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EDITORIAL
SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS AND TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

Sunil Behari Mohanty

Quality education plays an essential part of economic and social development of the nations. "Economic benefits of education flow not only to the individual but also to society through lower social transfers and through the additional taxes individuals pay once they enter the labour market"(OECD 2010, p. 136). School education lays the foundation for lifelong knowledge and skill development of the humanity. School effectiveness refers to the extent to which the goals set by the school management or school boards or school departments of the State governments have been achieved. It is a multi dimensional concept. One of the important measures of school effectiveness is the performance of the students in a public examination. Comparison of performance of students of various schools is no longer limited to national level. International comparative studies of student performance have come out with varied performance indicators. Results of the TIMSS indicated that many Asian countries including Korea performed better than European countries and USA (Chapman & Adams, 2002, p. 4). In case of 3rd Grade, international average was 334 and highest national average was 422 (Korea), followed by 414 (Singapore), 400 (Japan)...344 (USA) and 321 (UK, England). Hence, not only funds, but other factors might have been playing vital role in school effectiveness.

Efforts to have effective schools result in educational innovations in terms of ideas or practices new to a specific educational context that meets unsatisfied needs. The notion that private fee charging schools are more effective than government schools has resulted in efforts among poor parents for education of their children in fee charging private schools. Preference for private schools arise out of the consideration that pupil teacher ratio in these schools is much lower than that of government schools. As per EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010, the world student teacher ratio for pre-primary education was 20. In case of various types of countries, the ratio was: Countries in transition - 8, Developed countries - 15 and Developing countries - 28. In case of regions, it varied from 9 (Central and Eastern Europe) to 40 (South & West Asia). The figure in case of other regions were: Central Asia -11, North America and Western Europe -14, Pacific - 17, Arab States -18, Latin America and the Caribbean - 21, East Asia- 21, East Asia and the Pacific -21, Caribbean - 32, Sub-Saharan Africa - 28. (UNESCO 2010, P.394). In India, the situation is not very bright. For instance, in Orissa State, the general class for higher secondary students (Aged 17 & 18 years) attached to junior college has a class size of 128 students, whereas a private fee charging school will have a class size of 50 students. In such situations, standards of school effectiveness may not be generalised, as the expectations from rural schools may be different than from those in case of urban schools. As the operating systems vary, there may not be standards for school effectiveness. In operational terms, it may not be appropriate to have even nationalised text books.

School effectiveness also depends on the quality of its intake. Many children in poor regions suffer from under nutrition. Hence, there is limited scope for high quality functioning of the brain of a large number of children, which affects school effectiveness in terms of pupil attainment, compared to schools in developed regions. Similarly, there are large numbers of orphan children created by natural catastrophes. They are at higher risk than non-orphans of discrimination, social exclusion, dropping out of school and poor access to basic health care. There are roaming schools, which move along with roaming population. There are also schools in difficult areas such as hilly pockets, islands, and deserts. In spite of efforts of SSA, the school conditions in large number of difficult areas are poor. The school effectiveness expectations are rightly influenced by rural development including roads and transport facilities. Hence the expectations of school effectiveness will vary from one geographical region to another.

Teacher knowledge is an important matter for school improvement. Poor content knowledge of teachers is a serious problem A few years ago, during visit to an in-service training programme for elementary

school teachers being conducted by UNICEF, the editor found that more than 25% participants could not correctly divide 302 by 3. In case of the same State, even today, faculty members of teacher training institutions, in charge of method of teaching Geography, do not have degree level content knowledge in Geography. Lack of qualified and appropriately educated teachers is a huge barrier for excellent level of school effectiveness. Many systems employ contract teachers. Such a practice goes against the principle of equal opportunity in terms of availability of regular teachers. Some systems have a system of supply teachers/ leave reserve teachers/ volunteer teachers, who get themselves, made available when required by schools. High quality institutions and education providers have various strategies to improve level of teacher quality. Ho, Lin, Kuo,T., Kuo-Yen-Ku & Kuo,Yen-Lin (2008) reported about efforts for improving deeper learning capacity of teachers Such initiatives accelerate the attainment of school effectiveness..

Teacher absenteeism is also a serious matter for school development. In case of pockets having large illiteracy percentage, schools located in difficult areas are not regularly visited by their inspectors. Insincere teachers remain absent from schools for many days without any information to their higher authorities. Parents of such school children, if illiterate, generally do not bother about teacher absence. The chairman of such a school gladly puts his/her thumb impression on the attendance sheet of a teacher, which is required to be submitted by the teacher for getting his/her salary. Student absence also obstructs process of school development. A large number of poor children do not attend schools regularly. For many parents, children have to escape schooling to support family income or to take care of younger brothers/sisters. Quality of interaction between school and community influences level of school effectiveness, especially in case of pockets having low parental education. The 'Community schools' in Denmark, U. K. and in other countries keep their resources open for public. Visit to homes of students is part of duty of teachers. In many areas, the schools have halls that can provide space for organisation of a drama, a magic show, a marriage, etc. Good schools make their physical education instructors, organise of games and physical education programmes for members of the community. Similarly, art education instructors are utilised for training in art. The members of the community get education through exhibitions, film shows, debates, etc. organised by the schools.

Study of school effectiveness is an important factor. Such studies have become part of the school systems of advanced nations. "Paralleling the movement toward developing curriculum standards for students, standards for schools have also been developed for the purpose of school evaluation" (Faubert 2009, p.11). Studies on school effectiveness are carried out at two levels: internal and external. Internal study helps teachers and school authorities in improving learning of the students by improving quality of teaching and management. External study compares effectiveness of schools within a State system and in relation to schools in other countries. Findings from studies on school effectiveness are used by various stakeholders: parents, school heads, school management, school grant providers and policy makers. Findings of school effectiveness studies help to publicise and disseminate experiences and best practices and also suggest follow up measures necessary for improving school effectiveness. Sample study on school effectiveness gives quick feedback to educational planners. Efficient school systems make their school inspectors conduct sample studies to explore the level of school effectiveness achieved by the schools of the concerned system. In order to improve quality of inspectors, certain advanced nations have special tests for their recruitment. Even they go for initial training that includes special courses related to evaluation as well as mentoring process. Certain nations provide compulsory annual in-service training to make their inspectors more effective. High quality school inspection strategies influence school managements including heads of schools to promote teacher empowerment.

Teacher empowerment covers aspects such as freedom to design curricula including reading materials for students and employing innovative teaching and student evaluation strategies. According to Talbert(2003), teacher empowerment is influenced by four factors: voices, tradition, action and unity. Teacher empowerment is an essential component of school effectiveness strategies. It provides adequate opportunity and confidence to teachers to be innovative. It involves having confidence over teachers about their honesty, integrity and appropriate ability in performing their ability in performing their duties independently, without any type of supervision. It encourages teacher participation in the decision making process. "How empowered teachers are depends on their principal's leadership and the opportunities they offer them to participate in decision making" (Addi-Raccah 2009, p.161). Teacher empowerment is facilitated in a school having democratic organisational climate.

Teacher empowerment policies at various levels influence the level of teacher motivation resulting in speedy attainment of the goals of the school effectiveness. Apprehension on integrity of teachers makes the administrators operating at various levels of administration of school education do not allow teacher empowerment . Initial as well as continued professional development of teachers need to provide appropriate knowledge and resources to engage in empowering decision making(Lucey & Hill-Clarke 2008, p. 48). Developing appropriate strategies for teacher empowerment needs immediate attention of the authorities involved in the quality of school education as no curriculum can be transacted effectively without dedicated effort of the teachers. The teachers' organisations may be activated to suggest administrative strategies that promote teacher empowerment for the consideration of policy makers.

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PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF WOMEN TEACHERS WORKING IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF PUNJAB

Ravinder Kaur
Naginder Kaur
Harpreet Kaur

This paper is a study of the psycho-social problems of women teachers due to institution (school/college), area (rural/urban) and age (<35 years and >35 years) in the State of Punjab. Out of the sample of 1000 women teachers, 500 (250 rural and 250 urban) were from schools and 500 (250 rural and 250 urban) from colleges. The data were subjected to statistical analysis and the results revealed that no significant difference existed in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in schools and colleges, in rural and urban areas of Punjab. Significant difference existed in psycho-social problems of school teachers of age <35 years and >35 years.

INTRODUCTION

Since ages, women continue to feel to be a weaker section of society. In spite of the opportunities thrown open to her in various fields along with some labour-saving gadgets in the house, she still seeks a place as an independent and honourable human being. The concept of equality has exercised a powerful emotional appeal in the struggle of women to free them from age-old oppression. During the last few decades, industrialisation, urbanisation, increasing level of education, awareness of rights, wider influence of media and westernisation has changed the status and position of women. The present sky rocketing prices resulting in economic tension have aroused in her a desire to pool in her might in easing the financial and economic constraints of her life. For this, she has to maintain an equilibrium and balance between home and career. This changing status of women influences not only their role in society but also affects their interaction with their children. Today, the status of Indian women has totally changed. The number of educated women including the number of working women is increasing. At present, women are in a position to compete with men in all walks of life. Teaching has always been one of the prior profession open to women. The employment of women outside home has added to their duties and functions. The problems of women who combine the different roles of a wife, a mother and a working woman are multiple; which can be categorised under different heads as physiological problems, adjustment problems, social problems and economic problems. Although more and more women are coming out in search of employment and their families also need their income but, the attitude towards women and their role in the family has not undergone much change. Even today, looking after the family and children is generally perceived to be primary responsibility of women. Carrying out all the duties and responsibilities of home almost single handedly over strains a working woman. In addition, this perception that they alone are responsible for the domestic work, leads to a feeling of guilt when they are not able to look after the children or the family due to their official work, often resulting in emotional disorders. Cinamon & Rich (2005) reported that teachers attributed high importance to both roles. Working women's problems at work are manifold. They are not taken to be as equally efficient worker as men and face discrimination at the workplace. This attitude tends to create feeling of inferiority, uselessness or inability and leads to mental fatigue, stress related illness and high degree of job dissatisfaction among working women. Hence, women face problems like job strain, role conflict, sexual harassment, inadequate household help, financial dependence and other occupational hazards. The feeling of guilt and neglect afflict their job productivity and efficiency and earn them poor reputation as workers. Education is a continuous process of learning and teacher being the key figure and important element of educative process, is the person who transfers the knowledge as well as the positive changes to the following generation and also promote healthy training of students and their active integration into society. Hence, due to challenges in education and heavy demands made by society on teachers, for different roles, stress is sure to overpower and affect the mental health of women teachers. In the light of the multifaceted roles that women play, the well being of women should not only be viewed as an issue in social development but should be seen as an essential component for awareness. She should not only be visualised as a 'child-bearer' • and a • 'home-

maker' • but as an enterprising personality. Therefore, dire need was felt to undertake a study for investigating and exploring psycho-social problems that adversely affect women teachers working in schools and colleges of Punjab so that there is an increased awareness about these problems and also for seeking promising solutions to wipe them off to make the 'struggling lady' • take a cool sigh and march ahead in her dual life.

PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS

The term psycho-social refers to one's psychological development in and interaction with a social environment. Psycho-social problems, which can greatly affect one's life, one's work, family and one's domestic life; can be mild to most severe in terms of how pervasive and to what extent a person exhibits the features of a personality disorder. Those with a psycho-social problem possess several distinct features including disturbances in self-image; inability to have successful interpersonal relationship; inappropriateness of range of emotions and ways of perceiving themselves, others and the world and differently possessing improper impulse control. Modern scientific and technological development has created a lot of exposure in man's life. Today, human life is full of numerous hardships, conflicts and problems related to satisfaction of basic needs and psychological needs. Traditionally, it had been perceived that men are more subject to psycho-social problems because of varied responsibilities being the provider of the family. But in recent times, this perception has changed. Women face more psycho-social problems now as a result of her changing roles and bearing dual responsibilities, one in family and other at job. Various psycho-social problems like anxiety, frustration, mental illness, distress, depression, stress, anger, phobias and other various social and emotional distresses are likely to beset her. A careful and sensitive peep into mind and psyche of women reveals beyond doubt how her fears, anxieties, stress and strains warp and dampen her morale, courage and retard her march to excellence, progress and glory. She has to trudge a weary and difficult terrain all her life because of her dual responsibilities at home and at the job. Despite all her resilience, patience, fortitude and tolerance, sometime her spirits give way under the dreary and cumbersome obligation of their home and official duties. All the psycho-social problems prey upon her mental, moral, social, official and familial sphere. We can have a glance at the withering and decaying impact of the psycho-social problems on her outer and inner potential. With the passage of time, the wounds may heal but the scars remain and these scars with her aging process become more marked and more pronounced and manifest themselves in her attitude and self-conduct. Study conducted by Mukhopadhyay (1997) found that working women play a dual role in family and work place. They experience a sustained stress to cope with both conditions and hence their mental well being gets affected.

The jobs taken by women create more conflicting situation due to dual role played by her. This gives birth to anxiety, worry and inability to tolerate the whole burden. Sinha (1997) found that working status of women had significant effect on anxiety. Sheikh & Bhushan (2002) found that in a patriarchal society where male dominates, a growing sense of anxiety is imperative. The social situations that make women uncertain and hesitant also make them socially anxious. The ways the women are perceived and evaluated by others also generate social anxiety in them. The psycho-social problem that disrupt and hamper the health and psychology of working women, especially the teacher, is frustration. If the situation in unmanageable, then to frustration various aspects of teachers performances such as creativity, classroom management and implementation of educational techniques may suffer. Now, if their professional obligations cannot be met, their self-image and consequently their ability to cope up with social settings may be endangered. Bamji (2005) found that gender disparity at all levels and its adverse impact on women has become a face of life. This is partly due to biological role and responsibilities of women as mothers but mostly due to traditional mindset, which visualize women as a child bearer and home maker and men as bread winners. In the 21st century, depression has become so widespread that it has been called "common-cold" of mental illness. It involves the feeling of extreme sadness and dejection. Person who suffers from depression has depressed mood or loss of interest in pleasurable activities, feeling of fatigue, loss of energy, insomnia, decreased appetite, psychomotor retardation, feeling of guilt and

thoughts of death. Harsh (1989) also examined depression in women in relation to lifestyle and sex role orientations. Leger (2004) found that most working women who experience depression and generalised anxiety disorder are between age group 35-55 years. Such symptoms of depression and anxiety retard their success in workplace and household lives. Now, one can easily visualise how such dreadful mental ailments lead to prolonged anxiety, frustration, stress, anger and social and emotional distresses and make the women feel rejected, isolated, tense and make the situation unmanageable that affect various aspects of teachers performance, classroom management and almost all educational activities. If the professional obligation cannot be met, their self image and consequently their ability to cope may be endangered. A peep into the mind and psyche of women concludes that psycho-social problems influence the quality of women's life adversely.

Therefore, it is visualised that for drawing the best of creative talent and intellectual potentialities of women in the workforce and as well as in domestic life, there is need to recognize such psycho-social problems and study them in depth in today's changed scenario of education for seeking promising solutions and to give women teachers the worthy attention, dignity and cooperation that they richly deserve and help them maintain a healthy mind in a healthy body.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.To compare psycho-social problems of women teachers working in schools and colleges.
2. To compare psycho-social problems of women teachers working in i) rural and urban schools and ii) rural and urban colleges.
3. To compare psycho-social problems of women school teachers of age <35years with age >35 years.
4. To compare psycho-social problems of women college teachers of age <35years with age >35 years.

HYPOTHESES

1. There exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in schools and colleges.
2.There exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in rural and urban schools.
3. There exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in rural and urban colleges.
4. There exists significant difference in psycho-social problems of women school teachers of age<35years and age>35years.
5. There exists significant difference in psycho-social problems of women college teachers of age<35years and age>35years.

METHOD

Sample

The sample of 1000 women teachers i.e. 500 school teachers (250 rural and 250 urban) and 500 college teachers (250 rural and 250 urban) was taken from the 15 districts of Punjab selected randomly.

Tool

Psycho-social problems of educated working women (Hundal 2002) is divided into two parts i.e. psychological and social problems of women teachers. There are 54 test items pertaining to social problems and 51 test items pertaining to psychological problems. These test items are based on five point scale i.e. strongly agree, agree,

undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. The test-retest reliability of the tool was 0.82 and 0.84 for social and psychological test items respectively and its content and construct validity has been established by the investigators.

Statistical Techniques
t-ratios were calculated to locate the significant differences if any, in the psycho-social problems of women teachers due to institution (school/college), area (rural/urban) and age (<35 years / >35 years).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results obtained in the current study have failed to find significant difference in psycho-social problems between school and college women teachers ($t=1.74$; $p<.01$). Hence, the hypothesis that there exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in schools and colleges is accepted. The • 't' ratio testing significance of difference in psycho-social problems between rural and urban women school teachers indicated that there is no significant difference between rural and urban women school teachers($t=0.64$;$p<.01$). Thereby, the hypothesis that there exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in rural and urban schools is accepted. The 't' ratio testing significance of mean difference between rural and urban women college teachers on psycho-social problems indicated that there is no significant difference between rural and urban women college teachers($t=0.38$;$p<.01$). Thus, the hypothesis that there exists no significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers working in rural and urban colleges is accepted. It was hypothesized that significant difference exists in psycho-social problems of women school teachers of age <35 years and >35 years. The result obtained through t-test analysis, in women school sample, the critical t-value of 1.96 is less than that of the calculated t-value of 2.32 at 0.05 level of significance indicating that there exists significant difference in psycho-social problems of women teachers of age <35 years and >35 years. Therefore, the hypothesis that significant difference exists in psycho-social problems of women school teachers of age<35years and age>35years is accepted. This finding implies that age plays a significant role in determining psycho-social problems of women teachers. The present finding supports the earlier findings of Almeida (2002) who reported that young and old women differ significantly in the level of stress experienced. Chaturvedi & Purushothaman (2009) also revealed that teachers in the age range of 40-60 years, with higher experience can cope better with the job stress than their counterparts. In case of college women teachers, no significant difference exists in psycho-social problems of women college teachers of age <35 years and >35 years($t=1.31$;$p<.01$) leading to rejection of hypothesis that significant difference exists in psycho-social problems of women college teachers of age<35years and age>35years.

CONCLUSION

The following conclusions were drawn on the basis of the analysis of data. Results obtained in the current study have failed to find any significant difference between psycho-social problems of school and college including rural (school/college) and urban (school/college) women teachers. Significant mean difference exists in psycho-social problems of women school teachers of age <35 years and > 35 years and the difference is in favour of <35 years age group, whereas for college women teachers of age <35 years and >35 years no significant difference exists. This is due to the fact that women teachers of age <35 years are in the most productive period of their life. They are forced to juggle the demands of career, spouse, children and aging parents. The years of experience could be directly proportional to chronological age of an individual. By the time the women are >35 years, they have better understanding of one's family life, career and aging parents. This is because the more one stays at a position, the more one grows older, the better one learns to cope with the psycho-social problems. It is evident that psycho-social problems have adverse physical and mental health consequences on women. These reduce her energy, lead to difficulty in dealing with others and in completing the required tasks and duties of job. She has a feeling of low control, helplessness and powerlessness. Administrators, policymakers should help to create a work environment that conveys caring and promotes fairness. If employees feel that the work place climate supports balancing work and family responsibilities, they may experience higher levels of work/family enrichment as well as work and family satisfaction. Family support organizational policies may be designed to provide assistance to employees coping with psycho-social problems.

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EFFECT OF EXTENSIVE READING AND CREATIVITY ON ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Meera K. P.
Remya P.

Extensive Reading is essential for the language development. The importance of creativity is studied in many areas of Education. The present study explores the effect of these two variables on the achievement in English of secondary school students. Survey method is adopted. The results indicate that there is significant relation between Extensive Reading and Achievement in English. Significant relationship is obtained between Creativity and Achievement in English.

INTRODUCTION

With the advance of science and technology, people are able to learn through many modes other than reading. Yet, reading continues to be a major tool of learning and enjoyment. Those who read more, generally do well in all areas of academic life. Reading helps children understand how different writers put down their thoughts. This leads to better writing skills. But no one can become a celebrated writer overnight. One needs to try and venture. Many more gifted writers remain unrecognized in our classrooms. There are some feelings which are not expressed in oral communication. Even those feelings can be expressed in the form of words. So, by reading books we can improve our way of expression and finally creativity.The most popular way of looking at creativity has been to emphasize on making something 'new' and different. One can define the concept of creativity as the ability to generate novel and useful ideas and solutions to everyday problems and challenges. Creativity is an organized, comprehensive and imaginative activity of brain towards an original outcome. The nature and the quality of the creative product includes definitions of creativity which emphasizes the outcome or the product that is original, unique, valuable and novel. Guilford (1971) points out the importance of trait concepts in the process of creativity. According to him traits are properties of individuals, and hence the most defensible way of discovering trait concept at present is that of factor analysis. The aptitude traits suggested by Guilford are sensitivity, redefinition, fluency, flexibility and elaboration. Many psychologists and scholars have studied the creative process in an effort to understand it and describe the process as consisting of preparation, incubation, illumination and verification. In foreign language teaching and learning, reading involves understanding and comprehending meaning or message conveyed through the written text. An efficient reader will understand what is irrelevant for him and what is relevant in the text that he should get at. Extensive reading can be very helpful in learning a foreign/second language. The curriculum should not be confined to anthologies of prose and poetry. Elley & Mangubhai (1983) conducted a study on the impact of reading on second language learning. The results indicate that pupils who read a large number of high-interest story books written in a second language progressed in reading and listening comprehension in that language at twice the rate of those students who do not read such books.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research evidences show that extensive reading and achievement in English are closely related. Students who read independently, become better readers, score higher on achievement tests in all subject areas, and have greater content knowledge than those who do not (Krashen 1989). Kim & William (1995) studied the relationship of creativity measures to school achievement and to preferred learning and thinking style in a sample of Korean High School students for 92 male and 101 female Korean 11^{th} graders. Creativity as measured by the Torrance Tests of Creativity, showed little relationship to school performance. Constantino, Lee & Krashen (1997) studied free reading as a predictor of TOEFL scores. The results indicate that free reading is a significant predictor of TOEFL scores. Leung (2002) investigated the impact of extensive reading on adults' self study of Japanese over 20 weeks of period. Results showed

extensive reading can enhance vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension and promote a positive attitude towards learning. Rankin (2005) studied the effect of embedded extensive reading in intermediate German L_2. and reported its usefulness for second language acquisition.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Research evidences show that extensive reading promotes the growth of vocabulary, verbal fluency and general information (Anderson, Wilson & Fielding, 1988). Schackne (1994) studied whether there is a correlation between extensive reading and language acquisition and obtained significant results. Hitosugi & Day (2004) incorporated an extensive reading programme into a second semester Japanese course at the University of Hawai using Japanese children's literature. They found that within two weeks there were significant gains in reading ability in the language. Hughes-Hassell & Rodge (2007) studied the leisure reading habits of urban adolescence. The result of the study showed that there was a strong relationship between leisure reading and academic achievement. Creativity simply refers to the process of being imaginative and innovative. It is the ability to create something new that goes beyond ordinary modes of thought. Studies conducted by McCabe (1991) proved that academic achievement and creativity are related significantly. Nanda, Arti & Pal (1994) reported that highly creative students possessed better academic achievement. Language teachers can bring forth the best creative outputs from children by providing interesting activities but language teaching often fail to produce critics. It is seen that students who read extensively sometimes, fail to score good marks. So the investigators planned this study with the following objective.

OBJECTIVE

To find out the main effect of creativity and extensive reading on Achievement in English for the total and sub samples.

HYPOTHESIS

There will be a significant effect of creativity and extensive reading on achievement in English language for the total and sub samples.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Creativity and extensive reading were treated as independent variables. Achievement in English language was treated as the dependent variable.

M**ETHODOLOGY**

Sample

The study was conducted on a sample of 600 students of standard IX of secondary schools from three districts of Kerala. Due representation to gender and type of management of schools was given through stratified sampling technique.

Tools

A Comprehensive Test of Creativity by Nair and Sumangala, 1987).
and Scale of Attitude towards Extensive Reading and Achievement Test in English language by authors

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

To find out the main effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable achievement in English language, the investigators used the technique of ANOVA. The obtained F-value for the main effect of creativity on achievement in English language is 120.026 which is beyond the tabled value 3.02 and 4.66 for (2,591) degrees of freedom at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance respectively. Hence, the main effect of creativity on achievement in English language is significant. The obtained F-value for the main effect of extensive reading on achievement in English language for the total sample is 14.967 which is greater than the tabled value 3.02 and 4.66 for (2,591) degrees of freedom at 0.05 at 0.01 levels of

significance respectively. Hence, the main effect of extensive reading on achievement in English language is also significant. When

the effect of extensive reading on achievement in English language of boys is studied, the F-value obtained was 8.308. It is beyond the tabled value 3.04 and 4.71 for (2,295) degrees of freedom at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance respectively. The obtained F-value for the main effect of creativity on achievement in English language of boys is 72.226 which is beyond the tabled value 3.04 and 4.71 (for 2,291) degrees of freedom at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance respectively. There is a significant effect of creativity on achievement in English language of girls as the obtained value for the effect of creativity on achievement in English language is 50.651. The effect of extensive reading on achievement in English language for girls is also significant as the obtained value 20.651 is far beyond the value required for significance at 0.05 and 0.01 level.The main effect of creativity on achievement in English language is significant for the total sample. When the main effect of this variable on sub samples based on gender is studied, the result showed significance. This suggests that children are creative and with a creative touch, the English language teacher can lend exercises to students to spread wings to their imagination and learn the language in an easy and pleasant manner. The main effect of extensive reading on achievement in English language for the total sample and for the subsample based on gender is found significant. This shows that all the students should be provided with chances for extensive reading. Review of the literature indicated that creativity contributed a lot for academic achievement. More creative students showed better academic performance. The present study also proved the significant effect of creativity on achievement in English language. The studies conducted by Kim & William (1995) and Nanda, Arti & Pal (1994) support this finding. The investigators found significant effect of extensive reading on achievement in Englishlanguage . This finding supports the findings of Constantino, Lee & Krashen (1997) and Mason & Krashen (1997).

CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study suggest that the language teacher can set interesting and exciting problems in the areas of composition, grammar, etc. and thus can get the best creative output from children. Opportunities to express creativity may create love in the minds of children towards learning English language. Teachers can make their classes more interesting by assigning creative tasks, and thereby ensuring the co-operation of students. Open ended questions and group activities should be incorporated in the classroom activities. Teacher may try to adopt different teaching methods, instead of sticking on to one particular method. The language should not be imposed upon children, as it would create hatred in their minds. Teachers should be widely read and should motivate children by narrating stories from classics in simple English. Students should be given reading assignments. Best summary should be read aloud in the class. Students should be encouraged to read English newspapers daily and they should be asked to note down the main events. Reading clubs should be formed in the school where students could read and have discussions on what they have recently read. Children could be taken to book exhibitions and book fares and literary gatherings. Parents have a major role in moulding the reading habits of children. They could help children to select appropriate reading materials. They can gift them interesting works in English. A good library with enough reading materials should be maintained in the school. Every week, at least one hour should be kept aside as library period. Teacher may recite popular poems and ask the students to do the same. Teacher should discuss with the pupils the latest works and new authors.

The role of creativity and extensive reading on achievement in English is found significant in the present study. Reading sharpens insight and sight, widens sympathies and experiences and provide occasions for the exercise of judgment about human beings and their conditions. A life-long relationship with the printed material will help a person in every circumstance throughout his or her life. So, love of reading should be inculcated among children right from the beginning of education. Good education, proper care and provision of opportunities for creative expression inspire the creative mind. Therefore, there is a need

for properly planned, deliberate and conscious effort on the part of teachers, parents and all the members of the society to provide children conducive atmosphere for the development of creative abilities.

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ENRICHING THE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION WITH CONSTRUCTIVISTIC APPROACH

Reena Agarwal

This paper deals with the feelings of a child of Class I and many more children having the same feelings. (Based on empirical evidences). Further, it deals with the solutions as provided by Constructivist approach.

INTRODUCTION

The period of elementary school (from Class-I to VIII) is now also recognised as the period of compulsory schooling vide the constitutional amendment making education a fundamental right. The beginning of this period marks the formal introduction of the child to reading, writing and arithmetic, culminating in the introduction of the formal disciplines such as sciences and social sciences towards the end of elementary school. During this period of eight years, tremendous cognitive development, shaping reason, intellect and social skills, as well as the skills and attitude necessary for entering the work place happens. Being a parent, when one searches a school with quality education even in a big city, one gets bewildered. Because many so called private and public schools may have play fields, drinking water facility, toilet and library, but they may lack teacher - taught ratio and more important, the methods of transaction of the curriculum which are the main determinants of quality education. Here is a mental state of a child studying in a very reputed and famous convent school – supposed to impart quality education – of Lucknow City.

I am six year old and a student of class-I.
I like to play and play.
I like to talk to my classmates.
Whenever I want to share something important to me with my friend, teacher punishes me.
I do not like to write too much.
I am unable to answer all the answers correctly.
I am unable to copy down from the black-board correctly.
Why I have to study too much?
I like my teacher very much.

Approximately 90 per cent of students of this age group studying in well reputed schools, which are supposed to provide quality education, have the same feeling. The subjects of study of the above mentioned child includes – English language, English literature, Hindi, Mathematics, G. K. (with a text book), Environmental Studies (a book), Moral Science (a book), Drawing (one period in a week), and P. T. (one period in a week). With the strength of approximate 60 students in a class, the class-teacher teaches all the subjects. Quite surprisingly, the subjects like Moral Science, and Environment Studies are taught just like English literature and evaluated in a similar fashion. In each subject, the teacher just introduces the chapter by writing questions and answers, word meaning, fill in the blanks, opposites, etc. on the blackboard. The students are supposed to copy down quickly and correctly from the chalkboard and learn all the things at home. The major responsibility lies with the parents to see that whether their children are able to understand, learn and comprehend the subject matter and cope up with the pace of the teacher.

The impulse to teach everything arises from lack of faith in children's own creative instinct and their capacity to construct knowledge out of their experience. The size of syllabi has been growing over the years, even as the pressure to include new topics and subjects mounts and effort to synthesize knowledge and treat it holistically get weaker. Flabby text-books and the syllabi they cover, symbolize a systematic failure to address children in a child-centered manner.School administrators and teachers are guided by the popular belief that there has been an explosion of knowledge. Therefore, vast amount of knowledge

should be pushed down the throats of little children in order to catch up with other countries. This places stress on children to become aggressively competitive and exhibit precocity.

In the world of competitive economy the individual is exclusively placed in competitive relationship, which puts unreasonable stress on children and thus distorts values. Schools are also being drawn into increasingly competitive environment and at the same time the aspiration of parents place a tremendous burden of stress and anxiety on all children including the very young which result into the detriment of their personal growth and development, and thus hampering the inculcation of the joy of learning. It also makes learning from each other a matter of little consequence. This indicates that learning has become an isolated activity, which does not encourage children to link knowledge with their lives. Schools promote a regime of thought that discourages creative thinking and insights. What is presented and transmitted in the name of learning in schools bypasses vital dimensions of the human capacity to create new knowledge. The "future" of the child has taken centre stage to the near exclusion of the child's "present", which is detrimental to the well-being of the child as-well-as the society and nation. The school system is characterized by an inflexibility that makes it resistant to change.

To make teaching a means of harnessing the child's creative nature, a fundamental change in the matter of organizing the school curriculum and also in the system of examination which forces children to memorise information and to reproduce it, need urgent attention. To address above mentioned deep structural problem, the National Curriculum Framework 2005 elaborates on the insights of 'Learning without Burden'. The guiding principles of this document are: Connecting knowledge to life outside the school; Ensuring that learning is shifted away from rote methods; Enriching the curriculum to provide for overall development of children rather than remain textbook centric; Making examinations more flexible and integrated into classroom life and; and nurturing an over-riding identity informed by caring concerns within the democratic polity of the country. This document has emphasised on the need to recognise the child as a natural learner and knowledge as the outcome of the child's own activity.The teacher can provide the solutions of the feelings of above mentioned child who is somewhat unsatisfied, in the context of guiding principles of NCF 2005 with the knowledge of constructivism – a philosophy of learning and changing his/her attitude accordingly. For example :

I like to play and play:

This child and most of the children of this age group donot want to study. They want to play all the time. In play a person experiences the pleasures of performing a task for its own sake. Thus, when enjoyment is introduced in an activity, it is said to be done in the 'play way'. Many educationists like John Dewey, Maria Montessori, and Froebel have advocated play way method at Primary Level. All the subjects like literature, language, mathematics, science, nature study, moral and social training can be imparted through this method.

According to Lev Vygotsky, a social constructivist, play mediates the learning of children, and, through play, children develop abstract thought. Mediate means that, in play, children reach beyond their real selves as they take on the roles of the characters they choose to be, and take action appropriate to the behavioral rules that govern those roles. e.g. a child pretending to go to sleep follows the rules of bedtime behavior. As children enact in make believe, they come to better understand social norms and expectations and strive to follow them.

I like to talk with my classmates/Whenever I want to share something important to me with my classmate, teacher punishes me:

As the NCF 2005 has rightly pointed out that much of our school learning is still individual based (although not individualized). The teacher is seen as transmitting 'knowledge', which is usually confused with information, to children and organizing experiences in order to help children learn. But interaction with teachers, with peers, as well as those who are older and younger can open up many more rich learning possibilities.

According to constructivistic approach to learning, teachers and students together construct the knowledge of the classroom through their interaction, blazing their own educational paths. It means that teachers and peers can be joint contributors to students learning. In peer tutoring one student teaches another. In cross-age peer tutoring, the peer is older. In same-age peer tutoring, the peer is from the same class. Cross age peer tutoring usually works better than same age peer-tutoring.

Researchers have found that peer tutoring often benefits students' achievement (Mathes, Howard, Allen & Fuchs 1998; Simmons, Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes & Hodge 1995). And in same instances, the tutoring benefits the tutor as well as the tutee. A study conducted by D. Fuchs, L.S. Fuchs, Mathes & Simmons (1997) evaluated effectiveness of a peer tutoring programme for three learner types: low-achieving students with disabilities, low-achieving students without disabilities and average-achieving students. Twelve schools were randomly assigned to experimental (peer-tutoring carried out) and control (no peer tutoring) groups. The peer tutoring programme was conducted during regularly scheduled reading instruction 3 days a week for 35 minutes each of these days and lasted for 15 weeks. The training of peer tutors emphasized helping students get practice in reading aloud from narrative text, reviewing and sequencing information read, summarizing large chunks of connected texts, stating main ideas, predicting and checking story out comes, as well as other reading strategies. Pre-and post treatment reading achievement data was collected. Irrespective of the type of learners, students in the peer tutoring classrooms showed greater reading progress over the 15 weeks than their counterparts who did not receive peer tutoring.Therefore, whenever the teacher is busy with some other activity of school and asks students to put their head down on their desks, keep quite or asks some elder student to maintain discipline in the junior class by beating or punishing the junior students while they are talking to their peers, he/she must utilize and exploit the situation and use these new strategies. In the early primary school years, beginning has been made in the area of group work. Dewey's pedagogy encouraged teachers to engage students in problem-oriented projects and help them inquire into important social and intellectual problems. He argued that learning in school should be purposeful rather than abstract and that purposeful learning could best be accomplished by having children in small groups pursue projects of their own interest.

I do not like to write too much:

John Dewey became famous for pointing out that the authoritarian, strict, preordained knowledge approach of modern education was too concerned with delivering knowledge, not enough with understanding students' actual experiences. Each person is different genetically and in terms of past experiences. Even when a standard curriculum is presented using established pedagogical methods, each student will have a different quality of experience. Thus, teaching and curriculum must be designed in ways that allow for such individual differences.Further more, students need educational experiences which enable them to become valued, equal and responsible member of the society. e.g. one student loves school, another hates the same school. This is important for educators to understand. Whilst they can't control students' past experiences, they can try to understand those past experiences so that better educational situations can be presented to the students. Ultimately, all a teacher has control over is the design of the present situation. The teacher with good insight into the effects of past experiences which students bring with them better enables the teacher to provide quality education which is relevant and meaningful for the students. According to National Curriculum Framework 2005, the curriculum must explicitly incorporate the progression that learners make from the concrete to the abstract while acquiring concepts. Apart from computational skills, stress must be laid on identifying, expressing and explaining patterns, on estimation and approximation in solving problems, on making connections, and on the development of skills of language in communication and reasoning. Encouraging children to use language to freely express one's thoughts and emotions, rather than in predetermined ways, is extremely important at this and at later stages. At early stages of schooling there should be focus on oral activities and craft.

I am unable to answer all the questions correctly:

Childhood is a period of growth and change, involving developing one's physical and mental capacities to the fullest. It involves being socialized into adult society, into acquiring and creating knowledge of the world and oneself in relation to others in order to understand, to act and to transform. Jean Piaget, a Swiss Psychologist and propounder of Cognitive Constructivism, is of the opinion that in the developmental process of a child there is a step of wrong notions (pre-operational stage), and this wrong and incorrect notions or answers of child is the indicator that now the child is able to understand and learn the right concept. We can't expect from a student to be correct all the time, rather the teacher must accept the wrong answers of students, diagnose him accordingly and provide variety of learning experiences to remove the gaps in knowledge. Informal learning in society builds on the learners' natural ability to draw upon and construct their own knowledge, to develop their capacities, in relating to the environment around them, both physical and social, and to the task at hard. For this to happen, opportunities to try out, manipulate, make mistakes and correct oneself are essential. This is as true of learning language as it is of a craft skill or a discipline.

Why I have to study too much:

Present education system is syllabus and examination oriented. Quality of education is considered with number of subjects in turn number of books with heavy syllabus. This results in a burden on students destroying their natural development. Time tables do not give young children enough breaks to stretch, move and play, and deprive children to play/sports time, and encourage girls to opt out. National Curriculum Framework 2005 elaborates on the insights of learning without Burden. This document seeks to enable teachers and administrator and other agencies involved in the design of syllabi and textbooks and examination reform make rational choices and decisions. It also enables them to develop and implement innovative, locale specific programmes. Jerome Bruner, was one of the leaders in the curriculum reform of this era. He and his colleagues provided important theoretical support for what became known as discovery learning, a model of teaching that emphasized the importance of helping students understand the structure or key ideas of a discipline, the need for active student involvement in the learning process and a belief that true learning comes through personal discovery. Thus, according to constructivistic approach, there is no short-cut method to learning. It takes times to organize and reorganize the learned material. The goal of education is not only to increase the size of a student's knowledge base but also to create possibilities for student invention and discovery.

I like my teacher very much:

At primary level, every child loves and likes the teacher very much. They imitate each and every action of their teacher and think whatever teacher tell them is right. For teachers. the 'good students' are the ones who are obedient, have moral character and accept the teacher's words as 'authoritative' knowledge. Children's voices and experience do not find expression in the class room. Often the only voice heard is that of the teacher. When children speak, they are usually answering the teacher's questions or repeating the teacher's words. They rarely do things, nor do they have opportunities to take initiative. According to National Curriculum Framework 2005, the curriculum must enable children to find their voices, nurture their curiosity. To do things, to ask questions and to pursue investigations, sharing and integrating their experiences with school knowledge rather than their ability to reproduce textual knowledge. Therefore need to reorient and prepare the teachers accordingly. Teachers need to be prepared to:

Care for children and should love to be with them.

Understand children within social, cultural and political contexts.

Be receptive and be constantly learning.

View learning as a search for meaning out of personal experience and knowledge generation as a continuously evolving process of reflective learning.

View knowledge not as an external reality embedded in textbooks, but as constructed in the shared context of teaching learning and personal experience.

Appreciate the potential of productive work and hands - on experience as a pedagogic medium both inside and outside the class room.
Own responsibility towards society and work to build a better world.

As reflected from the above mentioned document the constructivist teachers should have the knowledge of group dynamics as to how to structure fruitful group interaction within the classroom. When a teacher guides students to work in structured teams, students become involved in the process of exploratory learning. They interact with each other, share ideas and information, develop valuable problem solving skills by formulating their ideas, discussing them, receiving immediate feedback and responding to questions and comments by their partner. Students learn from one another because while discussing the content, cognitive conflicts arises, inadequate reasoning is exposed, disequilibrium occurs, and thus higher quality understandings emerge. This is a level of student empowerment which is unattainable with a lecture format or even with a teacher-led whole class discussion. The empowerment of students produces on environment which fosters maturity and responsibility in students for their learning. The teacher then becomes a facilitator instead of a director and the students become willing participants instead of passive followers. The teacher should serve as a resource and facilitator rather than an expert. This is not a passive role for teacher because it requires a lot of planning and preparation on the part of the teacher. The role of the teacher should be to construct a platform and create an atmosphere where students formulate their own constructs or solutions by thinking critically, become actively involved in defining questions in their own language and work out answers competently instead of reproducing materials presented by the teacher as the text book. When students are able to achieve this, the role of the teacher, in its true sense is fulfilled.

CONCLUSION

Learning and development are reciprocally and dynamically interwoven processes, which occur formally, and informally across many settings, one of which is the classroom. To understand what is available to be known and how it is constructed, one must examine what is occurring within the inter-subjective spaces as participants interact with each other.

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SOCIALLY EXCLUDED PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS PUPIL CENTERED PRACTICES

Kirandeep Singh
Ajay Kumar Mohanty

A key challenge for all the innovative programmes initiated by the Central Government, State, NGOs and other stakeholders are to motivate teachers in government schools to adopt the 'joyful learning' and a 'pupil-centered' approaches associated with the revised, competency-based school curriculum. These approaches all demand that teaching and learning be geared to the needs of each individual learner. It is crucial that teacher education rises to these challenges, since repetition and drop-out are closely linked with joyless and teacher-centered schools. This is an important issue for social inclusion, as it is the government schools that serve the social groups who have so far been excluded from formal education. The present paper has highlighted the issues related with the pupil centered practices as innovative programme for the inclusive growth of the society.

INTRODUCTION

Large number of people in developing countries are socially excluded – excluded by mainstream society from participating fully in the economic, social and political life of the society where they live – often because of their cultural, religious or racial characteristics. These groups are typically poor also according to our normal definitions of poverty. The concept of social exclusion in social science literature is of recent origin. Social exclusion is a complex and multidimensional concept having social,cultural, political and economic ramifications. The concept of social exclusion is used to describe a group, or groups, of people who are excluded from the normal activities of their society, in multiple ways. Although the concept was initially developed in Europe, it has increasingly been applied to developing countries. While the precise definition varies, there is broad agreement that Social exclusion consists of exclusion from social, political and economic institutions resulting from a complex and dynamic set of processes and relationships that prevent individuals or groups from accessing resources, participating in society and asserting their rights. (Beall & Piron 2004). This definition immediately draws our attention to several key aspects of social exclusion which differentiate it from other definitions of poverty:It is multidimensional, including political dimensions as well as social and economic. Indeed, while there are complex and reinforcing processes, lack of power or unequal power relations is at the root of every type of exclusion.There is a process of exclusion and agency involved – the behaviour of particular agents and institutions leads to the exclusion of certain groups. Indeed some include this as part of the definition of Social Exclusion (SE) is the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live (de Haan & Maxwell 1998). Social exclusion occurs when the institutions that allocate resources and assign value operate in ways that systematically deny some groups the resources and recognition that would allow them to participate fully in social life (Zeitlyn 2004).Social exclusion tends to be a feature of groups, rather than individuals. These groups may be distinguished from others in society by their culture, religion, colour, gender, nationality or migration status, or caste; or they may be identified by gender, age, physical or mental disabilities or illness, or – in developed countries, particularly – by their housing or lack of it. It is relational, which means that its definition depends on what is normal in the particular society where people live. In India, certain communities and categories such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Religious Minorities, Females of all caste, creed, religion and people from rural background experience systemic exclusion in the matter of taking advantages of development. However in all these groups the nature, extent and forms of exclusion have been varied. The Xth Plan of Government of India recognizes that exclusion of people on account of social, religious, caste and gender adversely affect developmental outcomes.Though it has been widely acknowledged that simply expanding educational opportunities will not reduce the social exclusion in societies, but there is also no argument that it can definitely reduce the tension, violence, disruption, inequality and deprivation in society. In behavioural science, several approaches have been conceptualized which may be seen with multifaceted policies to eliminate social exclusion. The pupil

centered practices is one of them. There is widespread agreement that the key to the success of any policy and program is the teacher. The importance of the quality of teaching, and therefore of teachers, cannot be overemphasized. The role of the teacher as an agent of change, promoting understanding and tolerance has never been more obvious than today. Teachers are instrumental in the development of attitudes- positive or negative- towards learning. They can awaken curiosity, stimulate independence, encourage intellectual rigour and create the conditions for success in formal and continuing education. Teachers have crucial roles to play in preparing young people not only to face the future with confidence but to build it with purpose and responsibility. So every effort should be made to change the attitude of teachers so that prospective teachers towards successful implementation of inclusive policy like pupil centered practices.

In the present investigation, a comparative study was done to know the attitude of prospective teachers who belong to socially excluded groups like Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Females and Rural background towards pupil centered practices – an approach for building social inclusion. Since social exclusion is a complex and multidimensional concept, a step has been initiated by the researcher to address this issue and establish the research findings whether there is any difference between the attitude of socially excluded groups like SC/ST, Female and rural background teachers in comparison to their counterparts.

Pupil Centered Practices

One major component of pupil-centered theory is that the curriculum meets the needs, abilities and interests of students. This sharply contrasts a more conventional theory that expects all children to meet the same curriculum. It is also important to understand the term developmental. This term is often used when referring to academic readiness and achievement. Not understanding the term can cause misinterpretations and concerns about a child's growth. Developmentally appropriate practice has two components: age and individuality. Age appropriateness refers to the universal physical, emotional, and cognitive predictable changes in children. Lessons are based on developmental readiness. Individual appropriateness reminds us that each child has a unique pattern and calendar of growth. The curriculum and teacher-child interactions are adjusted to developing abilities and this includes plans developed to enable students to work toward what is age appropriate in a manner that develops the student's confidence, self-esteem, and attitude toward learning. Individually appropriate also includes challenging the more capable or developed child. Various components of pupil-centered practices are:

Choice

Giving children choices is a major component of a pupil-centered approach. It is important to allow children to share in decision making, making choices and controlling of much of their learning. Children in class are encouraged to make choices and decisions, to plan and are empowered by sharing control with the teacher in various ways. Each week a different student makes up the seating chart. During work periods, children have the choice of sitting at their desks, on the floor, or even at the library. Students often volunteer to be homework checkers also.

Academic Choice Time (ACT)

In formative years of teaching, kids could have free time when they finished their work. The kids that earned this time were the ones who were the academically most developed. In a pupil-centered classroom, choice is a planned part of the curricular day. Allowing kids is a means of meeting their basic human needs of fun, freedom, power and belongingness. When children have choice, they will engage in activities that fit their learning styles, do quality work, and practice being self-directed. If not done properly and without structure, no learning takes place and parents can view it as chaos and worthless. It would be ideal to make choice part of the every day curriculum.

Homework

It seems as though children's lives in today's society are filled to the brim with after—school activities. Homework, which is always a controversial topic, can be quite stressful for children. The idea of giving students choice can also be woven into homework, creating less stress and a more positive attitude about assignments. Homework takes on a variety of formats in fourth grade. At times assignments are given on a daily basis and students write them in their homework planners. Other times a menu of assignments is given, and the students plan out their assignments around their after school activities. Often assignments are tailored to individuals and their specific needs. Children who fall into the expert areas on the learning line in the 3-R's have the opportunity to devise their own homework assignments. This format is often challenging to kids because they have been accustomed to having the teacher give assignments. Being able to evaluate where one is in his/her learning and to plan appropriate work are more advanced skills, and are more meaningful to the child.

Student Projects

Another important component of pupil-centered education and developmentally appropriate practices is giving children the opportunity to do projects on topics of their choice. One form involves having students choose a topic within a teacher's choice. If studying planets, for example, children can choose a planet to research. The other format, which may be more motivating, is giving students the freedom to select a topic of their choice. This is more in line with the pupil-centered theory mentioned earlier: A curriculum that meets the needs, abilities and interest of children. As part of the process, there are class discussions and teacher guidance about topics. We want topics to be of educational value and not the same topics researched in earlier grades.

Learning Styles and Learning Lines

In a pupil-centered approach, it is important to understand that children are in their development stages. It is also important to understand the learning styles of children. In our class students take a learning style inventory. After they learn their main learning style(s), strategies are given for the three main styles—visual, auditory and kinesthetic.

Self-Directed Learners

A pupil-centered environment fosters self-directed learners. Simply telling children to be self-directed and responsible does not work. They have to be taught and given opportunities to make choices and decisions. In class, students are introduced to the skills that, in theory, help kids become self-directed. The formula for helping kids become self-directed learners is as follows: When we give students choices they will have some of their human basic needs met; when giving choices, children will engage in activities that relate to their style of learning; when being engaged in student choices children will be practicing many of the intellectual skills; when this happens students learn to become self-directed and do quality work. Children do need adult guidance in learning the intellectual skills and this takes time. This all sounds good in theory, but the implementation of this theory has proven successful with both third and fourth grade students.

Genesis of the Study

The teacher's work is not confined simply to transmitting information or even knowledge: it also entails presenting that knowledge in the form of a statement of problems within a certain context and putting the problems into perspective, so that the learner can link their solution to broader issues. The teacher-pupil relationship aims at the full development of the pupil's personality with emphasis on self-reliance; from this point of view the authority vested in teachers is always paradoxical since it is not based on the assertion of their power but on the free recognition of the legitimacy of knowledge. This function of the teacher as a figure of authority will probably evolve, yet it remains essential as a source of the answers to questions raised by the pupil about the world and as a key prerequisite for the full success of the learning process. Besides, it is becoming increasingly necessary in modern societies for teaching to help form individual judgement and a sense of individual responsibility, so as to enable pupils to develop the ability

to foresee changes and to adjust to them, in other words to continue learning throughout their lives. Keeping in view the above facts it seems essential to study how the prospective teachers are coping with various factors and in what way they are related and different with other socio-demographic variables. Accordingly it has been decided by the investigator to undertake a research study of attitude of different socially excluded categories of prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study has been designed with a view to find answers to the following questions:

Is there any difference between attitude of Male and Female prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices?

Is there any difference between attitude of Gen and SC/ST category prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices?

Is there any difference between attitude of Rural and Urban background prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices?

HYPOTHESES

There is significant difference between attitude of Male and Female prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices.

There exists significant difference between attitude of Gen and SC/ST category prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices.

There exists significant difference between attitude of Rural and Urban background prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices.

DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

So far as the research methodology is concerned, the present study comes under the scope of Descriptive Research. This was a status study of descriptive nature, made on the basis of data gathered through field investigation.

Field of Investigation

The field of investigation in the present study was students of B.Ed., i.e. prospective teachers studying in the Colleges of Education affiliated to Choudhary Charan Singh University, Meerut. For the present study, four clusters were taken. The prospective teachers were the primary units. The sample i.e. 120 prospective teachers were selected from three different B. Ed. training colleges of Gautam Budh Nagar, U.P. which had been selected randomly.

Instruments Used

This investigation was undertaken to see the attitude of prospective teachers towards pupil centered practices. Accordingly following tools were used for the present research.

Personal Data sheet: A personal data sheet included questions regarding sex, caste and family back ground.

Teacher Attitude Inventory (TAl): Teacher attitude inventory developed by Ahluwalia (1978). This inventory is a 90 item Likert instrument consisting of six sub-scales developed by the Likert summated rating procedure. Each scale has 15 statements that pertain to a particular aspect of prospective and practicing teacher's professional attitudes. For the present investigation, pupil centered practice subscale of the test was the tool of the research.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

It was found that male and female prospective teachers do not exhibit significant statistical difference (t=1.801) towards pupil centered practices. However, attitude of female prospective teachers (M=44.32) was better than their male counterparts (M=42.20). Although attitude towards pupil centered practices of General category prospective teachers (M=43.00) had an edge over SC/ST category (M=42.35) counterparts, there was no significant statistical difference (t=0.437) between the two. Rural and urban

prospective teachers also did not exhibit any significant statistical difference (t=0.092) in attitude towards pupil centered practices despite urban prospective teachers (M=43.27) having slightly higher mean value (M=43.16) than their rural counter parts. Thus, the proposed hypotheses of significant differences when gender based, caste based and family background comparisons were made, were not accepted in the present investigation. Attitude of teachers both socially excluded and others towards innovative programmes for quality education reflect the character of our society. Through this research investigation, an attempt had been made to understand the nature and dynamics of discrimination and exclusion. The results of the research indicated that though there is discrimination in the classroom but the exclusion, marginalization does not affect the innovative practices of social inclusion. Institutional inequality and discrimination has been a pervasive feature of our society. Many times inequality has been wrongly associated with the caste, creed, religion and gender. Indian society is getting transformed from a caste based to a class based society. Without understanding the concept of power and addressing the class structure, no society could eradicate social exclusion.

CONCLUSION

Several innovative programmes have been identified and implemented by the Government of India, State Governments and NGOs for quality education of socially excluded groups. Some of the programmes are Community Mobilisation and Participation, National Programme of Nutritional support to primary education, Decentralization, Kasturba Gandhi Shiksha Yojana, Skill based Education, School Monitoring Systems, Alternate Learning, Reading Promotion Initiatives, Initiatives for Learning Improvement and Pupil Assessment. A key challenge for all these programmes is to motivate teachers in government schools to adopt the joyful learning and a pupil-centered approaches associated with the revised, competency-based school curriculum. These approaches all demand that teaching and learning be geared to the needs of each individual learner. It is crucial that teacher education rises to these challenges, since repetition and drop-out are closely linked with joyless and teacher-centered schools. This is an important issue for social inclusion..

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CAREER MATURITY OF ADOLESCENTS IN RELATION TO INTELLIGENCE

Mona
Jasdeep Kaur

The present study investigates the career maturity in relation to intelligence among the adolescents of plus one stage. Random stratified sampling procedure was used to select the sample. Six hundred and forty students studying in government schools (Academic and Vocational groups) of Amritsar district formed the sample. There were 320 boys and 320 girls varying in age from 16-18 years. The career maturity scale and intelligence test were administered to the sample. Data were analysed by using product moment coefficient of correlation and t-test of significance for mean. The findings revealed that academic group students had higher career maturity and intelligence as compared to their vocational counterparts. Girls, in the present sample, possessed greater career maturity and intelligence as compared to boys.

INTRODUCTION

The construct of career maturity consists of a readiness, attitude and competency to cope effectively with the career development tasks. The assumption can be made that a career mature person is more capable of making an appropriate and realistic career choice and decision. Career mature individuals have the ability to identify specific occupational preferences and to implement activities in order to achieve their goals. The concept of career maturity was defined as the place reached on the continuum of vocational development from exploration to decline (Super 1955). Career maturity is thus the degree which one has reached in cognitive, emotional and other psychological factors whereby one acquires the capacity of making realistic and mature career choices. According to another definition, career maturity is the extent to which an individual is able to master certain career developmental tasks that are applicable to his/her life stage. It is extremely important to identify an individual's state of career maturity in order to give appropriate career guidance The highlighted aspects of career maturity includes: 1. Obtaining information about oneself and converting such information to self-knowledge; 2. Acquiring decision-making skills and applying them in effective decision- making; 3. Gathering career information and converting it into knowledge of the occupational world; 4. Integrating self-knowledge and knowledge of the occupational world; and 5. Implementing the obtained knowledge in career planning. Career maturity is conceptualized as an individual's readiness to make well informed, age – appropriate career decision, and to shape one's career carefully in the face of existing societal opportunities and constraints (Salami 2008). Although educational and vocational choices are made by an individual but they are certainly influenced by many social and environmental factors which include socio-economic status of the family, home and family environment, sex, age, rural and urban background psychological factors which may include intelligence, personality, achievement, motivation, interest, aptitude, self-concept academic achievement etc. Thus, career selection is not an exclusively intellectual process in which various possibilities are sorted out in a logical manner. Instead, decisions are based on the interaction of career maturity with various social or psychological factors. Studies have also substantiated the beliefs concerning the role of psychosocial variables like intelligence, socio-economic status, parental influence, school influence, needs and values as motivating factors in specific career preferences of adolescents (Vasantha 1977; Yadav 1979). An insight into the possible factors underlying career maturity would suggest the guidelines for planning various activities for the students. It may also help the teachers, parents and guidance workers for developing desirable attitudes in children. Keeping in mind the determinant and predictor variables of career maturity, the present study is an endeavour to understand career maturity of adolescents in relation to intelligence.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Selection of career and setting in it is an important task and a source

of personal gratification. In the modern age of science and technology, hundreds of vocations have been thrown open to an individual. The choice of a right vocation is becoming difficult in these days. Adolescence is the period when a major turning takes place in the life of a student because the career will depend upon the subjects selected at this level. On the recommendation of National Policy on Education 1986, school curriculum after the 10^{th} class has been diversified into academic and vocational streams. The educational and vocational decisions at this stage pave the way for future decisions to be taken by any individual in the world of work. Any wrong decision of vocational choice due to pressure of the family or from indecisiveness on the part of adolescent can block his/her growth and development in future. Therefore, it was considered relevant to study this aspect namely career maturity among adolescents. Intelligence implies mental ability of an individual.

The understanding of vocational world is vital for students as it enables them to review their career decisions in the light of their potentialities. For proper guidance in the selection of courses of studies as well as in occupation, intelligence testing plays an important role. If a person enters an occupation which requires intelligence more than what he has, he will find himself unsuitable for the type of work. The same difficulty will occur with individual whose intelligence is greater than what his/her work requires. S/he faces dissatisfaction and lack of competitive spirit in her/his job. The close relationship of intelligence in vocational choice and satisfaction establishes the importance of intelligence in guidance and education. Therefore, for the selection of a particular course of studies as well as in occupation, intelligence testing is required.

OBJECTIVE

To study and compare the level of career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence of adolescents in academic and vocational streams and of adolescent boys and girls.

HYPOTHESES

1.There exists no significant difference between adolescents studying in academic and vocational streams in respect of career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence.
2.There exists no significant difference in adolescent boys and girls in respect of career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence.
3. There exists positive correlation between career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence of adolescents.

DESIGN

In order to study this relationship, descriptive survey method of investigation coupled with the techniques of differential and correlation analysis was used.

Tools

Indian adaptation of career maturity inventory (Gupta , 1989).
The attitude scale – The scale maps the conative aspect of decision making.
The competence test – This test measures the cognitive variables in choosing a vocation.
Intelligence by General Mental Ability Test (Jalota, 1976).

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The analysis of the data was done by computing mean, standard deviation, t-ratio and product moment coefficient of correlation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Discussion based on Comparison between Academic and **Vocational Streams**
Career maturity (attitude and competence)

The comparison between academic and vocational stream students on the variable of career maturity attitude (6.996), and all the sub scales of career maturity competence viz. self appraisal (6.34), occupational information (5.437), goal selection (5.608), planning

(2.96) and problem solving (3.791) revealed statistically significant t-ratio at 0.01 level. The mean scores for both the measures of career maturity were in favour of academic group. This indicates
that adolescents from academic group showed higher level of maturity with respect to career attitude and career competence in comparison to their counterparts in vocational group. They had greater orientation towards career decision making and possessed more knowledge of their job related capabilities, about the world of work, matching personal characteristics to occupational requirement, foresight in planning for a career and effectiveness in dealing with the problems that arise in the course of career development. They were comparatively more decisive, involved and independent in career decision making.

Intelligence

To find out the difference in academic and vocational group on the variable of intelligence, t-test yielded a highly significant value of 10.408. This means that significant difference exists between academic and vocational stream students on the variable of intelligence. The higher mean value of academic group (50.48) as compared to vocational group (42.07) signifies that, those who pursued academic or professional courses definitely had higher level of intelligence in comparison to those who opted for vocational courses. Thus, the hypothesis that there exists no significant difference between adolescents studying in academic and vocational streams in respect of career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence is not verified.

Discussion based on Comparison between Boys and Girls

Career Maturity (attitude and competence)

Significant differences were observed between boys and girls on attitudes and competence scale of career maturity. The‘t’-ratios valued 3.878 (career maturity attitude), 5.399 (self-appraisal), 6.228 (occupational information), 5.439 (goal selection), 4.882 (planning) and 3.834 (problem solving) were found significant at 0.01 level and in favour of girls. This explains that girls in the present sample exhibited more maturity in respect of career. This includes decisiveness, involvement, independence, orientation and compromise in career decision making. They made a more realistic appraisal of themselves, possessed more career related information, and solving problems related to career decision making.

Intelligence

On the variable of intelligence, significant t-ratio (3.621) at 0.01 level was found in favour of girls. The mean score was higher in case of girls (49.73) than for boys (47.02). It indicates that in the present sample girls were more intelligent in comparison to their counterparts. Thus, the hypothesis that there exists significant difference between adolescent boys and girls in respect of career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence is accepted.

Relationship of Career Maturity Attitude and Career Maturity Competence

In this sample career maturity attitude was positively and significantly correlated with career maturity competence scale viz. self appraisal (r=.476), occupational information (r=.431), goal selection (r=.420), planning (r=.387) and problem solving (r=.360) at 0.01 level. This positive and significant correlation between career attitude and career competence explains that higher career attitude helps the individuals towards gathering information about various jobs and occupations, choosing a job according to one’s abilities and overcoming problems that arise in decision making. The result of present study is supported by research study conducted by (Dhillon and Kaur , 2005) who found that career maturity attitude has significant positive correlation with career maturity competence.

Relationship of Career Maturity Attitude and Intelligence

In this study, the variable of career maturity attitude was positively and significantly correlated with intelligence (r =.410) at 0.01 level. This result shows that higher level of intelligence significantly and positively associated with attitudinal variables like involvement, independence, orientation and to compromise in career decision making. This is indicative of fact that level of mental ability affects the decision making in the choice of a career.

Relationship of Career Maturity Competence and Intelligence

The coefficients of correlation indicated positive and significant correlation between intelligence and all the subscales of career maturity competence scale viz. self appraisal (r=.355), occupational information (r=.329), goal selection (r=.382), planning (r=.270) and problem solving (r=.321) at 0.01 level. This positive and significant correlation emphasizes that an intelligent person has better assessment of his/her career related capabilities and is anxious for collecting information about various jobs. This also depicts that more intelligent persons are prepared to make adequate career choices according to their abilities, have foresightedness in planning for a career to achieve the desired goal and efficient in solving difficulties that come in the way of decision making. Significant and positive relationship between all the measures of career maturity competence scale and intelligence explains that career competencies of individual are directly influenced by his/her intelligence. Thus the hypothesis that there exists positive correlation between career maturity (attitude and competence) and intelligence of adolescents is accepted.

IMPLICATIONS

As in case of planning the career, cognitive level of person is of paramount importance, one cannt ignore this aspect while opting for a career. As for every type of occupation, different types of cognitive structuring is required, students should be made aware of this and guided accordingly. As in this study it has been observed that there was difference in boys and girls with respect to career maturity, therefore suitable career counseling programmes catering to individual differences should be designed.

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PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG B. ED. TEACHER EDUCATORS OF HIMACHAL PRADESH

Vishal Sood
Arti Anand

This paper studied the level of professional commitment of teacher educators serving in secondary teacher training institutions of Himachal Pradesh. The data were gathered through 'Scale for Professional Commitment of Teacher Educators' from 135 teacher educators of 25 B. Ed. colleges of Himachal Pradesh. Results showed that the level of professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators in Himachal Pradesh is moderate. Significant differences were found in professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators with regard to gender, marital status and teaching experience. However, NET qualified and Non-NET qualified teacher educators were found to have similar level of commitment towards their profession. The paper discusses certain suggestions for enhancing the professional commitment level of B. Ed. teacher educators.

INTRODUCTION The progress of a country depends upon the quality of its teachers and for this reason, teaching is the noblest among all professions and the teachers are called the nation builders. But, a teacher can not perform his or her multifarious tasks and responsibilities until he or she is not updated professionally and personally. So, like various other professions, teacher education has assumed special significance. Teacher education is not only meant for teaching the teacher, how to teach but also to kindle his initiative to keep it alive to minimise evils of the "Hit and Miss" process and to save time, energy and money of the teachers and the taught. It would help the teacher to minimize his/her trouble and to discharge his/her responsibilities with efficiency and effectiveness. Teacher education is no longer a training process but an education strategy for enabling teachers to teach and concern for their well-being. NCTE (1998)

has pointed out that teacher education programmes shall focus on competencies and commitment in much greater magnitude. It calls for bringing out a transformation in teacher preparation strategies as well as in behavioural challenges in pupils under their charge. A sound programme for professional education of teachers is essential for the qualitative improvement of education. To improve the quality of teacher education, we should not only see that what type of students are selected but it is of vital importance that competent and committed teacher educators are given due place for this pious task of preparing future teachers. It is of vital importance that teacher educators should internalise their changing role and make themselves ready for this change. It is the role of teacher educators to prepare future teachers to be life long learners and educational workers to create a learning society. But, teacher educators can play such type of role effectively only if their own education is better and is imparted in a proper manner. Since the role of teacher educators is of prime importance for effective implementation of teacher education curriculum, they need to be given suitable in-service and orientation education.

Presently, India is having a large system of teacher education with more than 2,500 elementary teacher education institutions, colleges of teacher education and departments of education wherein more than 30,000 teacher educators are engaged in the preparation of school teachers. The NCERT organises various professional development programmes for teacher educators in areas like student teaching, micro-teaching, research and evaluation activities, upgradation of teacher education curricula and so on. The UGC also implements various teacher education programmes and offers financial support for conducting seminars, workshops and research projects for teacher educators. Despite all these efforts, there has not

been any substantial improvement in this field. While there is clear and categorical recognition of the vital role that the teacher educators have to play in preparing school teachers in terms of professional competencies and commitments on their part, surprisingly, in the total enterprise of teachers, the most neglected group is the teacher educators themselves. In fact, there is little information about who these people are, what are their motivations to enter the field, their perceptions of the area of their work, their social origins and their world view. In this regard, Kohli (2005b) rightly remarked that the study of teacher educators remained an area that was neglected by researchers. Further, Raina (1998) strongly advocated that the research on teaching teachers stands in sharp contrast to research on teaching youngsters.

Very few research studies have been conducted on teacher educators and their characteristics. A brief account of these studies is provided here. Goyal (1980) indicated that a large majority of teacher educators were favourably inclined towards their profession, satisfied in their job but not well adjusted as well as had low professional interest. Baugh & Roberts (1994) studied professional and organizational commitment among engineers in relation to job performance and satisfaction and revealed that individuals high on both forms of commitment were also high on level of satisfaction and performance. Hung & Liu (1999) depicted that stay-back is the factor which is most highly and significantly related to commitment. Apart from this, the other factors like marital status, age and tenure were also found to be significantly related to commitment. Bogler & Somech (2004) examined the distinctive relationship of teachers' professional and organizational commitment with participation in decision making and with organizational citizenship behaviour. It was inferred that participation in managerial domain was positively associated with both the professional and organizational commitment, whereas; participation in the technical domain was positively related with only teachers' professional commitment. Choudhury (2007) indicated that no significant relationship exists between professional awareness and job satisfaction of college teachers. The factors like type of institution and educational qualification of teachers at higher level did not seem to have any bearing on relationship between professional awareness and job satisfaction. Usha & Sasikumar (2007) revealed that teacher commitment is the best predictor of job satisfaction among school teachers. Shukla (2009) demonstrated a high positive relation between professional commitment and job satisfaction but the relation between teaching competence and job satisfaction came to be positively very low for most of the dimensions and for some of the dimensions, negative relation was observed. Sylvester (2010) held that the factors like gender, location of institute, educational qualification and years of teaching experience of teacher educators have no impact on their attitude towards teaching profession as well as level of job satisfaction. From the aforesaid discussion, it is clear that there is acute shortage of studies related to professional commitment of teacher educators while studies on attitude towards teaching, job satisfaction level and other socio-psychological characteristics are abundant in number both in India and abroad but most of such studies have been carried out either on secondary school teachers or college teachers. None of the studies have been carried out on professional commitment of 'teachers of teachers'. Hence, the present study was undertaken to find out different factors that influence professional commitment of teacher educators. Commitment was presumed to be a natural ingredient of teaching from its very beginning. NCTE (1998) emphasised the need for quality teacher education in terms of competency based and commitment oriented teacher education. It is presumed that if teachers acquire professional competencies and commitment, it will result in sound teacher performance. In the functional sense, professional commitment on the part of teacher-educators essentially consists not only in doing their best for introducing teacher-trainees to the competencies that they would need as teachers in school, but also practically inspiring them to inculcate values of the teaching profession. A normative view of commitment puts commitment as value-based and normative evaluation of organization related behaviours. It mainly depends on the teacher characteristics such as knowledge base, sense of responsibility, the student characteristics such as opportunity to learn and academic work, the teaching factors such as lesson structure and communication, the learning aspects such as involvement and success and the class room phenomena such as environment/climate and organization/management. If the teachers take care of these factors, they can enhance their commitment

level to the optimum. The professional accountability or responsibility of teacher educators includes instructional and non-instructional responsibilities. It was suggested that no single technique or method should be used for their appraisal; rather a combination of students' ratings, administrator and peer ratings, systematic observations and performance tests should be employed for evaluating teacher educators' functioning.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Effective school education anticipates effective teacher education. In making teacher education truly effective and functional, the role of teacher educators is most crucial. It is universally recognized that the onus of the quality of education of teachers rests squarely on the teacher educators. From the available literature on professional commitment of teachers and of teacher-educators, nothing is clear-how teacher-educators stand in terms of their commitments as teachers. No verified knowledge comes to hand on the actual nature of professional commitment of the teacher educators from the study of said kind of literature. The need for the improvement and enhancement of professional commitment of teacher-educators is now universally emphasised and highlighted in educational circles and forums. How to effect its improvement to the optimum desirable degree is the formidable problem which teachers and educationists face. Hence, the present study was undertaken to assess the level of professional commitment of teacher educators and identify the factors responsible for declined commitment and dedication among teacher educators that consequently result in undesirable role played by them in teacher training institutions.

OBJECTIVES

1.To study professional commitment among B. Ed. teacher educators.
2.To study gender-wise and experience-wise difference in professional commitment of B. Ed. Teacher educators.
3.To study difference in professional commitment of married and unmarried B. Ed. teacher educators and NET qualified and non-NET qualified B. Ed. teacher educators.

HYPOTHESES

1.There exists no significant difference in professional commitment of male and female and married and unmarried teacher educators.
2.There exists a significant experience-wise difference in professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators and
3.There exists a significant difference between NET qualified and non-NET qualified teacher educators with respect to their professional commitment.

METHOD

Survey technique under 'Descriptive Method of Research' was used to conduct the present investigation.

Sample

For collecting the requisite data from B. Ed. teacher educators, a total of 25 B. Ed. colleges from 5 districts of Himachal Pradesh were selected on the basis of convenience. Afterwards, all the teacher educators serving in these teacher training colleges were approached for data collection. Thus, a total of 135 teacher educators (46-Male, 89-Female) were selected. Out of these, 80 teacher educators were either NET qualified or having M. Phil./Ph. D. (Education) degree, whereas remaining 55 teacher educators were only having M. Ed. as their highest qualification.

Tool

The data were collected from the teacher educators by administering 'Scale for Professional Commitment of Teacher Educators' developed and standardized by Kanchan Kohli. This scale is having 30 statements which are to be rated on five points Likert type scale.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The data were analysed through certain descriptive as well as inferential statistics. The normality of data (professional commitment scores) was assessed by calculating the values of mean, median, S. D., skewness and kurtosis. In order to study the significant differences in professional commitment of teacher educators with regard to gender, marital status, teaching experience and educational qualifications, t-test was employed. The significance of differences was checked at 0.05 level of significance. The analysis of data revealed that the mean value of professional commitment scores of B. Ed. teacher educators was 98.88 with a standard deviation of 11.287. This indicates that the professional commitment of B. Ed. teacher educators in Himachal Pradesh was of moderate level. The mean professional commitment score (100.53 with S. D. 11.43) of female teacher educators was found to be significantly high ($t=2.10$, $p<0.05$) in comparison to mean professional commitment score of male teacher educators (96.30 with S. D. 10.94), thereby, rejecting null hypothesis (Ho) that there exists no significant difference in professional commitment of male and female teacher educators. Hence, it was inferred that female teacher educators tend to be more professionally committed than male teacher educators. This finding is in agreement with Srivastava (1986) who reported that female teachers are significantly more professionally honest as compared to teachers. However, there is disagreement between the present finding and results reported by Sengupta (1990) who indicated that a large proportion of male teachers had higher professional involvement in comparison to women teachers.

Marital status of B. Ed. teacher educators also seems to affect their professional commitment as unmarried teacher educators have scored significantly high on professional commitment (Mean 101.87, S. D. 10.26) as compared to their married counterparts (Mean 96.59, S. D. 11.88). The t-value testing the significance of this mean difference was arrived at 2.77 which was much higher than the table value of 't' at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, null hypothesis (Ho) that there exists no significant difference in professional commitment of married and unmarried teacher educators stands rejected in favour of unmarried teacher educators. Srivastava (1986) and Hung & Liu (1999) also reported that marital status is significantly related to teachers' commitment and unmarried teachers are significantly more committed towards their profession as compared to their married counterparts. It was found that highly experienced teacher educators (Mean 100.65, S. D. 12.04) were professionally more committed in comparison to less experienced teacher educators (Mean 96.36, S. D. 9.74). The mean difference was 4.29 and the 't' value of this mean difference was 2.25 which is higher than the critical value ($t = 1.98$, $p<0.05$). Hence, the hypothesis that there exists significant experience-wise difference in professional commitment of teacher educators was retained in favour of highly experienced teacher educators. This finding is also supported by Hung & Liu (1999) who reported that tenure of teachers is significantly and positively related to commitment level of teachers.

On the other hand, the mean difference in professional commitment scores of NET/M. Phil./Ph. D. qualified teacher educators (99.47, S. D. 10.48) and non-NET qualified teacher educators (Mean 98.54 S. D. 12.71) was not found to be significant as the computed 't' value (0.44) fall short of the table value at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis that there exists significant difference between NET qualified and non-NET qualified teacher educators with respect to their professional commitment, stands rejected. It may be averred that the level of professional commitment of NET qualified and non-NET qualified teacher educators was more or less the same.

CONCLUSION

The results discussed above indicate that the professional commitment level of B. Ed. teacher educators in Himachal Pradesh is moderate and factors like gender, marital status and teaching experience seems to have an impact on their professional commitment level. There is a need to enhance the professional commitment level of B. Ed. teacher educators so that they can give their optimum to the teacher trainees. The teacher educators should be provided healthy academic environment in the training colleges so that they feel satisfied and comfortable. The teacher training institutions should give the teacher educators

opportunity to attend orientation programmes, refresher courses, workshops etc. organized by various agencies. This will help in updating their knowledge, skills and competencies and ultimately will result in enhanced commitment towards their profession. In this regard, it has been recommended by Maheshwari (2003) that professional development programmes like seminars and refresher courses could help teachers to become professionally more committed. Further, there is a dire need that regulatory bodies in the field of teacher education like NCTE and affiliating universities should strictly initiate steps to enforce rules and regulations especially which are related to welfare of teacher educators. Healthy academic environment, more salaries and other facilities might enhance commitment among teachers. This initiation will be a great boon and boost for enhancing the professional commitment among teacher educators.

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STATUS OF CO-SCHOLASTIC ACTIVITIES IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Archana Bhattacharjee
Nirmala Sarma

Scholastic and co scholastic activities should get equal importance in school programme for all round development of the child. A modest attempt was made in this study to see what is the status of co-scholastic activities in the school programme of the elementary schools of Jorhat district of Assam. The sample consisted of 50 elementary school from three educational blocks of the district. Primary data were collected through interview schedules, observations recorded in the investigator's diary, focused group discussions with the respondent teachers of the sample schools and interview with various school functionaries. Secondary data was collected from half-yearly evaluation sheets from different educational blocks. The study revealed that co-scholastic activities have not earned a proper place in the school routine. The teachers did not have any kind of formal training to handle the co scholastic activities. There was also no evaluation of these activities either half yearly or annually. Co scholastic part of the curriculum was totally ignored in the school programme

INTRODUCTION

All round development of the child is the dynamic trend in the new educational system. The school has now emerged as a place where students acquire various skills. Effective schools follow a holistic approach to education i.e. an integrated development stressing on physical, mental, moral and social aspects. A lot of innovations are going on in the field of education. It has become child "centered". A teacher inspires a child to know things himself through constructive activities. The main function of the teacher is to help children develop their talents, abilities and capabilities. This education system encourages a child to acquire more knowledge. But this type of education has not been adopted fully in India particularly in Assam in the true spirit. A holistic approach to education at the elementary level is a must as it is the most important subsection of the whole education system. Such an approach will facilitate the total development of a child by providing the right atmosphere for learners to develop and enrich their talent. Building self-concept, self image, sense of enterprise and sportsmanship and so on should be part of the educational process. Therefore the curriculum is designed giving due emphasis on both scholastic and co scholastic area. This investigation attempts to explore how the co scholastic part of the curriculum is being implemented in the elementary schools.

OBJECTIVES

1. To know the process used by the elementary school to transact and evaluate the co-scholastic area of the curriculum.
2. To know the status of continuous and comprehensive evaluation in the elementary schools of Jorhat district of Assam.
3.To know the teachers' awareness towards continuous and comprehensive evaluation.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE KEY WORDS

Co-scholastic Activities

The school curriculum has two broad areas to take care of all the developmental aspects of the child. The cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Subject like language, mathematics, science and social studies helps mainly the cognitive development of the child. Many other activities are necessary for development of the affective and psychomotor domain. Those activities like games and sport, art and music, craft work etc. are termed as co-scholastic activities. Instead of co-curricular activities, the term co-scholastic activities are used as both cognitive and non-cognitive development can take place by exposing the child to the lesson on scholastic subjects and non-scholastic subjects.

Elementary School

The primary and upper primary schools where grade I to IV and grade V-VII respectively are target. Primary and upper primary stage together is called elementary stage of education.

Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation

The term "continuous" means regular assessment of the progress of the child. The term "comprehensive" refers to all aspect of the child development cognitive and non-cognitive. The "comprehensive" evaluation covers all the aspect of growth and development of the child which includes physical, intellectual, emotional and social. The term "evaluation" is the process to find the extent to which the objectives of the curriculum of the desired outcome are achieved.

METHOD

Descriptive survey method was used in the study. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used.

Sample

A sample of 50 elementary schools of Jorhat district of Assam was selected by two stage purposive sampling technique. In the first stage, 3 blocks were selected from 6 educational blocks of Jorhat district. From the list of schools of the selected blocks, 50 elementary schools (30 primary and 20 upper primary) were selected purposively. Instead of random sampling, purposive sampling method was used to include schools from urban and rural areas, schedule caste and schedule tribe dominated areas, and tea garden areas. A representative sample of 55 teachers from the 100 sample schools was selected. Both primary and secondary data were used in the study.

Tools and Techniques for Data Collection

To collect primary data from teachers a questionnaire was administered. They responded to the items of the questionnaire instantaneously. A focused group discussion was also held to discuss various issues on conduction of co-curricular activities in their schools. Heads of the schools were interviewed by visiting the schools. Block elementary education officer, resource teachers were interviewed in the office of the block elementary education office. Few district level functionaries and district programme officers were also interviewed. Secondary data like grade evaluation sheets, student record card etc. were collected from district mission director's office.

Analysis of Data

Data collected through interview, field note, observations and document were analysed. For quantitative data, simple statistical procedures were used.

FINDINGS

Co-scholastic activities have not earned a proper place in the school routine. In fact, no importance has been given to it in the school routine. There are no formal guidelines from the state authority for monitoring, supervision procedures in this regard. A few schools, on their own, have included a couple of classes here and there in the routine, to keep students engaged during breaks or absence of teachers. No periods are allotted per week in the routine for serious pursuit of co-scholastic subjects. There is no system of continuous and comprehensive evaluation in the elementary schools of Assam. There are two external examinations, one half yearly and one annually, to assess the pupil's progress. There is also a system of conducting seven tests during an academic year. But all these tests cover mainly the scholastic subjects. There is no formal evaluation process to assess the skill and capability of the students in co-scholastic activities. Only evaluation of art is done in a partial manner in the half yearly and annual examination As such, the student's annual report card do not have a separate column to grade their performance in these activities. Most of the elementary schools in the rural areas lack even the basic infrastructure such as proper playground for sports and physical training and separate classrooms for creative activities like art, music etc. Most of the schools accommodate all their classes in one hall type classroom which is not conducive for carrying out such activities. The concept of continuous and

comprehensive evaluation is not a new concept. National Policy on Education 1986 had given much emphasis on it. The Board of Secondary Education, Assam had introduced it in 1998 in the secondary schools. A circular was sent to all secondary schools, but it was not practised in real sense. In teacher education curriculum for both elementary and secondary stages of school education, the concept is dealt with only theoretically. The sample teachers of this investigation were found to be unaware of this concept. One major cause of this situation is that no formal training had been imparted to the concerned teachers to handle these activities as a part of the school curriculum.

CONCLUSION

Apart from scholastic activities, importance should be given to co-scholastic activities too for student's development. Previously co-curricular activities were not given due importance and teachers excepting a few, were not given any responsibility. But now, the psychological, ethical, academic, social, civic, aesthetic, cultural and recreational values of co-curricular activities have been emphasised and so due attention should be given on their effective organisation and management. Lack of proper planning, paucity of various facilities, lack of proper qualified staff, over emphasis on academic programmes are some of the problems which need to be sorted out for ensuring success of these activities.

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ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS: IMPLEMETATION OF A THEORETICAL MODEL OF PERSONAL CAUSATION IN THE CLASSROOM

Sreekala E.

This paper is based on an interventional training programme, implemented among the high school students of Kerala state. The study, by implementing the personal causation training programme, intended to help students to originate their own behaviour and to seek their own goals and to improve their Academic Achievement, not being pushed around by others like a pawn. The Origin- Pawn dimension, drawn originally from motivational theories could potentially be applied to educational settings. If children could be encouraged to originate their own behaviour, then, it would seem, they could be more of origins in school. The students were exposed to the training programme developed by the researcher for about one month after a pre test on Origin belief. A post test was then conducted. Academic Achievement scores were collected from the school records. The results of the study showed that the students improved their Academic Achievement significantly with a significant improvement in Origin behaviour which is associated with taking responsibility to control their own learning behaviour.

INTRODUCTION

India is going through a transitional period. There is a fundamental shift from traditional outlook towards education. This change is not very unprecedented, considering the vast changes in the rubric of society, its polity and economics. This is a period of open entry to all. Everyone now stands a chance to contribute towards development by their own way of changing, irrespective of the caste, creed, religion, ethnicity and gender in various spheres of the society. This is by accepting responsibilities, aspiring to lead the society, being oriented, being focused and important of all, refusing to be pushed around by others. All this can be achieved by originating one's own behaviour that is by being an origin, not a pawn. In this background, it is important to train the youngsters to walk a very fine line to be origins, not pawns, to help them to take up independent learning strategies and ultimately lead them to achieve high in academics and other fields too.

The objective antecedents of behaviour of people may be external events, but to them they are the cause of behaviour when they decide to act from personal commitment. This is personal causation. Man strives to be a causal agent, to be the primary locus of causation for, or the origin of his behaviour, s/he strives for personal causation, (de Charms 1968, p.269). de Charms adopted the terms origins and pawns to distinguish between two motivational states that are basic to personal causation. An origin is a person who perceives behaviour as determined by one's own choosing, a pawn is a person who perceives behaviour as determined by external forces beyond control. Feeling like an origin has strong effects on behaviour as compared to feeling like a pawn. The distinction is continuous, not discrete. A person feels more like an origin under some circumstances and more like a pawn under other circumstances. Origins engage in activities they value and they believe that outcomes will be consistent with their expectations. In contrast, pawns believe that causes of behaviour are beyond their control and reside in external factors. Pawns typically have feelings of powerlessness and ineffectiveness. People typically are not wholly one or the other, but rather may shift their perceptions depending on the context. This point not withstanding, de Charms's • principles are highly germane to class rooms.

de Charms (1976) derived the origin-pawn dimension initially from motivation theory, but it seemed obvious that it could potentially be applied to educational problems. The child in the traditional classroom is most often a pawn to the dictates of the teacher. If the children could be encouraged to originate the learning behaviour, then, it would seem, they could be more of origins in school. People are not always origins, nor are they always pawns. Some people are more characteristically one or the other and hence the concept applies to personal predispositions. In addition, situational constraints may interact with personal predispositions. Situations may induce more origin or more pawn feelings (de Charms 1964). In some situations people are forced to act in predetermined ways by external circumstances. In other

situations people are free to choose for themselves and originate their own actions. Locus of control (internal/external) and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation are concepts used synonymously with origin-pawn concept.

Origin behaviour is a basic motivational concept. de Charms (1976) found in his studies that Origin behaviour in students lead to better Academic Achievement. The relationship between motivation (Intrinsic/Extrinsic) and Academic Achievement is well established (Wentzel 2002). Stipek& Weisz (1981) suggested that Perceived control of events (locus of control/origin behaviour) is one motivational variable that appears to affect children's Academic Achievement. Wolters (2004) in a study investigated how different components of intrinsic motivation were related to each other and to students' motivation, cognitive engagement, and Academic Achievement. Results of these studies imply that it is possible to improve the Academic Achievement of students by enhancing motivational orientations in students. The present study was conducted in order to improve the Academic Achievement of students using a personal causation training programme by helping them to originate their own behaviour.

OBJECTIVES

1. To find out the effectiveness of the training Programme on Origin behaviour of students
2. To find out the effectiveness of the training Programme on Academic Achievement of students.

HYPOTHESES

1. The training Programme does not have any significant effect on Origin behaviour of students.
2. The training Programme does not have any significant effect on the Academic Achievement of students.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This is an experimental study conducted among class IX students of Kerala state to improve their origin behaviour through a personal causation training programme. The study intended to see the influence of the experiment on the level of Origin behaviour in students and thereby its influence on their Academic Achievement. The students were exposed to an Origin behaviour training programme(Personal Causation) developed by the researcher. The program was conducted in class room in integration with other regular subjects taught by the researcher. Stepwise random sampling method was used to select control and experimental group of students for the study. The two groups were matched on several criteria. Thirty five Class IX students of St. Thomas High School Koorachund, Calicut District, Kerala formed the Experimental group and thirty five Class IX students Perambra High School, Perambra, Calicut district, Kerala, formed the sample for Control group in the study. The Pre-tests on origin behaviour were given to the students of both the experimental and control groups. The experimental group was then exposed to the intervention programme followed by post-tests for both the groups on origin behaviour. The Academic Achievement scores of the students for different school subjects were collected from school records before commencement of the programme to form the pre-test and at the end of the programme to form the post-test. The programme was conducted for a period of one month.

TOOL

Origin Climate Questionnaire: The origin climate questionnaire developed by Koenings & Hess (1976) and widely used by de Charms (1968, 1976) in his projects was used in the study to measure the origin behaviour. The coefficient of reliability for Origin behaviour in the scale was found to be 0.868.

A BRIEF SKETCH OF THE ORIGIN TRAINING PROGRAMME

A brief sketch of the Origin training programme is given below with limited examples.

STRATEGIES

1. Model personal responsibility and believe you can develop it in students

The investigator always organised books and materials, cleaned the board, picked the trash up, and straightened her desks at the end of each class period. Debates were arranged to foster open and active group discussions. Free exchanges of ideas were encouraged. Each student • fs response was accepted as a valuable contribution.

Student-led conferences

Students did conferencing with their own parents, parents of class fellows and teachers. They prepared for the conference well in advance.

Student-led classes

Students engaged the classes with topics of their own choice.

2. Provide students with options to choose from and have them consider the consequences of each choice

After each test the investigator conducted, the low scored papers were selected and strategies were chalked out to improve the result by consulting the students. The investigator discussed various ways to handle the situation and what the consequence of each solution could be.

3. Foster internal attributions. Do not allow students to blame others for their failures

The investigator met the students individually to go over the result of each test conducted. While looking at each section of the test,

she discussed with the students why they felt they had done well or poorly and what they could have done differently to have prepared and performed better.

4. Have students set goals, evaluate their progress periodically, and decide if a change in strategy is necessary

The students identified the areas to be worked on from the previous units of each subject and the new goals for the current topic. They were required to complete an individual checklist, that included the progress they were making and how well they were doing with the topics.

The investigator reviewed the checklists, made comments related to progress, and set up individual meeting with students who were having difficulty and need additional assistance or a change in activities. The students were encouraged to make suggestions for better strategies for improvement. The investigator assisted them to make decisions based on various learning strategies.

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Origin Behaviour

The hypothesis, stating that the training Programme does not have any significant effect on the origin behaviour of Class IX students, has been tested and the results are presented in table I.

Table I

Significance of 't' between experimental and control groups on pre-test and post-test ?with respect to Origin behaviour

Test	Group	AM	SD	N	t	Sig.
Pre-test	Experimental	74.09	8.12	35	1.128	0.002
	Control	81.11	10.26	35		
Post-test	Experimental	90.14	9.48	35	4.006	0.000
	Control	81.03	9.56	35		

The value of • 't' between experimental and control groups on

post-test is significant and hence the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the students of experimental group differ significantly from the students of control group in post-tests of Origin concept. The mean value of experimental group (90.14) is found superior to the mean value of control group (81.03) on post-test of Origin concept. From this it may be inferred that experimental group improved

their Origin behaviour compared to the control group after exposure to the origin training Programme. This finding is in conformity with de Charms (1976) who found that the students demonstrated significant increases in Origin behaviour as a consequence of the training programme. It is clear from this study that the origin behaviour or intrinsic motivation in students can be improved by carefully introducing personal causation training programmes in classroom. This can be done in integration with the regular school subjects or as a separate programme. Motivational concepts were introduced as a part of the regular teaching in this study.

Academic Achievement

The results of the test of the hypothesis, "The training Programme does not have any significant effect on the Academic Achievement of Class IX students" are presented in table II.

Table II

Significance of • 't' between experimental and control groups on pre-test and post-test with respect to Academic Achievement

Test	Group	AM	SD	N	t	Sig.
Pre-test	Experimental	340.22	93.23	35	0.132	0.87
	Control	350.23	116.44	35		
Post-test	Experimental	359.91	95.97	35	1.986	0.05
	Control	321.25	112.07	35		

The • 't' value between the experimental and control groups in post-test is significant and hence the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there exists a significant difference between the experimental and control groups for the post-test on Academic Achievement. On

observing the means it is found that the mean value of experimental group is higher than that of control group. This implies that the students of experimental group were better than their counterparts in control group in their Academic Achievement.

The • 't' value for the pre-test is not significant which makes it clear that there is no significant difference between the experimental and control group in pre-test. From these results, it is evident that there was no difference between experimental and control group in Academic Achievement before experimental treatment. At the entry level, the students of both the groups were almost similar in their Academic Achievement. After exposing the experimental group to the Origin training Programme, a difference appeared between the groups and the supremacy of experimental group is evident on Academic Achievement. Hence, it may be inferred that the Origin training Programme, had a significant effect on Academic Achievement of students. This finding is in conformity with the experimental findings of de Charms (1976), Kolb (1965), Mehta (1969) and Desai (1970) who found that their experimental treatments especially on enhancing the motivation yielded an improvement in Academic Achievement of students. Wentzel (1989) documented that high achieving high school students pursue cognitive and task related goals. It is to be noted here that the personal causation training programme was embedded in regular teaching in the classroom. A well planned training in motivational concepts in classroom can improve Academic Achievement in students as indicated by this study by helping them to take responsibility and originate their own behaviour.

DISCUSSION

The Origin Pawn distinction is often seen as synonymous with internal /external locus of control and intrinsic/ extrinsic motivation (de Charms 1976) .Whenever a person experiences the self to be the locus of causality for own behaviour (feelings of origin), the person is considered to be intrinsically motivated. In the present

study, the Personal causation training helped the students in taking
personal responsibility and they improved their Academic Achievement when embedded in subject matter. An attribution training conducted by Perry, Hechter, Menec & Weinberg (1990) suggest that cognitive factors influencing students' perceived control (e.g., internal/external locus) must be taken into

consideration when remedial interventions for Academic Achievement are developed. This study confirms the results of the present study. Wentzel (2002) found that social and task-related goal pursuit contributing to personal locus of control independently contributes to Academic Achievement. Garrison & Broussard (2004) found in their study that higher levels of mastery motivation and judgment motivation were related to Academic Achievement in elementary school children. The findings from the current study were consistent with previous researches in that the relationship between motivation and academic success has been well established. It is to be noted here that in the present study, the personal causation training was given in integration with the Academic subjects. Models need to be incorporated to real classroom activities to help the students to improve their motivation and Academic Achievement. The school systems that stress competitive achievement in their pupils and base teacher evaluation entirely on the current popular accountability may be overlooking one of the most important sources of motivation, the feeling of personal causation that derives from internally imposed personal responsibility. These training programmes are not an end in itself. Students need to be continuously motivated and kept on the track to be more focused on their goals to contribute towards national development.

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PROCESS APPROACH: EFFECT ON ATTITUDE TOWARDS SCIENCE AND PROCESS SKILLS IN SCIENCE

Aruna P. K.
Sumi V. S.

The present study intended to find out the effectiveness of process approach in science on attitude towards science and process skills in science of secondary school students. There is a need for the teacher to be aware of other process skills mentioned in the science literature. These include hypothesising, experimenting, inferring and concluding. The investigators adopted an experimental design for the study. A sample of 70 students from standard IX was selected for the study. Adequate tools were used for collecting the data. The results revealed that the process approach was well suited for enhancing the attitude towards science and process skills in science of secondary school students.

INTRODUCTION

Education is very much intimate with the individuals' process of growth. It is a continuous re-organisation or re-construction of the individual life experience. Since the basic natural science is the fountain head of knowledge for the applied sciences, its importance to the technological process of civilisation is well established. Similarly, science has crucial contribution to the preservation of the planet earth which is capable of supporting and nurturing life. There has been concern not only that the natural sciences be given a role in the school curriculum that is commensurate with their contributions to our lives, but also that the approach to scientific study in the schools reflect the nature of scientific study in both natural and applied sciences. There is an urgency today that makes acquiring science skills even more important now than they were in earlier years. In this technological age, knowing how to acquire and evaluate information and know how to use it to understand and solve problems is a pre-requisite for most jobs our students will have as adults. Process skills in science are very important in teaching science to children. If the children are introduced to science properly will find the process skills useful throughout life. Process skills tend to remain with many individuals for a relatively longer period. Process skills in science for children emphasize the use of our five sense organs. Science a process approach was a project of American Association for the advancement of science (AAAS), during 1962-1968 stressed this new development of science teaching in curriculum. Today there is a shift of emphasis on the mastery of the subject through the acquisition of skills in the process of how knowledge is gained has been generally accepted. Bunsen (1968) conducted study on comparison of methods of science using process approach. The results showed that the students exposed to the process approach method scored significantly than the students who were unexposed to that method. Patricia (1971) investigated the effect of process approach on intelligence, reading comprehension and interest in science and reported about the effectiveness of process approach in enhancing the level of intelligence, interest of students. The reading ability was also found to be increased by this approach.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.To compare the mean pre-test scores and post-test scores of Attitude towards Science of the experimental and control group.
2.To compare the mean pre-test scores and post-test scores of Process Skills in Science of the experimental and control group.

METHOD

Two intact classes were selected from one school. The investigator selected 35 students each from two classes randomly and assigned one as the experimental group and other as control group. The pre-test post-test equivalent group design was selected for the study.

Tools
Lesson Transcript for Process Approach Model of Teaching; Lesson Transcript based on Constructivist Model of Teaching; Achievement

Test in Biology of STD IX Pupils; Classroom Environment Inventory; Socio-Economic Status Scale; Standard Progressive Matrices Test by Raven; Test of Process Skills in Science for the Secondary School Pupils; and Scale of Attitude towards Science.

Lesson Transcripts for Process Approach Method of Teaching
Lesson transcripts for process approach method of teaching have prepared by the investigator on the basis of process skill oriented method. The steps in the lesson transcript were: Goals; Objectives; Pre-requisites; Materials/Resources; Lesson description; Lesson Procedure; and Assessment / Evaluation.

Lesson Transcript for Constructivist Method of Teaching
Lesson transcript for constructivist method of teaching have prepared by the investigator on the basis of teacher centered curriculum prevailing in the present secondary school classes. The steps in the lesson transcript were: Curriculum objectives; Learning materials; Development; and Follow up activities

Statistical Techniques Used
The statistical techniques used were: Arithmetic mean; Standard Deviation; and Test of Significance of difference between means

Execution of the Experiment
For testing the homogeneity of the sample, the investigators administered the test of intelligence, Socio-Economic Status Scale, Classroom Environment Inventory and Achievement Test. After analysing the results, the homogeneity of the two groups were ensured. Then randomly selected 35 students from the total sample and assigned as experimental group and another 35 students were assigned as control group. For checking the initial status of Attitude towards Science and Process Skills in Science a pre-test was
conducted. After that the two groups were taught by one of the
investigators, experimental group by Process Approach method and

control group by constructivist method. 30 lesson plans were taught for the two groups. After the experimental treatment, post test for the two dependent variables was conducted.

ANALYSIS
Comparison of the Mean Performance on the Pre-test Scores of Attitude towards Science
A pre-test on Attitude towards Science test was administered to pupils in order to compare the pre-test on Attitude towards Science of the two groups of STD IX. The scores obtained in both the experimental and control group were subjected to a test of significance of the difference between means of the groups. The obtained t-value (1.02) is below the limit set for 0.05 level of significance (1.96). So it can be noted that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of Attitude towards Science of experimental and control group. In the comparison, the two groups are almost equal in their Attitude towards Science.

Comparison of the Mean Performance on the Post-test Scores of Attitude towards Science
A post-test on Attitude towards Science test was administered in order to compare the Attitude towards Science of the two groups of STD IX. The scores obtained in both the experimental and control group were subjected to a test of significance of the difference between means of the groups. The obtained t-

value (4.24) is above the limit set for 0.05 level of significance (1.96). So it can be noted that there is significant difference in the mean scores of Attitude towards Science of experimental and control group. In the comparison, the higher the mean scores are seen associated with experimental group. This indicates the superiority of experimental group over the control group in the case of Attitude towards science.

Comparison of the Mean Performance on the Pre-test Scores of Process Skills in Science
A pre-test on Process Skills in Science was administered to pupils

in order to compare Process Skills in Science of the two groups of STD IX. The scores obtained in both the experimental and control group were subjected to a test of significance of the difference between means of the groups. The obtained t-value (0.11) is below the limit set for 0.05 level of significance (1.96). So it can be noted that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of Process Skills in Science of experimental and control group. In the comparison, the two groups are almost equal in their Process Skills in Science.

Comparison of the Mean Performance on the Post-test Scores of Process Skills in Science
A post-test on Process Skills in Science test was administered to pupils in order to compare the Process Skills in Science of the two groups of STD IX. The scores obtained in both the experimental and control group were subjected to a test of significance of the difference between means of the groups. The obtained t-value (3.92) is above the limit set for 0.05 level of significance (1.96). So it can be noted that there is significant difference in the mean scores of Process Skills in Science of experimental and control group. In the comparisons, which have shown, significant t-value the higher the means scores are seen associated with experimental group. This indicates the superiority of experimental group over the control group in the case of Process Skills in Science in the post-test.

CONCLUSION

There is significant difference in the mean scores of experimental and control group for the two variables, Attitude towards Science and Process Skills in Science. At initial status, there was no significant difference in the mean scores of pretest of Non-Verbal Intelligence, Classroom Environment Inventory, Socio-Economic Status and Achievement in Science. From the findings, it is evident that the Process Approach in Science is superior to the constructivist model of teaching for increasing Attitude towards Science and Process Skills in Science. The new approach helps the teacher to increase

his/her knowledge about the outcome of teaching. In ordinary classroom teaching model, there may not been much emphasis on the development of process skills. The skill which are developed, really help students to nurture a new world in their learning approach. They feel more close to nature in their learning approach.. Teachers need to select curricula which emphasize science process skills. In addition they need to capitalise on opportunities in the activities normally done in the classroom.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study revealed that the process approach teaching is effective for proper development and understanding of process skills in science and also to develop or increase the attitude toward science. Though the investigators carried out these studies on a small sample, the findings throw light on the current educational practice in secondary classes. Science is a process as well as a product. The understanding of this process is possibly only when the individual will get thorough knowledge about the skills involved in each process. Without the understanding of skills, one cannot follow or study about the scientific process. So the students have to be trained for better understanding of skills. The teacher has a pivotal role in administering changes among children. The approach used by the teacher, therefore, should be to bring a desirable change in the student. It is seen that the positive attitude towards science is

essential for each individual to live a harmonious life in the nature. The attitude developed by the student, therefore, is beneficial for both the individual and to the existence of nature. Teachers should help the children to develop a desirable scientific attitude.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE ANXIETY IN RELATION TO ENGLISH ACHIEVEMENT AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Hemamalini H. C.

In the present study an attempt has been made to find the relationship between English Language Anxiety and the English Achievement of High School Students of Ramanagaram city. The sample was selected through Stratified Random Sampling Technique. The study was descriptive in nature and the data were collected using a self prepared English Language Anxiety Scale through survey method. A significant negative relationship was found between the English Language Anxiety and English achievement of high school students. The study reveals that very high anxiety is the cause for low English achievement among the high school students.

INTRODUCTION

The use of English language in our country has been a unifying factor. From educational point of view, English language plays a prominent role. Good quality higher education and advanced studies in many areas in science like medicine, engineering, technology etc, are not possible without English language. All correspondence of industrial and commercial life of our country is done mainly in English language. At present, in India, English language is the widely taught second language, practically a all levels of education. All the Indian universities, graduate colleges and junior colleges have separate departments for the teaching of English language. But unfortunately in these departments, a majority of students got no serious exposure to English as a language. The teachers are not trained at all in the basic methodology of teaching language or in teaching the structure of Englishlanguage. This has created a serious pedagogical and educational problem. Teaching of English language in India faces many problems. There are many good teachers of this subject in the schools, but it is sad to note that there is something wrong with the teaching of English language in Indian schools. Pupils are taught English language for about six periods a week for six years. But they hardly have the ability to speak and write in English language with minimum errors. They do not know how to use the most common structures of English language. The conditions under which English language is being taught in schools are far from satisfactory. It is true to say that in many situations of language use, there is some degree of mismatch between the knowledge possessed by someone and the demands of the situation. But, if the degree of mismatch is too great, one cannot progress further in language learning. In order to avoid this type of problems, care should be taken to teach them the language from the beginning stages. It is very difficult to say which teaching behavior might improve English language learning. This issue depends on the degree to which second language is acquired through natural development and exposure to it in a meaningful social environment which can contribute to effective learning. It is known that an average second language learner is seldom able to engage naturally and extensively in a target language environment because, the learner either lives in the midst of English language speakers or is isolated from full participation with other second language learners. Thus, almost every student feels nervous when he/she learns a new language. Particularly, the students are more anxious while learning English language. Anxiety is the most crucial factor which affects the English language learning. The principal concern in child guidance is not the abolition of all anxiety producing circumstances, but the elimination of needless anxiety is the need of the hour.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A school going child faces many problems in learning particularly, in learning a second language. English language being a foreign language and introduced as a second language in India, poses many problems to the learners in the process of learning it. As it is new and peculiar language, the children face difficulties in learning

the pronunciation, sentence structure, grammar, vocabulary and other aspects of English language. Regional tongue interference is the main problem for the children and it becomes very difficult for them to acquire the four skills of language i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. Researchers of foreign language education have investigated the effects of language anxiety on learning. Anxiety has been recognised as an important factor that influences the process of learning English language (Mirjam & Stella 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Anthony 1998). These studies shed some light on the role of anxiety in foreign language learning. They found that the college students, who were more anxious, received significantly lower final grades than less anxious students. They also give some useful suggestions to reduce anxiety in the language classrooms. The teachers of English or the enthusiastic researchers should take initiative to take some remarkable work in this field and should introduce innovative practices in teaching English language in an effective manner. In this fast changing age of science and technology, research on the part of teachers and researchers is very much essential. It is in this background, that study of English language anxiety in relation to achievement was undertaken

OBJECTIVES

1.To know the extent of English language anxiety among the high school students of Ramanagaram city;
2.To know the relationship between English language anxiety and the level of English achievement among the high school students of Ramanagaram city.

HYPOTHESIS

There is no significant relationship between the extent of English language anxiety and the level of Achievement.

PARTICIPANTS

Sample was selected through multi-stage sampling technique. At

the first stage, 8 schools representing government, aided and un-aided high schools located in the Ramanagaram City were selected through stratified random sampling technique and in the second stage, a total number of 150 students representing both boys and girls were selected through random sampling technique.

Tools

English Language Anxiety Scale and the School records.

Construction of the English Language Anxiety Scale

Some of the anxiety scales were referred and some theories related to language acquisition were analysed to select the items. The test items were written with suitable instructions to the students to make it easier to answer and to facilitate scoring. While constructing the scale, the directions to respond to each item were clearly given. All the items chosen were appropriate to the age level of the students, and all the items were specific and un ambiguous. The items, thus pooled were scrutinised by the investigator in consultation with the subject experts and experienced teachers to see that whether the content validity is ensured. There were total 25 draft items. English Language Anxiety Scale was subjected to try out on the total number of 30 students, selected randomly from two government and two private aided schools of Ramnagaram city, which follow the state syllabus. The answer sheets of all 30 students were scored. The items were scrutinized in consultation with the guide, subject experts and teacher educators. The test items were modified according to the suggestions given by the subject experts. Most difficult items, which were not attempted by most of the students, were modified to ensure simplicity and clarity and some, repeated and unnecessary items were deleted. Total 5 items were deleted out of 25 items, 20 items

were retained and the scale was finalised. English Language Anxiety Scale consisted of 20 items, with three alternatives to respond as 'Always',' Sometimes' and 'Never' and 3,2 and 1 mark was given accordingly. The maximum score could be 60 as the total number of items were 20 and the minimum score could be 20. Mean and S.D. were calculated and the students were divided into three groups as High Anxiety (Mean + 1 σ) Moderate Anxiety (Mean $\pm$ 1 σ) and Low Anxiety (Mean - 1 σ) groups.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A self prepared English Language Anxiety Scale was used, which was not standardized. The study was confined to the students of the two government and two government aided and four unaided high schools of Ramanagaram city only.

ANALYSIS AND MAJOR FINDINGS

With respect to the objective number 1 a research question was formulated and the answers were found out as given in the following table.

Table 1

Details of the extent of English Language Anxiety among High school students

Sl. No.	Extent of Anxiety	N	Percentage
1	High	36	24
2	Moderate	84	56
3	Low	30	20
	Total	150	100

As it is indicated in the table 1, as high as 56 per cent of the students have moderate English language anxiety and 24 per cent of the students have High anxiety and only 20 percent of them have low extent of Anxiety. The 'r' test was used to test the significant relationship between the extent of English Language Anxiety and English Achievement among the high school students and the details are given in the table 2.

Table 2

Details of the 'r' test for H_i

Variables	'r' value	Result
English Achievement	-316	Significant at 0.01 Level

As indicated in the table 2, the obtained 'r' value -.316 is significant at 0.01 level. So the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is significant relationship between Anxiety and English Achievement among the high school students of Ramnagaram city. The negative value (-.316) indicates the negative relationship.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study have the following implications on the present context of India in which English language is treated as a second language. The anxiety should be reduced to improve the level of English achievement among the High school students. English should be taught in a stress free atmosphere. There should not be any fear for the learners in English language classrooms. Remedial treatment is very much necessary to improve achievement level of students in English. Bridge courses should be taken in schools to make them learn the second language effectively. Teachers should be sensitive to the levels and needs of the second language learners. Teacher should help the children to develop good attitude towards language learning. Some of the innovative programmes of teaching English language should be adopted at the elementary level of education.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BUSINESS EDUCATION: AN ANALYSIS

Pradeep Kautish

Since the concept of 'emotional intelligence' (EI) was first introduced, it has been developed, adapted and embraced by the business world and very recently, by academics in business education. EI skills have been strongly associated with dynamic leadership, satisfying personal life experiences and success in the workplace. This has resulted in calls for the incorporation of EI competencies in university curricula to acquaint students with EI skills. This paper highlights the importance of EI and demonstrates the recognized need for well-developed EI levels in the workplace, and in particular for business students. It outlines recent research studying emotional intelligence in relation to university level students, and concludes with a call for university educators to integrate EI skills in their courses across all levels.

INTRODUCTION

Since the term 'emotional intelligence' (EI) was first coined by Salovey & Mayer in 1990, it has been developed, adapted and embraced by the business world and also by many business educators. EI skills have been strongly associated with both dynamic leadership (Emmerling & Goleman 2005; Goleman 1998a, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee 2002; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi 2005) and satisfying personal life experiences (Goleman 1995; Marques 2006; Wing, Schutte & Byrne 2006). In addition, EI has been recognised as important for success in the workplace (Goleman 1998b; Kirch, Tucker & Kirch 2001; Rozell, Pettijohn & Parker 2002) which has resulted in calls for the incorporation of EI skills in university student curricula (Chia 2005; Holt & Jones 2005; Low & Nelson 2005). However, the research that has been produced by academics in relation to EI has focused on its measurement rather than its incorporation into university and college courses. Thus, the purpose of this paper is twofold. First, it aims to draw attention to this anomaly by highlighting the importance of EI as recognised by business, particularly by the business profession, and the limited business education literature in the area. Secondly, it is hoped that business educators, and in particular, those involved in teaching business courses, will promote EI skills in their courses, or alternatively, share with the wider academic community what they are already doing to promulgate these skills by publishing in the area. This paper begins by providing a brief history of EI in relation to business and the researchers who have contributed to the field. The second section demonstrates the recognised need for emotional intelligence in the workplace, and in particular for business management professionals. Following this, attention is drawn to the literature investigating EI and its relationship to education. The final section highlights the large number of studies measuring EI as opposed to the limited papers published in relation to EI skills in university courses, and urges business academics to do more to follow the recommendations of the professional bodies and incorporate EI into their curricula.

HISTORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The concept of 'emotional intelligence' was first described as a form of social intelligence 'that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions' (Salovey & Mayer 1990, p. 189). Salovey & Mayer recognized the connection between two underlying components of personality, cognition and emotion. This relatively narrow definition of EI, as the ability to understand how others' emotions work and to control one's own emotions, was widened by Goleman to include such competencies as optimism, conscientiousness, motivation, empathy and social competence (Goleman 1995, 1998b). In two articles in the Harvard Business Review, Goleman extended the concept of EI to the business world. First, from his research concerning almost 200 large, global companies, he reported that 'truly effective leaders are distinguished by high degree of emotional intelligence' (Goleman 1998a, p. 82). Secondly, by drawing on the experiences of over 3000 executives, he again demonstrated the link between EI and leadership and

concluded that leaders can 'increase their quotient' of leadership styles by understanding which 'emotional intelligence competencies underlie the leadership styles they are lacking' and working to develop them (Goleman 2000, p. 90). Goleman and his colleagues further adapted the concept of EI to the business world by describing its importance as an essential ingredient for business success (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee 2002; Goleman 2004; Mayer, Goleman, Barrett & Gut-stein 2004). In addition, there is also an increasing body of literature that 'refers to emotional intelligence ... as [an] intrinsic contemporary leadership concept' (Marques 2006, p. 885; see also Holt & Jones 2005; Johnson 2005; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle 2006). The conclusion is that different leadership roles require different types of EI skills.

EI IN THE WORK PLACE

The most important qualities that characterize effective leaders include integrity, maturity, business acumen and social skills (Charan & Colvin 1999), which are also EI traits. However, the traditional recruitment of business graduates put more emphasis places on intelligence quotient (IQ) measures than EQ measures (Siegel & Sorensen 1994). This is despite the fact that firms often invest significant amounts of time and money in the recruitment process (Moncada & Sanders 1999). This is particularly true in the business discipline. However, the quandary in which firms find themselves is that they spend all this money on recruitment only to find there is a high turnover of graduates, resulting in a shortage of seniors and managers. To overcome this problem, firms need to hire entry-level graduates who will stay with the firm and move through the internal promotion process rather than seeking external promotion. This in turn will lower the employee turnover rate, increase job satisfaction and improve moral. But, in order to do this, firms need to use recruitment strategies that go beyond merely assessing IQ measures and technical skills because 'even in entry-level positions, IQ cannot reliably distinguish average and star performers' (Emmerling & Goleman 2005, p. 9). This was shown by the Moncada & Sanders (1999) US study of the perceptions of business students, academics and employers in relation to the characteristics considered most important in the recruitment process. While grade point average topped the list for getting to the first interview, in order to be invited for a second interview graduates needed to display interpersonal skills, compatibility with the firm, oral communication skills, enthusiasm and maturity. These results acknowledge the importance of EI competencies. However, few formal business education programs emphasis the attainment of these skills. Thus, much of EI training is left to the employer, and requires a significant commitment to the process by the employers, both in terms of time and finances (Kirch, Tucker & Kirch 2001). To this end, management must communicate to employees that success will be measured by the appropriate adoption of critical EI skills. This will then have a snowball effect because those who see their colleagues being rewarded for successfully demonstrating EI skills will be more willing to seek training for them. The importance of EI skills in the business workplace is highlighted by the very nature of the job. Business professionals work both by themselves and in teams. Personal EI skills of self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation (Goleman 1998b) are essential if individuals are to recognize their owns strengths and weaknesses, develop good self esteem, maintain integrity, demonstrate flexibility, take responsibility for their own actions, take initiative and strive for excellence. Interpersonal EI skills such as empathy and social ability are at the heart of handling relationships. They involve understanding the needs of others, implementing successful conflict management strategies, listening and leadership. Thus EI is an essential ingredient for a productive workplace (Smigla & Pastoria 2000). Furthermore, the importance of EI skills has been recognized by many professional associations and bodies working on different spheres of business. It has been asserted that although literature has given little attention to behavioral issues in the past, today 'many organizations and researchers are recognizing that emotional intelligence skills are critical to success' (Akers & Porter 2003, p. 66). Akers & Porter also reported that a Harvard Business School study of its graduates revealed there was little or no significant correlation between career success and IQ. This is consistent with the contention that measures such as IQ and grade point averages lack predictive ability,

and that it is EI which provides the missing link between university results and career success (Chen, Jacobs & Spencer 1998; Goleman 1995, 1998b). But the recognition of the importance of EI has not been limited to the US. Writing in the UK publication Accountancy Age, Darling asserted that 'it is necessary for accounting firms to ensure their staff are developed to become more emotionally intelligent' which will 'create a better working environment' (Darling 2000, p. 24). Chia (2005) studied the recruitment process in UK firms and identified that the demonstration of EI competencies enhanced the graduate's performance in the interview process. He suggested that 'technical academic skills become less effective due to the speed of changes in the global business environment' (Chia 2005, p. 87). Thus, published research advocates that recruiters are looking for EI skills and these competencies provide an excellent framework for assisting business graduates to find a job and succeed in the workplace. However, counselors working with undergraduates 'usually focus on career management and job search skills and neglect the development of EI skills' (Liptak 2005, p. 171). Similarly, the need for EI training as a part of university level education has been given only limited attention in recent calls for change to the business curricula, with the main focus being on content and delivery change (see for example, Albrecht & Sack 2000; Siegel & Sorensen 1994). Nevertheless, it is essential that universities produce graduates who have 'the right mix of soft-skill competencies and knowledge needed to perform well in the changing economy' (Chia 2005, p. 87). This recommendation is supported by Emmerling & Goleman (2005) who argued that although EI may be learnt to some extent through life experience, 'without sustained effort and attention, people are unlikely to improve their emotional intelligence' (Emmerling & Goleman 2005, p. 9). They contended that

> "completing rigorous graduate programs, passing testing, and gaining credentials ensure that those who pass such hurdles are of above-average intelligence. ... However, simply having a superior IQ does not

EI SKILLS AND UNIVERSITY LEVEL STUDENTS

It is appropriate that academic development be the prime goal of universities. However, a tertiary education should also be providing graduates with the skills to succeed in the workplace and in their personal lives. Furthermore, there is a significant body of research which indicates that EI and other non-traditional measures are just as predictive of success as traditional IQ tests (Lomax, Jackson & Nelson 2004; Low & Nelson 2005; Stottlemyer 2002). A comprehensive search of the academic literature concerning EI and university students only produced journal articles published since 2000, which demonstrates the increasing recent interest in the area. The literature itself fell into two categories. The largest of these consisted of studies which have concerned the measurement of students' EI skills, all of which concluded that EI skills should be incorporated into university education in order to prepare students for success in the workplace. The second group of articles, and by far the smaller, concern the actual assimilation of these skills into courses. This group can be further sub-divided into two: those proposing how EI skills can be integrated and those reporting on the actual integration.

The published studies measuring the EI skills of business students all concluded that these skills should be incorporated into the university courses. For example, after evaluating the EI of undergraduate business majors, Ro-zell, Pettijohn & Parker (2002) concluded that 'emotional intelligence should be included within the core skills taught in training and development programs' at university (Rozell et al. 2002, p. 287). In addition, Vela (2003), who studied the role of EI in academic achievement for his doctoral dissertation, asserted that 'it is imperative that students are provided with early interventions that involve emotional intelligence skills building' (Vela 2003, p. 130). A study of the EI levels of business students found that the non-accounting majors demonstrated significantly higher levels of EI than the accounting majors, even though accounting majors had significantly higher grade point averages (Esmond-Kiger, Tucker & Yost 2006). The researchers suggested that this may mean that particular attention should be paid to improve EI competencies of business students and graduates in early

employment. This is consistent with the growing recognition within the management profession of the need to develop a good interpersonal and EI skills base at university level. One of the three studies which reported on the integration of EI skills was Esmond-Kiger & Kirch (2003). They described the implementation of the 'Business Activity Model' in their intermediate business course. This involved adopting a problem-based learning approach which enabled teachers to provided students with 'rich opportunities to gain the interpersonal skills currently demanded by the management profession' (Esmond-Kiger & Kirch 2003, p. 53). Apart from more motivated students, two other results were reported. First, that the changes were noticed by recruiters as evidenced by more offers of employment opportunities for the business graduates and secondly, the university as experienced an increase in the number of students choosing to do an accounting major. In the second of these studies, where EI skills were introduced in the assessment component, it was concluded that 'students in leadership courses should be more than simply bystanders when studying the impact of emotions and emotional intelligence on performance' but requires 'active personal involvement' (Ashkanasy & Dasborough 2003, p. 21). Similarly in the third study on the integration of the teaching of EI competencies, Brown (2003) found that understanding their own emotions allowed students to improve their interpersonal skills and build trust and empathy.

CONCLUSION

The research on emotional intelligence has indicated that training in appropriate skills is essential for preparing people for career success and fulfillment. Thus, it is important that business students graduate with well-honed levels of emotional intelligence. It is a prime responsibility of educators to convert theories and research into practical applications in the management courses (Myers & Tucker 2005). Therefore, as research has determined that university level students need EI skills and ways of achieving this have been theorised, it is now necessary for management educators to actually implement these changes into their educational programs. Business educators, in particular, have the responsibility to provide their graduates with a strong foundation in both technical and emotional training so that they will be well-rounded individuals, and hence worthy employees, effective managers and dynamic leaders.

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BOOK REVIEW

A Review of National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education: Towards Preparing Professional and Humane Teacher, Authored and Published by National Council for Teacher Education, New Delhi, 2009, Pages 93

Sunil Behari Mohanty

Every nation gives stress on teacher quality. Although teachers make a difference, there are many questions about how teachers are being prepared and how they ought to be prepared (USA NRC 2010, p.1). Effective curriculum frameworks for initial teacher training have their base in well defined standards for various categories of school teachers. A number of countries have developed standards for various levels of school teachers. Standards are essential to provide the basis for the formulation of the courses of studies. UK: TDA (2007) Professional Standards for Teachers in England, effective from September 2007, are available for five tasks: 1. Award of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Q); 2. Teachers on the main scale (Core) (C); 3. Teachers on the upper pay scale (Post Threshold Teachers) (P); 4.Excellent Teachers (E); and 5. Advanced Skills Teachers (ASTs) (A). The standards are arranged in three inter-related sections: 1. Professional Attributes; 2. Professional Knowledge and Understanding; and 3. Professional Skills. In the USA, professional standards for teachers and school leaders vary from State to State. Its State of New Jersey has 10 different sets of standards and each standard has three components: (a) Knowledge, (b) Disposition and (c) Performance.

In India, although national or state level standards for various categories of school teachers and teacher trainees are not available, at the national level, there have been three printed curriculum framework documents. The first printed curriculum framework for teacher education was brought out in 1978 (NCERT 1978). After ten years, in 1988 NCERT brought out a curriculum framework in cyclostyled form (NCERT:NCTE 1988a &b). The National Council for Teacher Education, the statutory body of the Government of India for teacher education, brought out a printed version of curriculum framework in 1998 (NCTE 1998). After bringing out a curriculum framework for school education in 2000, NCERT brought out a curriculum framework for teacher education in 2004 (NCERT 2004). After NCERT modified its School Curriculum Framework in 2005, NCTE and NCERT jointly brought out a Discussion document for Curriculum Framework in 2006(NCTE-NCERT 2006). Basing on the feedbacks received, NCTE attempted to bring out a new version of curriculum framework, which resulted in two incomplete documents - one in 2007 (NCTE 2007) and the other in 2008 (NCTE 2008). Finally, towards the end of 2009, NCTE published • "National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education: Towards Preparing Professional and Humane Teacher", which is being reviewed here.

In order to develop teacher training curricula, many nations carry out sample evaluation of their teacher training programmes. They study the opinions of the stake holders such as the directors of school education in the states, school inspectors, school managers and heads of schools. During 2000-2005, the American Educational Research Association commissioned a 14-member panel to study teacher education policies and practices, especially the impact on professional performance, students • f learning and other important school outcomes (Cochran-smith & Zeichner 2005). The areas covered by the study were: (a) Teacher education in changing times: politics and paradigms; (b) Teacher characteristics: the demographic profile and the indicators of quality; (c) Effects of coursework in the arts and sciences and the foundations of education; (d) Methods courses and field experiences; (e) Pedagogical aspects ; (f) Preparing teachers for diverse populations; (g) Preparing general education teachers to work with students with disabilities; (h) Accountability processes in teacher education; and (i) Teacher education programmes. The Report has also suggested a research agenda for teacher education. While reporting

promising lines of research, the document stated that • g • c the body of teacher education research that directly addresses desirable pupil and other outcomes and the conditions and contexts within which these outcomes are likely to occur is relatively small and inconclusive • h (p.5). A recent study conducted by the National Research Council of the USA commissioned by the US Department of Education suggested research on the sources of the variation in traditional and alternate mode of teacher preparation in respect of preparation, such as selectivity, timing, and specific components and characteristics. It did not appreciate current mechanisms for accountability and quality control in teacher education in USA and suggested an independent evaluation by the US Department of Education (US:NRC 2009, p.3). A study of teacher education in Canada (Crocker, Duibbon & Raham 2008) conducted during 2007-2008, covered (a) Structure, (b) Content, (c) Teaching knowledge and skills, (d) The practicum, (e) Preparedness for teaching, and (e) Collaboration with the school. The data were obtained from surveys of representative samples of recent graduates, school principals and education faculty members. The study pointed out necessity for undertaking large scale, longitudinal and comparative studies and developing a common vision for teacher education which articulates core content and competencies, finding better ways to support and mentor novice teachers, and developing stronger models of collaboration between faculties of education and the school system they serve (p.11). In Indian situation, during late nineties, NCTE was able to bring out State reports on teacher education. These might have given inputs for development of curriculum framework of 1998. Such an exercise might have been useful for the teacher education curriculum, developed after a decade. Findings of studies comparing initial teacher training curricula of various States and UTs with the curricula in developed countries might have benefited the present curriculum framework document.

The Curriculum Framework of Teacher education of 2009 has six chapters. The first chapter • "Context, concerns and vision of teacher education" deals with (a) The changing school context and its demands; (b) Present teacher education scenario; (c) Teacher education reform perspectives: past and present; (d) Systemic concerns of teacher education; (e) Professionalisation of teacher education; (f) Preparing teacher educators; (g) Research and innovation; (h) Open and distance learning in teacher education; (i) Education of teachers in health and physical education; (j) Education of teachers for vocational education; and (k) Vision of teachers and teacher education. This chapter has mentioned about decline in the quality of the State school system. • "Increasing privatisation and differentiation of the school system have vitiated drastically the right to quality education for all children" (p.4). Privatisation is taking place with the approval of the government. Hence, it might have been better, if the document would have mentioned about the strategies to be followed by the examining bodies to ensure quality in initial teacher training, in view of large scale privatisation in certain States and UTs. The document has stated that • "para teachers pose a far more serious challenge to the provision of free and compulsory education of quality to all children" (pp.5-6). Para teacher scheme is a government scheme. Instead of criticising the scheme, it would have been better, if the document would have mentioned about the strategies to be followed by the government agencies to provide initial training to these para teachers. The document has also highlighted the curricular burden on school children and lack of coherence in the curriculum structure often dissociated from the personal and social milieu of children (p.4). It might have been better, if the document would have mentioned the strategies to be employed in initial teacher training programmes to develop the skills in the teacher trainees for tackling the curriculum load issues. School curricula are framed by various national and state level school boards. The document has pointed out merits of National Curriculum Framework developed by NCERT (p.4) and has discussed about deterioration of the quality of school education, but has not discussed strategies to develop skills in teacher trainees to check deterioration of the system. The document has mentioned about problems in teacher preparation such as failure to make connections with children and respond to their needs and imaginative ways (p.4). It has mentioned that • "dilution of emphasis on public investment in initial teacher education since the 1990s has led to a large scale recruitment of unqualified and under-qualified persons in the formal school system" (p.6). Such criticisms are based on observation of a few practices, but cannot be generalised, especially, when findings of national level evaluation of quality of initial teacher training programmes are not available. Commenting on function of centrally sponsored scheme of teacher education, the document

has stated that • "The capacity of both CTEs and IASEs in performing their mandated roles has more recently come under serious scrutiny" (p. 5). This criticism on the central government scheme may be valid, but is irrelevant for this document on teacher training curriculum. At page 8, while discussing elementary teacher education reform, the document has stated that • "The Curriculum Frameworks thus far developed provide guidelines that are too general and do not address the stage specific training needs of elementary teachers. The Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (1998) was perhaps the first to have provided stage- specific guidelines". These statements might have been suitably refined, to make them clearer.

The second chapter "Curricular areas of initial teacher preparation" gives a flow chart of the proposed curricular areas. The curricular area: A -'Foundations of Education' covers (a) Childhood, child and adolescent development and learning; (b) Contemporary studies: (i) teacher and learner in society; and (ii) gender, school and society; (c) Educational studies: i) aims of education, knowledge and values; (ii) developing the self and aspirations as a teacher. The curricular area B • 'Curriculum and Pedagogy' covers (a) Curriculum studies: (i) knowledge and curriculum; and (ii) language proficiency and communication; (b) Pedagogic studies: School knowledge, learner and pedagogy; and (c) Assessment and evaluation studies. The curricular area C covers School internship. The document then discusses on • "Time as a critical factor in teacher preparation". Next, it discusses certain • "commonly held" criticisms (p.45). These criticisms may be true for specific situations, but may not be applicable for all programmes and institutions. The document has stated that • "It is perhaps high time that we pay heed to the specific suggestion of increasing the duration of initial teacher education, recommended by the two most significant policy Commissions of post-independence India, namely the Kothari Commission (1964-66) and the Chattopadhyaya Commission 1983-85"(p.45). The actual wordings found in the Report of the Education Commission 1964-66 are:

> "At the secondary stage, where the duration of the course is only one year, it has been suggested that it should be increased to two years, to do justice to the existing heavy courses. From a financial and practical point of view, this does not seem feasible. However, it is possible to make better use of the existing duration by extending the working days in the academic year from the existing level of 180-190 days to 230 days." (Kothari 1966, Art.4.15, p.132)

The National Commission on Teacher Education I, after coming to conclusion that more time be made available for B.Ed. programme stated that • "We are of the view that the two summer months may be added to the academic year ensuring a working year of 220 days. An increase in the working hours per day may also be considered" (Chattopadhyaya 1985, Art. 7.09, p.49). As part of 'Redesigning current teacher education programmes', the framework document has suggested that • "initial teacher education be of 4 year duration after senior secondary; or 2 years duration after a Bachelor's degree programme • h (p. 46), without noticing that number of years, a teacher trainee, after passing sr. secondary, spends in the first case is four years and in the second case, it is five years. Hence, these two course products may not be accepted as equivalent. After explaining the teacher education curricular areas table, the document has given example of a four year integrated programme offered by the University of Delhi. It would have been better if the document would have quoted findings of studies which have indicated effectiveness of such a programme. It has stated that in case of DIETs, • "the faculty appointed does not possess qualifications or experience in elementary teacher education". It has failed to mention about necessity for school teaching experience of the faculty of secondary teacher education institutions although Kothari (1966, p. 129) and Mudaliar (1953, p.168) pointed out such necessities. Mudaliar (1953, p. 167) even suggested that M.Ed. courses should admit trained graduate teachers having normally a minimum of three years teaching in a school. The NCTE document, being reviewed, in its suggested Redesign for D. Ed. two year Diploma after +2 and one year B. Ed. degree after graduation, has mentioned three areas: A: Foundations of education, B: Curriculum and pedagogy and C: School internship. The school internship has suggested • "Visits to innovative centres of pedagogy and learning, wherever feasible" (p.48). This statement indicates that the Framework has not made this visit compulsory for all. The document has mentioned school internship for 4 days a week. It has not explained what is wrong with the system where

internship is provided on all the working days continuously. It also has not stated in what manner the remaining days of the week are to be utilised. It has suggested a minimum period of 6-10 weeks including an initial phase of observing a regular classroom. The document has suggested minimum duration of internship of 6-10 weeks for a two year programme and 15-20 weeks for a four year programme. It has not spelt out the reasons for which it has suggested a range in duration. It might have been better, if the document would have spelt out the reasons for which, the document has suggested variation in ranges of school teaching experience between two year programme and four year programme; although the products are expected to do the same work. On the same page, the document has stated that "While functioning as a regular teacher for a sustained period of a minimum 12-20 weeks, the interns would get an opportunity to learn to ...(p.41). The duration mentioned here does not match with the duration suggested earlier, on the same page 41. The document has not clarified the difference. The document has suggested 4 unit plans per subject. The first printed curriculum framework for teacher education (NCERT 1978) had mentioned three areas in its proposed teacher education programmes - (a) Pedagogical theory (20%), (b) Working with community (20%) and (c) Content-cum-methodology and practice teaching including related practical work (60%). The weightages for pre-school, primary and secondary teacher education programmes were same. In case of higher secondary and collegiate courses, the weightages were a (30%), b (20%), and c (50%). Subsequent curriculum frameworks including the present one have not mentioned the weightages and have not given special status to 'Working with community'. The suggestion for separate courses for initial teacher training for teaching higher secondary and collegiate stages found in certain earlier curriculum frameworks has not been found, in case of the present NCTE document..

The third chapter is • "Transacting the curriculum and evaluating the developing teacher" gives a table comparing the dominant current practices and proposed process based teacher education curriculum framework. Its section on transacting the teacher education curriculum discusses aspects: (a) Teaching the adult learner; (b) Bringing the learners • f own experience centre-stage; (c) Engagement with theoretical concepts and frameworks, (d) Training to be reflective practitioners; (e) Theory-practice dialectic, and (f) Meaningful internship and school experience. In its section on Need for complementary structures and mechanism, it has suggested establishment of Teacher Learning Centres (TLC) in every teacher training institution. As per the document has stated that a TLC would provide (a) Structural space for hands-on experience; (b) A resource for teacher trainees, teacher practitioners and teacher educators; (c) A forum for innovation and sharing; (d) A platform for classroom-based research; (e) A structural space for self-directed activities; (f) A platform for developing a repertoire of skills; (g) A structural space for the personal and psychological development of teachers; and (h) A structural space for forging links between pre-service and in-service teacher education. The section on • 'Evaluating the developing teacher' has made brief discussion on the comprehensive nature of evaluation. The section on • 'evaluation protocol' has covered areas: (a) Observing learners for a specified duration in specific situations; (b) Observational records maintained by the student teacher on a set of criteria relevant to the task and report writing; (c) School contact practicum to relate and communicate with the learner; (d) Planning for the school contact; (e) Post contact discussions, report writing and group presentations; (f) Psychological and professional development of the teacher; (g) Assessing a repertoire of skills; (h) Understanding the learner, curricular and pedagogic issues; (i) Teacher as researcher; (j) Internship activities on which students (student teachers?) may be assessed; and (k) Reflective journal. At the end of this chapter, the document has discussed on • 'Designing instruments of evaluation and assessment' and • 'Preparation of a scheme for continuous and comprehensive evaluation'.

The fourth chapter • "Continuing professional development and support for in-service teachers" would have been more appropriate as a separate document, may be with the title • "Guidelines for Continuing Professional Development and Support for Teachers". In the • 'Introduction' section, the Curriculum framework document has stated that • "Following the Kothari Commission Report, school clusters were created in several states to forge inter-linkages between primary, middle and high schools' (p.63). But

Kothari Commission had suggested • 'School complexes'. not • 'school clusters'. A few other statements that might not be accepted by all sections of the teacher education community are:

> Teachers' involvement in textbook preparation and indeed even in the preparation of training modules has grown over the years. Teachers themselves have opportunities to work in the Block and Cluster Resource Centres as well as to contribute to training as Resource persons. They are also members of committees formulating educational policies. NGO initiatives in several parts of the country have developed and implemented models of teacher professional development and support in ways that directly impact the classroom practice. • h(p.64)

The document has criticised the effectiveness of government run in-service programmes. • "Evidence of • 'effectiveness' of training programmes and support activities, especially within the government system, continues to be only anecdotal and impressionistic, and even contrary, depending on who is asking the questions or doing the observation"(p.64). The second section of this chapter has dealt with aims of continuing professional development programmes for teachers. Third section has covered • 'Designing inservice programmes: some principles'. The fourth section • 'Routes towards teachers' continuing professional development' has suggested short and long term courses. While recommending provision for sabbatical for study and research, it has suggested encouragement for small research projects and case studies through which teachers can reflect on, share and develop their practice. The document has stated that "At the same time, the insistence that teachers must carry out action research is not productive, particularly in a context where there is little understanding of action research, and virtually, no forum to share such research"(pp.68-69). This statement appears odd in view of the fact that on pages 27 and 37; the document has recommended classroom based research that includes action research. The document has suggested encouragement for participation in professional conferences and meetings, providing professional fora, resource rooms and materials; and making provision for faculty exchange visits and fellowships. Discussion on • 'Organization of continuing professional development programmes' carried out in the fifth section deals with (a) Organisation and coordination; and (b) Sites and agencies. The section 6 covers • 'Impact' and the last section covers • 'Structural and operational issues of continuing professional development'.

The fifth chapter "Preparing teacher educators" might have been more justified as a separate document. NCERT (1988, p. iii) stated that • "It excludes M. Ed. / M. Phil. / M. A. (education) programmes as these are not considered primarily as teacher preparation courses". The chapter 5 of the present NCTE document has eight sections. In the first section 'Introduction', the document has stated about shortage of properly qualified and professionally trained teacher educators. This assumption may not be true; as such candidates prefer to work in schools than join private teacher training institutions which pay salary less than the school teachers. In the second section, the document has discussed basic issues of education of teacher educators: (a) Teacher educators and school education; and (b) Stage specificity in the preparation of teacher educators. Here, the document has discussed how elementary education remains sadly neglected as knowledge field and refers to efforts of NGOs. Perhaps such a discussion does not fit into the theme of education of teacher educators. It has stated that "...the M.Ed. programme in most of the universities neither widens nor deepens the discourse of education at the secondary stage that students bring with them after their B.Ed. degree"(p.78). The document has not stated how it has come to such a conclusion. The third section is • "M.Ed. as a programme for preparation of teacher educators". It has pointed out problems in having M.A.(Education) as a teacher educator preparation programme by stating that • "The existence of two parallel post graduate programmes in education has created an anomalous and confusing situation and has raised questions of equivalence"(p.79). In support of its argument, it has quoted NCF position paper on teacher education. As there is wide variation among M.Ed. programmes, similarly, there can be variation between M. Ed. and M. A. (Education) programmes. There are many Professors of Education who have studied M. A. (Education) not M. Ed. Hence, there should not be any confusion in treating these two courses as equivalent. In the fourth section ,'Imparting professionalism to a post graduate programme in education', the document has suggested discourse to be initiated in certain aspects including • "broad basing the profile of teacher educators by infusion of persons who have the knowledge of disciplines generic to teacher education so that the discipline of education grows into

specialization requiring persons to be well-versed in cognate disciplines outside education" (P. 80). Such a statement supports the States and UTs which has not made M. Ed. or M.A. (Education) degree compulsory for lecturers and principals in their colleges of education. This statement is perhaps a set back to the attempt to have separate cadre for teacher educators, who have either M.Ed. or M.A. (Education) degrees. The fifth section • "Needed thrusts for development of teacher educators" has covered (a) Early childhood education; (b) Primary / elementary education; and (c) Secondary education. On page 81, the document has stated that • "In most states, DIETs are the main supply institutions for elementary teachers". As non-DIET elementary teacher training institutions are more than five times of number of DIETs as per NCTE, such a statement may be wrong. The document refers to privatisation, although privatisation of elementary or secondary teacher education is not found in each State and UT. While discussing about faculty of the DIETs, the document points out that • "Many of them do not possess basic experience in primary school teaching" (p.82). The document has been silent about the status of school teaching experience of teacher educators working in the departments of education in the university and general colleges and in the colleges of education and the Departments of Education of Regional Institutes of Education of NCERT. Pointing out importance of school teaching experience, the University Education Commission 1948-49 had stated that

> "If it is argued that, as things are, it is difficult to find school teachers intellectually capable of holding lecturers' posts, the answer must be that nothing would so quickly rectify this state of affairs as the knowledge that you could not hope to be a lecturer or professor in education unless you had started by teaching in a school" (Radhakrishnan 1949, pp.143-144).

The Commission has also pointed out necessity of school teaching experience for M.Ed. students. It has stated that • "Normally, however, it would be better for a student to learn or more about the practice of education by teaching a few years before he returned to take the Master's Degree in the subject."(pp.143-144). The Secondary Education Commission 1952-53 also has stated that "We believe that it would be an advantage if for this higher degree in education trained teachers who have done normally a minimum of three years teaching in a school are only selected."(Mudaliar 1953, p. 167). NCERT (1978) has also suggested that • "the teacher- educators should themselves participate in classroom teaching cooperating schools to have first-hand experience of the actual conditions prevailing in schools"(p.10). The present curriculum framework document has been silent about this aspect of professional experience of teacher educators. The document has mentioned about M. Ed. (Elementary) course offered at Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi, but has not mentioned about findings of any study conducted on this programme and to what extent faculty members of JMI imparting this programme have direct experience or continued experience of elementary school teaching. In the sixth section "Encouraging innovations for preparation of teacher educators", the document has mentioned about M. A. Education (Elementary) launched by the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai, but has not mentioned about findings of evaluation studies on this course. In the seventh section • 'Enhancing the Status of educational studies and the professional development of teacher educators, the document has quoted ideas from the draft Curriculum Framework of 2006 and report of the working group for teacher education during the XI plan. In the last section of this chapter, 'Preparation of teacher educators-future directions and possibilities', the document states that

> Reform of teacher education to move forward on a sound footing demands dedicated research in the area of foundations of education in the Indian context by universities, preferably in independently established departments. The research in such departments would help develop the teacher education programmes on a more sound theoretical basis. The existing departments of education have hardly been able to engage themselves in this long-pending need for their pre-occupation in conducting routine teacher training and research programmes" (p.87).

The above statements may not be valid. The last sentence of the above quotation has created confusion. The Association of Teacher Educators of USA has developed standards for teacher educators in 9 sections: 1. Teaching, 2. Cultural competence, 3. Scholarship, 4. Professional development, 5.Program development, 6. Collaboration, 7. Public advocacy, 8. Teacher education profession, and 9. Vision. Every section has indictors and artefacts. All these standards may not be applied to Indian system, as most of the teacher educators in USA are attached to concurrent model of teacher training, whereas in India, most of

the teacher educators are attached to consecutive model of teacher training. Again, in India, schools do not play much role in supervising teacher trainees. This chapter has not mentioned standards for accomplished teacher educators which could have helped the teacher educator preparation programmes and also could have assisted employers of teacher educators. This document has not covered preparation of craft instructors, physical education instructors, art instructors, etc. posted as regular employees in many teacher training institutions.

In the last chapter "Implementation strategies", the present curriculum framework document has mentioned various measures to be taken by the NCTE. These include (a) Dissemination of the curriculum framework document; (b) Organisation of at least five consultation meetings in each region;(c) Facilitating revision of the existing teacher education programmes;(d) Discourse on the structural aspects of teacher education programmes; (e) Evolving adequate structural mechanisms to promote entry of talent in teacher education programmes; (f) Constitution of a working group of scholars to develop syllabi and course outlines, spelling out objectives, distribution of courses, weightages etc.; (g) Catalytic role to be played by NCTE in development of textual materials, facilitating regional language versions; and (h) Encouragement to institutions to experiment with the innovative models. The document has stated that NCTE would initiate dialogue to have all teacher education programmes under the aegis of universities and would encourage four year programme of elementary teacher education. Such a dialogue for elevating primary school teacher training to degree level might have to consider possibility of doubling of expenditure in teacher salary and capability of the States and the central government to bear this financial burden, which might be not thought of as the government has not yet been able to expand pre-school education, in spite of the fact that it has been included in the Article 45 of the Directive Principles of the constitution. The dialogue might also explore possibility of having Diploma courses for primary school teacher training with the non lecturers as faculty members, operating in the university system, which shall not require extra expenditure on teacher salary. At the end, it has stated that "Existing B.Ed. programmes should be reviewed to facilitate the choice between a 4-year integrated model after +2 or a 2 year model after graduation, based on State requirements and available institutional capacity" (p.91) without taking into consideration the number of years one spends after +2. However, earlier it has stated that • "Teacher education programmes should ideally be of four-five years' duration after the completion of 10+2 level of school education" (p.90), indicating that it has not come to a decision about number of years. It has proposed separate exercises for preparation of teachers for the curricular area of health and physical education and also of vocational education. It has stated that NCTE would have a series of professional orientation / training programmes to expound the contours of learner studies, contemporary studies, educational studies and curriculum and pedagogic studies. NCTE would also initiate steps to ensure entry of talent in teacher education programmes. The document has suggested a study to assess dominant entry qualifications for pre-service programmes in elementary education, to design state specific strategies. It closes with the statement • "A nation-wide review of teacher education curriculum in the light of the selected curriculum renewal exercise would need to be undertaken" (p.92). This gives assurance for a bright future for efforts for qualitative improvement of teacher education by NCTE.

CONCLUSION

As each chapter of this document starts with an • 'Introduction' section, it might have been better to close each chapter with a 'Conclusion' section. The document indicates that it has taken ideas from earlier documents and in doing that, it has created problems for itself. It has used varieties of terminologies for teacher trainees: 'student teachers'(p.59), 'pre-service students' (p.98), • 'trainees' (p.61), 'intern' (p.61), • 'students' (p.61) • 'teacher' (p.60), and 'teacher trainees' (p.33). There have been also many repetitive criticisms. It seems the document has been printed hurriedly for which pages 22 and 88 have remained blank. It has quoted from many documents but has not mentioned the page numbers of the relevant publications. The • 'End note and References' printed on the last page (p.93) has not covered a large number of documents cited in the text such as : Report of the University Education Commission 1948-49, Report of the Education Commission 1964-66, National Policy on Education 1986, National

Curriculum Framework 2005, Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009, Curriculum Frameworks for Teacher Education of 1978, 1988, and 1998, Discussion Paper 2006, SSA 2002, DPEP 1995, OB 1986, National Commission on Teachers 1983-85 (I or II?), NPE Review Committee 1990, National Advisory Committee on Learning without Burden (1993), The Person with Disabilities Act 1996, and NCF 2005 Position Paper on Teacher Education. Too many references to the school curriculum framework of NCERT have created confusion. Of course, long quotations have contributed to increase the number of pages. It might have been better if the the document would have avoided use of • 'we', • 'our', etc. Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education of 1978 had 25 entries under Errata. The present curriculum document might have enriched itself by including • 'Errata'. The • 'Preface' to the document has stated the urgency • 'to prune the theory and practice of teacher education' (p.iii). The document might have been pruned by avoiding support from government documents and individual writings. NCERT (1978) has mentioned objectives for each of the four stages: Pre-primary, Primary, Secondary and Higher secondary. NCTE (1998) has mentioned • 'General objectives' and also mentioned • 'Specific objectives' for teacher education for the stages of Early childhood, Primary, Elementary, Secondary, and Senior secondary. This document might have improved itself by specifying objectives or expected standards for each category of initial teacher training. As the document conatins many factual errors as well as irrelevant statements, it may be better if a modified version of the document is brought out.

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AUTHORS

Dr. (Mrs) Ravinder Kaur, Principal, Malwa Central College of Education for Women, Ludhiana-141 001 Punjab
Dr. (Miss) Naginder Kaur, Lecturer, Malwa Central College of Education for Women, Ludhiana-141 001 Punjab
Miss Harpreet Kaur, Research Fellow, Malwa Central College of Education for Women, Ludhiana-141 001 Punjab
Dr. (Mrs.) Meera K.P., Reader, Department of Education, University of Calicut, Kozhikode - 673 635 Kerala
Ms. Remya P., Lecturer, NSS Training College, Ottapalam, Dt. Palakkad – 679 101 Kerala
Dr. (Mrs.) Reena Agarwal, Reader, Dept. of Education, University of Lucknow, Lucknow – 226 007 Uttar Pradesh
Dr. (Mrs) Kirandeep Singh, Reader, Dept. of Education, Panjab University, Chandigarh-160014
Dr. Ajay Kumar Mohanty, Deputy Registrar, HNBG Central University, Srinagar, Dt. Garhwal - 246 174 Uttarakhand
Ms. Mona, Lecturer, Anand College of Education, Jethuwal, Amritsar- 143 001 Punjab
Dr. (Mrs.) Jasdeep Kaur, Lecturer, DAV College of Education, Amritsar- 143 001 Punjab
Dr. Vishal Sood, Principal, Abhilashi P. G. College of Education, Nerchowk, Dt. Mandi - 175 008 Himachal Pradesh
Mrs. Arti Anand, Lecturer, Abhilashi P. G. College of Education, Nerchowk, Dt. Mandi - 175 008 Himachal Pradesh
Mrs. Archana Bhattacharjee, Sr. Lecturer, Dept. of English, Kakajan College, Jorhat -785 001 Assam
Dr. (Mrs.) Nirmala Sarma, Retd. Principal of SIE, Oating Enclave, Tarajan, A.T. Road, Jorhat – 785 001 Assam
Dr. (Mrs.) Sreekala. E., Lecturer, School of Education, Pondicherry University, Puducherry- 605 014
Dr. (Mrs.) Aruna P. K., Head, Dept. of Education, University of Calicut, Kozhikode - 673 635 Kerala
Ms. Sumi V. S., Jr. Res. Fellow, Dept. of Education, University of Calicut, Kozhikode - 673 635 Kerala
Dr. Hemamalini H. C., Lecturer, Shankargowda College of Education, Mandya- 571 401 Karnataka
Dr. Pradeep Kautish, Asst. Prof., Jaipuria Institute of Management, Pratap Nagar, Sanganer, Jaipur-302033 Rajasthan

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EDITORIAL
EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH PUBLICATION QUALITY INDICATORS

Sunil Behari Mohanty

Recent times have witnessed rapid expansion in quantity of educational research. The expansion has been accentuated by the multiple effects of the internet that have made possible developing stronger data resources on various areas in which researches are being undertaken. The researcher, to day, without having to travel to many places, has much better access into many aspects of scholarly researches than were available in earlier times. Research outcomes are brought out in the form of research reports, theoretical discourses, graphical presentations, diagrams etc. and are disseminated by getting them published in the form of articles in journals, chapters in books and books. During last decade, Indian higher education has witnessed a surge in scientific publications. As the recent guidelines for promotion and recruitment have given wightages to publications, there has been rise in interest among various categories of higher education faculty as well as aspirants for jobs in higher education system in getting their manuscripts published. This has led to sudden rise in number of academic journals, some of which get printed without any sort of editing. The authors become happy when the journal in which their articles are printed has ISSN, although ISSN is not an indicator of quality. Participants become happy, when the publications of conference proceedings, in which their papers are included, have an ISBN, although ISBN is not an indicator of quality. Statutory bodies having responsibility for improving quality of education have not yet evolved any instrument to check the quality of the journals and the quality of the articles printed therein. Most of the journals do not go for peer review of the manuscripts. Many books having no copyright are being reprinted in India as a new publication, at times, with a pseudo author. The practice of reprinting of books as revised edition without the knowledge of the authors has vitiated the atmosphere of quality in publication.

There have been efforts at the international and national level to improve the quality of educational research. Since last decade, the quality of research publications has improved a lot with the availability of soft ware like Atlas.ti, Cassandre, Maxqda, NVivo9, Transana, Weft QDA, and Win Relan etc.. Software can handle data not only in texts but also in video and other digital media formats. It saves time and makes handling of large amount of data easier and improves the level of transparency. The conventional indicators of the quality of an article published in a journal are (a) peer review status, (b) acceptance/ rejection rate for the journal in which the article has been printed, (c) frequency of citation of article, (d) journal impact factor and (e) usage metrics. These indicators are brought out by private agencies, mostly based in USA. The conventional indicators do not cover research publications in languages other than English. They indicate the number of times an article or a journal has been quoted and do not tell about the nature of the citation - whether the publication was praised or blamed. At present, no indicator is available for assessing quality of books and chapters written by individuals in books.

There have been instances of wrong data and outdated data found not only in publications of private publishers but also in publications of government organisations and academic bodies including universities. Although internet has been accused of being used for encouraging plagiarism, it has also been used for checking plagiarism. Reputed journals subject the manuscripts to such tests. Recently, when the abstracts of the last AIAER conference was placed in the web site, an e-mail reported about the availability of the same abstract in another location in the internet and after verification, the concerned abstract was withdrawn. Similarly, in case of peer review of this journal, one reviewer noticed that the same author's article was already available in internet, having most of the paragraphs of the manuscript submitted for review. Placing all articles in journals in the internet is a huge task. Agencies responsible for qualitative improvement of education may need to consider implementing this task.

In April 2008, the European Educational Research Quality Indicators (EERQI) project was initiated to develop new indicators and methodologies for determining the quality of educational science research (Gogolin 2010). Besides involving educational researchers, the project also involved experts from computer science and informatics, biblio and scientometrics, linguistics, educational information centres and publishing houses. The languages other than English covered by the reported EERQI project were Czech, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish. The reasons, for which the European Educational Research Quality Indicators (EERQI) project was started in Europe, are also the reasons for which, such a project may be undertaken in India. As regards language, Indian situation is similar to European situation. The Indian Educational Research Quality Indicators (IERQI) project may start with English and Hindi languages and later cover Sanskrit and Urdu and remaining official languages of the States. The goals of the IERQI project may be to reinforce and enhance the worldwide visibility and competitiveness of Indian educational research. More specifically, the project may aim to

-develop new indicators and methodologies to determine quality of educational research publications,
-propose a prototype framework for establishing such indicators and methodologies,
-make this framework operational on a multilingual basis (starting with English),
-produce a search and query engine for resource harvesting and text analysis,
-test transferability of the IERQI indicators into other fields in social sciences and the humanities,
-develop a sustainability plan for quality assessment of Indian educational research publications.

IERQI has to be a highly collaborative project and may be based on the participation of various stakeholders. Efforts may also need to be made to ensure partnership of publishers of educational journals and publishers of books for giving permission to digitalise their journals and books or supplying digitalised version of their publications exclusively for development and validation of educational research quality indicators. The universities and boards and councils of school education and the national and state level agencies for production of textbooks may be approached for making their books and journals available for the project.

The activities in the project can be divided into three phases. The actions during the first phase may be (a) Listing and building proof of concept specifications; (b) Developing testing methods to the aggregated relevant documents; (c) Evolving the search and query engine; (d) Collecting, converting and storing the electronic content; (e) Reviewing the type and scope of meta data and full text formats available as well as of server requirements; (f) Revisiting traditional indicators; and (g) Suggesting new indicators. The second phase may be the testing phase and the actions at this stage may be (a) Testing of new indicators and methodologies agreed upon in the first phase on a continuously expanding content base; (b) Specifying work on the search and query engine with integration of multi-lingual thesauri and refining it to accommodate activities in the third phase. At the third phase, the results of the project may be placed before the scientific community as well as before other relevant public, including policy makers on local, national and international levels.

The process of formulation of strategies for operationalising IERQI may start with formation of a core group that may consist of educational research organisations, writers, editors, statisticians, computer software experts, language experts, and documentation experts and also representatives from relevant central government organiations like ICSSR, CIIIL, KHS, RSS, etc. An initial workshop may be conducted to develop operational strategies covering issues such as (a) Techniques of harvesting data and developing a search and query engine; (b) Bibliometric issues related to relationship among key words, abstracts and full texts; (c) Types of approaches to develop indicators relevant of specific categories of materials; (d) Process of establishing validity and reliability of these indicators and estimating their

durability and usability from Indian perspective; (e) Preparing an action plan: schedule of meetings, workshops and conferences to thrash out various techniques and approaches suggested in the meeting; (f) Preparing a budget; and (g) Preparing an action plan.

The outcomes of the project will improve the current standards of research quality indicators for the field of social sciences and the humanities, by applying the new sets of indicators utilising multiple educational research methodologies catering to multilingual situation in Indian context. IERQI will have impact not only on research quality and publications, but also on policy issues.

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LEADERSHIP FOR INSTITUTIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND EMPOWERMENT

(Presidential Address at AIAER Annual Conference 2010)

S. P. Malhotra

Once Napoleon was standing before his band of 50000 soldiers and asked them if one is added to your number of fifty thousand what will be the total number. Stock came the reply 'fifty thousand one'. Napoleon retorted back 'No, it will be one lakh fifty thousand as Napoleon is added to your group of fifty thousand'. That is the leadership which needs to be offered to an institution. Large numbers of research studies have been conducted in the areas of leadership styles or leadership behaviour and they come out with a large number of the characteristics of leaders but research studies have not come with clear-cut role that an institutional leader should perform to lead an educational institution. It is in this context that I am going to analyze before you the leadership provided by a person to an institution that led the country in the area of discipline of Education.

What I am going to speak to you as presidential address is nothing but a case analysis of leadership given by a person to an institution to make it effective and empower its teachers. The analysis is about a well known institution of Education Centre of Advance Studies in Education, M.S. University Baroda when it was functioning under the leadership of Prof. M. B. Buch who headed the institution for only for five years (1972- 1977) and brought it on the map of India for its contribution in the field of research and innovations in Education. It can be compared with the superior leadership and focused strategy of Fred Terman who made Stanford University as entrepreneurial university in 1944. It may be mentioned here that Stanford as a private university did not have the access to State funding and was reeling under some resource crunch. Similarly was the case with the Department of Education in Faculty of Education and Psychology which was granted a special status as Center of Advanced Study in Education (CASE) by the University Grants Commission in 1963-64, initially for five years. The Expert Committee, appointed by the UGC for evaluation of CASE, was convinced that growth of CASE and fulfillment of its objectives were hampered due to lack of leadership. The Committee recommended to the UGC that the experiment be given a life provided the University appoints a full-time head for CASE, a professional with proven capability in institution building. The choice fell on Dr. Buch. He was invited to head the Center of Advanced Studies in Education. He took over CASE in 1969. With his leadership he could bring the institution on the map of India for its contribution to the discipline of Education. This write up is being written with the objective to analyse what made this institution so effective and how it could convince the persons working in the discipline of Education to recognize that there is an institution in India which is n effective institution of teacher education and is above board in the area of research in education. The whole phenomenological analysis is based on the sketch drawn by Mukhopadhaya (Mukhopadhyay 1988). It may be boldly mentioned here that work of Mukhopadhyay has been boldly used during analysis and at some places without putting the words under quotes.

INSTITUTION BUILDING

Institutions are built when the opportunities are created and the functionaries respond to these opportunities quickly. In spite of the fact that it was clear to him that he will be at the helm of affairs for five years only because he was to retire in 1977 but he operated as if he would be at CASE for a long haul. Buch's strategic plan involved decades because he prepared leadership in the faculty as well as the researchers who will hold the reigns of education system or education departments of the universities in India. His future plans were clear from his statement he made during farewell function of one of the colleagues that 'At CASE we do not prepare faculty for CASE, we prepare faculty/ leaders at CASE for the country. The more you spread around, the greater will be the spread of fragrance of CASE". To a question about his contribution he replied that his contribution was the development of researchers rather than research, development of discipline rather than institution. His main argument was that if he could

build a band of researchers or thinkers who could spread over to various universities and research institutions in the country, they would make much larger contribution over a longer period of time than what he could have done personally even if his research acumen was superior to anyone of them. His focus was evidently on the country, and on the education sector rather than on himself. Prof. Buch built up CASE with respect to five major aspects. These included perusing the vision, developing human resource, empowering the faculty, planned research process and Permanent contribution to discipline. He focused simultaneously on these five issues.

VISION FOR INSTITUTION

The first was envisioning the future for CASE. He envisioned CASE as a 'national' center though located in Gujarat. Once there was a vision he meticulously built the replica of a cosmopolitan India in CASE with faculty, junior and senior research fellows and teacher fellows from different parts of India without compromising quality at any point. Once he found that the person was committed and qualified he will induct him/her into the faculty without consideration of other formalities. Terman at Stanford did the same when he could see expertise and excellence in one professor Stephen Timshenko for theoretical and applied Mechanics. He did not mind giving such a person steep rise from assistant professor to full professorship. His way of identifying talented bright young persons and bringing them together in CASE was unique. He would ask the professors in various universities, the researchers and the teacher fellows at CASE if they would know someone bright from their respective universities and encourage them to apply for the faculty or fellowship in CASE. He zealously guarded its cosmopolitan culture which was the core of success of CASE as an institution. At a time when all universities of Gujarat switched over to Gujarati medium and there was a move to introduce Gujarati as medium of instruction in M.S. University, he took the challenge and strategically put forward the case of CASE as rendezvous of bright young minds of the country as a pride of M.S. University and of the state. He succeeded. This was one of the many evidences of his risk taking behaviour and uncompromising position so far as quality in translating the goals of an institution is concerned. Indeed, one of the important attributes of an institution builder.

DEVELOPING HUMAN RESOURCE

Dr. Buch was a human resource developer. He was not satisfied with just bringing in bright students together in CASE. He considered it his responsibility to ensure that they grow and matured as professionals. He adopted a few important strategies other than the normal enrollment of young research fellows as Ph. D students under one or the other guide. He focused on human resource development strategy with personal exposure of the young researchers to the outstanding scholars in education by attaching, even the junior most scholars to the dignitary invited to CASE all throughout his/ her visit. His objective was total exposure of a young budding professional to all dimensions of an accomplished professional. Indeed, an unconventional way of developing the younger lot. The meetings were not only to chat over tea but debate over the educational issues mainly addressing the nation at that particular time.

EMPOWERING THE FACULTY

The faculty is empowered not by simply having the knowledge base but by putting the knowledge relevant to time and needs of the system. Terman in Stanford did it by introducing fields of study that could have better future such as electronics, biotechnology etc. Similarly Prof. Buch was very clear in his mind that future of teacher education lay in the innovations. He induced the faculty to follow innovations and the fields of study being taken up and studies at international level. For example the Programmed instructions movement started in 1960 and he asked the faculty to pursue the knowledge base in these fields. He induced the faculty to study hard and follow the trend of research by Flanders, Gage and others. He made the faculty in-charge of one of such programmes and expected that they come out with written material for the Indian students. He mounted such a pressure in the faculty that they did the same with in a year. In 1970 and 1972 there was good material for the Indian students in the areas of Programmed

learning, Micro-teaching etc. The faculty within a year reached at such a level that the universities in India were left with no alternate but to request CASE to help them with the expertise of the faculty. Along with such exposures, he always motivated the young scholars as well as the faculty to write on the educational issues. He often would advise and edit such writings. This provided the young scholars, the skills of writing and the confidence. Unlike the practices in the universities, he did not attach his name with such papers allowing the young scholars to get full credit for their works. Whenever he sought help of the scholars for a piece of work assigned to him and/ or undertaken by him, he never missed to include the names of the young scholars as co-authors so that the scholars might receive due credit for their contribution to the joint work. Dr. Buch never missed an opportunity of observing the professional aspects of the behaviour of the research fellows and giving feed-back. He would often call a first year entrant and encourage him to ask question. As much as, it was also not unusual to experience Dr. Buch censoring questioning behaviour of a senior. For him, it was not just the cognitive aspect or the quality of the question or the comment, but also the way it is put in a seminar. In other words, he emphasized not only what to ask but also how to ask.

PLANNED RESEARCH PROCESS

The expertise of the faculty was further nourished by planned research. The Center selected a few areas of research in consultation with the experts at the national level, and also on the basis of the international trends of research those days. Each area was scanned extensively to identify the research problems that could collectively provide understanding in and wisdom about Indian education. The three areas selected were-programmed instruction, teaching and teacher behaviour, and innovation and management of change. He, however, did not restrict research in other areas by the faculty depending upon their specialization and inclination. As a result, research on motivation became another major field of research. The first research output in Programmed instructions was available from Baroda in 1969. From then on, there was no looking back. Within a couple of years, a large number of experiments were conducted using programmed learning material at various levels of education. Similarly, following the trend of research by Flanders, Gage and others, research on teaching took off fast. Beginning with studies on teacher effectiveness, the research studies moved on to experiments in teacher programming including micro-teaching, instructional strategies, etc. The studies on innovation and change started diving deep into the otherwise complicated process of how the individuals and organizations responded to the initiative on adoption of innovation. Eventually, such studies also explored the various innovations carried out in schools and colleges in the country. The planned research with the identification of the three major areas had to be backed up by the right kind of resources. His major organizational strategy was to involve a senior professional as leader in each area; and gather around him/her a group of bright young researchers. Although he took personal interest in all the areas, he organized research activities in programmed instruction, teaching and teacher behaviour and management of innovations around one senior professional each. He made special efforts and recruited new staff to lead these areas. He brought them from various universities and institutions in India. He pioneered interdisciplinary research in education. When the UGC Evaluation Team visited CASE for the second time, he had one person each from psychology, sociology and education carrying out research in innovation and change. He organized weekly seminars where both faculty as well as the students made presentations. The debates on different aspects of research used to last for three to four hours at a stretch. This weekly exercise was supplemented by seminars presented, at regular intervals, by senior professionals from all over the country. Eminent academicians from the national institutions as well as from various universities made presentations and participated in such seminars. These professional exposures were so exciting and taken so seriously by the faculty as well as young scholars that the discussion often split over into the" tea club" that was more than an interactive classroom on educational research. It was clear indication of his mission that conditions should be created where there is continual interaction among all the persons in an institution be it formal, informal, organized or unorganized.

PERMANENT CONTRIBUTION TO DISCIPLINE

Dr. Buch was clear that the institutions are known for their contribution to the discipline. He struggled to make a permanent contribution to Indian educational research. He could diagnose lack of documentation and dissemination of educational research as the major limitation and constraint for Indian researchers. He knew it was a difficult task to undertake. Even his colleagues in education at national and international discouraged him and warned him about the difficulties in achieving his objective. But it fitted in well with his philosophy "every crisis is pregnant with an opportunity …" He decided to undertake the first survey of research in education. With considerable difficulty, he was able to obtain only about Rs. 20.000/- from Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR). In 1972, within this amount, he was able to manage collection of abstracts of research carried out between 1943 and 1972 from every nook and corner of the country. These were classified into certain areas. Trends of research were analyzed and reported and the book, *Survey of Research in Education*, was published in 1974. Here too, he involved faculty, young researchers with senior professionals in the country to write the trend report. Indeed, a rare opportunity for young professionals to contribute to a national volume. Hoe drove the faculty and researchers to a sense of urgency in doing the task and continually urges them that delay of even one day will be passed over the present and may never then regain the existing position. Dr. Buch completed -the massive four surveys of research in education from 1943-88 that have now become almost the 'Bible' for every young researcher. It is these well calculated multi-pronged planned strategies that made the Center of Advanced Studies in Education, art institution to reckon with not only within the country but also internationally within a short span of time. Buying co-operation was a phenomenon that he always carried out while getting the things done. The episode that occurred during the undergoing project throws ample light on his character as an institution builder. In the absence of any secretary and any identified project team, the survey work was being looked after by two young research scholars right from the beginning. Once all the abstracts were classified and trend reports started arriving, he inducted two other persons replacing the first two from the centre stage. They felt bad. Dr. Buch clarified that the project of this large magnitude and complication required different kind of skills in different phases of the project; he did not discriminate against anyone but involved two sets of persons with the two different sets of capabilities that were necessary for timely and successful completion of the project. In sum and substance it can be pointed out that Dr. Buch's approach and concerns were for education and the persons who steer education. His success is that he has left behind him a band of educational professionals empowered with deep sense of commitment to discipline of education, good knowledge base and well trained for creative thinking. Many of them now occupy strategic positions in the national and international organizations, thereby shaping the policies and programs of the country.

LESSONS TO BE LEARNT

Following lessons need to be learnt for making the institution effective and faculty quite empowered: Disciplines grow by the continuous efforts of the persons pursuing knowledge. Dr. Buch used to say that those who cannot think twenty four hours in education do not have the right to be in the discipline of education. The continuous thinking makes the issues prominent for the persons and they come out with innovative ideas to help disciplines grow. Having excellent faculty is necessary but not sufficient to make an institution effective. Leadership is equally essential for developing an institution. There is always a need to provide the faculty promising opportunities and taking care of organizational barriers, incentives, attitudes and policies. Leadership is not linked with the duration of stay in any institution. Leadership is a characteristic linked with individuals' personality and devotion to work and mission to achieve. Faculty becomes empowered when the challenges, opportunities and interactive sessions are provided to them. The pressure to think makes the faculty members work and think and come up with good knowledge-base. Adopting the timely changes in the research fields makes the knowledge base grow. Simply having expertise in one field stops the thinking faculties of mind. In the disciplines like education the specialties should continuous change and interaction with world community helps in this direction. Continuous interaction (formal/informal, organized/ unorganized helps the faculty members to gain knowledge and

come out of the ego of linking toothier own ideology. Listening to others makes faculty broad mined and amending their position on various issues.

In the thinking process there is never a hierarchy of maturity or non-maturity. Everybody can think and come out with innovations. Creativity is not birth right of elders or position holders in the university faculty. At no point quality of faculty needs to be compromised. Cosmopolitan nature of the faculty makes the institutions stronger and all grow with the system. It is not the financial resource that matters but how the human is resource is used to meet the needs or mission of the institution is more important. Dr. Buch was provided with a meager sum to carry out the documentation of Indian researches and he could achieve his mission by appropriately utilizing the human resource.

CONCLUSION

The present phenomenological study points out that the leadership makes the institutions strong and effective and empowerment comes with continuous hard work and thinking. Leaders make the faculty empowered to an extent that the real leader may live or not but leaders created by him continue to lead the discipline and the social order.

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TEACHER IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION IN REFORM DRIVEN CONTEXTS: A CHILEAN STUDY1

Beatrice Avalos

On the basis of a recent study on the teaching profession in Chile, the paper reflects on how teachers in different types of school contexts live their profession in relation to their perceived convictions about teaching and the definitions provided by the policy environment. The impact of unsatisfactory working conditions as perceived by teachers (but also recognised by society) and the impact of assessing teacher capacity in terms of productivity (pupil test scores) is set against Chilean teachers' beliefs about their role and mission in a highly inequitable society and school system. The paper considers the results of the study in the light of similar studies in other national contexts.

INTRODUCTION

In the last twenty years around the world teachers have been exposed to a wide range of transformations occurring in their education systems, which in turn have triggered challenges to their professional identities (van den Berg 2002). School populations have widened to embrace a greater cultural and socio-economic diversity of pupils with complex demands that have rendered more difficult the work that teachers do (Bolivar, Gallego, Leçomn.& López 2005; Esteve 2006; Jacinto & Freytes 2007).Pressures to increase educational achievement in the light of standardised examinations, national and international (Day 2002), as well as new forms of teaching based on technology are putting teachers under greater scrutiny and leading to re-definitions of their professional jurisdictions. Chile has not been absent from these changes. Since the beginning of the nineties there has been a continuous wave of reforms, some closer to schools and classrooms and some that affect the system as a whole such as lengthening of

1The research base of this paper was funded by the Iniciativa Cientifica Milenio, Project PO7S-21-F: "La Profesion Docente en Chile. Politicas, Practica y Proyecciones".

the school day or major curriculum revamp. Teachers have been part of these changes in various ways, but mostly as implementers of reforms decided with limited teacher participation. While teachers in Chile are often in the public limelight at the time of publication of school examination results, or in political speeches calling for better education, with increasing pressure to make them accountable for the failures of the school system (Avalos 2004), not much is known about how teachers perceive themselves in these reform and accountability environments nor in relation to the new demands that the student population places upon them. The study that underlies this paper is a recent attempt to learn about teachers, about how they view themselves and their work, and, in turn, how they interpret their status in society. In what follows, we discuss results of this study from the perspective of teacher identity. Our purpose is to highlight teacher identity perceptions in particular educational policy environments marked by policy shifts and by requests for changes in the practices of teaching and dealings with students and other actors of the education system. To this end, we look first at the kinds of changes occurring in the 1990s and 2000s in Chile, and then on the basis of a set of key constructs about teacher identity we present and discuss results from the study of 1,993 primary and secondary teachers conducted in Chile in 2009.

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY CONTEXT OF CHILE IN THE 1990S AND 2000S

In 1990, as the country recovered its democratic form of governance, Chile was faced with the need to reconstruct its social policy environment and institutions, including the education sector. However, as it embarked on a series of improvement programmes that would run through the nineties, the new government did so within the confines of the existing education structure that had been altered in the 1980 by the military government, and of the education law that was passed one day before the new government took office. Also, the new government chose to maintain a standardised system of school assessment known as System for the Measurement of Educational Quality(SIMCE). The key elements of the education structure included a publicly financed system owned by the state but managed by municipalities (municipal schools), a publicly financed system owned and managed by private groups (publicly

subsidised schools) and a small all-private school system. This structure was embedded in the new Law and therefore could not be easily changed. On the other hand, one of the first acts of the new government was to benefit teachers with the passing of a Teachers' Statute (1991) that improved the terms and conditions of municipal teacher employment and set conditions also for the employment of private-subsidised teachers. There was general agreement in the nineties that the key focus of education changes had to be on improving the quality of education provisions with an eye on equity (i.e. the poorer groups of the school population). Thus, two major programmes were put in place to increase pre-school provisions and the quality of basic education (years 1 to 8) and secondary education (years 9 to 12). These programmes encompassed various changes: the curriculum for both levels, free provision of teaching resources (text-books and other materials), school buildings, and introduction of Information Communication Technology (ICT) which benefitted primarily teaching in the municipal schools, although curriculum changes covered the entire school system. A series of focused programmes aimed at poor school populations took place covering first basic education schools (rural and urban poor) and later secondary schools, which involved work with teachers as well as the development of ad hoc materials and teaching strategies. During the entire nineties decade these programmes were running as well as changing in orientation depending on existing assessments of their effectiveness. Teachers were largely called to implement whatever strategies were part of the reform actions, and a number of different types of professional activities were put in place to help them in this role.

In the latter part of the nineties, expectations that learning results might have improved as a result of the various improvement programmes, were not borne out and attention was specifically directed to teachers and teacher preparation. Two key words floated around to justify new policies: incentives and structural reforms. It was considered that providing monetary incentives to well performing schools might entice teachers to improve their performance and raise their students' scores in SIMCE. Sending teachers abroad to learn from other experiences might spread over the system and improve teaching and learning results. Lengthening the school day in schools that operated on a double shift basis would provide more time for learning, and therefore increase the chances of better school results. All these actions were tried out, with the expectation that their efficacy would be evident through increased SIMCE results. While teachers appreciated the rewards offered when their schools fared well or the opportunity to travel abroad and learn from others, the beneficiaries of these opportunities constituted a small segment of the teacher population. The education system as a whole, especially the public sector, was still not performing as expected. Attention turned more strongly to teacher accountability and to demands for evaluation of teacher performance. The new century brought about an agreement with the teachers' union to evaluate teacher performance (Avalos & Assael 2006). It was the best possible agreement in the circumstances as it was based solely on performance in the classroom and not on pupil learning results. But the new century also began to highlight evidence that SIMCE results favoured upper and middle social groups who generally attended private subsidised and wholly private schools while leaving behind the poorer sectors enrolled in municipal schools. It was recognised that the practice of granting an equal subsidy per pupil actually in attendance at schools had a detrimental effect on poorer schools that needed more money if they were to assist all children to move ahead, and not just those who did not need extra support. To redress this inequality a law was passed to increase school subsidies for schools attending populations in need which was tied to showing evidence of improvement and therefore with pressures on teachers to produce results or risk the closure of their schools.

The key role of SIMCE assessments was strengthened by deciding to test children every year in fourth grade, and by introducing a standards-based system to establish not just general scores, but also anchor points referred to what students know and are able to do in each one of the subject areas measured. Despite all these measures, SIMCE results published recently (June 6, 2010) show a high proportion of pupils who do not reach the standard in subjects such as mathematics and language arts. In this context of a system that has tried a number of improvement projects, that has changed the curriculum at least twice

in the two decades, that has offered incentives to teachers who improve learning results of their children, but that also until recently played down the effect of socio-economic differences in learning results — teachers been have dubious key players. Teachers' working conditions require them to teach at least thirty hours per week if they are employed full time, excluding recess time (44 hours), and proportionally less number of hours if they are employed for 30 periods. They may have classes as big as 45, especially in urban low socio-economic sectors, and compared to other professionals with similar training background, teachers earn 40 % less (Valenzuela, Sevilla, Bellei & delos Rios 2010). It is also true, that teachers in private schools earn better salaries, have smaller classes and less teaching time than their counterparts in public subsidised and municipal schools. It is also true that the highest scores in SIMCE tests are found among pupils in private schools. How do teachers view their profession in this context of unsatisfactory learning results and demands for increased teacher accountability, of evaluation of teacher performance and consequent rewards or punishments, of multiple improvement projects that require teacher engagement? Before answering this question, which is central to the paper, we look at how the literature has dealt with topics related to teacher professional identity.

TEACHER IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION – KEY CONCEPTS

Teacher identity refers to how teachers define themselves in relation to their professional tasks and particularly in relation to educational and teaching relationships. From a social perspective, using Castells' words identity may be defined as "a construction of meaning on the basis of a cultural attribute , or related set of cultural attributes, that is/are given priority over other sources of meaning" (1997, p. 6). Teachers are entrusted with the task of educating in social contexts, and on the basis of this essential task they construct and reconstruct their identities over time. To a large extent identity has to do with meanings that individuals make about themselves and with the meanings that others make about them (Beijard , Verloop & Vermunt 2000). Therefore, identity is a co-construction involving one teacher and other significant agents or teachers as well as the broader society to which they belong. In considering how teachers identify as professionals or how teachers define their responsibilities and work, there are four key elements that stand out: (a) the understanding and degree of commitment to a role and a task, or the degree of motivation which keeps them going; (b) the definition of their sphere of work and the degree to which they feel satisfied with it; (c) confidence in their ability to do the work, or the degree of self-efficacy feelings; and (d) the perception of acceptance and respect awarded to teachers by those close to their work as well as by those in the wider society.

Motivation and Commitment

Part of the initial preparation of teachers is centred on developing in them a sense of the importance of the tasks that will be entrusted to them. They are made aware to an extent of their future sphere of work and of the demands that will be placed upon them. At that stage, future teachers may see only a worthwhile task and feel theoretically motivated, depending on the degree to which they are faced with practical situations. As they begin to teach and progress through their career, their motivation and commitment may be strengthened or may be tested in critical situations. It is well known that new teachers are more likely to engage in identity-conflicts while entering the profession since they need to address new and demanding tasks. Instead, experienced teachers may experience identity conflicts as educational reforms request them to modify proven practices and expose their work and expertise to deep scrutiny or examination. Often reform initiatives seek to redefine professional practice, and as such, they represent a threat to the motivation and commitment that teachers have built over time.

Work Demands and Satisfaction

Teachers' identity formation is linked to educational tasks in the broad sense of the word and to teaching tasks in the smaller world of the classroom. It is also linked to the interactions and relationships with parents, colleagues and school authorities. Professional identity emerges from the knowledge and expertise accumulated through teaching and learning, and through integrating individual and collective experiences of what is at the core of the profession (Beijaard, Verloop & Vermunt 2004). The degree to

which it is possible to carry out the demands of work as envisioned, affects teachers' sense of responsibility and may call into question identity definitions. For example, if work is intensified through change demands, or there is limited time to do all that was planned, teachers may feel a growing sense of dissatisfaction and frustration with themselves as teachers. But also, they may feel empowered to defy the context and assert themselves as responsible professionals.

Self-efficacy

An important part of teacher identity has to do with capacity feelings or the sense that she or he is competent in the job. The degree to which a teacher feels personally efficacious is also the degree to which she or he becomes a conscious agent in educational contexts, with strength to alter and improve them (Brandt 1996 and Russsell 1996, in Day, Sammons, Stobbart, Kington & Gu 2007). A heightened sense of efficacy is of help when teachers are faced with demands to implement new methods as these are taken as challenges rather than burdens (van den Berg 2002). A low sense of efficacy, in turn, will affect the mode of responding to new situations, including difficult or unmotivated students. Both self-efficacy and agency operate in interaction with the possibilities offered by social structures such as the school environment, or change demands produced extraneously. If these conditions clash with what teachers believe they can do or believe should be done, they may result in passive submission (lack of motivation) or in reasonable attempts to implement without leaving aside those practices already considered sound (Vandeyar 2005)

Teachers in the Public Eye

Teacher identity is linked to the trust society places in them. Identity is shaped through traditions, social structures and collective norms that provide teachers with different levels of autonomy and jurisdiction. As with other professionals, the recognition of teachers' jurisdiction is a key element in how they view themselves and the degree to which they feel satisfied with their work. Yet the current status and recognition of teachers in many contexts appears to be in jeopardy. Partly this has to do with prevailing redefinitions of teachers' jurisdiction in terms of "consumers" or "clients" demanding results, instead of children and young people demanding education (Hargreaves, Cunningham, Hansen, McIntyre, Oliver & Peel 2007). It also has to do with the paradox involved in entrusting teachers with the responsibility of building a new social and economic order through education, while requiring them to correct the effects of that new social order over the young generation, by engaging in tasks linked to social protection, which are precisely those least recognised in results-based pressure climates (Hargreaves 2003).

THE STUDY

The basis of this paper is a study of the teaching profession being conducted in Chile. The study is broadly aimed at gaining understanding about teachers in primary and secondary schools, about their visions and interpretations of the profession, on how the reform environment of the 1990s and 2000s has affected their working lives in the different school contexts to which they belong, and how they mediate between reform demands and their own teaching convictions and experience. A key concept underlying the study is that of teacher identity. The broader study has three components: (a) a review of existing data bases on teachers in Chile, their working conditions and their salary structure; (b) a national representative survey of teachers; and (c) a set of six case studies of teachers in different school and geographic contexts. The study also gathered information from a set of seven focus groups with teachers in the city of Santiago that centred on the topics of interest to the study. For the purposes of this paper, we draw from the analysis of the national survey, and qualitative data gathered interviews and focus group meetings.

The Population and Sample

The target populations were 122,521 teachers in 5,026 schools in all except two of the 15 geographic regions of the country. Those excluded belong to isolated and sparsely populated geographical locations. Also excluded were small rural (less than 7 teachers) private schools. A stratified random multi-stage

sample of all types of urban and rural schools and a non-proportional sample of teachers in these schools was selected. The achieved sample consisted of 1,929 teachers considered representative of the population with a 95 % of confidence. Selected teachers were delivered the survey questionnaires personally at their schools, which were also collected personally by field workers. To participate, they were asked to sign a form of "informed consent". The main characteristics of the sampled teachers are shown in table 1.

Table 1
Description of the teachers studied

	N	%
Gender		
Male	700	33.0
Female	1238	67.0
Mean Age	1799	44.7
Teaching experience		
0-3 years	192	10.3
4-10 years	436	23.4
11-24 years	656	35.2
25 or more years	578	31.0
Type of school		
Municipal	870	45.5
Private subsidised	830	43,0
All private	229	11,9
School level		
Primary	963	52.2
Secondary	881	47.8

Source: Teacher Survey

The Survey

The survey consisted of a questionnaire with 35 items on personal background information (age, gender, education, parent education, home conditions, monthly average income of all members of the household) and school teaching experience and workload. Teachers were asked questions referring to how they experience their work demands and their degree of satisfaction with these, the effect on their work lives of different reform initiatives, of school conditions, of pupils and of personal conditions such as health or family situations. They were also asked about participation in reform actions and their perception of the effect of these reforms on different aspects related to schooling conditions such as curriculum, teaching methods and infrastructure. Another set of questions, inquired about the effect of their teacher education (initial and continuing) and of experience over a set of teaching competences such as interacting with pupils or managing individual differences. Reasons for choosing the teaching profession, degree of motivation, and degree of agreement with a set of statements describing a teachers' mission followed, and finally agreement/disagreement scales referring to statements about the current status of the profession and the degree of respect afforded to the profession by a list of stakeholders. The survey was piloted among a group of 78 teachers representing the target population and the scale items were factor analysed to decide on the final form of the survey. Principal component analysis was used after application to settle on a set of indexes that would allow for a more fluid interpretation of the data gathered.

The Focus Group Meetings

Seven meetings were held with teachers from primary and secondary education, from private, private subsidised and municipal schools, of which three groups had experienced teachers and four were composed of teachers with five or less years of experience. Teachers were asked to comment on their

teaching experiences (prior and/or current), how they perceived themselves in coming years, what helped them to improve their practice, whether they had experienced changes or new reform projects in their schools, and how the perceived their students.

MAIN RESULTS

For the analysis of results we follow the key constructs used to assess issues related to teacher identity.How committed are teachers to their profession and what factors affect their current motivation? Teachers rated the degree to which a series of reasons had been important in their decision to enter the profession. The highest degree of importance was given by all teachers to factors having to do with what we might call "pedagogic commitment" or "vocation". Such reasons included "self-fulfilment", "work with young people", "desire to share knowledge", "passion for education", "interest in subject-matter" and "teaching capacity". Most teachers were less inclined to have chosen teaching as a profession because of "satisfactory working conditions" or because of prior experience such as having had a model teacher in school or somebody in the family as a teacher. Teachers did not differ in these assessments by type of school in which they worked. However, teachers with more years of experience were more inclined to rate "pedagogic commitment" as their main reason for entering the profession, compared to teachers with less experience. Clearly, the least important factors for all groups, but especially those with lesser experience were what we call working conditions (stable employment, flexible time-tables, holidays and salary).

Another important factor was the ratings teachers gave to the degree of their current motivation in their work, and how this compared to the situation three year before. Teachers in municipal schools indicated a significantly lower degree of current as well past motivation ($P< 0.05$) compared to teachers in private schools, but did not differ from those in private subsidised schools. In general, as teachers progress in experience their degree of motivation decreases compared to teachers with less experience:

> *I am tired, I have taught for 10 years, but this is a profession that wears you out professionally and emotionally. I have postponed my family at times when I have to finish correcting papers and thus, I end up questioning myself about the gratifications of this profession. …. So sometimes I question myself I my satisfaction with the profession [Interview with teacher in a private subsidized school]*

Impact of Policies and Work Environment Conditions and Factors Affecting Teacher Degree of Satisfaction

In line with the assumption that working conditions affect teacher identity, we asked a series of questions relating to teacher perception and degree of satisfaction with these conditions. We grouped the factors that might have an impact or be important either positively or negatively upon their work in the following four areas: educational policies, school conditions, pupils and personal situations.

Educational Policies and Reforms

Educational policies cover those that affect the whole school and those that affect more closely the work that teachers do. Among the first kind of policies is the effect of lengthening the school day, curriculum changes and changes to the SIMCE test. Among the second type are policies such as teacher evaluation that only affects teachers in municipal schools, incentive schemes for good performing teachers in municipal and private subsidised schools, and of course public standardised examinations that push teachers in all types of schools to prepare their students to be successful in these. In general, teachers rated policies affecting the school as a whole as having a more important impact on their work than those affecting them as individual teachers. But teachers in municipal schools and private schools rate both types of policies higher than did teachers in wholly private schools, and the differences were significant. This is not surprising as teachers in private schools are little affected by public policies and reforms.

Interestingly, the only public policy that affects schools and teachers in private schools is the national system of school measurement (SIMCE) and the university entrance examination (PSU) as they compete strongly among each other to be ranked in the first places:

> The school system is becoming more and more competitive. Students are coming to some schools because they have good results in standardized tests. In the end, there is a huge effort towards results, call it SIMCE or PSU. [*private teacher comment during focus group meeting*]

One of the issues surrounding teacher perception of reforms is how much they were considered when these were planned and implemented. Surveyed teachers were asked to refer to a reform that had affected them, and then asked what role they had regarding that reform. Most teachers (71 %) said they had no part at all in the planning of the reform; just over half (55 %) of the teachers were involved in some way in its implementation in their schools and 43 % had no part in any evaluation of its effect.

School Conditions

A first group of conditions has to do with the school authorities and school climate, while a second one has to do with other teachers (their effectiveness, degree of commitment, changes of staff, and expectations). In general, teachers rate issues relating to school managers and school owners as well as school climate as having a greater effect on their working conditions, than issues related to other teachers. Teachers in private subsidised and private schools rate these factors as having a greater impact than teachers in municipal schools, but differences are not significant. A possible explanation may be that head-teachers in municipal schools have less authority than they do in private schools, and therefore they offer fewer reasons for conflict.

Pupils

Here again we have two thematic areas: (a) the extent to which pupil socio-economic and cultural background impacts on teachers and teaching, including those that involve communication with parents, and (b) the effect of pupil behaviour and degree of motivation. Teachers in municipal schools and private subsidised schools differ significantly from teachers in private schools in their ratings of the importance of background factors as they consider these to have a greater effect on their teaching strategies and their student learning possibilities. This is in line with the fact that these types of schools get lower socio-economic background pupils, especially the municipal schools. Students' background factors are important to teachers depending on their years of experience. The following example provides an account of the difficulties encountered by a less experienced Municipal schoolteacher in teaching science to low socio-economic students:

> It seems to me that students are used to being given everything fully digested. They have difficulty in drawing conclusions. For example, I was teaching science and needed to get them to think about the relationships between atmospheric pressure and height, and it was very difficult for them to understand this. It was difficult for them to provide examples, and I struggled to prevent myself from providing the answers. Because we are told that we have to let them think on their own. And one feels sort of anxious, as these children will become non-thinking adults. One is somewhat concerned, but we have to persevere because in fact they have difficulty in reasoning, thinking analytically even though they are in seventh grade. [*Teacher in focus group meeting with less experienced Municipal school-teachers*]

Compared to the effects of pupil background and cognitive characteristics, pupil behaviour is rated as a factor of greater importance by all three groups of teachers, although more so by teachers in municipal and private subsidised schools.

> Apathy has to do with the opportunities they have. Before, education was the only opportunity to improve. You either took it or you were lost. Mothers used to say that what a teacher said was the law and students had to obey. Previously, you needed to perform well. Nowadays, students perform

poorly and they do not care, and parents allow this to happen. Students' rights are overrated or misinterpreted. Students' rights are fine. But students' obligations or responsibilities do not seem to exist and this is quite problematic [*Teacher at the focus group meeting with teachers in subsidized private schools*]

Personal situations such as health problems or unstable work-contracts are quite important factors for teachers in all types of schools, especially among teachers in municipal schools. Differences, however, are not significant.

Degree of Satisfaction

Time is a major factor affecting the surveyed teachers' lives. The table below shows in general municipal teachers are the least satisfied, especially with time for planning, classroom management and classroom teaching. They differ significantly in these areas with teachers in private subsidised and private schools.

Table 2
Teacher Degree of Satisfaction with Available Time

(Mean ratings: 1=very dissatisfied; 2= dissatisfied; 3=satisfied; 4= very satisfied)

Time for:

	Municipal		Private Subsidised		Private	
	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.	Mean	S.E.
Lesson planning	2.11***	0.04	2.28	0.05.	2.45	0.04
Classroom management	2.93*	0.04	2.98	0.03	3.04	0.04
Classroom teaching	2.88*	0.03	2.97	0.03	2.9	0.04
Professional activities outside the classroom	2.69	0.03	2.73	0.03	2.74	0.05
Responding to external requests (i.e. Education Ministry)	2.70	0.04	2.78	0.04	2.76	0.06

*** P<0.001; *P<0.05

Source: Teacher questionnaire

Unlike other jobs, you need to work at home. Otherwise it is impossible because your contract does not include time to plan, to assess exams and correct homework. There just aren't enough hours. One comes to the school and teaches. You finish one class and you start another and then you need to prepare material for the next day or you need to grade a test and you never stop. I have a sister, she is a nurse and I envy her because she goes back home to do nothing. I go home, I rest for a while, but then I need to go to the computer, to prepare material, I need to search on Internet, I am always digging for material that may be useful for the school. [Teacher in private subsidised school focus group meeting]

Self-efficacy

Teachers were asked about their perception of capacity to deal with a set of teaching demands. To what extent did they feel able to stimulate pupil interest in learning, to be creative in their classrooms, to

improve pupil learning results and to influence the learning of all or almost all their pupils. Around 60 % of all teachers surveyed felt satisfied that they were able to do these things. About a third felt very satisfied at being able to achieve such goals. There were no differences among the types of schools where they taught. Interviews with teachers and transcripts from focus groups show that part of teacher satisfaction is intermingled with their interest or should we say "passion" for teaching.

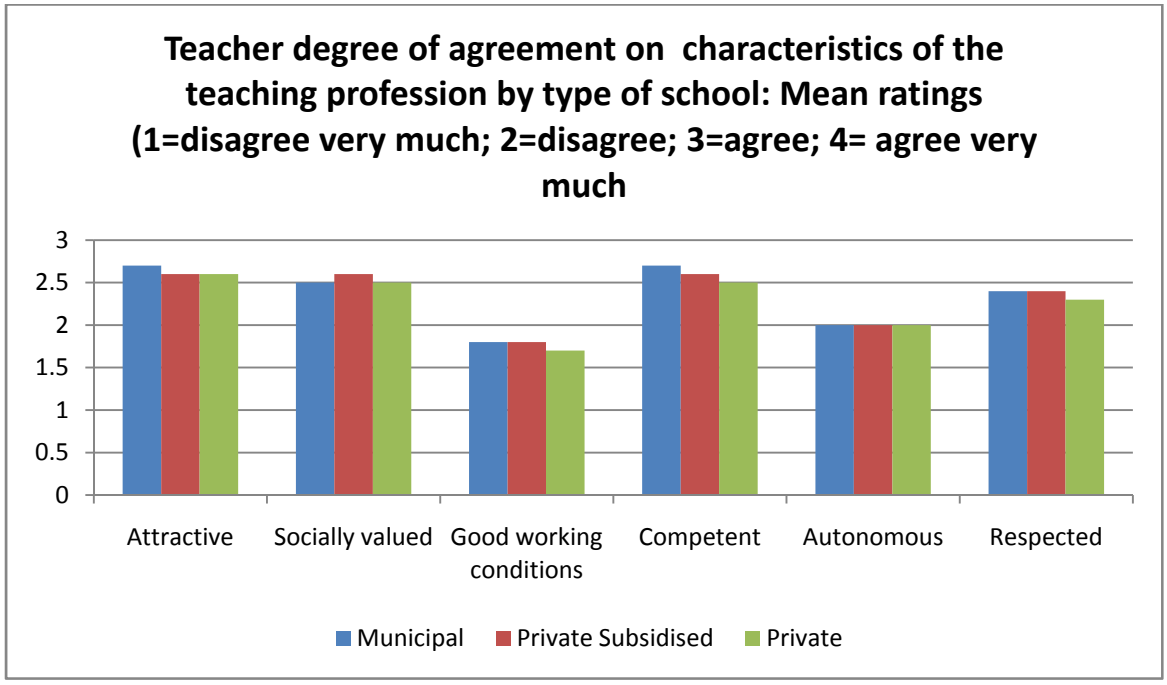
> I start from the notion that I love to be a teacher. I love to be a teacher. I love the classroom, not what is out of it. Out of the classroom it is quite different. With parents it is a lot harder. In teacher meetings, I am a little shy, but in the classroom I am happy. Teaching is challenging and beautiful. I did my high school here and worked in another school. Then I came back. I came back with more hours and a lower salary, but I feel that I belong to this place. I came to the school to help, to make a difference, to be in the same classrooms. This is a huge challenge and every day I work to fulfill my goals as a teacher [Municipal school teacher in focus group meeting]

In the light of this positive self-assessment, it is of interest to learn how they rated the influence of initial and continuing teacher education as well as experience on their teaching competencies. Teachers clearly were able to match specific competencies with each one of these influences. Thus, over two thirds of teachers pointed to experience as their main source for developing the capacity to interact with colleagues, manage big classes, classroom routines and discipline problems. Around half of all teachers considered their professional development opportunities as important in helping them to develop assessment skills, understand key concepts in the curriculum, use ICT, and develop new teaching methods. Most of them attributed to experience the capacity to interact with colleagues, to manage large classes, handle discipline crisis, do group work and handle individual differences. There were differences in the assessment of these influences in line with teacher years of experience. Thus younger teacher considered the influence of initial teacher education to be more important than older teachers on skills such as lesson planning, assessment skills or understanding curriculum concepts. On the other hand, older teachers rated more highly the influence of experience over any of the forms of teacher education.

Social Recognition

In considering their profession, teachers are ambiguous about a series of characteristics that we group under the concept of social status. While they show personal commitment as teachers, they feel others do not value the profession and that society generally has teaching in low esteem. Teaching does not appear to be a particularly attractive profession. It is not well represented in the media and not sufficiently valued by government. Teachers have little autonomy and inadequate working conditions. As shown in the Figure 1, teachers differ little, in how they think others view the status of their profession.

Figure I:



Source: Teacher questionnaire

With all these and other indicators referring to status of the teaching profession, Bellei & Valenzuela (2009) developed a "status" index. On that index, teachers in private schools were those who saw the instatus of the teaching profession at its lowest, and differed significantly this from teachers in private subsidised and in municipal schools who were closer to agreeing on the status of the profession. Asked about their perception of the respect others have for them

personally, teachers feel that those closer to them (family, pupils, other colleagues) respect them more than those removed such as government authorities, the union leaders, and school owners or authorities and other professionals. Below are teacher voices from each type of school referring to how they feel others in Chile consider their work and their profession.

> One is not recognized as a teacher. Teachers are at the lowest step of the ladder. In this society, you get paid according to the social recognition and that make me a little sad. It has been said that this is an ideal job, especially for women. But it is not true, because you need to work a lot. It is not just a matter of money, because the social recognition goes beyond money" [*Municipal teacher during focus group meeting*]

> We have to do all sorts of things. We are like a circus. While we have to do everything that is demanded, society blames us. In some schools, some directors only pay attention to parents' complaints. Parents come to school to blame us, and school principals make us apologize. I am new here but I have heard and I know that some teachers are put under scrutiny on the basis that the client

is right. School authorities tell you: "you need to talk with the parents and apologize". And if you do not do that, at the end of the year you will be fired. [*Interview with teacher in private subsidized school*]

Throughout our career other professionals do not recognize us. We develop understanding and knowledge in other others, but a person who constructs buildings is considered more valuable than the teacher who teachers people. Teaching is considered the least prestigious profession. [*Interview with private school teacher*]

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus of the paper is centred on the concept of teacher identity which have been defined as a construction of meanings based both on the attributes that culture and society place on teachers and their roles in society, as well as on how teachers define their roles and provide meaning to their work. The highlighted four elements or fields which form part of these meanings are : the meanings and definitions that teachers give to their work and the intensity with which they feel committed to it; the overt or covert definitions embodied in the policies and reforms which affect teachers' personally and the nature of the work they carry out; the extent to which teachers in the light of their definitions of teaching describe their capacity; and the extent to which there is a contrast between how teachers define their task and mission and how they believe society values and respects what they do. In short, there are two major sources of identity construction: a personal one embodied in teachers' definitions and an external one embodied in policies, reforms, public messages and stakeholder perceptions (i.e. school authorities, parents, other teachers etc.).

The evidence presented from the study indicates that to large extent teachers in Chile today are marked to some extent by the system of education and the particularity of its three types of schools. Municipal schools are largely schools for the poor; private subsidised schools attend a mixed population (they may charge fees) and wholly private schools are for the elite in terms of power and income of the families who enrol their children in those schools. Municipal teachers are the only ones that are subject to performance evaluation, and have been the principal subjects in the improvement projects of the 1990s. Private subsidised teachers work under very diverse owners and authorities. They do not profit from some of the contract benefits that the teachers' union secured for the public teacher corps, especially in relation to dismissals. Their work is much more fragile than is the case with municipal teachers. Private school teachers enjoy better working conditions in terms of school environment, and are selected for being very competent. One might assume that given these differences, teachers would also differ in how the view their profession. And in some respects they do. For example, as we have seen, teachers in private schools do not feel so harshly the effect of public policies while they do consider more demanding the effects of school related changes that are closer to their immediate environment. However, the three groups of teachers are joined in their perception that the teaching profession is not sufficiently valued by society and by those stakeholders more removed from the immediacy of their pupils, colleagues, friends and family.

The evidence that has been examined points to a certain clash between the expectations and demands of the removed others (policy-makers, educational authorities) regarding their mission as teachers, and how teachers see it themselves. The overall dominance of the national school assessment system (SIMCE) determines in teachers' eyes a contradictory view of what is important in teaching. The repeated view of themselves is as educators who care for their pupils not only in terms of their school marks and the school's position in the SIMCE rankings, but of their whole wellbeing. The areas of conflict noted by van den Berg (2002) affecting teachers' identity construction are present both in the statements provided in the survey and in the views expressed during interviews and focus group meetings. One of these is the questioning of the legitimacy of work definitions provided by others. They reject (especially teachers in

private schools) a definition of their professional identity, which is solely or principally defined in terms of their contribution to school learning results.

The clash between the two sources of identity definition of teachers is most evident when teacher reflect on the quality of their working conditions, especially the scarcity of time, which is felt more harshly by teachers in the publicly funded system. Teachers realise that their task is a vast one, but feel the frustration of not being able to move ahead with it in the way they would like, because there simply is not enough time. This affects an important component of teacher identity: the sense of being able to carry out their work competently. While the teachers surveyed state that they believe others doubt their competence (public others), they also recognise that there is an element of truth in this, because the circumstances in which many work simply do not allow them to do a good job.

However, in most of the focal groups in which we worked, we found teachers who hold on to a broad definition of their mission and identity, even though they work under the same limitations as all their other colleagues:

> I think everybody has many possibilities, and as a teacher this gives me hope. Hope that these kids will learn and will continue to learn … to develop freely and as individuals, without becoming a weight for the State or their parents. At times one walks into the classroom bringing unsatisfactory grades [in a test], because such were its results. But then I tell them: "this is your last chance". And the kids get on board and the grades go up. This is a source of hope … but one does not struggle only for one, one struggles for all of them, so they may all have greater chances in life. One has a certain degree of confidence that they will make it. … We have many examples of people who struggle and move ahead. Opportunities exist, but we must show them and somehow provide to these kids. It is tiring though! [*Young teacher in municipal school*]

In concluding, it would seem that together with the concerns that policy makers and education authorities in Chile may have about teacher quality and their effects on pupil results in schools, they should note in their actions and change decisions, that most teachers have forged a self-identity linked to broad education aims, and that demands for changes and reforms have to build on these definitions. Not to do so, is to lay conflict in their work lives, reduce their self-confidence or as occurs in well-documented circumstances, cause teachers passively or actively to resist the call for change however well-intentioned it may be. Because as Tenti-Fanfani (2006, pp. 139-140) notes: "the key factor in the struggle for teacher professionalism is not the need for a longer or better teacher preparation … but the issue of who will control the development of the profession".

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TEACHERS, EDUCATIONAL CHANGE AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: SOME THOUGHTS FROM A SOUTH AFRICAN EXPERIENCE

Chris Reddy

In the past decade, widespread educational changes were proposed for education at all levels of the system in South Africa. Educational reform has therefore become an inescapable part of the reality of teachers' work. Initial implementation of the new curriculum for schools, guiding reform after the shift to democracy in 1994, was not easy for teachers and this was later revised and streamlined. These processes happened in a compressed time frame and in-service programmes were developed to assist teachers with the preparations for curriculum delivery. This paper explores ideas on in-service teacher education and professional development and draw on a case study of an in-service process developed for teachers to highlight participant's views and responses to the programmes presented. Finally it discusses options and possibilities that might be considered for processes of continuous professional development to be more related to the needs and contexts of teachers' practices.

INTRODUCTION

The reasons for and change in education in South Africa is well documented in literature and will be briefly explored in this paper. The change in government was indeed a momentous occasion in the history of the country. The events immediately following the demise of apartheid (the institutionalised separation of "races" in all spheres of life) prompted a series of changes in the political and economic systems of the country, and the changes in education that followed this, had far-reaching implications for educational practitioners. Educational change was caught up in a swirl of socio-political change that had profound implications for teachers' work. In education, the response was to develop new education policy restructuring frameworks with the intention of bringing about greater development, equity, participation and redress of past imbalances. A plethora of policies saw the light of day, some of which suggested profound implications for teachers' work in general and classroom practice in particular. While these initial legislative changes took place fairly quickly, the implementation of more systemic structural, curricular and administrative changes in the education sector posed a greater challenge. The change in government in 1994 enabled fundamental change in the education policy environment in South Africa, which is aimed primarily at transformation at the systemic, social and methodological levels. Educational policy changes are potentially far reaching, in that the proposals for educational transformation are situated within a broader strategy for national reconstruction and development. In essence, policy changes and developments have been influenced by socio-political conditions in the country, as well as by external political and societal factors, including global shifts in thinking about education and economics. However, implementation of the policies occurs at local level and this requires adoption by and the support of educational institutions and professionals. The responses of teachers are an important indicator of the degree of support and adoption of change initiatives and policies. Policies, in turn, have implications for the work of teachers but teachers are central to and play an important role in change processes in education. These changes needed to occur in a very compressed time frame. Educational changes under such conditions are like a "living laboratory" that is different from the situation in more developed countries, where change occurs in an "essentially stable societal context". Socio-political changes and changes in the school system in SA have recently created increasing pressures and developmental challenges for teachers. Hargreaves & Fullan (1992) argue that teachers are important, if not indispensable, agents of educational reform, a sentiment echoed by Elmore (1996), who states that if the core processes of teaching and learning are not addressed, very little will change in schools. Datnow & Castellano (2000, p. 777) indicate that teachers are considered by most policymakers and school change experts to be the centrepiece of educational change. It is not surprising, therefore, that the involvement of teachers in school reform is seen as critical. However, some teachers push or support reform efforts and others resist or actively subvert them. The receptivity of teachers to reform depends on their level of involvement in the change effort (Fullan 1991). Many teachers were however systematically deskilled and disempowered by the apartheid government and opportunities for professional development

needed to be provided in order to achieve policy aims and imperatives for equal and developmental education for all the people of South Africa. In other words professional development of teachers was crucial for successful transformation of education particularly schooling.

TEACHERS AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The issue of professional development is receiving increased attention internationally as educators at all levels are realizing the centrality of teachers to school reform and improvement. Professional development (PD) has been variously described in literature and is used fairly loosely and interchangeably with INSET. Craft (1996, p.6) indicates that both terms tend to cover a wide range of activities designed to contribute to the learning of teachers who have completed their initial teacher education. Veenman, Van Tulder & Voeten (1994, p. 303) describe INSET as " a coherent set of activities to deepen and broaden knowledge attitudes and skills that are directly connected with the profession of teaching to improve teachers' professional competence and the effectiveness of their school." According to Little & Houston (2003, p. 76), "professional development is a goal orientated and continuous process supported through mentoring, coaching and feedback and contextualised to address the perceived needs of students within individual classrooms and schools." In South Africa INSET and professional development (PD) programmes currently offered to teachers are related to school reform and educational transformation. The process of educational reform has been closely linked to political reform and has been an ongoing process since the major democratic reforms in the country in 1994. In this period there have been major curriculum changes which have had far reaching implications for teachers work, particularly teaching practices and assessment processes. If teachers in schools are to meet the needs of all students and implement the curriculum imperatives developed in policies (Curriculum 2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement), instructional practices (teaching approaches) of teachers is one aspect facet of the education system that must be examined. In order to change instructional practices in meaningful ways (learn new instructional practices) teachers not only need to learn new instructional practices and content but also must alter their current practices through a revised process of professional development that includes continued support. Effective professional development according to Little & Houston (2003, p.76) is a complex and comprehensive process of change including multiple constituents within a system. Fullan (1993, p.257) suggests that to achieve a desired change, " professional development must be reconceptualised as continuous learning, highly integrated with the moral task of making a difference in the lives of diverse students under conditions of somewhat chaotic complexity". Garet, Porter, Desimone & Yoon (2001, p. 925) indicate that teachers need to be involved closely in the professional development and INSET processes. They refer to active learning which they describe as providing opportunities for teachers to become "actively engaged in meaningful discussion, planning and practice, particularly how new curriculum materials and teaching methods will be used in the classroom". This according to them would include opportunities to link ideas introduced during professional development experiences to the teaching contexts in which teachers work. Little & Houston (2003) indicate further that viewing the shift in approaches to teaching and learning as a change process necessitates matching quality professional development to provide new and deeper levels of knowledge and practice while focusing on policies and practices such as curriculum. The implication of the change process related to teachers' role means that somehow teachers would have to be given the opportunities for further education and training, meaning some form of professional development process needs to be organised. This has been part of the change process in South Africa.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING (INSET) PROCESSES FOR TEACHERS

What is currently being presented to teachers as in-service processes to assist with implementation of curriculum change imperatives? The information presented here was obtained by way of interviews with education department officials, members of provincial training teams and teachers particularly from the Western Cape Province. Since the major curriculum changes were introduced in South Africa the INSET programmes presented by the education departments (national and provincial) seem to have followed a specific pattern. This basically involves taking teachers out of classrooms to central venues for a few days

during which department officials or practitioners sanctioned by the department of education (nationally and provincially) present programmes for teachers. Materials used as resources were prepared by national education department teams or by teams sanctioned by the national department of education. This essentially involved advocacy campaigns and information dissemination in the earlier periods of curriculum change, particularly INSET processes associated with the implementation of Curriculum 2005. Curriculum staff attached to the provincial education departments were tasked with facilitating INSET programmes which were developed nationally. In some cases teachers were also involved as facilitators and the process followed what was called a cascade model which involved training of small numbers of people who in turn trained others and in this way the message cascaded to increasing numbers of people.

More recently for the Revised National Curriculum (RNC) training, a more structured process has been followed. A national team of 16 selected people were tasked with developing materials and a programme deemed suitable for the INSET process for all intermediate phase teachers in the country, in isolation at a national level. They in turn trained provincial representatives making up core provincial teams which were selected by the provincial education departments. These teams included curriculum support staff (at various levels), people from Non governmental organisations and also staff from other ministries in some provinces. Most of the teams were however drawn from the provincial education departments' own ranks. The thinking behind this approach was that by keeping the process controlled and tightly organised very little of the training message would be lost and would therefore be presented "intact" with very little loss of detail between trainers and trainees. During the implementation process, the trainers need to / are required to present what was presented to them as faithfully as possible. According to the official of the department, "the in-service trainers therefore sing off the same music sheet and give 'our teachers' a single message". The training of provincial trainers lasts for a period of four weeks at national level. After this further training of more provincial officials then takes place in the provinces by trained provincial staff under the guidance of national core training team members. Provinces develop resource materials for use in their provincial INSET processes.basing on the materials provided by the national department.

Implementation of INSET Processes

What form does the in-service process take in practice? Teachers are required to attend a week-long session during a school holiday, normally mid-year holiday at a central venue designated by the local district office. At these venues personnel who form part of the provincial training team or who have been trained by the provincial or national core training teams preside over activities and facilitate the process. In the Western Cape Province a training manual (Western Cape Education Department 2004) has been developed for this process in accordance with national training imperatives. This manual has been structured as a developmental process for the five day period that teachers attend and participants are expected to attend for the entire week. At the workshops teachers are provided with the manual (main resource) and also with activities they are required to do during the training week and in the weeks after the week of in-service training. The manual includes activities related to learning area statements, curriculum principles, assessment standards, outcomes and learning programme development. At the end of the week teachers are given tasks they have to work on back at school, often in collaboration with surrounding schools. This often involves the development of learning programmes and some forms of planning which need to be available for scrutiny when officials visit the schools.

Responses to INSET Processes

What are the views of some teachers subsequent to having attended the programmes? Comments regularly heard from teachers were "too much done in too short a time", "no prior consultation with us about what we need", " a very rigid process which does not allow discussion", "programme inflexible and time linked". Another comment heard often was, "many presenters do not have good inter-personal skills and make us feel and look stupid". One teacher said " they treat us like children who know nothing". It

was also mentioned by participants that the daily reflections were controlled, and that it appears as though facilitators expected specific feedback, mainly positive comments. Teachers indicated that critique was not well received and often viewed as a form of dissent. Responses were similar to earlier researches, where teachers also indicated that presenters seem to lack insights into the real reasons for change and also seem to have a limited understanding of the changes required. In these research projects teachers also commented on the poor inter-personal skills of the presenters and their views of teachers as people who were resistant to change and needed "training and upgrading". Many participants indicated that the presenters did not appear confident about the change process. One teacher indicated, "they seemed to be following a recipe from the training manual and did not seem to understand the process of change and the details of curriculum change". This was based on comments made by presenters which included "everything is in the books and you need to just learn the basics and implement". It was also mentioned that the presenters seemed to have some familiarity with training manual, official documents and the curriculum policy pack containing learning area books. They were not however able to digress beyond these books and documents or answer queries which were beyond the scope of these materials, particularly the orientation guide developed for the province.

Personal Experience

As a tertiary education practitioner, the author was part of a group that was given the same training programme as that offered to teachers during the week teachers attend and. This process was to provide teacher educators, publishers and non-governmental organisations involved with INSET insights into what teachers need to know in order to implement the RNCS. Part of the rationale was also to provide teacher educators with insights into the training required by teachers so that they might adjust the pre-service programmes accordingly. The programme was based on and driven by a training manual (WCED 2004). All the presenters used this book throughout the week and based all the activities on it. No other material was provided. The author experienced the process as one sided lecture type programme with some opportunities for group work, discussion and feedback but overall a very regulated and controlled process. The programme had a strong training and skills development focus with the training seemingly focused towards developing of learning programmes as the main goal to be reached by the end of the week. Questions from participants were met with answers that pointed them to particular pages in the training manual. The author's overall impression was that the programme was closely linked to a training manual, strongly skills based and developed as a short, intense training process that was aimed at providing a basic introduction to the rationale behind the national curriculum statement, background to learning areas and geared towards providing a strategy for learning programme development. The programme was highly structured and followed the training manual to the letter. There was very little time for discussion and presenters often mentioned that time was a constraining factor. It was clearly indicated by the presenters that discussion about the curriculum and possible flaws and shortcomings would not be allowed as this was not part of the training process. The officials called themselves messengers and indicated that they had neither developed the curriculum nor the training programme but were merely implementing what was developed by the province. The author's experience seemed to confirm what teachers had indicated in the interviews and discussion, mainly that the process was tightly controlled and inflexible, presenters were not keen to enter into discussions and that the process was intense, one-sided and focused on the development of particular skills, learning programme development in particular.

DISCUSSION

The reported experiences of teachers and my own experience of the INSET provided by the education department are similar and seems to indicate a preference for a skills training type of programme (Ross, Rolheiser & Hogaboam-Gray 1998, p. 463). They describe this as an approach where trainers help teachers upgrade their skills through study of theory, sequenced practice and other direct instructional

techniques. Little (1992) writes that enquiry into teachers' professional development reflects two quite different points of departure. A first, which is the path most frequently trod, involves teachers' progress in mastering the complexities of classroom practice. These are dominated by a concern for the implementation of specific pedagogical or curricular innovations. These programmes tend to be presented in unidirectional ways with participants being more passive than active. This seems to be the main thrust of the current INSET programmes teachers are being put through in South Africa according to teachers in the Western Cape and my own experiences. Teachers reported that they were not consulted about their needs and that they were largely taken through a structured process by dominant presenters. The strong emphasis on learning programme development and planning also indicates strong leanings towards skills training (Ross, Rolheiser & Hogaboam-Gray 1998). This is closely linked to the defect or deficit model described by Bagwandeen & Louw (1993, p. 69) who indicate that this model for INSET is characterised by the view of other educators that teachers need development because they lack the necessary skills to teach successfully. It assumes that something is wrong with the way teachers operate and that this needs to be corrected, the defects need to be repaired. According to Dadds (2001), the approach is prescriptive and reduces teachers' choice. She refers to this approach as the delivery model or empty vessel model as teachers are seen as empty vessels who make no contribution to the professional development process but are mere passive receivers. Courses are often developed in isolation and centrally providing "one size fits all" interventions that do not take varying contexts and needs into account. Another point mentioned by teachers as problematic. A second path according to Little (1992) draws attention to the organisational and occupational conditions that affect teachers' incentives and opportunities to learn. This body of research places professional development in the social organisation of teachers' work seeking the connection between the social organisation of teaching and the professional development of teachers. Such processes attend to the larger patterns of policies, practices and circumstances that affect teachers' professional obligations and opportunities as well as the broader issues that frame teaching and learning. Inquiries have also broadened to include curiosities about how teachers learn to teach how they mature intellectually and professionally and how they sustain engagement in their work over time. This general approach links to the growth model for INSET (Bagwandeen & Louw 1993) which aims to familiarise teachers with developments in the field of education. Jackson (1971, p.26) writes that the growth model is based on the assumption that: "...teaching is a complex and multifaceted activity about which there is more to know than can ever be known by any one person. From this point of view the motive for learning more about teaching is not to repair a personal inadequacy as a teacher but to seek greater fulfilment as a practitioner…" In this approach to PD INSET processes are seen as opportunities for continuous professional development rather than sessions during which skills are updated or new skills are learned. There is wider opportunities provided for growth and teachers are viewed as professionals who hold professional opinions about their work and issues related to their work. From the foregoing it is clear that the current programmes provided for teachers by the education department are skills focused and also in keeping with the assumptions underpinning a deficit model. Furthermore, the programmes seem to resonate with the viewpoint of Clark (1992, p. 75) "In some quarters, (professional development) implies a process done to teachers; that teachers need to be forced into developing; that teachers have deficits in knowledge and skill that can be fixed by training and that teachers are pretty much alike. He comments further that: "this is hardly an ideal set of conditions for adult learning, support and development." The experience broadly indicates that teachers are not deficient, passive or homogenous. Research on teacher thinking supports the position that teachers are more active than passive, more ready to learn than resistant, more wise and knowledgeable than deficient and more diverse and unique than they are homogenous. This flattering and optimistic picture is not true of all teachers in all situations though, but represents a viewpoint that seems to be missing from the current INSET and PD processes in South Africa.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In-service education of teachers in a period of large-scale education transformation is major logistical undertaking that no one doubts. But the question is whether the current approach being implemented for

INSET is the only and the best option? The accounts of teachers and my own personal experience of the current INSET process suggests many of the ideas presented by the authors as "good" INSET / PD programmes (Fullan 1991, 1993; Clark 1992; Veenman, Van Tulder & Voeten 1994) have not always been taken into account in the INSET process provided and facilitated by the education department. While much information is imparted during the programmes not much follow up support is / has been forthcoming. In addition very little is done by way of support for transfer of ideas presented during centralised INSET programmes to classroom practice. What this entails is that teachers are subjected to a training type process during which "new skills" that need to be implemented are emphasised. Ross et al. (1998, p. 463) indicate that the inadequacies of a skills training approach include that it is generally too short, designed by non teachers without regard for recipients needs and provide little conceptual grounding. They add that these sessions often address disembodied skills divorced from curricular context, give insufficient follow up support and ignore conditions under which teachers work. Sachs & Logan (1990, p. 479) indicate that if the training model as described above is continually favoured or becomes the only route to professional development then, instead of developing reflective practitioners who are able to understand, challenge and transform their practice, "in-service education in its current form encourages the development of teachers who see their world in terms of instrumental ends achievable through the recipes of 'tried and true' practices legitimated by unexamined experience or uncritically accepted research findings." Hargreaves (1994, p. 5) writes that the involvement of teachers in educational change is vital to its success especially if the change is complex and is to affect many settings over long periods of time. It is extremely difficult to change everyday practice of teachers as much of teachers work can be described as routinised work rooted in cultural habits.It certainly appears as though much of this may be true for the South African context in general and some local contexts in particular. Literature on the topic of INSET discussed earlier indicates that teachers experience major problems with implementation of novel ideas and policies where there is a preference for narrow skills based processes of INSET. It is also well documented that PD / INSET programmes that occur over longer periods and which are followed by site based support might lead to more successful implementation of curriculum initiatives and changes by teachers, an aspect glaringly absent from current programmes. According to Hedges (1999, p. 114), much of the work done by teachers is based on complex rituals and is almost habitual. Changes that impact on the work done by teachers is therefore filtered through strong forces of habit and ritual that date to pre-service teacher education and that are rooted in the complexities of school settings and the broader society. The work done by teachers has a sense of purpose: there are things that teachers value and want to achieve through their teaching. There are also things they do not value and things they fear will not work. Teachers' purposes motivate what teachers do. Sadly, reformers and change agents often overlook the purposes of teachers. They do not give teachers' purposes a voice. They treat those purposes as if they are unimportant and do not exist. Ignoring or riding roughshod over teachers' purposes, however, can produce resistance and resentment (Hargreaves & Fullan 1992, p.31). Many of the factors mentioned above are relevant to the South African context, in which socio-political factors have played an important role in the change process. In addition, the realities of schooling already impose pressures on teachers and these were seemingly ignored during policy developments. Thus, the assumptions underlying teachers' participation in reform, the development of policies and the planning of INSET processes ought to be examined not only in the light of professional / personal factors, but also in the light of the ideological, political and social factors influencing educators and in the light of specific contexts in which teachers work. This is particularly important in the South African context, with its history of disparity and discrimination. Wood & Bennett (2000, p.1) note that, in an era of radical reform, there are potential tensions between changes that are imposed externally through government policy and changes in professional knowledge and practice that are generated by teachers. May be the answer to the question "why have our teachers still not changed", is because the INSET processes have not and probably need to be changed.

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PROGRESSIVE TRANSFORMATIVE TEACHER EDUCATION IN CAMEROON

Tchombe T. M.

This paper addresses the extent to which the Government of Cameroon is progressively transforming teacher education so that it responds to providing an education for sustainable development. Transformative teacher education presupposes the preparation of teachers who can in their practices ensure transformative learning, where teacher and learner, learner and learner are co-constructors of knowledge. Education during the colonial era had its specific mission and teachers were trained to respond to that mission. Today there are new expectations for education where the focus is on having teachers be visionary leaders to ensure sustainable education. The paradigm shift is from teacher dominated classroom practices to that of partnership between the teacher and the learners and their peers. The shift takes its conceptual cues from constructivism and social constructivism that address participatory pedagogy. Although the new law no. 98/004 of 14 April 1998addressed models, patterns, duration and programmes in the training of teachers, much is still to be done to effectively trained and retrained teachers so that they take their places in the new social order and market economy.

INTRODUCTION

In the last ten decades there have been competing conceptual views on teacher education in Cameroon and Africa as a whole. These views have pitted against mechanistic, organic, constructive and co-constructive perspectives for quality teacher education and training. The differing opinion has ignited reflections on a progressive transformative pattern for teacher education and training. For example today value judgments about the standards of education are rather mechanistic, quantitative than constructive and qualitative. From the mechanistic perspective, teachers are expected to be subject specialists, capable of matching their teaching to particular age and are held accountable for the success of their pupils' learning. Performance in examination is the major determinant of teacher quality. From this mechanistic perspective, the scope of teacher education and training is limited as it only provides teachers with survival skills to handle and cope with classroom routines and rituals. Focus on their classroom activities is responding to prescriptions such as completing the schemes of work for the term or the syllabus for the year with no attention to quality learning outcomes. There is yet the organic perspective where value judgments are based on successful teaching and educating in order to enrich learners cognitively and affectively. This approach also narrows the scope of teacher education and training. With these limitations in early teacher training approaches, the trend today emphasizes constructive and co-constructive approaches, where teacher education take training cues by focusing on quality teaching that addresses the active involvement and engagement of learners for quality outcomes. This paradigm shift in training will also facilitate and enhance practice that move from teachability to learnability (Tchombe 2001). The challenge is for teachers to able to grasp the broader issues of knowledge and professional skills. With this, teachers can create and re-create knowledge, understand their learners and how to effectively deal and interact with them. Also, the shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred education drives home a new philosophy of how to teach, maintain positive teacher-pupils' relationships, partnerships and better classroom structure (Tchombe 2006). The rapidly changing social and technological events of our time constitute the pursuit of higher life goals beyond mere survival. New political patterns and alliances are being forged. The strand of transcendental events is symbolic of the advances in science and technology. This resulted to knowledge explosion, shrinking communication and rapid renewal of technological devices. Yet it is the responsibility of the education system to train new citizens, men and women prepared to face up with courage and decisiveness to this task of survival and self-transcendence. Evolving social realities and changing enrolment patterns have in many cases overtaken the reforms of educational curricula Teacher education becomes crucial to this restructuring, renewal and reactivating process. This justifies the progressive transformations especially in the area of teacher education in Cameroon to meet the challenges of globalisation. Again, in quantitative terms, there has been very significant expansion in schools enrolment in Cameroon at all levels, necessitating the need for increase in the number of teacher education and training institutions and practicing teachers.This paper examines from a conceptual base, aspects of teacher education, including policy, training and research which have

yielded to sustainable education and have succinctly endorsed a progressive transformative teacher education in Cameroon. This is in response to the rapidly changing social and technological events of the 21st century. In this respect, teacher education goes beyond producing people who can teach and who are intellectually equipped to develop their professional competence further (McNamara & Desforges 1979) to training for a clear knowledge of situational understanding of the context of the education process (Tchombe 2006). These new progressive and transformative perspectives in teacher education are embedded in state policies for education, training programmes and research networks for sustainable education. The rest of the paper develops and raises issues and perspectives to underscore variables of progressive transformative teacher education, with emphasis on policy, training and research issues and raise some critical concerns.

BACKGROUND

Cameroon Education System

In the years 1960, 1961 moving towards independence and the unitary era 1972, the trend in education was first to protect inherited values from the colonial masters(British and French). With time, increasing consciousness of Africanisation led to attitude change in order to make education content and its practices respond to contextual expectations. Major issues necessitating a review of teacher education were: the ruralisation of Cameroon education because about 85% of the population of Cameroon live and work in rural areas, re-unification of the two sections with the emerging issue of harmonization of the two systems of education and the introduction of bilingualism. This means that new teachers have to be trained and the old reoriented to meet with new emphasis and challenges in teaching. Bilingualism generated a new kind of curriculum organization, representing a new approach to education reflecting a complex process of social change. The introduction of bilingualism put pressure on the teacher factor because of lack of teacher preparedness for this new task. The structure of the education system has undergone many changes but what obtains today is 2 years nursery, 6 years Primary, 5 years Secondary - first cycle, and 2 years secondary - second cycle. For Higher Education with the BMD/LMP system, the structure is 3 years First Degree; 2 years Master and 3 years Ph.D. The country now strives to put in place a national curriculum in the country. At the primary level the school year is divided into six sequences with specific competence, to be acquired before moving on to the next level. With increase in school enrolment because of the demand for education at all levels, specific skills are needed to cope with large class size and multi-grade teaching which teacher training never addresses. Characteristics of effective schools are level of performance, infrastructure, teacher/pupils ratio, community involvement, financial autonomy, progress rate of students, healthy competition between male and female students and attendance. While, government tries to ensure access, its policy recognizes and protects the diverse educational heritage from the different colonial culture and educational values. It attempts to make the beneficiaries of education to be more involved in the management of education and reduce cost, encourage efficiency, transparency and quality education.

School Statistics

2003/2004 statistics for teaching staff at all levels of the school system from nursery, primary, secondary and teacher education stand at 89,213. Since initial training, many of these teachers have not had access to in-service training opportunities. Nor are teachers in higher education equipped with relevant university pedagogic skills through such in-service opportunities. Teachers needing in-service training at all levels are: Nursery (8,882), Primary (55,266), Secondary (23,682) and Teachers Educators (1,383). A total of about 87,730 teachers require continuing in-service training. For 2006-2007, the statistics illustrate enrolment in nursery government schools to be 81,931 and 135,353 for private Schools with a disaggregate statistics stating females to be 108,427 and males 1,088. There are 5,620 teachers in government schools and 6,729 in private schools. The enrolment in government primary schools is 2,430,020 and for private schools are 690,337, with 1,698,733 boys and 1,421,624 girls. Number of teachers stands at 50,742 for government and 22,115 for private schools. In the case of general secondary and technical and vocational education, the statistics are as follows: government general secondary

education 1,284, 800 students and 16,280 teachers while for technical there are 8,700 teachers and 19, 742 students. As regards private schools for both general and technical secondary education, there are 1, 416, 440 students and 7,503 teachers. Also for the first cycle there are 2.820,182 students and 32,483 teachers. Education decentralisation in Cameroon has been under three sub-systems, that is, the Islamic, Anglophone and Francophone sub systems but the Islamic sub-System is not yet very official. Four tutelage ministries manage educational affairs in terms of educating, training and research: Ministry of Basic Education, Ministry of Secondary Education, Ministry of Higher Education and Ministry of Scientific Research and Innovation. The Ministries of Basic and Secondary education have decentralised services at the Provincial, Divisional and even District levels. These ministries also have decentralised services for public, lay private and denominational institutions.

Evolution of Teacher Education

The formal training of teachers in Cameroon is a relatively new phenomenon that dates back to about 70 years. Schools in Cameroon during the pre-colonial and colonial eras were responding only to the needs of evangelisation and colonialism rather than education for national development. By the late 19th century therefore, the earliest kind of teacher education appeared in the training of men to teach the doctrines of various religions. Alfred Saker (1885) and the Roman Catholic Mission (1907) respectively provided such training in Douala. In these early days in French Cameroon, teacher education was carried out in the senior primary school in Yaoundé, which trained elementary school teachers. Early attempts to provide teacher education were by private endeavour. The first training college; Foulassi, was opened in 1925 near Sangmelima in the Dja-et Lobo by the Presbyterian American Mission with the objective to train teachers for the primary schools and for evangelisation. These teachers also served as community and religious leaders. The duration of the training was two and half years with one year spent for pedagogical activities and the rest for content, general culture and the bible. With a high demand for teachers, professional regional schools were opened in Ebolowa, Dschang, Ngaoundere, Garoua and Maroua, with an autonomous professional training centre in Douala (Fonkeng 2007). From the aforementioned during this early beginning, the aims of teacher education and training were limited, reflecting the narrow aims of the schools for which they were trained. Schools were to provide basic skills in the 3Rs and other useful information. Since the colonial masters' main objective was to spread their culture and civilizations, teaching methods encouraged, lacked a scientific base, and this had implications for all training and teaching endeavours. In the British part of Cameroon, the first school for the training of teachers was opened in Victoria in 1922 but was later moved to Buea and renamed the Normal College. Between 1927 and 1931 four batches of students were admitted in the Normal College in Buea for a two year course. In 1932, the student teachers who had completed the first year in the Buea Normal College were transferred to Kake in Kumba. The implications here were two-fold: (1) the need for more trained teachers and (2) the need for a new and polyvalent teacher for a rural society whose role would be diverse and multifarious. These teachers were prepared for teaching in the lower primary classes.

The three-year Teacher's Grade III was not terminal as it provided grounds for continuous development. Successful Grade III teachers taught for a year and qualify for admission into a two-year higher elementary Training Course (Grade II) some of whom went to Nigeria. In some cases they did a straight four-year course. Further growth of teacher education was the institution of the Grade II course in Cameroon in 1945 at the Government Teacher Training College (GTTC) Kumba. From then onwards, more training colleges were opened by both the state and private initiatives for the training of Grade III, Grade II and even Grade I Teachers. The curriculum included courses for the professional development of the teachers, primary school subjects and subjects for specialist teachers such as manual arts, rural science, home economics, handicraft and woodwork. Grade I certificates were also awarded to candidates who after their courses obtained both "O" and "A" Level papers in the General Certificate of Education examination and passed in the practical teaching examination in either a secondary or teacher training classroom. More transformations in teacher education were precipitated in the 1960s with the clearing off of pupil-teachers from the field. This was to ensure quality and also maintain job security for existing

trained teachers. This led to the introduction of a five-year course leading to the award of a Grade II Teacher Certificate. Entry qualification was Primary School Leaving Certificate with a pass in the Common Entrance Examination. The first three years were for personal development of the student teacher in secondary school subjects. The last two years were for professional development. The importance given to education and training of teacher was emphasized by the pioneer President Ahmadu Ahidjo of Cameroon in 1966 who reiterated in the statement; "Cameroon must undertake the training en masse of teachers who are worthy of their vocation; such masters must be supplied both in the particular subject given and where they are wanted, in whatever part of the country that may be".

PRIVATE INITIATIVES

Denominational Training Colleges and Non Governmental Support

For the English Speaking Cameroon, a Teacher training college for girls was opened in Kumba by the St Franciscan Missionaries in 1949, awarding a Grade III and later Grade II certificates. In addition, another training college was opened in Mutengene for both men and women. Today what remains of these efforts is the training college in Tatum in the North West province. The Presbyterian Church had three teacher training colleges opened since 1966, only Presbyterian Teacher Training College (PTTC) Mbengwi opened in 1981 for the training of Grade II teachers now exists. The Baptist Mission through the support of the German Development Service (DED) opened a teacher training college for Grade I and II Teacher Certificates with boarding facilities in Ndop in 1985. Other than these, DED through the financial support of the Protestant Association for Cooperation and Development (EZE) initiated in-service training programmes for academically qualified, but pedagogically untrained teachers in the Presbyterian and Baptist secondary schools in the North West and South West provinces as from 1994/1995 academic year. The programme was to improve skills in the teaching of Mathematics, the Pure Sciences and Food and Nutrition. This initiative provides school-based in-service training opportunities for their teachers.

For the French Speaking Cameroon, by 1956 there were only four private teacher training colleges in the whole territory, the first of which had been opened at Nkongsamba. Between 1957 /1958 the Lutheran Evangelical Church opened a college whose objective was to train teachers. Other strategies for training were adopted by the mission, leading since 1975 to the opening of a center in Ngaoundere for the retraining of teachers. Other prospective teachers of the Lutheran schools were trained as private teachers in the then Government Teacher Training Colleges for all levels of the school systems as far back as 1972. Some of the teachers were trained in Senegal and France. The essence was to improve the quality of teachers at both the primary and secondary levels.In 1988 the leaders of Protestant education in Francophone Africa created a group to reflect on pedagogic reforms for the purpose of ensuring more active participation of pupils in the learning process and relevant programmes that would facilitate the integration of pupils in their environment. The reflection led to the creation in 1989, of a school development net work (Reseaue Ecole et Development) known by the acronym, RED. The pedagogic reform to improve teacher's skills focuses on the development of teaching methods that encourage independence and initiatives. In addition to institutional offerings, the Catholic mission organizes more school-base teacher training at diocesan level with the support of pedagogic animators. Teachers must participate in a number of sessions to qualify as teachers.

Other Approaches

Teachers who could not be admitted into training institutions were encouraged to enroll for the external examinations. The external system also included competitive examinations. These examinations were taken by professionally trained teachers in order to improve on their civil service status and thus obtained financial benefits. Persons who had never been trained professionally also took these competitive examinations with a view to becoming teachers.

NEW INITIATIVES: POLICIES AND PERSPECTIVES FOR STRENGTHENING TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education and training in Cameroon provides initial and in-service at all the levels in compliance with the presidential decree of 19th June 1980, structuring teacher education institutions and courses (Tchombe, 2000). This was the first policy stipulating the duration of basic teacher education and training. Efforts to democratize teacher education programmes and make them more effective were primary in government's venture in the 1980s and 1990s with focus on ensuring quality and excellence. Trailing government efforts were those of the private sector which did not lag behind. The strength of teacher education in Cameroon today is on government and private sectors.

Change however, can be brought about when people begin to want to reformulate their own purposes, organize their own means to ensure growth and development. African knowledge and systems of organization and management, including their social support systems are gradually being inculcated as content and pedagogical practices. Anglophone and Francophone Cameroon saw teacher education from different perspectives. Anglophone teacher education laid great emphasis on the professional training of teachers institutionally, whereas its Francophone counterpart believed more in training on the job and becoming professional teachers through competitive examination. The two colonial cultures did pose challenge for educational reforms in teacher education and for practicing teachers, which led to policy structuring teacher education following levels and types of education: nursery, primary, secondary general and secondary technical and vocational. The Higher Teacher Training College or ENS was organised by decree no. 88/1328 of 28th September 1988 with novel initiatives and policies that had perspectives for updating and strengthening teacher education in the country. Teacher education now had to go beyond training the teacher for the classroom or only with survival value to global development. For example, new initiatives by this policy highlighted the potentials for quality and research to address core educational issues for decision making. Higher Teacher Education and Training college is now designed to respond to needs of training, retraining, research and pedagogic interventions and innovations. Didactics of disciplines even Guidance Counseling were added with emphasis on innovations in education through pedagogical animation and research and teacher educators. Although teacher training colleges were temporarily closed down in 1987/88 as a result of structural adjustment and recommendations from the World Bank, they were reopened in 1995 for the training of Grade One teachers for the primary schools. Today, state-owned teacher training colleges are found in nearly all of the 58 Divisions that make up the country, alongside 5 privately-owned institutes. Despite the existence of the 2 Higher Teachers Training College in Yaounde and Bambili, government has created yet another in Maroua, which goes operational in October 2008. There are also teacher training institutions for the training of teachers for technical vocational education at the secondary level at INSET in Douala. There is also a faculty of education at the University of Buea offering dual mode training. Current initiatives, policies and patterns for strengthening teacher education in Cameroon are drawn from the 1995 National Education Forum; and the 1998 education law in Cameroon. On the training of teachers, the Education Forum (1995) redefined the profile of the teacher in the following statements: "Teachers in both government and private schools must be physically fit; show proof of sound general, professional and civic training; cultured and good at communication and leadership; of good conduct and in a bit to ensure quality education; and well catered for with at least all his basic needs entirely satisfied". These new conceptions of the teacher provided new ways and perspectives for teacher preparation in the country stipulating the new orientations for the training in terms of number of years of training, entry characteristics and specific levels. Entry into any training programme was only through a competitive entrance examination. These orientations were promulgated into law No. 98/004 of 14 April 1998 providing new policy defining legislation in the education and training of teachers in both its initial and in-service training programmes.

Based on law no. 98/004 of 14 April 1998, basic teacher education in nursery and primary teacher training colleges trained only for the Grade I teacher certificate. The new initiatives have sealed off courses leading to Grade II and Grade III certification. This policy provides three types of entry characteristics required and defines the duration of training as follows: Students with five "O" Levels or

above or its equivalents, spend three academic years. Students in the second type of Grade I course enter with one "A" level and five "O" levels or their equivalent. Those in these categories are trained for two years. The students who enter with two "A" levels or a first degree spend only one year. As evident, these specifications have implications for entry qualifications, duration, and salary category for each programme. Evolutionary trends with new policies for teacher education have also been experienced in secondary and technical and vocational teacher training colleges. Basically, the 1998 education law maintained that qualification for entry into secondary and technical and vocational teacher training institutions was and remains G.C.E. "A" Level or its equivalent. The duration of training is three years, depending on the student's entry qualification for the first cycle and two years for the second cycle with different specifications. Three sections existed in the first cycle and the duration of the courses varied from two to three years and four years for those in the bilingual series with two or more "A" levels or its equivalent. These orientations simplified the training process as Tambo and Tchombe (1997) in a World Bank study identified eleven training models for teacher education in Cameroon; six of the models were evident in primary teacher education and five models were identified for secondary teacher training programmes.

Programme Structure

Tambo & Tchombe (1997) identified five main components of initial teacher training programmes. These include general education, specialized subjects, professional studies, practicum and socio-cultural context knowledge. Training focuses on educational theory and principles for practice. Theoretical training also involves studying the academic disciplines. Bilingual training is also emphasized since Cameroon is a bilingual country (in English and French) and teachers have the responsibility to serve in any part of the country. Practicum constitutes a major component of teacher training programme, although the duration is inadequate. Across the training programmes offered, three programme patterns are evident (Tambo and Tchombe 1997) that includes comprehensive, professional and disciplines or academic focused. But today, teacher education and training lacks depth and so there is need for continuous restructuring of teacher training programmes, with considerations to student teacher's personal education, his more immediate and long term needs, and the structure and content of courses offered.

Certification

Each teacher training programme ends with an end of course examination that permits the student teacher to graduate. At the primary teacher training level, successful candidates obtain the Teacher Grade I certificate or the Certificat d'Aptitude Pedagogue de l'Enseignement Maternel et Primaire. With respect to secondary teacher education, four types of certificates are offered. There is DIPES I and II for first and second cycles secondary teaching and DIPEN I and II for first and second cycle teacher education. Although structured as the certificates are, the hierarchical relationship between levels is direct. The certificates are independent of each other and attract different scales of remuneration.

ALTERNATIVE PATHWAYS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION Government policy has advanced, for in January 1994/1995, a faculty of education was opened at the University of Buea with the Department of Curriculum Studies and Teaching, Department of Educational Administration and Department of Educational Psychology. Still on strengthening teacher education in the country, distance education degree course started in December 2006 at the Faculty of Education in the University of Buea to provide opportunities for continuing education for teachers of Basic Education. Among entry requirements into B.Ed. in Nursery and Primary Education programme, is the fact that students must be practicing teachers in nursery and primary schools. New trends in the education arena emerging from the different international declarations including the Millennium Development Goals, EFA goals and educating in ways that respond to market forces are making great demands on education offerings for which the teaching core is not adequately prepared, which are:

Concerns for quality, relevance, equity in access, all of which are geared towards resolving the issue of poverty reduction.
Opportunities for teachers to study at their convenience without compromising quality.
Respond to the second decade of Education for Africa's (2006 – 2015) draft plan of action in June 2006 that addresses the issue of teacher shortage, improving the competence of teachers and school leadership.
New emphasis on the training of teachers for Early Childhood Education and Care.
Developing teachers' competence in inclusive education.

Policy Issues

The revised constitution of 1996, in its articles. 55 & 56 recognizes the need for decentralization in the administration generally and education administration. Implementation of the above articles led to current Policy as evident in Law N° 98/004 of 14 April 1998, Article 2, and sub paragraph 3 recognizing the role of private partners in educational provision in Cameroon. It further stipulated that the state shall ensure the elaboration and the putting into action the educational policy which shall include decentralized local councils, families, public and private institutions. Educational financing shall be done by the state and decentralized local councils. The responsibility of local decentralized councils in putting in action education policy and financing shall be fixed by a special order.

Law N° 17 of 22 July 2004 on the orientation of decentralisation states in part:

"Regions shall devolve the powers to create, equip and maintain government schools… recruit and pay staff". This falls within the Sectoral Conferences organised by the various education ministries at the National and Provincial levels to ensure direct management of teachers by the various councils.
Effective Involvement of P.T.A.
Pedagogic and Management Capacity.
Availability of ICT Resource Centres at Provincial Levels.

Presidential decree of 2004/320 of 8th December 2004 split the then Ministry of National Education (MINEDUC) into 3 ministries as follows: MINEDUB, MINESEC, MINEFOP. Organization charts of the above ministries accord special powers to deconcentrated authorities with regards to personnel management and appointment of Headmasters and transfer of teachers, planning and implementation of in-service training by provincial delegations and choice of textbooks by schools on a proposed national book list.

There are the National and Provincial Pedagogic Inspectors who supervise and inspect teachers in schools. In addition there are the provincial delegates who are responsible for ensuring a balance between supply and demand through:

Recruitment of teachers at provincial level
Community based recruitment of teachers under the supervision of the delegates.

Priorities for Policy for Teacher Education and Practising Teachers

Increasing Decentralization of Teacher Training Colleges at the Provincial and Divisional Levels;
Appropriate compensation for teachers serving in rural areas;
By 2011; 40,000 teachers will be recruited;
Presently 18,800 have been recruited and deployed;
Creation and use of locally produced didactic material;
Institution of a National Day for didactic materials on 4th October yearly;
Improving teacher's morale by celebrating the International Day for Teachers on the 5th of November each year.

Legislation for the creation of Parents' Teachers' Association (PTA) and School Management Councils were established. By the Law of 19th December 1990 on the Freedom of Associations, teachers'

syndicates went operational. Teacher management in public and private schools moved from more central administration to school base with decisions taken at provincial, sub-divisional and school levels. Decisions on the management of teachers in private schools are undertaken at the school level. Some issues were based on the following:

Bottom-Up approach to make schools to become more effective;

Instituting school good governance with increasing pupils' effective participation, well disciplined schools, reduced dropout and absenteeism;

Provision of aggregate statistics for all levels of education on enrolment, number of teachers, gender and schools classrooms.

Indicators of Quality for Teacher Education

Pedagogic practices and existence of quality assurance mechanism;
Professional preparation;
Research activities and dissemination;
Degree of autonomy;
Teacher commitment;
Libraries;
Infrastructure;
Connectedness (ICTs & Internet).

New Capacity Needed to Facilitate Education Quality to be Inculcated in Teacher Education

Strategies and techniques of handling overcrowded classrooms;
Use of ICT in teaching / learning and follow up strategies of inspection;
Multiple grade teaching techniques;
Pedagogic accountability skills;
New techniques for enhancing reformative learning strategies;

Constraints on Teacher Development.

Inadequate Access to Seminars & Workshops and no Follow up for Capacity Building

Training programme for initial and in-service need to reflect the needs of the school system. At present the programmes are inadequate for effective teacher preparation as concern the development of skills in ICT, Human rights, and HIV/AIDS. There is no career growth profile within or between levels.

Public Service employs teachers based on prescribed categories for teachers and their qualifications.

Teachers from rural areas never want to service in these areas.

Teachers in most of our institutions are not trained and those who are trained are not well trained. In-service provisions whenever such is provided do not pay particular attention to teachers' immediate needs. Organizers of in-service training ought to have an operational rationale focused primarily on identifying practicing teachers' needs. Teacher education should provide student teachers with skills for research so that they can be critical of their own teaching and be self-evaluative. Because the programmes are over crowded with student-teachers being expected to attend lectures, be on the field for practicum or teaching practice, and at the same time do a long essay, dissertation and produce field report. The essential courses for professional training are treated in a very shallow manner. There much emphasis the teaching disciplines than on the education courses. Out of the 32 hours to 36 hours a week course offerings in all the levels of teacher education only an average of 6 hours are devoted to education courses. Students feel they are not adequately prepared for the profession.

SUMMARY OF PROGRESSIVE TRANSFORMATIONS IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN CAMEROON

19th century focus on teacher education was preparing teachers for evangelisation and colonisation

First half of the 20th century beginning phase of transformation of teacher education making it formal in terms of structure, content and certification to respond to new political and social awareness and

needs. Middle part of the century saw the need for training a polyvalent teacher to address the diverse needs of the education system e.g., ruralisation, and bilingualism.

Presidential decree of 19th June 1980, structuring teacher education institutions and courses: the first policy stipulating the duration of basic teacher education and training.

Government's effort to democratize teacher education in the 1980s and 1990s was with focus on ensuring quality and excellence. The Higher Teacher Training College or ENS was organised by decree no. 88/1328 of 28th September 1988 with novel initiatives and policies that had perspectives for updating and strengthening teacher education in the country.

Redefining teacher education programmes at the different levels with the education forum of 1995, the New Constitution of 1996, the 1998 law to lay down guide lines on education. Current Policy as evident in Law N° 98/004 of 14 April 1998, Article 2, and sub paragraph 3 recognizes the role of private partners in educational provision in Cameroon. Law no. 98/004 of 14 April 1998 necessitated new policy defining legislation in the education and training of teachers in both its initial and in-service training programmes.

Based on law no. 98/004 of 14 April 1998, basic teacher education in nursery and primary teacher training colleges was reviewed so that teachers are trained only for the Grade I courses.

Putting in place decentralized structure to give schools and teacher more autonomy: Law No 17 of 22 July 2004 on the orientation of decentralisation was established.

CONCLUSION

Teacher Education and Training in Cameroon have come a long way through constant transformations to respond to the specific needs of the changing Cameroonian society including the realities of her colonial heritage. Inclusion of indigenous perspectives in Cameroon's education and its practices requires a new breed of teachers who can be creative and innovative in their teaching, making the children more active learners. Government's policy on Teacher education must as of necessity put in place structures and mechanism to improve on teacher quality. Such policy should be able to ensure that teachers are connected and have all possibilities to access alternative delivery systems. Models, content, structure of teacher education needs strengthening by a strong policy that addresses both global and context specific concerns. The need for structural changes to meet up with the required skills and standards is evident. Such structure should show clearly the different training options, pre-service training, initial training and subsequently in-service training patterns to enable teachers at all levels be sure of access for professional growth and development. Such a change in structure would help to delineate and clarify the objective of the different phases of teacher education. Wastage in training would be reduced. Increased and improved mobility and communication between the various parts of the courses would be ensured. Firstly, school-based in-service should be encouraged within a well-structured framework. Secondly, teacher education programmes should be structured with a goal of creating a faculty of education with affiliated or constituent colleges. In-service courses should be provided for updating practicing teachers with current trends in educational growth and research. Opportunities for access to Distance education should be multiplied. Students attend classes for approximately 35 to 40 weeks each year, indicating that there are about nine to thirteen weeks a term. The school week varies from 26 to 36 hours teaching, with not enough time for private study. The school days are too long. There is little or no time for research and individual study. If societies hope to truly develop, teacher education must be transformed to be more responsive to the needs of the people, circumstances of the time and the aspirations of the nation. Improvement in the quality of education is crucially dependent on the inputs of teachers who must develop and nurture a wide range of knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviours and values. Teachers translate policies into programmes, principles or theories into actions. The new strides taken by government for teacher education and training underscore progressive structural transformations with practical innovations in the areas of training, research and sustainable education. The way forward highlights four issues:

Create opportunities for capacity building for teacher educators through exchange;

Provide institutions with information communication technological (ICT) tools to enhance the development of new pedagogical skills for sustainable teaching and learning;
Help with the equipping (ICT materials) of the ten focal centers in the ten regions of Cameroon for contact with distance education in-service teachers;
Support the strengthening of institutional capacity for caring and managing vulnerable and disabled students.

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ABREVIATIONS

DIPENIA I : Diplôme de Professeur des Ecole Normal d'Instituteurs Adjoints (Diploma for Assistant Teachers of Training Colleges).
DIPENIA II : Post graduate Diploma for Teacher Trainers
DIPES I: Diploma for Teaching in First Cycle Secondary Ed.
DIPES II: Post graduate Diploma for Teaching in Second Cycle Secondary Ed.
E.N.I.: Ecole Normal Instituteur (Grade I Teachers' College).
E.N.I.A: Ecole Normale Instituteurs Adjoints (Grade II Teachers' College).
E.N.I.E.T.: Ecole Normal Instituteur Enseignement Technique (Grade I Technical Teachers'College).
ENIEAT: Ecole Normale Instituteur Enseignement Technique (Grade II Technical Teachers'College).
E.N.S.E.T.: Ecole Normale Supérieur Enseignement Technique (Advanced Technical Teachers' College).
E.N.S.: Ecole Normale Supérieure (Higher Teachers' College).

A STUDY OF RESPONSES OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS ON EXISTING BACHELOR OF EDUCATION COURSE

R.P.Shukla
Nrapendra Vir Singh
Rekha Tripathi

Every concerned person talks about quality education. There have been reforms for total quality education. Programs, plans and policies have been devised to achieve the quality. Unfortunately we could not get expected result in this direction, may be because we could not consider the equal importance of all the three aspects (input, process and output) together in relation to the educational objectives we have had framed. The quality parameters like infrastructural facilities, good physical plant, competent teacher, quality student conducive environment for curricular transaction need to be considered as pre-requisites of any reform for quality improvement. Teacher education seems to be the most adversely affected area with regard to quality improvement. Mushrooming of B.Ed. colleges without satisfying the NCTE norms have further deteriorated the quality. The present study analyses the status of B.Ed. course being offered by central university.

INTRODUCTION

Teachers play a prominent role in national and social reconstruction and in transmission of wisdom, knowledge and experiences of one generation to another generation. The most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction, is the teacher- his/her personal qualities, educational qualifications, personal training and the place that he/she occupies in the school as well in the community. The status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of the society. And for the status of the teacher, government and community are to create conditions which will help, motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines so that teachers can innovate, devise appropriate methods of communication and activities relevant to the needs and capabilities of the concerns of the community. Thus, teachers are to play a crucial role in the formulation and implementation of educational programmes. The quality of an education system depends to a large measure on securing a fair number of well qualified and educated, well-equipped, contented and updated teachers. For creating effective teacher, we need an effective and rich teacher training institution whose mission is to promote the professional growth of teacher through pre-service, in service and graduate programmes, as well as provide educational leadership and support through consultation and research. The entire emphasis should be to prepare good, knowledgeable and trained teachers for schools. The B.Ed. programme is a professional course and this course inculcates different types of curricular and co-curricular activities. The purpose of this programme is to prepare effective and trained teachers for the school system. There are a few thousand teacher training institutions. These institutions through the teaching of theoretical subjects and practical training prepare prospective teachers for the nation. Irrespective of how good and how much theory is taught, it is only practice teaching that makes a professional teacher out of the pupil teachers. The entire schedule for 'practice teaching' is planned keeping this in mind. It is supposed to provide student teachers the classroom settings in which they can relate to the professional theory acquired at pre-practice teaching stage to the practical aspects of teaching in the classroom. Ideally, practice teaching' should provide opportunities for student teachers to practice the skills of planning and implementation, communication and management. On the other side, it is equally important how best the theoretical contents are delivered effectively. This must ensure the rich and diverse knowledge base, including knowledge of psychology, sociology, philosophy, technologies etc. A balance between theory and practice provides multi-dimensional development for prospective teacher. The teacher education institutions provide required academic, administrative and infrastructural facilities to create congenial environment to develop effective teachers through initial teacher training programmes.

NEED OF THE STUDY

New teachers' experiences, in many cases, are affected by perceptions and expectations formed before even their teaching preparation programmes. It is therefore of utmost importance that the viability of the

practice teaching programme in its present form be assessed. This is of concern not only to the teacher educators and teacher training institution but also to the other parties concerned. The school children who are being experimented upon, the school administrators and teachers who sacrifice valuable teaching time and other resources for such programmes and most of all the young pupil teachers who endure tremendous pressure during the B.Ed. course in general and practice teaching programme in particular, are all affected by the outcomes. It is well known fact that mushrooming of B.Ed. colleges in the recent past has diluted the quality teacher education programme throughout the country. Since 2006, the Banaras Hindu University has started B.Ed. course in its Rajiv Gandhi South Campus(RGSC). The present study was designed to examine the status of the B.Ed. course being run in the campus and also to assess how far qualitative and infrastructural facilities are made available to B.Ed. course to ensure its quality aspects.

OBJECTIVES

To study responses of prospective teachers on existing curriculum.
To study responses of prospective teachers on existing organizational structure.
To study responses of prospective teachers on existing evaluation system.
To find out practicability of an existing B. Ed. course.
To bring out suggestions for improvement of existing B.Ed. course.

METHOD

Population and Sample

Population of the study included all the B.Ed. students of the Faculty of Education, B.H.U. session 2000-2010. Sample of the study constituted all the B.Ed. students enrolled in session 2009-2010 at BHU RGSC, Barkachha, Mirzapur, UP. A purposive sampling technique was applied to select the sample of the present study. The population of B.Ed. students at RGSC, was taken as sample of the study.

Tool

Researchers developed a set of questionnaire consisting of five dimension of B.Ed. programme such as-curriculum, organisation / institution, evaluation system, practicability of B. Ed. Course and suggestion for improvement of B.Ed. course.

Data Collection and Statistical Techniques

Data were collected by administrating the questionnaire. Descriptive method was applied for analysis of the data. Responses were collected from the sample and converted into frequency and percentage. Analysis was done under the different dimensions of the B.Ed. course. The responses were converted into percentages and interpretation was done accordingly.

RESULTS

B.Ed. Curriculum

According to 48 % of the respondents, the duration of one year is sufficient for preparing of a trained teacher and according to 52 % , the duration of one year is not sufficient time for preparing a trained teacher. According to 51 % respondents, existing B.Ed. course is balanced in reference of theoretical and practical aspects, but 49 % respondents disagreed. However, according to 49% respondents, the theoretical and practical aspects should have the weightage of 40% : 60%, 27% suggested 50%:50%, where as 12% suggested 60%:40%. According to 83% respondents, the content of three compulsory subjects is helpful for making prospective teachers, while 17% respondents did not suggest it. According to 13% respondents, more than three subjects should be compulsory i.e. school organisation, measurement and evaluation, educational management, health and yoga etc. ,while 87% respondents did not agree. According to 70% respondents, the study of optional subjects is helpful in making subject specialist, while 30% respondents disagreed. All the respondents were of the opinion that educational

measurement and evaluation, yoga education, health education, education administration and management, development of education system in India and its problems, computer education, population and environmental education should find more weightage in optional subjects. According to 60% respondents, the teaching of content of method subjects is helpful in making completely subject specialist, while 40% respondents disagreed. Accoprding to 81% respondents, the sessional work in major teaching subject is helpful in making as effective teacher. According to 96% respondents, the organisation of activities related to practical aspects should be compulsory. According to 93% respondents, the co-curricular activities included in B.Ed. course were interesting, while 7% respondents disagreed. All respondents agreed that practice teaching was useful in developing desired teaching skill. According to 75% respondents, the provision of 20 lessons in each teaching subject was not enough for developing basic teaching skill. Majority of respondents suggested increase in number of lessons to 30. Majority of respondents opinioned that duration of the practice teaching should be 40 days. Majority of the respondents wanted to teach 2 lessons in a day during practice teaching. Majority gave stress on the use of teaching aids. More than 70% respondents stated that there was scarcity of teacher educators in the department. More than 60% of the respondents were of the opinion that the duration of observation of teaching, during supervision of teaching, should be not less than 10 minutes. More than 75 % were of the view that one week long programme for micro-teaching was not enough and suggested it to be increased to 15 days. Feedback in micro teaching helps in developing teaching skills was expected by all. Practical activities were interesting to the sample. With reference to availability of required teaching aids and their uses in making teaching learning process effective, majority of the respondents had negative opinion and suggested appropriate use of teaching aids. None of the respoindents had access to laboratories. Majority of the respondents opined that existing B. Ed. curriculum cannot be completed 8-9 months, as it is being done presently.

Institution

95% respondents found that their institution does not have required infrastructural facilities. 90 % of them stated none availability of facilities for experimental work. Majority of them stated that there was lack of conducive academic environment.

Evaluation System

More than 98% respondents found transparent evaluation process was in practice. Majority of them found internal and external evaluation was correct and also expected the present system of evaluation in both theory and practical.

Practicability of B.Ed. Curriculum

Majority of the respondents stated taht they would leave teaching profession if they get better opportunity. Majority of them did not want to opt special B.T.C. after B. Ed.. Majority of them were of the opinion that B. Ed. course had positive effect on them and found themselves to be suitable teacher after B. Ed. Course. According to more than 90% of the respondents, they opted B.Ed. course as they could not succeed in competitive exam.

SUGGESTION FOR IMPROVEMENT OF B. ED. COURSE

Teacher Quality

Prospective teacher's responses on this dimension that teachers should be selected from all India basis. Selected teachers must be thorough in content with effective communication skills and above all s/he should be a good human being. Teachers educators, themselves should be well developed .

Curriculum

Existing B.Ed. curriculum needs to be modified. Lengthy papers like "Education and Contemporary Indian Society" and 'Measurement and Evaluation' need be made compulsory. Laboratories which are

non-existent, must be established with major focus on computer education. Considering the requirement for prospective teachers to play multifaceted roles, much important subjects like- Population Education, Environment Education, Value and Peace Education including Guidance and Counselling must be offered. In this way, B.Ed. course should be of two years duration where practice of teaching will be of at least 90 days. More stress be given on educational technology. A model school should be attached with the institution, so that practice-teaching can be better organised.

Teaching Learning Process

B.Ed. students should be the focal point of teaching-learning process. Use of teaching aids in Teaching-Learning Process need to be emphasized. Crowded classroom also adversely affects the quality of teaching.

Evaluation System

Evaluation should be transparent. Students should be shown the evaluated answer scripts. There should be unit test objective type questions asked more in number. These should be semester system (two semesters for B.Ed. course).

Others

Activities in B. Ed. have become only formality. There should be required number of teachers to teach. More optional papers should be offered. Number of activities should be reduced as they are time consuming and formalities only. A better well equipped library should be provided.

CONCLUSION

It may be concluded from the results of the study that there was a felt need to make B.Ed. course for two years duration. Weightage for theory and practical components of B.Ed. course need to be 40%:60% respectively. All the three compulsory papers of the course were considered helping in making prospective teacher. Educational measurement and evaluation, yoga education, health education, educational administration and management, development of educational system in India and its problem, computer education, population and environmental education should find more weightage in B.Ed. curriculum. Co-Curricular activities and sessional works were considered to help in preparing a good teacher. Practice teaching was useful in developing desired teaching skills. There was a felt need to increase number of lesson plan in each school subjects from 20 to 30 as well as to increase duration of practice teaching, making it for 90 days but they should not be more than two lessons to be delivered in a day. There was scarcity of teacher educators in the department. Supervision of teaching of a lesson should not be less than 10 minutes and micro-teaching should continue for 15 days. Though various activities were interesting to prospective teachers but they wanted it to be organize in a better manner. None of them had access to laboratories. There was a lack of infrastructural facilities in the institution which had adversely affected the completion of the course as well as quality and there was a lack of conducive academic environment. 25 % internal and 75 % external evaluation was found suitable. B.Ed. student wanted to leave teaching profession, if they got better job, as they expressed that they have been doing B.Ed. because they could not succeed in other competitive exam. There was felt need to make semester system and B.Ed. of two semesters. Well equipped library and laboratory were needed in the institution.

The quality of nation largely depends upon the quality of its citizens. The later largely depends upon the quality of teachers and institutions. Education is supposed to be value loaded and root and fruit in itself. In the process of education, the teacher still holds the key positions, as s/he is involved in man- making process. A better teacher can ensure a better quality in education, thereby preparing a better human being and positive citizen of the country. Thus, the quality teacher education institutions are the need of the hour. Infrastructural facilities, qualified and competent and sufficient number of teachers, the physical plant of the institution, quality intake of the students, a good library, laboratory etc. on the one hand and effective curricular transaction on the other hand together constitute the parameter of quality teacher

education. The institution must ensure the above quality parameter in turn ensure the quality teacher education. Any reform in the area of quality education will not succeed unless and until we ensure the effective teacher, in the effective institution with conducive teaching learning environment. A strict social vigilance on deteriorating standards of teacher education institution needs to be on. Conviction on the part of society as well as government to maintain quality education for the sake of qualitative development of the people and the country.

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(E)VALUING A LEARNER-CENTERED CLASS IN HIGHER EDUCATION WITH AN APPRECIATIVE EYE: A CASE STUDY

Anita Singh

(E)Valuing a learner-centered class in higher education with an appreciative eye is presented as an alternative to evaluating teaching with a deficit-based approach. The present globalised knowledge society is witnessing a paradigm shift from teaching content to competency; the emphasis is on continuous learning, and learning how to learn. As a response to above needs this paper calls for a learner-centered perspective in education and proposes (e) valuing what is good in the class, the best practice and peak moments rather than evaluating it. Hence the letter "e" of (e) valuing is under parenthesis. This paper through a case study proposes Appreciative Inquiry, an asset-based approach to valuing pedagogy as instrumental in bringing a positive change in the class. This approach empowered the students and teachers in transformational ways to positively affect the teaching-learning environment, enhanced collective learning, and being participatory in nature it improved interpersonal relationships, encouraged mutual trust and respect leading to an energised synergy. This article reflects through this case study, and stands to benefit educators, teachers and students from the insights generated from this work.

INTRODUCTION

Change is a fundamental feature of modern life and it is necessary to develop social systems that can learn and adapt. In the postindustrial period there was no place for routine, monotonous work, and specialisation of labor and this in turn brought an end to the content era. Rapid advancement of science and technology during the two World Wars, advancement of theories like systems and contingency theories and finally liberalisation and opening up of markets in the late 1980s, brought education theorists, researchers as well as practitioners out of the silos mindset. The uncertain, dynamic environment of the 1990s led to intense competition. The newly emerging service sector along with the manufacturing industries needed flexible knowledge workers willing to learn, and unlearn all the time. Hence, teaching is not just contents and facts, but skills and competency became the need of the hour just to survive and compete in the complex environment. Even in ancient Athens "education was not a segregated activity, conducted for certain hours, in certain places, at a certain time of life. It was the aim of the society. The city educated the man; the Athenian was educated by culture, by paideia" (Hutchins 1970, p.133). A learning society has thus become inevitable.

Under these circumstances, the traditional transmission teaching where teacher as knowledge-giver churns out facts usually through lectures and textbooks, keeps the classroom in order; and students listen to the teacher with utmost attention, take examinations regurgitating out the facts generally in written or oral form will be unable to respond to the needs of the present society. The twenty first century presents a knowledge society where knowledge is neither static nor absolute; this calls for a learner-centered perspective in education. Research (Jonnaert 2002, p.76-77) indicates that education is no longer a matter of teaching decontextualised subject-matter content, it is rather identifying situations in which learners can construct, transform or repudiate the knowledge and competencies associated with this content. Hence content is no longer seen as an end-in-itself, but a means to handle everyday's situations. As a response to the above needs (e) valuing a learner-centered class in higher education with an appreciative eye is presented as an alternative to evaluating teaching with a deficit-based approach. For this purpose this paper first examines the theoretical foundation of Appreciative Inquiry as a strength based approach, secondly it discusses the importance of an Appreciative Inquiry approach to education and a learned-centered class in the present globalised world, finally, this paper through a case study proposes that Appreciative Inquiry, an asset-based approach to valuing pedagogy is instrumental in bringing a positive change since it leverages "what brings life to the class when it is at its best" and amplifies it to evolve an imagery of the future. Evaluation is a judgment about good and bad, which is an end in itself and it does not offer any opportunity for generating alternatives and possibilities. On the other hand valuing is

discovering what is good, and leveraging it to bring about positive generative change. Hence "e" of (e) valuing is under parenthesis.

Appreciative Inquiry

Appreciative Inquiry (AI) " refers to both a search for knowledge and a theory of intentional collective action which are designed to help evolve the normative vision and will of a group, organization, or society as a whole" (Cooperrider & Srivastva 1987, p. 159). The seminal article "Appreciative Inquiry in Organizational Life" (Cooperrider & Srivastva 1987) paved the way for practitioners to adopt this approach, adapt it to the context and share new practices. In the last two decades there has been a growing sense of disenchantment with exhausted theories of change, especially those dealing with vocabularies of human deficit, and at the same time there is an urge to work with people in more constructive, positive ways (Cooperrider & Whitney 2005).

Appreciative Inquiry is about discovering the best and focuses on what you want more of. It comes from cultivating an "appreciative mindset" (Bushe & Pitman 1991). Appreciative Inquiry begins at the system-wide level with asking questions, which is mobilisation of inquiry through the crafting of the "unconditional positive question". When people in a social system start talking, sharing stories of their past and present capacities, i.e., achievements, unexplored potentials, core values, innovations, strength, best practices, high point moments, competencies**,** they are in fact discovering the positive core. This positive core is like an atom, a battery so charged that if the energy of this core is linked to any change agenda, then changes never thought possible are suddenly and democratically mobilised. Today educators must recognise this positive core as a resource, and an asset to bring about a positive generative change. Besides searching for the best, Appreciative Inquiry approach makes the positive core the common and explicit property of all and leverages it to consciously co-construct a better future. Instead of negation, criticism, and spiraling diagnosis, there is discovery, dream, design and destiny. Appreciative Inquiry 4-D model passes through Discovery - mobilising a system-wide inquiry into the positive change core; Dream- co-creating a realistic vision based on the foundation stone of discovered potential; Design- giving shape to the dream through provocative propositions of the ideal organisation which is capable of amplifying or fanning (Bushe 2007) the positive core and realising the dream articulated in the previous stage; and Destiny- implementing the design, strengthening the affirmative capability of the whole system, enabling it to build hope and momentum and creating processes for learning, adjustment, and improvisation, like a jazz group over time (Barrett 1998).

At the core of the cycle lies the affirmative positive topic. This is because human systems grow in the direction of what they persistently ask questions about and this propensity is strongest and most sustainable when the means and ends of inquiry are positively correlated (Cooperrider & Whitney 2005).) The seeds of change are implicit in the first questions asked, because they set the stage for what we "find"; and what we "discover" (the qualitative data) creates the material out of which the future is conceived, conversed about, and constructed. Inquiry and change are thus simultaneous moments. In contrast, the traditional problem-solving approach focuses on what is wrong, leading to feelings of despair, excuses, denials, justifications, and feelings of defensiveness. Appreciative Inquiry, instead, shifts the focus to the strengths, successes in the past and the present and this leads to feelings of accomplishment, feelings of worth and being valued which is energising. Change practitioners are beginning to work with the positive presumption that organisations are certainly composed of human beings, with infinite imagination and creativity and not "items" to be studied, observed, and predicted. They need lot of positive affect and bonding to bring about any long-term change in the system.

Importance of Appreciative Inquiry approach to education and learned-centered class in the present globalised world

In the present postindustrial globalised world, problem solving as a mode of inquiry seems to have failed to inspire, mobilise and sustain significant human system change. We have not only not been able to solve the problem but in the process created new problems of ruthless and meaningless competition among students, and an environment of jealousy, hatred, and blame throwing. Enormous amount of resources have gone into solving these problems in institutions of education. It is now time to look into more generative, strength-based model to work with social systems. This paper proposes the Appreciative Inquiry approach. This approach was initially used in Organisation Development (Bushe 1995; Bushe 2001; Mohr, Smith & Watkins 2000; Singh 2009) however, this strength-based approach is today becoming an effective practice in all spheres of social systems- including community development (Ashford & Patkar 2001), education (Yballe & O'Connor 2000; Dole & Morris 2004). Educators are beginning to realise the potential of Appreciative Inquiry as a tool for transformative change among teachers, staff, students, teacher educators and the educational institute as a system (Willoughby & Tosey 2007).

Besides, Appreciative Inquiry as an approach to change and as a theory of organising has a pivotal role in today's knowledge society which needs more and more educated people , and they in turn have a need for life long learning to keep up with the changing need of skills and knowledge at their workplace. In the present competitive globalised environment, the focus on the positive will not only help educational organisations survive but have a competitive advantage over others. The infrastructure is only so important, what lies within, role the teachers play; their attitude towards the students gives an edge to an educational institution. In the post bureaucratic era, knowledge has meaning only if it is constantly updated. Transmission teaching or "telling" made sense in an unchanging environment. While in today's changing world, research (Rogers 1985, p.104) affirms that changingness and reliance on process rather than on static knowledge, is the only thing that makes any sense as a goal for education. The process brings deuterolearning i.e., learning how to learn, into focus and this can be made possible only when teachers instill a love for learning among their students. This paper points out that what is critical to success is to teach the process and social skills, as these will help individuals anticipate and cope with not just the ever changing and demanding workplace but the challenges of work-life balance as well. In these circumstances the teacher-facilitator must create conditions and actively help students develop these competencies; in education this is possible only when the focus changes from teacher to student. In teacher-focused learning environment students are mere consumers of information, as they sit quietly and listen to their teachers, while they mostly by themselves work on what the teacher has provided. However, in student-focused learning environment, students are the producers of ideas as teachers actively and consciously encourage and facilitate students to engage in collaborative learning activities that requires multiple levels of thinking. Hence, in today's knowledge society, there is a need for teachers to move from a didactic approach of authority, distance, judgmental, impersonal, one-dimensional role and deficit-based problem solving approach to student-centered, humanistic, and strength-based Appreciative Inquiry approach to instill love for lifelong learning. Roger's humanistic psychology as well as Appreciative Inquiry approach emphasise that the focus of research determines the outcome (Bushe & Kassam 2005). Most importantly, humanistic psychology helps to understand the concept of a "fully functioning" (term used by Rogers) person by focusing on the human potential. One of the fundamental principles of social constructivism which forms the basis of Rogers' learner-centered classroom as well as Appreciative Inquiry approach is that we construct our own meaning and meaning requires understanding the parts as well as the whole. This is somewhat overlooked by teachers in the traditional class. Hence, system thinking (Senge 1990) becomes an imperative where students are given the big picture so that they see how the smaller parts are interrelated, and interconnected, like a jigsaw puzzle thus making the whole. This certainly shows to the students the relevance of what they are doing and why they are doing thus, making learning interesting. This paper, by exploring the commonality between the humanistic and the Appreciative Inquiry approach concludes that the two complement each other, more so, in the discipline of education. Appreciative Inquiry is a means to realise Rogers' therapeutic method reflected in his view

of human nature- ability, an inner capacity to actualise the self, if freed, they can do it by themselves. Rogers asserted that students have interest and enthusiasm, and the task of the teacher is to free them so that self-initiated learning occurs.

Since knowledge is a human construction, in the present globalised world, the teachers must play a conscious role in the construction of knowledge. Human beings construct knowledge in two mental phases, first they construct mental models of their environment and then they interpret and understand new experience in relation to the existing mental model (Taylor & Coll 2002, p. 295). The teacher needs to shift from the traditional paradigm of teaching only contents to teaching students to question their existing mental models which in turn, impacts the actions students take. Hence, today, the teachers' role is much more enlarged and complex wherein they must mould the present younger generation of students into future generation of socially responsible, and culturally sensitive world citizens. For this, it is important that teachers understand how learning takes place. While social learning theory states that one learns from observing other people, other researchers (Lave & Wenger 1991) propose a more radical model of situated learning where learning is placed in social relationships. Dewey, Lewin, and Kolb too made students' learning the centre of focus where they are constantly learning through doing. Extending the theory of learning, it is argued (Argyris & Schön 1974) that practitioners need to go beyond single-loop which focuses on improving the status quo producing only incremental change in the social system and move towards double-loop learning or generative learning as it brings about transformational change. Appreciative Inquiry approach goes a step further in generating possibilities and alternatives with the help of inquiry bringing a generative transformational change.

Besides learning, reflection was also brought into the centre of learning. According to Schön (1987) students are 'reflective practicum' as they become proficient in a kind of reflection-in-action and also when it works well there is a reflection-on-action. It is important, however, to distinguish this from Rogers' reflection, which is, mirroring of emotional communication, as an important technique which teachers need to use in their interpersonal communication with students, so that they feel being listened to and cared enough to be understood. This paper however, argues that the two concepts of "reflection" though seemingly different complement each other and emphasises that a teacher in a learner-centered class must demonstrate both these "reflection".

CASE STUDY

Being an educator, learner and practitioner, the teacher was keen on applying the Appreciative approach in the class. This case study presents the discovery phase of Appreciative Inquiry approach used to uncover the strengths, hopes, successes and best practices and thus (e) value a learner-centered class in higher education. The purpose of the study was to use the material, stories, and the "data" tracked during the discovery phase of the first semester to dream an imagery for the future, then design the structure and the processes and finally implement it in the next three semesters, creating a more effective learner-centered class with a conscious focus on the positive. The study took place in a mixed business management school, which has two sections of total 133 students, who are in their first semester of a two year Master in Business Administration (MBA) programme. The diversity of the students in not so much in terms of age group, most of them being 21-24 years old, but more in terms of language, region they come from, family background, and the norms and culture of their previous educational institutions.

This case study describes a learner-centered class as one which incorporates the principles of Rogerian humanistic education. Research (Rogers 1969) in the last century and even today shows that students prefer to be engaged in collaborative learning activities that involve lower to higher order thinking, interacting with not just teachers but also peers and carrying out their enquiries to construct their own meanings. In such an environment, teachers become facilitators of learning, thus, giving to the students "freedom to learn", creating an emotionally safe environment and structuring challenging activities for the

students. Rogers' humanistic education thus, had an important implication for the teacher - that pedagogy can be enacted through human relationships; teaching only content is not important. Such a class had empowered the students to be responsible, accountable for their own learning, and the confidence it gave armed them with "I can do it" attitude. The class thus became a place for learning through lot of activities, fun and humor. The environment was not of fear and inhibitions, thus the appreciative feedback form was considered appropriate to assess the pedagogy. The feedback form administered to the students had the following three questions:

1**.** Recall a peak moment, a time when you enjoyed the most being in this class. What made it a peak moment? Was it something about the situation, your classmates, the teacher, or the group that made it a peak moment?
2. What do you value most in yourself / your classmates / your teacher or in the institute?
3. If you were to come back after five years as an alumni or a Faculty member, how would you like your learner-centered class to look like?

Social systems grow in the direction of what we study. Hence, the questions in the students' feedback form were crafted with a positive focus, and were designed to look for and strengthen the positive potential in students and teachers. Besides, the appreciative questions naturally lend themselves to a narrative, helping the respondents to open up and write their story of moments of strengths, and success in the class. The traditional feedback form however, mostly has statements (which are rated on a scale of 1 to 5) and one or two open-ended questions where the students often write what went wrong, and the problems they faced but it does not offer possibilities and alternatives. Such a deficit-based feedback form evaluates the pedagogy and there is an implicit assumption of "I-you", distancing students from the teachers rather than bringing them together as co-creators of an effective class. Again, as inquiry and change are simultaneous moments, the "unconditional positive questions" in the feedback form were crafted in a way that they are not judging or evaluating anything, au contraire; they were valuing what is good and the best. These questions with a positive focus helped students delve deep, reflect on the past and the present and discover the strengths, values and happiness. The students' responses were then shared in the class to increase the circles of positive dialogue because listening to and telling each other uplifting stories about the best of their meaningful experiences leads people to uncover their similarities, soothes those tensions and an amazing energy can appear (Bushe 2007).
This case study is presented with a view that (e) valuing a class with an Appreciative Inquiry approach has the potential of bringing about a positive change. The students' responses when analysed revealed the following:
a. Appreciative Inquiry process provided students and teacher an opportunity to value themselves, their classmates and their teacher.
b. It helped students to narrate peak experiences and to understand the factors that create the best.
c. The process generated a synergy that is somehow missing when teachers and students relate to each other in a more traditional manner.
c. The Appreciative Inquiry discovery phase enabled students to experience the importance of recalling and sharing peak experience stories.
d. It gave them an opportunity to "track" when they want more in order to "fan" (Bushe 2007)) and build the imagery of the future on what works best in the present.

The case study now presents the analysis of students' responses to the appreciative questions in the feedback form. For question 1, some students described the moments that were enjoyable; while others wrote the factors that made it a peak experience. For the purpose of analysis the responses have been categorised into- activities, teaching and classmates.

Activities

*Laying down ground rules for an effective teaching-learning process Humor, makes the class more enjoyable.
*Case study sessions are very interactive; many more students could contribute towards it. Most case studies were indeed insightful, and gave us an opportunity to explore different perspectives.
*The feedback that I got from my classmates and the teacher after my first presentation was unforgettable. It helped me get rid of my stage fear.
*Role play instead of PPT by the students on Type A and B personalities is memorable.
*The teacher changed our places making boys and girls sit in alternate rows (the teacher did this after a feedback from a student that few girls sitting in one corner of the class feel neglected and the school encourages segregation of boys and girls). That day, I could make eye contact with the teacher and it made me feel part of the class

Teaching
*Teaching style was enjoyable. Open discussions in the class leads to new thoughts and ideas. I learnt to listen to differing opinions expressed by my classmates. Teacher encourages us to involve ourselves in the learning process. Learning-by-doing method used by the teacher. The day, teacher divided the class into groups to discuss individual versus group decision-making. Teacher said "thanks" when I answered, that day I felt very good. Though English is the language of instruction, the teacher sometimes speaks in our languages; we are able to relate more easily to the teacher.
*Active, high energy level of the teacher. We feel energised too.
* Class on "HR Policies and Procedures" was enjoyable as the teacher led us through an organisation with examples making us feel like HR Managers. This enabled us to understand the lesson very well.
*Teacher does not put us down instead asks "Do you have anything else to add?", "What is your perspective?" Teacher encourages more and more students to participate by asking for new hands to be raised and not "the usual suspects". Cheerful nature, smiling face makes the teacher approachable. I can ask anything without the fear of being ridiculed. When the teacher relates experience and shares with us, I feel that they too are just like us with emotions and feelings.
*Comments and compliments written on the mid-term answer scripts.

Classmates
*Helpful nature of many of my classmates.
*Working in a small team for the project and conducting survey in an organisation was a good learning experience.
*A few students have started talking, gesticulating like the teacher, this is funny.
*My friends tell me that the confidence gained in the class has improved my communication skills.

These moments of peak experience and factors that made them enjoyable demonstrate that teaching is like therapy, where students need to be given autonomy and freedom with responsibility, if teachers want them to become independent, fully functioning human beings in the society. Rogerian non-directive, client-centered therapy explained this by using the analogy of learning to ride a bicycle. "When you help a child to learn to ride a bike, you can't just tell them how. They have to try it for themselves. You can't hold them up the whole time either. There comes a point when you have to let them go. If they fall, they fall, but if you hang on, they never learn" (Rogers 1951). In this case study, Appreciative feedback reiterates the humanistic approach which considers students as humans with emotions, dignity, self-esteem and not as passive receivers of knowledge; and teacher as a person with feelings, emotions, and not just a giver of knowledge, or a machine. It is by being genuine, and showing students' acceptance that teacher was beginning to bring transformational changes in the class and this was possible because the common practice of teacher maintaining a certain "emotional distance" from their students which in turn creates a psychological barrier between them, was not experienced by the students.

The students' responses to question 2 are categorised into- what I value about myself, my classmates and my teachers.

What I Value most about
Myself:
Alertness, attentiveness, dependability, sincerity, presentation skills, ability to interact with Faculty members, self-respect, ability to adapt to new places, sixth sense, imagination, persistence.
Classmates:
Good team to work with, cooperation, helpfulness, discipline, honest feedback (this was very motivating), friendly and kindness.
Teachers:
Stimulating conversation with our course coordinator; cooperative teacher; commitment and hard work; encouragement by the teacher to speak increased confidence; teaching style; not as strict as others; passion for teaching; inspiring; effort to create a good learning environment; dedication; motivation; not ignoring anyone in the class; smiling; positive approach towards students; parent-like making us feel at home and comfortable in this place.

It was important to discover what students valued most because this will form the foundation stone in constructing the ideal image of a future effective learner-centered class.

The following responses for question 3 are indeed generative in nature since they offer possibilities and alternatives to bring a positive transformational change in the class.
More presentations by the students.
More case studies in the class.
Slide presentations for some lessons may be useful (to break the monotony of slide presentations with the lights dimmed, the teacher decided to use chalk-board-talk-lively discussions, thus participation by all in all-lights-on classroom). Showing more video clips related to the subject matter.
Anecdotes- story telling from real life cases. More frequent assessment.
Girls and boys sitting together in the class. Students' visit to organisations (these visits are normally scheduled in the second year).
More role plays.
Wi-Fi class rooms.
No uniforms for students. More technology based teaching.

In contrast to the problem-solving approach which focuses on the deficit, the gaps, what is not working and what is making the teaching-learning an ineffective process, the Appreciative Inquiry was chosen as an approach because teacher could ask students to tell stories of peak experience, and to imagine how an ideal learner-centered class would look like rather than just list problems. An appreciative feedback, thus, helped students to see the learner-centered class through an appreciative filter: as glass half-full rather than glass half-empty. This was also possible because the co-creators (teacher and students) of this class, decided to know their social system as one with infinite imagination, unlimited capabilities, and as a centre of human relatedness.

The "data" from this appreciative feedback are not in numbers; they are narratives, quotes, and stories-all written in first person, and in the language of the students. The most powerful vehicle communities have for transforming their conventions is through the act of dialogue made possible by language (Cooperrider & Srivastva 1987). According to the constructivist principle, teachers and students co-construct their own realities through language, through words. The social system can be constructed and reconstructed. In this case study, the discovery of what worked best in the present and the past thus became the first step towards constructing a positive change in this learner-centered class. An important question that may arise is, if teachers by focusing on the positive are either ignoring problems or avoiding them. This class

was just approaching it from the other side, that is, the positive core. Heliotropic hypothesis states that just like certain plants grow in the direction of sunlight (*Helios*, the Sun in Greek), social forms too evolve towards "light"; that is, towards images that are affirmative and life giving. Socio-rationalists argue that positive future images create a pull effect that generates evolution in social forms. Not only do we see what we believe, but the very act of believing it creates it (Bushe 1995). In this case study teachers and students together as agents of change were thus, consciously evolving a positive imagery of a more effective learner-centered class. Recent research shows that more and more educators and practitioners are beginning to apply Appreciative Inquiry approach to suit the classroom environment be it to achieve enhanced learning outcomes (Ojha, Paudel, Pudasaini, Lamichhane & Shrestha 2003), or as a process (Conklin 2009) in organisational creation and change. The latter outlines steps for an in-class exercise titled "The Preferred Classroom," to be used to design and organise a college classroom for the term. Results of the exercise show increased awareness and optimism in students about their lives as well as relationship development with others in the class through shared experiences. Similarly research (Neville 2008) on education during postindustrial globalisation which renders business and society interdependent emphasises that innovative pedagogy assumes that educators hold responsibility for creating and fostering new skills in business students. Critical thinking, self-awareness, and values analysis skills support students seeking to engage with and innovate based on perspectives different from their own These results reiterate the outcomes of (e) valuing the learner-centered class in higher education with an appreciative eye.

CONCLUSION

This paper concludes that Appreciative Inquiry approach to (e) valuing a learner-centered class in higher education was effective in building closer and better interpersonal relationship among students and at the same time with the teacher. This synergy was palpable. Besides, the focus on the positive not only energised the students and the teacher but also empowered them in transformational ways to positively affect the teaching-learning environment. This will enhance the generativity as Appreciative Inquiry approach is an iterative process- making the lessons and outcomes of one Appreciative Inquiry, the focus of inquiry for the next Appreciative Inquiry (Bushe 2007). Being highly participatory in nature, this asset-based approach to (e) valuing the learner-centered class enhanced collective and active involvement in learning, and encouraged mutual trust and respect. This study emphasises that participants need lot of positive affect and bonding for any long-term change to be brought about. It has also led the researcher to believe that the teachers must be an expert in the subject, or the content as it definitely gives them the confidence to be genuine and not to put up a façade in the class. The expertise in the subject matter, however, does not seem to be a sufficient condition to be an effective teacher. The latter must also demonstrate, what Rogers believed, the attitudinal qualities of genuineness, unconditional positive regard and empathy towards the students. These learning from the case study though, not revolutionary, they do reaffirm our deeply held beliefs. In this new educational paradigm, the findings from this study have the potential to contribute to the areas of study that focus on effective teaching and learning. This paper also suggests that further research examining the effectiveness of Appreciative Inquiry approach in assessing traditional teacher-centered classes in particular needs to be carried out. This article reflects through this case study, and stands to benefit educators, teachers and students from the insights generated from this work. What comes out of this narrative is that there is no set way to apply Appreciative Inquiry as an Organisation Development intervention in the classic sense. Appreciative Inquiry is a way of being as well as seeing the world around us.

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ACADEMIC GENDER STEREOTYPES AND ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT OF INDIAN ADOLESCENTS

Beth Kurtz-Costes
Nikul Patel
Dana Wood

Research with Westerners suggests that by adolescence, youth are aware of gender stereotypes favoring boys in mathematics and science, and favoring girls in verbal domains. Youths' self-concepts (i.e., their perceptions of their own abilities) reflect these gender patterns. In the current study, Indian youths' gender stereotypes and academic self-concept in mathematics, science, and literacy were explored, as well as school context differences (i.e., single-gender versus mixed-gender classrooms). Tenth grade Indian students (N=86) completed measures of the competence of boys and girls in academic domains (i.e., academic stereotypes) and their Gujarati, mathematics, and science self-concepts. Boys rated boys as more competent than girls across domains, whereas girls reported no gender differences in abilities. No gender differences emerged in self-concept, but both boys and girls reported lower self-concept in mathematics and science than in Gujarati. Results of the study illustrate the need for gender-equality programs in India.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the recent economic growth and development in India, the nation continues to face large gender inequalities in access to education and occupational status. As of 2006, only two-thirds of girls ages six through 17 were enrolled in school, as compared to three-fourths of boys (Kishor & Gupta 2006, p. 20). Currently, 41% of women ages 14 through 49 have never been to school, as compared to 18% of men. Similar gender differences exist in rates of employment; women between the ages of 15 and 49 are about half as likely as their male counterparts to be employed. Partly as a consequence of educational disparities, women are not only less likely than men to be employed in India, but women who are employed receive less compensation for comparable work. According to the National Institute of Public Finance and Policy (NIPFP), the average female wage is less than 80% of the male average in urban areas, and less than 60% of the corresponding male wage in rural areas (Das 2009, p. 12). In addition to being underemployed and undercompensated, Indian women are less likely than men to hold jobs in professional, managerial, or technical positions. Taken together, these data highlight the fact that, in India, women exist as a low status group relative to their male counterparts.

Over the course of development, Indian children (like children in many Western countries) are immersed in a society where the lower status of women is normative. Continual exposure to strongly differentiated gender roles is likely to shape children's beliefs about how well males and females perform across a variety of domains. Broadly-held beliefs about social groups, such as males and females, are known as stereotypes (Ruble, Cohen & Ruble 2001, p. 340). A primary goal of this study was to examine Indian adolescents' *academic gender stereotypes*—their beliefs about how well girls and boys perform in different school subjects.Research with Western samples indicates that children's school performance and their subsequent educational and occupational outcomes are shaped in part by cultural stereotypes about differences in boys' and girls' competence in various academic domains (Colley & Comber 2003, p. 163; Miller & Budd 1999, p. 18; Nosek, Smyth, Sriram, Lindner, Devos, Ayala, Bar-Anan, Bergh, Cai, Gonsalkorale, Kesebir, Maliszewski, Neto, Olli, Park, Schnabel, Shiomura, Tulbure, Wiers, Somogyi, Akrami, Ekehammar, Vianello, Banaji & Greenwald 2009, p. 10593). Stereotypes shape motivation and performance through several mechanisms, one of which is their influence on academic self-concept. Whereas academic gender stereotypes are beliefs about the academic competence of males and females in general, academic self-concept refers to beliefs about one's own abilities in academic domains (Evans, Copping, Rowley & Kurtz-Costes 2011, p. 265; Kurtz-Costes, Rowley, Harris-Britt & Woods 2008, p. 390). A second goal of this study was to investigate gender differences in Indian adolescents' academic-self concepts.

Cultural and Status Predictors of Academic Stereotypes

Research investigating students' stereotype endorsement about gender differences in various subjects shows that both boys and girls in Western samples view literacy and art as female domains and science and sports as male domains (Nosek et al. 2009, p. 10595; Plante, Théorét, & Eizner Favreau 2009, p. 385; Rowley, Kurtz-Costes, Mistry, & Feagans 2007, p. 151). Results regarding mathematics are more mixed, but generally show that by the high school years mathematics is viewed as a male domain (Chatard, Guimond, & Selimbovic 2007, p. 1023; Hyde, Fennema, Ryan, Forst, & Hopp 1990, p. 307). Academic gender stereotypes might take a number of forms among Indian youth. First, given the pronounced gender differences in educational attainment in India, it is possible that Indian youth might perceive that boys are more capable than girls across all academic content areas. A second possibility is that stereotypes are domain-specific, following patterns found in Western countries (i.e., favoring girls and women in verbal skills and the arts, and favoring boys and men in mathematics and science). Using data from 34 Western and non-Western countries, Nosek et al. (2009, p. 10595) found that the strength of cultural beliefs about gender differences in science and language arts was positively related to the degree of gender imbalance in numbers of men and women in science careers within each country. That is, countries in which individuals reported stronger gender stereotypes also had a larger difference between the number of men as compared to the number of women in science careers. If Indian children's beliefs mirror these patterns, they may believe that academic subjects associated with high status careers (i.e., math and science) are more appropriate for boys, whereas other subjects (i.e., language arts and music) are more appropriate for girls. Yet a third possibility is that Indian adolescents' academic stereotypes (i.e., their beliefs about gender differences in academic abilities) differ according to individual and contextual factors. Two such factors are examined in this study: 1) social status as a function of gender, and 2) the gender composition of the educational setting (i.e., mixed-gender vs. single-gender schools).

According to classic social psychological theory, individual identity is heavily linked to one's social group memberships (Tajfel 1970, p. 96). All individuals are members of social groups such as gender, religion, and nationality as well as more temporary groups such as membership in a sports team. Tajfel posited that individuals have a natural tendency to favor their own group as a way of maintaining positive self-views; therefore, out-group members are viewed more negatively than in-group members. A large body of research has confirmed these ideas (e.g., Tajfel 1970, p. 100). Although this in-group bias is robust, the tendency to favor one's own group over another varies by social status (Bigler, Brown, & Markell 2001, p. 1160; Rowley et al. 2007, p. 162). Rowley and her colleagues have argued that members of low-status groups are more likely than member of high-status groups to deny negative stereotypes about their group in order to protect self-esteem. In contrast, members of high-status groups, who have less need for self-enhancement, may endorse stereotypes that reflect both positively and negatively on their social group (Rowley et al. 2007, p. 163). Accordingly, girls—who are historically of lower status than boys as a social group—should be less likely than boys to endorse stereotypes that reflect negatively on girls. In a cultural setting where boys are viewed as more competent in mathematics and science, and girls are viewed as more competent in verbal domains, boys would be expected to endorse both types of stereotypes, whereas girls would only endorse stereotypes favoring girls in verbal domains. Rowley and colleagues (2007, pp. 157-158) found status differences in endorsement of gender stereotypes in a U.S. sample: Early adolescent boys—who are of higher status than girls—reported traditional stereotypes in both math/science and verbal domains. In contrast, girls reported that girls excel in verbal domains but did not favor boys in math and science.

Because little research has examined gender academic stereotypes in Indian youth, we approached the current study with alternative hypotheses about gender differences in stereotype endorsement. Given long-term and pervasive differences between Indian men and women in educational attainment, boys might report gender differences favoring boys in both domains. Girls, in contrast, might either endorse stereotypes favoring boys, or because of in-group bias and/or their lower status, might report no gender differences in academic abilities. A second possibility is that Indian adolescents' stereotypes would mirror those of Western youth, wherein boys are expected to excel in mathematics and science and girls are

viewed as more talented in verbal domains. Based on social status theory, it would be expected that boys as the high-status gender group would endorse traditional gender stereotypes about both domains (i.e., that boys are more competent than girls in math/science, and that girls are more competent than boys in language). In contrast, girls would report that girls excel in verbal domains, but would not endorse math/science stereotypes favoring boys. We also tested whether boys' beliefs differed in a single-gender school as compared to in a mixed-gender school.

Single-Sex Schools and Gendered Beliefs

Colley and his colleagues (1994, p. 384) found that gendered patterns of students' beliefs and course choices differed according to whether students were learning in a single-gender classroom versus a mixed-gender (co-educational) classroom. These researchers posited that gender stereotypes might be weaker in single-sex schools because of fewer gender-stereotyped reinforcements. For example, within mixed-gender schools, teachers might perceive that boys succeed in math and science domains because of high ability, whereas they might believe that girls succeed in these domains because of effort. These gendered beliefs of teachers are likely to be perceived by students in mixed-gender schools, where teachers have the opportunity to show differential behavior to girls and boys. Consistent with these ideas, Colley et al. (1994, p. 383) found that girls from mixed-gender schools rated mathematics as more difficult and less enjoyable than girls enrolled in single-gender schools. Girls from single-gender classrooms choose higher levels of mathematics courses, while girls in mixed-gender schools are more likely to choose upper-level English courses. The female-stereotyped subjects of language, music, and art are higher in the preference order of boys from single-gender schools than in boys from mixed-gender schools, who report a stronger preference for the male-stereotyped subjects of math and physics (Colley et al. 1994, p. 383; Lawrie & Brown 1992, p. 136). Single-gender schools, compared to mixed-gender schools, may enable students to develop more neutral or weaker stereotypes because the absence of the other gender creates an atmosphere in which gender comparisons are less likely to occur. While textbooks might still encourage stereotypes (e.g., more men portrayed as being successful scientists than women), teacher response biases with boys and girls would not occur in single-sex schools, and therefore gender biases are likely to be more subtle than those experienced by students in mixed-gender schools. These ideas led to the prediction that students from single-sex classrooms will report less of a disparity in the abilities of boys and girls compared to students in mixed-gender classrooms. We also considered an alternative hypothesis—that students' experiences with the other gender lead them to perceive similarity rather than differences between the two genders. Particularly for boys in an all-boys school, the absence of girls might reinforce cultural ideas of the superiority of boys. In contrast, boys in a mixed-gender school would have the opportunity to witness the ability and motivation of girls, which might lead to reports of fewer differences between the two genders. tereotypes are posited to be important for academic motivation in part because of linkages between beliefs about one's social group (in this case, one's gender group), and abilities of the individual (i.e., self-concept). Next we provide a general overview of what researchers have found about gender differences in academic self-concept.

Stereotypes and Gender Differences in Domain-Specific Self-Concept

In Western samples, students rate their own abilities in certain academic domains in a manner that is consistent with gender stereotypes: Boys typically rate their abilities in mathematics and science higher than their verbal abilities, whereas girls show the reverse pattern, and boys rate their mathematics ability higher than girls (Herbert & Stipek 2005, p. 285; Kurtz-Costes et al. 2008, p. 395; Marsh, Trautwein, Lüdtke, Köller, & Baumert 2005, p. 408). Although gender differences are consistently found in the domain-specific self-concepts of boys and girls in the United States, these beliefs do not reflect differences in academic performance. For example, even though girls' perceptions of their math ability become less positive with age, there are few gender differences in math ability during childhood and adolescence (Herbert & Stipek 2005, p. 287). Because researchers have not assessed gender academic stereotypes in Indian society, we approached the current study with two sets of hypotheses about possible

gender differences in students' self-concepts. If Indian youth hold gender stereotypes favoring boys in math and science and favoring girls in verbal domains, then we expected that students' own self-concepts would mirror those beliefs. In other words, girls would report higher self-concepts in language than in math/science, and the reverse pattern would be found among boys. Alternatively, if youth did not report domain-specific gender differences in abilities but reported that boys were more competent than girls across both domains, then we expected that boys would report higher self-concept than girls.

CURRENT STUDY

In the present study, 10th grade Indian youth from two high schools in Gujarat completed measures of self-concept and beliefs about the competence of boys and girls (i.e., academic gender stereotypes) in math, science, and Gujarati. One school was mixed-gender while the other was an all-boys school. As described above, our hypotheses were as follows:

1) We tested two alternative hypotheses regarding students' academic stereotypes. First, if stereotypes in India mirror those found in Western countries, we expected that domain-specific stereotypes would appear in students' reports, supporting boys in math/science and girls in literacy domains. Moreover, consistent with status theory, we anticipated that boys would report gender differences in both domains, whereas girls would report that girls are better than boys in verbal domains, and no gender differences in math/science abilities. A second, alternative prediction was that students' beliefs would favor boys across domains, with boys particularly likely to report that boys are more competent academically than girls.

2) We expected that individual self-concept would show parallel patterns to students' stereotypes. Namely, if Western stereotypes favoring girls in verbal domains and boys in math/science were reported, we expected that girls would report relatively higher verbal self-concept than math/science self-concept, whereas the reverse was expected for boys. Alternatively, if students' stereotype reports favored boys across domains, we expected to find similar gender differences in reports of self-concept, with boys reporting more positive self-concepts than girls.

3) Our third hypothesis was that students' stereotype reports would differ by school type. Once again, we tested two competing hypotheses. If differential treatment from teachers is a major factor shaping students' beliefs, then boys in the mixed-gender school would have stronger stereotypes than boys in the single-gender school. Alternatively, if experience with the other gender (i.e., witnessing the academic competence of girls) is more important in shaping beliefs, then boys in the all-boys' school would report larger differences in beliefs than boys in the mixed-gender school.

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were 86 tenth grade students (56 boys, 30 girls) attending two secondary schools in rural regions of Gujarat, India. Fifty-five students (25 boys, 30 girls) were enrolled at a mixed-gender school and 31 boys were enrolled at a single-gender (i.e., all male) boarding school. Both institutions were private and required a small fee for attendance.

Procedure

The measures used to assess group competencies and self-concept were part of a survey administered at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in ongoing research led by the second author. The measures were translated from English into Gujarati by the first author with the assistance of a professional translator fluent in both English and Gujarati. All research materials were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of North Carolina, USA. Data were collected by the first author during the summer months of 2009.Written parental consent was required for study participation. Consent and assent letters were distributed in the students' classrooms. One hundred percent of invited students participated in the study, completing self-report surveys in small groups at school. Students were told that they had the right to omit questions they felt uncomfortable answering and that they could discontinue participation without penalty. Each student received 50 rupees as a participation incentive.

Measures

Academic Gender Stereotypes: Visual analog scales (VAS) were used to assess students' beliefs about the competence of boys and girls in various domains (e.g., mathematics, Gujarati). Students were asked to place a vertical mark on a 100-millimeter (mm) line to indicate how well they believed the designated group (boys or girls) performs within each domain. Each item was composed of a verbal descriptor (e.g., "I think that in SCIENCE boys do this well") and included anchors "Not well at all" on the far left of the line (0 mm) and "Very well" on the far right (100 mm). Separate items were used to assess each domain (e.g., math, Gujarati). Items about each group (i.e., boys; girls) were presented on separate pages. For math and science, the responses to four items (i.e., Boys [Girls] find math, Boys [Girls] do this well in math, Boys [Girls] find science, Boys [Girls] do this well in science) were averaged, á = .77 and .61 for ratings of boys and girls, respectively. Group competence in language was calculated by averaging the responses of two items (i.e., Boys [Girls] find Gujarati, Boys [Girls] do this well in Gujarati), á = .77 and .44 for ratings of boys and girls, respectively. The use of VAS measures to assess stereotypes has been validated in other stereotype research (e.g., Kurtz-Costes et al. 2008, p. 393; Wood, Kurtz-Costes, Rowley & Okeke-Adeyanju 2010, p. 524).

Academic Self-concept: Academic self-concept was assessed with a measure developed by Nicholls (1979, p. 95). For each academic domain, a column of 25 stick figures was presented. The figure at the top of the column represented the best student in a given domain, and the figure at the bottom of the column represented the worst student in that domain. Students were asked to circle the figure that best represented their own performance in the targeted domain compared to classmates. Higher scores indicated higher academic self-concept, with scores ranging from 1 to 25. Math/science self-concept scores were created by averaging each student's responses on the math and science items, á = .83. Gujarati self-concept scores were created by averaging the Gujarati items, á = .79.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics are presented in Table I. All hypotheses were tested with repeated measures analyses of variance.

Table 1
Gender Group Competence Scores and Academic Self-Concept Broken Down by School Type and Gender

	Mixed-Gender School		**All-Boys School**
Variable	***Girls***	***Boys***	***Boys***
	Mean (SD)	**Mean (SD)**	**Mean (SD)**
	n = 30	*n* = 25	*n* = 31
Boys' Group Competence in Gujarati	70.0 (23.9)	75.2 (14.4)	72.9 (17.9)
Boys' Group Competence in Math/Science	71.1 (18.6)	72.5 (14.4)	81.1 (14.1)
Girls' Group Competence in Gujarati	75.8 (15.9)	60.5 (14.7)	56.0 (19.8)
Girls' Group Competence in Math/Science	70.5 (16.5)	57.4 (9.5)	61.4 (16.3)
Verbal Self-Concept	20.6 (4.7)	21.3 (3.5)	22.3 (2.0)
Math/Science Self-Concept	19.0 (4.4)	20.7 (3.5)	22.8 (2.6)

Indian Adolescents' Academic Gender Stereotypes

Hypotheses regarding students' academic gender stereotypes were tested with a 2(Youth Gender) x 2(Social Group [i.e., boys and girls]) x 2(Academic Domain [i.e., language and math/science]) repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), where Social Group and Academic Domain were repeated, within-subjects factors. Because we hypothesized that students' beliefs might differ across the single gender and mixed-gender schools, the first analysis was conducted only on data from the mixed-gender

school. If the first part of Hypothesis 1 was confirmed, showing results similar to those found with Western samples, then the ANOVA would yield a significant Social Group x Academic Domain interaction in which boys would be rated more positively in math/science and girls would be rated more positively in Gujarati. Status group differences in such reports would be supported by a significant Gender x Social Group x Academic Domain interaction, with boys showing traditional stereotypes in both domains, and girls reporting that girls are better than boys in Gujarati but equal to boys in math/science. Alternatively, if the second prediction in Hypothesis 1 was confirmed—namely, that boys are viewed as more competent than girls across domains—then the main effect of Social Group would be significant (reflecting that boys were viewed as more competent than girls), with a possible Gender x Social Group interaction (reflecting that such beliefs were stronger among boys than among girls). Results of the analysis were consistent with the second part of Hypothesis 1: The main effect of Social Group and the interaction of Youth Gender x Social Group were significant, $F(1, 53) = 6.35$ and 12.97, respectively, *p's* < .01. The main effect of Social Group reflected that boys were rated as more competent than girls in both math/science and Gujarati. The significant Youth Gender x Social Group interaction showed that whereas boys rated boys as more competent than girls ($M_{boys} = 73.8$, $SE = 3.45$; $M_{girls} = 59.0$, $SE = 2.29$), girls' ratings of the two genders did not differ significantly ($M_{boys} = 70.5$, $SE = 3.15$; $M_{girls} = 73.2$, $SE = 2.09$). None of the interactions involving Academic Domain was significant; thus, mean scores presented here are for the composite of reports for language and math/science.

Students' Beliefs about Their Own Academic Competence

The second set of hypotheses was tested with a 2(Youth Gender) x 2(Academic Domain [i.e., language and math/science]) ANOVA in which Academic Domain was a repeated measures, within-subjects factor representing students' academic self-concept in math/science and Gujarati. Once again, because student reports might differ across school type, and because the sample did not include an all-girls' school, we did not include boys from the all-boys' school in the analysis. A significant Gender x Academic Domain interaction showing that girls reported relatively higher Gujarati self-concepts and boys reported higher math/science self-concepts would support the first alternative in Hypothesis 2, showing similar results to those found with Western samples. A significant main effect of Gender favoring boys would support the hypothesis that prevalent cultural beliefs in India portray boys as more competent than girls across academic domains. Neither the main effect of Gender nor the Gender x Academic Domain interaction was significant, *p's* > .15. Instead, the main effect of Academic Domain was significant, showing that both boys and girls, on average, reported greater competence in Gujarati ($M = 21.0$, $SE = 0.56$) than in math and science ($M = 19.8$, $SE = 0.54$), $F(1, 53) = 7.59$, $p = .008$.

Comparisons of Students' Beliefs across School Types

In order to test Hypothesis 3, we compared scores of boys in the mixed-gender school to those of boys in the all-boys' school. To test possible school-type differences in stereotypes, we conducted a 2(School Type) x 2(Social Group) x 2(Academic Domain) repeated measures ANOVA on boys' group competence scores. The two levels of School Type were boys at the all-boys' school and boys at the mixed-gender school. As reported above, the two Social Groups were beliefs about the competence of girls and beliefs about competence of boys, and the two levels of Academic Domain were competence in Gujarati and competence in math/science. The main effect of Social Group and the School Type x Academic Domain interaction were significant, $F(1, 53) = 47.4$ and 11.2, respectively, *p's* < .01. Overwhelmingly, boys in both schools rated boys as more competent than girls across academic domains ($M_{boys} = 75.4$, $SE = 1.86$; $M_{girls} = 58.8$, $SE = 1.83$). The School Type x Academic Domain interaction showed that boys in the all-boys school rated students of both genders as more competent in mathematics and science than in Gujarati ($M_{Math/Science} = 71.2$, $SE = 1.97$; $M_{Verbal} = 64.4$, $SE = 2.26$). In contrast, boys in the mixed-gender school reported that students are equally competent across the two academic domains, ($M_{Math/Science} = 64.9$, $SE =$

2.15; M_{Verbal} = 67.8, *SE* = 2.48). Ratings of math/science skills were greater in the all-boys' school than in the mixed-gender school, whereas ratings of verbal skills did not differ across the two school types. We examined possible school-type differences in self-concept with a 2(School Type) x 2(Academic Domain) repeated measures ANOVA on boys' self-concept scores. As above, the two levels of School Type were boys in the mixed-gender school and boys in the all-boys' school; Academic Domain was a within-subjects factor with the two levels of Gujarati and math/science self-concept. The main effect of School Type was significant. Across academic domains, boys in the all-boys' school had higher self-concepts than boys in the mixed-gender school, $F(1, 53) = 5.03$, $p = .029$. Neither the main effect of Academic Domain nor the School Type x Academic Domain interaction was significant, *p's* > .15.

In summary, results did not support the prevalence of domain-specific gender stereotypes about academic ability in these Indian youth. Instead, students' reports of group competence showed that boys perceived boys as more competent than girls in both domains, whereas girls did not report gender differences in skills. Those results did not differ across the two types of schools: Boys in both schools overwhelming viewed boys as more capable than girls academically. Analyses on students' perceptions of their own abilities (i.e., their self-concepts) reflected that on average, youth viewed themselves as more competent in verbal skills than in mathematics and science. Boys in the all-boys school reported higher self-concepts in both domains than boys in the co-educational school.

DISCUSSION

Whereas a large body of research has shown that many Western youth and adults hold academic stereotypes favoring girls in verbal domains and boys in mathematics and science, in the current study, 10th grade Indian boys viewed boys as more capable than girls across subjects. Girls and boys did not differ in their perceptions of their own abilities, but students of both genders viewed themselves as more competent in verbal domains than in math and science. According to Colley and colleagues (1994, p. 379), gender-stereotyped beliefs may be reinforced in the classroom, thereby strengthening stereotypes. However, boys in the all-boys' schools had gender stereotypes similar to those of boys in the mixed-gendered school. Both groups viewed boys as more competent than girls across academic domains.

Although boys rated boys as stronger academically than girls, girls reported no gender differences in academic skills. These results might reflect girls' accurate perceptions of no gender differences in academic abilities, and are also consistent with social status theory, which posits that girls as the low-status group would be less likely than boys to report stereotypes that reflect negatively on themselves. The beliefs of boys in our sample seem to reflect the broader cultural and societal milieu, where it is much less likely for girls to pursue higher education than boys or to aspire to professions that require schooling. The endorsement and persistence of these stereotypes over time may have negative impact on girls' ability to enter certain male-dominated occupations.

Boys' Beliefs about Gender Differences in Academic Abilities

Boys in both the mixed-gender and the all-boys' schools viewed girls as less competent than boys across academic domains. These negative perceptions of girls can be detrimental and have life-impacting results if endorsed during adulthood (Miller & Budd 1999, p. 30). Students in single-sex classrooms, where traditional gender norms are not reinforced tend to have more gender-neutral views of ability and are more likely to engage in academic and extra-curricular activities typically associated with the opposite sex than are students in classrooms where gender is a salient factor (Colley et al. 1994, p. 383). The results of this study illustrate the need for the development of curricula in India that promote the equality of the sexes.

Historically, the stereotypes endorsed by Indian youth may be more similar to those of British youth than those endorsed by students in the United States. British society has traditionally viewed men as talented in verbal domains as well as in math and science domains. Since Great Britain colonized India more than 200 years ago, India's educational institutions have been strongly influenced by British academic

traditions. In 1835, Thomas Macaulay wrote his famous Minutes in which he criticized almost everything Indian that was academically related (Chand 2007, p. 1). Macaulay denounced Indian culture and practices, and praised everything Western, and on this basis he advocated the adoption of a national system of education for India that would serve the interests of the British Empire. Because Macaulay's ideas were adopted as the cornerstone of all education programs during the British Period in India, Indian culture and philosophy receded to the background, vernacular languages began to be neglected, Western culture made massive strides, English became the medium of instruction, Western arts and sciences became popular, and English schools began to be established (Chand 2007, p. 7). Many generations of Indians were educated within British-based educational systems. India earned its independence in 1947; however, the influence of the British remains through English Mediums and unchanged education reforms that occurred during the British rule. The belief that boys excel in verbal domains compared to girls is a stereotype held in Great Britain, but is not usually endorsed in the United States. Thus, the current results mirror the historical British view favoring boys and men in verbal domains.

Gender Differences in Indian Adolescents' Academic Self-Concepts

The second goal of this study was to examine gender variation in Indian youths' self-concepts in math/science and language (specifically Gujarati). Girls and boys did not differ in their perceptions of their own abilities, but students of both genders viewed themselves as more competent in verbal domains than in math and science. According to Colley and colleagues (1994, p. 380), gender-stereotyped beliefs may be reinforced in the classroom, thereby strengthening stereotypes. However, boys in the all-boys schools had gender stereotypes similar to those of boys in the mixed-gendered school: Both groups viewed boys as more competent than girls across academic domains. This result suggests that forces outside the classroom (e.g., women's lower social status and weaker representation among India's educated) shape adolescents' beliefs about gender differences in academic performance. Although math and science are subjects that are highly valued and emphasized in Indian culture, students had higher self-concept scores in language than in math and science. Because students are rigorously tested and compared with one another in math and science, the testing and high pressure to perform might cause students to have lower math/science self-concepts as compared to language, which is not tested as frequently nor as extensively emphasized in Indian culture. Public rankings based on final exam grades and more testing may demoralize students, leading them to doubt their abilities in that subject compared to subjects in which they are tested less frequently. Not only might testing be a factor, but the larger societal value placed on math/science may cause parents and guardians to examine deficiencies in math/science performance more than deficiencies in language performance. Therefore, students may receive more feedback from non-school personnel that may influence their self-concept in those subjects. For the most part, anticipated differences between the two types of schools were not found. One school difference that did emerge was that boys from the all-boys school reported higher self-concept scores than boys from the mixed-gender school. These results suggest that context may play a role in determining the self-concept of students. However, our results should be interpreted cautiously because only one school of each school-type was included in our sample, and the two schools differed in other ways. Other context factors such as school philosophy towards the academic subjects might explain the fact that boys in the all-boys' school had higher self-concepts in both domains than boys from the mixed-gender school.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL POLICY

Beliefs about gender inequality can be detrimental for a developing nation such as India. The persistence of gender stereotypes can divide the labor force into gendered categories, which may affect educational trajectories and hiring practices. As a result, associations between a particular gender and a profession may become more prevalent. One point of intervention to combat such disparities is the school setting. However, the school should not be the sole point of intervention (Nosek et al. 2009, p. 10596). According to Nosek and colleagues (2009, p. 10596), implicit gender stereotypes and gender gaps in scientific

engagement are mutually reinforcing; a national policy that addresses both these issues simultaneously must be developed in order to reduce the effects of gender stereotypes. Nosek et al. state that "education campaigns attempting to bolster women's participation and performance must overcome the pervasive implicit stereotypes that are already embodied in individuals' minds" (pp. 10596-10597). Educational campaigns, which have had some success in the United States in increasing the numbers of girls and racial minority individuals who study science, can change the status quo in the current stereotypes of Indian students and create a shift towards reducing gender stereotypes. Beyond classroom practices, changes should be made in national policy to promote the development of an educational system that emphasizes language and arts skills as much as it values mathematics and science. Such changes might be difficult to convey since India has become prominent for its production of technical experts who excel in math and science; nevertheless, a curriculum that promotes employment opportunities related to the arts and languages as well as mathematics and science will promote the talents and interests of all citizens.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Additional research should be conducted to replicate the current findings, to examine gender stereotypes in other age groups, and in other regions of India. In addition, school characteristics should be studied to better understand contextual factors that shape students' beliefs. In the current study, only one mixed-gender and one all-boys school were surveyed, limiting the ability to generalize the results. Moreover, no girls from single-sex all-girls schools were successfully recruited for the project. It is possible that such an environment might cushion girls from the potential negative effects of boys' academic stereotypes. Future research should also examine socio-economic differences in students' beliefs. Because large numbers of middle- and upper-class women enjoy higher education and high occupational status, gendered beliefs favoring boys might be mostly prevalent among working-class Indians. No socio-economic status information was collected in the current study, and reliable information about average income level per household for that region could not be located. Therefore, it is unknown to what extent these results generalize to other socioeconomic status groups as well as to other regions of the country. Children's motivational beliefs and eventual occupational choices are shaped by their parents, teachers, and broader cultural forces (Jacobs, Chhin, & Bleeker 2006, p. 402; Nosek et al. 2009, p. 10595; Tiedemann, 2000, p. 147). Thus, an important avenue of future educational research in India would be to examine the pervasiveness of gender academic stereotypes among Indian adults and avenues to change them. Such research would provide important information about the development of achievement motivation in Indian youth, as well as the reasons underling gender disparities in Indian educational attainment and occupational choices.

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AUTHORS

Prof. S. P. Malhotra, GF-1 Ahlcon Apartments, Plot No.19, Sector-III, Vaishali, Ghaziabad-201 010, Uttar Pradesh
Prof. (Ms.) Beatrice Avalos, Alsacia 150, Depto. 33, Las Condes, Santiago, Chile
Prof. Chris Reddy, Faculty of Education, Stellenbosch University, Republic of South Africa
Prof. (Ms.) Therese Mungah Shalo Tchombe,University of Buea, Cameroon
Prof. R. P. Shukla, Dept. of Education, BHU RG South Campus, Barkaccha, Mirzapur-231 001 Uttar Pradesh
Mr. Nrapendra Vir Singh, Lecturer, Dept. of Education, BHU RG South Campus, Barkaccha, Mirzapur-231 001 Uttar Pradesh
Ms. Rekha Tripathi, Lecturer, Dept. of Education, BHU RG South Campus, Barkaccha, Mirzapur-231 001 Uttar Pradesh
Ms. Anita Singh, Faculty (HR), M.S. Ramaiah Institute of Management, New BEL Road, Bangalore- 560 054 Karnataka
Prof. Beth Kurtz-Costes, Dept. of Psychology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599-3270 USA
Mr. Nikul Patel, School of Law, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599-3380 USA
Dr. Dana Wood, UCLA Graduate School of Education and Information Studies, 2140 Moore Hall, Box 951521, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1521 USA

Dr. Sunil Behari Mohanty, Post: Sri Aurobindo Ashram, Puducherry-605002

E-mail: sunilmohanty@gmail.com