage of education. EFA report of Myanmar shows 95.15 percent literacy rate. Remarkable progress is reported towards availability of quality teachers in Myanmar but teacher pupil ratio is still below benchmark and was reported at 30:1 in the year 2015. Inter-state educational disparities level is high in Myanmar.

Table: 1
Educational Indicators: An Overview

Indicators	SRL	CHI	IND	BHU	BAN	NEP	PAK	MYM
HDI Rank	74	90	130	132	142	145	147	148
Youth Literacy Rate	98.7	99.6	86.1	86.1	85.8	84.7	71.6	96.0
Adult Literacy Rate	92.2	95.2	72.9	63.0	59.8	64.0	56.2	93.2
Gender Gap %	1.9	5.0	16.6	18.0	8.0	17.0	29.0	3.0
NER %	89.3	90.3	88.1	94.7	93.3	95.3	74.0	95.0
Gender Parity Index	0.98	0.95	0.75	0.77	0.91	0.62	0.63	0.96
Dropout Rate (Primary Level)%	2.6	1.0	20.0	2.9	10.2	5.2	33.2	37.0
Pupil Teacher Ratio	24:1	17:1	25:1	27:1	46:1	23:1	46:1	30:1

Sources: Countries EFA Report (2015)

(SRL=Sri Lanka, CHI=China, IND=India, BHU=Bhutan, BAN=Bangladesh, NEP=Nepal, PAK=Pakistan, MYM=Myanmar)

A Critical Overview of Education for All Progress: India and its Neighbours

Since 2000, India and its neighbours attained significant progress in both youth literacy rate of the age group (15-24) years and adult literacy rate of the age group of (15+) years.. Notwithstanding the quantitative progress, quality of education is still a challenge before all these nations. Pakistan, Myanmar, Nepal and Bangladesh could not achieve as much as other nations in this region. Although Sri Lanka and China ranked high in human development index, quality education is still a major challenge. Survival and dropout rate is the major hindrance in the accomplishment of literacy related goals. China and Sri Lanka made significant progress related to survival and dropout rate. Gross enrollment ratio (GER) almost reached 100 percent but retention and transition rate is still a big issue. The incidence of dropout, transition rate and retention is abysmally poor in India and its neighbouring nations. Due to ethnic clashes and political instability Myanmar, Pakistan and Bangladesh could not perform better in achieving general literacy, Gender Parity Index (GPI) and equalizing opportunity to female population. India achieved remarkable progress in education but quality education, gender parity, dropout rate and transition rate from lower standard to upper are still mountainous challenges to be addressed.

It is a well documented fact that OECD countries have been allocating potential share of their GDP for providing education to its people but India and its neighbours are still struggling with financial constraints. In this connection China and Sri Lanka are in a better position as compared to the rest five nations.

Sri Lanka and China ranked *High* on Human Development Index; India Bangladesh and Bhutan attained the *Medium* rank while Nepal Pakistan and Myanmar ranked *low*. All nations achieved great success in terms of increasing youth literacy rate except for Pakistan. Adult literacy rate in Bangladesh, Pakistan, Bhutan and Nepal is dismally low. Female education is still a gigantic challenge before India, Pakistan, Bhutan and Nepal and the dropout rate continues to be a concern in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Myanmar .These indicators are shown in **Table: 1**.

Conclusions

The importance of education is being widely acknowledged across the world. Nation States must take a lesson from the countries that are transforming their society through education. OECD nations seem very serious and have been allocating on an average 12% of GDP share to its education. Although China and Sri Lanka are not spending as much as OECD countries but both are in a very comfortable stage. India and its neighbouring nations must take a lesson from other countries of the world. It would not be an exaggeration to say that some international efforts i.e. *World Education Conference (Dakar, 1990)*, *Delors Report Learning: the treasure within (UNESCO, 1996)* *World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, 2000)*, are shining milestones which have showed the path of educational development to umbrella nations in last three decades. All countries need to take very sincere steps towards improving access, equity and quality education. India and neighbours have incidence of high dropout rate, poor delivery of education at all levels, poor performance on gender parity index and poor or moderate position on human development index. A sincere political and social intervention is the need of the hour.

Ways Forward

As quality education is the mounting challenge across the region, a minimum critical effort is desperately required from the all stakeholders. Following are the essentialities which all stakeholders must keep in mind.

1. Availability of quality teachers is the need of the system. In recent times the duration of teacher education programme in India has been extended from one year to two years. While this affirmative action needs to be praised it is equally important to monitor the quality of intake and their dedication to join the profession requires to be appropriately scanned. Teachers' dedication and their devotion towards this profession may change the pathetic picture of the system and thereby of school education.
2. Teacher educators' education is still an issue before India and rest of the nations. Justice Verma Commission (2012) also posed the same issue related to teacher educators' education in past years and stated that there is a symbiotic relationship between teacher education and quality education in schools. Teacher educators' education should be

framed in such a way that it can deal with quality issues in school education.

3. There should be a meaningful induction of ICT component in education through which access and quality of education can be improved.
4. A face-wise plan of action is essential. Initially, nations should work on pre-primary education, and later on primary, upper primary, secondary, senior secondary and then higher education.

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Decentralisation of Higher Education in India

Zar Afshan Fakhir¹, Reshma Kirmani² &
Shehroz Alam Rizvi³

¹Research Scholar & ³Professor

Dept. of Economics, AMU

Email: zareco786@gmail.com, kirmani.reshma@gmail.com

Abstract

Education is a basic right of every citizen of a country. In order to achieve the goal of providing education to all people of a country, education system has been decentralized at the primary level through the local bodies. On the other hand, Higher education system as the world largest, with a large number of affiliating Colleges and large number of universities under the umbrella of state government, central government and the UGC has become overburdened, cumbersome, and inefficient. To reduce the burden and to overcome the problems of equity, quality, access, excellence, there emerges the need for decentralization. In decentralized system, decision making authority transferred from higher to lower level. In this paper, we examine the extent of decentralization at the university level, UGC and contribution of state and central government funding. Through analyzing various reports and reviews, we find that full financial autonomy is not provided and without it decentralization is just a myth.

Keywords: Decentralization, Autonomy, Higher Education etc.

Introduction

With the increasing impact of Globalization & Liberalization, numerous challenges have been emerging in the substantially vast system, leading to inefficiency and mismanagement of powers. So importance of localization has been acknowledged through decentralization in almost every sector. Education is also being decentralized to improve efficiency, to reduce demand –supply gap, to reform policy, planning, management and to make this sector more effective. The policies largely aim to reduce government size, expand private initiative, reorganize delivery and create new partnerships (Govinda & Bandyopadhyay, 2006). Since the Education

became the joint responsibility of both state and centre government, different states have undergone decentralization in it.

Decentralization is the method of redistributing or dispersing functions, power, people or things away from a Central location or authority. Hanson (1998) defined decentralization as “the transfer of decision making authority, responsibility and task from higher to lower organizational levels or between organizations”. UNESCO defined decentralization as dispersal of something centralized, increased space between constituent parts, and perhaps a weakened set of relationships. It is the extent to which authority is held at the centre or at the highest level in the hierarchy, which distinguish public and private organizations. It is about shifting power from some decision makers to others. It makes systems less homogeneous and its component parts less uniform. It is explained through examples by UNESCO such as “Decentralization moves authority downward from the point of the pyramid towards the base”. Another one is “An alternative image of this form of organization is that of an octopus, which has a large central body and arms or tentacles. The tentacles are essential to the life of the octopus; they enable it to gather in food, to move away from danger, and to fight its predators. Work is done by the system’s tentacles, for example by teachers in classrooms, but it is the central body that makes all decisions”. Decentralization defined by the World Bank in the Box 1, given below:

Rondinelli et al (1984) defined decentralization in terms of **four degrees of transfer of authority**: deconcentration, delegation, devolution and privatization. **Deconcentration** means changing

Box 1: What is decentralization?

Decentralization is a process through which authority and responsibilities for some substantial government functions are transferred from central government to intermediate and local governments, and often also to communities. In this study decentralization is investigated along three dimensions: political, administrative and fiscal decentralization.

Political Decentralization transfers policy and legislative powers from central governments to autonomous, lower level assemblies and local councils that have been democratically elected by their constituencies.

Administrative Decentralization places planning and implementation responsibilities in the hands of locally situated civil servants and these local civil servants under the jurisdiction of elected local governments.

Fiscal Decentralization accords substantial revenue and expenditure authority to intermediate and local governments.

Self Government exists when a level of government has dominion over substantial, clearly defined functions, and can pass/enact laws with regard to these functions within its area of jurisdiction—state, district, village, etc. For self-government to exist there must be unambiguous political, fiscal, and administrative devolution of assigned subjects.

Source: World Bank, 2007.

authority in provincial capitals for implementation of rules, but not for making them. In this transfer of responsibility to local authorities who continue to be hierarchically dependent on the central power. According to Florestal, the quality of deconcentration is that the people given additional responsibility are part of the central ministry, and they continue to act under the control of that ministry. Deconcentration in education to give additional responsibilities to schools. **Delegation** is providing authority to delegates selected by the National Minister, who later in consultation with state government (officials such as governor) takes decision over important aspects in each of the various states. **Devolution** is transferring powers to lower levels of government or returning something to organization which it had taken. For example: municipalities or provinces. **Privatization** means passing on authority to the private sector. Privatization is the transfer of activities, assets and responsibilities from government/public institutions and organizations to private individuals and agencies.

Tripathi & Bajpai remarked that “*decentralized management in education can be a way to equality*”. Fiske (1996) expressed that “*decentralization has different aims in different countries. In India, it aims to foster democracy but it is complex in education*”. Besides, Dr. A. Gnanam, Former Vice-Chancellor of Pondicherry University had emphasized decentralization at the higher educational level through Gnanam Committee (1990) and divided into Academic decentralization, Administrative decentralization and Financial decentralization.

Objectives of the Study:

- > To Study the extent of Decentralization in higher Education.
- > To Examine the Financing Pattern of Centre and State Governments in India.

Methodology and Sources:

The study is entirely descriptive and based on secondary data collected from various sources and official organization such as UGC, Association of Indian Universities, FICCI, World Bank, UNESCO and various reports, research papers, five year plan documents and budget.

Higher Education Scenario:

Over the past few years, Indian higher education sector has witnessed tremendous growth. Today, it is the world's largest in terms of number of institutions, while second largest in terms of enrolment of students, next to USA (FICCI, 2012). As of 2015, India has 45 Central Universities, 330 State Universities, 130 Deemed Universities, 208 Private Universities, 5 Institutions established and functioning under the State Acts, and 50 Institutes of National Importance. Other institutions include 38000 Colleges as Government Degree Colleges and Private Degree Colleges, including more than 1800 exclusive women colleges, functioning under these Universities and institutions as reported by the UGC in 2012. Some Universities have more than 300 affiliated colleges. Osmania University has 901 colleges affiliated to it while 811 colleges are attached to the Pune University and Rajasthan University as well as Mumbai University has 735 and 711 colleges attached to them.

The Indian Higher education system as the world largest, with a large number of affiliating Colleges and large number of universities under the sunshade of state government, central government and the UGC has become overburdened, cumbersome, and inefficient. On this, Prof. A. M. Khusro (1991), Former Vice-Chancellor of Aligarh Muslim University (AMU) stated that *“monitoring, evaluation, and accountability become blunted and ineffective in the universities”*.

Decentralization at Higher Educational Level:

In 1990s, the post reform period also opened up education sector for change, particularly higher education and allows privatization in this sector as well. With liberalization, higher education is emphasized for decentralization to improve functioning that move away this from detailed government control over spending, teaching and curriculum decisions, which required frequent approval from central or state government officials. Besides, need of Decentralization was felt at different levels to fund colleges through the College Development Councils. Moreover, to strengthen and coordinate research efforts of various agencies, an organization on the lines of the National Science Foundation was set up. Also with regard to inadequate and lacking computation facilities, a data bank should be created connecting all institutions dealing with science so that the available resources could

be shared and their use optimized. It has provide autonomy to some extent as we witnessed this in the Tenth five year plan as many institutions have become autonomous i.e. central universities (2), State Universities(39), Deemed –to-be Universities(50), and Private Universities(10). Recently, there are 90 Higher educational Institutions in India that are autonomous in nature as shown in Table 1 given below. Moreover, The Oversight Committee on the implementation of the New Reservation Policy in Higher Educational Institution equally recommends increased autonomy to institutions within recruitment and remuneration of faculty and admission policies to find the right balance between equity and excellence for each institution. The Eleventh five year plan also took steps to establish a central autonomous university in each state, higher education institutions in each district, private institutions may be granted deemed university status, creation of more inter-university centre, and funding of up to 150 new polytechnics autonomous colleges. The Twelfth five year plan recognized six focus areas which are expansion, equity, quality, excellence, funding, implementation & monitoring and governance. These areas especially the funding & governance will largely focuses to enhance institutional autonomy and transparency which will decentralize the sector effectively.

Table 1

Current Status of State-wise List of Autonomous Higher Educational Institutes [other than Colleges] : As on 31-12-2012		
SrNo	Name of the State	No. of Autonomous Higher Educational Institutes*
01	ANDHRA PRADESH	05
02	ASSAM	03
03	BIHAR	05
04	CHHATTISGARH	02
05	DELHI	03
06	GUJARAT	06
07	HARYANA	02
08	HIMACHAL PRADESH	02
09	JAMMU & KASHMIR	02
10	JHARKHAND	03
11	KARNATAKA	06
12	KERALA	03
13	MADHYA PRADESH	08
14	MAHARASHTRA	04
15	MEGHALAYA	01
16	ORISSA	04
17	PUNJAB	05
18	RAJASTHAN	06
19	TAMILNADU	05
20	TRIPURA	01
21	UTTAR PRADESH	06
22	UTTARAKHAND	03
23	WEST BENGAL	05
	GRAND TOTAL	90

The List of Institutes includes Institutes of National Importance and some select Universities created by Central and State enactments Source: Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_autonomous_higher_education_institutes_in_India#cite_ref-9

Decentralization: A Myth or Reality:

Decentralization in higher education is emphasized by the Gnanam Committee (1990) which recommended a more participatory approach to the management of universities with greater decentralization. It stressed the aspects like university autonomy, accountability, planning, funds and the relationship of the university, state government, and the UGC with each other. University autonomy is essential to ensure academic excellence. The Gnanam Committee recommended that State Councils for Higher Education (SCHE) should be set up in each state consisting of the Vice-Chancellors of the universities, senior academics and experts so that the Council can supervise and implement their ideas independent of the State Government. The function of SCHE is to prepare for their regional University & help to improve the teaching system, research and innovativeness at the state level but the expectations of the SCHE dwindled with the state governments control and politics. It also defined the powers and functions of various functionaries, authorities and bodies in the university system. Sharma, K.A. (2013) explain the recommendations given by Gnanam Committee in UGC book “Sixty Years of the University Grants Commission” as

“Powers in the university must be decentralized and delegated to Deans and Heads so as to make the faculties and departments powerful instruments of advancement of knowledge. They should function through various committees with adequate powers of decision making to deal with matters of admission, research, budget and others...The university, through the Vice-Chancellor, should be accountable to the society...The Planning and Monitoring board would consist of members drawn from the faculty, state government, the State Council of Higher Education(SCHE) ,colleges and other bodies...The government would normally perform the role of partners in the promotion of higher education, and not that of exercising control...The Universities would not only have complete autonomy in administrative and academic matters but also the financial autonomy according to the guidelines of UGC or SCHE. The Gnanam Committee visualized considerably enhanced powers and functions for the UGC than it currently had. The UGC would have greater involvement in the development of higher education in the country. However, its role would be mainly of an advisory and persuasive nature and it would not interfere in

the autonomy of the universities. The UGC would also advise the Visitor in matters of university education, particularly with regard to aspects relating to coordination and standards.”

Later, UGC itself has decentralized its bodies to six regional offices at Bangalore, Bhopal, Guwahati, Hyderabad, Kolkatta and Pune where it functions from New Delhi. Actually, the decentralization was only in terms of establishment and Committee formation, not of powers. Institutions are established at district levels but each aspect linked with the centre especially the funding. Universities and colleges have to provide detailed record of expenditure of their funds to the superior authority at the centre. Dr. D. M. Nanjundappa, Former Vice-Chancellor of Bangalore and Karnataka University mentioned that the politicization of our universities or university playing in the hands of one or other political party is another hazard that curtail the autonomy of the university and may led to financial breakdown.

Moreover, Institutions are facing the financial constraints. Even the so-called Officers like the Dean, the Librarian, and the Deans of Student Welfare (DSW) have no financial powers and they have to approach the Vice-Chancellor for financial sanctions. The Vice -Chancellors of universities are overburdened with the workload of records and issues of colleges to take decision on them while their time wasted in tackling other problems and visits, which led long delays in financial sanctions. However, when there is decentralization and delegation of powers, the various departments and their Chairman do get some specific powers but more powers with the administrative officers only. Even the heads of departments have some powers, which are very limited that with some prescribed restriction spending on each item. The giver is the Syndicate, the Vice-Chancellor, Registrar, and the Finance Officer, who determine the financial operations while the whole system is topsy-turvy.

At the University level, the decentralization of financial powers is desired at the UGC and the State Government. With decentralization, better financial performance and accountability can be expected. The Chief Executive and Vice-Chancellors will have more of free time to devote for academic matters and for providing the much needed leadership. It is Financial accountability of a University is important, which underlines effectiveness of all financial expenditures on a University, so that system

can be tested and correctiveness applied quickly. Dr. A. Gnanam, Former Vice-Chancellor stated that *“Ultimate success of any model of decentralization depends upon the attitude of the personnel, their interactions, and actual working relationships. More a system is decentralized, more the need for coordination. Decentralization should not result in meaningless dichotomization, different sub-systems pulling in different directions....Decentralization should be preferred to the extent it helps fix up responsibility and ensure accountability and over-all efficiency of the system.”*

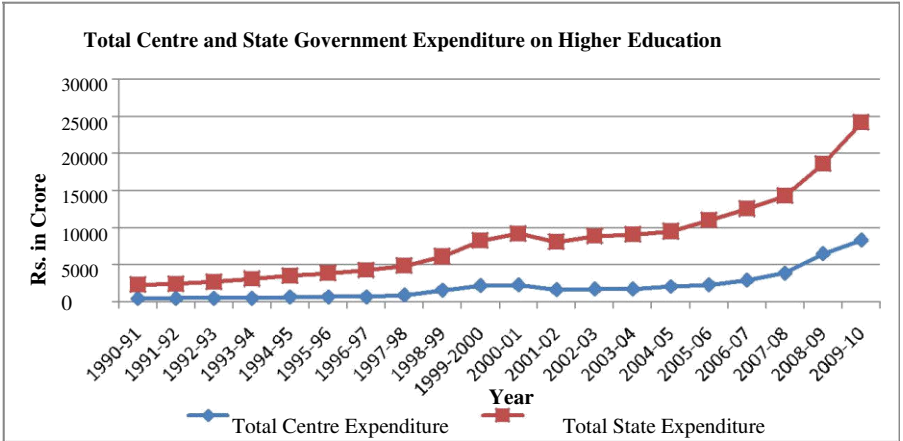
As far as our second objective is concern, we analyse the Financing Pattern of Centre and State Government in Higher Education since 1990-91 to 2009-10. Since 1976, education came in concurrent list. Both centre and state jointly finance this sector. But the State share is more than the centre as shown in the Table 2 given below:

Table 2: Financing Pattern of Centre and State Government in Higher Education in India (1990-91 to 2009-10)

Years	(Rs in Crores)	
	Total Centre Expenditure	Total State Expenditure
1990-91	475.5	1836.4
1991-92	495.6	1948.1
1992-93	504.9	2195.1
1993-94	514.2	2589.3
1994-95	684.2	2841.1
1995-96	713.1	3158.1
1996-97	716.5	3571.3
1997-98	938.1	3920.9
1998-99	1599.9	4516.8
1999-2000	2201.4	6047
2000-01	2285.3	6909.4
2001-02	1647.6	6440
2002-03	1751.8	7107.7
2003-04	1761.5	7298.5
2004-05	2099	7404.2
2005-06	2331.4	8681.9
2006-07	2955.5	9585.4
2007-08	3895.3	10416
2008-09	6506.4	12098.6
2009-10	8346.6	15839.4

Source: UGC, Annual Reports, various years.

The Table shows that state has been contributing more in funding higher education since the very beginning. Moreover, expenditure by centre is nominal as compared to state expenditure over the years. Graphically, it can be clearly analyzed that both centre and state contribution in higher education showed an upward trend but state 's contribution is much more than double than the centre.



As far as the UGC grants to centre and state universities are concerned, A UGC Report on Higher Education in India 2011-12 revealed that in 2011-12, UGC endowed 76.8% of its grants to Central Universities, 17.6% to State Universities, 2.4% to Deemed Universities and 3.2% to others. According to report of FICCI on “Higher education in India 12th five year plan (2012-2017)and beyond”, Ashok Thakur, Secretary Higher Education, GOI pointed out that “...almost 95% of the higher education institutions are under the purview of the states...but it’s the central government institutions that get bulk of the funding”. Here paradox is that 76.8% of UGC grants are skewed towards Central Universities which account for just 2.6% of student enrollment whereas only 17.6% of UGC grants go to State Universities which account for 95% of institutions. The UGC should be equitable to all universities. To enhance funds, initiatives in the Twelfth five year plan are for strengthening the State Higher Education system by providing more central funding as compared to previous plans. Moreover, central funding will be allocated for a states education system as a whole, flowing through individual institutes via the UGC for fund strategic

investment plans proposed by institutions. It is to strengthen the infrastructure of central and state foundations and to established research – based institutions.

Vision 2030:

A report by FICCI (2013) on Higher Education in India: “VISION 2030” creates futuristic and aspirational goals to cater the current constraints in higher education sector. There are some strategic plans which could be achieved by 2030:

- Encourage community focused /development oriented research at academic institutions that are relevant for a particular community region.
- Encourage „Foundation Institution“ to conduct research that is relevant to the economic and social requirements of the respective district /block in which they are located. This would lead to social and economic upliftment of the block district.
- To address critical regional and social gaps, new higher education institution need to be established in educationally deficient states and district to target socially relevant groups. For Example: Indian School of Business (ISB) opened up a new campus at Mohali in 2012, increasing its total capacity from 600 to 800. Another example is of BITS (Birla Institute of Technology and Planning) at Pilani is planning to more than double its total number of students by 2021 and increase it by nine folds by 2030.
- The government would play promotional and evaluative role for top quality institution allowing them increased autonomy government would actively regulate lower quality institutions.
- 2/3rd of all government spending towards higher education would be spent on individual, including faculty and students.
- So, the **Key action steps** which need to be taken:
 - To identify and prioritize educationally deficient geographic and socially relevant groups.
 - There is a need to ensure effective self regulation in all higher education institutions by their seeking guidance direct from suggested frameworks.
 - Ensure efficient and unbiased implementation of expansion plans.
 - Strengthen center-state coordination to ensure equitable & merit-based selection procedure across region & communities.
 - Ensure timely, efficient and transparent system of disbursements of funds to individuals, linking with performance/outcomes.

- Create BoMs (Boards of Management) on lines of Board of Directors of corporate organizations, will be the apex governance body of institutions, and will further create appropriate committees with clearly defined responsibilities and accountability, with active representation of academia, alumni and industry.

Conclusion

Decentralization in Higher Education is restricted to the states and the UGC, while not at the university level, which it must be. It is partial decentralization that exists. Institutions are provided with academic autonomy, administrative autonomy but not the financial autonomy. It is semi-financial autonomy that exists but with lots of restrictions. Decentralization must be encouraged within university framework without political intervention and vested interest, by keeping in mind its essence of honesty, honour, confidence and coordination among members. The head should carry out their responsibilities with timely, fair, impartial, vigilant control mechanism by giving respect to lower authorities for being responsible in success of their sanctum sanctorum by their dedicated efforts. On the other hand, states contribution is more than double than the centre funding in higher education while states universities are provided very small amount out of the UGC grant.

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Global Polarization and Challenges of Future Higher Education in Developing Countries with Respect to Constructivism in Teacher Education

Janardan Paudel

Research scholar

Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Email: janardanpaudel@gmail.com

Abstract

The world we see today around us is the result of the development of higher education which is depended upon the knowledge delivery system of teachers related to the teacher education process. Nations have been popular due to good teachers in them that show the importance of teacher education. Our world is highly polarized today due to unequal development of higher education and teacher education in different regions. Today, the process of development of globalization is characterized by western system. The system of education has also been the same but teacher education in many parts is thought to be not similar to those of developed countries. If the system of education is similar to western systems, America and Europe as a whole, the education is termed as good but if it does not match with these countries, it is not thought as good. We have also unprecedented academic mobility today due to globalization and emergence of global college rankings.

However, due to globalization, higher education today is connected with global network of knowledge and there is mobility of skillful and talent manpower. The universities and colleges of developed countries have been marketplaces of higher education which has also been a kind of threat of brain drain. Today we can see that our nations are also polarized in terms of the delivery of knowledge and skill by using modern technology in higher education. Similarly, educational systems, institutions, universities and colleges are also polarized with respect to developed, undeveloped, rich and poor, cost, quality, access and relevancy. So realizing these things, the purpose of this study is to show how higher education has polarized nations in terms of economically developed and less developed countries causing global disorder. The research methodology of this study is document analysis related to globalization, inequality in higher education, unequal economic development, technology, cultural changes and political threat around

the world. The result of this study is global disorder relating to the role of developed nations due to higher education. The implication of this research is that nation states are highly depended to each other due to globalization and there are challenges to change the mindset of the traditional people by the efforts made by teacher educators. Teacher education should be related to constructivism.

Keywords: *globalization of higher education, technology and teacher education, unequal economic development, constructivism in education and global polarization.*

Introduction

Today, modern education has changed the world unprecedentedly. The situations before twenty years back and today are comparatively different. The system of the delivery of knowledge has been transformed from only gaining knowledge to knowledge economy. The era of twenty first century is thought to be more complex than the twenty century. Every present day appears with the expectation of some changes to happen in the emerging society. Regarding this situation, Khaniya (2007: 2) has mentioned as follows:

We need to understand that education is changing, and the education we received and the skills and abilities we gained some years ago may not be sufficient to enable us to cope with the requirements of the changing world. Today education is not like receiving once and using it for ever. We cannot utilize the knowledge and skills we have gained through education in the past unless we update them in light of the present needs. Therefore, our education has to be examined in light of the changing context of the world.

Modern development of the countries is depended upon the system of knowledge delivery process. Due to this process, our world has been divided into – First World Countries, Second World Countries and Third World Countries. According to this division, countries are highly developed, moderately developed and less developed. If we remove the word, 'undeveloped', the countries will be categorized as 'developed countries' and 'developing countries'. The main aim of this paper is to show differences in higher education system between developed and developing countries.

The world, at present, has centered the mobility in between developed countries, widely known America and Russia, as the countries of the First World. Although, there are some other countries in the list of developed countries, America and Russia are most remarked countries as polarized

nations with two different political poles and almost equally developed in modern weapons. The development of these countries is the product of modern education system developed by them. And 'global polarization' in this article mentions to the favour and acceptance of these developed countries. Similarly, 'polar globalization' has caused different conflicts around the world. People from around the world, who went to study in these developed countries, are thought to have gained the skills of higher quality than those who studied in developing countries. So, there is rush of students from developing countries to the developed countries and they also are employed in the same country but they do not want to return in their own country. So due to this reason, we have global polarization of higher education causing developing countries at peril for their future higher education, which is the consequence of globalization. According to Petras and Veltmeyer (2001: 8) "Currently, the term "globalization" enjoys immense popularity. It is a key word in not only the dominant theoretical and political discourse but also in everyday language". In the same way, people have experienced 'globalization' in their systems of dealing every day, around the world because it is inevitable and its impact on local culture is undeniable.

Globalization of Higher Education

It is proved to be true that quality assurance in higher education sector of developing countries has been important aspect due to globalization of higher education. The matter is related to the relevant policies, systems and educational structure of higher education developed in international standard. Globalization has directly influenced higher sector as Carnoy (1999) ; and Hirst et al. (1999) have stated, "Globalization is a flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and ideas and it is also known as mobility in many forms such as information, knowledge, people and employment" (as cited in Lam 2010: 74). Due to the use of modern technology, financial causes and quality assurance; globalization has increased interconnectedness and interdependency among the higher education institutions all round the globe.

Globalization has created new issues with the requirements of changes in higher education sector. If people meet these needed changes through education, they will be employed otherwise employment is no more ahead of them but will be back. Due to globalization, higher education today is beyond national borders and boundaries. People have got learning and employment opportunities worldwide if they are found capable of handling the job for quality. Globalization has forced people to take higher education of global standard like that of Oxford University or of Harvard University; or like that of any reputed university in any country. For this

purpose, there is mobility of teachers, students, technologists or experts in any kinds of production sector in places where they are paid high. Owing to these reasons, many experts from developing countries do not want to stay in their native land but prefer to stay in another foreign country for educational opportunities, social advancement and economic development. This is the impact of globalization of higher education. So, academic manpower is not limited at a place but there has been global mobility of expert manpower due to globalization.

About impact of globalization Damme (2001: 2-4) has mentioned as follows:

Globalisation and the transition to a knowledge society seem to create new and tremendously important demands and exigencies towards universities as knowledge-centres. Many observers expect an increase in the demand for higher education worldwide. In the developed world the knowledge society will ask for even more highly qualified knowledge workers. Internationalisation and globalisation lead to an erosion of the national regulatory and policy frameworks in which universities are embedded. Most modern higher education institutions are product of national developments and policies and are fully integrated in national educational systems. One of the most visible manifestations of globalisation is the emerging 'borderless' higher education market. The huge increase in the worldwide demand in higher education, the budgetary and capacity problems of many nations to meet this demand, and the opportunities created by new communication technologies and the internet, shape an environment in which new, mostly for-profit providers successfully can expand the supply of educational services.

There is mobility of students from one country to another; from developing countries to developed countries. It is thought that there is delivery of quality education in developed countries which makes employment possible. This concept is created due to globalization of higher education.

About globalization and higher education, Carnoy (2005: 3-4) has stated as follows:

If knowledge is fundamental to globalization, globalization should also have a profound impact on the transmission of knowledge. Globalization increases the demand for education, especially university education, and increases pressure on the whole system for higher quality schooling, often producing perverse educational consequences, particularly from the standpoint of equity. Globalization increases the demand for education and educational equity due to rising payoffs to higher education in a global,

science based, knowledge intensive economy make university training more of a 'necessity' to get 'good jobs'.

Because of globalization, lifestyle of people has become complex. This being so because people want to lead a quality life and it requires their income to be increased. If higher education is of quality, more money will be paid for the graduates. In this way, due to globalization, it is clearly known that someone who has taken higher education from Oxford University or Harvard University will be paid high but from some other universities of developing countries, such type of opportunity is impossible to grasp.

Global Polarization

Polarization of the world may refer to political favour of rich and developed countries by poor and developing countries. These days also, we can take the favour of global world either for America or for Russia. Political conflicts and military conflicts get round these two countries. It is because of the technological and educational advancement of these countries. Similarly, people are also divided into such types of groups to get favour. This is the process how developed and developing countries make differences between these two poles. About polarization Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia has mentioned as follows:

In the world of politics, polarization (or polarisation) can refer to the divergence of political attitudes to ideological extremes. Polarization can refer to such divergence like public opinion or even to such divergence within certain groups. Almost all discussions of polarization in political science consider polarization in the context of political parties and democratic systems of government.

Similarly, we can say that there is global polarization of higher education. We can easily guess that education in those universities which are higher in rankings provide better and quality-oriented education so that those degree holders have no more problems to get jobs. The system of delivery of education has been different due to globalization as well as technological advancement. So, in my opinion, global polarization in higher education is assumption of universities such as job-oriented or no more job-oriented in the global market. So, the main choice of the capable students has been foreign countries like- India, America, Europe, Australia, Russia, China etc. rather than taking education in their own country. Today we have countries driven by modern technology and some others driven by broken brooms. This situation has made polarization of higher education. There is a big gap of polarization between the rich and the poor nations and people as well. So is the gap of higher education polarization.

Technology and Teacher Effectiveness

In the past anybody who knew about reading and writing would be a teacher and it was easier to become a teacher then in comparison to the present era. At present also, it is easier to be a teacher in developing countries than in developed countries due to the matter of technology. Regarding the use of new technologies, Agarwal (2010:240) has stated as follows:

Advances in new technologies, particularly the internet, are now widely used to enhance the quality of higher education provision. Overall, the new technologies can have a profound impact on higher education. The new technologies can change the teaching-learning process in a way that has not been possible before. Richness of illustration and visualization and possibility of individualization could ensure that the most difficult concepts can be understood by all.

If teachers teach using the same traditional system of teacher centered methods, students of this era of globalization feel uneasiness to understand their world. The students of this era know that in developed countries, knowledge is delivered by using different kinds of new technologies but in developing countries education is imparted by using same traditional methods; teacher centered. In this way, someone who has studied in developed countries, it is thought that he has got quality in his education. This is the situation that technology is directly related to teacher effectiveness. Connection of internet and power point multimedia in classroom certainly enhances the quality of teaching and teacher effectiveness. Modern technology connects the world in no time. So, technology enhances teacher effectiveness.

Constructivism in Teacher Education

According to Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia, "Formalization of the theory of constructivism is generally attributed to Jean Piaget, who articulated mechanisms by which knowledge is internalized by learners. He suggests that through processes accommodation and assimilation, individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences". Constructivism is known as active learning of the learners themselves. In constructivism learning, instructors will be just as facilitators. Learners have their own world view and construct knowledge. Constructivism promotes the process of interaction in learning among the learners to shape the truth.

But in the context of developing country like Nepal, constructivism in teacher education does not seem to have been applied. Teacher training process is followed by theoretical process. But it is a matter of constructing

new knowledge on an experimental basis. The use of discussion, interaction and pieces of puzzles are more effective problem solving activities. Only rote memorizing should not get more priority in teaching and learning.

Regarding constructivism, Glaserfeld (1989: 2) has stated as follows:

The revolutionary aspect of constructivism lies in the assertion that knowledge cannot and need not be 'true' in the sense that it matches ontological reality, it only has to be 'viable' in the sense that it fits within the experiential constraints that limit the cognizing organism's possibilities of acting and thinking.

In teacher education, from teacher educators, teachers should learn to teach students about how to construct knowledge. For example, before Galileo, people believed that the sun moved round the earth and brought day and night, but the earth was stable. But when Galileo invented telescope and observed the planets, he announced that the earth revolves round the sun and the sun is constant. It brought drastic change and revolution in the social, cultural and psychological construct of the people. It was difficult to change traditional concept of people. In this case, Galileo's creation of knowledge constituted constructivism. This type of creation of constructivist knowledge needs in teacher education, but not only explanation what is written in the text.

About constructivism, Educational Broadcasting Corporation (2004) has stated, "Constructivism is basically a theory -- based on observation and scientific study -- about how people learn. It says that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world, through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences". In developed countries constructivism in teacher education has been applied and teaching and learning processes are through research and presentation. Teachers and students should be involved in research to find the fact. Without research work, only obtaining degree does not help to be a good teacher. Teacher education should focus on making teachers as artist and creative. So, constructivism in teacher education should be applied in higher education sector.

Future of Higher Education in Developing Countries

Today, the effects of globalization are around us. Due to technological development and competition of nuclear weapons and space exploration, the gap between developing and developed countries has been widening. Also due to globalization, there is global market of knowledge and goods which are in the hands of developed nations. The developing countries are the markets of developed countries. But the huge amount of money

collected by developed nations will be used for the production of weapons, but there is little use for developing nations. This situation has grown rich countries richer and poor countries poorer. So, there will be differences in the delivery of higher education between the countries of these two categories.

About higher education in India, British Council (2014: 4) has stated as follows:

The supply-demand gap: India has low rate of enrollment in higher education, at only 18%, compared with 26% in China and 36% in Brazil. There is enormous unmet demand for higher education.

The low quality of Teaching and Learning: The system is beset by issues of quality in many of its institutions: a chronic shortage of faculty, poor quality teaching, outdated and rigid curricula and pedagogy, lack of accountability and quality assurance and separation of research and teaching.

Constraints on research capacity and innovation: With a very low level of PhD enrollment, India does not have enough high quality researchers; there are few opportunities for interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary working, lack of early stage research experience; a weak ecosystem for innovation, and low levels of industry engagement.

Uneven growth and access to opportunity: Socially, India remains highly divided; access to higher education is uneven with multidimensional inequalities in enrollment across population groups and geographies.

These situations, as mentioned above, are representatives to the ones the developing countries are grappling with. The developing countries will have more crises in terms of constructivism in teacher education and delivery of education. They will have shortage of funds and qualified teachers. In such situation, students will feel bored in their classrooms and dropout rate will be increased. The students who have capacity to afford money, they join colleges or universities somewhere in developed countries to make them able to get educational opportunities in developed countries so that they get social advancement and economic development. Teachers will not be well trained and do not get good salary to maintain livelihood. Moreover the developing countries will have developed the process of more dependency on the developed countries of their favour. Although interconnectedness is developed, it will be according to favour and partiality so that polarization takes place. As a whole, due to the lack of constructivist teaching learning environment, the education system remains weak in developing countries. It is because of the migration of capable and educated people to developed countries.

Policy on Higher Education in Nepal

The educational system of Nepal is more like traditional system. Now, Government of Nepal is trying to improve the system by the process of reformation. Some major changes need to be done to improve and reform educational system in Nepal. This Education Policy aims to make higher education more accessible, competitive, effective, qualitative, research-oriented and well-managed. There are 96 constituent and 1,180 affiliated colleges under nine universities and four health science institutes providing higher education in Nepal. According to MOE, 118 educational programmes are also being run after obtaining affiliation from different foreign universities.

Some of the proposed major changes are autonomous quality assurance and accreditation board, higher education commission, national curriculum board, national distribution grid and national evaluation system to test the basic qualification of teachers.

The policy formation process relates to development and innovation in higher education, strengthening higher education institutions, quality assurance in higher education, financing in higher education and monitoring foreign affiliated institutions. About reformation of quality in higher education Report of Royal Commission on Higher Education (1993: 398-) has stated, " quality in higher education, policy of entrance in higher education, reformation in the quality of teachers , curriculum, teaching methods and exam systems".

About necessity of higher education policy, University Grants Commission (UGC) (2016: 4) has stated, "There is need of higher education policy to address different problems and challenges existing in the field of access, inclusion and management of quality in higher education". In this way, there is need of good management in universities in Nepal. Most of the authorities of management sector are responsible for politics in which they belong. It needs to be reformed to stand higher education of Nepal in the globalized world.

Conclusion

In the advent of globalization, higher education is undergoing considerable change. Higher education should be transformative; transformation of knowledge from studying for concept to knowledge economy. Learning should not be made passive just listening to teachers but discussion and interaction are of great importance to build knowledge and understand real world. Moreover, technology and research-based education has been effective at the present era of globalization. Regarding advancement of information technology, Khaniya (2007: 212) has stated as follows:

There has been tremendous development in the area of technology and information management in the modern world. These elements have made learning different from what it used to be until some years ago. The advanced technology has made learning possible beyond geographical and political boundary. It has also made possible to get access to education provided by any agency anywhere. In a way, the advancement of information technology has provided enormous access to education of any level which ultimately promoted globalization of education.

Today, education should be related to using technology, E-governance has played great role in the delivery of education around the world today. New inventions have taken place with constructivism teaching and learning process. To deliver changeable education for knowledge transformation, right teachers are needed in the classrooms which will be possible by the process of teacher education.

Regarding higher education and preparation of teachers, Sharma and Sharma (2011: 173) have stated as follows:

The World Conference of Higher Education proclaimed in its Article 1 as one of the missions and functions of higher education: "To contribute to the development and improvement of education at all levels, including through training of teachers". The teacher is the yardstick that measures the achievements and aspiration of the nation. So, there is a dire need for teacher education programme in higher education.

Similarly, a teacher needs to update his/her knowledge and he/she should be conscious about the global needs and changes. Developed countries have prepared their teachers to cater these challenges. They have prepared teachers of higher education with constructivism in teacher education. A teacher should have skill developed to plunge into the depth of the world of knowledge but not only involved in reading and writing sentences of the text. A teacher should be trained to be artist and creative having knowledge and skill about 'how things are integrated to be as a whole'. Due to the lack of funding and negligence of the government in improving higher education in developing countries, it will have fallen far behind the higher education of the developed countries. If there is no quality in teaching, higher cannot be successful. In this way there will be big gap in the area of higher education between developed countries and developing countries.

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Choice Based Credit System (CBCS) and Higher Education in India

Shikha Kapur

Associate Professor

Department of Adult and Continuing Education & Extension
Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi-110025

Email: skapoor@jmi.ac.in

Abstract

Education is an all-encompassing process that facilitates learning and equipping learners with knowledge and confidence, instilling values, changing attitudes and behaviours so that they become well-adjusted individuals who contribute to the transformation of society. India has made tremendous progress in the arena of Science, technology, food security and now features amongst the fastest growing economies of the world! In spite of mind boggling achievements in the past 70 years of India's independence, it still lags in the education sector as India continues to have the world's largest population of illiterates. Though Education is the keystone to nation building but a miniscule budgetary allocation made to Education (3.85% of the GDP) and only 1.25% allocation to Higher education speaks otherwise. In 2015 University Grants Commission (UGC) the premier policy-framing, decision-making and funding agency for Universities and Institutions of higher learning in India implemented the Choice Based Credit System (CBCS). This reform sought to bring flexibility in higher education, permit seamless global mobility to students and enable them pursue subjects/courses of their choice from interdisciplinary, intra-disciplinary and skill-based courses. This would lead our education-system to matchup with international educational pattern. Although CBCS is touted as 'cornerstone to flexibility in Higher Education in India' by UGC, the Educational Planners, Policy Makers, Academicians, University Teachers, Students' Bodies from all over India have raised a number of issues, questions and concerns regarding the agenda behind the implementation of CBCS. The far reaching ramifications of these reforms have to be examined seriously, their implications determined and thorough researches conducted to find its essentiality and that it is not just an anti-thesis of the very idea of a University.

Keywords: *University, Higher Education, University Grants Commission, Choice Based Credit System (CBCS).*

Introduction

Education is the keystone to nation building. The level of education reflects the status of a nation. Since the past 70 years of independence, India has progressed in leaps and bounds in various arenas of development. India is a giant today when it comes to the use of computers and communication technologies; it ranks number fourth after United States, China and Germany in use of Supercomputers; and among the six nuclear powers of the world. India is the only nation to have a successful Mission to Mars ‘Mangalyan’ in its first attempt. Its indigenously manufactured satellites orbit the earth launched from its very own launching stations. India today is self-sufficient in food production and the position of balance of payments is more than satisfactory. But the social face of India is far from satisfactory. However two major social malaises that look straight into India’s face are ‘overpopulation’ and ‘standard of education’. India is the second most populous nation in the world after China comprising over 1.25 billion people. It has an overall Literacy-rate of 74.04% with male literacy-rate at 82.14% while the female literacy-rate was only 65.46% as per the Census of India, 2011. India has the world’s largest population of illiterates. Hence to be a truly developed nation the issue of education shall have to be dealt with all seriousness (Kapur, 2016).

UGC and Higher Education in India

The University Grants Commission (UGC) is a statutory organization established by an Act of Parliament in 1956 for the coordination, determination and maintenance of standards of university education (UGC, 2016). The UGC serves as a vital link between the Union and State Governments and the institutions of higher learning (UGC, 2012). The Provisional statistics of the All India Survey on Higher Education (2011-12) lists 642 Universities, 34908 colleges and 11356 Stand Alone Institutions in India (MHRD, 2013) which are mentored by the policies and guidelines developed by the UGC. The UGC in consultation with the concerned universities, institutions of higher learning advises Central and State Governments on the measures necessary for the improvement of

university education. Ever since its inception it has initiated several measures to bring equity, efficiency and excellence in the Higher Education System of country. UGC observed in 2014 that inspite of large number of public as well private funded educational institutions engaged in imparting education in our country, the present education system produces young minds lacking knowledge, confidence, values and skills. It could be because of complete lack of relationship between education, employment and skill development in conventional education system (UGC, 2009). The present alarming situation necessitates transformation and/or redesigning of education system, not only by introducing innovations but developing “learner-centric approach in the entire education delivery mechanism and globally followed evaluation system as well. Majority of them have entered recently into semester system to match with international educational pattern (UGC, 2014).

UGC’s observations about Higher Education in India

UGC (2009, 2012 and 2014) observed that there is a lack of flexibility in higher education system in India because

- a majority of Indian higher education institutions have been following marks or percentage based evaluation system, which obstructs their mobility to different institutions.
- The rigid Indian higher education does not permit students to study and pursue the subjects/courses of their choice. There is need to allow flexibility in education system, so that students, depending upon their interests and aims, can choose interdisciplinary, intra-disciplinary and skill-based courses.

Higher Education and reforms- RUSA (2013) and the draft of New Education Policy 2016:

The Rashtriya Uchchar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) (2013) a Centrally Sponsored Scheme (CSS) aims at providing strategic Central funding to eligible State higher educational institutions in the ratio of 60:40 for general category States, 90:10 for special category states and 100% for union territories through the State Higher Education Councils to address issues of equity, access and excellence in higher education. For improving the overall quality of State institutions, RUSA aims at adopting accreditation; usher transformative reforms in the State Higher Education

Institutions (HEIs) through affiliation, academic and examination systems; promoting autonomy and improving governance of State Universities; ensuring adequate availability of quality faculty; creating conducive atmosphere for research and innovations in the HEIs; expanding existing institutions and establishing new institutions to achieve enrolment targets; correct regional imbalances in access to higher education by setting up institutions in un-served/under-served areas; and improve equity in higher education by providing adequate opportunities of higher education to SC/STs and socially and educationally backward classes, inclusion of women, minorities, and differently abled persons.

The 43-page document 'Draft of New Education Policy 2016' proposes to regulate the higher education by focusing on **Equity Issues** by taking stock of access to education - the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education wherein range is 8.4 percent in Jharkhand and 53 percent in Chandigarh and addressing gender discrimination. **Quality Assurance in Higher Education** another important aspect is to be regulated through National Assessment and Accreditation Council and National Accreditation Board. The **Internationalisation of Education** includes presence of 200 top foreign universities in India from the world, increase acceptability of Indian students abroad; attract international students for study programs in India; internationalization of curricula and allocation of additional financial resources to government-funded HEIs. The Bill also emphasises **Open and Distance Learning & MOOCs** through National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) which in collaboration with Ministry of Skill Development & Entrepreneurship, will redefine itself to address the large potential demand for vocational education. Stress is laid on development of **Higher Education Faculty**, providing greater thrust on **Research, Innovation and New Knowledge** and **Financing of Education** so that education is considered as public good with greater public investment in the sector. The NEP Draft 2016 recommends 6% of GDP as the norm for the national outlay on education.

Choice Based Credit System (CBCS) - a cornerstone to flexibility in Higher Education in India

According to UGC (2014) the lack of flexibility in Higher Education in India can be contained by adoption of an internationally acknowledged system, the Choice Based Credit System (CBCS). The choice based credit

system not only offers opportunities and avenues to learn core subjects but also explore additional avenues of learning beyond the core subjects for holistic development of an individual. “The CBCS will undoubtedly facilitate us bench mark our courses with best international academic practices” (UGC, 2014). The CBCS was implemented in all the HEIs and Universities in India in 2015.

Choice Based Credit System (CBCS) - Salient aspects:

1. The guidelines for adoption of CBCS are applicable to all undergraduate and postgraduate level degree, diploma and certificate programmes.
2. One of the foremost features of CBCS includes the introduction of **uniform grading system** instead of conventional numeric scores and marks. The emphasis is on the computation of the cumulative grade point average (CGPA) based on the performance of students in the examinations.
3. The uniform grading system will facilitate **seamless mobility** of students across institutions within India and across the globe.
4. It will also enable the potential employers to assess the performance of the students they wish to recruit.
5. The CBCS also necessitates movement of Indian Higher Education Institutions from the conventional annual system to **semester system**. Each semester will consist of 15-18 weeks of academic work equivalent to 90 actual teaching days. The odd semester may be scheduled from July to December and even semester from January to June.
6. The **credit based semester system** provides flexibility in designing curriculum and assigning credits based on the course content and hours of teaching.
7. The credit system allows a student to study what he prefers in his own sequence as per his interests.
8. The choice based credit system provides a ‘**cafeteria**’ type approach in which the students can take courses of their choice contingent on their interest.
9. The students can pace their own learning.

10. They can undergo additional courses and acquire more than the required credits, and also opt for an interdisciplinary approach to learning.
11. The CBCS provides choice for students to select from the prescribed courses (core, elective or minor or soft skill courses).

The **Core Papers** are to be offered in every semester and compulsorily studied by a student as a core requirement to complete the requirement of a programme in a said discipline of study.

The **Elective** may be “Generic Elective” focusing on those courses which add generic proficiency to the students. They may be “Discipline centric” or may be “Open Elective” chosen from an unrelated discipline. Elective course may be chosen from a pool of papers that may be:

- Supportive to the discipline of study
- Providing an expanded scope
- Enabling an exposure to some other discipline/domain
- Nurturing student’s proficiency/skill.

The **Foundation** Courses maybe Compulsory Foundation and Elective foundation. “Compulsory Foundation” courses are the courses based upon the content that leads to Knowledge enhancement. They are mandatory for all disciplines. Elective Foundation courses are value-based and are aimed at man-making education.

9. The UGC recommends the application of grade points and letter grades under the system to maintain fairness during assessments.
10. The calculation of the Semester Grade Point Average (SGPA) and Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) will be done with the help of formulae.

CBCS –A matter of worry:

Educational Planners, Policy Makers, Academicians, University Teachers, Students’ Bodies all over India have raised a number of issues, questions and concerns regarding the agenda behind the implementation of CBCS in India. This part of the paper amalgamates viewpoints of various University Teachers, Teachers’ and Students’ Bodies raised in Articles and News stories. While the UGC may take pride in implementing CBCS since 2015,

there are a large number of issues that have been a cause of worry for Teachers and Students alike all over the country. They are discussed here:

1. First and foremost, any reform that has to be implemented should be thoroughly debated with and critically evaluated by the Stakeholders - in this case the University Teachers and the Students. However, the fact that the CBCS has been thrust upon various Universities, Colleges and Institutes of higher learning in India without any debate, discussions, assessments and deliberations on its merits and demerits smacks of a hidden agenda. Academicians and Teachers view it as a move to curb autonomy of Universities and bring about uniformity among Universities and Institutes of Higher learning in India. By introducing CBCS we are falling into a trap. We are inadvertently tampering with the letter and spirit of independent and autonomous university system (Dutta & Dutta, 2013; Hasan, 2015).
2. Introduction of CBCS is being viewed as part of the neo-liberal agenda to convert higher education in India from being a 'public good' into a 'commodity' in the name of quality (Habib, 2015). This commodification of education will systematically erode the credibility and autonomy of institutions of higher learning and make them irrelevant.
3. While the cardinal principle of education is to empower the individuals to think critically (NPE, 1986), the intent of the CBCS is to bring uniformity in Course structure and syllabi (UGC, 2014) on an all India basis. This intended uniformity negates and undermines creativity, critical thought and is against the socio-cultural diversity and realities of society.
4. India is a land of diversities- diversity in region, culture, traditions, languages and these diversities are inherent in the academic transaction between the Teacher and her Learners. However to ensure intra-faculty, inter-departmental and inter-university mobility of students an all India uniformity in Course structure and syllabi is construed under CBCS (PIB, 2015). This homogenisation of curricula across universities is not a means to enhance quality but the ensuing uniformity negates, undermines and ignores these diversities and creativity in approaches to impart higher education (Chenoy, 2015).

5. A move towards a Common Syllabus is destructive, as courses should evolve according to needs and diversity of students. The argument against Common Syllabus is that it is an attempt to standardize and unify a currently diverse, heterogeneous system. Controlled standardization is bound to destroy the specific skills and innovations of our plural University system. This will lead to developing similar mind-sets, with diversities and creativity curbed. Without freedom of choice and autonomy one cannot excel in Research and learning (Chenoy, 2015).
6. Participation of Teachers in policy making and curriculum design of courses is sine-qua-non of any educational institution. However while introducing the CBCS this cardinal requirement has been ignored in a designed manner.
7. Of the 3.85percent of the GDP allotted to Education in 2012 only 1.25percent was allocated to Higher education (MHRD, 2013). With the diminishing budgetary allocations each year, the HEIs are already facing extreme resource crunch. Budgetary allocation to higher education has been reduced further in the Budget 2017. The implementation of CBCS entails introduction of additional courses which will require additional teachers, classrooms, infrastructure, laboratories, materials, sufficient space for tutorials, libraries and tutorials classes. Has a systematic assessment of all these needs been made? Are we sure that the existing infrastructure is sufficient to meet these needs? If not then from where will the funds be generated to smoothly implement CBCS?
8. Just for the sake of argument, if we concede that CBCS this is the best system (student friendly, learning centric, efficient grading system, ensuring intra faculty and inter University mobility of students, giving wider opportunities to students) has any assessment been made on the quantum and quality of the necessary inputs for achieving these objectives? Is it going to meet the goals of 'inclusive quality education' as set out by the UGC in the Preamble of the note regarding CBCS and circulated to Universities?
9. The CBCS promises Student Mobility (Intra and Inter Faculty and University Mobility). But the UGC maintains a deliberate silence on

issues of fees and reservation in case MoUs are signed with private universities. What is shown as a choice for students is a way to fill empty rooms in private universities which offer degree programmes for lakhs. If education has to be sold as a commodity like shampoo, it has to be offered in variable sizes, and small affordable packets disguise the long-term cost (Habib, 2015). How does one account for the expenditure that students will entail in terms of travel time, cost on to and fro travel, fees for courses, accommodation, Hostels etc.

10. The UGC (University Grants Commission) document itself highlights that the CBCS is going to reduce the workload drastically. But a close scrutiny of CBCS indicates it is going to make workload highly fluctuating (DHNS, 2015). This fluctuating workload will encourage recruitment of contractual teachers. 'Contractualization' will in turn adversely affect teaching standards and research programs and demean teachers' dignity and encourage sycophancy.

Conclusions

From Annual to Semester and then to Choice Based Credit System.... reforms in the higher education in India are aplenty. Some of these reforms have far reaching ramifications and serious implications for generations of learners that will follow. But what one does require a serious deliberation, a serious thought and thorough research to find whether these so-called reforms are reforms in their true spirit that will benefit its stakeholders-the students. Do these reforms lead to an actual and qualitative change in knowledge, attitudes and skills of the students which they construe and actually not end up being the anti-thesis of the very idea of a University?

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No Detention Policy: The Difficult Road Ahead

Shalini Yadava

Assistant Professor
School of Education, GGSIP University
New Delhi
Email: shaliniy21@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper is an attempt to dispel the prevalent notions and misconceptions about the No Detention Policy. It includes the need and rationale of the policy with reference to its inclusion in the Right to Education, 2009 and it builds a case as to why it is imperative for all the stakeholders to not look at it as a standalone policy but in the light of its relevance with the achievement of the goals of Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation in School Education. This paper also presents the other side i.e the implications of abolishing the No Detention policy for the students as a whole although it is legally binding as of now as the policy is an integral component of the Right to Free and Compulsory Education for Children.

Keywords: *No Detention Policy, RTE Act, Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation*

Introduction

There is a general perception that one of the reasons why students are not taking their education seriously in schools is no detention policy. Many especially the teaching community believes that this policy has resulted in development of feeling among students that they will be promoted to next class as to whether they perform or not. It is also felt that they this has led to lack of achievement motivation in students owing to no fear of failure and therefore no performance anxiety to prod them to put in efforts to achieve in different scholastic areas. On the other hand it is important to understand the reasons for which this policy was instituted in the first place. After –all any policy which comes into public domain for implementation goes through a rigorous process of formulation with careful deliberations by experts on it's pros and cons. The question

therefore arises where we went wrong. Was the need and rationale behind this policy problematic or were we go grossly in wrong in its implementation. Let us look into the journey of this policy in India beginning with understanding the need and genesis of it:

Need and Genesis of the No Detention Policy: The no detention policy was drafted with a philosophy that every child learns and achieves and none of them is left behind. It was also felt by educationists that subjecting a child to the trauma of failure at such a tender age are detrimental both mentally and emotionally to his/her well being. It is actually cruel on part of the system to subject the child to fear and anxiety of passing and failing. On the other hand detention also adds to wastage and stagnation at this crucial stage of education i.e. wastage of time, energy, efforts and resources of the stakeholders involved.

The fact is educating a child is not a small task but an achievable one. It is often seen that mere repetition of the class by children on account of failure does not ensure learning and on the other hand leads to development of low self esteem in them, feelings of inferiority complex on being left behind in comparison to their peers, many of them dropping out owing to repeated detentions thus closing the doors of education on them once and for all. Another major problem is attributing the low achievement of children to the no detention policy only .There are is a complex nexus of factors which may lead to low achievement levels of children such as un-conducive school environment, the social and economic background of the child, lack of parental support at home, no properly designed bridge courses after the child is admitted in the age appropriate class making it a further struggle and above all the high student –teacher ratio in the class making it impossible for the teachers to give individual attention to the students .

Therefore in a nutshell keeping the principles of child psychology in mind the no detention policy was conceived and made an important part of the Right to Education Act, 2009.

It is pertinent to look at the evidence available from field based research studies and the arguments given by educationists in their writings through a review to see both the sides to the policy.

Review of Related Literature on No Detention Policy:

Ahmad et al (2016) studied the impact of the No Detention Policy on different school boards in West Bengal .The study tried to find the views of teachers, parents and students on NDP in the four boards of West Bengal. It also explored the reasons of increasing inefficiency of teachers along with the performance of students in the four boards. Lastly it tried to find the school board which is the most and least affected by this policy. The results revealed that the schools under the ICSE board were not affected by the No Detention Policy .Under the CBSE board the Bengali medium schools were found to be performing better before the implementation of NDP as it is felt that students are no more serious about their studies post the implementation of NDP. Same is the case with the Hindi medium schools. However the status of the Urdu medium schools remains the same i.e poor performance irrespective of the NDP.

A study conducted by **CII and KPMG in 2016** to assess the impact of RTE act found through interviews administered on school principals that after the implementation of the No Detention Policy the motivation of students to learn and perform has taken a beating. They also felt that because of this policy the non-performers too are promoted and this eventually leads to dropout after class VIII. Most of the principals felt that overall the NDP has had a detrimental effect on student performance.

Sharma, Gunjan (2016) in her article reversing the Twin ideals of Right to Education has built a strong case for retention of the No Detention Policy. The author feels that CCE and NDP work together to arrest drop out of children at elementary stage, bridge inequity and address the absence of enriched teaching-learning environments in schools. It further emphasizes that criticisms of the policies are rampant without looking at the implications of scrapping them on school going children. The author feels that there is a need for research evidence before looking at any such claims.

Subramanian (2016) reported in the report submitted to the MHRD for the evolution of the New Education Policy on the issue of the No Detention Policy that the policy should continue only for the primary stage of elementary education as the child is too small to be burdened with failure .On the other hand the committee felt that between ages 11 to 14 years that

is the upper primary stage the No Detention Policy should be scrapped and for this a requisite amendment should be made in the RTE act. Although the committee also felt that detention should only be resorted to after giving the children remedial coaching and at least two chances of improving his/her performance and Detention should not be viewed as a regressive step.

Vijayakumari and Joseph (2016) explored the opinions and attitudes of teachers and Head teachers with respect to the implementation of the RTE act in Goa. With respect to the No Detention Policy 88% of the respondents felt that it is not a good policy as it is the cause of high dropouts in class IX, it results in demotivating students towards their studies as it works as a dis-incentive to work harder.

Saraf and Deshmukh (2015) analyzed the achievement of students in Mathematics under the detention policy and prior to the implementation of the same and found that states of Tamilnadu and Manipur depicted an increased level of achievement post the implementation of NDP while Uttar Pradesh showed a stable performance .On the other hand West Bengal has been able to stop the learning levels from falling post the implementation of NDP. The authors felt that it is actually the failure of the implementation of policy (including the remedial coaching given under CCE).The authors feel it is too early to condemn the policy without giving it a fair chance and it is important that there is wholesome engagement with teachers to find a solution to low performance of students in different scholastic areas.

Ojha (2013) studied the implementation of RTE in some rural schools of Haryana .The researcher examined the implementation of the No Detention policy and found that most of the teachers were unaware of the rationale behind CCE and were still using the routine mechanical methods to assess student learning. It was also found that the headmasters were unaware of special training to be given to children so that they are at par with their peers in case of age appropriate admissions

The above literature analysis clearly points out that it is not the No Detention Policy but it's implementation that is completely flawed as most of the stakeholders are unaware of the dynamics of CCE or the rationale

behind NDP. It is also seen that detention of students in a class does not improve his/her performance thus being an exercise in futility.

Let us now look at the no detention policy holistically as per the different clauses of RTE rather than looking at it as a standalone policy as perceived by the majority leading to its bitter criticism.

RTE and the No Detention Policy: The Right to Education as per Section 16 clearly stipulates that: “No child admitted in a school shall be held back in any class or expelled till the completion of Elementary Education”. Looking at this section in isolation would indeed be injustice to those children who stand benefitted through this fundamental right. To begin with let us understand why did we introduce Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation? One obvious reason is to assess and monitor the performance of the child .In the RTE act we need to look at Section 29(1) and (2)

As quoted below from the RTE Act, 2009 to understand things in perspective .This section deals with the modalities of Curriculum and its evaluation modalities i.e. “Section 29. (1) The curriculum and the evaluation procedure for elementary education shall be laid down by an academic authority to be specified by the appropriate Government, by notification.

(2) The academic authority, while laying down the curriculum and the evaluation procedure under sub-section (1), shall take into consideration the following, namely:

- (a) conformity with the values enshrined in the Constitution;
- (b) all round development of the child;
- (c) building up child's knowledge, potentiality and talent;
- (d) development of physical and mental abilities to the fullest extent;
- (e) learning through activities, discovery and exploration in a child-friendly and child-centered manner;
- (f) medium of instructions shall, as far as practicable, be in child's mother tongue;
- (g) making the child free of fear, trauma and anxiety and helping the child to express views freely;
- (h) comprehensive and continuous evaluation of child's understanding of knowledge and his or her ability to apply the same.”

Now looking at the implications of Section 29(1) and (2) we find that we as teachers ought to make all the possible efforts in the schools keeping in mind the needs and interests of children to make them learn joyfully without being fearful or anxious. Now the obvious question arises -If a child is placed in an environment where learning is fun and replete with activities and efforts being made to build upon the existing pool of the child's knowledge will the child still not achieve the defined milestones?

The answer to this lies in drawing the implications of Section 24 of the RTE act which reads as following:

Section 24 of the RTE Act says, "a teacher shall perform the following duties: -

- (a) Maintain regularity and punctuality in a school.
- (b) Conduct and complete the curriculum in accordance of the provisions of sub-section 2 of the Section 29;
- (c) Assess the learning ability of each child and accordingly supplement additional instruction, if any, as required;
- (d) Complete entire curriculum within the specified time;
- (e) Hold regular meetings with parents and guardians and apprise them about the attendance, ability to learn, progress made in learning and any other relevant information about the child;
- (f) Perform such other duties as may be prescribed"

If you draw the implications of Section 24 of the RTE act as quoted above it is amply clear that not only are the teachers responsible for monitoring the performance of children but they are required to provide remedial or supplementary instruction as when required. They are also accountable for being in constant touch with parents in order to keep them informed about the regularity and punctuality of the child in attending classes, his/her ability to learn and the progress made by the child with respect to learning achievement in different subjects. This implication clearly draws our attention to the fact that if the child's performance is assessed on a continuous basis with reference to the learning outcomes to be achieved in different subject domains and remedial instruction is provided to the child as and when required the question of detention does not arise.

The Ministry of HRD, Department of School Education and Literacy brought out a notification on Interventional strategies for Special Training

in the year 2013 under Right of Children to Free & Compulsory Education Act, 2009 in which Section 5 reads as follows : “ Special Training for 6-14 years: ST is a critical component under the RTE Act with a medium term vision. It should be approached not merely as a time-bound interim initiative, but as a mechanism to make the schooling system responsive to the needs of children from diverse back grounds. Other than addressing needs of the OoSC in the medium term, the ST must feed back into the system to ensure that children are retained in regular classes. 5.2 ST must be provided in the same academic year as the one in which the identification of OoSC has taken place.”(Here ST stands for Special Training and OoSC stands for Out of School Children).

Looking at the above directives it is amply clear that all efforts ought to be made by the system such that the mandate of the right to education is respected in letter and spirit. But the question is

How do we create an environment such that the question of detention does not arise? The answer to this is not simple but is there. First and foremost we need to really think out of the box to find ways and means to decrease the present student-teacher ratio which makes it really difficult for the teacher to accord individual attention to students in the class leave alone monitor their progress from close quarters. We also need to train our teachers intensively such that they are well aware of the nuances of Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation. We also need to work towards making the teacher less burdened such that this special training in the form of remedial education or as bridge courses does not increase the work load of the teacher. On the other hand we also need to bring in more accountability such that those teachers who do not shoulder their teaching responsibilities seriously are made answerable to it.

Criticisms of the No Detention Policy: Many however feels that owing to the no detention policy, children are less motivated to learn or achieved the expected outcomes as the promotion to the next grade is not earned the hard way but is automatic. In other words students take their promotion to the next grade for granted. On the other hand complacency has also set in on the part of teachers as they feel whether students learn and achieve the scores needed is no more a problem since no failure is assured .Another problem which is faced by the students is when they enter the ninth grade. If the learning milestones set till class eight have not been achieved then

how is the student expected to cope with the academic pressure and examinations now. This leads to a large number of them dropping out of the system owing to either high rates of failure or sheer inability to cope with the additional pressure of academics as many of them hardly get any support back home.

Conclusion

Looking at all the dimensions of the no detention policy one thing is clear that the policy itself is not problematic keeping in mind its need and rationale. The fault however lies in not implementing it in its true spirit. Every child should be taught in an enriched teaching-learning environment on a regular basis such that learning is joyful. The teacher should be given all infrastructural support needed to make the classroom teaching interesting and meaningful. For the teacher to provide individual attention to learners and cater to their individual differences it is beyond doubt that the student-teacher ratio should not be more than 30:1. If the above is ensured then the teacher should be made completely accountable for making the child learn. This teacher should be entrusted with the responsibility of monitoring the performance of the students through Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation such that if students are found lagging behind they are provided with the necessary special training or remedial instruction to bring them at par.

Therefore No Detention Policy and CCE have to go hand in hand such that the question of detention of any child owing to poor performance does not arise.

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Quality of Teacher Education Programmes in Early Childhood Education

Jessy Abraham

Professor

IASE, Faculty of Education, Jamia Millia Islamia

Email: jss.abraham@gmail.com

Abstract

Though the Early Childhood Care and Education expands from 0 to 8 years or 6 years, this paper is dealing with 3 to 6 or 8 years only. As this period is spent in preparatory class or Kindergarten or Nursery, (the terms popularly used for this level of schooling) this paper is about the issues and challenges pertaining to nursery teacher education. We are fortunate that the New Education Policy (draft) 2016 has recognized Preschool education as an area for recommendations. The recommendations include the inclusion of children with disabilities , teaching-learning materials (TLM), in- service and pre-service training , Private pre-schools, ECCE to be included with Department of Education (SSA) and MSJE among other things. A National Policy on Early Childhood Care and Education (2013) envisages promotion of inclusive, equitable and contextualized opportunities for promoting optimal development and active learning capacity of all children below six years of age. The policy lays down the way forward for a comprehensive approach towards ensuring a sound foundation for survival, growth and development with focus on care and early learning for every child. Universal access with equity and inclusion; Quality in ECCE; and Strengthening capacity, monitoring and supervision, advocacy, research are covered by the policy. A programme of Action for this Policy is yet to be formulated. The principal public initiative for ECCE is the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) which aims at responding to the challenge of providing pre-school education, on one hand, and breaking the vicious cycle of malnutrition, morbidity, reduced learning capacity and mortality, on the other. The evaluation of ICDS programme has revealed that the informal education component is not covered satisfactorily as more often these Anganwadis function as place for disbursing nutritive meals, health schemes and not much is done to the holist development and also school readiness. It is a well-established fact that the quality of teacher education on programme has its implications on the quality of Early Childhood Education programmes which in turn affects the school readiness of children. In India we have NCTE as well as SCERTs regulating the teacher education programmes in ECCE level. We have a very few Universities like Jamia MilliaIslamia offering a teacher education programme for the preparation of teachers for ECCE.

Majority of the programmes that prepare teachers for Nursery level are Diploma in Nursery teacher education programmes with or without affiliation from SCERT. Many of those institutions do not follow the NCTE guidelines or SCERT guidelines. It is important to have a national consensus on the curriculum and its transaction, duration, school experiences and internship.

Keywords: *Teacher Education, ECCE, New Education Policy 2016, ECCE Policy 2013.*

Introduction

There is increased awareness regarding the importance of the first eight years of a child's life, not only in laying a sound foundation for cognitive functioning, behavioural, social, and self-regulatory capacities but also physical health throughout life. (Karoly and others, 2005)

High-quality early childhood interventions can improve academic achievement, reduce crime and delinquency, and enhance future labour market success. (Stecher, B.2013). In US, when Obama came into power, he had promised that his government will provide high quality preschool to every American Child.

The Early Childhood Education programs can be grouped into three broad approaches:

- 1) Programs that provide parent education and other family supports through home visiting or service providers
- 2) Programmes that focus on early childhood education, typically in a centre-based setting, for one or two years prior to school entry (Nursery schools)
- 3) Combination of both approaches, with early childhood education services provided in centers supplemented by parental education delivered in the same setting or through home visits.

This paper is addressing mainly the second type of programmes in a preparatory class or Kindergarten or Nursery, (the terms popularly used for this level of schooling) this paper is about the issues and challenges pertaining to nursery teacher education. Though the term teacher is not used by many Early Childhood Care Education Centres, here the term teacher is used as we are discussing concerns and issues pertaining to those

centres located in school premises, which require professionally qualified persons to conduct the programme.

Teacher education is the professional programme involved in both preservice and in-service education and capacity building of teachers. Though a degree in teacher education alone does not guarantee teacher competence, the attempt is to provide adequate knowledge of child development and academic subject areas as well as opportunities to practice teaching skills in order to facilitate children's development and learning.

The Importance of Early Childhood Education

Early childhood is a crucial time period for the development of children's mental functions which includes the emergence of language, motor skills, psychosocial, cognitive, and learning abilities. This development is now known to be greatly influenced by not only indigenous factors but also exogenous factors such as the educational environment to which a child is exposed during the first 6 to 8 years of life (Bowman, Donovan and Burns, 2001, Hyson et.al,2009) .Many studies have shown that gains in school readiness due to good quality childhood education extend up to adulthood in terms of better economic and social gains through higher education resulting in employment and higher earnings (Schweinhart 2007).James Heckman, Nobel laureate in economics from the University of Chicago, reviewed the ECE literature and found that the long-term, economic return on investment in high-quality ECE programs is more than 8 to 1 (Heckman 2000). According to Heckman, the ECE help in developing three attributes (social skills, motivation and education) which makes the individual highly valuable in the work place.

This paper aims to improve our understanding of the issues and concerns in early childhood education teacher education programs in institutions of India. The report of the Committee for evolution of the New Education Policy(2016) has elaborated the importance of the Early Childhood Years succinctly.

Need and challenges in ECE India

According to Census 2011 data, there are 164.48 million children of 0-6 years of age in India. Providing Quality Early Child care to all these children itself is a challenge due to the large number involved. Government

of India has recognized the need to provide quality pre-primary programmes as evident from the constitutional and policy provisions have been made such as Article 45 to urge states to provide ECCE for all children until they complete the age of six years.

Though Right to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act 2010 has not covered the children below six years directly, 12th Five Year Plan acknowledged the importance of ECE for improving school preparedness and entrusted the states to provide free pre-school education for children above three years. Unless the government allocate funds for preschool education and start a nursery in every government school, the children from deprived sections may not get school readiness required for starting formal education as the private initiatives more often are beyond their reach.

A child's readiness for school depends on meeting his/her comprehensive needs, which includes: physical and motor development; language and literacy; social and emotional development; approaches to learning; and cognitive development. If a child enters school with deficits in these areas, it will be difficult to catch up. In fact, as much as half of school failure may be due to lack of school readiness. (Quality: What it Is and Why it Matters in Early Childhood Education, 2012, www.scanny.org)

The National Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) Policy (2013) as well as the National Curriculum Framework and Quality Standards for ECCE has taken steps in the right direction for providing universal access to quality early childhood education. The implementation of the policy developed by the Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD) is mainly through the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) programme. The ICDS is funded by central government and administered by state covering more than 38 million children through 1.4 million anganwadi (courtyard) centres. ICDS is involved in providing services such as supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-up, preschool education, referral services and nutrition & health education. The preschool education component is to facilitate psycho-social development of children and school readiness which is weakest element among the services delivered.

States like West Bengal have developed a State Plan of Action of Children (SPAC) involving Department of Women and Child Development and Social Welfare in consultation with technical support of UNICEF. The SPAC was developed in consultation with other ministries such as Health and Family, school education, Panchayat and Rural Development, Minority Affairs and Madrasah Education (Govt. of West Bengal,2014).As there are many departments and centres involved, monitoring and implementation of the programme is very crucial. It is important to look at models like the Pyramid Model which is a multi-levelled system of support to enhance social and emotional competence in infants, toddlers, and young children while we try to implement the ECE Policy in India which has given adequate importance to workforce by placing it at the bottom of the Pyramid as shown in the figure. This model offers evidence based strategies for parents and professionals to support optimal development and prevent challenging behaviours. (Fox, Dunlap, Hemmeter, Joseph, & Strain, 2003; Hemmeter, Ostrosky, & Fox, 2006). The evaluation of the Pyramid Model in Wisconsin provided evidence of the effectiveness of the programme such as the reductions in problem behaviours and the increases in social skills for students with more challenging behaviours and reported to display typical behaviours and expected social skills of four-year-old children after the school year. Regarding early literacy, all students made moderate to strong progress in skills, but the growth in early comprehension skill was greater for the students with challenging behaviours in the Pyramid Model classrooms. In the Pyramid Model in Wisconsin, all teachers were trained in ECCE.



<http://www.collaboratingpartners.com/wi-pyramid-model-about.php>

Though no single influence can be held responsible for young children's development and learning, including what degree is held by a teacher, a teacher's education, if it is rich and deep and positive, provides a critical foundation that may constructively influence children's experiences. (Hyson, et.al 2009).

In New York State where universal pre-kindergarten (UPK) and PreK12 has been accomplished, 'teacher shortages, inadequate teacher preparation and professional development opportunities, and compensation and benefit disparities are reported to be creating a heightened need to address a growing early childhood workforce crisis'. (Klinger et.al) In New York also they are reporting that there are ECE programmes run by community-based organizations (CBOs) and by public schools. Klinger et.al reported that though majority of the ECE programmes are run by CBOs, those run by the public schools are having qualified teachers and their salary is also much better. In New York they have rigorous certification requirements, which results in shortage of certified teachers.

In Pennsylvania State, the office of child development and early learning has duly acknowledged that working with young children was a profession that requires knowledge of how children grow and develop as well as the skills to communicate effectively with children and families. Research compiled in the last fifteen years underscored two essential findings: 1.) that high quality early learning programs are important for good child outcomes, and 2.) that practitioner education and training are keys in providing good early learning experiences (Office of Child development and Early Learning, 2012)

Developing countries like Pakistan also lack of ECE trained teachers, lack of professional development opportunities such as refresher courses and salary and incentives are issues pertaining to ECE Teacher education (Ahmad, R.N; Anjum S.R. and Rehman, S, 2013)

According to NIEER report (2005), practitioner/teacher preparation (both pre-service and in-service) significantly predicts program quality and provided compelling evidence of the value added to children's development and experiences by high quality programs in such areas as vocabulary, mathematics, print awareness and concepts, all critical for later school and life success.

In India, the ICDS as well as other ECE Programmes are yet to recognise the importance of adequately trained teacher in delivering the educational aspect. The ICDS does not have any programme to recruit any professionally trained Teacher. Kaul, Chaudhary and Sharma (2015) in their study entitled *Quality and Diversity in Early Childhood Education* conducted on 298 ECE Centres in three states of India namely Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh and Assam reported that in terms of educational qualifications, almost all teachers across categories were found to have completed secondary education with a very small number of teachers with schooling below secondary level. Kaul et.al adds that “Considering that the Anganwadi Workers (AWWs) have conventionally been referred to as semi-literate or less educated workers, and not addressed as teachers, it is heartening to see that around 12 percent Anganwadi Workers (AWWs) were graduates. This really raises the overall profile and image of the Anganwadi workers and enhances the possibilities of the role they can play as teachers to young children.” They also reported that the profile of teachers in ‘known practice’ centres such as Bodhshalas in Rajasthan, Balwadis Andhra Pradesh and Ka Shreni in Assam were found to be better with 95 percent teachers having academic qualifications above secondary level. Of these, about 22 percent were senior secondary and 28 percent were graduates and above. In contrast to Anganwadis, about 65 percent of the teachers in private pre-schools were found to be graduates, with some postgraduates as well.

If education is part of the services offered by ICDS, then professionally trained personnel are required. The ICDS workers are given initial four days training and 3-4 sessions of refresher training is given.(Sen,2009).The pay scale of the Anganwadi worker also should also be comparable to that of teachers in each State of India. Lack of policy regarding recruiting teachers for the teaching/education component of ICDS and other ECE programmes itself is a major lacunae.

The need for qualified teacher in ECE:

The Early childhood education has the potential to develop abilities in different aspects of development such as their language, cognitive skills, social and emotional aspects and also creativity along. Most often, the ICDS centres focus on midday meal and act as a centre for providing health related services and there are play activities conducted for a very short

time. The ECE teacher education programmes through their curriculum which involves theory, practical and internship prepare teachers for these aspects.

In Language development, the private pre-schools follow primarily practices which appear as downward extension of the formal education of primary grades focussing only on the 3 Rs namely reading, Writing and Arithmetic, though the National Policy of Education (1986) has stated clearly that the play way method for holistic development of the children with less focus on three Rs. Some recommended activities include free and guided conversation, recitation of rhymes and songs, guided language and vocabulary games and storytelling. In addition, specific activities linked to phonetics, print awareness, picture – sound matching and book handling serve as pre-reading experiences, while activities like ‘make believe’ writing, joining dots, pattern drawing, colouring within enclosed space, etc., which require eye-hand coordination, facilitate writing readiness in children. (Kaul et.al, 2015). In order to equip the ECE teacher with these skills, there is a need for emphasizing professional training.

As the ECE is expected to help children develop a conceptual and cognitive foundation such as concepts related to the physical, natural and social environment, concepts of colour, shape, space and pre-number and number concepts associated with different dimensions of measurement such as size, length, weight, distance, temperature, etc. The learning process mediated by use of play way method should facilitate development of logical thinking such as classification, seriation, sequential thinking, problem solving, memory, reasoning and creativity. A disturbing finding is that in 71 percent of the centres across the three states, no activity was observed being conducted for supporting children in concept formation. Kaul, et.al.(2015)

School readiness especially for first-generation learners, are to be developed through well planned play-way method implemented through a variety of materials including picture cards, puzzles, dominoes, picture story books, blocks, number towers and rods, objects in the environment and also using children themselves as resource which requires professional training. In order to prevent the use of rote memorization, with activities like copying from the blackboard, charts or textbooks or choral recitation, training in appropriate pedagogy is absolutely essential.

The sub group report of Government of India in eleventh five year plan (2007-2012) has also mentioned the importance of good quality training and capacity building of teachers at ECE level. The SCERTs and also the B.Ed Nursery programme for preparing Nursery teachers have undergone revision in order to accommodate the suggestions given in NCTE guideline providing more room for reflective practices. Pre service teacher education programs in ECE are conducted by mostly private institutions in Delhi. Nursery Teacher Training Programmes conducted by these institutions are affiliated to State Council for Education, Research and Training (SCERT).By itself, no teacher education programme—however high its quality—can be entirely responsible for ensuring teachers’ continuing knowledge and skills or children’s healthy development and productive learning. Sustained, high-quality teaching requires continuous high-quality support through professional development opportunities, worthy compensation, and other factors

Teacher Education Scenario in ECE also need to be regulated by making all the institutions follow the NCTE guidelines regarding the curriculum.

As the major section (more than 50%) of ECE is through ICDS programme, policy of recruiting anganwadi worker need to be relooked. As stated earlier, the professional training given to Anganwadi worker is not sufficient to meet the expectations that we have from them. Only four days are devoted to ECE in the 26 days inservice programmes imparted to Child Development Project Officer (CDPO) and Anganwadi Workers.(Abraham,2009)

Conclusion

There are many challenges and issues in the Teacher Education in general and teacher education of the ECE level in overcoming issues related to quality of early childhood programs including inadequate teacher preparation and professional development opportunities, and compensation and benefit disparities. Overcoming these barriers will not be accomplished by short-term or piecemeal solutions involving teacher education alone. It requires an investment in resources to support teacher recruitment, training and retention, including higher wages of teachers at ECE level. It also requires strategic collaboration and coordination of resources and expertise with the higher education community and the

willingness of all parts of the early childhood field to work together to build a system that can ensure a qualified workforce prepared to meet the needs of educating young children in the 21st Century. The NCTE guidelines (2014) and ECE policy(2012) alone is insufficient, its implementation is the greatest challenge.

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Recommendations of the New Education Policy 2016 (Draft) on Language Education: Implications for Teacher Education and Challenges for Teachers

Sania Kulsum¹ & Arshad Ikram Ahmad²

¹Research Scholar & ²Assistant Professor

Department of Educational Studies, Jamia Millia Islamia

Email: sania.kulsoom@gmail.com, ahmadarshadikram48@gmail.com

Abstract

The committee for the evaluation of the New Education Policy (Subramanian committee report 2016) has given some recommendations on language education, but in order for the recommendations to be implemented, efforts have to be made to incorporate those in teacher education programmes. The Report is completely silent on these aspects. The present paper deals with the recommendations, their implications for the teacher education programmes and highlights some of the issues faced by teachers in their day to day lives.

Keywords: *New Education Policy, Language Education, Three Language Formula, Multilingualism, Regional Language*

A National Policy on Education proposes to be a document that addresses the most valuable asset of a nation i.e. Education which in turn leads to human resource development. What is to be expected from NPE is that it should propose a clear master plan for the nation which has a social fabric enmeshed within diverse linguistic, social, cultural and ethnic aspects. The committee for the evaluation of the New Education Policy (Subramanian committee report), attempts to do precisely this. The Report in its Chapter 3.3(f) deals with the Provisions with regard to language.

The report addresses to the general understanding that the children are born with an innate language faculty, the Subramanian committee report highlights that the “children internalize the complex rules of one or more language(s) even before they start their schooling” (MHRD 2016: 97). This resource must be tapped into primary education “as repeated studies have indicated that the basic concepts of language and arithmetic are best learnt in one’s mother tongue” (MHRD 2016 : 97) .Accordingly it establishes that

the medium of instruction should be the mother tongue or regional language up to class 5 as a mandatory provision.

Languages like Hindi whose promotion is mandated by the constitution of India and English (proficiency of which is an “inspirational goal “for most parents must be introduced as subjects “right from class I” (MHRD 2016: 98).

The report recommends that mother tongue should be the medium of instruction at the primary level. It is an appraisable move but the moot question arises that why did the policy not provide any blueprint how to achieve the said goal? Moreover, as the report itself notes that the 2001 census has listed a total of 1,721 mother tongues and 1,599 other languages. If education in all subjects is to be provided up to class 5 for these languages, it is an uphill task to provide the teaching material in these languages .Many of these languages do not possess a script and many virtually do not even have any teaching material produced or made available till date.

Moreover for a country as linguistically diverse as India, there is a strong likelihood that there may be not one but many mother tongues in a classroom. For example in Chattisgarh state in Central India, it is likely that the class has Nagesia, Oraon, Gondi, Kond and Kharia language speakers. Now, in this case the question is ‘which mother tongue should be preferred by the teacher and which to be left out and why?’ Another moot question is that if these mother tongues are not being taught at the level of higher education, an aspect, on which the report is completely silent, how would the issues like teacher training, development of instructional material and issues of pedagogy be addressed and evaluated?

By not clearly stating the redressal mechanisms with straight forward goals enabling choice of language of instruction ,and the training of teachers in instructional material, the report is guilty of not providing a clear road map as it has critiqued the earlier NPEs.

Moreover, if the linguistically diverse states radically choose to impart primary education in a mother tongue which has the most wide coverage ,this will revert us back to the current situation where children of linguistic minorities who do not speak the regional language at home are likely to be further disadvantaged and delineated by the school education system.

Coming over to another major recommendation of the policy, is the over emphasis given to Sanskrit. As the report acclaims that “Keeping in view special importance of Sanskrit to the growth and development of Indian languages and its unique contribution to the cultural unity of the country” (MHRD 2016:98) facilities for teaching Sanskrit at the school and university stages will be offered more liberally. This recommendation is a clear indicator of the political and ideological agenda of the present Government. The census 2001 shows that there are only few areas in India where Sanskrit speakers are concentrated. These are mostly parts of U.P, Southern Rajasthan, Nagpur and Haridwar. Policy recommends that Sanskrit should be introduced as an independent subject at Primary and upper primary stage. This comes as a pedagogically injudicious and estranging move for the children keeping in mind the fact that Sanskrit (apart from few areas where it is spoken) is a foreign language for the rest of India.

Another dissatisfying aspect of the report is that it gives recommendations on a superficial level about the need of developing proficiency at Hindi and English at the college and University level but misses upon at the macro level. As a major policy document on Education, it should have dealt with the question of language education at the higher level. There are no recommendations on Hindi and English at the University level.

If we want to reap the benefits of multilingualism as a resource and classroom strategy for language teaching, we need to have more material from all or major spoken regional languages of India recognized by the Indian constitution. The issues of pedagogy to be formulated and evaluated for these regional languages will come out rigorous training and research to be done at the higher education as well as at the realm of teacher education.

Based on the recommendations of NPE 2016 (Draft), it may be summed up that English as a modern language needs to be promoted along with Sanskrit which is a classical language. However at the secondary or senior secondary levels when the students who come from different linguistic backgrounds and have had exposure to as many as three languages ,finds it difficult to learn many a thing for the want of a familiar language. Hence at times, teachers’ instruction and classroom transaction puts them to an environment which is alien to them. Hence, there is a need for Teacher Education Institutions to work out the strategies for sensitizing their

prospective teachers of the linguistic diversity that they are most likely to address in their future classrooms.

Following points may be taken care of in the course of providing pre service teaching

- Familiarizing the trainees with the native speakers of some of the major regional languages.
- Multilingualism as a teaching strategy must be evolved and rigorous training on how to use it must be given to the teacher trainees.
- The recommendations of NCF 2005 on Language Education ; Language across the curriculum and language in meaning making contexts should be practiced in true latter and spirit. Pre service programs should have a component where the teacher trainees should be given orientation and through the span of their course they should be sensitized towards the use of mother tongue or home language in classroom and to be able to scaffold the child where he/she can tread on a path of acquiring the linguistic competence of L2. Teachers have to be trained both philosophically and practically to acquire these skills needed for their profession.
- Pre service teacher education programs should identify good regional language periodicals and journals of their specific regions and introduce it as a component in teaching of Language course.
- NCERT, SCERTs, DIETs, BRCs and CRCs: These state administrative and curriculum agencies should do more than just giving out suggestions, guidelines and materials for teachers and schools. They should encourage the teachers and schools to report their experiences and pedagogical practices. A provision has to be made for a common platform like state run magazine, newsletter or tabloids exclusively meant for teaching community where teachers can publish their work, opinions, suggestions and discuss the various issues encountered by them in their profession. This should aid the state agencies in arriving at more inclusive policies and practices regarding the school and curriculum. In this way the exchange of information becomes more frequent and effective between the teachers who are the practitioners and the state agencies who make policies. The functioning of these agencies will gradually come to be in sync with the demands of diverse linguistic and cultural needs.

To sum up, the recommendations and implications of any policy level document on education in general and language education in particular is expected to be committed towards an equitable, democratic, humane, sustainable and progressive education system for future generations. What

is expected out of the NPE (draft) 2016 is that it caters to the aspirations of 1.25 crore population of India. What it promises and what it delivers only time will unveil but striving hard for success collectively is what we Indians are best at and so shall we continue to do!

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Role of Involvement in Activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC) in Developing the Teaching Ability of Prospective Teachers of Two Year B.Ed. Program

Mohd. Moshahid¹ & Samad Thazhe Vadakkayil²

¹Associate Professor & ²Research scholar
Department of Education and Training,
Maulana Azad National Urdu University
Gachibowli, Hyderabad

Email: moshahidedu@gmail.com, samadtvs@gmail.com

Abstract

It is very recently that the NCTE restructured the B.Ed. program across the country with many radical reforms after identifying the fallacy of the running practice. The present paper tries to find out the role of involvement in activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC) in developing the teaching ability of prospective teachers of Two Year B.Ed. Program. It is conducted on the prospective teachers who have already completed three semesters and the school internship as well. The sample of 160 prospective teachers was collected from various colleges of teacher education in Calicut district in the state of Kerala. The sample covered the prospective teachers of arts subjects and science subjects. Cumulative records of the prospective teachers were used to collect data regarding the involvement in the activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC). Scores given to the prospective teachers by the teacher educators for the school internship were taken as the measure of teaching ability. Estimation of percentage, the mean, SD and t- test were employed to analyze the data. Findings of the study show that there is a significant difference between the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC possess better teaching ability than the prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. However, there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers with High, Average and Low Involvement in EPC.

Keywords: *Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC), Teaching Ability, Two year B.Ed. program, Prospective teachers.*

Introduction

Teaching is considered as the noblest profession in the world. It is the duty of everyone who selects this profession to keep up its dignity throughout the career. For the students, teachers are the one of the most influential persons and hence teachers can determine the success or failure of the students. Teachers are also the medium for all kinds of development of the students. Report of The Education Commission (1964) states: "The destiny of India is now being shaped in her class rooms. This, we believe is no more rhetoric". Teacher Education program has much importance as it aims at producing the trained and qualified teachers for shaping the future generation in the class rooms. Once the student teacher completes the course, he is expected to be capable of succeeding not only in the art of teaching but also in dealing with the multi dimensional issues related to the students' learning. To become a successful teacher, the first necessary step is a having a committed mind towards teaching. Such a commitment must be utilized positively with a comprehensive curriculum and plan of action for the teacher education program. The theoretical and practical aspects of the teacher education program should be a balanced one and of a nature of going hand in hand as well.

Most importantly, research shows that new teachers who received intensive mentoring had a significant effect on student achievement after as little as two years (Strong, Fletcher, & Villar, 2004; Serpell & Bozeman, 1999). "...Many studies in teacher education show that prospective teachers do not use much of the theory taught in teacher education. Moreover, beginning teachers often complain about the fact that, once in school, they meet many problematic situations for which they were not sufficiently prepared.(Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001). Mehrotra (2015) observes that general ambience in the teacher education community is that of pessimism. Over the years, proliferation of substandard B.Ed. institutions and rank commercialization are disturbing concerns. A gloomy feeling of helplessness is pervasive. Many institutions function only for admission, examination (without the students going through the prescribed courses) and award of degrees. We teacher educators are largely responsible for this. The fact that above 95 percentage of qualified teachers could not get through the Teacher Eligibility Test in its first kind should be remembered at this juncture.

Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) pointed out that there is a need to make teaching profession sufficiently attractive and emphasized that the period of teacher training program should be of two academic years. National Policy on Education (1986) emphasize that the status of teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of the society and stressed the launching of centrally sponsored scheme for quality teacher education. The NCTE (1995) also brought out a discussion document on curriculum framework for quality teacher education (1998) in order to give a new look to teacher education. The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) was constituted under the National Council for Teacher Education Act, 1993 for achieving planning and coordinated development of teacher education in the country, for regulation and proper maintenance of norms and standards in the teacher education system. For ensuring the systematic functioning and bringing about developments in the field of teacher education, NCTE has undertaken various steps from time to time. The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education has been developed keeping in view NCF, 2005. Academic support is being provided through preparation of Manual for the teacher education institutions and publication and dissemination of Thematic Papers on Teacher Education. Various quality control mechanisms have been developed, including re-composition of the Visiting Teams, periodical monitoring of the teacher education institutions and de-recognition of institutions not conforming to the Norms and Standards prescribed by the NCTE. The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE, 2009) also showed their concern regarding qualitative improvement of teacher education. Nowadays it has been believed that the duty of a teacher is only the transaction of curriculum to the students. This should be changed and a teacher should start to generate knowledge inside the class room. "...In the light of the above, the following would emerge as implications for teacher education: teaching instruction needs to be problem oriented and not discipline theory oriented; approaches such as case studies, simulations, role play and action research would be more appropriate for the professional development of teachers; emphasis of instruction should not be memorization of content but accomplishment of tasks, insights and competence; open ended activities and questions could help bring out the vast experiences of the prospective teachers, as also their

‘personal theories’ about knowledge, learning and learners for scrutiny and analysis.” (Verma, 2012). NCTE has started its new mission to achieve this goal by extending the duration of B.Ed. program from one year to two years adding many features in its curriculum understanding the ground realities of the present time. It strictly stands against institutionalizing the practices of teacher preparation and gives much emphasis on the practical and rational steps that enhance the emergence of ideal teachers.

It is in such a situation that NCTE comes forward with implementing the two year B.Ed. program by its regulations (NCTE Regulations, 2014) with remarkable changes in the existing structure and curriculum of teacher education. As per the NCTE Regulations 2014, the B.Ed. Program shall provide for sustained engagement with the self, the child, community and school at different levels and through establishing close connections between different curricular areas. This curricular area would serve as an important link between the above two broad curricular areas (Perspectives in Education and; Curriculum and Pedagogic Studies) through its three components: a) Tasks and assignments that run through all the courses, b) School internship and c) Courses on enhancing professional capacities. In the light of the above regulations, University of Calicut formulated its curriculum for B.Ed. course. The course structure offers a comprehensive coverage of themes and rigorous field engagement with the child, school and community. It includes in-built field-based units of study and projects along with theoretical inputs from an interdisciplinary perspective. Engagement with the Field is the curricular component that is meant to holistically link all the courses across the program, while it also includes special courses for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC) of the student teachers. Transaction of the courses is to be done using a variety of approaches, such as, case studies, group presentations, projects, discussions on reflective journals, observations of children, and interactions with the community in multiple socio cultural environments.

As the two year B.Ed. program gives much emphasis on vivid aspects of developing teachers’ personality and enriching their knowledge and skills, it is timely to study the role of involvement in activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC) in developing the teaching ability of prospective teachers. The activities for EPC include observing the classes of expert teachers online and offline, referring the authentic texts of subject

for better understanding of the content, ensuring good preparation for teaching, being aware of the latest trends in the field of methodology and pedagogy of teaching the subjects. It is done after the prospective teachers completing the school internship which is considered as the most important item in the teacher education program. Teaching ability stands for both the acquisition of all the knowledge needed for the effective transaction of the content and the use of various skills of teaching wherever and whenever needs according to the situation. It is expected that the findings of this study will be useful for the entire academia of teacher education and policy makers for exploring new horizons for effective implementation of the program.

Objectives

The study had the following objectives:

1. To compare the level of teaching ability of prospective teachers of arts subjects who have different levels of involvement in the activities for enhancing professional capacities.
2. To compare the level of teaching ability of prospective teachers of science subjects who have different levels of involvement in the activities for enhancing professional capacities.

Hypotheses

1. For the prospective teachers of arts subjects, involvement in the activities for enhancing professional capacities has no impact on developing their teaching ability.
2. Involvement in the activities for enhancing professional capacities has no impact on developing the teaching ability of prospective teachers of science subjects.

Methodology

Survey method was used for the present study. A sample of 160 prospective teachers was collected by using stratified random sampling technique. Sample covered the prospective teachers of both arts subjects and science subjects. Cumulative records of the prospective teachers were used to collect data regarding the involvement in the activities for enriching professional capacities (EPC). Scores given to the prospective teachers by the teacher educators for the school internship were taken as the measure of

teaching ability. Estimation of percentage, the mean, SD and t- test were employed to analyze the data.

Analysis

A. Classification of prospective teachers on the basis of involvement in the activities for Enriching Professional Capacities (EPC).

The total sample was classified into three groups on the basis of the score obtained in the involvement in the activities for Enriching Professional Capacities (EPC). They are:

- i. Prospective teachers who got High Involvement in EPC.
- ii. Prospective teachers who got Average Involvement in EPC.
- iii. Prospective teachers who got Low Involvement in EPC.

For this classification, first the mean of the total scores was found and then the standard deviation also. Mean $+1 \sigma$ and above were treated as High Involvement in EPC and mean -1σ and below were treated as Low Involvement in EPC. The rest were treated as Average Involvement in EPC. The mean score was 45.66. The standard deviation was 5.44. Hence, the score 51 and above were considered to be with High Involvement in EPC, the score between 50 and 41 were to be with Average Involvement in EPC and the score 40 and below were to be considered with Low Involvement in EPC.

Table – 01: Classification of Total Sample into High, Average and Low Involvement Groups in activities for EPC

Groups	No. of Prospective Teachers	Score range of involvement in activities for EPC	Percentage
High Involvement	36	51 and above	22.5
Average Involvement	96	50-41	60.0
Low Involvement	28	40 and below	17.5
N	160		100

It can be observed from table-01 that out of 160 prospective teachers, 36 fall in the group of High Involvement in EPC, 96 in the Average Involvement in EPC and 28 in the group of Low Involvement in EPC. Among the total sample, their percentages are 22.5, 60 and 17.5 respectively.

B. Percentage of score in Teaching Ability of Arts and Science prospective teachers

Table 02 shows the number Arts and Science prospective teachers who get different types of involvement in EPC and their percentage of score in teaching ability

Table – 02: Percentage of score in teaching ability of Arts and Science prospective teachers

Level of Involvement	Samples	N	% of score in Teaching Ability
High Involvement	Arts prospective teachers	12	70
	Science prospective teachers	14	73
Total 36			
Average Involvement	Arts prospective teachers	55	62
	Science prospective teachers	41	65
Total 96			
Low Involvement	Arts prospective teachers	22	56
	Science prospective teachers	6	59
Total 28			

From table-02, it is clear that 36 prospective teachers fall under the group of High Involvement in EPC, 12 are from Arts subject and 14 are from Science subject. The percentages of their score in Teaching Ability are 70 and 73 respectively. Out of 96 prospective teachers in Average Involvement in EPC group, 55 are from Arts subject and 41 are from Science subject. The percentages of their score in Teaching Ability are 62 and 55 respectively. Out of 28 prospective teachers in Low Involvement in EPC group, 22 are from Arts subject and 6 are from Science subject. The percentages of their score in Teaching Ability are 56 and 59 respectively.

C. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC

Table – 03: Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t- value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
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Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC	12	70	65	1.64	1.98	Not Significant
Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC	55	62				

It is clear from the table-03 that the number of Arts prospective teachers in High Involvement in EPC is 12 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 70, while 55 Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC got 62 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 1.64 which is less than the tabulated t-value 1.98 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that the High and Average Involvement in EPC has no impact on the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers. As per the NCTE Regulations 2014, it was assumed that engaging the prospective teachers in the activities for EPC will help to develop their teaching ability so that the quality of emerging teachers can be properly maintained. But the above finding shows that involvement in EPC has nothing to do with teaching ability. It points out the need for more intense involvement of the prospective teachers in activities for EPC.

D. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Table – 04: Comparison of the Level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t-value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC	12	70	32	2.33	2.02	Significant
Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC	22	56				

From table-04, it can be observed that the number of Arts prospective teachers in High Involvement in EPC is 12 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 70, while 22 Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC got 56 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 2.33 which is more than the tabulated t-value 2.02 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is a significant difference between the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC possess better teaching ability than the teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that High and Low Involvement in EPC has an impact on the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers. The above finding comes in line to the assumptions put forth by the NCTE Regulations 2014. Its result clearly states that prospective teachers' teaching ability is influenced by the way of their involvement in activities for EPC. This result is consistent with the provisions of NCTE Regulations 2014. It encourages the teacher educators to ensure more involvement of the prospective teachers in such activities.

E. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Table – 05: Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t- value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC	55	62	75	1.92	1.98	Not Significant
Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC	22	56				

It is obvious from the table-05 that the number of Arts prospective teachers in Average Involvement in EPC is 55 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 62, while 22 Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC got 56 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 1.92 which is less than the

tabulated t-value 1.98 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that the Average and Low Involvement in EPC has no impact on the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers. The above result is not consistent in accordance with the NCTE Regulation 2014, but it raises the need of proper implementation of the activities for EPC in developing the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers.

F. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC

Table – 06: Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t- value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC	14	73	53	1.77	2.00	Not Significant
Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC	41	65				

From Table- 06, it is clear that the number of Science prospective teachers in High Involvement in EPC is 14 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 73, while 41 Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC got 65 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 1.77 which is less than the tabulated t-value 2.00 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that the High and Average Involvement in EPC has no impact on the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers. Involvement of the prospective teachers in

activities for EPC can definitely make impact on the teaching ability according to the NCTE Regulation 2014. But when it comes to the matter of prospective teachers of science subject, the above result is inconsistent with the provisions of NCTE Regulations. Such an inconsistency might have occurred due to the inadequacy of the activities for EPC. It will catch the attention of curriculum developers and teacher educators to evaluate and revise the existing activities for EPC.

G. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Table – 07: Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t- value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC	14	73	18	1.27	2.10	Not Significant
Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC	6	59				

From table-07, it can be observed that the number of Science prospective teachers in High Involvement in EPC is 14 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 73, while 6 Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC got 59 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 1.27 which is less than the tabulated t-value 2.10 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that High and Low Involvement in EPC has no impact on the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers. Even though the result of the above comparison is not consistent peripherally with the provisions of NCTE Regulations 2014, it raises the need for implementing appropriate activities for EPC of the science prospective teachers.

H. Comparison of the level of Teaching Ability between Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Table – 08: Comparison of the Level of teaching ability between Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC

Group	No.	Percentage of score in Teaching Ability	Df	Calculated t-value	Tabulated t-value	Level of significance at 0.05 level
Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC	41	65	45	0.66	2.00	Not Significant
Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC	6	59				

It is clear from the table-08 that the number of Science prospective teachers in Average Involvement in EPC is 41 and their percentage of score in teaching ability is 65, while 6 Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC got 59 percentage of score in teaching ability. The calculated t-value for these two groups is 0.66 which is less than the tabulated t-value 2.00 at 0.05 levels. So, it is found that there is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers with Average Involvement in EPC and Science prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Therefore, it is concluded that the Average and Low Involvement in EPC has no impact on the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers. Result of the above comparison is not consistent with NCTE Regulations 2014 as the teaching ability is not influenced by the involvement of the prospective teachers of science subject in the activities for EPC. This will undoubtedly act as an eye opener to the teacher educators to engage the prospective teachers in the activities for EPC with more vigor and passion.

Findings of the Study

1. There is a significant difference between the teaching ability of Arts prospective teachers with High Involvement in EPC and Arts prospective teachers with Low Involvement in EPC. Arts prospective

teachers with High Involvement in EPC possess better teaching ability than the teachers with Low Involvement in EPC.

2. There is no significant difference between the teaching ability of Science prospective teachers with High, Average and Low Involvement in EPC.

Conclusion and Implications

The profession of teaching is very much important because it is a direct deal with the students and the indirect deal with the society and nation. It is not an easy task to show justice to this profession. It is obviously right that one who can't show justice to this profession is totally unfit for this profession. To become – not the best- at least a good teacher, one has to satisfy some requirements related to the methodology and pedagogy of his or her subject. He or she must complete the teacher education program in its full meaning and undergo a successful training too. It is during the teacher education program that one learns how to learn as well as how to teach. Different subjects and activities included in the teacher education program help the prospective teachers to identify and solve the multi dimensional problems that may emerge during the real class room teaching and learning. At this juncture, activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC) which is included in the new curriculum of two year B.Ed. program are very much significant as they focus on variety of areas related to the content knowledge and teaching skills of the prospective teachers.

By the present study, it is found that only the arts prospective teachers who involved highly in the activities for EPC revealed a remarkable development of teaching ability accordingly. The researchers could not find any noteworthy development in teaching ability of prospective teachers of science subjects in accordance with their involvement in activities for Enhancing Professional Capacities (EPC). While the involvement in EPC made an impact on the teaching ability of arts teachers with high and low involvement groups, the involvement in EPC made no impact on teaching ability of arts teachers with high and average involvement groups. But the impact of involvement in EPC on the teaching ability is not less significant when compared the average and low involvement. On the other hand, involvement in EPC has made no impact on the teaching skill of the science prospective teachers in high

involvement, average involvement and low involvement groups. This may be because of that science students are much more aware of their subject and certain pedagogical aspects even before joining teacher education program when the arts students came across the activities for EPC only after joining the course and later on their involvement in such activities reflected in the teaching ability also.

The present study proves that the new measures introduced in teacher education program have influenced the development of teaching ability of prospective teachers. As the activities for EPC include various elements related to developing the content knowledge and the methodological improvement, the prospective teachers ought to make use of positive involvement in such activities. Such measures according to the NCTE Regulations 2014 should be continued and also assessed periodically so that a better group of teachers can emerge. The findings of the present study will help the teacher educators to explore new means to effectively implement teacher education program as per the need of time. These will also help the administrators of the teacher education institutions to come up with varieties of curricular and co-curricular activities for bringing about desired changes in the attitude and behavior of the prospective teachers. It is very much important that activities for enriching professional capacities to certain extent depend upon the support and encouragement from the part of the management of the institutions. Sufficient input should be provided to obtain more output from the prospective teachers. More attention should be given on practicing the skills of teaching under strict supervision of teacher educators or senior teachers at schools. Last but not the least, the finding of the study will be an eye-opener for the prospective teachers as a lot of efforts are expected from their part to make the teacher education program a successful and meaningful one rather than a pre-planned skit.

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ICT Policies on Education in Developing Countries of Asia: Focus and Priority Areas

Vinod Kumar Kanvaria & Priya Yadav

Department of Education
NIU/DU, Delhi NCR
Email: vinodpr11@gmail.com

Abstract

In the field of education, use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is increasing day by day, and it is reflected in contemporary educational policies too. Not only general policies on education in various countries are supporting the use of ICT, but typical policies are formed for specifically focusing about ICT and its use in the field of education. And these policies become more important while they try to bring the entire country and the world at a parallel level in education. These policies dream of achieving better quality and quantity in the field of education. Developed countries are already using ICT in their educational system at a mass level and developing countries are also endeavoring to move in the same direction and trying to achieve and implement the same with the help of policies. In the current paper, contemporary educational policies on ICT have been discussed with special reference to three developing countries in Asia, viz. India, Singapore and Malaysia. These policies have been compared on some common basis. Based upon comparison and analysis, some priority areas have been identified in these policies for implementation and usage-archiving of ICT in the field of education. Endeavors have been made to focus on school education as this is the most sensitive area in the field of education with respect to mass level stakeholders and mass level targets. Though the policies are important, but it would be better to comprehend that a policy can only initiate a change, but it does not guarantee whether these changes, when implemented at the ground level, will bring the expected impact and outcome. Lim (2010) seems to be right when he shares that if the ICT policies do not become functional in the anticipated manner, then further advancements might not take place in education as well.

Introduction

The Education system has been transformed drastically with the introduction of ICT. In the modern education system, ICT is playing an indispensable role. Patra (2014) sees that the incorporation of ICT in the education system has the potential to transform the entire teaching-learning

process. It increases participation as well as brings the school and the community closer. It is certainly playing an eminent role in bridging the gap between different modes of education, namely the formal, informal and the non-formal.

The use of technology in education has provided many opportunities in all the aspects related to education. Its role in transforming the pedagogy and the learning process is manifold. Its effect transcends the classroom boundaries, reaching the distance mode of learning from an example, converting it into e-learning.

In schools, due to expanding use of ICT, not only the performance of students can be improved, but it can greatly reduce the educational expenditure as well. Tanq (2011) concludes that the need to ensure coherence between the development of ICT, its use in schools and integration with the pedagogy has exceedingly grabbed the attention of policy-makers.

Following are the few major policies related to the implementation and use of ICT in school education in Indian as well as foreign contexts concerning developing countries (DPAD, 2012) in Asia:

Table 1: Comparison of ICT in Education Policies

S. No.	Basis	National Policy on ICT in School Education, India	ICT Master Plan 3 for Education, Singapore	Policy on ICT in School Education, Malaysia
1	Year	2012	2014	2010
2	Country	India	Singapore	Malaysia
3	Type	Developing (DPAD, 2012)	Developing (DPAD, 2012)	Developing (DPAD, 2012)
4	Developed By	Department of School Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human-Resource Development, Government of India (GoI, 2012).	Ministry of Education, Singapore (Yang, 2015).	Educational Technology Division, Ministry of Education, Malaysia (MoE, 2012)
5	Vision	Its aim is to create a kind of socially and economically developed society, with the creative participation of the nation's youth in its development (GoI, 2012).	Its aim is to exploit the full potential of ICT in the teaching-learning process. To make the learners competent in using technology and use it in collaborative ways anytime and anywhere (Yang, 2015).	Its aim is to create a society which is innovative and at the same time knowledgeable which the help of ICT in education & ultimately attain an economy which is knowledge-based (MoE, 2012).
		-To make, support and	-To successfully and	-To generate effective

6	Mission(s)	sustain ICT and the processes involving ICT with the mission to improve the availability, accessibility and efficiency (GoI, 2012)	ethically integrate ICT in the curriculum with efficient leadership provided by teachers and ultimately encourage innovation in the field of ICT (Yang, 2015)	skills among stakeholders for handling ICT efficiency. -To harness, full potential of ICT -To provide motivation through rewards for the sustained use of ICT (MoE, 2012)
7	Goals/ Objectives	-To create a community that has knowledge, awareness and expertise of ICT; and employs these in the nation-building process. -To create an environment for the optimum use and returns of the employment of ICT through sharing and collaboration -To promote the accessibility of ICT tools to all teachers and students in a free and open manner -To develop content and increase the digital sharing of resources -To increase participation and promote research in ICT tools and practices in school education -To understand the critical aspects related to ICT its advantages, disadvantages and limitations (GoI, 2012)	-To increase among students self-learning and make them competent in the knowledge age -To customize learning experiences according to students' needs -To encourage students to direct their learning themselves and engage in authentic learning with deeper understanding -To extend the time frame and anywhere accessibility of technology to make learning opportunities available beyond physical space (Yang, 2015)	-To cohere all the initiatives taken presently as well as in the future in the direction of ICT integration in Education -To regularize a framework for the better implementation of ICT by integrating all the important aspects of implementation -To create greater awareness among the various stakeholders, including policy-makers for increased acceptance and dedication towards ICT Education (MoE, 2012)
8	Initiatives	-ICT at the school scheme -Support for distance education & web-based learning (NPTEL) -Indian National Digital Library in engineering, science & technology (INDEST-AICTE) -Technology Development Mission (GoI, 2012).	-edu Lab Program Management Office -POGO: Creating poets on the go -Read & Share @ Mybookshop -Apps for Learning (Yang, 2015).	-The Malaysian Smart Schools -ICT training in schools -Penang E-Learning Community Project (SIPI) -The Electronic Book Project -Internet-usage -The Computerization Program in Schools (MoE, 2012).

Priority Areas in ICT for Education: These policies reflect a number of priority areas with respect to education. These priority areas focus upon implementation and use of ICT in education and pave the way for massive

application and usage of ICT in teaching, learning and management of educational systems.

Some of the significant priority areas of ICT in education are:

Universal Access: Universal access means making ICT available to all people, without any disparity, to all the sections of the society, in both rural and urban areas. It ensures similar quality of content, which is accessible anytime, anywhere and at affordable charges. It will create similar digital opportunities for all to benefit from the arenas offered by ICT and help in bridging the gap between the digital haves and have-nots.

Digital Media Broadcasting: Considering the economic conditions of all students provide acceptable broadcast quality to all at a comparatively low cost, as against the analogue broadcast which was used traditionally.

ICT Research and Development: Its major goal is the creative and innovative development of advanced technologies in ICT to provide the required knowledge, expertise and solutions for application in government, industry and Education.

Access to Infrastructure: The expected outcome of using ICT by its users-teachers, students, administrators depends to a great extent on the uninterrupted connectivity and availability of hardware and software. Furthermore, for the ICT to function and integrate successfully requires the minimum level of infra structural arrangements as well including physical infrastructure and power sources.

Capacity Building: ICT for its effective implementation requires the competence of its user as well the only thing which ensure that they get fully benefited from the use of ICT. This means that the users should possess the minimum levels of knowledge, expertise, and experience of using technology efficiently for the intended tasks. There is a need to improve the professional development of both the levels that is the pre-service and in-service, criteria of performance for learners using ICT incorporating approaches such as the project-based approach or collaborative approach.

Content Development

The use of digital content will help in ensuring homogeneous distribution of content, which will further promote equality within the system of education. Digital content can be modified easily as well as it is easy to

disseminate and access. It provides up-to-date knowledge at a much lesser cost. The use of multimedia technologies has great advantage in the pedagogical aspect of Education.

Technical support, maintenance and sustainability of ICT initiatives

ICT to function effectively requires certain changes or adjustments to be made at the level of implementation. First of all, the development of programs for ICT requires resources for which sufficient funds need to be allocated. After the establishment, maintenance and sustainability become major needs.

Open Source / Open Content Initiatives

It promotes self-directed instructions as well as making the learners independent by providing them the opportunity to modify the content based on their context and meaning making. Open source / open content initiatives also carry many other advantages such as low cost, better performance, increased efficiency, anytime anywhere provision, privacy, creativity, etc. (Lim, 2010).

Policies and priority areas are supplementary to each other. Priority areas give rise to policies and policies in turn give rise to further priority areas. And between these two lay the elements of the teaching-learning system, i.e. Teacher, learner, infrastructure, methods, materials and other facilities. Irrespective of countries, some areas are very important as far as policies on ICT in education are concerned. Accessibility, advancement and equipage are the most important among all the priority areas. Hence, it is greatly evident from all the policies that developing countries are putting their maximum efforts on accessibility, advancement and equipage for learners and existing teachers in their educational system. It is a lot obvious from the objectives mentioned in these policies, which can be reiterated as creating a community that has knowledge, awareness, and expertise of ICT. And this community, as per GoI (2012), can employ knowledge, awareness, and expertise of ICT in the nation-building process, create an environment for the optimum use and returns of the employment of ICT through sharing and collaboration, promote the accessibility of ICT tools to all teachers and students in free and open manner, develop content and increase digital sharing of resources, increase participation and promote research in ICT tools and practices in school education, understand the

critical aspects related to ICT its advantages, disadvantages and limitations. Yang (2015) reflects this can support in increasing among students' self-learning and make them competent in the knowledge age, customizing learning experiences according to student's needs, encouraging students to direct their learning themselves and engage in authentic learning with deeper understanding, extending the time frame and anywhere accessibility of technology to make learning opportunities available beyond physical space. MoE (2012) infers it as cohering with all the initiatives taken presently as well as in the future in the direction of ICT integration in education, regularizing a framework for the better implementation of ICT by integrating all the important aspects of implementation and creating greater awareness among the various stakeholders, including policy-makers for increased acceptance and dedication towards ICT Education.

Inference and Conclusion

Once the policy makers understand the crucial need of the hour in investing in ICT development, then there come certain other questions, which need to be answered: as to how many computers are needed for a school? Where should they be located? How should the network architecture be structured? How to ensure the equitable distribution of computers? What additional resources are needed to support their use? What kind of training do teachers need to take advantage of these resources? How can they use them in their teaching? Are these uses effective? These questions can be answered in a policy and feasible to answer further through a plan of action. A policy can only initiate a change, but it does not guarantee whether these changes when implemented on the ground level will bring the predictable impact. It becomes significant to agree with Lim (2010) as he opines that if the ICT policies do not become functional in the anticipated manner, then further advancements might not take place.

There are many reasons as to why the policy might not be able to create the expected impact:

- Sometimes the act of policy making may be intended to serve the vested interests of a political domination, serving the interests of a few and might take place as a an act of formality on papers without receiving adequate support off line.

- Sometimes the implementor or the teachers might not accept the changes which they think as being imposed from outside without their active participation and say in the decision-making process.
- Policies being created in an isolated environment which does not take into account the voice of those who are going to implement it and those on whom its impact will take place, which creates a kind of void between the theory and instructional practice. Furthermore, teachers might not get a chance to learn those policies and make the intended meaning out of it.
- Another reason for the failure of policies can be that they fail to cater to the changes that will bring a difference to the system of education. Hence, decision-makers in the field of education need to develop such policies on ICT that aim at transforming, supporting and changing the education system and taking it to greater heights with all the coordinated efforts, not just at the level of policy making, but also all levels of teaching, learning, pedagogy, curriculum and evaluation. As Patra (2014) says, this will help create a better society that is knowledge sufficient and information driven.

Developing countries are making great endeavors in paving the way for implementing ICT in education with the help of forming policies in this regard. These policies show their honest, sincere and serious efforts for supporting the use of ICT in schools at the mass level. Developing countries, since they are dealing with more or less the same sort of problems in implementing education for their mass, seem to be coherent while forming their educational policies on ICT. They may come together to have common policies, too, in consultation with other developing countries and may learn from each other's failures and achievements in this regard. They can even focus more upon the priority areas in this field by joint or cooperative or collaborative ventures.

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Quality Early Childhood Care and Education: Issues and Challenges

Kapil Dhingra

Assistant Professor
Department of TT&NFE (IASE)
Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi
Email: kapildhingra_jmi@yahoo.co.in

Abstract

Early years in a child's life are worldwide recognized as a critical period in a child's life in laying the foundation for her/ his holistic development. Recognizing the need to provide quality early childhood programmes, a number of constitutional and policy provisions have been made in India. In 2013, National Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) Policy was approved by the Government of India. It also includes the National Curriculum Framework as well as Quality Standards for ECCE. In this effort, somewhere India has compromised with the basic norms and quality standards for ECCE, resulting in the emergence of expected and unexpected issues and challenges. In some regions, a marked decline in quality is shown with regard to few aspects. However, there are various studies which have evidenced progress towards quality reforms. This gives a ray of hope to attain the goal of ensuring quality in ECCE.

Keywords: *Early Childhood Care and Education, National Early Childhood Care and Education Policy, Challenges*

Introduction

Early childhood period starts from zero (conception) and lasts up to eight years of age. These early years of a child's life are vital in deciding child's survival and thriving in life, and placing down the foundations for child's learning and total development in all areas. During this stage, it is important that along with their health and nutritional needs, children's cognitive, physical, social and emotional needs are also met adequately so that their brain develops to its full potential. Providing children with a stimulating and enabling environment would also affect the worth of human assets available to a country later..Annual Status of Educational Report (ASER, 2014) emphasized, "Early years are very important. This is when basic skills should be acquired. Without strong foundations in early years, children cannot progress." The early acquaintances of a child are determined by help and care by a family, community practices, adequate

food and health care, as well as learning opportunities, which can be achieved by providing quality Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) to all children. ECCE is also considered to have a positive impact on whether or not children are attentive, and retain with learning in elementary as well as in higher education (Chandra et al., 2017).

The Indian Context

The process of globalization has influenced the field of ECCE in India. Various common issues have gained attention which needs to be looked upon in relation to child health, nutritional needs and education. According to the 2001 Census, The population of children between 0- 6 years in India is 158 million. The Human Development Report, 2003 (as cited in Position Paper, National Focus Group on Early Childhood Education, 2006) showed concern that India has not performed well in areas related to health, life expectancy and education. The relative progress of our country towards the realisation of MDGs in relation to other developing countries indicates that children in their early years have been neglected since longer period. Two of the seventeen Sustainable Development Goals, by 2030, seek to ensure healthy lives and well-being as well as quality education for all including young children. At this pace, we are doubtful of the hope to attain the SDGs by 2030.

Government of India's Efforts in ECCE

The efforts of Government of India can be seen in the form of policies, plans, constitutional amendments, acts and schemes. The importance of ECCE is well recognized by the Government of India. The amended Article 45 (The Constitution Act, 2002) directs that "The State shall endeavour to provide ECCE for all children until they complete the age of six years".

Early childhood education is also considered to be a critical input for human development by National Policy on Education (1986). Further, The National Nutrition Policy (1993) has also stressed and strongly recommended to mediate for child care and nutrition during early childhood. Other supportive policy initiatives for early childhood are National Health Policy (2002) and National Plan of Action for Children (2005)

According to 11th Five Year Plan, Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) is a vital stage that forms the base for lifelong development and helps a child in realizing her/ his full potential. Recognizing the facts, the 12th Five Year Plan emphasizes on improving school preparedness.

Early childhood education has also been addressed by The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (RTE) (2009), under Section 11 of the Act which states, “with a view to prepare children above the age of three years for elementary education and to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years, the appropriate Government may make necessary arrangement for providing free pre -school education for such children”.

India ratified UNCRC in 1992 and pledged to the Education for All (1990) across the nation. In addition, Dakar Framework for Action (2000) recapitulates the importance of ECCE and emphasises on the involvement of the state, the family, and the community

ECCE services are rendered through public, private and non-governmental sources. Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) is the world’s largest programme imparting ECCE in the public sector. District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) and SSA programmes have attempted to fill the space left by ICDS. Initiatives taken by the private sector (including day-care centres, nurseries and kindergartens) have covered small towns, villages, semi-urban areas and urban slums. Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) programme is a centrally sponsored and state administered ECCE programme, coming under Ministry of women and Child Development. With a network of almost 1.4 million anganwadi centres, It covers around 38 million children.

With this expansion of ECCE services, the focus is moving towards improving the quality of ECCE and making it free and compulsory. Therefore, equitable investment in quality of the ECCE services and programs becomes the vital concern. Although Government of India has well recognized the significance of early childhood education, the quality component of ECCE is still challenging. The general picture about the qualitative dimensions of ECCE is not encouraging. While there is a significant rise in enrolments in elementary grades, it is still a matter of

worry that the drop outs are highest in the first two grades of elementary schooling.

Ensuring Quality of ECCE

Children's daily experiences which encourage healthy physical and social development are important for good early-childhood programmes. The norms and standards for ensuring good quality ECE programs have to be in relation with the objectives of ECCE programme. Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD, 2013) has laid down quality standards for ECCE centres which are to be enforced across public, private and voluntary sectors. These standards lay emphasis on comprehensive approach for overall development of the child. The framework identifies few non- negotiable indicators which must be available to all children (birth- 6 years) attending any kind of ECCE service.

Non- Negotiable Indicators

- An ECCE programme of 4 hours duration with snack/break time of half an hour
- 1 classroom which measures at least 35 square meters (carpet area) for a group of 30 children with sufficient outdoor space for a group of 30 children
- Adequately trained staff
- Curriculum should be centred around child and has to be age and developmentally appropriate. Medium of instruction has to be the mother tongue/local vernacular
- Adequate toys and learning materials which are appropriate according to age levels
- The building should be structurally safe and within easy approach. It should be clean and should have surrounding green area
- Adequate and safe drinking water
- Separate child-friendly toilets and hand wash facilities in adequate amount for girls and boys
- There should be a separate space to cook nutritional meals and space for nap time for children

- First Aid/ Medical Kit available at the centre which meets immediate health needs
- The adult- child ratio should be 1:20 for 3-6 year old children and 1:10 for children below three years. Children should not be unattended at any given point of time.

Besides these minimum norms/ non- negotiable indicators, the framework lays down eight standards for ensuring quality services in ECCE centres of all the sectors.

1. **Interaction (Between Teacher- child, child- child, child- environment, staff- family)**

- Teacher or the caregiver must treat all children equally and provide care, respect and affection.
- Children's cultural, social and religious diversities must be appreciated.
- Children should feel free to approach the teachers/ caregivers at any time.
- Caregivers encourage children to think, reason, question and experiment during the day.
- Peers can interact among themselves meaningfully during meal/snack time
- Positive communication and mutual respect is encouraged among all children including children with special needs, from different background etc.
- Encouragement of social interaction among children during play.
- Availability of varieties of equipment/ materials for indoor learning/play activities.
- Access and usage of age appropriate books and other related learning materials and adapted to children's developmental needs.
- Opportunities provided for children to explore materials, use in learning concepts, develop and practice skills.
- Teachers have regular meetings with parents and take feedback from the parents.

- Teacher should visit child's home, if required, to establish a good relationship with parents.

Interaction between children and environmental as well as cultural experiences, supported with meaningful dialogues, results in positive outcomes in their overall development. It helps children, build a solid knowledge foundation and prepare them for formal schooling (MWCD, 2013; UNICEF, 2012).

2. Health, Nutrition, Personal care and Routine

- Regular checkups of children's height and weight to identify malnourished children.
- Children's health needs and comfort (e.g. sleep, rest, and relaxation) should be met adequately
- Immunizations should be conducted at regular intervals and health records maintained.
- Ensure that children have nutritious meals/ snacks
- Supplementary nutrition/ home food as per norms provided to children regularly
- Classrooms as well as toilets are clean and hygienic
- Teachers must develop healthy habits in children such as washing hands before and after meals, putting materials back in their place after using them etc.

A good-quality holistic ECCE programs must ensure early learning as well as health, nutrition, hygiene, safe water, sanitation, affection, care and protection of children (UNICEF, 2012). If all these are compromised, young children's education and development may be adversely affected. Poor health of children could be the reason for absenteeism, class repetition and drop out.

1. Protective Care and Safety

- Provide children with consistent adult supervision.
- At least 1 adult for every 20 children in 3- 6 years age group and for every 10 children below three years of age.
- Teachers must be sensitive to the children's needs and are able to provide emotional support to children, when needed, particularly those who are facing deprivation.

- Immediate health service in terms of First Aid/ medical kit available at the centre.
- Nap/rest time for children with adequate and relevant supervision.

Appropriate teacher-children ratio is the significant aspect of quality ECCE. A low teacher- child ratio is evidenced to have a positive impact on children's learning as this is the age when they are influenced most by socialization in learning process. (Chandra et al., 2017). As per the national survey report by NCERT, 2016 (as cited in Chandra et al., 2017), teacher child ratio of primary schools decreased from 42 to 34. But, this ratio needs to be managed, especially, in private ECCE centres where this ratio is sometimes 60 to 80 in a class.

2. Infrastructure

- There should be proper light and ventilation in the rooms.
- Centre should be disabled- friendly and allows easy access for children with special needs.
- Indoor space, furniture and equipments are clean and well maintained.
- Safety level of building is adequately maintained.

The infrastructure of the schools needs to be supportive of children's needs, preferably low cost and culture specific (Position Paper, Early Childhood Education, 2006). A good infrastructure ensures high-quality programs for children (Chandra et al., 2017) and better school readiness skills (CECED & ASER, 2015). Therefore, this aspect of quality needs major attention.

3. Organisation and Management

- Timings for ECCE programme is 4 hours daily with children. Break time should be of ½ an hour.
- Focus should not be rote-learning activities or formal teaching of 3Rs (reading, writing & arithmetic).
- Regular records of children's attendance, leave, and absence.
- All areas of development should be catered to.
- Language of interaction is the mother tongue/ home language of children, while supporting the development of other languages.

Quality ECCE programme should be according to the interests and developmental priorities of children. It should be developmentally

appropriate and have school readiness component. Ball (2011) argued (as cited in Chandra et al., 2017) that use of mother tongue is expected to ensure participation, self-confidence, motivation, school success and retention.

4. Children Experiences and Learning Opportunities

- Culturally relevant and region specific learning materials are used in the class.
- Planning for learning through play and exploration accommodates the individual child, local settings and specific needs.
- Teacher provides opportunities for free play & interacts with children during play.
- Collaborative learning opportunities must be provided where each child is supported to work with, learn from and help others.

It is suggested that developmentally appropriate activities should be carried out for promoting children's all round development. Through this, ECCE aims to foster children's social and cognitive maturation and prepare them for school. Significant correlation has been found between children's development and their participation in ECCE activities (Chandra et al., 2017).

5. Assessment and Outcome Measures

- A child's learning and development must be observed consistently by the teacher or caregiver. Record of child's progress must be kept in a goal oriented way.
- It is important for the caregivers to understand the factors that may be affecting children's progress/ performance.

Activities must be planned according to the performance level of children.

- There should be regular sharing of child's strengths between teachers/ caregivers and parents. This would help them identify areas of improvement and work on it collectively.

Development of inbuilt mechanisms should be developed for monitoring the learning outcomes in children. Also, periodic assessment needs to be undertaken to ensure that all children acquire school readiness by the end of the programme. Therefore, CABE recommended the use of

comprehensive and continuous assessment of children with an aim to early identification and diagnosis of disabilities or developmental challenges in children (Chandra et al., 2017).

6. Managing to Support Quality System

- Teachers/Caregivers have adequate qualification/experience to implement the ECCE program effectively.
- Teachers/ caregivers in ECCE centres attend relevant training to build their knowledge and skills in child development.
- Involve family, staff and community members in annual review of program/ services and further use results to develop plan for implementation.

Teacher qualification and preparation for teaching is a critical indicator of education quality. Therefore, CIBE framed criteria for ECCE teachers that include minimum educational qualification of 12th grade or equivalent, with command on one language spoken in the area (as cited in Chandra et al., 2017). Teachers must know how to teach young children and develop resources to do so.

Review of Studies Indicating Quality of Early Childhood Education

With regard to the quality standards recognized by MWCD, different aspects of quality have been reflected in different sectors in India. This section comprises of review of few research studies which were conducted to assess the quality of ECCE in different sectors. This will help to show the real picture of the field.

A longitudinal study was conducted by Kaul et al. (2014) in the states of Andhra Pradesh (A.P.), Rajasthan and Assam. It was found that there was limited interaction among children and with teacher in all the ECCE centres. They interact only during teaching-learning process. ECE kits and play material are reported to be either in inadequate quantity or improperly used by the Anganwadi Workers in AWCs in Jammu, Madhya Pradesh, A.P., Rajasthan and Assam (Chandra et al., 2017).

Regarding the health and care facilities, various studies have revealed that health check-ups are inadequate and irregular in AWCs. Dixit et al., 2010 (as cited in Chandra et al., 2017) found that, monthly health check-ups are either provided to sick children or none at all in the AWCs of M.P.

There is insufficient training of AWW to help them plot weight of children with the help of growth charts. Majority of the AWW in U.P. and M.P. are not aware of the correct estimation of weight in growth charts (Chandra et al., 2017). According to the report of Planning Commission (2013), most of the crèches in India have poor rest and sleeping facilities. There is shortage of mattress, carts, pillows, blankets, beds and bed sheets.

Teacher- child ratio needs to be managed in private ECCE centres. Most of the AWCs in A.P., Rajasthan and Assam (Kaul et al., 2014) reported to have a favourable teacher-child ratio (i.e. less than 25 children with an AWW and helper). But, it is disappointing to know that in private ECCE centres, this ratio is sometimes 80:1 (Kaul et al., 2014). In Cennai, there is a strong trend of parents sending their children to private schools in their locality. When asked about her choice of school, B. Vasanthi, a Maintenance department worker in a courier company says, “There are lots of extracurricular activities and we feel that the children can develop better communication skills in English as well. We don’t mind paying the high fees”. (The Hindu, Dec. 15, 2016, p.9).

Raising concern about the quality of private schools mushrooming in the state, K. R. Nandakumar of the Tamil Nadu Matric, Higher secondary and CBSE School Association says, “While private schools are expected to follow the norms set by the State Government and the department, there is no other common government body that is evaluating them on the quality of holistic education provided” (The Hindu, Dec. 15, 2016, p.9).

A study by National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development in 2014 (as cited in Chandra et al., 2017) reported that government ECCE buildings in Delhi are decaying and do not have adequate light and ventilation. Improper light and ventilation is also reported in AWCs in Jammu; 41% to 56% Crèches in U.P., Maharashtra, Orissa and A.P. (NIPCCD, 2010).

The space for outdoor and indoor activities was reported to be limited in most of the AWCs in M.P. (Dixit et al., 2010), Tripura (NIPCCD, 2011), Karnataka (44%) (NIPCCD, 2012) and J&K (Planning Commission, 2009). Urban AWCs in the country face with similar condition (NIPCCD, 2006). Most of the Creches in India have two rooms with small space, no electricity and unsafe playground (Planning Commission, 2013).

ASER (2014) reported that 49.3% government schools with primary sections were complying with pupil- teacher ratio norms. Schools having boundary walls and play grounds were found to be around 58% and 65% respectively. Drinking water facilities in schools all over India were found satisfactory (75%).

Kaul et al. (2014) found no readiness activities for reading, writing and number in 50% ECCE centres in A.P, Rajasthan and Assam. Private ECCE centres are conducting them for school readiness but for short duration. Most of the private ECCE centres are focusing on either modest curriculum of songs/rhymes or formal teaching of 3R's (76%). Less attention is given on activity-based teaching, age-appropriate activities and ensuring developmentally appropriate learning environment. The issue of low salary of ECCE professionals was reported by CECED in the country. AWW is paid less and expected to facilitate all the services under the scheme. Though, salary structure was varied and unregulated in private unaided schools which sometimes offer high scale (CECED, 2010).

Exploring children's participation in developmentally appropriate activities, NIPCCD, 2006(as cited in Chandra et al., 2017) reported that 70% of the country's AWCs organise outdoor activities while, activities related to fine muscle coordination, emotional development and intellectual development are rarely observed.

It is also revealed by NIPCCD (2010) that there is absence of orientation programs for teacher educators.

Suggestions for Ensuring Quality in implementing ECCE

Children's daily experiences are of crucial importance for promoting healthy and optimum physical and psychosocial development. This is possible with good quality early-childhood programmes. Collective efforts on various fronts are required for this.

1. Regulation

The government should take up the responsibility of controlling the mushrooming of poor-quality ECCE programmes, particularly of those in private sector. The government sector of ECCE must give priority to the most disadvantaged groups. The services provided needs to be context specific and relevant. Private ECCE centres should be discouraged to exploit the vulnerable and encouraged to adhere to the norms and

standards. Registration, recognition and accreditation are the few methods of regulation to ensure quality in ECCE programmes and provide best possible practices.

2. Creating Awareness

It is important that the parents and community understand the significance of early childhood, for overall development. The purpose and meaning of ECCE must be made clear to them by spreading awareness through mass media and by promoting positive examples of good practices. The adverse effects of introducing the child too early to formal schooling methods need to be discussed as well.

3. Training of ECCE Personnel

The training of the staff of early childhood programmes is very crucial for the efficient implementation. Priority must be given to enhance the capacity of trainers. Further, the training programme could be more flexible which help the future teachers to move from a certificate to a diploma to a degree. Having achieved separately will make them eligible for specific programmes, like being day-care teachers or balwadi teachers or school teachers. Skills and knowledge of these teachers and caregivers could be upgraded by taking refresher courses. Hands-on training must be emphasized rather than out dated theoretical approaches.

4. Curriculum

The significance of a curriculum that encourages holistic development of child has already been established. It should have the flexibility to suit the diverse social, cultural and economic contexts of our country. A developmentally appropriate and activity based curriculum is suggested, that is related to child's needs, interests and capacities. Use of local materials, arts and knowledge is encouraged.

5. Ensuring Basic Infrastructure

The government must ensure provision of safe and adequate infrastructure by providing enough indoor and outdoor space, adequate light and ventilation, and activity corners. Conducive learning environment, adequate teaching learning aids, safe drinking water, clean and child friendly toilets and regular health facilities should be provided in all the sectors of ECCE programmes.

6. Regular Assessment of Children.

Assessment should be done on a regular basis for measuring the level of child for further improvement. Teachers should regularly assess children's holistic development, through standard procedure like using 'Age Appropriate Assessment Cards' developed by the MWCD. Portfolios and teacher diaries should be maintained as suggested in National ECCE Curriculum Framework. Later on, developmental level of children can be assessed by using standard tools.

7. Links between Policy, Practice and Research

Issues related to early childhood programme practices need to be studied in order to understand how they impact children. This will, in future, also strengthen the good practices in ECCE. Researches on quality improvement should be conducted for development, trials and validation of different curricula/training models.

Conclusion

The review of studies shows that, India is successfully reaching the target of ensuring the provision and accessibility of ECCE for all children. Though enrolment at pre-primary and primary and retention in primary grades are improved visibly, yet findings demonstrate that, quality of ECCE across the country is very diverse. Still, there is lack of basic requisites for organising ECCE programs and activities like infrastructure, physical and health facilities, training and orientation of teachers, and developmentally appropriate curriculum. This poses challenge in quality reforms in ECCE. However, efforts at government, local and individual level may be able to overcome these challenges. The findings of the studies and suggestions for ensuring quality will further help to readdress the emerged issues and challenges in improving the quality of ECCE.

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New National Policy on Education: Where are the provisions for children with Type I Diabetes?

**Neelima Chopra¹, Bindiya Narang²
& Juveria Iqbal³**

¹Assistant Professor & ^{2&3}Research Associates
Centre for Early Childhood Development and Research
Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi
Email: neelima.chopra@yahoo.co.in

Abstract

Children with Type I Diabetes have special needs like strict dietary management, regular monitoring of blood glucose, administering of insulin injections at regular intervals, the need for mid-day snacks, among others. These children are also at risk for psychological disorders, especially depression, owing to the constant stress related to treatment adherence and regimen. And, while special care for these children is crucial at home, it also needs to be extended in the school, where children spend a considerable time. This paper attempts to explore the provisions made for children with Type I Diabetes or lack of it in the proposed National Policy on Education.

Main Text

“Some Inputs for Draft National Education Policy” discusses and presents the draft of National Policy on Education (NPE) to be implemented shortly. This document by Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Government of India, highlights the importance of the fourth global Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 4) within the Agenda 2030 that seeks to ‘Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all’. On the other hand, the document also acknowledges the unfortunate reality that “this Education For All (EFA) agenda initiated in 2000 remains unfinished...The NEP will, therefore, pursue both the unfinished EFA agenda and the targets associated with SDG 4” (p.13). It is also understood from draft document of NPE (2016) that there is an urgent need for providing quality educational opportunities for all children of our country while yet another segment of this document underlines the need to equip the schools so as to address the challenging

needs of children with disabilities, especially while children with special needs constitute a significant proportion of out-of-school children.

Children with Type 1 Diabetes fall under the category of children with special needs and addressing their educational needs through the policy is particularly important since the prevalence of this disease among young children is escalating throughout the country. According to Das (2015), in India, the proportion of Type 1 Diabetic children in the age group of 0-14 years is highest in the entire South-East Asia, with a trend of 3-5% increase/year in the incidence. This accounts for three new cases of Type 1 Diabetes /100,000 children every year. Thus, it becomes evident that the objective of reaching out to all children, as mentioned in NPE (2016), will be accomplished only when the educational needs and requirements of these children are also addressed.

Children with Type 1 Diabetes have special needs like strict dietary management, regular monitoring of blood glucose, administering of insulin injections at regular intervals, need for regular and mid-day snacks among others. Moreover, these children with their peculiar treatment regimen demands are also at risk for psychological disorders, especially depression. Although the special care for such children with is crucial at home, it also needs to be extended in the schools as well. There is an urgent need to provide special provisions for care of diabetic children at school. In addition to being medically safe at school, children with Type 1 Diabetes need to have the same access to educational opportunities as their peers, and should not be excluded from extracurricular events or field trips. It has been acknowledged that participation in school activities helps to minimize the children's sense of being different from peers.

Addressing the special needs of diabetic children finds consonance with the goals mentioned in the draft document of NPE (2016) which states that "Ensuring that all education programmes are made accessible, inclusive and responsive to the needs of diverse groups of children and young people with special focus on students from disadvantaged population groups, particularly children, adolescents and youth with special needs and with various forms of disabilities, and ensuring that all enrolled students are supported to enable them achieve the expected learning outcomes....." (p.15). Thus, some modifications in a typical school day are needed to accommodate children with Type 1 Diabetes safely, such as allowing time

for mid day snacks, scheduling of lunch and physical exercises etc. to prevent hypoglycemia episodes or low blood glucose levels. At the same time, restricting the child from all physical activities is not recommended as this may emphasize differences and may foster inferiority among such children. However, making schools responsive in this case is a challenging task as children with Type 1 Diabetes do not find specific mention in any of the official documents or policies under the category of children with special needs, and it is also missing from the draft document of NPE (2016). Unfortunately, not acknowledging the presence of children with Type 1 Diabetes in schools prevents their access to inclusive and responsive educational programmes.

It is noteworthy that this scenario in India is in contrast to a more progressive approach found in several other countries. The sensitivity and responsiveness to special needs of children with Type 1 Diabetes is seen in The Equality Act 2010 (England, Scotland and Wales). According to this Act, “The National Health Services (NHS), local authorities and all schools in England, Scotland and Wales have duties towards children with Diabetes, who are legally defined as being disabled. Fee-paying independent schools are also legally obliged to meet the duties in the Equality Act 2010”.

In the Indian context, in order to understand the facilities provided by schools to children with Type 1 Diabetes, a research study was undertaken by the authors of the article. This study was funded by Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) New Delhi and included 100 diabetic children availing medical treatment in Delhi. Data was collected from 60 schools attended by these children. The study explored the diabetic children’s educational status and sought to understand the preparedness of their schools in providing care within the school premises.

It was disheartening that five of the sampled children were not attending any school because of the complications related with their condition. Regarding other aspects of care at school, teachers in 85 % of the visited schools affirmed that the medical records of all students were diligently maintained. However, in case of more than 50 % schools, the contact details of parents of chronically ill children were not maintained separately and in 91.7 % schools, no separate ID cards or badges were issued to children with Type 1 Diabetes. Appallingly, teachers in 15% schools

reported not being aware of any special medical needs of the children enrolled, 17% schools reported as not having a nurse or doctor available in their premises, 42% reported as having no emergency kits, while 49% schools had no provision for testing blood glucose levels in their infirmaries. It was also accounted by 72 % teachers that the ancillary staff like maids, drivers were not aware of the identity or special medical condition of children with Type 1 Diabetes enrolled at the school. 38.3 % teachers also voiced that school cafeteria did not particularly serve any special snacks or food items keeping in mind the special dietary needs of these children. The absence of these provisions can prove to be fatal for the children in case of any emergency arising out of their peculiar medical condition. The study thus emphasizes that majority of the schools neither have the required provisions to ensure safety of diabetic children nor are sensitive to their special needs. This could possibly lead to withdrawal of diabetic children from school.

In view of the fact that teachers are responsible for the well-being of children in the classrooms, the study also ascertained the knowledge of teachers regarding Type I Diabetes. The findings indicate that most of the teachers had fair knowledge pertaining to different facets of the disease, as regards nature, causes, complications, symptoms of hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia (low and high blood glucose levels respectively), the recommended dietary regimen, as well as methods of controlling blood sugar. In addition, it was noted that a large number of teachers also had certain misconceptions related with this condition. Many teachers incorrectly associated Type 1 Diabetes with obesity, being caused due to excess food intake and lack of exercise, whereas the actual cause is a dysfunctional pancreas. The findings also reveal that the main sources of information about Type 1 Diabetes cited by teachers were booklets and mass media. Only teachers in 18.3 % schools reported having attended specific workshops related to this disease and its management. This points at the urgent need to organise awareness workshops for teachers and school staff to enable them to handle any emergency arising during school hours.

The need to address the special needs of children through teacher awareness programmes is also highlighted in the draft document of NPE (2016). It proposes a plan of action to provide inclusive education and student support for children with special needs. The draft document states

that “The ongoing centrally sponsored schemes for children with special needs will continue and their coverage and funding will be augmented. A suitable mechanism will be developed at the state and district levels for oversight of the implementation of various schemes as well as identifying and providing for children with special needs. At the local level, a part-time sub-committee of experts comprising of child and clinical psychologists will be constituted so that any school or District Education Officer could refer cases where a third-party assessment or advice is needed. This sub-committee can also advise on special training/orientation of teachers for sensitive and appropriate handling of children with special needs” (p. 23). It is ironical that this document, like others, does not articulate and specify the different types of special needs of children including the different medical conditions of children in the schools, like children with Type 1 Diabetes or other chronically ill children. This need has been put forth widely by Shaw, Glaser, Stern, Sferdenschi & McCabe (2010), who suggested development and monitoring by a multidisciplinary team for overseeing the education of chronically ill children; Duggan, Medway, & Bunke, (2004), who recommend the need for trainings of the school personnel regarding the education of children who are chronically ill. Furthermore, Irwin and Elam (2011) recommend that “a proactive system should be established for serving the educational needs of children who are seriously ill” (p. 75).

The daily, Time of India, in an article ‘Diabetics to be allowed mid exam snack’ (11 February 2017) reported that Central Board of School Education (CBSE) has allowed children with Type 1 Diabetes sitting for class X and XII board exams to carry snacks. This decision does reflect some sensitivity to the special needs of the children with Type 1 Diabetes. However, these are baby steps and need to be followed up with more concrete measures. Specifically indicating that children with Type 1 Diabetes fall under the category of children with special needs, provisions for providing school admission to children in this category, having trained health care practitioners in school clinics, having facilities for checking blood glucose levels and administering insulin are important to ensure safety of these children in school. Giving special ID cards, maintaining proper school records of chronically ill children and organising special awareness programmes for teachers and other school staff to handle

emergencies is also crucial. However, this may only be possible if there is a provision for all this in the proposed National Policy of Education. This will ensure that children with Type 1 Diabetes and other children with special needs are not neglected or denied their right to education.

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Women in Higher Education: A Policy Perspective

Bharti Sharma¹ & Reena Gupta²

¹Assistant Professor & ²Research scholar

Department of Teacher Training and Non Formal Education (IASE)

Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi

Email: drbhartisharma261@gmail.com

Abstract

Education is the most important vehicle for knowledge building as well as social and economic development of the society. Education works as a tool for betterment of socio-economic status of the marginalized groups of the society. Higher Education is directly related to employment, skill development, research, innovations and nation building. It equips the young people with skills relevant for the labour market and social mobility. It provides people who already in the employment to negotiate with the career requirements. It also prepares all to be a responsible citizen of a democratic country. Thus higher education is necessary to be independent in life as well as in development of a nation.

Women constitute about fifty percent of the total population. Women participate in household chores as well as in employment. Women's participation influences governments, families, communities and economy. Women's education is considered to be the core of a nation's development. Realizing the value of education for all human beings, especially for those who did not occupy a respectable status in the society, Govt. of India initiated various policies and programmes and priority was given to provide education to all at different levels of education i.e. elementary, secondary and at higher levels.

The present paper analyses the different policies and programmes for women in higher education in post-independence era. The paper also focuses on initiatives taken in Five Year Plans, special schemes initiated by the government for making higher education accessible and affordable for women and provides elaborate discussion on factors or barriers responsible for continued disparities in the field.

Keywords: Higher Education, Women, Policies and programmes

Introduction

“Every individual has a right to an education that will enable him to develop his faculties and live a full human life. Such education is the birth right of every citizen. A state cannot clear (? claim) to have discharged its duty till it has provided for every single individual the means to the acquisition of knowledge and self betterment” -

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad

Indian society is a patriarchal society where women were not treated equal to men. This big section of the society was treated indifferently and oppressed for a long period of time. Education is the hope for emancipation and enlightenment for the all marginalized groups and depressed sections of the society, women are one of them. Education is widely regarded as the prime instrument for improving the condition of the backward; and the elevation of the backward is seen as one of the most important social products of education (Galanter, 1984). Women constitute half part of the total population. In the era of globalization, we state that men and women are equal in all respects of life. India is a democratic nation; it has followed the tenets of justice and equal opportunities for all. The Constitution of India also provided several safeguard measures to promote the education of women. Article 15 prohibits the discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. Article- 21A gives the fundamental Right to Education to all including girl child. The article states:

“The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such a manner as the state, by law, determine”.

Thus education is considered pivotal for the growth and well being of the people of the nation. Government of India initiated several policies and programmes for women at elementary, secondary and higher education level at different times. Despite several policies and programmes the participation of women in higher education is still very low in comparison to their male counterparts.

Higher Education and Women

Higher education in India is one of the largest educational systems in the World. Indeed, India has the third largest enrolment of students in the World after China and United States of America (Agrawal, 2009). Higher

education consists of undergraduate, post-graduate, professional degree and diploma courses. In other words, higher education in India starts from graduation or after higher secondary education. While it takes three years for completing under-graduate courses in India, pursuing an engineering course would take four years and five years (with six months of additional compulsory internship). Same is applicable for completing a bachelor of medicine or bachelor of law degree also. Postgraduate courses are generally are of two years duration. But there are some courses like Master of Computer Application (MCA) that are of three years' duration. For those who cannot afford to attend regular classes for various graduate degree courses they may pursue their desired course through correspondence courses from various open universities and distance learning institutes in India.

The colonial administration did not give much importance to higher education. Before Independence, access to higher education was very limited and largely confined to rich and upper class people. Until Independence, only 20 universities and 500 colleges provided educational facilities to less than a million students. After Independence, the government has expanded the educational institutions tremendously. The colleges for general education have also increased from 208 in 1950-51 to 3, 664 in 2005-06 (MHRD, 2007). Now there were 329 state universities, 46 central universities and 205 state private universities functioning in the country. The number of colleges were 40, 760 according to the UGC Annual Report, 2014-15.

The growth of women's education from primary to graduation is not so remarkable during the last six decades in comparison to that of men. According to the Census of India 1951, the literacy rate of female was only 8.86 per cent and it increased to 65.46 per cent in 2011 (Census of India, 2011). The percentage of women graduates was only 2.67 percent (Census of India 1951) and it increased to 5.81 percent only in 2001(Census of India 2001). The percentage of total enrolled women at higher education level was only 10 percent in 1950-51, which increased to 36.9 percent in 2000-2001 (Selected Educational Statics, 2000-01).Total enrolment in higher education was 34.2 million with 18.5 million boys and 15.7 million girls. Girls constituted 45.5% of the total enrolment (AISHE, 2014-15). It

clearly indicates that inequality still exist in higher education despite various policies and programmes.

Rural-Urban Disparity

In spite of various policies and plans, women are not attracted to the higher education. In addition to this, a high degree of disparities exist between rural- urban areas. According to Census 1971, the percentage of rural women graduates and post graduates was 0.99 percent and in urban areas, it was 2.77 percent in urban areas. In Census 2001, the same trend has continued. The percentage of rural women in graduation and above was 1.91 percent and for urban areas, it was 11.08 percent. The percentage of rural women in higher education is much lower than the percentage of urban women in higher education. Dropout of rural girls at different educational levels is so high that very few girls reach upto higher education.

Disparity in Discipline-Wise Enrolment

At higher education level, only a small proportion of the women enrolled in higher education and even among them largely in arts (51.79 percent), science (19.09 percent), and commerce/management courses (16.5 percent). More than 90 percent of the women in higher education were enrolled in general education and rest of 10 percent were enrolled in professional and technical discipline (UGC Annual Report, 2001-02).

Various Committees and Commissions

In post-independence period, the Government's priority has been to improve social and economic status of women in the society. The Government of India provided for their education at different levels . To meet the needs, the Government of India, at various times has set up different commissions and committees to promote higher education among women. The recommendations of commissions and committees are as follows:

University Education Commission (1948-49) was the first step taken towards the higher education by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry appointed a Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan to study various aspects of university education. The Commission also emphasized the importance of Women's education. The recommendations of this Commission were to increase access of women in higher education

by providing educational opportunities, same salary for female teachers, promote co-education and to increase number of college and universities in the country.

Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) recommended that the first degree course in the University should be of three years duration. For the regulation of the higher education in the country, University Grant Commission (UGC) Act came into existence in the year 1956. UGC is a statutory body of GOI, working for institutions of higher learning.

National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59) was the first effort to focus exclusively on women's education. This committee emphasized rural and adult women's education and recommended that immediate steps should be taken to expand the education of girls at the University stage and to give adequate financial assistance to girls from rural areas to promote their studies at this level. UGC(1956) which has the special responsibility of developing colleges and university education, should grant special funds for girls' colleges, including training colleges as well as the construction of hostels and other facilities. A fairly large number of scholarships should be instituted for girls in all types of colleges – both Government and private – and in different courses.

Education Commission (1964-66) was setup under the Chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari. This Commission gave special attention to women's education and emphasized that adequate attention should be given to the problems of training and employment of women. It targeted 33 percent increment in enrolment of women during the next ten years. To achieve this target, it recommended scholarships for financial assistance and hostel accommodations for women.

National Policy on Education (1968) was the first policy on education. Contextually the policy recommended provision of funds for establishing new universities, special attention on organisation of postgraduate courses, improvement of standards in training and research and the facilities of laboratory, library etc should be provided to full time students. As per the policy, education of girls should receive emphasis, not only on grounds of social justice, but also because it accelerates social transformation (NPE, 1968).

The Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India (*Towards Equality Report*)-(1974) was set up under the chairmanship of Vina Mazumdar. This report laid down the foundation of women's movement in independent India by highlighting discriminatory socio-cultural practices, as well as political and economic processes. The report proved to be an "eye opener" that led to women-sensitive policy-making in India including education and participation of women in all spheres of life e.g. political participation. Conceptual understanding of issues was visualized as per the gender perspective.

National Policy on Education (1986) was a landmark for the women's education. It attempted for the first time to address the basic issues of women equality. It emphasized the role of education as an urgently required necessity for the basic change in the status of women. The national educational system could play a vital role in the empowerment of women. Women's studies should be promoted as a part of various courses and educational institutions should encourage to take-up active programmes to further women's development. Major emphasis was laid on women's participation in vocational, technical and professional education at different levels. The Programme of Action (POA, 1992) emphasized expansion of institutions, development of autonomous colleges and departments, training of teachers, strengthening research, improvements in efficiency, finance and mobility.

The Committee to Advise on Renovation and Rejuvenation of Higher Education (2009) proposed that the academic functions of all professional bodies, be subsumed under an apex body for Higher Education, to be called The National Commission for Higher Education and Research (NCHER).

Draft of New Policy for Women (2016) promoted to ensure gender sensitivity in the education system. The policy stated that the major constraints which prevented women to access higher education, technical/scientific education should be identified and women/ girls should be encouraged to take up new subject choices linked to career opportunities. An inter-sectoral plan of action should also be formulated to encourage the enrolment of women in professional/ scientific courses, by provision of financial assistance, coaching, hostels, child care etc.

Five Year Plans and Women in Higher Education

In the planning process, welfare, employment and education of the women was given prime importance. It has been duly recognized from the first Five Year plan.

First-Five-Year-Plan, focused on women's education at the secondary and university stage, due to which educational facilities were improved considerably. The number of Girls' institutions and their enrolment was also increased. The Second-Five-Year-Plan emphasized the improvement of standards of college and university education, extension of facilities for technical and vocational education and the implementation of social, education and cultural development programmes. It recommended special scholarship schemes for girls to take up different courses such as nursing, health visitors and teachers. Special measures were suggested for increasing the enrolment of girls and the number of women teachers. UGC provided liberal assistance to women's colleges and women's hostels. In the year 1957, educational panel of the Planning Commission recommended for appointment of a suitable committee to examine the existing system of women's education. Accordingly, in 1958, the Govt. of India appointed a national Committee on Women's Education under the Chairmanship of Dr. Durgabai Deshmukh.

During the Third Five Year plan period, based on the recommendation of National Committee on Women's Education, the Union Ministry of Education set up the National Council for Women's Education in the year 1959, which was created to deal with the issues arising out of formulated programmes. The National Council for Women's Education in the year 1961, appointed the Hansa Mehta Committee to suggest measures for the improvement of Women's education. The Committee recommended that co-education should be adopted. A Committee under the Chairmanship of M. Bhaktvatsalam was appointed in the year 1963 by the National Council of Women's Education to investigate the cause of the lack of public support for girls' education, particularly in the rural areas. During the Third Plan period Rs.175 crores were invested for girls' education.

Fourth plan emphasized women's education and continued sustained efforts to extend higher education among girls but laid stress on social education. There was a steady growth of women's enrolment in higher

education. The percentage of women students in higher education to total enrolment increased 1.9 percent between 1966 and 1974 (Third All India Survey, 1978). Fifth Plan accorded high priority for the consolidation and improvement of educational facilities to the weaker section of society, including women through correspondence courses and private study which were to be further expanded. The focus of The Sixth Plan was on appointment of women teachers, where necessary, in rural areas to encourage girls' education.

Seventh plan emphasized the need to encourage talented girls to pursue higher education. It also proposed to expand the 'Open Learning System', including correspondence courses for women. In order to promote technical and vocational education for girls; more women's polytechnics were to be set up and programmes for vocationalization of education were to be expanded. The emphasis of Eighth Plan was about resources, financial allocations and on elementary, school and higher education. During the Eighth Plan period, the number of women in higher education increased from 13.60 lakh in 1990 to 21.39 lakh in 1997.

Ninth Plan emphasized priority to the expansion of education mainly in unreserved areas with focus on improving the coverage of women. It also provided for free education for girls up to the college level such as under graduate level including professional courses, with relaxation in tuition fees, provision of basic text books, maintenance, expenditure in hostels and facilities for library books. Tenth Plan endeavoured to consolidate the progress made in women's education and carry it forward to achieve the goal of education for 'women's equity' as advocated by the National Policy of Education 1986 and revised in 1992, by reducing gender gaps at the higher education level. Tenth Plan encouraged women to participate in Science & Technology activities, especially in rural areas.

The main focus of the Eleventh Plan were reduction of regional imbalances, support to institutions located in border, hilly, remote, small towns, and educationally backward areas and support to institutions with larger student population of marginalized groups; including girl students with special scholarships/ fellowships, hostel facilities, remedial coaching, and other measures. The Twelfth Plan provided new initiatives and support for women. Girls Hostel scheme and Single Girl Child Scheme were

continued. The plan was emphasized on bridging the gender gap in higher education.

Special Schemes for Women in Higher Education

The Govt. has initiated following schemes for women education development in different five year plans.

- Scheme for development women' studies in Indian Universities and Colleges
 - Swami Vivekanand single girl child scholarship for research in social sciences
 - Post -Doctoral Fellowship for women candidates
 - Post-Graduate Indira Gandhi Scholarship for single girl child
 - Part time Research Associate- ship for women
 - Hostels for Girls/ Women
 - Maulana Azad National Fellowship for girls students from minority communities
 - Scheme of capacity building of women managers in higher education
 - Equal employment opportunities offices in Universities and Colleges
- Besides this, 50 percent seats are reserved for women in all scholarships/ fellowships initiated by Govt. of India.

Discussion and Conclusion

It is quite clear and evident that despite having explicit and progressive policies for women in higher education, ground realities are different. The much publicised policies and programmes with the potential of bringing about change in the society had failed to produce desired results. Though, the enrolments of women in higher education have increased since independence but still there is a wide gap between enrolments of men and women. The rural-urban disparities in enrolment as well as opening of universities and colleges are visible. There is a widening gap between enrolments of women in professional/ technical education and general education. Not much attention was paid to attract women in professional and technical courses. Lack of women friendly infrastructure is evident which is a major issue of increasing dropout rates of women. So review of policies is essential to find out the root cause of it. The post independence period or independent India inherited the structure that was not suited to young and developing nation so various attempts were made successively

in the form of University Education Commission (1948-49), Kothari Commission (1964-66) that again formed the basis of NPE-1986 and POA-1992. National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59) and The Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in India (*Towards Equality Report*)-(1974) had clearly identified the need for promoting higher education among women. In fact suggested for systemic reforms, making it more relevant and responsive to the needs of the society. It is argued that a large proportion of the expenditure incurred on the higher education of girls is wasted. It was also noticed that acquired knowledge and skills by the girls as well as talents are not fully utilized for social and national development which thus forms the basis of curtailing opportunities for them.(page no-279,*Towards Equality Report*). Draft of New Policy for Women (2016) also stated to identify the major constraints of access of higher education to women. Here a few questions arise: Why instead of moving ahead, we are lagging behind? What are the factors or obstacles responsible for hindering the developmental path? And how can we go beyond just the policy pronouncements?

Well, answering these questions will simply guide us that policies should not be rhetoric but firm actions on the ground should be visible. There are several factors which inhibit the access of higher education to the women having quantitative as well as qualitative dimensions in which first one is inadequate infrastructure and inefficient delivery system. For example, due to the co-educational colleges in many states, parents do not want to send their daughters to colleges. The gender implications of an unsuitable delivery system are also immense. This creates several problems such as lack of adequate facilities for women like toilets, common rooms, hostels, non- availability of scholarships, fellowships and disciplines of their choice, absence of women teachers or separate schools and colleges for women etc.

Second but the major obstacle is socio-cultural setup of India. Societal factors contain poverty and lack of economic resources in the family. In most of the households while young boys earn, the girls may either work or look after the household and younger siblings to release their mothers for employment. These are major hindrances for women to access higher education studies. In addition, there are widespread social prejudices prevalent against educating girls which may be due to the long established

gender ideologies. As per the subjective socialization norms or stereotypes, parents of women do not want to use the earnings of their daughters. Either they are not allowed to take up jobs or allowed to do it for a short term till they get married. This is because of the expectations of traditional role to be played out in the part of married life. This is also the reason why a large majority of their girl children are sent to arts and humanities courses which are cheaper and softer and do not require very long period for completion. Even if they get a job after higher education there is little chance to get concession of dowry. The groom has to be more than or equally educated to the bride. The dowry demand goes up.

Other factors are the Institutional factors which affect the access of women in higher education like - gender stereotyping in course content and subject choices, discriminatory attitudes of teachers and administrators, absence of role models for career options and academic leadership at the college and university, etc. In a single sex institution, the faculty may reinforce traditional social roles or not encourage women to emulate the non-traditional role models. In co-educational institutions men may hold most of the leadership positions.

In the era of modernization and globalization, the people must realize that women have all the abilities to compete with the men in all spheres of social and economic liabilities and enjoy respectable position in family as well as in the society. Societal change is very much needed. Society at a large should be free from biases, prejudices, discrimination, stereotypes etc. and understand that the attainment of qualitative higher education for women can play a pivotal role in the individual as well as development of the society as a whole. Since Independence, the Government of India has initiated several policy measures and programmes to improve women's participation in higher education but still hard-headed realities are prevalent so there is a need to revitalize the entire approach and concrete steps need to be taken to fulfill the basic and essential needs of women in higher education. Determined Efforts must be made to retain the girls in primary and secondary levels of school education and to reduce dropout rate at different levels of education. Besides this, there is an urgent requirement of organizing awareness programmes regarding different policies and programmes initiated by central and state government in rural areas so that women from rural areas may get benefited. The Government

should also strictly monitor the implementation of these policies and programmes for further improvement and inclusion of women in higher education that will undeniably lead to empowerment, emancipation and a dignified life for women in India.

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DESIGN BY: DEEBA QURESHI

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION
JAMIA MILLIA ISLAMIA
NEW DELHI-110025**

jamiajournalofeducation2017@gmail.com