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EDITORIAL

EDUCATIONAL TRANSFORMATION IN THE ERA OF COVID 19: CHALLENGES AND ISSUES

Sunil Behari Mohanty

Internationally, COVID-19 has not engulfed all nations in an equal manner. While certain nations needed state coercion to wear masks and maintain social distance among people in markets and other places, in the case of a few other nations, their self-disciplined population did not require any state direction. The potential losses that may accrue in learning for today's young generation, and for the development of their human capital, are hard to fathom" (UN 2020, p.1). "The social, political, economic, and educational impacts of this situation have been widespread and are unprecedented in the modern era." (Rumbley 2020, p. 1). "The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted education systems in almost all countries in the world" (Ming 2020, p. vi). "It exacerbated deep-rooted social and economic inequalities that led to a surge of racism and xenophobia and the proliferation of domestic violence." (UNESCO 2020a. p.3). According to UNESCO (2020b), COVID-19 is a serious threat to aid to education recovery. "This crisis has exposed the many inadequacies and inequities in our education systems – from access to the broadband and computers needed for online education, and the supportive environments needed to focus on learning, up to the misalignment between resources and needs." (Schleicher 2020, p.4). "The COVID-19 pandemic had a wide and immediate impact on higher education, forcing institutions to make an urgent transition to emergency distance learning" (OECD 2021a, p.1). "The long-term effects of this pandemic will be pronounced, calling into question the future of traditional education systems." (KnowledgeWorks 2020, p. 1). The world has been facing such types of pandemics at intervals and have been successfully meeting the challenges that forces evaluating ongoing strategies and bringing in innovations. Damages to the education system include deterioration in health of students belonging to poor families due to stoppage of breakfasts and meals in schools and early childhood care centres, loss of teacher salary, loss of job for many teachers, loss of salary and even jobs for school maintenance staff, loss of learning of students, widening of gap between learning levels of rich and poor students, loss of higher education institutions the income from students from other countries, etc. Pandemic damaged the education system, especially education of school children (Vegas 2020, p. 92). "The time spent at home on schoolwork by children was about half of what they would have spent in classroom-based instruction in normal times (Thorn & Vincent-Lancrin 2021, p.92). The pandemic brought in closure of educational institutions for face-to-face instructional activities resulting in reduced cognitive learning, physical, social, and emotional learning. UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (2021, p. 3) stated that "Education has also been affected. When teaching and learning were forced to move online, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) providers had to fit years of digital learning into a matter of weeks." (OECD 2021b, p.18) stated that "To ensure that students continued to

have access to opportunities to develop their professional skills in the absence of sufficient work-based learning opportunities, some countries provided school-based alternatives.” UNESCO (2021, p.5) reported that “Governments faced numerous challenges as they transitioned to distance learning, such as limited institutional capacity to support teachers, poor access for vulnerable populations, and lack of coherent policies and funds to support remote learning.”

Pandemic had damaged the cultural and creative sectors (Papa 2020, p.11). Efforts to tackle pandemic included international coordination for speedy distribution of medical goods (Gertz 2020). There were international co-operation in supplying oxygen cylinders. There are striking variations among nations in their approach to education during the current COVID-19 outbreak. Detailed strategies for facing the pandemic varied from one nation to another- Denmark and Finland (Vegas 2020), France, (Belin & Bloch 2020), Germany (Stelzenmüller & Denney2020), Greece (Antholis & Letsas 2020), Italy (Giovanna de Maio 2020), and Turkey (Kirişci 2020). Greek approach trusting experts. speed, transparency, strengthening public health, whole-of-society approach, defying cultural norms (Antholis & Letsas 2020). Belin and Bloch (2020, p.86) reported about post-confinement anxiety in France. In UK, NFER (2020a, p. 3) reported limited engagement of pupils with remote learning. UNICEF (2020a, p.5) reported that in the Caribbean countries “Allied to the need to have trained teachers and online course material in a state of readiness, a rapid expansion of online (including use of smartphones for dissemination) does not appear feasible in the short-term.” In Europe, ECEC was worst affected (Van Laere et. al. 2021, p. 4). Shimmi (2021, p.1) referring to internationalisation programme of Japanese universities stated that “Grant-recipient universities are facing challenges implementing their original plans during the pandemic, and many among them have started using ICT tools to continue international exchanges virtually.” Tuga, Jocson and Mabunga (2021, p.9) pointed out that in Philippines, the pandemic forced suspension and cancellation of school terms and work from home for teachers in higher education. Hilmy and Yussof (2021, p.25) reported about hampering of online learning of poor students of Brunei Darussalam and efforts to use email and “WhatsApp” mobile application and Artificial Intelligence applications. In Indonesian higher education, Hamied and Muslim (2021, p.21) stated that “challenges included access to networks, students’ literacy of online learning facilities, as well as honesty and authenticity in evaluation.” Commenting on situation in Vietnam, To and Hoang (2021, p. 35) pointed out necessity of organizing training and sharing sessions on online instructional practices and facilitating different modalities of learning. Teachers in higher education in the UK became victims of online migration that engendered significant dysfunctionality and disturbance in their teaching strategies and also in their personal lives (Watermeyer et.al. 2021, p.623). In the United States, the shift to online learning exposed the gulf of inequality at school stage (Rothman 2020, p. 8). Jackson et al. (2020) stated that for American adolescents, 2020 represented lost opportunities and shattered dreams. Ali, Herbst and Makridis (2020) in their study on impact of COVID-19 on the U.S. child market: found that households may not be well-equipped to insure against the rapid transition to the production of child care. The pandemic inflicted further damage to the US child care

sector which was financially fragile and underfunded (Banghart & Bedrick 2020, p. 1). Referring to situation in California District in United States, Ondrasek, Edgerton and Bland (2021, p. 1) stated that

“To keep students, school staff, and their families safe while continuing the vital work of educating students in person, it is imperative that schools implement evidence-based, multi layered mitigation strategies that prevent in-school transmission, including masking, vaccination, testing, contact tracing, quarantining, handwashing, and ventilation.”

World Bank (2020a, p.1) stated that “While digital technologies can offer a wide set of capabilities for remote learning, most education systems in low- and middle-income countries, including schools, children and/or teachers, lack access to high-speed broadband or digital devices needed to fully deploy online learning options.”

In order to keep learning of students continue, in affected nations, distance mode was used. Higher education through distance mode could not be fruitful (Altbach & de Wit 2020, p.3). School students suffered more than higher education students. Poor students suffered more than rich students widening equity gap. ARNEC (2020, p.7) reported family stress as a result of income losses, school/ECD centre closures and prolonged home stay. Even in a rich nation like United Kingdom, teachers reported about loss of learning of students due to poor broadband access. NFER (2020b, Art. 5.3, p.7) stated that

“School leaders reported that 23 per cent of their school’s pupils have little or no access to IT at home. ‘Little or no accesses was defined as being due to one or more of the following issues: poor broadband access; little or no IT equipment in the home; and/or having to share equipment with other family members. Teachers reported this figure to be 27 per cent.”

More stress and worry due to remote learning were found among low-income families in Scotland (Spencer 2021, p. 40).

Efforts are being made by nations to adopt and adapt technology for education during the crisis(INEE 2021, p. 11). A few promising practices reported in UNHCR (2020) are : Egypt- Using cash assistance for increased data connectivity to allow access national educational resources; Ghana - Keeping children and youth studying by providing e-readers and TV sets; Indonesia- Learning continues through instant messaging and video-conferencing applications; Jordan- Communicating with communities about opportunities for learning; Niger - Distribution of school materials and radios; South Sudan- Distribution of self-study packs; and Uganda: Expanding and adapting existing connected education programmes with the support of Education Cannot Wait England changed its strategies for initial teacher training. Practical teaching experience was to be carried out wholly or mainly in England was modified to allow the experience outside England, if warranted by pandemic (Dept. for Education, UK, 2021). “Teachers and schools have been creative in adopting a

variety of technology-based strategies as alternatives to the traditional classroom, providing lessons through videoconferencing and online learning platforms and sharing learning materials and worksheets through school-based intranets and messaging platforms.” (ILO 2020, p.1). Barnett and Jung (2020, p. 7), referring to the situation in the United States, suggested training, and resources for parents to perform activities expected from teachers. Five strategies for nations suggested by the Education International (2020) were: 1. Social and policy dialogue; 2. Health and safety of education communities; 3. Top priority to equity; 4. Physical and emotional wellbeing and recovery; and 5. Professionalism of educators. In order to improve efforts of nations to deal with the pandemic, IIEP-UNESCO (2020a) brought out five documents: 1. coordinate plan and communicate; 2. Maintain operational capacities during school closures; 3. Provide continuous support to teachers, learners, and their families; 4. Provide hygiene and health education; and 5. Prepare for school reopening. Three strategies suggested by IIEP-UNESCO (2020b) for nations to coordinate plan and communicate are: 1. Activate emergency planning groups within education and coordinate across sectors; 2. Assess requirements for maintaining operational capacities at all levels; and 3. Communicate clearly and continuously with teachers, parents, students, communities, and cities. Three strategies suggested by IIEP-UNESCO (2020c) for nations to maintain operational capacities are: 1. Ensure the continuity of education through open and distance learning; 2. Identify alternatives to holding national exams; and 3. Ensure the continuity and proper functioning of the teacher salary system. Three strategies suggested by IIEP-UNESCO (2020d) to prepare for school reopening are: 1. Plan for the reopening of schools; 2. Communicate, consult, and coordinate; and 3. Review and assess the learning needs of students. Four strategies suggested by IIEP-UNESCO (2020e) to provide health education are: 1. Coordinate responses with other stakeholders; 2. Review the available health and hygiene learning materials; 3. Deliver health education programmes; and 4. Prepare strategies to deal with abuse and violence during confinement. OECD (2020a, p. 7) stated that “At the system level, efforts should focus on developing training opportunities – including virtual learning opportunities – for teachers to develop and strengthen their expertise in teaching and assessing students remotely, and in using ICT and digital technologies in their teaching.” OECD (2020b, p.14) suggested that “In addition to the immediate steps for reopening schools, education must also start preparing for potential future waves of contagion and school closures.” Schleicher (2021a, p.5) stated that “The pandemic has led to a wealth of school- and teacher-led micro-innovations, experimentation and the development of new learning infrastructures”. Reimers and Schleicher came out with a framework to guide the nations to meet the challenges of COVID-19 pandemic. Png. and Goh (2021, p. 15) stated that “At the heart of this future-readiness is the ability to develop resilience, perseverance, collaborativeness, responsiveness and adaptability in the face of rapid changes and disruptions, which we now know to be a hallmark of the new century.” Strategies for reopening of schools as per Rigall et al. (2021, p.5), may be 1. Health education: staying safe and maintaining good hygiene; 2. Academic catch-up and remedial activities; 3. Parental engagement; 4. Developing essential skills; and 5. Supporting social and emotional development. UNICEF (2020b, p.5) gave various suggestions for school education which include discouraging the use of perfect attendance awards and

incentives; going for alternative coverage by cross training staff and bringing in changes in academic calendar. National strategies recommended by UNESCO (2020c) were: 1. Including higher education in stimulus plans for economic and social recovery; 2. Forging a national consensus for a strategy for fostering recovery and innovation in higher education; 3. Providing a clear regulatory environment for the reopening of classrooms that promotes a sense of security; and 4. Committing to international cooperation. OECD (2021c, p.5) stated that “It is important to build on the ongoing efforts to establish a future-oriented infrastructure for online and remote learning, and to continue to develop the capacity of students and teachers to learn and to teach in that way.” World Bank (2020b, p.1) recommended use of educational television programmes to improve teaching learning to cater to educational needs at the time of COVID-19 crisis. To improve teaching in California, US, as part of initiatives to control damage due to pandemic, Carver-Thomas, Leung and Burns (2021) suggested six strategies: 1. Sustain and deepen investments in high-retention pathways; 2. Provide financial support to teacher candidates; 3. Streamline teacher licensure requirements; 4. Create sustainable teacher workloads; 5. Support teachers with adequate substitute staffing; 6. Invest in educator development and support. Ten strategies reported by Darling-Hammond, et al. (2020, p. v) are: 1. Close the digital divide; 2. Strengthen distance and blended learning; 3. Assess what students need; 4. Ensure supports for social and emotional learning; 5. Redesign schools for stronger relationships; 6. Emphasize authentic, culturally responsive learning; 7. Provide expanded learning time; 8. Establish community schools and wraparound supports; 9. Prepare educators for reinventing school; and 10. Leverage more adequate and equitable school funding. Strategies suggested by Gouëdard, Pont, and Viennet (2020) are: 1. Identifying the contextual factors that matter, 2. Making change happen; 3. Designing an appropriate policy for schools and 4. Having a sound education implementation strategy. ISSA (2020, p.3) recommended use of technology for partnership building, and providing interaction opportunities among ECEC staff, children, and families. Referring to a resilient education system, Van der Graaf et al. (2021, p. 11) said that “Enhancing resilience requires careful assessment of the impact of the current crisis, as well as the prediction of future crises, to inform policymaking.” In order to tackle adverse impacts on education system of pandemic like COVID-19, education experts make continuous efforts for developing newer strategies to face the crisis (Goh & Tuga 2021, p.3). Suggestions for redesigning examinations specifically for remote online exams in higher education during the COVID-19 crisis, given in OECD (2020c, pp.5-6) are: 1. Redesign as synchronous oral exams; 2. Flexible modes of examination; 3. Varying sets of exam questions; 4. Reduced time limits; 5. Open book written examinations. Schleicher (2021b, p. 3) in Foreword to a document related to Teaching and Learning International Survey stated that

“The COVID-19 pandemic has both required but also inspired unprecedented changes in educational systems around the world. In this rapidly evolving environment, questions emerged on how to best use these new digital tools and new pedagogical approaches to meet the needs of students, especially the most vulnerable ones. As schools reopen, policy makers, practitioners, students and their families wonder how

the pandemic experience will affect the future of teaching and learning and what “teaching professionalism” really means in these trying times.”

Seven action areas proposed by INEE (2020, pp. 7-8) to take care of the damage due to COVID pandemic and save the future of humanity are: 1. Prioritize reopening schools, deliver vital services to children, and treat the workforce as frontline workers; 2. Make education inclusive, engaging, and adaptive. 3. Strengthen the education workforce; 4. Focus education technology (EdTech) where it is proven to be effective and most equitable; 5. Protect education budgets and target public spending at those left furthest behind; 6. Mobilize international resources to fully finance education; and 7. Use resources better by improving evidence generation, coordination, alignment, and effectiveness.

In India, there are three categories of higher education institutions - fully government, government aided and full private. As the government has been spending massive amounts to face coronavirus calamities, there must be drastic cuts in budget allocation for higher education. Of course, the higher education institutions will have reduced expenditure due to utilisation of online mode that will reduce expenditure on daily maintenance of physical infrastructure. There shall be reduction of expenditure on human resources, especially for teaching of subjects not having practical components and even theoretical portions of such subjects. This may bring in the issue of providing adequate workload to the existing faculty. Institutions will need more funds for

- (a) Daily health check-up of students, teachers and other personnel and follow up activities, if required.
- (b) Decreasing number of students in a classroom and in institutional transport carriers and increasing number of teachers and other support staff to maintain appropriate physical distance between students.
- (c) Providing masks and face shields for teachers and support staff especially engaged in health check-up
- (d) Providing increased sanitation facilities including increased number of wash basins, increased number of sanitizers and increased number of support staff to make the campus sanitized at intervals.
- (e) Making classroom activities recorded and transmitted to students who are at home, due to quarantine or other problems.

During the current academic session and subsequent academic sessions, lot of institutional activities that require no social distancing must stop. This will affect the nature of co-curricular activities and social gatherings to be organised with precautionary measures including social distancing and wearing of masks and hand washing at appropriate intervals.

In coming times, higher education institutions must spend more money on implementing social distances for their personnel. To ensure adequate gap in seating arrangements in a

classroom, institution might have to increase the number of classrooms or have reduced student capacity in a room. Institutions might opt for open air classes as it was in Visva Bharati, during the time of Gurudeva Rabindranath Tagore. However, trees may not be available in all institutions. Such institutions may go for temporary cover for open air classrooms. Of course, such classes must be stopped at the time of rain. There are institutions where teachers use mikes during their lectures delivered in normal classrooms having a generous sized student population. If necessary, mikes may be used in open air classrooms.

Institutions may consider utilising learner centered instruction by giving the students the option to study at home or at library of the institution or of another institution without having to attend classes. In such cases, the student must report to the teacher about his or her progress at intervals. Such a system is found at the Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education at Puducherry for its higher education classes. This will necessitate teacher developed topic wise guidelines for self-learning of students. Many students have the capacity to learn without teacher help. Teacher supervised self-learning pursuits of the students will lead to developing lifelong learning capacity in them, that is the true goal of education. Facilitating education of the vulnerable is the responsibility of every responsible government, and this is a major challenge in a crisis.

A Few Suggestions

1. Examining and Affiliating Bodies Modifying Rules to Promote Self-Regulated Learning, Home learning and Online Learning

Three years ago, during discussion in an induction programme organised by a central university, in the class taken by the author, a mathematics teacher at a government college in Bihar state pointed out that he had been getting regular salary for more than a year without having any student to teach in his class. There was no implementation of the minimum percentage of attendance rule of the concerned university and the students without attending any class could fill up forms for any examination. Many universities and other bodies have regulations that specify a minimum percentage of attendance to become eligible to appear at various examinations. Many institutions ignore such a provision. In the current situation, this rule needs to be immediately modified so that ignoring physical attendance can be made legal. This will promote self-regulated learning, home based learning, and online learning.

2. Making Examining Bodies Open Their Examinations to Anyone Without Any Previous Qualification, to Appear as a Private Candidate

Quarter century ago, the main reason for which an affiliating university gave autonomy to a state government college, famous for mass malpractice in examinations got autonomy, perhaps was to get rid of the responsibility of examining students at this college, as they used to create havoc in the university campus when their results are withheld due to reported malpractice that was taking place as the college did not have adequate number of teachers to teach. In this autonomous college, there was a student strike as the college wanted to have examinations only after 5 months of teaching. At the end students succeeded. Instances of

examinations being conducted without fulfilling the statutory teaching days requirement are rampant.

There are many instances, where the teachers come to class with a memorised lecture. One incident that happened two decades ago talks about problems created in such a situation. In a post graduate class, when a teacher was lecturing a student interrupted the lecture by asking a question. The teacher forgot the memorised portion and left the class halfway and came to the Head of the department with the complaint that students created problems in the class. Students followed the teacher and complained to the HOD that when they asked a question, the teacher did not answer and left the class. Of course, in the present day of PowerPoint presentations, teachers need not get by heart their lectures. Making face to face classroom attendance optional might require changes in university regulations.

Such attempts were also found earlier. For instance, Utkal University in Odisha State allowed any degree holder to appear at its PG examination in Public Administration and all universities in the state allowed a student having completed a degree with Education subject or a teacher having a degree and a teacher training certificate to teach in elementary schools to appear at B.Ed. as private candidates. There are many learned Sanskrit scholars who have no formal degree are found having more expertise in Sanskrit usage than formal degree holders in Sanskrit subject. Due to loss in teaching and learning activity, the nation has gone backwards in its stock of human resources. The Central government and the state government may consider framing rules for various examining bodies under their control to allow any individual without having any previous formal degree or certificate to appear at examinations being conducted by them on payment of prescribed fees. This provision may be of much help in accelerating self-learning initiatives to take care of drop in the quantum of learning due to current pandemic.

3. Flexibility in Number of Subjects for a Degree/ Diploma/ Certificate for General Education Involving No Practical Work

National Education Policy 2020 has advocated flexibility in the number of subjects to be studied. Allowing single subject certificates will see no failures in examinations for general certificates. For instance, a candidate having passed lower secondary certificate examination only in Hindi subject can be able to work in an office that conducts work in Hindi language. The current practice of making one pass all prescribed subjects such as English, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography may be replaced by a pass in one or more subjects. This policy may be applicable for senior secondary and degree stages.

4. Moving Towards Institution Based Curriculum

The central government and state governments may need to modify their acts to empower affiliating universities and school boards and councils to for giving autonomy to colleges and schools to develop and implement their own curricula. Various education commissions have argued for learner centred education. Ideally, such a curriculum must provide options for students to study a subject in the manner suitable to them and the way they are assessed.

Only teaching universities and a few other higher education institutions comfortably use learner centred strategies. Affiliating universities fail to do so. They prescribe uniform curriculum for students pursuing studies in various colleges, without taking cognizance of capabilities of heads of institutions, heads of departments in various subjects and teachers, opportunities provided in institutions for continuous updating of teacher learning, number of teachers available to teach, class size, availability of teachers, self-learning opportunities for students available in the institution's library, topic wise list of appropriate online resources and library resources compiled and periodically updated by the teachers, etc. Throughout the world, the higher education institutions and their programmes vary as per the above parameters of quality. It is also a fact that in most of the nations, students from rich families get additional learning opportunities by participating in 'shadow education' facilities available on payment and self-learning opportunities available at home on payment for Internet and online learning resources. A few nations have been able to reduce the gap at the school stage by making it necessary for all children in a community, irrespective of parental income, to attend an earmarked school, all nations have not applied this principle to higher education acknowledging the gap between students from rich and poor families. COVID-19 has accentuated the existing gap by making the poor more deprived of learning opportunities, due to decrease in paying capacity.

5.Ensuring Online Educational Provisions of Adequate Standard

There have been several online platforms, which are expected to have duly reviewed materials. Two years ago, during an induction programme for college materials, a central university downloaded many materials from these platforms, compiled them and distributed them to participants as a Resource Document. There were many errors in the material on Education Policy, written by a junior lecturer in Sociology and reviewed by an associate professor. The date fixed for completion of various documents might have resulted in improperly reviewed materials available on various platforms. A separate agency needs to be given the responsibility in reviewing these materials and conducting appropriate correction.

6. Making States and UTs Responsible for Quality Control Mechanisms:

Quality assurance traditionally has been a responsibility of the central government which implements through the University Grants Commission. Besides UGC, there are also regulator bodies. The nation has failed in making states partner in the quality control process. There is the case of one university admitting nearly 2000 students in a face-to-face Mode M.Ed. course, in place of approval for 25 students. The concerned State government did not bother. When the fact was brought to the notice of the then chairperson of NCTE, he expressed helplessness in the form of a missing file. A neighbouring state did not allow such M.Ed. to be considered for the lecturer post, but the parent state did not bother. There is the case of teachers posted on deployment basis in a government teachers' training college on the eve of the visit by the NCTE team and their redeployment after the visit is over. Hence, it may be appropriate to make the States responsible for quality control of their higher education institutions.

7. Shifting of Responsibility of Giving Grants to Institutions from Central Level to State and UT levels

Vast number of higher education institutions has made it impossible for a central government agency to physically verify data given in applications for grants. Colleges apply through respective affiliating universities, which also do not bother to verify the truth in the data regarding physical and human resources. Two decades ago, a government college in a state, to become eligible to get a PG grant, had to give names of retired teachers and teachers in its junior college as existing teachers for that PG Course. Colleges with potential for Excellence is one of various schemes instituted by the UGC to promote quality in higher education. Three years ago, during a visit to a state government college of teacher education having got this status found only two regular faculty including principal and four contract teachers, far below NCTE norm. The principal said that the huge amount received is lying underutilised due to paucity of faculty too manage various activities. Hence, it may be appropriate that responsibility of giving grants to institutions be shifted from central level to State and UT levels.

8. Giving Freedom to Institutions-Schools, Colleges and Universities to Gather Funds by Giving their Physical Resources on Rent

In the post Covid scenario, State and central governments must go for budget cuts to allow funds for health-related issues. The institutions-schools, colleges, and universities, located in urban areas can gather funds by giving their physical resources on rent. In 1978-79, the author stayed in Phillip Henman Hall, a hostel of the University of Edinburgh. The university used to earn funds by giving ground floor rooms of the hostel on rent for curio shops frequented by tourists to Edinburgh castle. The author had also visited Livingstone Community School (Mohanty 1979), which was making the community members pay for using the school's swimming pool, playground, and gymnasium.

9. Qualitative Statements in Case of Assessment of Learning for a General Degree

Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education at Puducherry provides education up to degree stage. A letter issued at the end of the degree course mentions subjects completed, not marks or grades secured by the students and this course completion letter is considered as equivalent to degree by the central universities for allowing them to appear at PG entrance tests

10. Need for Modification of Acts by Central and State Governments to Empower School Boards/ Councils to Modify Their Relevant Acts for Autonomy to Schools to Develop and Implement Curriculum

Various education commissions have argued for learner centered education. The huge machinery employed by the national government through NCERT and school boards and councils and textbook bureaus at the state levels making such textbooks compulsory for their schools, once printed, continues for several years till the books are exhausted even if data in them are obsolete and outdated. The curriculum and textbooks as part of the curriculum does not differentiate between a school having Wi-Fi and a school not having electricity, a school having highly educated parents and a school having first generation

learners, a school having students getting benefits of private tuition and others just attending school with inferior quality food at home, the students wishing to pursue higher education and the students wishing to get limited to school education.

Learner centered curriculum necessitates options for students to study a subject. Free progress system of education followed at the Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education at Puducherry allows students at secondary stage to choose subjects for their study. This institution provides education up to degree stage. A letter issued at the end of the degree course mentions subjects completed, not marks or grades secured by the students and this course completion letter is considered as equivalent to degree by the central universities for allowing them to appear at PG entrance tests.

11. Making Provision to Allow Students not Wishing to Appear at School Board Examinations, to Leave School with a Course Completion Letter Mentioning the Subjects Studied and not Indicating any Grade in any Subject, and Mentioning Attributes such as Regularity in Attendance, Sincerity, etc.

As resources vary from one segment of the country to another and also number of teachers per primary classrooms size vary from one primary school to another, instead of rights to education act of the central government (Author's village school has four teachers for eight classes), and efforts by the state governments to take care of the poor so that they can live (Lunch for Five rupees in urban areas, 30 kgs of rice per month at the rate of 1 rupee per kilogram), instead of educating children of such poor people, schools not having adequate number of teachers cannot implement the same curriculum that is applicable to schools having at least one teacher per class and this situation necessitates different curriculum for individual schools based on their material resources, availability parental teaching, shadow education facilities, and other factors.

12. Central and State agencies to modify their acts related to teacher qualifications and teacher training to empower selected schools to select and appoint individuals with or without traditional teacher training qualification and train them on the job in their own way

Three decades ago, the United States empowered selected schools to adopt the above strategy of school-based teacher selection from among individuals without any teacher training and train them on the job. The State has Harvard University, which has a famous department of education that also administers teacher training programmes. This university has not been able to produce any documentary evidence that proves that university trained teachers are better than school trained teachers. Comparable situation is also in the United Kingdom. According to US Miami-Dade County Public Schools Research Services (2012, pp. 7-8) characteristics of effective alternative certificate routes include (a) High standards and rigorous screening of candidates; (b) Strong academic coursework component, (c) Opportunities for practice teaching before candidates enter the classroom, (d) A comprehensive system of support provided to teachers after they enter the classroom, and (e) Community partnerships. According to this study, a few examples of noteworthy

alternative certification programs are: (a) Teach for America (TFA), (b) The New Teacher Project (TNTP), (c) The American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE), (d) New York City's Teaching Fellows Program and (e) The U.S. Department of Defence established Troops to Teachers (TTT).

As in our country teacher training programmes are being run by one or two faculty members posted as regular teacher in many Departments of Education of Central Universities, State Universities and State Government Teacher training institutions there has been the hypothesis that such teacher trainees are coming out through such fraud strategies, will harm the school students more than untrained teachers. On February 25, 2020, at the Economic Times New Age Education Symposium held at Mumbai a head of a school claimed that he can train teachers in a better way than the training being imparted by formal teacher training programmes. In such a situation the central government may consider the rules and regulations concerning teacher qualification and teacher training and at the national level and authorise the states to take such steps.

13. Delinking Degrees from Non-Technical Jobs

The National Policy on Education 1986 had suggested delinking of degrees from jobs. This proposal may need be considered at the present juncture.

14. Autonomy to Schools to Have Extended Teaching and Learning Time and Making Appropriate Changes in Service Conditions of Teachers to make them Work for Hours as Specified for Non-teaching Employees and Power to Schools to Engage Persons without formal Teacher Training Qualifications to Act as Teachers

Strategy to tackle damage in student learning due to loss in institutional teaching learning days and hours, the nation may give autonomy to management of each school and anaganwadi to abolish traditional long holidays and to introduce, wherever possible full day schools, utilising volunteers from the community or parents/ guardians selected on rotation basis, with appropriate guidelines for their handling of students to supervise student learning in the absence of the regular teacher, during extended learning hours. Non-teaching employees in the institutions do not avail long holidays traditionally found in all institutions, except Regional Institutes of Education of NCERT, where long holidays are for students and not for teachers. Non-teaching employees get a greater number of earned leaves per year than teachers. Making teachers work on the same number of days as non-teaching employees do, necessitates modification in teacher service conditions, to make teachers appropriately motivated for efficiency in their work. It is time to give autonomy to schools, colleges, and university departments to have extended teaching and learning time. Already, initiatives have been made in certain states in cancelling holidays. As teachers get holidays, they get less earned leaves in comparison to office staff who do not enjoy long holidays. Hence, there is a need to modify government leave rules for teachers to enable them to get same number of earned leaves per years as applicable to non-teacher employees in government institutions and government universities.

CONCLUSION

Although, this pandemic has inflicted irretrievable loss to education of deprived population, it has brought in innovations in form of online classes, online evaluation of learning outcomes, open book examinations, online learning and self-regulated learning, online professional development programmes for several types of teachers, in education system, which for one reason or another, could not be implemented prior to pandemic.

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FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT AS A CORRELATE FOR TEACHING RESPONSIVENESS IN TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES

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This paper focuses on formative assessment as an enabler to teaching responsiveness. Since most curriculum activities especially in Cameroon are examination oriented, teachers rarely use continuous follow up strategies because of time constraints. The study is based on the assumption that teaching can be responsive to all, irrespective of differences in learning styles, if the teaching act is interest-need driven, and motivating. Accordingly, teaching cannot be responsive when its targets learning only for examination purposes. Therefore, the adoption of the Mediated Mutual Reciprocity (2019) theory is because its principles in demanding learners' participation encourages equity in higher learning, stimulating deep structured learning irrespective of learner differences through participation. A mixed design was chosen for the study whereby closed and open-ended questionnaires were employed for data collection. Through random sampling, 675 pupils/students and 298 teachers were selected from 10 primary and 10 secondary schools in Fako Division of the Southwest Region of Cameroon. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient is used for data analysis. The findings demonstrate positive relationship demonstrating that when feedback and continuous engagements of learners in their learning, teaching is seen to be responsiveness. The findings supported that formative assessment in ensuring teaching responsiveness enriches professional classroom practices. The paper therefore concludes by encouraging teachers to use formative assessment during teaching to ensure no learner is left behind.

1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching processes are seen to be responsive when there is evidence of flexible partnership in continuous checks between teachers and learners as well as learners and learners understanding and making progress during lesson. This is the basis for ensuring an all-encompassing classroom practice. Assessment as a whole is inextricably linked to teachers' professional practices (Butt 2010) as an integral part of learning, ensuring the use of appropriate teaching strategies, including monitoring, for understanding. Most often ongoing assessment during teaching is limited because the curriculum functions in an examination-oriented manner with focus only on the end of-course assessment. This to an extent disregard the use of formative assessment that encourages all learners to be involved. Other forms of assessment basically assess levels of achievement, aptitudes and also accomplished skills that indicate what the learner can do at a given time. Yet levels of achievement determined by assessment, usually set out most often to establish only indicators of intellectual abilities. Assessment is not a discontinuous process, rather it is a continuous process, forming an integral part of teaching. Assessment is an integral component of education of all learners. The rest of the paper states the background, the statement of problem, research objectives, justification and significance, conceptual and theoretical reviews, method, findings, discussions conclusions and recommendations..

2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

2.1 Conceptualisation

a. Assessment

Classroom assessment is generally divided into two types of assessment for learning that is (a) formative, aiming at improving learner's learning in order to inform teaching objectives. The essence is to improve teaching not assign grades. (b) Assessment of learning is summative which is to assess learners' learning at the end of an instructional unit by comparing it against some criteria. Pearson and LKMco (2017) researched the topic of assessment in schools. Of their many findings, teachers commented that there are just too many assessments which serve only to identify indicators of intellectual abilities. However, two complementary ways of checking learners' progress in school setting are through formative and summative assessments.

Summative assessment is a strategy that provides information to judge the overall value of an educational programme and is more evaluative (Scriven 1967). Teachers are caught up in making value judgements on outcomes only at the end of a programme under controlled examination conditions. This encourages standard-driven teaching that allows for national accountability of educational programmes at all levels, restricting teaching creativity and innovative education processes.

On the other hand, formative assessment sets out to facilitate programme improvement progressively. Accordingly, McManus (2008, p.3) postulates that it "is a process used by teachers and students during instruction providing feedback for adjustments during on-going teaching and learning to improve students' achievement of intended instructional outcomes". Formative assessment is diagnostic, thus considered valuable for all classrooms with diversity of learners. It helps with monitoring different learning styles, abilities, and accounting for higher learning equality. Formative assessment fits efficiently into the teaching process given that it is flexible, informal, non-threatening, encouraging full participations of all learners, thus shaping teaching and learning (Shepard 2008). Such approach allows for the identification of strengths, areas of weaknesses for eventual intervention and also identify more creative methods in classroom lesson presentation.

Black and William (1998, p.7) characterise formative assessment as "all those activities undertaken by teachers and/or by their students that provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged". Bloom, Hastings and Madaus (1971) suggest that it is an instructional approach that espouses the use of assessments to gauge students' progress toward mastering a learning goal (Bloom et al. 1971). Bloom suggests that, rather than waiting to assess students at the end of a unit (summative assessment), teachers should use formative assessments "as an integral part of the instructional process to identify individual learning difficulties and prescribe remediation procedures" (Guskey 2010, p. 108).

Therefore, formative assessment is about providing feedback (Clark 2010) and use of

dialogue. Hattie and Temperley (2007) found out in their meta-study that feedback is a powerful instructional approach with derived effect sizes for different kinds of feedback. They obtain high effect sizes when students are given ‘formative feedback’, that is feedback on how to perform a task more effectively. What resides at the centre of formative assessment practices is the strategic guidance given to students on how to improve their work. Feedback, therefore, becomes formative when learners: a) engage in a process which focuses on meta-cognitive strategies that can be generalised to similar problems of varying degrees of uniqueness; b) are supported in their efforts to think about their own thinking; c) understand the relationship between their prior performance, their current understanding, and clearly defined success criteria; and d) are motivated to be owners of their own learning (Torrance & Pryor, 1998) as they assume this responsibility.

Basic dialogue strategies like open ended questions and answer sessions and discussions can be used to engage students actively for effective learning, addressing the depth of knowledge (McMillan 2014) for deep structured rather than surface structured learning. Studies by Hattie and Timperley (2007) indicate that feedback and dialogue are central to formative assessment. To Andrade, Lui, Palma and Hefferen (2015), the impact of formative assessment comes from the strength of the feedback provided to students about their learning and to teachers about their teaching. Teaching responsiveness thus relies on such evidence from classroom dialogue that informs teachers and enables them to make constructive and systemic instructional decisions for adjustments.

b. Teaching Responsiveness

So, responsiveness simply involves a teacher making positive comments about what a learner is doing and providing feedback. Teaching Responsiveness is essential today, as the school systems at all levels in Cameroon face many challenges especially, participation that allows for equity in quality in higher learning. The parameter addressing responsiveness is wide; curriculum responsiveness (Moll 2004) which considers learning responsiveness, institutional responsiveness, and Slonimsky and Shalem (2006) make the case for pedagogic responsiveness. Teaching responsiveness demands differentiated pedagogic skills, attitudes, knowledge, and values with new roles for both teachers and learners to ensure non-hierarchical collaborative engagements in teaching, learning and assessment. In all of these the use of formative assessment strategies is considered very essential for the realisation of real participation in quality learning This entails that teacher should be trained to execute the following steps as outlined by Dunst and Raab (2013);

- ❖ Involve learner in interesting learning activities.
- ❖ Pay attention to what the learner is doing in the activities.
- ❖ Respond positively to learner’s attempts to communicate.
- ❖ Encourage the learner to communicate in new or different ways.

Based on the above process, teaching responsiveness requires participatory pedagogy with knowledge being jointly created and recreated by teachers and learners interdependently.

Accordingly, there is need for a shift from more didactic to interactive teaching, through teacher's reflection, creativity, imagination, reasoning, constructive thinking, and dynamic pedagogic decision making (Sheilah, 2015). Differentiated strategies for assessment (Chapman, & King, 2012) offer learner's variety of tasks and real-life skills, informing teachers on how well the learners are performing. Teachers who are equipped with instructional choices are less frustrated and more productive in the classroom (Baker 2005).

2.1.1. Three levels of contextual factors influencing implementation of formative assessment in Cameroon

As indicated earlier, the learning context has considerable influence on formative assessment practices. Kozma (2003) suggests three levels of interacting contextual factors concentrating on teachers' practice in the classroom: micro, meso and macro (as cited in Fulmer, Lee, & Tan, 2015).

2.1.1a. Micro-level

The micro-level is the immediate context of the classroom with varied classroom-level influences. This can consist of the individual factors generated by teachers and students (e.g., teachers' assessment of knowledge, values, and beliefs; students' prior performance in a particular area), as well as social factors related to the teacher – student interaction in the environment (e.g., the way students respond to formative assessment tasks). Technology and tools for assessing within the classroom also play a role. Within the context of Cameroon, we identify difficulties such as:

- ❖ Large class sizes of more than 70 pupils/students per teacher
- ❖ Teacher's inability to have individual contact with individual students or in small group work allowing for pedagogic creativity
- ❖ Teaching is more direct with the main aim of completing the scheme for the team.
- ❖ Students get easily distracted classrooms get too noisy and weak disciplinary measures all of which create unhealthy classrooms
- ❖ Teachers' inability to create opportunities for follow up

2.1.1 b. Meso-level

The meso-level comprises factors outside the classroom which directly influence the classroom. This level is usually defined as school level, with factors such as school policies and support from school authorities for assessment, the school's climate for supporting assessment practices, and school-wide access to tools and support staff involved in the process of assessment. In addition, there are other factors beyond the school environment that have an influence on the classroom, such as requests and expectations from parents and the community. Within the context of Cameroon, we identify difficulties in relation to:

- ❖ School expectations to perform high in public examinations, hence teachers are bound to neglect formative assessment.

- ❖ Teachers are not given necessary incentives to accomplish their tasks
- ❖ Inadequate provision of teaching aids.
- ❖ Poor collaboration between the teachers and parents.

2.1.1c. Macro-level

The macro-level encompasses factors that may affect the meso-level, and indirectly affect the classroom. Depending on the circumstances of the education system, macro-level factors can be varied. This includes education policies at the national level, regional level, and divisional and subdivisional levels related to educational accountability and good governance. In private and parochial schools, these factors include policies and statements from the school's affiliated social institutions. Cultural norms concerning education and assessment as well as social and economic pressures are other macro-level factors. Within the context of Cameroon, we can highlight the following basic problem:

- ❖ The curriculum especially at secondary level is content oriented,
- ❖ Teachers are expected to cover large part of the syllabus at every subject level in order to prepare students for end of cycle public examinations.
- ❖ Final examinations remain the most commonly used measures for assessment of pupils and students.

2.1.2 Statement of the Problem

Addressing formative assessment as correlate of teaching responsiveness is to search the extent to which pedagogic practices ensure that all learners have equal access to quality participation and follow up in class. Diversity of learners found in most classrooms are those in disadvantaged situations, learning difficulties and barriers. These are mostly neglected, ignored, or marginalised in class teaching as most often teachers are struggling to complete either the terms or end-of-year programmes to meet the expectations of public examinations. Because the outcomes of these public examinations determine the status of the school and quality of the teachers, teaching is didactic with no effort from the teacher to assess how learners are progressing in various programmes. This study attempts to find out the extent of relationship between formative assessment as treatment process and teaching responsiveness as outcome indicator of the treatment process.

2.1. 3 General Research Objective

To find out if the use of formative assessment techniques can be associated with teaching responsiveness in teachers' professional practice based on specific theoretical principles.

a. Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to examine:

- ❖ The extent to which teachers' and students' perception of formative assessment relate to teaching responsiveness in teacher's professional practices

- ❖ The extent to which the use of feedback and dialogue techniques link teaching responsiveness in teacher's professional practices
- ❖ The extent to which formative assessment is informed by the principles of Mediated Mutual Reciprocity theory for teaching responsiveness in teacher's professional practices

2.1.4 Justification

This article makes the case that learners can be encouraged to independently invent and reinvent new knowledge based on creative, critical, and analytical feedbacks where in using formative assessment, teaching is responsive in making all active. Consequently, it attempts to demonstrate that in classrooms of diversity, formative assessment is a necessary pedagogic technique.

2.1.5 Significance

This study is of great importance to classroom teachers and learners including teacher educators and policy makers. Teachers need to cultivate a growth mind set in pedagogical activities whereby, they teach and assess for learning rather than of learning. This is crucial in professional practice. As co-learners, the quality of teacher, learner support through formative assessment strategies and learners' inputs should facilitate quality teaching/learning because teachers would be able to use a wide variety of instructional strategies and learning pathways.

2.1.6 Theoretical Premise

Formative assessment, having as indicators continuous use of feedback, questioning and others such monitoring tools, is bolstered by behaviourist theorist most especially Skinner (1953) and Thorndike (1903). Also, the social learning theory of Bandura (1977) addressing self-efficacy and self-regulation is useful given that learners have to be active in regulating their own learning in order to determine their level of success. In addition, the socio-cultural approaches to learning exemplified by Vygotsky (1978) make reference to mediation by competent other the central tenet of the theory. The learners in this case are dependent on significant others until they get to their potential level. Despite its potentials to enhance and enrich learning, this theory accentuates the opportunities of mediation by more experienced others, allowing little room for learners' own mediation acts. The current Mediated Mutual Reciprocity (MMR) theory used in this paper, addresses the shift from prescriptive approaches to more flexible and creative perspectives through non-hierarchical and more triangulated dialectical dialogue in collaborative and cooperative actions (Tchombe, 2019).

The Mediated Mutual Reciprocity (MMR) theory is built on the principles that continuous classroom interaction that is interest - need -driven can facilitate learning for all and does not necessarily depend on competent others. This choice is justified because learners are real partners in the learning process; they are equals in inventing and creating knowledge; affecting each other's behaviour as they make their independent contributions (Tchombe, 2019). Accordingly, learners can identify their own strengths and weaknesses, with room for improvement through their own initiated mediation backed by mutual reciprocal reactions. The MMR postulates a learning environment for growth and development that encourages

mutual positive influences and effects between all learners, peers and teachers including even siblings and parents through collaborative and individual engagements. Students, as key partners in ensuring learning are important factors in optimising successful implementation of teaching responsiveness through rich classroom dialogues.

The Mediated Mutual Reciprocity (MMR) theory is of relevance to our understanding of formative assessment having implications for teaching responsiveness. The driving strategies underpinning formative assessment and teaching responsiveness include feedback, dialogue and reciprocal interactions between the teacher and learner. MMR proposed as a new framework for understanding learning, highlights another dimension of socio-cultural constructivism with more accent on the learner's inputs through initiated interactions and actions. The learning approach is co-learning and non-hierarchical based in worthwhile activities that are interdependent and socio-culturally relevant. The learning process encouraged through formative assessment is deep structured requiring more, the total engagement of the learners. This theory is purposeful, useful, and meaningful in helping to explain learners' own contributory role in directing their learning and development. Exceedingly early in life, children mediate and mutually reciprocate in the process of knowledge creation, utility, evaluation, and dissemination. Mediated Mutual Reciprocity is a give and take process. The teachers or any competent others, including the learners give and equally receive; thus, affecting and influencing each other's' behaviours, sometimes positively redirecting and changing positively the course of the learning process. The theory prescribes the great need to understand learners' input actions as their mediated mutual reciprocity is need-interest-driven. This intrinsic motivation promotes the use of different technological and communication tools and styles, informing that the locus of control is more internal and not so much external based on rewards and punishment.

Mediated Mutual Reciprocity is more concerned with how learners transform ideas to create or redirect actions, requiring more of their involvement. Learners' communicative behaviours in these contexts, illustrate they can influence and be influenced by the behaviours of others. The dialectical relationship illustrates that all the actors' influence each other's behaviours in significant ways as they recognise, negotiate and exchange ideas in the transaction through a cyclical chain, thereby causing bidirectional changes. The process illustrates industry, reflection, reasoning, and engagements. The mediating effects of the rich empirical world of the African cultural context, provides opportunities for the discovery of specific knowledge, skills, competencies, attitudes, and values that only the learner can discover and exploit through an independent mutual reciprocation. All of these actions are also encouraged by cultural amplifiers in their daily engagements such as erranding, farming, fishing, hunting, marketing, and traditional activities. The Mediated Mutual Reciprocity perspectives should permeate home and school attitudes to sustain learners' own inputs in the development of their creative thinking, problem solving, analytic and self-reinforcing skills and abilities including their meta-cognitive skills. The theory underscores the active nature of African children in learning for cognitive enhancement. It also illustrates how Africentric learning contexts enable children to sustain quality learning

process; valuable in ensuring learners own significant contribution to learning that is dynamic and sustainable. The above theory is illustrated in table 1 indicating the categories and themes that emerge from the category and the description of the themes.

Table 1
Conceptual Framework for Mediated Mutual Reciprocity Theory

CATEGORY	THEME	DESCRIPTION
Theory Name	Mediated Mutual Reciprocity for Cognitive Enhancement	Learners initiate and sustain the learning process, ensuring learners own significant contribution in learning that is dynamic and sustainable in a dialectical relationship between the learner and significant other.
Learning Processes	Mediation	Learner and significant other initiate learning as co-constructors of knowledge
	Mutuality	Encourages and illustrates the active interdependence and collaboration of all in the interactive process.
	Reciprocity	Shared responsive connection between the child and the others are initiated by both teams.
Cognitive Processes	Perception	Ability to capture, process, and actively make sense and interpret information about the environment
	Attention	Ability to position oneself towards relevant stimuli and consequently respond to it.
Learning Principles	Need-interest-driven	Intrinsic motivation promotes internal locus of control to the learner during the learning process.
	Co-learning	The learner and significant other engage in a give and take process, thus affecting and influencing each other's behaviour.
	Non-hierarchical Learning	The learner and significant other equally give and receive, with no one being superior.
	Bidirectional learning	All the actors' influence each other's behaviours in significant bidirectional ways as they recognise, negotiate and exchange ideas
	Multidirectional Learning	Influences between the learner, significant other and cultural amplifiers

Cognitive Skills	Creativity and Imagination	New ways of knowledge creation, utility, evaluation, and dissemination.
	Critical Thinking	Thinking clearly and rationally about what to do or what to believe. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking.
	Problem Solving	Working through details of a problem to reach a solution
	Self-reinforcement	Individuals control their own behaviour by rewarding themselves when a certain standard of performance has been attained or surpassed.
	Positive attitudes	State of mind that envisions and expects favourable results
	Analytical Skills	Ability to see patterns, trends, and things to note and draw meaningful decisions
	Spiritual/Moral skills	Ability to feel for others, listen, aware of a supreme being and being honest especially in collaborative activity
Learning Types	Action learning	Learning by doing through manipulation of natural and artificial learning objects
	Deep structured learning	Insightful learning leading to detail perception of things
	Transformative learning	Fundamental change in the way we see ourselves and the world in which we live.
	Discovery Learning	Inquiry learning that leads to exploration of the environment and creation of knowledge
Background Influences to Learning	Cultural amplifiers	Formal, informal, and non-formal learning via performance of domestic chores, farming, and engagement in economic activities at home, school, church, workplace, peer activities, society, and cultural ceremonies.

Source: Tchombe 2019

3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Design

A mixed research design was used for the study, with the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. The type of mixed research design that was used is concurrent explanatory design. The overall purpose for the choice of this design is that both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed at the same time. In this light data was collected with the use of two sets of questionnaires that carried both closed and open-

ended questions. At the level of interpretation, the data sets were merged by analysing them separately in a results section and then merging the two sets of results together during the interpretation with qualitative data used to explain the quantitative results.

3.1.1 Population

Ten (10) primary and ten (10) secondary schools were identified in Fako Division of the South West Region of Cameroon. Table 2 below describes the population of the study.

Table 2
Target population of the study

Schools	Pupils/Students		Teachers	
	Pupils	Students	Primary	Secondary
1	202	601	10	66
2	301	710	9	76
3	157	811	7	89
4	122	342	6	55
5	231	443	7	56
6	133	561	8	58
7	110	611	7	71
8	241	333	9	44
9	121	712	10	33
10	111	861	7	36
Total	1,729	5,985	80	584
Sum total	7,714		664	

Source: School enrolment and employment statistics

From the above, it shows that the total population of pupils was 1,729 and of students was 5,985 to make sum total of 7,714. In relation to teachers the total population for primary was 80 and 584 for secondary to make a sum total of 664.

3.1.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure

A random sampling technic was used where teachers, pupils and students were given equal opportunity to participate in the study. The sample for each total population was therefore determined with the use of a sample calculator based on a 95% confidence level and confidence interval of 5, of the total population. Table 3 below indicates the sample of the study.

Table 3
Sample of the study

9	Pupils		Students		Teachers (Primary)		Teachers (Secondary)	
10	Total	Sample	Total	Sample	Total	Sample	Total	Sample
Total	1,729	314	5,985	361	80	66	584	232
Sum total sample	675				298			

Based on table 3, a sample of 314 pupils were chosen from a total population of 1,729, while a sample of 361 students were chosen from a total population of 5,985 students. This made a sum total sample of 675 for both pupils and students. In relation to teachers, a sample of 66 primary school teachers were chosen from a total of 80, while a sample of 232 secondary school teachers were chosen from a total of 584. This made a sum total of 298 primary and secondary school teachers.

3.1.3 Instruments for data collection

Two sets of questionnaires were used for data collection: one for teachers and another for students. The questionnaire for teachers was both closed and open-ended, with a four-point scale (agree, strongly agreed, disagreed, and strongly disagreed) addressing demographic data and four research objectives. The latter were based on views of formative assessment that enabled teaching responsiveness based on the Mediated Mutual Reciprocity theory for inclusion. The questionnaire for students was close ended, addressing demographic data and two main issues: students' perceptions on how the use of continuous feedback promotes their involvement in learning and what they consider to be teaching responsiveness.

Instruments were pilot tested with groups that were not part of the study sample and found valid and reliable for testing the objectives of the study. Ethical concerns were respected through solicitation of the consents of all engaged. The questionnaires were self-administered by the researcher assisted by two research assistants. Data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient statistics.

4. FINDINGS

The findings of the study are presented according to the specific objectives of the study.

4.1. Teachers' and students' perception of formative assessment as related to teaching responsiveness in teachers' professional practices

The results revealed that the majority (97.0%) of teachers agreed that teaching responsiveness is when teaching addresses classroom diversity by interacting frequently with individuals or small groups (98.0%). Furthermore, most teachers (85%) agreed that teaching responsiveness is when they pose a question, with intervals, allowing each learner

time to reflect before calling them to respond. Similarly, majority (95%) of teachers agreed that the quality of responses improved a great deal when students are allowed time to think after a question is posed. Additionally, the multiple responses set indicate that the majority (94.4%) of teachers agreed that teaching is responsive when all learners are encouraged to be active in the teaching /learning process. Accordingly, the mean score and standard deviation ($\mu = 3.28$, $\sigma = 0.56$) confirm the held views of the majority of teachers.

For most teachers (94.2%) their perception of the techniques constituting formative assessment influence teaching responsiveness. In this respect, the average mean score and average standard deviation of ($\mu = 3.32$, $\sigma = 0.57$) indicate that most respondents considered teachers' perception of the use of formative assessment techniques as teaching responsiveness. To further ascertain the association of teachers' perception, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed as shown below.

Table 4

Teachers' Perception of formative assessment techniques vis a vis teaching responsiveness

		Teachers' perception of use of formative assessment techniques	Teaching responsiveness on diverse students' learning
Teachers' perception of formative assessment	Pearson	1	.272**
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	298	298
Teaching responsiveness on students' learning	Pearson	.272**	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	298	298

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From Table 3 above, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ($R = 0.272$, $P=0.05$) indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between teachers' perception of the use of formative assessment techniques and teaching responsiveness in meeting the learning needs of diversity of learners.

From all the results reporting teachers' views on the use of formative assessment techniques to reach out to all learners in terms of equity and quality, the techniques determining teaching responsiveness include interactive behaviours such as questioning, responding, and reacting. The regular use of these techniques in monitoring students' learning progressively

has demonstrated positive relationship in promoting teaching responsiveness. Besides the above techniques, feedback has been considered as the most valuable.

To support teachers', students' held views on their understanding of teaching responsiveness revealed the majority (97.9%) agreeing that teaching responsiveness is when opportunities are created for them to freely interact frequently with their teachers and their peers, providing them with tools with which to judge the quality of their own inputs. Similarly, many (70.2%) agreed that teaching responsiveness is when their teachers ask questions that have the same level of difficulty to all learners who then help each other to respond. Furthermore, a great proportion (95.7%) of students agreed that teaching responsiveness is when their teachers permit them to initiate questions to which they respond clearly and encourages them to ask more. The multiple responses set further revealed that majority (92.5%) were positive that teaching in their classroom is responsive. Thus, the average mean and standard deviation ($\mu = 3.40$, $\sigma = 0.72$) confirm that teaching in their classroom is responsive.

4.2. The extent to which the use of feedback and dialogue techniques link teaching responsiveness to teachers' professional practices

Majority (98%) of teachers stated that formative assessment by definition is continuous interactive process used by teachers to progressively monitor students' learning status during the teaching/learning process. Also, all the teachers agreed that using formative assessment techniques provides continuous feedbacks to adjust on-going teaching and learning activities.

Similarly, the majority (97.0%) agreed that feedback is a core element of the formative assessment process. Almost all (99%) of the teachers agreed that progressive monitoring during teaching has a significant impact on students' active engagement. Furthermore, the majority (88%) of teachers agreed that teachers' deeper understanding of students' role in the progress monitoring process determines the quality of the feedback. Accordingly, the majority (97%) of teachers agreed that fostering continuous interaction with students during lessons make them partners in building learning to learn skills. The multiple responses set further indicates that the majority (96.4%) of teachers accepted that formative assessment ensures teachers make the effort to reach out to each learner in the classroom. Additionally, the average mean score and average standard deviation ($\mu = 3.59$, $\sigma = 0.55$) reveal that the majority of teachers attest that formative assessment has a positive influence on teaching in a classroom with diversity.

The relationship between the use of progressive monitoring and teaching responsiveness is further assessed by the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient The result is indicated in table 2 below.

Table 5

Perceived relationship between progressive monitoring and teaching responsiveness in teachers' professional classroom practices

		Progressive monitoring learning	Teaching responsiveness
Formative assessment	Pearson Correlation	1	.204**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	298	298
Teaching responsiveness of teachers	Pearson Correlation	.204**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	298	298

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 2 presents the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ($R = 0.204$, $P=0.05$) demonstrating a weak positive effect of the use of continuous progressive monitoring through encouraging interactions with all learners to participate in quality learning.

From qualitative data it was observed that variations in interactive approaches are employed through use of questioning techniques to ensure cooperative learning in group activities, giving each learner the opportunity to read. They also said; *...I use different teaching methods and strategies that would enable all the learners in class to be attentive and participate in my lessons with ease.*

As concerns the use of a variety of teaching aids or real-life scenarios to stimulate interactions during the lesson, a teacher said; *...I use a variety of teaching aids, materials, and real objects to carry out demonstrations in class and also to enable the learners to manipulate them and easily understand the lesson.* Another teacher said... *I use real life scenarios to stimulate lessons for learners to think and analyse the events in class before feedback is given as the lesson progresses.*

Similarly, most teachers said they ensure classroom participation through asking questions to students and prompting them to answer the questions as reiterated here *I always ask questions to students and call them up randomly in class to answer----*. Also, the majority of teachers state that they give students assignments and homework; the students complete the tasks at home on lessons learnt or topics which are to be introduced to them.

Cooperative learning strategies through group work and classroom presentations based on tasks assigned, corrected, and evaluated were common. According to one of the teachers; *I*

always group the students into mixed ability groups for them to work as a team, complete tasks assigned and do classroom presentations, after which I do corrections and the different groups are evaluated based on their task performance.”

Finally, knowledge and skills to help improve the pedagogic and psychological knowledge as teacher pointed out...*I read books, carry out research on the internet, and attend seminars that enable me to improve my knowledge on learning style, thus improving on my classroom teaching of diverse learners.* All the teachers further indicated different feedback techniques used to ascertain students’ understanding during lesson.

The results and comments from teachers were corroborated by students who reiterated that continuous class interactions among all fosters partnership, involving students as partners with teachers in building learning to learn skills. The majority (95.7%) of the students agreed that continuous monitoring of learning by the teacher allows for equality in giving and receiving; that when no one claims superiority in knowledge ownership, this enhances participation. Additionally, the majority (95.7%) of the students agreed that teachers who recognise and negotiate regularly with the class increase opportunities for knowledge exchanges and creation.

As already pointed out, most teachers (87%) agreed that progressive assessment through questioning, explaining, and encouraging students’ full participation during teaching enables them to meet individual student’s learning needs. Most (93%) teachers also agreed that progressive assessment during classroom instruction enables them to adjust their teaching to identify students’ learning needs and 96% held that monitoring enables them to help the students to participate actively during class teaching.

Similarly, the majority (98%) said that regular monitoring of learning helps them to always examine and restructure the learning situations in order to meet the needs of learners, with 96% saying that effective assessment during teaching improves pupils’/students’ achievement of intended instructional outcomes. In the same way 95% held that regular constructive feedback helps them to identify the factors behind variation in pupils/students’ individual needs.

Corroboratively, 97.9% of the learners agreed that when the teacher asks many questions during teaching, it enables them to understand the lesson as it progresses. They agreed that as the teacher keeps monitoring the level of each student’s engagement, individual participation is enhanced thus increasing how teaching responds to their learning needs ($\mu = 3.51$, $\sigma = 0.51$).

All students in the study accepted that when teaching is responsive in giving clear feedback, they learn well in classrooms. For the majority (97.9%) of students, when positive feedback is on-going, it shows that teaching is engaging because it is addressing their learning needs. Also, the multiple responses set indicate that for the majority (98.9%) of students, continuous feedback promotes teaching responsiveness, increasing their

involvement in their learning. Additionally, the average mean and standard deviation ($\mu = 3.60$, $\sigma = 0.52$) showed that most students hold that continuous feedback promotes teaching responsiveness by increasing the involvement of learners in learning.

The effect of continuous feedback on students' views of teaching responsiveness is further computed by using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient as calculated below.

Table 6
Feedback on Teaching Responsiveness vis-à-vis Students' Learning.

		Students' perception on the use of feedback	Teaching responsiveness on students' learning
Students' perception on the use of feedback	Pearson Correlation	1	.423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	675	675
Teaching responsiveness on students' learning	Pearson Correlation	.423**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	675	675

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From Table 4 above the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ($R = 0.423$, $P=0.05$) indicates specifically that there is a strong positive correlation between the use of feedback with teaching responsiveness to promote students' learning in classrooms.

4.3. The extent to which formative assessment is informed by the principles of Mediated Mutual Reciprocity theory for teaching responsiveness in inclusive practices

The findings demonstrated that 76% teachers encourage the active collaboration of all learners in the interactive process. In addition, 61% encourage responsive connections amongst all in class. Sixty percent of teachers use formative assessment techniques by encouraging individualisation of learning in teaching. More so, 76% said during classroom teaching, they make frequent interactive assessments of students' understanding.

Alike, 56% said in monitoring learning, they allow for equality in giving and receiving by all. Furthermore, 74% indicated that they recognise and negotiate regularly with the class to increase opportunities for all to engage in knowledge creation and exchange. Similarly, the multiple responses set indicates that 67.2% of teachers are of the opinion

that their knowledge of the principles of the Mediated Mutual Reciprocity theory informs, guides, and directs multiple directional formative assessment practices. In addition, the average mean score and average standard deviation ($\mu = 2.93$, $\sigma = 0.81$) reveal that teachers' understanding of formative assessment practices on teaching responsiveness is better informed through understanding the principles states that learners are competent in directing learning if given the opportunity. Further analysis was based on Pearson product moment correlation coefficient computed as indicated in table 5below.

Table 7
Formative Assessment practices and the MMR principles

	Teachers' understanding Of formative assessment practices vis a vis MMR Theory		
Teachers' understanding of formative assessment-based MMR principles	Pearson Correlation	1	.333**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	298	298
Teaching responsiveness on students' learning	Pearson Correlation	.333**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	298	298

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ($R = 0.333$, $P=0.01$) indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between teachers' understanding of formative assessment practices on the teaching responsiveness based on the MMR principles.

In support of the above, a teacher reiterated; "...I appoint students randomly to answer questions and I also answer questions from the learners." Another teacher emphasised;

...I ask questions and allow the pupils to debate on them by appointing different pupils to talk freely on the issue; also, I ask them to go to the board and answer questions on exercises put on the board. Yet another teacher stated that "...I use positive classroom interaction during which the learners talk freely and listen to each other, enabling them to answer questions and do presentations with ease, not being afraid of talking."

Furthermore, teachers stated that they define students' success when they demonstrate change in their behaviours based on the lesson's objectives. Such change can be identified; *when learners can answer questions correctly, perform activities, make contributions, pass*

tests, engage in practical activities which show that lesson objectives have been attained, I know that they are succeeding in their learning.

Accordingly, teachers' collective views state that; *...when the learners pay attention, participate through classroom activities, answer questions and complete tasks assigned to them correctly and asking questions, I know that they are learning well.*

Teachers' voices on how they identify learners' learning needs during instructions are hereby mentioned: One said *...I identify the learners' learning needs through observation as I observe the learners' participation in classroom activities, listen to them answer questions posed to them and the way they interact and debate on issues with their classmates in relation to the subject matter taught.* Another teacher reiterated *...I identify learner's needs through the questions and answers the students give...as well as through the feedback I get from exercises completed in class and at home.*

The teachers, who stated that their pupils were not learning enough had these to say; *...the classroom sizes are too large, and the classes are overcrowded with some 90 students per class, making teaching and learning difficult for the learners to participate in all the learning activities in class.* Another teacher elaborated; *...the learners lack the basic textbooks, which learners need to complete their tasks or be helped to study before coming to school.* Another said *the curriculum is examination dominated causing teachers to teach mainly to ensure completion of the prescribed curriculum and paying little attention to how learners were learning.*

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Of the three objectives tested in this study, one had weak positive relationship on the use of continuous progressive monitoring through encouraging interactions with all learners to participate in quality learning. Though this was the case statistically, the qualitative responses from the open-ended questions provide added valuable information. It showed the importance of teacher's knowledge of learning styles and multiple intelligences. This enabled close monitoring of all learners during class teaching to ensure equity in creating opportunities for all to access new knowledge. On the other hand, a strong positive relationship between teachers' perception of the use of formative assessment techniques and teaching responsiveness in meeting the learning needs of diversity of learners was observed. Thus, the strong positive correlation between the use of feedback with teaching responsiveness to promote students' learning through teachers' professional practices in classrooms supports the significance of feedback for teaching responsiveness. Theory informs practice and practice modifies theory (Tchombe 2006). This study also confirmed a strong positive relationship between teachers' understanding of formative assessment practices on the teaching responsiveness based on the MMR principles. Understanding the theory of MMR and its principles about learners' independent role in their learning enrich the use of formative assessment techniques to enhance teaching responsiveness for quality classroom practices.

The results from both teachers and students confirm that formative assessment has an extraordinarily strong relationship with establishing teaching responsiveness, particularly feedback and dialogue. Assessment for learning is best described as a process by which information is obtained and used by teachers to reach out to all students, the outcomes enable them to adjust their teaching strategies. The findings fall in line with Hall and Burke (2004) who stated that formative assessment, teaching, and learning are inextricably linked; each informs the others in addition to the fact that, formative assessment powerfully enables teaching to reach out to all learners (Hall & Burke 2004).

The values of formative assessment are seen as encouraging teachers and students to work together towards increasing student engagements and motivation. This study clarifies that formative assessment is learner-centred and outcome-based, tracking the individual student's participation and progress. Assessment for learning provides students with information and guidance to plan and manage the next steps in their learning enhancing their meta-cognitive skills. Teachers in this study reiterated that the use of previous knowledge, setting clear objectives, assignments, quality interactive behaviours are valuable tools for continuous assessment for learning. Students would use the information received to move from what they have learnt already to what they need to learn next. For the teachers, the use of different approaches and techniques are vital to help improve teaching and learning. Although Hattie and Timperely (2007), identified feedback as the major influence on learning, the type of feedback and the way it is given can be differentially effective. For Hattie et al. (2007) feedback supports learning when it is connected to the learner's previous actions, framed positively, and provided promptly. Evidence from this study has supported the view that formative feedback can be used to make teaching more responsive and effective. Formative assessment makes teaching more effective (OECD 2005), directing it to reach learning goals, set learning needs and adjust teachers' teaching accordingly, thus also heightening teachers' awareness of effective teaching approaches (Harrison 2005; Lee & William 2005) that address the diversity of learning needs.

According to Black et al. (2003) although, most teachers do not use classroom dialogues to help students to learn, asking questions in formative assessment is crucial to obtaining information about students' learning and understanding. This can be achieved if the questions asked are open-ended in determining the learner's depth of knowledge (McMillan 2014) making higher-order cognitive than lower-order cognitive demands which could be seen as transformative assessment (Popham 2008). Accordingly, this study agrees with Andrade, Lui, Palma, & Hefferen (2015) that the impact of formative assessment arises from the strength of the feedback provided to students about their learning and to teachers about the quality of their interactive behaviours.

Overall, this study has shown that formative assessment enhances teaching responsiveness. It has demonstrated through the MMR theory that learners must assume important role in classroom interactions, with no distinction between their roles and that of the teacher in the partnership. Learning is based on learning something; that something is what

formative assessment through teaching responsiveness struggles to ensure. This guarantees deep structured learning with learners being continually active in dictating the pace and climate for the development of new knowledge, attitudes, understanding and skills (Hall et al. 2004). A presupposition in the use of formative assessment to establish teaching responsiveness is to improve learners' mental models, using high-order cognitive questions accompanied by prompts and probes. Such constructive dialogues techniques foster skills in better memory operations and effective transferability of knowledge ensuring learning sustainability. These demonstrate teachers' conscious effort professionally to follow each learner's progress based on sound theoretical framework that allows for learner's autonomy and ownership.

A major recommendation from this study addresses teacher education in developing teaching responsiveness skills through formative assessment in professional development. Furthermore, it is of prime importance that teachers adhere to the active role of the learner as main element in the teaching/ learning process as a professional challenge.

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ASSURING QUALITY IN ONLINE COURSE DELIVERY

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This paper focuses upon the critical issue of assuring quality online course delivery by examining four key components of online teaching and learning. The topic of course delivery within this chapter is viewed as a cultural issue that permeates processes from the design of an online course to the evaluation of an online course. First, this chapter will examine and review key components of, and tools for designing high impact online courses that support student learning. Second, this chapter will provide suggestions for faculty teaching online courses to assist in creating high quality online courses that supports teaching and, consequently, facilitates opportunities for student learning. Quality online course delivery is also contingent upon the support of faculty by administration. Lastly, this chapter will provide suggestions for conducting course evaluation and feedback loops for continual improvement of the online learning and teaching. These four components are essential elements in assuring quality online courses.

INTRODUCTION

Few would argue that online teaching and learning has been and is on a meteoric rise. David Nagel (2009), in fact, predicted that by 2014 over 10 Million PreK-12 students will be taking online courses. A cursory search in Google Scholar showed that over 2.3 million hits were found when searching for “online education.” However, when the precursor “quality” was added to “online education” the search results declined to 1,050 articles. While this is a somewhat flawed example, it does illustrate a dilemma that has faced the field of online teaching and learning—ensuring quality while delivering course content and engaging students within online environments has not garnered the attention that it has deserved. The topic of course delivery to ensure quality within this chapter is viewed as a cultural issue that permeates processes from the design to the evaluation of an online course.

It may first be helpful to highlight three myths and misconceptions about online teaching and learning. These myths/misconceptions are held by students, faculty, and administrators and influence any discussion about the quality of online course delivery (e.g., White, n.d.):

1. Online teaching and learning are ‘worse’ (or ‘better’) for meeting student learning outcomes than face-to-face courses.
2. Online teaching and learning are easier and more convenient for students and faculty than face-to-face courses.
3. Online teaching and learning are less interactive for both student and faculty than face-to-face courses.

All of these statements are based upon the premise that there are no special affordances or

constraints of the environment, either online or face-to-face, when it comes to teaching or learning—that we are comparing apples to apples. It has been argued elsewhere that this is not the case, that there are many fundamental differences that the educational environment both affords or constraints (Anderson 2004; Matuga 2001, 2005 & 2007) and that establishing a dichotomistic relationship does not adequately reflect the complexity of teaching or learning within either environment. In essence, learning and teaching within online environments is fundamentally *different* than learning and teaching in face-to-face environments. One is not comparing apples to apples, but more like apples to oranges.

A useful concept to use as a framework, one that more adequately reflects the complexity of online teaching and learning, would be to view both through the lens of a cultural system. There are many definitions of culture and descriptions of what constitute a cultural system. LeVine (1984), for example, defined culture as “a shared organization of ideas that includes the intellectual, moral, and aesthetic standards prevalent in a community and the meanings of communicative actions” (p. 67). Others have claimed that these organizations of ideas and meanings derived from actions are not static and that culture should be thought of as systems that may be more complicated and organic collections of cognitive functions, practices, and meaning (D’Andrade 2001; Giddens 1984; Kitayama 2002). Online teaching and learning may be viewed as cultural systems in that understandings and meanings are socially shared within online environments (Courtney 2001; Mehlinger & Powers 2002). There are also cultural practices and customs within these environments that may be linked, in various ways, to the values and beliefs of larger cultural systems, like face-to-face educational environments (Courtney 2001; LeVine 1984).

A more traditional view of cultural systems, for example, is based upon the idea that they contain within them, nested systems that are interdependent to the functioning of the system as a whole (White 1975). This view holds that technological (or physical subsystem), social, and psychological factors guide a multitude of functions and influence the behaviors of individuals that are participating in cultural communities (Kitayama 2002; White 1975). For example, Kitayama (2002) stated that “each person’s psychological processes and structures are organized through the active effort to coordinate his or her behaviors with the pertinent cultural systems of practices and public meanings” (p. 92). While this may be viewed as a valid preposition, this view does imply that there are somewhat distinct sub-systems that guide or organize psychological processes and practices. It may be quite common to reduce discussions regarding online teaching and learning to cultural sub-systems, like technological ones, for example, because the impact of technology may be seen as more explicit within online teaching and learning environments.

This position is arguable in light of contemporary pedagogical theory, however, which would hold that psychological and social factors need to be explored in conjunction with technological ones. Perhaps one of the most critical characteristics of a cultural system is that they support the development and transmission of meaning and understanding within and between participants. Rosaldo (1984) stated that “we must appreciate the ways in which such

understandings grow, not from an “inner” essence relatively independent of the social world, but from experience in a world of meanings, images, and social bonds, in which all persons are inevitable involved” (p. 139). In the case of meaning making and understanding within online teaching and learning environments, the importance of viewing the psychological in conjunction with social and technological dimensions of cultural systems is implied. These are important points that frame the conversation of designing high impact online courses, providing suggestions for faculty teaching online courses, describing critical administrative support of faculty, and conducting course evaluation and feedback loops for continual improvement of online learning and teaching.

DESIGNING HIGH IMPACT ONLINE COURSES

Viewing online teaching and learning as a cultural system provides a framework to describe and understand ‘high impact’ online courses. Within education, ‘high impact’ refers to educational experiences that are meaningful, require student action and participation, and that contribute to the life-long learning of the student (Kuh 2008). It is important to note that the examples illustrating high impact practices within online courses in this chapter do not represent an exhaustive or comprehensive list but serve as important points of reference for discussion within this chapter. Two such high impact practices that assist in the design of online courses are pedagogical alignment and meaning making.

Pedagogical Alignment

Pedagogical alignment, also called systematic instructional design (Gagne, Briggs, & Wagner, 1992), entails aligning instructional variables to provide the fundamental framework for online cultural systems, conveying meanings to community participants, and defining cultural activity. Instructional design is currently in the midst of a paradigm shift towards a more situated view of design activity within cultural systems (Anderson 2004; Derry & Lesgold 1996). When designing high impact online courses, pedagogical alignment involves the optimum use of a wide array of instructional features including, but not limited to, instructional goals, instructional strategies, and assessment measures and evaluation practices that support teaching and learning (see Matuga 2005).

When instructional features do not align, then teaching and learning may be seriously undermined and compromised. A good example of this is a teacher who wants to teach students critical thinking skills (goal), has students participate in small group discussions or problem-solving activities (instructional strategies), but assesses students utilizing a multiple-choice examination (assessment) in which very little critical thinking is involved. While the goal and instructional strategies to obtain the goal are appropriately aligned with the other, the tool used to assess student learning is out of alignment. The issue of pedagogical alignment in an online course is an important one, for several reasons. While in a face-to-face environment, instructional design and alignment may occur in conjunction with the other during instruction, alignment in an online course, in contrast, is often completed *a priori*. In fact, a clear, comprehensive, and logical course structure may be one of the primary factors which students use to judge whether or not an online course is an effective one.

Online course alignment is further complicated by the affordances and constraints stemming from technology and the social and psychological composition of community participants. Each instructional variable is influenced by the affordances and constraints that influence technological, social, and psychological subsystems. For example, discussions regarding effective online course alignment must also incorporate pedagogical and technological expertise of students and teachers in the design process.

There may be several methods in which to assess whether or not pedagogical alignment was effective, more often than not, discussions regarding the effectiveness of online activities are reduced to formal, summative assessment practices such as tests, quizzes, projects, or portfolios. Pedagogical decisions regarding the selection of formal, summative assessments within online courses are important, especially when designing instructional strategies (see Duffy & Cunningham 2001). However, it is equally important to plan for the manner in which formative assessments and other evaluative information will be utilized to inform other educational practices within the online environment. Teacher and student self-reflection, as a formative, informal assessment to inform learning is a potentially powerful tool for evaluating pedagogical effectiveness.

Another tool to assess pedagogical alignment is peer evaluation of the course itself. There may be many mechanisms and tools that faculty and administration can use that carry out the peer evaluation of online courses. One is a tiered method at the local level asking more experienced faculty or if available, online instructional designers within the institution to review and constructively evaluate the pedagogical alignment of a particular course. Another method may be to request the course be formally evaluated by peers through organizations such as Quality Matters. Quality Matters is a peer review system of online courses utilizing a rubric that examines pedagogical alignment. While there are costs involved in the later, the former would take some due diligence on the part of the faculty members involved but would one step towards assuring quality in online course design.

Meaning Making

Cultural meaning making is a complex activity tied to the cultural systems in which they are created and shared. One concept that is interesting to explore and is of particular importance to the development of quality online courses is the concept of intersubjectivity. Intersubjectivity is a term associated with Vygotskian theory of cognitive development and refers to the shared cultural understanding between two people (Rogoff 1990; Rosaldo 1999; Wertsch 1985). If there is no shared understanding between two people, for example a teacher and a student, then attempts to communicate, create meaning, and establish understanding are somewhat fruitless endeavors. If the teacher is unable to understand the misconceptions, questions, or understanding of his or her students, then that teacher will not be able to address the student needs and learning will be hampered. It is in this manner that the constraints of an online environment may present challenges to establishment of intersubjectivity (Anderson 2004). There is the suggestion, that like culture, some meanings may be more explicit due to the “pragmatics of social life and their history for a given society” but not all meanings may be

“reduced to its explicit or implicit dimensions” (Le Vine 1984, p. 77). Social referencing (i.e., gesture, gaze, and other nonverbal communication cues) which is critical for establishing intersubjectivity (Rogoff 1990) in a face-to-face environment is not impossible to establish in an online environment, it does, however, take a more concentrated effort in high impact online courses. Another component of cultural systems are social acts, or activities, in which meanings are negotiated, established, presented, or shared between participants within cultural systems. Gardner (1984) explained that individuals utilizing social acts may not actively reflect upon their participation in meaning making activities and in fact the participation in social activities may be more intuitive. It is only when, he stated, that individuals become more reflective upon their own participation within social activities do shifts of knowing how to participate becomes more explicit. Reflecting upon participation in cultural activities, thereby making implicit acts explicit is one step towards making those processes, which are critical for navigating teaching and student, transparent. One suggestion for faculty teaching online courses that would promote meaning making within online educational environments would be to maintain a (Weekly? Daily?) blog documenting the faculty’s own experiences as an online teacher, how they learned the course material, personal stories and examples illustrating important concepts, etc. This makes those processes, so necessary for meaning making within electronic environments, explicit.

The culture of online teaching and learning may share similar characteristics with traditional, face-to-face teaching and learning and there may also be new territory for future investigations. The critical investigation of how teachers and learners understand, navigate, and utilize the culture of online learning environments to become competent participants is critical to the future of designing high impact courses. As Gardner (1984) has stated, “the human being, who, starting from a state of total ignorance about his or her particular culture, must within a decade or two acquire sufficient competence so that he or she can carry out productive work and interact effectively with other individuals to achieve valued ends” (p. 261). The enculturation of teachers and students within online teaching and learning environments requires learning how to use psychological tools within similar, yet dramatically different cultural systems, systems that have different environmental affordances and constraints.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FACULTY TEACHING ONLINE COURSES

There are many resources, books, and websites, to assist faculty when teaching high quality online courses (e.g., Ko & Rossen, 2001; Koszalka & Ganesan, 2004). There is also assistance to help faculty effectively utilize discussion boards, online tools, blogs, wikis, open-source programs, iPads, iPods, the iGoogle suite, cell phones, etc. within their online courses. Returning to the framework of viewing online courses as cultural systems, two inter-related important considerations are outlined within this chapter for faculty teaching high quality online courses: rituals of participation and co-regulation.

Rituals of Participation

One of the ways in which individuals navigate technological, social, and psychological systems are what Courtney (2001) called “rituals of participation” (p. 236). These rituals

for participation encompass the norms and behaviour for participating in cultural activities. Learning how to “do school,” or mastering implicit and explicit academic and social knowledge needed to be successful in school, is an important ritual of participation required for effective teaching and learning (Westby 1997). This issue is critically important due to the alarming drop rates from online courses by students (Diaz, 2002). Two popular explanations of why online students fail to complete online courses seem to be individual (demographic and/or learning style) or performance (low) differences (Diaz 2002). However, researchers have suggested that the issue of student preparedness for online classes may be more complicated and include a variety of factors including student, situational, and educational factors (Gibson 1998). There may be cross cultural interference between how students conceptualize “doing school” within face-to-face environments and how this concept is challenged and, by necessity, altered within online teaching and learning environments. For example, one affordance within online environments is the ability, on the part of the faculty, to “hear” what every student think about a particular subject by requiring all students to post on a discussion board, for example. This, of course, requires that each student contributes to the conversation in a concrete and physical way that reflects what was read, in this there is simply a lot of individual accountability. and challenges what a student may view of ‘doing school.’ Many students, it could be argued, have learned what it means to “do school” by either engaging in discussion or gaining enough inference from what others are discussing in class to participate adequately, or simply keep quiet during discussion.

There may be several strategies to help online students assimilate to “doing school’ online. Perhaps the most utilized strategy is to give student a pre-assessment evaluating certain skills that are needed to be a successful online student. Many universities now utilize some sort of instrument that asks students a variety of questions about their learning habits to find a “goodness of fit.” For example, the University of Georgia uses the Readiness for Education at a Distance Indicator (READI @ <http://goml.readi.info/>) which is a self-assessment in which the student evaluates him- or herself on a variety of indicators like: life factors, personal attributes, learning styles, reading rate and recall, technical competency, technical knowledge, and typing speed and accuracy. There may be other ways to address the issue of student readiness within online courses, including scaffolding student learning at the beginning of the class and providing assistance with establishing regular activities and other strategies mentioned in this chapter. Another potential powerful strategy is assigning student-student pairs or each student to a small group and requiring they participate in activities in which they form a bond or rely upon each other to complete course tasks. For example, you may ask groups to define expectations about group standards of behaviour or something a little more fun like identifying a group name, wiki, or mascot. All of these activities are socially binding acts that may help students from dropping out if they feel they have more connections and support for learning in online environments.

CO-REGULATION

What then happens when students move from one environment in which “doing school” is sufficient to another in which the concept of “doing school” is fundamentally different?

Wesby (1997) stated that:

It may be like “coming from cultures that value interdependence, obedience to authority, and learning by watching rather than talking, [students] will be delayed in the development of self-control and self-regulation. Development of these skills will require not only environments that expect such skills, but that also foster such skills by providing the necessary scaffolding. (p. 286)

Navigating online teaching and learning or becoming an efficient online teacher and/or online learner, requires that an individual be able to adequately use processes, strategies, and responses to plan and monitor his or her participation in pedagogical activity (Zimmerman 2001, 1994). This concept, known as self-regulation, reflects those processes that occur at an individual level that play an important role in student academic achievement (Zimmerman 1994). In many cases, online students are ill-prepared for online courses or drop out of online courses due to their inability to regulate (i.e., plan or monitor) their own learning. Ironically, this is also related to the convenience myths/misconceptions of online teaching and learning—a teacher or student need not go to a bricks-and-mortar classroom at a prescribed time, one can learn anytime and anyplace. In reality, it is very difficult for some students to be self-regulated enough to complete a course online.

McCaslin and Hickey (2001) proposed, however, that co-regulation is a more appropriate concept when discussing regulation of the teaching and learning process within socio-cultural contexts from a Vygotskian perspective (Courtney 2001). In reference to this position, Zimmerman (1986) stated that “self-regulation is not an idiosyncratic product of the child’s own discovery experiences; but rather, it is a culturally transmitted method for optimizing and controlling learning events” (p. 311). The processes of regulating teaching and learning does not fall simply on the isolated individual but is shared between and among students and teachers. In this sense, the self-regulatory functions of the student are influenced by others within the socio-cultural environment (i.e., peers and the teacher), just as others’ self-regulatory functions are influenced by that individual student.

Another aspect of co-regulated learning is monitoring strategies. Self-monitoring strategies refer “to students’ efforts to observe themselves as they evaluate information about specific personal processes or actions that affect their learning and achievement in school” (Zimmerman & Paulsen 1995, p. 14). Students who have effective self-monitoring strategies are able to evaluate their own progress towards an established goal, making appropriate strategy changes as they proceed to regulate their learning effectively (Zimmerman & Paulsen 1995).

The ability to effectively monitor one’s own learning processes are also dependent upon a wide array of technical, social, and psychological variables (see Zimmerman & Paulsen 1995). Let us briefly discuss self-monitoring of the writing process as an example. Writing the “old way,” in other words before word processing was pretty rudimentary and in retrospect seems almost primitive. An individual first had to prepare quite thoroughly before writing,

often generating a detailed outline and/or completing a rough draft in long hand, before moving to type the paper on a typewriter. There was a certain diligence required on the part of the individual for if a mistake were made, it could necessitate starting the entire process all over (unless your professor did not mind a lot of liquid paper). The process described was necessary because there were constraints associated with the technological tool that was utilized to write (i.e., typewriters...an electric one if you were lucky). The process, itself also served as a self-regulatory strategy that monitored the writing process. The invention and utilization of word processors has, however, altered the procedural script of writing used by students and, essentially, made obsolete a monitoring strategy used for writing.

There are three primary suggestions for faculty when teaching high quality online courses. First, it is important for faculty to be explicit about how to “do school” online and ways to assist in the co-regulation of student learning in your course. One promising practice in online courses is to keep the patterns of behavior or interactions similar throughout the duration of the course. For example, always ‘open’ online course discussions on Mondays and students are expected to have their points posted by Friday. Second, faculty should plan for activities to help students identify and address the ways in which there may be differences in how to “do school” in their online course. Faculty should also assist students in how they plan to work their online course requirement into their calendar; this is also referred to as an ‘orienting activity’ (see Olgren 1998). Third, faculty should provide guidelines for activities and assessments that address both issues, rituals of participation and co-regulation, to help scaffold these skills throughout the duration of the course. Scaffolding simply means that the faculty member should provide a lot of assistance with these activities at the beginning of the course and as the course progresses; the faculty member slowly withdraws that help as the student gains confidence and masters course material.

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OF FACULTY

Quality online course delivery is contingent upon administrative support of faculty. Additionally, “administrators need to understand their faculty population if they are to support faculty participation in [online teaching and learning]” (Schifter 2004, p. 25). However, according to Jorge Gaytan (2009) while all valued online teaching and learning there was little agreement among deans, vice presidents for academic affairs, and administrators of distance learning at campuses regarding the organizational structures that would support online teaching and learning. It could be that online teaching and learning as a field has, traditionally, been focused upon the pedagogy of teaching and learning that takes place within online learning environments and contributes to institutional culture. Two important factors that face administrative support of faculty and delivering quality online courses and programs are adequate support for planning and faculty workload.

ADEQUATE SUPPORT FOR PLANNING

Osika (2006) warns that there are many administrative issues that need to be addressed within and across institutions to provide support for online students and faculty beyond the borders of the virtual learning environment. The issue of adequate faculty support, however,

is perhaps the most examined administrative issue in distance learning literature (see Ko & Rossen 2001). Levy (2003) outlined critical factors for administrators to take into account when planning for online courses and/or programs; she proposed that planning be systematic and strategic. Levy (2003) stated that “the challenge to colleges in the 21st century is not to decide why they should have an online distance learning program, but to decide how to design and implement such a program” (p. 3). Effective and innovative leadership plays an important role in the development and delivery of online course and programs (see Latchem & Hanna 2001). Beaudoin (2003) stated that “any focused consideration of the dimension of leadership and its impact on the growth and apparent success of distance education at literally hundreds of institutions worldwide” has been largely absent from the literature (p. 3). There appear to be some disconnect, however, between the roles that faculty and administrators play in the development of quality online courses and programs, and this disconnect is reflected recent studies on the topic.

One of the first steps for administrators to support online students, faculty, and programs would be to understand the demands on online faculty when designing and planning for online courses and programs. Administrators should clarify, in discussions with their faculty, any misconceptions about developing and offering a high-quality online course/program. For example, Gaytan (2009) found that there was a disconnect between administrators’ rhetoric and practice and that there was still, on the part of administrators, “an emphasis is on cost savings, remaining competitive, and delivery of information as opposed to instructional quality” (p. 69). Howell, Williams, and Lindsay (2003) stated that there is a need to pose difficult questions about online programs, but a need to address those questions “from an informed perspective” (p. 1). As Gaytan (2009) found, there were many instances in which administrators and faculty differed in important ways when discussing online teaching and learning. For example, “while online education coordinators and faculty [in his study] were thinking about the ways to improve the quality of online education, academic administrators had other priorities such as being able to remain competitive” (Gaytan 2009, p. 69). This illustrates a common assumption, on the part of institutional administrators, that online courses will address the need to service more students for the same costs, often by increasing the number of students within online courses (Concieção & Baldor 2009). As stated in the beginning of the chapter, there are also myths and misconceptions about online teaching and learning that may be held by both administrators and faculty. Assumptions, myths, and misconceptions need to be examined and discussed by administrators and faculty members within the context and characteristics (i.e., pedagogical alignment) of a particular course or program. This is a critical first step during the design and planning stage of online courses and programs. Administrative support of faculty for high quality online courses needs, however, to extend beyond support to encompass adequate planning (Osika 2006).

FACULTY WORKLOAD

One issue that has received some attention in the online teaching and learning literature has been that of faculty workload. Lehmann and Chamberlin (2009), for example, illustrate the number and variety of hats that online faculty wear when teaching a high-quality online

course: (1) teacher, (2) facilitator, (3) instructional technologist, (4) course designer, (5) writer, editor, and proofreader, (6) counselor and mediator, and (7) advisor and registrar. Wearing more hats, however, may not necessarily result in increased compensation for the online faculty member. For example, in Schifter's (2004) research surveying administrators about online teaching and learning issues, both found that there was little consistency with faculty compensation. Additionally, faculty may not be prepared to wear many of those hats and professional development, mentoring programs, or providing other models to those faculties may be critical (Blythe 2001).

The complications and added workload for the online faculty member is debated in the research literature. Some researchers have found that more students in an online course increases workload due to more student-teacher interactions and/or more individual feedback on assessments, particularly if a pedagogical alignment is used for the course that is more student-centered (Matuga 2005). Other researchers, however, have found that placing additional students within an online course may not increase faculty workload substantially, especially if the online faculty member has previous online teaching experience or the course's pedagogical alignment is more teacher-centered and does not require a lot of student-teacher interaction and student monitoring (Anderson & Avery 2008; DiBiase & Rademacher 2005; Matuga 2005). It is very important, however, to realize that many of the studies investigating faculty workload were comparison studies with face-to-face faculty. As stated in the introduction of this chapter, this premise may be flawed as we are not comparing apples-to-apples therefore, investigating faculty workload from a comparison perspective may not adequately reflect what an online faculty *does*. Just as it may be more accurate to examine online teaching and learning as a cultural system, it may be necessary to redefine the roles, responsibilities, and what it means to be an online faculty member. The supposition that online faculty is treated differently at educational institutions, and this may be a threat to academic quality, has been a recurring theme in the research literature (Concicção & Baldor 2009). Schifter (2004) found that faculty workload for those teaching online courses were not consistent within and across institutions (Schifter 2004). This has given rise to a trend at educational institutions of hiring online adjunct faculty to teach online courses (Puzziferro & Shelton 2009). On the one hand, while this group of faculties may have highly specialized skills to teach online there may still be a perceived threat to the online quality of courses and programs. Regardless, the rise of the online adjunct faculty illustrates the need for an examination of knowledge and skills required to be an effective online faculty member and support from administration for quality online course delivery. It also necessitates the transformation of how we assess and evaluate effective online faculty, especially if we look at online learning environments as complex, cultural systems. A cornerstone of support for online faculty from an administrative perspective should include support for the systematic assessment and evaluation of online courses with an eye toward continual improvement.

CONTINUAL IMPROVEMENT

The last issue explored in this chapter, which of continual improvement, encompasses the various aspects for all the topics features highlighted in this chapter: pedagogical alignment,

meaning making, rituals of participation, co-regulation, administrative support for faculty planning courses/programs, and faculty workload. The relationships between and among these different factors illuminate themselves to be reciprocal in nature through the process of continual improvement. It is in this sense that online teaching and learning contributes to the notion of cultural systems discussed at the beginning of the chapter.

Continual improvement is the act of reflecting on the effectiveness of pedagogical alignment within the context of the constraints and affordances of the online teaching and learning environment. Perhaps the most important component for continual improvement, for example, is pedagogical alignment which, as stated earlier, requires that instructional variables like student learning outcomes, learning activities, and assessment and evaluation practices, which support student success and learning, be selected with care during the planning process (Matuga 2005). Pedagogical alignment provides a blueprint for continual improvement. However, continual improvement also mandates the re-visitation of pedagogical alignment during and after the course has been taught with the goal of perfecting the course with an eye towards assuring quality.

Sims and Jones (2002) proposed a three-phased model for continuous improvement in online classes that emphasizes the importance of pedagogical alignment and instructional design. They proposed that there be a “Pre-Delivery” phase in which the focus is on the functionality of the newly designed course be peer evaluated. This could be by utilizing some of the peer-evaluation methods mentioned in this chapter. The second phase is that of an initial delivery, or enhancement stage, and the last stage is an ongoing delivery or course maintenance phase in which the course is modified based upon feedback from students and peers. This approach emphasizes a team approach to course design, evaluation, and redesign. This is also called within socio-cultural literature creating ‘communities of practice.’ Sims and Jones (2002) outline that building shared understanding, establishing rituals of participation, and maintaining communication are all critical components of their continuous improvement model. Continuous improvement is by its definition, a dynamic process that examines those shared ideas of what is quality online teaching and learning and is essential for assuring quality.

CONCLUSION

As a review of the online teaching and learning research by Tallen-Runnels and colleagues (2006) illustrated, online teaching and learning can be and has been a field typically organized by following four categories: course environment, learners’ outcomes, learners’ characteristics, and institutional and administrative factors. In this chapter we have presented a foundation for viewing some of these topics through the lens of cultural systems.

Three common myths/misconceptions regarding online teaching and learning were presented at the beginning of this chapter to help frame the discussion presented. One last myth or misconception that was not highlighted in this paper is that online teaching and learning is less expensive than face-to-face teaching. Divorcing this myth from the comparison (apples

to apples) metaphor, this is a topic that was touched upon when the subject of administrative support of faculty was discussed, but not fully examined. Colleges and universities are pressured into developing online courses and programs, in essence, to meet economic shortfalls. However, as Levy (2003) stated “the challenge to colleges in the 21st century is not to decide why they should have an online distance learning program, but to decide how to design and implement such a program” (p. 3). The subject or relationship between how much a course/program cost and quality of learning within that course/program remains a very complex and difficult topic to frame within the topic of assuring quality.

The issue of assuring quality in online courses and programs is a multifaceted one that requires we look at the online teaching and learning environment with a fundamentally different lens, that as a complex, cultural system with unique affordances and constraints. While an exhaustive list is not presented here, important factors that influence the design of high impact online courses, make suggestions for faculty who are teaching online classes that ensure quality, impact administrative support of online faculty, and offer a potential model for continual improvement. All of these factors are aligned with the central premise of this chapter that assuring quality in online course delivery is a complicated communal activity focusing on the alignment of sound instructional features, meaning making, working together with students to develop new ways ‘to do school’ online, recognition of faculty work, and continual improvement.

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Key Terms and Definitions

Assuring quality in online course delivery focusing on the alignment of sound instructional features, meaning making, working together with students to develop new ways 'to do school' online, recognition of faculty work, and continual improvement.

Continuous improvement is a dynamic process that examines those shared ideas of what is quality online teaching and learning and is essential for assuring quality.

Continual improvement is the act of reflecting on the effectiveness of pedagogical alignment within the context of the constraints and affordances of the online teaching and learning environment.

Cultural systems within online environments refers to understandings and meanings that are socially shared.

Evaluation includes examining the content, processes, impact, and outcomes of an on-line course in order to improve the course quality.

High impact practices refer to educational experiences that are meaningful, require student action and participation, and that contribute to the life-long learning of the student.

On-line teaching and learning are faculty-delivered instruction via the Internet or distance learning.

Self-regulation refers to those processes that occur at an individual level that play an important role in student academic achievement.

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TAKING QUALITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION TOWARDS EXCELLENCE

M.S. Lalitha

CONTEXT BUILDING FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Equality, quality, and quantity, the three inter-related terms have characterised a triangle of Indian education which has been an elusive concept. The term equality refers to the constitutional commitment of providing equal educational opportunities for all in access and quality education, irrespective of caste, creed, religion, and gender. The term quality refers to providing at least the minimum knowledge, understandings, and skills required for minimum quality life and to meet the challenges faced by the world. It goes without saying that any quantitative expansion endangers ensuring quality. The present context in school education can be understood in the light of meeting the challenges posed by the efforts made to integrate these three terms. The draft National Policy on Education, 2020 has visualised the above stand in mentioning that the policy statement is based on the foundational pillars- access, affordability, equity, quality, and accountability. In this context of education, the importance of teachers' role in preparing young people for successful, responsible, and productive lives is recognised unquestionably the world over. There is growing evidence to support that effective teacher make powerful impact on students (Hattie, 2003). Further there is a broad consensus that teacher quality is the single most in-school factor influencing student achievement (OECD 2005).

Teacher education is considered as a pivotal sub-system of the education system. Teacher education for any level goes hand in hand with development of school education. In other words, a proper system of teacher education determines the quality of teachers, who, in turn, determine the quality of education at any level from pre-primary to higher education, including education of the special groups. In any country, teacher education programmes are designed to prepare effective teachers. Further, there is always a concomitant relationship between school education and teacher education in any country. In India, the undergraduate programmes in teacher education especially for secondary school teachers were conducted mostly in separate autonomous or affiliated colleges, although the faculty for teacher education have always been supplied by the university departments. This has led teacher education to remain as a separate entity away from university system for a long time until recently. Many universities across the country are involved in secondary teacher training programmes mainly as four-year integrated undergraduate teacher education programmes. However, teacher training institutes/ District Institutes of Teacher Education are involved in elementary/pre-primary teacher education in the country.

CHALLENGES FROM CHANGING CONTEXT IN SCHOOL EDUCATION

The quality of school education is closely associated with the quality of teacher education provided to teachers who form the backbone of school education. In the 21st century, the school education in India has been facing many challenges which in turn has posed

challenges to teacher education system in the country. They are briefly reviewed below.

a) Quantitative Expansion in School Education

The nation is committed to bring all school going children to schools or to alternative mode of education under the Right to children to free and compulsory education act or Right to Education Act enacted by the parliament of India on 4th August, 2009, which came into force on 1st April 2010. The implementation of Rights to Education in India has created new demands on the school systems for providing age specific and stage specific education by developing appropriate programmes. The nation is committed to bring all school going children to schools or to alternative mode of education which has led to expansion of schooling facilities. The expansion in school education has posed a demand for production of increased number of teachers who are competent and professionally qualified. To manage the expansion needed in school education as well as in higher education, it has become inevitable for the government to have a partnership with private sector. Thus, many private organisations have opened educational institutions including teacher education institutions, resulting in the increased financial burden for the beneficiaries, namely, parents/students, thus creating a threat to the issue of equity in quality education. This issue of affordability of quality education by all may further be threatened by allowing private sector partnership in education which, however, is inevitable. The government is making all out efforts to make quality education affordable by all irrespective of the socio-cultural background of the beneficiaries through many initiatives. For example, the nationwide programmes like, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) are intended to improve standards of school education by strengthening both infrastructural and instructional facilities in schools mainly in terms of improving quality of teachers through a large number of in-service teacher education programmes.

b) Technological Advancements Affecting Content and Process of School Education:

The education system in most of the countries in the world are in a state of flux because of rapid technological changes and open and competitive economies. This has posed new challenges to school education, and hence to teacher education. The technological developments have made a big dent in all walks of life, irrespective of socioeconomic background of individuals in the society. These developments have impacted education system at all levels, pre-primary through higher secondary education. They have created new demands on school education calling for changes not only in the curriculum, but also in the teaching-learning processes. There has been a paradigm shift in the understanding of the learner, curriculum and its access, the teaching-learning processes and assessment of learning. This has created a demand on teachers to judiciously integrate technology in curriculum designing, curriculum transaction and evaluation keeping in view the contextual realities and without losing the advantages of what has stood the test of time. Hence, teacher education needs to respond aggressively to the changed demands on the types of teachers to be prepared. This further necessitates the needed changes in the content and processes of teacher education and in the roles of teacher educators themselves. The

curriculum and structural revisions in school education and higher education envisaged in the National Education Policy 2020 appear to respond to the challenges posed by technological advancement on school education and hence, teacher education.

c) Changing Global Perspectives on Education

One of the most significant developments in the new millennium is the publication of the report of the International Education Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century entitled 'Learning: The Treasure Within', prepared under the chairmanship of Jacques Dellors (UNESCO 1996). The commission has identified four pillars of education and proposed the concept of learning society. They are – Learning to know, implying developing the skill of learning; Learning to do, implying skill of putting what is learnt into practice; Learning to be, meaning to develop one's total personality in all dimensions and be able to act with greater autonomy, judgement, and personal responsibility; Learning to live together requiring developing a feeling of oneness and work towards the common goal of development of all. These pillars suggest the direction in which the school education in general and teacher education in particular require reformation in the new millennium. World over there is an emphasis on developing among learners 21st century skills and competencies. They include proficiency in higher order thinking, critical thinking, creativity and innovation, entrepreneurship skills, problem solving abilities skills, cooperative and collaborative skills and technology skills and media literacy.

The students need to be prepared for a new knowledge society where information is easily accessible for which they need to acquire not only information accessing skills but also appropriate interpretative skills. In the knowledge-based society of the 21st century, it is being realised that there is no rigid compartmentalisation in different subjects of study. The students have more flexibility in the choice of the subjects of study and the learning of any particular subject is not within the boundary of that subject but rather is more interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary, and integrative in nature. The NEP 2020 has addressed to this issue in its policy statement.

This changed scenario in school education calls for new perspectives in content and process of school education. The new methods of teaching and learning need to be more reflective and facilitative in nature. They can include approaches like, self-learning, mutual learning (co-operative) and collaborative learning. The evaluative practises need to be more collaborative (involving student, peers, and teacher as well as community), continuous, comprehensive, and self-reflective. The teacher not only facilitates learning of students instead of transmitting knowledge/information, but also a co-learner with his students and sometimes learns from students.

The developing trends in social and political contexts as well as in technological advancements have led to a value crisis. The school education and in turn the teacher education need to address to this issue and focus on developing appropriate values among students. This has implications for content and processes both in school education as well

as teacher education.

Teachers of today need to be equipped not only with the latest subject expertise and effective pedagogic practices but also with the capability to assist students to meet the challenges of the emerging knowledge -based society. Changes in the perspectives on school education pose concomitant demands on the needed changes in our perspectives about and practices in teacher education.

While taking quality of education to world standards, the New Education Policy 2020, proposes to allow selective foreign universities to enter India to start their own campuses. This, however, may pose challenges to teacher education programmes offered in different universities. This is because teacher education can no longer remain as a separate entity, rather it is going to get integrated with other degree programmes offered by the universities. This, however, may further threaten the issue of equity in quality higher education in general, and teacher education in particular.

Present Scenario in Teacher Education

The expansion in school enrolment both at primary and secondary school levels has led to a demand for teachers far exceeding supply there has been. This has led to the mushroom growth of teacher education institutions and unwieldy expansion in teacher education programmes especially with respect to elementary and secondary levels. There has been different types of programmes and alternative modes of training.

Greater participation of private sector and almost negligible involvement of public sector (Government) has led to uncontrolled expansion of the teacher education system. No assurance of providing for required infrastructural and instructional facilities and without the recruitment of qualified faculty in required numbers, can possibly lead to the dilution of quality of teacher education system.

The size of the intake has also got expanded with large number of teacher trainees are getting admitted to teacher education programmes with different types of background abilities, aptitudes, aspirations, and motivations. The demand for trained teachers and the belief that a training certificate ensures prospects of obtaining teacher's jobs has led to teacher education a lucrative business proposition. As a result, large number of teacher education institutions of poor quality have come up. This, in turn, appears to have posed a great challenge to institutions which monitor the quality of teacher education institutions. The increased demand for teachers and shortage in their supply has led to the concept of para teachers in many states. These are the unqualified teachers who are recruited in the formal school system, who in turn, are subsequently trained. This concept of para teachers questions the very concept of professionalism in teacher education. This concept of para teachers is antithetical to the issue of supply of qualified and committed teachers to offer quality education to students as envisaged in Right to education act as well as in the National Knowledge Commission (NKC 2007). Quality concerns about the quality of teacher education are expressed by the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005

prepared by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) as below:

- The transaction of teacher education curriculum leads to inactive knowledge in student teachers which is accepted without question and reflection.
- There is no integration of disciplinary knowledge and training in pedagogy.
- There is no opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own knowledge in the light of what they learn in the classroom.
- There is no clear linkage between practical work and ground realities.
- The evaluation system is information oriented and quantitative and lacks comprehensiveness. There is no provision to evaluate the affective learning outcomes of student teachers.

One of the significant developments in teacher education, after National Policy on Education 1986 and with its modifications in 1992, is the establishment of the National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) in 1993 through Parliament Act no. 73 as a statutory authority. The NCTE has drafted norms and standards for various types of teacher education programmes-pre- primary, primary and secondary-both face to face and through distance mode which were mandatorily expected in the institutions running the programmes for their recognition. Although they were comprehensively covering norms not only for the required infrastructural and instructional facilities, but also for content and processes expected in the programmes, the stress was mainly on the former. This was obviously observed at the time of granting recognition to the programmes, may be because of the ease in the assessment of infrastructural and instructional facilities which were quantitative in nature, unlike transaction processes which were more qualitative in nature. However, there have been several revisions in the norms and standards prescribed for various types of teacher education programmes, including various integrated teacher education programmes. As per the National Education Policy 2020, it is intended to restructure NCTE as a professional standard setting body under the General Education Council. Further, they have been assigned the responsibility to develop National Professional Standards for Teachers aimed to be introduced by 2022.

The NCTE has come out with a document on National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE) of 2009 keeping in mind the two significant developments particularly, the National Curriculum Framework, 2005 (NCERT 2005) and the Right of children to free and compulsory education act, 2009 under article 21A of the Indian Constitution as well as the fundamental tenets enshrined in the Constitution of India. However, based on the New Policy on Education, 2020, a new and comprehensive NCFTE, 2021 is proposed to be formulated by the NCTE in consultation with the NCERT. Accordingly, by 2030, the minimum degree qualification for teaching will be a 4-year integrated B.Ed. degree.

Total Quality Management: As an approach to take teacher education towards quality

Total quality management (TQM) is a systematic approach which utilizes four main elements: quality defined by the customer, top leadership responsibility for quality improvement, increased quality through systematic analysis of work processes, and quality improvement by continuous effort conducted throughout the organization. (Gilbert, Keck, & Simpson 2005). Lachlan and Crawford (1999) briefly review how TQM operates in the industrial context and clarify how the philosophy of TQM may be translated into the context of education. They examine one interpretation of TQM which aims at improving the quality of the production system in order to produce a quality product with “zero defects”. This may imply a need to make teaching and learning process to focus exclusively on achieving good examination results. In contrast, in the second interpretation, TQM is considered as a continuous cycle of improvement in the system of production. In the context of education, this may mean a need to continually improve the quality of instruction so as to encourage students to become critical and creative thinkers in a fast-changing technological world.

The second interpretation of TQM appears to be more relevant in the context of education in general, and teacher education in particular because of the dynamic nature of the system. Applying the concept of TQM to teacher education context, it is required to define the term ‘quality’, examine how effectively quality concerns are managed and addressed by top leadership and responsibility taken for ensuring them, assess the input and processes built into the teacher education system, and making efforts continuously throughout the system to improve the quality. In the context of education in general, and teacher education in particular, the term ‘quality’ has remained an elusive concept. The goals towards which we intend to move and the processes that we define to reach the goals get redefined/modified depending on changing contexts in society.

However, in any context of teacher education, the term ‘quality’ has to be made explicit in terms of criteria agreed upon by all the stakeholders, who internalise the same and work jointly in a collaborative manner to achieve the goals of teacher education, namely, to produce competent, committed, and effective professional teachers who are concerned, caring for their students facilitate the achievement of goals of the education system.

Quality Issues in Teacher Education

Teacher education is a sub-system of education system at large. Hence, every activity in the sub-system of teacher education should lead to the achievement of its goals and thus leading to the achievement of the goals of the larger education system. The different issues related to the total quality management of teacher education can be examined under the following heads:

- a. Clarification of objectives of teacher education
- b. Management of quality of inputs – teacher trainees, teachers, and teacher Educators

- c. Management of content and processes
- d. Management of continuing professional education
- e. Monitoring and quality control
- f. Upholding of professionalism by teachers
- g. Management of research output providing empirical base for activities in teacher education programmes

a. Clarification of objectives of teacher education

Some of the issues that can be addressed with respect to aims and objectives of teacher education programmes while ensuring their quality are given below:

- i) Identifying and ensuring clarity of objectives of teacher education programmes among stakeholders;
- ii) Identifying the knowledge, understanding and skill competencies, attitudes, interests, values, aptitude components that make teachers effective, efficient, and committed in the profession so that they can prepare young people for successful, responsible, and productive lives in the new millennium;
- iii) Building consensus among different monitoring organisations about the criteria for quality of teacher education in different dimensions and the factors that influence arriving of such consensus; and
- iv) Making teacher education curriculum competency oriented.

In the context of teacher education, the term quality has to be made explicit in terms of criteria agreed upon by all the stakeholders who include regulating and monitoring organisations like the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), and affiliating universities but also schools, head teachers, teachers, students, student teachers, the Government, and the community at large, who all should internalise the same and work jointly in a collaborative manner to achieve the goals of teacher education, namely, to produce competent, committed and effective professional teachers who are concerned and caring for their students. Every activity in the teacher education programme should lead to the achievement of the goals.

Attempts have been made to make teacher education competency-based in the process of establishing its accountability by the NCTE (1998) and identifying teacher competencies (Lalitha 1996). Such competencies can form the basis of teacher education. As per the National Education Policy 2020, the professional standards to be achieved in teacher education are proposed to be listed by the NCTE in association with the NCERT. All these efforts can help in making teacher education programmes more objective-based. However, expected outcomes of teacher education may include teachers/teacher trainees not only to acquire pedagogic understandings, but also pedagogic and techno-pedagogic skills, in

addition to outcomes in the affective domain like, predispositions, values, and concerns. This requires the teacher trainees/ teachers acquire the skills of reflection both 'in-action' and 'on-action' leading to acquiring ability to take appropriate instructional decisions on changing content, methods, and moods to facilitate student learning.

Management of Quality of Input

Some of the major inputs for teacher education programmes include student teachers, working teachers and teacher educators.

i. Teacher trainees:

The input to teacher education programmes refers to the teacher trainees who would be seeking enrolment for the same. The nature and background of the teacher trainees can influence the effectiveness of any teacher education programme. Such teacher trainees can be for regular pre-service teacher education programme or para teachers who are appointed as teachers and subsequently trained. The related quality issues that can be examined are listed below:

- i) The type of background, strengths and capabilities expected to be possessed by the students who are admitted to the teacher education programmes;
- ii) The different types of screening procedures that exist for admitting teacher trainees with required pre-requisites;
- iii) The background characteristics- socio-psychological and pedagogic that para teachers possess; and
- iv) The extent to which the quality of inputs relate to the objectives of the teacher education programmes.

There are issues related to ground realities threatening to alter the norms imposed to ensure quality. Some of them are referred as below. There are two issues related to the criteria and processes of selection of teacher trainees for teacher education programmes and the nature of aspirants who would like to join teacher education programmes. The first issue is applicable only to the new entrants and not so much to the untrained teachers who are already employed as teachers requiring training through alternative modes. Although the NCTE has tried to fix the minimum eligibility criteria for admission into the teacher education programmes, there are forces especially from the private institutions trying to reduce/alter the criteria in order to fill in the sanctioned intake from financial returns point of view. Secondly, there is a great demand from graduates and post-graduates who have studied highly specialised subjects at their graduation level (which are not prescribed as school subjects) who would like to enter teacher education programmes, especially at secondary level not usually by choice, but because they could not get the opportunities for jobs or for higher studies which they anticipated at the beginning of joining their graduation programmes. It may be noted here that sometimes the teacher recruitment norms may not match the criteria for admission related to the subjects studied at the time of entry into the teacher education programme. In some states, the recruitment rules for teacher's posts do not give much weightage to the

performance the teacher trainees at the end of teacher education programmes. However, the eligibility criteria for entry into the teacher education programme should keep in mind to what specific stage and to teach what specific subject, teacher education programme is being offered. What is more important is the eligibility criteria should raise to the level of attracting candidates who are professionally talented in terms of aptitudes and attitudes with a strong knowledge base in the content area. This however requires the status of teaching profession to raise to the levels of other important professions in the society, namely, medicine, law, and engineering which are attracting better talent. The other quality related issues that are posing a challenge are concerning content and processes of teacher education. The focus in any teacher preparation programme as different from other academic programmes is to educate the learners in content and pedagogy. However, in the 21st century, the emphasis should be on shifting teacher preparation from pedagogical content knowledge to that of technological-pedagogical content knowledge. It needs to be examined as to what extent the new curriculum framework prepared by the NCTE in 2014 addresses to this issue. Another issue to be resolved is whether teacher preparation programmes be stage specific or subject specific or both, if so, at what stage they should be subject specific. Further, the issue to be examined is of medium of instruction in which the graduates are able to pursue teacher education programme, as this affects the leaning of teacher trainees while they pursue the teacher education programmes. This, in, turn affects their use of good learning resources both in the library as well as on the internet which is generally in English language.

ii. *Teacher Educators:*

The quality of teacher education programme is determined by the quality of teacher educators who have the responsibility to run the programme. The nature and background of the teacher educators can influence the effectiveness of any teacher education programme. The related issues that can be examined are as below:

- i) Identification of general attributes and qualifications required of teacher educators for different levels of teacher education; and
- ii) Analysis of relevance of qualifications of teacher educators for the job, at different levels of teacher education;

The NCTE have drafted new norms and standards for various teacher education programmes which came into effect from 2014. One of the issues that emerge in their effective implementation include appointing teacher educators as per the qualifications to handle different courses within different teacher education programmes. It is likely that, sometimes it can become difficult to find and appoint suitably qualified faculty for every prescribed course because of lack of availability and sometimes shortage of students for certain courses during some years. This mismatch can be deterrent to the quality of teacher educators. For example, as per the regulations, a teacher educator at the secondary teacher education level is expected to possess a master's degree in the content subject and possess M.Ed. /M.A.(Education) with B.Ed. as a professional degree. If there is any shortage of

qualified teacher educators especially in certain methodology courses, like mathematics and science, teacher educators without having any master's degree in the concerned content area are likely to teach the methodology course. Another issue related to quality that needs to be examined is in what way the academic and professional degree programmes undergone by the teacher educators as per the requirement prescribed to become eligible for appointment, prepare them for their jobs and develop necessary competencies and skills. The issue of concern is how best can teacher educators develop the skills and competencies required for the 21st century which they themselves do not possess, but to be developed among teacher trainees, who in turn need to develop among their learners. This necessitates a relook into the inputs given to teacher educators in their qualifying degrees, especially the professional ones for any curricular redesigning and further follow-up with continuing education.

b. Management of Content and Process

The most important determinants for quality of teacher education are 'What and how' in teacher education. The expected profile of a teacher or the expected professional standards at any particular level or stage of education determines the content and processes at that level of teacher education.

Some of the issues that need to be examined are listed as below:

- i) Facilitating integration of theory and practice and their appropriate weightage in teacher education programmes;
- ii) Facilitating appropriate balance between internship vs institution-based models of teacher training;
- iii) Facilitating integration of content and pedagogy as well as integration of content, pedagogy and use of technology;
- iv) Strengthening community-based learning
- v) Promoting continuous and comprehensive assessment and evaluation;
- vi) Evolving different models of teacher education programmes, their effectiveness and implications.

The National Curriculum Framework of Teacher Education (NCFTE) proposed by the NCTE in 2009 is based on NCF 2005 of the NCERT. As mentioned in the preface of the NCFTE, the framework attempts to elaborate 'the contexts, concerns and vision underscoring that teacher education and school education have a symbiotic relationship and developments in both the sectors mutually reinforce the concerns necessary for qualitative improvements of the entire spectrum of education including teacher education as well' (NCTE, 2009). This framework proposes nature of content and curriculum transaction strategies in teacher education programmes suitable to the context of the present millennium. The teacher educators' role has also been elaborated in terms of facilitators of learning of teacher trainees instead of information givers. Different activities have been suggested to strengthen theory-practice integration so that the trainees construct their own pedagogic knowledge which is

realistic and has potentiality for better transfer to school situations. The teacher and teacher educators are conceived as reflective practitioners. The curriculum of teacher education is broadly dealt with under foundations of education, curriculum and pedagogy and school internship. A process- based teacher education has been proposed for practising teachers. Continuous and comprehensive evaluation procedures for developing teachers have been proposed suggesting a need for preparing the assessing tools. Based on the NCFTE, 2009, the NCTE drafted a common curriculum framework in 2014 for implementation across the country. This formed a basis for a common curriculum preparation /revision, especially for drafting syllabi for various two-year and four-year undergraduate degree programmes in teacher education for different levels of school education as well as for a two-year master's degree programmes in teacher education for teacher educators. The issue to be examined is to what extent the revised curricula have addressed to the expected concerns with respect to content and processes appropriate to the levels for which they are prepared.

Teacher education in India has always faced the challenge of bringing about integration between theory and practice. Approaches for creating conducive learning environment to facilitate integration of theory and practice should be outcome-based which indicate what the student is capable to do, instead of objective-based which indicates what the student can do at the end of learning experience. The learning competencies acquired by the students in teacher education institution should ultimately lead to effective transfer in real situation where they ultimately teach. Different models of internship can be designed to facilitate integration of theory and practice and promote generalisability and transfer of learning in the classroom.

Professional education needs to be formally given and one cannot assume that one who has mastered the content (thinks so) can teach the same effectively. Having the subject knowledge is one thing and having the knowledge of how to teach is another, which can be acquired only through formal education. Evidence does support the view that to become an effective teacher, he/she has to be good not either in content or pedagogy, but both in content and pedagogy. Pedagogy cannot be taught without reference to any content. Pedagogy generally makes use of technology to make it more effective.

Shulman (1986, 1987) observed that the emphasis on teacher's subject matter knowledge and pedagogy were being treated as mutually exclusive. He advocated the need for their integration in teacher education programmes and he introduced the notion of pedagogical content knowledge which includes pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge. He has distinguished different types of knowledge. They include i) content knowledge of specific subject areas; ii) knowledge of general pedagogical principles including broad principles of classroom management/organisation and pedagogical content knowledge – which means how to transform subject matter content into formats that are comprehensible to learners, in the light of their specific learning needs, developmental status, or background (quoted in www.bsu.edu.cn). In other words, teacher's knowledge should include curriculum knowledge and knowledge of educational contexts. The content and processes in teacher

education curriculum should facilitate integration of content and pedagogy in different educational contexts. among student teachers. Thus, in any professional education programme for teachers, the student teachers are ensured of possessing adequate content knowledge in a well-structured manner, pedagogic-content knowledge, and techno-pedagogic-content knowledge. A good teacher is one who can integrate pedagogic knowledge with content knowledge. This is possible when the teacher critically reflects on and interprets the content in various ways and adapts it to learners' abilities and levels in different educational contexts.

Use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become integral component of teaching content in schools. The capabilities of teachers as well as teacher trainees in the use of a variety of ICT and web resources as well as digital learning materials in handling learning situation effectively in the classrooms should be enhanced.

Ability to integrate content and pedagogy is generally fostered through both theoretical and practical components of teacher education programmes. Revised curriculum drafted as per the curriculum framework of the NCTE in 2014 have suggested guidelines for strengthening linkages between theory and practice as well as between content and pedagogy. For example, for the two-year B.Ed. programme, they have suggested the practical components which include activities that can be conducted both on campus and off campus as well as during internship. Many universities have included practising various teaching and instructional skills on campus as part of the pre-practice teaching activities. However, this curriculum slot may be used for practising and experimenting with instructional activities that can strengthen theory-practice linkage also. Universities in some states have been employing the concept of microteaching for practising teaching skills especially at the secondary teacher education programmes. Microteaching has been a popular technique to practise teaching skills since its inception in India during 1970s in secondary teacher training curricula and extensively researched upon (Buch 1974, 1979; NCERT 1987; 1991; Passi & Lalitha 1976a). Even after the implementation of revised curriculum framework, microteaching has become part and parcel of secondary teacher education curriculum in pedagogic courses and practised prior to practice teaching/internship with or without its nomenclature, but at least as an idea, in many Indian Universities irrespective of whether the teacher education programme is located in teacher education colleges or at the University campus. Microteaching technique is still practised the world over not only in teacher education, but also used to train professionals in other disciplines like medical, dental, pharmacy, geriatric care, psychological counselling, dietetic advising, business/commerce, communication, and instruction (Anantha Krishnan 1993; Ralph 2014; Ramesh 2013; Brown 1975). But it has deviated from the original model with variations in the contextual factors. The focus ranges from practising specific teaching skills to more broader objectives like improving critical thinking and problem-solving skills and from behavioural changes to perceptual changes. Variations can be observed from teach-reteach cycle to practising segments of lesson/activity in varied contexts designed to study the outcomes with a focus on learning how to teach through investigative approach. Such an approach provides

opportunities for teacher trainees to acquire a repertoire of teaching skills/competencies to suit one's teaching style. However, it appears that microteaching technique still has a role to play in teacher education programmes, because of the emphasis on critical thinking/ reflection, feedback and self-analysis given in the technique which are crucial in teacher preparation, whether or not the nomenclature of microteaching is used.

Teacher education programme should strengthen cultural connections between teachers and their students. Preservice teachers' prior beliefs and stereotypes, and cultural background of the students they are going to teach can lead to cultural disconnections between themselves and their students and hence can be deterrent to learning by the students. Cultural-immersion experiences given to student teachers can develop in them an ability to handle situations of cultural diversities in real classrooms. Such experiences can be provided during well-planned internship.

Education of teachers is a continuous process. A teacher in service should have the capability to design assessment procedures not only to evaluate student learning but also to assess oneself to improve his/her own instruction. The practices of assessment in teacher education programme should go beyond lower order knowledge-based tests to measuring understanding, critical and higher order thinking, and problem-solving skills. The assessment should get linked to both formative and summative purposes. The ability to design performance tasks, activities to create scientific knowledge base through higher order thinking, and in other words, ability to be a teacher-researcher is not much focussed on teacher education programmes. These abilities need to be developed among preservice teachers which helps not only in creating a pedagogic knowledge base, but also in making teachers critical and reflective in their profession.

c. Management of Continuing Professional Education

The preservice teacher education and in-service teacher education have always remained inseparable. Management of quality of teachers in schools and teacher educators in teacher education programmes is a continuous process. Teacher education and education of teacher educators are interrelated, and both are dynamic in nature. Continuing professional education is required not only for teachers and teacher educators, but also for other educational personnel who are directly involved in the monitoring school education as well as teacher education institutions. Some of the issues concerning this area that may need to be examined can be as follows:

- I. Continuing Professional Education of Teachers and Teacher Educators
 - i) Identification of needs of teachers for in-service training;
 - ii) Effectiveness and appropriateness of content and methodology of induction programmes given for primary school teachers;
 - iii) Identification of training needs including the need for leadership role of teachers and teacher educators, primary and secondary, for in-service teacher education, at different levels;

- iv) Appropriateness of the inputs given in the training programmes for teachers and the teacher educators, primary and secondary, for in-service teacher education, at different levels conducted by various cluster level (mainly for teachers), block level, district level, and state level organisations; and
- v) Effectiveness, appropriateness, and feasibility of the existing and alternative modes of training like, face to face, online mode, distance mode, and blended approach and their follow-up.

II. Institutional Structures

- i) Needed types of institutional structures for strengthening teacher training programmes;
- ii) Capabilities of the existing organisations responsible training teachers and teacher educators in terms adequacy of infrastructural facilities- land, building space; material resources including resource centre and required technology support; human resources and their competencies; and financial resources; background qualifications, experience and the training needs, and the continuity in their positions of the education personnel conducting training programmes for teachers and teacher educators;
- iii) Methods of ensuring autonomy and accountability of the organisations conducting training programmes

Various organisations have been established from state level to cluster level all over the country whose one of the main tasks is to offer academic and resource support for the success of various strategies and programmes being undertaken in teacher education at different levels. The structures that have already been established at different levels which are adequate to reach teachers and teacher educators at different levels of teacher education for their continued professional training. For example, SCERTs/DSERTs established at the state level have the responsibility for offering resource support, conducting training, and maintaining/monitoring quality of school education and teacher education at different levels as well as adult and nonformal education. Based on the NPE 1986 and its POA 1992, District Institutes of Education and Training were established in all the districts in three phases by upgrading Government Teacher Training Institutes in these districts and one of the major tasks were to conduct in-service teacher education programmes for primary school teachers. Under the World bank-assisted flagship programme, namely, District Primary Education Programme, different structures were formed at cluster level (CRCs) and block level (BRCs), supported by district level, and state level structures, wherein teacher empowerment through in-service programmes including production of curricular materials formed one of the major activities. Subsequently, Block Institutes of Teacher Education have also been established. Thus, structures have already been established at different levels which are adequate to reach teachers and teacher educators at different levels of teacher education for their continued professional training. The issues of concern are not so much related to establishment of institutional structures, rather how they need to function in continuing professional development of teachers and teacher educators. For example, it is observed that the background experience of the faculty in-charge for conducting training

programmes in DIETs as inadequate and the issue gets more aggravated because of lack of their continuity in their positions (Lalitha 1998). The training methodology is generally face to face and less participative in nature. The training programmes for teachers or teacher educators should employ such methodologies which in turn can facilitate better transfer effects into their classrooms.

The NCF 2005 has vision about a child as a generator of knowledge, but about the teacher as a facilitator of learning and reflective practitioner. This has implications for content and processes of teacher education. The professional development programmes offered by the DIETs for primary teacher educators and orientation and refresher courses offered by National and State level Institutions and the universities for professional development of secondary teacher educators should address to the above issues of preparing effective and competent teacher educators who in turn can design and conduct effective in-service teacher training programmes. Teacher educators need to be exposed to the use of various open educational resources available freely online, to the use of various web tools and technologies (like Wiki). They should be trained in technology integration in curriculum transaction which requires use of multimedia projectors, learner management systems creating truly automated virtual classrooms. They need to be trained in alternative assessment strategies like portfolio evaluation, online assessment, Rubik generators, use of many of the learner management systems for generating various assessment questions. Apart from these structures/ organisations meant for continuing professional development of teacher educators at different levels of teacher education, teacher educator complexes/ forums can be formulated for monthly academic enrichment meetings for sharing experiences and mutual professional enrichment on need-based issues and concerns initiated by teacher educators themselves, and to create share and collaborate mutual learning using web tools.

d. Monitoring and Quality Control

One of the significant developments in teacher education, after NPE and POA with its modifications in 1992, is the establishment of NCTE in 1993 through Parliament Act no. 73 as a statutory authority. In addition, NAAC had an MOU with NCTE to carry forward the work of quality reform of teacher education. The affiliating universities have an important responsibility to monitor the quality of teacher education institutions in terms of their own norms without violating the NCTE norms. The collective efforts of these organisations through seminars, workshops sharing of experiences could bring quality reform in teacher education programmes/institutions as well as monitor and ensure their quality.

Quality management can also be thought out at an institutional level. All the philosophical (Vision and Mission), physical and human (Infrastructural facilities) dimensions, the kinds of programmes run and the way they are run, the beneficiary clientele, the management, and the stake holder community, all make an institution. It is the co-ordinated effort of these components of an institution working towards common goals based on certain broad guidelines that can facilitate monitoring quality internally by the institution.

Some of the issues that can be examined are given below:

- i) Adequacy and relevancy of the norms prescribed by the NCTE for different types of institutions and courses of teacher education;
- ii) Appropriateness of the common norms for different courses/institutions across the country in the light of allowing foreign universities to establish their educational institutions in India;
- iii) Adequacy and robustness of norms suggested for teacher education institutions/courses in responding to the changes in content-pedagogy of school education, technological developments, and changes in socio- economic conditions; and
- iv) Methods of co-ordination to be established between different monitoring bodies like university, NCTE, NAAC, UGC, State and central government, and such other agencies/organisations;
- v) Extent to which the proposed concept establishment General Education Council can be useful in quality management of teacher education

The main agencies that are involved in monitoring the quality of teacher programmes include the State government, the Universities and the NCTE. The NAAC has also joined hands with NCTE in accrediting teacher education institutions at secondary level as well as the teacher educator preparation programmes like the master's degree in education offered by colleges and universities. The norms have been evolved covering various issues of quality. But they are mainly related to infrastructural aspects including qualification of the faculty, although various curriculum related aspects are also included. The curricular aspects, including content and processes are difficult to be adequately assessed by these organisations at the time of monitoring/affiliation or accreditation. Coordinated and mutually complementing efforts by these institutions can help in avoiding any duplication of efforts and thus, leading to working in proper cohesion in monitoring the quality of teacher education programmes and institutions. The curricular dimensions in terms of content and processes when addressed to make teacher education programmes competency-based, can form a basis for monitoring and evaluation of the programmes. A procedure should be evolved to evaluate the in-service teacher education programmes and create a mechanism for monitoring quality of continuous professional development of teachers. The norms and standards prescribed by the NCTE should be re-examined from the points of view of contextual realities and robust enough to absorb changes in the school and socio-economic conditions. For example, the crisis created by the pandemic has created new demands content and processes of school education and hence teacher education. The restructured NCTE under the General Education Council, as proposed in the New Policy on Education, 2020, may need to keep the above points in view, especially with respect to quality management of teacher education, both preservice and in-service.

e. Upholding of Professionalism by Teachers

Profession implies possession of specialised knowledge that characterises the profession which contributes to recognised status distinctions among the professions. The classical work of Liberman (1956) on teaching as profession in the context of United States also lists a characteristics of an occupation if it has to be considered as a profession as follows: a unique, definite and essential social service; an emphasis upon intellectual techniques in performing its service; a long period of specialised training; a broad range of autonomy for both individual practitioners and for the occupational group as a whole; accountability; service to be rendered form the basis and not the economic returns; a comprehensive self-governing organisations of practitioners and a code of ethics. The emergence of teacher professionalism in India can be observed in the post-independence period in the form of sustained initiatives and efforts to empower teachers both through pre-service and continued professional development programmes. The quality of these programmes, however, determine the quality of teacher professionalism we have been able to establish. In recent years, the professional knowledge including pedagogical-content knowledge has emerged as an important aspect of teaching profession (Darling- Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Professionalism in teachers is emerging in India in terms of some of the key components like, initial training, having opportunities for professional upgradation, reasonable degree of autonomy, active participation of the professional organisations, existence of bodies to set and monitor standards, and remuneration fixed according to the nature of service and the importance of the contribution made to the society. But we have to go a long way in making it a profession on par with other more established professions like medicine or engineering. Some of the issues to be examined are as follows:

- i) extent to which teaching has emerged as a profession;
- ii) approaches to make teaching as a profession on par with professions like medicine, engineering, and law

Teaching is considered as a profession like other professions, namely, medicine, dentistry, engineering, law, management and so on. Like any other professional, a teacher is not considered eligible to practice teaching profession, unless he/she possesses the needed organized body of knowledge, understandings, skills, attitudes/dispositions, and values to become effective in his/her profession. This should be relevant to the area of specialisation as well as the nature of target group to be taught by him/her. This can be acquired only through a formal rigorous training/education of reasonable duration with adequate practical/situated experience. Like in other professions, there should be opportunities for developing/enriching professional knowledge and experience through research, self-reflection, and mutual sharing of professional experience by the fraternity of professional teachers. Further, there should opportunities for continued need-based professional training to keep updated with the developments in the field. Any professional education on teaching should develop such qualities in student teachers which help in achievement of higher levels of learners' development (cognitive, social, and emotional) in schools. Teachers can become effective if

- They have their professional knowledge at appropriate level of proficiency, use this knowledge to plan instructional opportunities for students that enable them to grasp new concepts and make connections organising conceptually the factual knowledge that facilitates its retrieval, application, and transfer;
- Use assessment data to help every student achieve at high levels through formative assessment which provides information about the student, and assists in designing and adapting teaching/instruction;
- Collaborate with other educators and with families/communities to assure that every student's needs can be met;
- Possess management skills and create a classroom environment where productive learning can possibly occur;
- Use new technological innovations effectively to motivate students and to advance their learning;
- Reflect on their teaching and on their role as teachers, as reflection deepens the understanding of effective instructional practices and promotes generation of new knowledge.
- Possess certain dispositions that are essential for realising the potential of every child

Evidence support the view that the nature of teacher education curriculum including content, orientation, and duration influence the effectiveness of teacher learning. The first issue relates to the content and orientation of any teacher education programme. In India, most popular teacher education programmes have been generic (general), that is common for all teachers of different grade levels. For example, B. Ed programme is commonly meant for preparation of upper primary teachers, secondary teachers and senior secondary teachers and is common no matter what subjects they teach. But teachers never teach something in general They always teach particular things to particular groups of learners in particular settings. This implies that teacher education programmes need to be more stage-specific than generic.

Most human learning and teaching are highly specific and situated, implying low possibility of transfer and generalizability of pedagogy learnt in one subject/domain of knowledge to pedagogy of another subject/domain. Different subjects demand different instructional models. Most effective form of professional education occurs at the integration of content and pedagogy. Teachers need adequate number of subject-specific examples, analysis and practice within their professional educational programmes to become effective subject teachers. This implies that professional education especially at secondary level has to be subject-specific (Shulman 1986, 1987). Any form of teacher preparation needs to be of reasonable duration that provides among time and opportunity for self-study, reflection and involved engagement with learners, the school, the classroom, and pedagogy activities, along with rigorous theoretical study (NCTE 2009).

The issue of the duration of initial teacher training has been discussed at length. Although there has been a consensus on the duration of primary teacher education programme which extends for two years, no such consensus had evolved until recently about the duration of secondary teacher education which was for duration of one year has been made into two years. Although there had been a discontent on the adequacy of the duration of one year for giving proper training, the concerns expressed for extending it to two years included the practical difficulties in terms of additional burden on the students as well as on the institution itself. However, if one-year duration had to continue, it necessitated the strengthening of internal efficiency of one-year programme itself. Secondary Education Commission (1953) and the Education Commission (1964-66) have always recommended longer duration of secondary teacher education programmes which could provide a strong base in content knowledge as well as develop knowledge and skills in content and pedagogy of teaching. They have emphasised the need for development of integrated teacher education programmes as well as for the establishment of comprehensive colleges of education. The Regional Institutes of Education of NCERT have been offering four -year integrated programme which is thought as a solution for improving the quality of teacher education from the point of view of increased duration and for integrating theory and practice. This model are being implemented in institutions including universities where other undergraduate degree programmes are run, thus, to facilitate integration of content and pedagogy. This model implies that the students should decide on the profession they would like to pursue at an early age, in the same manner as in the case of the other professions. Separate norms have been developed for four-year integrated programmes at different levels of teacher education-from pre-primary through higher secondary education. As per the NPE 2020, a four-year integrated degree in teacher education would be the qualifying degree for teaching by 2030. Until then the existing two-year B. Ed. can also continue.

Making teacher education competency-based and ear making the core competencies for the initial training and extending the initial training with follow up in-service training (off campus training) for achieving the other desirable competencies could be the solution to overcome the issue of inadequacy of duration. However, alternative models can be worked out to establish linkage between pre-service and in-service teacher education so that the teacher remains a life-long learner meeting the requirements of the profession as and when they change with time. Implementing any such models of teacher preparation requires structural and resource support. Just extending the duration from one year to two years, just as such may not improve the quality of secondary teacher training, unless followed by systematic in-service teacher training.

f. Management of Research Output to Support Activities in Teacher Education Programmes

Teacher education has always been criticised for lack of empirical base underlying content and processes including theoretical and practical inputs. Thus, the challenge faced by teacher education has been lack of empirical base and at the same time, the dire need to improve teacher education, especially teacher performance.

Some of the issues that need to be examined through can be as below:

- i) Identifying ideas related to quality concerns in teacher education that need empirical base;
- ii) Identifying various research questions that need to be answered related to different types of input, infrastructural facilities available in the teacher education institution, content and processes including the teaching-learning approaches followed and in general, questions related to improving effectiveness of teacher education programmes;
- iii) Identifying issues related to different approaches to assess different types of learning outcomes in different domains in teacher education;
- iv) Identifying various methodological issues in conducting empirical studies in teacher education especially related to transfer and generalisability of the learning outcomes to real situations and approaches in resolving them;
- v) Examining the roles played by the various institutions monitoring the quality of teacher education;
- vi) Exploring different research designs to answer various research questions related to improving quality of teacher education, both quantitative and qualitative approaches as well as empirical and nonempirical approaches; and
- vii) Identifying and evolving/validating methods for the development of various competencies and teaching skills for distance as well as online education by the teacher educators in responding to the changes in content-pedagogy of school education, technological developments, and changes in socio- economic conditions.

Many research studies have been conducted in the area of teaching and teacher effectiveness in India ((Buch,1974, 1979; Jangira,1974; Padma,1979; NCERT,1987; 1991;1997). Attempts have been made to synthesise findings to determine what makes teaching effective (Navodaya Vidyalaya Samithi,1990). The researchers in the field of teaching and teacher effectiveness are facing challenges because of the nature of the field which is dynamic as well as complex and the methodological issues involved therein. This makes it difficult to evolve knowledge that can provide a base for teacher education programmes.

For example, process related factors are not easily measurable. Some of these factors are measured through ratings which themselves are subjective. Teacher accountability cannot be linked only teaching-learning processes alone. The latter could possibly be associated with many contextual factors over which researchers do not have much control. Studies conducted in the area of 'teacher education' have employed various research methodologies which include quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches. The qualitative research, although provides more insights into the processes of teaching, unlike quantitative research, it fails to provide for making any generalisation and hence applicability to new situations. In spite of the difficulties faced in conducting research in the field of teaching and teacher effectiveness, the pedagogic knowledge relevant to making teaching effective is emerging

through research. The content and processes of teacher education are based on both empirical knowledge as well as knowledge based on experience.

Research efforts in the direction of improving quality of teacher educators especially with respect to developing in them the needed knowledge and skill competencies, is minimal and hence need strengthening. Teacher education is being offered not only through face-to-face mode but also through distance mode. Use of blended approach is becoming inevitable for initial followed by continuing teacher education. This requires identifying and validating approaches to develop teaching skills and competencies among teacher educators. Attempts have also been made to identify teaching skills in the context of online distance learning. In a study an attempt was made to determine whether online distance educators need special skills or knowledge to teach successfully online, a popular mode of learning in higher education. It is observed that educators can greatly benefit from training to make the transition from teaching in a face-to-face setting to an online setting, even though most skills are thought to be similar and applicable across settings (Jia-Ling Lee & Atusi 2004). The investigators have identified six essential skills, namely, interaction, management, organisation/instructional design, technology content knowledge, and teamwork skills and sixteen outputs.

Apart from carrying on research as a separate activity, research should be built into the processes involved in teacher education system. For example, teacher educators should be encouraged to innovate, even based on intuitive judgement, for improving teacher education, with the hope of substantiating later. 'Microteaching' emerged as one such innovation which was practised first and only at the later stage started the process of theoretical conceptualisation (Perlberg 1985). Involvement of teacher educators in curriculum designing of teacher education programmes at respective levels is likely to improve their teaching competencies. Platforms for mutual interaction among teacher educators, both face to face and online, like 'teacher educator complex', WhatsApp groups, can be created for regular meetings, webinars, and video conferences of teacher educators for sharing and documenting curricular experiences, action research, sharing creative ideas and such other activities. The use of Apps for online interaction like google meet, and such others can be explored for experience sharing activities. These activities can be managed by quality monitoring organisations. The ideas generated through such activities can be further researched upon for more generalisability and implementation. These organisations can also take the responsibility for documenting and disseminating generated research ideas and experiences among teacher educators.

CONCLUSION

Quality teacher education programmes are inevitable in any country intending to improve quality of education at any level. Teaching is considered as a profession like other professions, like medicine, law, and engineering and teacher education programmes at any level are considered as professional programmes. The quality of teacher education determines the quality of students entering other professions and hence the quality of other professional programmes. Because of close connection between school education and teacher education, the challenges posed at school education in terms of policy perspectives to offer quality

education for all children in different societal contexts, changes in global perspectives and technological advancements, creates demands on teacher education system in the country to produce teachers at different levels with required professional competencies appropriate to the educational contexts to which they are prepared. The various quality concerns that emerge in teacher education system can be identified in a total quality management perspective and addressed in a multipronged manner. Because of the dynamic nature in the societal contexts, the education system and in turn the teacher education system remains responsive to the societal needs. Establishing a firm but adaptable and at the same time responsive teacher education system with clear goals goes a long way in development of a country like India.

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A MIXED METHODS STUDY ON TEACHING WESTERN CONCEPTUALIZATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO EASTERN EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

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INTRODUCTION

In the Western countries, it has been realized that an administrator in a school cannot be a very good leader unless he or she has had formal training in leadership. It is believed that in order for leaders to be effective, they must go beyond the stagnant understanding of how their organizations work and get real training on how to become a good educational leader. It is strongly believed that well trained educational leaders who continuously learn become more effective in their leadership roles. Numerous studies support the belief that effective leaders choose to learn new ways of leading. For example, Marzano (2005) states that principals who intellectually are stimulated and stimulate their teachers and staff become effective in leading. Fullan (2014) says that “the principal who makes the biggest impact on learning is the one who participates as a learner” (p. 58). As a result, training leaders through formal education has become a common practice in the West for a long time. The training consists of learning in the areas related to leadership, administration, interpersonal relationship, communication, moral and ethics. (Oplatka 2004).

Leadership in an organization involves responding to a myriad of external and internal demands and learning how to respond to them, as well as, engaging in continuous professional learning and staying current and effective in their position of leadership. This is why formal training in leadership is underscored as vital to developing effective leaders for our schools and other organizations in general. Case in point aspiring school administrators, completing course work must also receive a state administrative credential and then apply for administrative positions in school districts.

On the other hand, in developing countries the portrait of leaders in schools and other organizations is very different. In the case of school administrators, they work from a highly centralized system of education that constrains their autonomy. They are appointed as leaders on the basis of personal traits that support the leadership image. Although decentralization of reforms has been introduced in many of these countries by their governments, they have not resulted in a more fluid relationship between the educational ministries and the schools. Since “The government is responsible for a host of educational aspects. The Ministry of Education in many countries designs a unified national curriculum, syllabus, materials and exams and guides funding and staffing of schools, including teacher selection, recruitment and staff development” (Oplatka 2004, p. 431). These factors result in school administrators primarily functioning as managers. They also tend to be more authoritative, lacking innovative methods of leadership and practice participatory leadership. Oplatka (2004) continues to “...emphasize the low importance attached to education in general

and to Principalship in particular in some developing countries” (p. 432). Principalship is considered a public position rather than one that focuses on providing a better education and improving student achievement.

Besides, in this region of the world, leadership in an organization is viewed differently. The administrator’s behavior and how they relate to different situations to keep the organization in tact is considered important. Keeping the allegiance of the followers undisturbed becomes an important role of the leader. In countries where collectivist culture is dominant the following is true.

“Behavior seen as essential to group well-being in the East is less valued in the West. For example, research suggests that individuals from collectivist cultures put a high premium on “enduring without complaining” (labeled “sportsmanship” by scholars) and “giving advance notice” (labeled “courtesy”). To Western eyes, an employee’s reluctance to self-disclose, participate actively, or disagree publicly is seen as a lack of confidence, competence, or trustworthiness—deficits that can be hard to correct” (Nie, Xio & Barsoux 2017, p. 88)

These cultural differences seen in countries like India, Pakistan, Nepal, Indonesia, Ethiopia and Bangladesh show that they preserve the traditional school system and maintain “discipline, order equipment, determine staffing needs, schedule activities, manage school finances and resources, allocate staff, and ensure that teachers keep accurate records. (Chapman & Burchfield 1994; Chi-Kin. Lee & Dimmock 1999). School administrators there also pay close attention to their societal role expectations and “were found to focus, by and large, on routine management, control maintenance and output-based teacher appraisal, and were likely to refrain from involving teachers and parents in decision-making, participative leadership, delegation of responsibilities, or major school change initiation.” (Oplatka 2004, p.440).

This description of school administrators and how they demonstrate their leadership fit very well with school principals in India. Similarly, most schools in India practice a centralized system of management and school principals and administrators assume their responsibilities without any formal training in leadership. If the need to hire a new principal or administrator arises at a school a lead teacher or someone who demonstrates leadership traits is appointed to take charge of the school. The traditional leadership model that characterizes command and control still dominates in those schools.

Although the structure and system of school leadership differs in developing countries, the need for good school leaders has not diminished. An overwhelming amount of literature and research prove that well trained school leaders with effective skills bring better results in student achievement (Marzano 2004). Peterson (1986) while writing about principals’ work describes how principals who are trained to be effective function in their schools.

Effective principals know the characteristics of effective teaching, problems of curricula,

and how to provide clear, accurate, and useful feedback to teachers. Additionally, effective principals are able to be symbolic leaders in their organizations, fostering a strong sense of shared values, collegiality, and sense of mission. They help promote and sustain traditions, rituals, and ceremonies which foster a common culture and set of beliefs within the school. The above characteristics are not easily developed in an individual. However, astute use of selection and training can increase the proportion of principals who have these characteristics. (Peterson 1986, p. 154).

In recent years, leaders within India's government, businesses and educational organizations have expressed the need for leadership training in the country. "There is a leadership vacuum in India in the educational sector" said the former Minister for Human Resource Development. Recognizing the need for leadership training programs, the Indian government has initiated connections between Indian Universities with Western educational institutions, such as Yale and Harvard, to develop leadership programs. However, such efforts have not resulted in all higher education institutions offering leadership programs. Rao (2013), a leadership consultant from Hyderabad, expressed his concern by saying, "Students, educators and educational institutions all have roles to play in the development of the leaders for the future. At present, too few educational institutions are taking on this task" (p. 365).

Responding to this need, a Fulbright training project was designed to provide school administrators and principals, in India, a six-week leadership training on two-university campuses. The leadership training content focused on transformational leadership and many learning activities that engage the participants in the learning process were compiled. A leadership workbook with several learning activities accompanied the training. At the end of the training participants were expected to develop their own leadership-training module applying the knowledge they gained in the training. However, when the Fulbright scholar went to India, the two universities that agreed to have the six-week leadership training wanted the training for only a brief period. They said they could not accommodate the training for six weeks on their calendar. The administrators from those universities said that they could allow only two full days for the training. Therefore, the Fulbright project plan had to be changed to conducting several two-day seminars instead of two six-week trainings. The training materials were also condensed for the two-day training period. Ten universities and three colleges were selected to conduct this training on their campuses. Over 500 school leaders, primarily principals, administrators, and lead teachers attended the training on western conceptualizations of leadership, particularly transformational leadership.

Why Transformational Leadership in India?

The training for Indian leaders focused on transformational leadership because it is a leadership style that exhibits characteristics that are very much needed in the Indian leadership landscape. Scholars on global culture suggest that leaders in the Far East tend to be more collectivist and function unlike the Western oriented leaders who are more

individualistic. (Nie, Xiao & Barsoux 2017). There is research evidence showing that there is definitely a relationship between the cultural distinction of a nation and the leadership style preferred. For example, in collectivist culture an individual works toward group goals than on individual aspirations. “A number of cross-cultural studies have shown that collectivists tend to have a stronger attachment to their organizations and tend to subordinate their individual goals to group goals...” (Jung & Avolio 1999) They also prefer to focus on personal skills and relationships than knowledge of specific job and skills. In the case of East Asians, they tend to value reflection over urgency, harmony over discord, introspection over feedback and humility over attention-seeking behavior” (p. 87). Therefore, it is obvious that there is definitely a relationship between the cultural distinction of a nation and the leadership style preferred.

Research on transformational leadership suggests that the habits found in collectivist culture seem to go along very well with transformational leadership. Studies have examined the effects of differences in cultural orientation on the effectiveness of interactions between leaders and followers suggests,

“Transformational leadership involves developing a closer relationship between leaders and followers, one based more on trust and commitment than on contractual agreements. Transformational leaders help followers to see the importance of transcending their own self-interest for the sake of the mission and vision of their group and/or organization. By building followers’ self-confidence, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, such leaders are expected to have a strong, positive influence on followers’ levels of identification, motivation and goal achievement” (Jung & Avolio 1999)

Transformational leadership is unique because it articulates “a vision of the future of the organization, providing a model that is consistent with the vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and providing individualized support, effective transformational leaders change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization” (Podsakoff et al. 1996, p. 260).

Besides, transformational leaders value reflection and work toward bringing harmony within the organization. They also focus on developing teams and working effectively with them to accomplish the organization’s goals. A transformational leader has the ability to provide inspiration and motivation to his or her team. Then through team discussion and engagement, a vision could be developed, improving their morale and motivation. Varghese (2017) expresses beautifully about transformational leadership and Indian cultural values supplementing each other.

We propose a transformational style of ethical leadership supplemented by traditional Indian values, for leadership that focuses on duty, selfless service, and nonviolence. We address Indian cultural values of dharma, karma-yoga, and ahimsa in reference to transformational leadership, highlighting the contributions of influential Indian leaders like Mohandas K.

Gandhi. We describe the consonance of these values and counseling psychology ideals, as well as their applications for leadership practice, training, and research” (Varghese et al 2017, p. 810).

In the Indian educational settings where collective thinking is dominant, leaders becoming more group oriented and bringing in some of the other qualities of transformational leadership would be very beneficial. Some of the characteristics of transformational leadership are very relevant and appropriate to the Indian educational settings. For example, in cultures where authoritarian leadership style has dominated for so long, there is a passionate desire among the followers for leaders who would include them in decision-making and develop a team culture.

In a study done by Gill et al. (2011) on hospitality industry workers’ frequent turnover in India, it was tested to see if managers using transformational leadership would reduce that. This study was based on studies done by Russell (1996) and Oluoku (2003) on relationship between hospitality workers intent to quit and transformational leadership. Transformational leaders in this context especially clarified the mission, goals, and objectives of the organization to the followers that really impacted the followers from quitting their job. Final conclusions of this study reflected the result that there was significant negative relationship between transformational leadership and employee intention to quit.

Transformational leadership in India may not manifest itself in the same set of behaviors in India as it does in the Western countries. Singh and Krishnan (2007) worked on developing a scale for transformational leadership for India and they agreed with a study that supported their beliefs. “Khandwalla (1990) argued that countries such as India are most conducive for the emergence of transformational leadership because realities such as social stratification and kinship orientation. Only transformational leadership could address these realities and that too only could address these realities and that too only, through addressing the unique cultural requirements” (Singh & Krishnan 2007, p. 221).

Hickman’s (2016) description of transformational leadership supports this idea of leaders understanding the cultural dimensions of the followers with whom they work. According to him “Transformational leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them.” (p. 78). “Transformational leaders express a clear, compelling vision of the future, intellectually inspire followers, identify individual differences and assist followers to develop their strengths (Giltinane 2013, p. 56) Podsakoff et al.(1990) Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory measures 6 key dimensions of transformational leadership, which are articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation. An administrator who can demonstrate these transformational leadership qualities, would work very well in the Indian educational organizations. Therefore, instead of focusing on different theories in leadership this

leadership training emphasized transformational leadership as an appropriate modal for East Indian leaders.

The study focused on how much the training impacted the leadership training attendees. Finding out how the East Indian educational leaders seeped in the traditional system of centralized leadership would respond to learning about transformational leadership, which is a Western concept became an important aspect of this study. Mixed methods research was designed to study the impact of the leadership training on the participants. A quantitative survey was designed and administered before and after the training to find out how receptive participants were to transformational leadership ideas presented in the training and to what degree the learning impacted their thinking. Qualitative approaches were also implemented which included: interviews, field notes, individual written responses, group written responses, and artifacts.

Purpose of the study

This study purposed to discover how Indian educational leaders responded to the concept of transformational leadership taught in a two-day seminar. The research had two-fold purpose. First, to find out how much a two-day transformational leadership training would impact participants' thinking about becoming such a leader. Second, the study sought to find out how Indian leaders, ingrained in the traditional Eastern leadership style and culture, would respond to Western conceptualizations of transformational leadership. Discovering how cultural factors such as Gender roles, religion and customs of the participants influenced their response to the transformational leadership seminars.

The following research questions guided this study.

Research Questions

1. What evidence did the participants demonstrate about their understanding of transformational leadership before and after the training? Quantitative
2. How did the participants demonstrate their conceptualizations and thinking of transformational leadership? Qualitative
3. What barriers did the participants express as deterrents to transformational leadership? Qualitative

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Cross-cultural theories that interplay in professional learning would be used to frame this study to find out how seminar participants integrated their new knowledge on transformational leadership to their thinking and practice. Cultural differences, while difficult to observe and measure are obviously very important (Ghemawat and Reiche, 2011, p. 1) and they influence one's perspectives on matters of importance. It is clear that a national culture has a strong influence in the way people in a particular country think and act. For example, one of the professors in the training said that western conceptualization of leadership was very different from the eastern perspectives and the western ideas would not fit in Indian institutions. He said,

“We in India do not think of leadership or leading an institution the way you do in the West. We have a communal perspective in the way we lead our schools where as you use your Western individualistic approach to leadership. You see it as something you can control, manipulate and manage whereas for us bringing orderliness and effective organizational management is a collaborative effort and we like to improve what we do without changing much of what we do.”

These words provided the impetus for this study. It became obvious that the desire to preserve the national identity and its distinctive leadership culture was very high among the participants. The study inquired if that is the case with all the participants.

Cross-cultural Factors at Play in Learning about Transformational Leadership

Leadership is a universal phenomenon that is understood across cultures. However, it is operated in culturally specific contexts therefore learning about leadership is conditioned by the dominant culture that exists in the learning context. In a study done by a team of researchers led by Dorfman and Howell (1977) looked at the leadership in Western and Eastern countries, their commonalities, and differences in effective leadership. They found out that some leader behaviors had cultural universality while others were different. It is obvious that similarities and differences exist in looking at leadership behaviors across countries with different cultures. Dorfman et al. (1977) state, “Our results indicate that the similarities and differences between cultures can be meaningfully integrated within contemporary theoretical frameworks and simultaneously make sense for the specific cultures under study” (p. 269).

Therefore, in each context, where learning opportunities were provided for professional administrators, it was important to find out what influenced how they learned management models and other leadership practices. “Certain degree of similarities and differences can be found in the culture of different countries which might enable or constraint the transfer of management models, technology, organizational behaviors and practices” (Yuksel & Durna 2015, p. 296).

Theory of Cultural convergence and divergence

According to Alder and Bartholomew (1992),

“With the emergence of globalization in the past several decades, it is more common to see scholars supporting the idea that culture of the countries, structures of the organizations, and behavior of the organizational members are becoming more similar -convergence-, while other scholars support that the culture of the countries, structures of the organizations, and the behavior of the members of organizations preserve their dissimilarities -divergence-” (p. 551).

Yuksel & Durna (2015) emphasize the theory of cultural convergence and divergence that explains how the members of an organization treat new information related to running

an organization. Convergence refers to becoming more similar after the learning and divergence is about preserving their dissimilarities once learning is completed.

In the process of globalization, western industrialists incorporated individualistic work values in their companies but the response from the work force was mixed. While some phase of individual work was taken, the old values of collective work still remained. "Although a degree of convergence occurs in the structure of organizations and ordinary practices of business life, there is little convergence in the realm of the mind; the field of beliefs and values." (Yuksel & Durna 2015, p. 297). This shows that when new ideas from the West are presented in the developing countries they are not fully accepted or assimilated. Dunphy (1987) did a study on Japanese enterprise and management at the period when Japan was overtaking the American auto industries. He looked at how much of the Western ideas of leadership and management Japanese adopted and how much of the Japanese leadership practices were retained with the convergence and divergence perspectives. He found out that Japanese adopted some of the managerial practices of the West but retained their traditional cultural ways in management. "Yoshino (1968) traced the evolution of Japanese entrepreneurial ideology from the Meiji era, showing the early influence of Samurai ideology and the fusion of this tradition with U.S. management philosophy after World War II. Strong nationalistic attitudes were maintained but traditional Japanese paternalism was modified by an infusion of U. S. human relations theories (Tanaka, 1969)" (Dunphy 1987, p. 447).

It is clear then that the convergence occurs at some level while the dissimilarities is preserved at the level of the national culture, organizational structure, and individual member's behavior (Alder & Bartholomew 1992). There are also evidences showing there is some divergence of culture and value systems in the countries around the globe (Calori et al. 1994. Meyer, Boli-Bennett, and Chase-Dunn (1975) studied convergence and divergence development and found out that they take place differently according to the external variables influencing their companies. They found that societies converge more easily when they see the dominant systems thrive on their social, economic goals and structural means and want to adopt those into their systems and structures but are reluctant to change when deep-rooted cultural values are challenged. The following quote summarizes their findings on these two theories:

...most important, convergence and divergence are now seen as resulting from the evolution of world society, more than from the independent evolution of separate societies (Hopkins & Wallerstein 1967). The world market and society produce convergence by subjecting all societies to the same forces; they produce divergence by creating different roles for different societies in the world stratification system. (p.223).

It is clear that when new information arrives, and consideration is made whether to accept or reject it many factors play in determining how much of convergence and divergence would

take place. While partial adaptation may take place and it may not always be possible to make deeper changes and bring similarities in cultural practices.

In teaching leadership from one culture to another, it was important to have a clear understanding of the important role of the national culture in determining the transferability of knowledge. “There is a growing awareness that there is no single prescription for leadership excellence that ensures success across (countries), contexts, organizations, and circumstances” (Ruben 2006, p.2.) It is clear that leadership competencies would be important regardless of where the leader is and which organization he or she works for. “However, when we consider leadership specific to a particular country or organization, we need to take into account the culture of the country where the organization operates in addition to context, history, culture, and structure of that specific organization.” (Yuksel & Durna 2015, p. 308).

GLOBE research presents valuable information related to how cultural dimensions influence the perceptions people in each culture hold about leadership. In this extensive research study, researchers first divided the data from 62 countries into 10 distinct regional cultures. (Northouse 2016). Then they looked at how each culture viewed leadership behaviors and identified six global leadership behaviors, which are: charismatic/value based, team oriented, participative, humane oriented, autonomous, and self-protective. (House & Javidan 2004).

GLOBE research placed India in the Southern Asia cluster and the leadership profile for countries in this cluster are,

“...importance is given to self-protective, charismatic/value based, humane oriented, and team-oriented leadership, and... find participative leadership ineffective...The Southern Asia countries characterize effective leadership as especially collaborative, inspirational, sensitive to people’s needs, and concerned with status and face saving. Furthermore, they believe leaders who tend to be autocratic are more effective than those who lead by inviting others into the decision-making process.” (Northouse 2016, pp. 445- 446).

It has been documented that the Eastern executives in a selected setting demonstrated collectively held perceptions of leadership while the Western leaders showed personal perceptions (Eisenbeiß & Brodbeck 2013). Further, looking at dimensions of cultural clusters according to various regions of the world, Northouse (2016) describes the desirable characteristics of leaders in each region. Group thinking dominated while working with them. Therefore, it has become important “... to understand how cultural differences affect leadership performance.” (Northouse 2016, p. 301.). Going along with this idea, this study looked at how cultural differences affected the participants’ reception of the Westernized conceptualization of leadership.

Literature supports the idea that leaders in the Southern Asian cluster do not readily accept

new information or change in their leadership styles. Their thinking is conditioned by collective opinions rather than individual perception of an idea learned. The divergence of culture occurs while new information comes to their view more readily than convergence of culture. Identifying if and how the transfer of knowledge took place for the participants regarding transformational leadership became the major concern of the study. The convergence and divergence theory discussed by Yuksel and Durna (2015) and Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory with GLOBE study provided a partial framework for this study.

When educational leaders go through learning that prompts change, there is often resistance. However, if they are ready for change, they would apply themselves and change their leadership. Change meets with a lot of resistance if the followers in an organization feel threatened that it would affect their personal beliefs, values, and behaviors. In the change process leadership styles of educational leaders play an important role. If their leadership styles are different from each other and they vary in their cultural, personal, and educational qualities it would become difficult to bring change. (Inandi, Tunc & Gilic 2013).

It is clear that in order for transfer of knowledge about transformational leadership to take place that there had to be some type of cultural convergence and integration (Sarala & Veera 2010). This study intended to find out if and how much of convergence and divergence took place about transformational leadership for the participants in the thirteen two-day leadership training sessions.

Methods

Overview of Study Design

This research followed a concurrent embedded mixed methods design to gain insight into how much a two-day transformational leadership seminar would impact participants; thinking about becoming such a leader and to gain insight into how Indian educational leaders, cultured in a traditional Eastern leadership style, would respond to Western conceptualisations of transformational leadership. Thirteen leadership seminars were held in colleges and universities throughout different regions in India. The research design, composed of a quantitative questionnaire made up of 20 questions was administered before and after the two-day training, and qualitative approaches included the use of purposeful interviews, field notes, individual written responses, and group participants' written.

Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study has recently gained momentum and interest within the field of leadership studies (Briggs, Coleman & Morrison 2012; Stentz, Plano, & Matkin 2012). Mixed methods studies allow for a flexibility in addressing research questions, (Teddlie & Sammons 2010) generates new knowledge and added value (Sammons 2010), and brings epistemological and methodological pluralism to research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). "We contend that epistemological and methodological pluralism should be promoted in educational research so that researchers are informed about epistemological and methodological possibilities and, ultimately, so that we are able to conduct more effective research." (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004, p.

15). Therefore, the time has come for researchers to design interdisciplinary studies that complement one method with the other in investigating more complex problems. “We contend that epistemological and paradigmatic ecumenicalism is within reach in the research paradigm of mixed methods research”. (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004, p. 15). By utilizing a mixed methods approach the researcher was afforded a broader picture of the phenomenon observed and was able to better understand how the qualitative and quantitative data complemented and interacted with each other.

The mixed study design helped to find out if and how the transfer of knowledge took place among the seminar participants, as well as, if any change occurred in their thinking. Qualitative data helped to answer the questions, “What evidence did the participants demonstrate about their understanding of transformational leadership after the training and how did the participants express their conceptualizations of transformational leadership?” Quantitative data objectively helped to find out if any participants demonstrated change in their thinking. This mixed study gave more weight to the qualitative data and followed a concurrent embedded design (Creswell 2009) where both data were analyzed separately, and conclusions were drawn from both analyses. The researcher was particularly interested in how the participants responded to the learning activities designed to teach basic concepts of transformational leadership and to what extent the new knowledge on transformational leadership would encourage them to begin practicing a more transformational leadership style.

A phenomenological approach was applied to the qualitative data to discover how participants described their learning of transformational leadership. The approach is inductive in nature, which allowed themes and ideas to emerge from participants’ accountings of how they absorbed the information and what type of transfer of knowledge took place. A deductive approach was applied to the quantitative data to measure how much learning took place and how much change the participants wanted to make in their leadership practice. The mixed method design offered an interaction between the qualitative and quantitative data in drawing the conclusions for this study. By using mixed methods, richer evidence of the learning phenomenon became apparent during the training sessions.

Data Collection

Survey

To learn more about the participants, a survey was given before the two-day seminar on transformational leadership. The first part of the survey included: demographic information, length of experience, educational level, and current leadership position. The second portion consisted of 22 items taken from Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Bommer’s (1996) scale, namely their 1990 Transformational Leadership Behavioral Inventory (TLI), designed to assess a leader’s self-reported and subordinates’ perceived leadership style. The TLI measures six dimensions of transformational leadership. These include: “articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual

stimulation” (Podsakoff, et al., 1996, p. 265). The third portion of the survey was Bass and Avolio’s (1995) Organizational Description Questionnaire (ODQ). This twenty-eight-item questionnaire helps organizational members explore their leadership style within an organizational culture, in particular measuring how often organizational members perceive the culture of their organization using transformational or transactional leadership styles. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (7) “strongly agree” was used to assess all the constructs measured in sections two and three. Upon completing the two-day training, the same participants retook the same survey. Over 500 participants completed the pre-and post-survey.

Interviews

The researcher collected 20 written interviews from a purposeful selection of primary and secondary school principals and administrators in institutions of higher education, from the 13 training sites. The interview questions were semi-structured and probed such topics as, “What are your thoughts regarding the leadership training?” “What is the status of leadership training and development for educational leaders in India?” and “How is the leadership status in private versus government schools in India?”

Team Written Responses

During the transformational leadership training, teams consisting of no more than four participants, were given a toy manipulative (spinner, top, box of crayons, Rubik’s cube, slingshot, LEGO ® bricks). During the exercise, each team explored key concepts and application of transformational leadership using the toy manipulative. This exercise garnered 63 written team responses. Participation was invitational and the team activity took approximately 30 minutes.

Individual Written Responses

Participants were asked to voluntarily respond to a reflective question post the transformational leadership training. The question asked participants to explore what one change he or she would bring to their institution following the transformational leadership training. Written responses totaled 144.

Data Analyses

Demographic Data

The demographic characteristics of the participants in this study covered a wide range of differences. As Table 1 shows, the number of male and female participants are almost identical, as well for their job title: administrator and teacher/staff. Also, more than 66% of the participants have more than 10 years of experience, and the same percentage goes for level of education -66% have at least a Master’s degree-. Another important aspect to highlight from Table 1 is the number of participants that are Christians, which is greater than Hindus; this is important given that India is considered a Hindu country where Christians are the minority.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

	N	%
Male	92	51%
Female	89	49%
Administrator	93	51%
Teacher/Staff	88	49%
1-10 Years	64	35%
11-20 Years	68	38%
21-30 Years	21	12%
31+ Years	28	16%
Doctoral	10	6%
Master	111	61%
BA	60	33%

Quantitative Survey Analysis

As previously mentioned, participants were given a pre-test survey before the training to measure their current knowledge on the theories and practices of transformational leadership. At the end of the two-day training, the same participants were given a post-test to determine if the training had any impact on their way of thinking about leadership and their willingness to accept and create organizational leadership change in their institutions.

Table 2 suggests that the intervention, the two-day training, had no impact on the participants when comparing pre and posttest mean scores. Both means were approximately 5.6 in each case, with similar standard deviations of about 1.1. Again, this suggests that there is no difference between the groups, and this was confirmed by the t-statistic of -0.17, which was not significant with $p > 0.05$.

Table 2
Pre & Posttest Transformational Leadership Scores

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (217)
Pretest	5.60	1.12	-.17*
Posttest 5.61	1.10		

*Coefficient statistically non-significant at .05.

However, as shown on Table 3, when the demographic variables such as gender, religion, job title, and education level were compared for the effect on the mean difference pre and posttest, it was found that gender showed a significant impact with a t-statistic of -1.98, 216 degrees of freedom, and a p-value of less than 0.05. The remaining demographic variables

did not have any statistically significant difference in their pre and posttest scores.

For gender, the mean difference in post minus pre test scores was -0.19 in males, but 0.21 in females, suggesting that males had on average a lower post-test score by 0.19 points. That is, their leadership score went down after the intervention. However, females had an increase in leadership scores, having a post-test score higher by 0.21 points than pre-test. This suggests that gender interacts with the effect of the intervention and should be accounted for in the analysis.

Table 3
Mean Differences (Posttest- Pretest) by Demographic Attributes

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t (df)</i>
Male	-.19	1.49	-1.98* (216)
Female	.21	1.45	
Hinduism	-.11	1.96	.51 (166)
Christianity	.04	1.01	
Administrator -.11	1.45	-1.23	(214)
Teacher .14	1.48		
Graduate Ed	-.08	1.42	-1.52 (216)
Undergraduate .26	1.61		

* $p < .05$.

The next step in the quantitative evaluation was to run a multiple regression analysis (OLS) to predict difference scores. The results of the regression analysis predicting difference in the post-test minus pre-test scores are shown in Table 4.

As in the t-test analysis, gender appears to be significant with a p-value of 0.03 (less than alpha 0.05). The remaining variables were not significant with p-values greater than 0.05, although religion and education level did have p-values approaching 0.1.

The beta-coefficient for gender was 0.5 showing that females had on average an increase in post-test scores of about 0.5 units compared to males, with a standard error of 0.25.

Due to the fact that regression included many statically non-significant variables, the overall model was not significant with a F-statistic of 1.49, 6 degrees of freedom numerator and 161 degrees of freedom denominator, with a p-value of 0.185 (greater than 0.05). The R-square for the model was 0.05, showing that the model explained only 5% of the variation in the

difference between pre and posttest scores. This suggests that other variables not included in this analysis may be responsible for most of the variation in the scores. However, re-running the regression including only the significant variable of gender may have also increased the significance of the overall model.

Table 4
Results of OLS Regression Analysis Predicting Difference Scores

		B		SE		β		sig.
Constant		-1.09		.65				.10
Female		.53*		.25		.18		.18
Christianity		.37		.24		.12		.12
Graduate Ed		-.40		.26		-.13		.13
Administrator		-.02		.25		-.01		.93
Experience < 10 Years	.06		.29		.02		.84	
Experience < 20 Years	-.09		.30		-.03		.76	

Note. $F(6, 161) = 1.49$; $R^2 = .05$; $*p < .05$.

The results show that females appear to have the highest post-score leadership level, suggesting that the intervention was effective for mainly this demographic group. However, overall, the quantitative statistical results show that there is no significant difference in pre- and post-test scores, therefore the training did not have a positive impact on the participants overall.

Qualitative Interview Analysis

A series of three guiding interview questions were developed by the researcher. Then 20 purposefully chosen educational leaders, who participated in the transformational leadership training, completed, and submitted their written responses via email. In this way, the researcher could follow up with interviewees for any clarifying or additional information. The researcher asked: (1) what the participants thoughts were on the leadership training; (2) the status of educational leadership training and development in India; and (3) their view of leadership status in private and government schools in India.

The written interviews were manually analyzed inductively using a comparative method (Glaser and Strauss 1967) which allowed the researcher to code quotations into common concepts, continually add new quotations and codes, and compare similar coded quotations. This continuous comparison showed that after the first ten written responses, no new findings or views emerged, and saturation was reached. These codes were then combined into patterns and themes (LeCompte & Schensul 1999). Coding the data was carried out through a series of iterative steps that helped organize and link the data. During the coding, two researchers independently coded the written interviews. Resulting commonalities and

themes were reviewed. After completing the manual coding, the researcher team used NVivo software for analysis. The software helped to run coding queries and additional analysis. The use of NVivo, beyond its storage capabilities, helped the researcher gain a more accurate and transparent picture of the data and provided an additional layer of validity to the findings (Cresswell & Plano Clark 2018).

Interview analysis

The researcher focused on the second and third qualitative research questions that guided this study:

- How did the participants demonstrate their conceptualizations and thinking of transformational leadership?
- What barriers did the participants express as deterrents to transformational leadership?

Two primary themes emerged from the written interviews, which were collected from different educational organization leaders across the 13 training sites.

Theme 1

Interviewees expressed excitement about putting the knowledge they gained during the training into practice but reported that the training was too short to bring about change in leadership. While many Interviewees indicated they desire to continue to learn and apply transformational leadership to their own leadership and organization, they were unclear about how to begin. One interviewee expressed this theme clearly:

The participants enjoyed attending the sessions and they fully engaged in the training. However, how many of them would go back and change their ways of leading is not sure. Two-day training is not enough to bring change you have to do more than that (college president, female).

Another interviewee expressed her thoughts by saying, “You are teaching very interesting new ideas about leadership. Participants are... happy hearing what you say and then go back to their work do the same. Very few people would do anything to change” (school principal, female). Additionally, one interviewee wrote, “My goodness, they were such great ideas. I enjoyed learning about them and wished I could become a transformational leader” (school principal, male). Lastly, one interviewee expressed, “I really enjoyed the two days of your seminar. I learned new ideas about being a good principal. I would love to learn continuously about these ideas so that I can practice them” (school principal, female).

While most interviewees expressed how necessary and exciting it was to learn about transformational leadership, many of them qualified their responses with statements such as, “same old ways of leading,” “hold on to their positions without making much contribution,” “require a lot of work,” “I have to really think about it,” “leaders like to

control everything... and do not think they need training,” and “learning cannot be practiced because of the traditional system that is so strong in the schools.”

Theme 2

Interviewees struggle against leadership complacency, image, and traditional leadership models. These recurring barriers, to the implementation of transformational leadership within educational organizations, appear to be ingrained within the leadership culture in India. When asked about leadership training and development, most interviewees referred to the need for the government to require leadership training and implementation. Two interviewees bluntly wrote with regard to transformational leadership:

It is a great idea but that won't happen in India because we are fully stuck in the traditional leadership system. Teachers will do anything I tell them to do. Most of the principals like me don't feel the need for training in leadership since we have done it for many years (school principal, male).

If only our government should make it mandatory for leaders to be training in leadership, it would be done. Otherwise, the same old system of leadership would continue. In general principals and college leaders do not think they need the leadership training (school administrator, female).

One interviewee reported, “I have been a principal for many years... and have done well. I am a traditional leader and expect people under me to follow their job expectations and do well in their work.” He further elaborates that while “learning new things about leadership would be good for school leaders but since that is not required by the government no one feels the need for getting training in leadership” (program director, male). Another interviewee summed up complacency, “Basically, they don't want to change, and they don't bother about changing and bring improvements in themselves.” He further elaborated by saying, “in general leaders do whatever comes to their mind they don't think, study or plan for improvement in the school or in their ways of dealing with the teachers and students” (president of research association, male).

Qualitative Team Responses

The researcher focused on the second qualitative research questions that guided this study:

- How did the participants demonstrate their conceptualizations and thinking of transformational leadership?

Mixed methods research can be useful in addressing research problems for which only one data source may be inadequate and fail to tell the whole story. In this case, the researcher believes that in order to better respond to their research question, different types of qualitative data could help evaluate the transformational leadership training. Cresswell et al. (2018) writes that mixed methods research may enhance and help understand the nuances of the research question. This additional field data helped the researcher reach new insights as to

how participants demonstrated their conceptualization and thinking of transformational leadership. During the transformational leadership training, the researcher asked the participants to break up into teams consisting of no more than four participants. Each team was given a toy manipulative (spinner, top, box of crayons, Rubik's cube, slingshot, LEGO ® bricks) and were asked to apply the transformational leadership concepts learned during the training. This exercise required an understanding of transformational leadership behaviors and characteristics. The exercise further required imagination and cooperation amongst the team.

Within the 63 team responses, 16 themes emerged for which participants applied transformational leadership learned knowledge. These include from most to least applied: goals or vision, teamwork, flexible and adaptable, movement towards change, shared knowledge, democratic, potential, relational, transformational, focus or concentration, integrity or ethics, and communication. The write ups of how the participating teams applied their learning to their manipulative allowed the researcher to gather additional information.

To bring focus, the researchers looked at the top five themes and the corresponding summaries gleaned from the team written responses (Table 5).

Table 5
Five Most Prominent Themes and Group Responses

Theme	Group responses
Goal, Vision	"Emphasizes goal setting" (a) "achieving the goals of the organization" (b) "leader also should have patience when faced with difficulties in achieving the target goals" (d) "a top teaches that it transforms a vision into reality" (a) "shows that a leader must have a good vision" (c) "emphasizes setting goals" (e)
Teamwork	"Rubik's cube teaches that problem solving requires team effort" (d) "...the legos...can be brought together by connecting with each other" (f) "strength in unity" (f) "it teaches togetherness" (a) "...shows the importance of the leader and follower working together" (a) "participation of everyone is important and breaking the link is not accepted" (d) "create oneness" (d)

Flexible, Adaptable	“A catapult shows the following characteristics of a transformational leader... flexibility” (e) “Leaders should...be flexible” (e) “flexibility in the way a leader leads because a spinner can run in the opposite direction” (c) “spinner represents... thinking outside the box” (c) “understand multiple possibilities” (d)
Movement towards change	“act according to the needs risen in each situation he/she faces” (b) “different qualities... we can create a nice picture” (b) “fuel towards growth and development” (a) “concerned with improving the performance of all the workers in the organization” (c) “spinner represents the following characteristics of a leader... change in attitude” (c) “adaptability to change” (e) “be ready to change” (d)
Shared Knowledge	“Receiving the ideas of all members to plan for the improvement of the institution” (f) “join the dots to create a cohesive picture” (b) “provides an organization... the element of synchronizing efforts” (d) “Brainstorming and planning to achieve a common goal are important” (d) “brings innovative ideas to reach the target” (e)

top. (b) crayon box. (c) spinner. (d) Rubik’s cube. (e) slingshot or catapult. (f) LEGO ® bricks.

The application of transformational leadership and its subsequent themes demonstrated by group responses that participants were able to apply key transformational leadership characteristics through inanimate objects. This affirmatively answered the researcher’s question on whether participants were able to demonstrate their conceptualizations and thinking of transformational leadership.

Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The purpose of this research was to find out how much the two-day transformational leadership training would impact participants’ thinking about transformational leadership and their willingness to accept and create organizational leadership change within their organizations. Additionally, it sought to find out how Indian leaders ingrained in the traditional Eastern leadership style and culture, would respond to Western conceptualizations of transformational leadership. When the separate analyses of the quantitative and qualitative datasets were completed, it became clear that the two-day transformational leadership training made no significant impact on the majority of participants’ thinking with regards

to change in leadership style. In the quantitative data, comparing the mean scores of participants' pre- and post-survey quantitative data, both means were approximately 5.6 (Table 2), with similar standard deviations of about 1.1. This suggests that there is no difference between the groups, and this was confirmed by the t-statistic of -0.17, which was not significant with $p > 0.05$. In the qualitative data, when interview accounts were coded, it was clear that while the two-day transformational leadership training was well received and caused initial excitement, the qualifying statements and barriers presented within the responses showed that the training made no significant impact on participants' thinking and willingness to accept and create organizational change. This can be summarized:

The leadership training was very good. The participants enjoyed attending... and they fully engaged...(but)... how many of them would go back and change their ways of leading is not sure. Very few leaders in India really change and become efficient. They are usually content with the way they do their work since they do not go through any training. Only a very few want to act and be proactive to make their organization better. Most of the leaders are engaged in the old ways of leading putting much control in everything (college president, female).

This synopsis emphasizes the traditional leadership style dominating Indian culture and how Western conceptualizations in leadership continue to be rejected in favor of following the status quo. (Heidi find research) Therefore, the mixed method evidence failed to demonstrate participants understanding and willingness to apply transformational leadership qualities into their own leadership paradigm.

However, participants' responses to the second research question through written interviews and team exercises, show a clear and positive indication that engagement, demonstration, and learning took place in the training. Other data responses and reflections collected after the trainings unmistakably illustrate that Indian leaders are interested in strengthening their respective school cultures, learning environments, teaching methods, personal leadership characteristics, and management or systemic change.

Limitations of the study

There are two distinct limitations to this study. First of all, this was a two-day only training, and it was felt by most of the participants that it was too brief, and they could not really integrate what they learned into their daily administrative practices. They needed more time to process what they had learned and receive guidance to apply what they learned in the training session. It was originally planned as a six-week training but the institutions that agreed to do the training could not integrate that time period into their academic schedule. Therefore, they agreed to have a two-day training session and that model was followed in all the 13 institutions that agreed to have the training.

Next, the transformational leadership concepts taught were too different from the type of leadership they had practiced. Newly learned ideas were against the cultural norms they were used to. Although the participants did not show any resistance for change, but they showed evidences of their feelings of inability to change. Their inability to change

did not come from the concepts they learned about transformational leadership but other factors such as their dominant autocratic administrative culture limiting them in making significant change in their leadership practice. Leaders continued to be autocratic leaders because there was no resistance from the followers to change. They were cognitively able to understand transformational leadership, but the cultural barriers constrained change in leadership styles. However, there were evidences showing that some individual change was occurring in the thinking of some of the female participants which also can be considered as a limitation.

Conclusions

This study clearly showed that the transformational leadership training did not make any significant change among the majority of the participants. However, the results showed that females, Christians, and undergraduates appeared to have the highest post-score leadership level, suggesting that the intervention was effective for mainly these demographic groups. The older male with more education did not show much change this could be because of their established leadership practice and cultural divergence that characterized their stance in this matter. They demonstrated the tendency to retain what they know instead of adapting to the new information. The data also suggests that females were more “open” and willing to change their leadership behavior whereas males were “less open”. This study also shows that the cultural cluster according to different regions made a lot of sense in understanding this study.

This study attempted to teach the western conceptualization of transformative leadership style to groups of educators from the Southern Asia region. Looking at one’s cross-cultural factors influencing learning of new ideas makes this study very significant in a global environment. It shows that knowledge from one regional cultural cluster should be relevant and practical in the regions where the information is shared. Although the concepts drawn from transformational leadership style were interesting and appealing to the participants, they were not able to absorb the information fully and integrate the learned ideas in their daily practice. In other words, full convergence of integrating transformational leadership did not take place. The participants were converging to the ideas learned but their organizational contexts seeped in the traditional cultural domain made them divergent to what they learned. The participants responses for the training activities showed that transformational leadership ideas were very appealing to them, and they had an intense desire to apply them in their work but there were too many barriers deterring them. The study showed clearly that the participants were in a locked-management system that was inflexible and resistant to change.

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EDITORIAL

ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES TO BRING IN A CHANGE FOR IMPROVEMENT IN EDUCATION

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All nations make efforts to improve their educational system. Resources available in a nation and the efficiency in optimum utilisation of these resources result in improvements of the system. In UK, House of Commons, UK, Committee of Public Accounts, (2018), p.4 stated that “In 2017 there were 112 institutions termed ‘alternative providers’ offering higher education. These institutions do not receive government grants directly but do access public funding through student loans which are used to pay their fees.” In a study of US situation, nine strategies for world class education system, suggested by Tucker (2016, pp.7-13) were:

1. Provide strong support for children and their families before students arrive at school.
2. Develop world-class, highly coherent instructional systems.
3. Provide more resources for at-risk students than for others.
4. Create clear gateways for students through the system, set to global standards, with no dead ends.
5. Assure an abundant supply of highly qualified teachers.
6. Redesign schools to be places in which teachers will be treated as professionals, with incentives and support to continuously improve their professional practice and the performance of their students.
7. Create an effective system of career and technical education and training.
8. Create a leadership development system that develops leaders at all levels to manage such systems effectively.
9. Institute a governance system that has the authority and legitimacy to develop coherent, powerful policies and can implement them at scale.

Many developed nations have been allowing alternate [providers in addition to existing conventional providers. Referring to UK higher education system, A few suggestions to make the education system flexible and innovative and appropriately prepare future-ready students across levels of education and segments of income in India may be:

1. Modification of Acts Related to Central and State School Examination Boards and Councils for following strategies::

1.1 Giving autonomy to schools to develop and implement curriculum

The Incheon Declaration giving stress on quality assurance in education recommended provision of flexible learning pathways, as well as the recognition, validation and accreditation of the knowledge, skills and competencies acquired through non-formal and informal education, is important. (UNESCO 2015a, p. 8). Various education commissions and committees at international level have argued for learner-centered education and

granting more decision making power to schools. “Granting more decision-making power to schools can have a positive impact on learning outcomes when leveraged properly. However, it has also made the role of school leader more challenging and complex, with school leaders reporting heavier workloads.” (OECD 2018, p.2). The process of giving autonomy to schools in OECD countries started in early 1980s. OECD (2018, p.3) mentions following scenario found in OECD countries:

“The level of decision making, and degree of autonomy also depends on the type, or domain, of decisions being taken. Significant differences within and between countries emerge when comparing domains. On average across OECD countries and economies, schools or local governments make 63% of decisions related to the organisation of instruction – but only about 20% are taken in full autonomy. In the Czech Republic and the Netherlands, schools take all the decisions about the organisation of instruction, but mostly within a framework set by a higher authority. Decisions on planning and structures, and personnel management, tend to be more centralised – on average, about 50% of planning and structure decisions and 35% of personnel management decisions are taken at the central or state level. Even when these decisions are devolved to the local or school levels, they rarely have full autonomy. There is also a clear difference in where the authority lies for decisions about the allocation of resources compared with decisions about their use.” (OECD 2018, p.3).

A World Bank study on challenges of school autonomy in Brazil, Canada, Colombia, and England (UK) stated that

“Principals in autonomous schools are called upon to constantly negotiate between top-down demands (achievement levels, legal agreements and regulations, constituency relationships) and internal, or bottom up demands (teacher’s professional development and personal needs, student learning and behavior).” (Rodriguez & Hovde 2002, p.7).

A school head may get the joy of carrying out innovations in content to be taught and teaching techniques to be involved but also faces additional responsibility.

The curriculum and its textbooks need to differentiate between a school having Wi-Fi and a school not having electricity, a school having highly educated parents and a school having first-generation learners, the school having students getting benefits of private tuition and others just attending school with poor quality food at home, the students wishing to pursue higher education and the students wishing to get restricted (limited) to school education.

A learner-centered curriculum necessitates options for students to study a subject. Free progress system of education followed at the Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education allows students at secondary stage to choose subjects for their study. This institution provides education up to the degree stage. A letter issued at the end of the degree course mentions subjects completed, not marks or grades secured by the students and this

course completion letter is considered as equivalent to a degree by the central universities for allowing them to appear at PG entrance tests.

Governments in order to provide textbooks for students of compulsory education classes undertake textbook productions so that textbooks can be of quality and are available in time. Textbooks contain certain topics that need periodic updating at intervals. Due to error in estimation, there are instances that such textbooks may continue, even with outdated facts and figures. Privatisation of textbook production for compulsory classes may double the expenditure to be borne by the government. On the other hand, government carrying out textbook publishing is a serious obstacle for a flexible and innovative school curriculum. "Companies involved in textbook publishing, assessments, online learning content and education technologies can dominate education systems and affect core provision." (UNESCO 2020, p.3). In India, the huge machinery employed by the national government through NCERT and school boards and councils and textbook bureaus at the state levels making such textbooks compulsory for their schools once printed continues for a number of years till the books are exhausted even if data in them are obsolete and outdated. Nations interested in learner centered education go appropriately prepared text books which are to be selected by the schools keeping in view the nature of the student population.

In order to make innovations bring life into the school education system, ten ideas for 21st century education listed by Hampson, Patton, and Shanks (2013) are: 1. Open up lessons; 2. Think outside the classroom box; 3. Get personal; 4. Tap into students' digital expertise; 5. Get real with projects; 6. Expect (and help) students to be teachers; 7. Help (and expect) teachers to be students; 8. Measure what matters; 9. Work with families, not just children; and 10. Power to the student. There have been efforts to measure innovations. Increase in educational innovations has led to an explosion of evidence on how people learn. Innovations in developing 21st-century skills are much needed, but these skills work best in conjunction with strong foundational abilities. According to World Bank (2018, p. 209) for an open system of education the principles for encouraging innovation and agility in approaches to improving learning may be:

1. Adopting a more iterative and adaptive approach to the design and implementation of policies;
2. Identifying promising solutions from within the education system, as well as the global knowledge base;
3. Developing the capability of education agencies, an enabling environment, and autonomy to encourage innovation.
4. Establishing information systems that provide rapid feedback to support implementation.

Government institutions may go for developing an enabling environment and incentives for innovation and a more iterative approach and the Civil society and private sector providers: may go for experimentation with different approaches to improving learning.

Vincent-Lancrin et al. (2014, p. 12) stated that in case of all participating countries in international surveys such as PISA, TIMSS and PIRLS, key findings included “ large increases in innovative pedagogical practices in areas such as relating lessons to real life, higher order skills, data and text interpretation, and personalisation of teaching.” Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) conducted by OECD stated that

“The ability of teachers to innovate could be demonstrated through a range of actions: a new way to organise the classroom into teams, a hands-on activity associated with the real life of students, and the use of classroom presentations in student groups to assess learning and collaborative skills, etc. However, in order to try new approaches to facilitate student learning, teachers’ openness to change is essential.” (OECD 2019a, p.4)

OECD conducts PISA at intervals. Latest PISA has placed Singapore at the top position. OECD (2019b, p. 250) reported about the achievement of Singapore with respect to its range of commitments for innovation, including the introduction of a Programme for Active Learning at primary level and Learning for Life and Applied Learning Programmes for students at secondary level. However, in the case of Singapore credit for high level performance of school students need also to be given to the shadow education system available on extra payment. Tan (2017, p.315) pointed out that “The phenomenon of parentocracy has contributed to educational inequalities in Singapore as children from more privileged home backgrounds have access to more educational resources and opportunities.” The Education Commission (2019, p. 20) stated that in order to address individual needs of learners, schools and systems need to explore innovative learning configurations, including technology-assisted learning, so that learners have access to a wider variety of knowledge sources and ways of learning.

1.2 Allowing students not wishing to appear at school board examinations, to leave school with a course completion letter mentioning the subjects studied and not indicating any grade in any subject, and mentioning attributes such as regularity in attendance, sincerity, etc.

Private tutoring has resulted in a parallel education system in unorganised sector. It is not deep rooted not only in underdeveloped and developing countries but also in developed countries. Dang and Rogers (2008, p. 197) reported that “The evidence that private tutoring raises achievement in the United States is overwhelming.” In India, as resources vary from one segment of the country to another and also the number of teachers per primary classroom size varies from one primary school to another, instead of the rights to education act of the central government. State governments providing subsidised food for workers in urban areas and adequate ration for poor families do not have funds to fill up teacher vacancies. Schools not having an adequate number of teachers cannot implement the same curriculum that is applicable to schools having at least one teacher per class and this situation necessitates a different curriculum for individual schools based on available material resources, level of education of parents and guardians, utilisation of shadow education facilities, and other factors.

1.3 Allowing any individual to appear at the examinations in one or more than one subject to measure his/her learning level

Modes of effective learning vary from one individual to another. One can learn by listening to a talk, another can learn by writing what was heard by him / her, etc. Besides there has been a plethora of self-learning and learning outside school opportunities.

“Learning-related support goods and services: Supplementary private tutoring, especially to improve performance in high stakes examinations, is a widespread phenomenon that is often overlooked in analyses of non-state activity in education. It has recently been making inroads even in high-income countries. It can be provided in homes or online, through small or large tutoring companies, or as part of an extended school day in schools.” (UNESCO 2020, p.3).

India, since there has been much advances in self-learning and home learning opportunities in form of learning with the help of mobile, internet, etc. in addition to attending coaching classes or learning at home with the assistance from parents or tutors and need for giving a boost to lifelong learning efforts the education system needs to transform itself to a lifelong learning platform by allowing subject wise examinations and not insisting on school attendance as a condition and also to go for subject wise examination and certification for regular school students.

2. Going for Appropriate changes in the Constitution to Bring All Types of Minority Managed Schools and Private Schools Covering Kindergarten to Class 8 (Age Groups 3 To 14) and Bring Appropriate Changes in Right To Education Act to Increase the Level of Equity in School Education

The scenario of privatisation and voucher system in school education in the United States was highlighted by Trevino-Mintrop et al. (2018, p.8) as follows:

“Supporters of vouchers and privatization believe that they will expand alternatives to traditional public schools, especially for students who do not have access to a quality education, and that competition will inevitably motivate schools to improve quality. Opponents believe that school vouchers and privatization will take money away from the traditional public-school system, with the effects of exacerbating inequalities, benefiting only a few, and leaving the majority of students behind. In addition, they argue that public tax money would be **funnelled** to sectarian interests (religious schools, for example); democratic governance would weaken; and a shared national culture and sense of citizenship across class, ethnicity, and religion would erode.”

Boninger, Molnar and Murray (2017, p. 3) reporting on schoolhouse commercialisation in the United States stated that

“As schools continue to integrate technologies into every aspect of school life, those technologies are being harnessed to amplify corporate marketing and profit-making, extending the reach of commercializing activities into every aspect of

students' school lives. Although marketers' school-focused efforts are often billed as "innovative" and "out-of-the-box," many of them are little more than repackaged marketing strategies that over the years have been seen again and again."

To take care of non-equity in the US school education, Mead, and Eckes (2018, p.17) suggested that

"States must ensure that each of its educational programs provides equal educational opportunities. To the extent that states have determined that voucher programs and charter schools are part of the menu of educational opportunities, those programs must also ensure equitable access to both students and employees. To do anything else is to return to the days of separate and inherently unequal education."

In India, there is too much gap between schools for the rich and schools for the general public. There are also low fee charging schools in the vicinity of the government schools. Provision of a few seats for lower income groups is not an appropriate panacea to ensure appropriate level of equity. Taking over these schools by the State governments may lead to having two separate sections-English medium and state language medium and also to increase in teacher salary. Since pre-independence days, there are high fee charging Public Schools, which have various facilities, including swimming pools, horse riding etc. that mainly catered to the sons and daughters of royal families. In order to increase the level of equity, such schools may be nationalised and admissions to such schools may be based on a talent test open to all, as is being done in case of Navodaya Vidyalayas. English mediums may continue to be allowed in these schools.

3. Carrying out Modification in Acts Related to Teacher Qualifications and Teacher Training at the National Level and Authorise the States to Take Appropriate Steps to Encourage Alternative Mode of Teacher Training by Empowering Selected Schools to Select and Appoint Individuals with or without the Traditional Teacher Training Qualification and Train Them on the Job in Their Own Way

Towards the end of the twentieth century, the United States empowered selected schools to adopt the above strategy of school-based teacher selection from among individuals without any teacher training and train them on the job. The State has Harvard University, which has a famous department of education that also administers teacher training programmes. Harvard University has not been able to produce any documentary evidence that proves that university-trained teachers are better than school-trained teachers.

A similar situation is also in the United Kingdom.

"The latest initiative in England, School Direct, which was formally commenced in 2012, has resulted in teacher education becoming school led as well as school based. This new and expanding one-year postgraduate route often runs in parallel with the previously existing one-year university-led model but has demanded that the academic element of training is fitted more directly around the demands of immediate practice in schools. Here trainee teachers spend most of their training

period in schools under their direction, with universities providing accreditation but a smaller component of training.” (Brown,, Rowley, & Smith 2015, p.5).

According to US Miami–Dade County Public Schools Research Services (2012, pp. 7-8) characteristics of effective alternative certificate routes include (a) High standards and rigorous screening of candidates; (b) Strong academic coursework component, (c) Opportunities for practice teaching before candidates enter the classroom, (d) A comprehensive system of support provided to teachers after they enter the classroom, and (e) Community partnerships. According to this study, a few examples of noteworthy alternative certification programs are : (a) Teach for America (TFA), (b) The New Teacher Project (TNTP), (c) The American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE), (d) New York City’s Teaching Fellows Program and (e) The U.S. Department of Defense established Troops to Teachers (TTT).

Cardichon et al. (2020, p.10) referred to preparation of high-quality teachers through teacher residency programmes which have been successful in United States in recruiting talented candidates into high-need fields and locations and enabling such residents receive training under the mentorship of an accomplished master teacher while earning a credential and a master’s degree from a partnering university and allowing such candidates work as paid apprentices under the guidance of skilled expert teachers (not faculty members of teacher training institutions) .

As in India, teacher training programmes are being run by one or two faculty members posted as regular teachers in many Departments of Education of Central Universities, State Universities, and State Government Teacher training institutions. It is likely that such types of teacher trainees are coming out through fraud strategies, and on entering the teaching profession, they will harm the school students more than untrained teachers. On February 25, 2020 at the Economic Times New Age Education Symposium held in Mumbai city, a head of a school claimed that he can train teachers in a better way than being imparted by formal teacher training programmes. There are broadly two categories of schools which may be authorised to select and appoint individuals with or without the traditional teacher training qualification and train them on the job in their own way. First category may be high quality schools selected on the basis of specified guidelines. Second category may be government schools which do not have one teacher per class and have persons in the locality who can be taken as a volunteer teacher or a part time or temporary teacher, whose remuneration is paid by the school managing committee or a philanthropist in the community or by the concerned state government.

4. Empowering the Universities and Other Examining Bodies to Allow Any Individual With or Without any Admission in Any Teacher Training Institution to Appear at the Conventional Bachelor of Education and Diploma in Education Examinations

As since a few years, there are many Bachelor of Education degree holders coming out from many departments of education of Central Universities and Colleges of Education of State Universities and state governments although these institutions did not have a

faculty member who had studied the method of teaching at his /her degree stage, in which the candidate passed practical test of teaching school students, justifies the hypotheses that practical work training can be self-learned, there need not be any compulsion on pursuing a regular course with stipulate percentage of attendance to appear at Bachelor of Education examinations and hence, the law governing teacher training be amended accordingly.

5. Empowering Universities and Other Examining Bodies to Allow any Individual with or without Any Admission in Any College or University Department to Appear at the Conventional Bachelor or Master Level examinations

Current world scenario is dominated by a shadow education system, running parallel to formal system and although widening the gap in educational opportunity between haves and have nots, have contributed to extra learning opportunities for a section.

“Supplementary private tutoring, especially to improve performance in high stakes examinations, is a widespread phenomenon that is often overlooked in analyses of non-state activity in education. It has recently been making inroads even in high-income countries. It can be provided in homes or online, through small or large tutoring companies, or as part of an extended school day in schools.” (UNESCO 2020, p.3). “Companies involved in textbook publishing, assessments, online learning content and education technologies can dominate education systems and affect core provision.” (UNESCO 2020, p.3)

The World Education Forum 2015 pointed out that increased availability of, and access to, diverse sources of knowledge have led to expansion of less structured and more innovative learning and rapid growth in recognition of the importance and relevance of learning taking place outside formal institutions (UNESCO 2015b, p.15). In the Indian situation, there are many Indigenous storytellers who are highly learned in Sanskrit literature without having any formal degree not to speak of school leaving certificates. Learning levels of such scholars can get a boost by giving them opportunities to appear at various Sanskrit Graduation level or Post Graduate level examinations. Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education, Puducherry issues a letter at the end of the degree course that mentions subjects completed, not marks or grades secured by the students and this course completion letter is considered as equivalent to degree by the central universities for allowing them to appear at PG entrance tests.

6. Ensuring Adequate Funds for Strengthening Government run Primary Education by Diverting Funds for Higher Education and Facilitating Privatisation of Higher Education along with Appropriate Machinery to Ensure Quality and Check Profiteering

Privatisation of higher education is now a reality even in socialist countries.

“Over the past three decades, the idea of privatization in education has been widely embraced by governments around the world and often supported by certain inter-governmental organizations whose ideological commitment to privatization stems from the proximity of their mission to market ideologies and economic concerns.

This has been accompanied by the interests of powerful transnational corporations in promoting privatization and even the attitude towards the privatization of education of many socially-committed nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and governments of socialist persuasion, such as Vietnam and China.”(Rizvi 2016, p.2)

OECD (2019c, p.2) pointing out speedy rise of private funding by tertiary educational institutions stated, “Between 2010 and 2016, private expenditure on these institutions increased more quickly than public expenditure.” UNESCO (2020, p.3) stated that “The share of students in private universities is as high as 73% in Brazil and 80% in the Republic of Korea. It has increased in countries such as Finland and Mongolia but decreased in Colombia and Portugal.” However, Sørensen and Taneja (2016, p. 105) disapproving the attempt to go for Private Public Partnerships (PPPs) stated that “The only sustainable alternative to privatisation is to strengthen and transform public education through sustained and adequate financial commitments to free, quality, equitable and accountable public education for all.” Eats (2016, p. 96) pointed out that there may not be any harm in utilising services of private organisations willing to “to invest in solutions to education problems.

In India, since many state governments have been failing to make adequate financial provision to ensure at least one teacher per class in its government primary school, it shall be futile to discuss equity and privatisation of higher education. Again, several private universities have been able to get students from developing and underdeveloped countries, as these students consider the quality of higher education is better in India than in their own countries. Some of these universities have also established linkages with a few universities in developed countries. However, state and central governments may need to strengthen their mechanisms to control the profiteering motive of these universities.

7. Formulating Policy on the Basis of Evidences Collected for Various Types of Suggestions Generated in the Policy Formulation Process and also to Take into Account the Widening Educational Achievement Gap Between the Poor and the Rich Justification

World Education Forum 2015 gave stress on the role of evidence in formulation of policy for improving access, retention and quality of education and to provide more cost-effective provision of quality education, taking into consideration rising demands for education and increasing pressures on limited financial resources by allowing smart and effective investment (UNESCO 2015b, p. 25). Developed nations are having evidence-based education policies. Arakawa and Kayashima (2016, p.81) reported that Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) Research Institute (<https://www.jica.go.jp/jica-ri/>) since its establishment in 2008. has been furnishing evidence-based policies and practical recommendations to several sectors. “Designing and implementing policies based on evidence is a key aspect of the whole teacher education pathway” (OECD 2019d, p.22). In India, the current process of policy formulation has come out two drafts with certain new ideas which have not pointed out supporting evidence. For instance, the latest policy draft document stipulates replacement of one or two year B. Ed. Programmes, although no study is available in the public domain that indicates four year B.Ed. course after +2 is better

than one year B.Ed. course after a degree. The draft policy document proposes a four-year Bachelor of Liberal Arts course, to be introduced in addition to existing three-year degree courses, although in developed countries one finds shorter duration degree courses. The rapid change engulfing the world education system was highlighted as follows:

“The unprecedented digital transformation of the global economy and society is likely to increase the complexity of the modern world, as well as the speed of change, largely because of increased connectivity and more educated individuals worldwide. These two elements – complexity and speed of change – mean that connecting education to the trends shaping the world we live in has never been so urgent” (OECD 2019e, p.13).

The educational strategies suggested by the international bodies may need to be analysed in underdeveloped and developing countries keeping in view their own geographical condition, material, and human resources. For instance, UNESCO stress on integrated education of the disabled by making disabled children study in the school closest to their homes may not get implemented in areas which do not have public transport facilities. About two decades ago, the author had gone for inspection of the IED scheme. On the day of the visit, the IED resource teacher was missing, as were many students, who come from nearby villages. The author paid a visit to the home of an absentee, who stays in a village 5 Kms away from the school. The student’s guardian was a tailor, and he did not have time to take the child to the school personally, although he produced the passbook that indicated payment of money for transport. Hence, perhaps in such situations, instead of payment of transport charges, hostels for physically handicapped may be essential.

8.Improving Quality of Educational Governance

Educational governance is carried out at various levels. In India, educational governance system varies from one State to another. However, “Strategic knowledge governance involves identifying evidence gaps, coordinating and systematising existing evidence, and building new evidence.” (OECD 2019d, p.13).

9. Increasing Funding for School Education

As the present standard of educational governance in poor states does not allow a teacher per class in primary schools, should central legislations governing school education including the Right to Education Act be modified to give autonomy to States to charge tuition fees and fees for mid-day meals from non-poor families?

10.Improving Quality of Teacher Training Based on the Evidences from the Field

Many advanced nations collect evidence from the field to take appropriate steps for improving the quality of their education system. Our nation may go for following types of evidence collection strategies:

1.1 Rating school teacher education institutions based on performance of their products in TETs
Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.162) stated that “With focus on outcome, teacher education institutions could be rated on the basis of the scores in the eligibility tests.”

1.2 *Rating school teacher education courses based on performance of their products in TETs*

The nation has now varieties of teacher education courses of varying durations after higher secondary stage. To decide the continuation of all these courses, it is essential to have an evaluation of these courses by comparing performance of their products who have taught in schools for at least three years.

10.3 *Rating performance of teacher educators teaching method subjects*

(a) **Content knowledge level:** The teacher educators, who have been teaching method courses, can be broadly put into two categories – (a) Faculty with degree level content knowledge and (b) Faculty with post graduate level content knowledge. The performances of these two categories can be compared by studying performance of their products and comparing the opinion of concerned teachers about their own teacher educators who guided them on teaching that method subject.

(b) **School teaching experience level:** The teacher educators, who have been teaching method courses, can be broadly put into two categories – (a) Faculty with prior school teaching experience and (b) Faculty without school teaching experiences. The performances of these two categories can be compared by studying performance of their products and comparing the opinion of concerned teachers about their own teacher educators who guided them on teaching that method subject. The institutions which have these two categories of teacher educators may also go for comparing their supervisory performance by comparing their observations on lessons supervised by them.

(c) *Rating performance of teacher educators Supervising Internship Programmes*

The teacher educators, who have been supervising internship programmes can be broadly put into two categories – (a) Faculty with M.Ed./ M.A.(Education) degree and (b) Faculty without M.Ed./ M.A.(Education) degree. The performances of these two categories can be compared by studying performance of their products and comparing the opinion of concerned schoolteachers about their own teacher educators who supervised their lessons. The institutions which has these two categories of teacher educators may also go for comparing their supervisory performance by comparing their observations on lessons supervised by them.

(d) *Rating performance of teacher educators having (a) M.A. (Education) and (b) M.Ed.*

The faculty of teacher educators, who have been working as assistant / associate professors and professors of Education can be broadly put into two categories – (a) Faculty with M.A., degrees and (b) Faculty with M. Ed, degrees. The performances of these two categories can be compared by studying performance of their products and comparing the opinion of concerned school teachers about their own teacher educators.

11. National Performance Standards for Teachers, Teacher Educators and Teacher Education Institutions for School Stage

Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.163) suggested development of “national performance standards for teachers, teacher educators and teacher education institutions.

12. Improving Process of Selection, Licensing System and Performance of School Teachers

1.1 *Successful internship for three years as a condition for teacher license*

Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.163), while suggesting teacher license system suggested exploring, “possibilities for internship for three years before getting a ‘license’”

1.2 *Renewal of teacher license every 5 years*

Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.162) stated that “Teachers could be required to renew their certifications periodically so such that they continue to invest in their own development. Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.163), while suggesting teacher license system suggested that “teachers should have avenues open for retraining for other jobs they may want to take,”

13. Periodic Evaluation of Performance of School Teachers

Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.163) proposed that “A well-defined system of teacher performance appraisal (based on teacher competencies, teacher performance, efforts made by the teachers to transact learning-related processes in the classroom and learning levels) would be introduced in stages.” Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.163) suggested introduction of “a system of teacher evaluation based on attendance, effective teaching, evaluation of classroom work and so on,”

14. Establishing a National Mission on Teachers and Teaching

Planning Commission (2012, p.85, Art. 21.164) stated that

“During the Twelfth Plan, a National Mission on Teachers and Teaching would be launched so that issues of teacher education are dealt with in a holistic manner. This would also strengthen institutional mechanisms for strengthening vertical and lateral linkages. This would consolidate and strengthen ongoing programmes related to teachers and teaching through effective coordination and synergy by significantly enhancing the investment.”

The proposed national mission may establish a National Centre for Teaching Quality in School Education in the Department of Teacher Education in NCERT and National Centre for Teaching Quality in Higher Education in the Inter University Centre for Teacher Education of the UGC located at Varanasi.

Activities of these missions at the national level may be:

- a) Initiating a mentoring Programme for beginning teachers
- b) Developing support materials for use by institutions in providing support to beginning teachers
- c) Developing guidelines for mentors in techniques of providing support and guidance to beginning teachers

- d) Supporting establishment of State Centre for Teaching Quality in School Education in the SCERTs and Centres for Teaching Quality in Higher Education in every university level institution.
- e) Developing professional standards for teachers
- f) Running Online courses for Teaching Excellence (participation on payment basis)
- g) Development of Topic wise and Stage wise Annotated Bibliography of Print Publications available in its own library and Online Resources and encouraging state SCERTs and all university level institutions to do so.
- h) Recognising excellence in Teaching by Instituting Senior Fellowships, Fellowships and Associate Fellowships for serving teachers to be awarded on the basis of applications supported by evidence of their expertise and Honorary Fellowships for retired teachers considering their contributions to the education system

15. Upgrading Diploma Courses and the Institutions Offering These Courses to College Stage
(Planning Commission (2012, p.83, Art. 21.154) suggested that

“Diploma in Education programmes for teachers for the elementary stage currently imparted by DIETs and other independent institutes should be progressively upgraded to degree programmes and these institutions could be upgraded as undergraduate colleges affiliated to the universities.”

To implement the above suggestion, the Central government may consider to modify its scheme of assistance for DIETs and BIETs and the State governments may consider to modify their provision for DIETs, BIETs, and other teacher training institutions providing pre-job training of elementary and pre-school teachers.

16. Establishing a National Centre for Education Policy

The 12th Five-year Plan document of the Government of India pointing out necessity for undertaking policy research in higher education stated that:

“India does not have any major higher education research centre or a group of researchers focusing on this key subject. Higher education as an academic subject is not taught at Indian universities. As a result, there is a dearth of dependable, reliable, fact-based, unbiased, ideology-neutral policy information about Indian higher education. It is important for the country to create an ecosystem for higher quality policy research on higher education. In the Twelfth Plan, a network of centres for higher education research located at institutions that have the expertise for such research activity will be created.” (Planning Commission 2012, Art. 21.334, p. 122).

The Central government may consider setting up a National Centre for Educational Policy

in the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi.

CONCLUSION

Learner centered education, lifelong learning pursuits, learning from the womb to tomb, personalised learning, personalised teaching, self- learning and such other strategies demand the transformation of the existing education system to make the nation accelerate its process of becoming a lifelong learning nation. A few issues mentioned above are suggestive, however, they do not represent the totality.

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ONLINE TEACHING OF SPANISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO INDIAN LEARNERS DURING COVID19 PANDEMIC - OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

Anshu Shekhar

Covid19 crisis has led to a significant change in the education of foreign languages just as it has done in all areas of education, forcing academic institutions to switch to complete online mode of teaching for the students of all age groups. Since acquisition of second language implies acquisition of set of linguistic skills and knowledge for communication in target language, hence teaching involving acquisition of second language (or, FLT) has always been an area of pedagogy which requires additional instructional strategies, tools with specific methodologies of implementation. Shifting to complete online environment for teaching a foreign language required specific educational responses to deal with several barriers of learning in the new mode to ensure effective learning of language. By means of a web-based questionnaire, this study aims to explore the challenges and opportunities which the online environment implied in teaching Spanish as a foreign language or L2 in multilingual and multicultural context of India. It undertakes a study of different tools and approaches implemented to ensure the impartment of adequate linguistic competence in L2 (Spanish) as well as academic integrity while dealing with the major barriers of technological infrastructure and socio-economic & linguistic unevenness persisting in India. Besides, it also examines what the additional instructional strategies and tools in the complete online environment are required by the Spanish language (L2) teacher for minimizing the phonetic, morphological and syntactic errors by learners during online class.

INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has spanned the world since early 2020 and caused traumatic experiences in almost all the countries. The pandemic has threatened the world population for being a disease that does not distinguish by nationality, sex, age, ethnic origin or socioeconomic level. This pandemic, in addition to having a high human cost and financial loss, is a crisis that has seriously affected the learning, physical and mental health and socialization capacities of millions of students.

This pandemic implied direct consequences on learning. When the pandemic reached its peak for the first time, in March last year, the lockdowns across all sectors and closure of educational institutions were the emergency measure that was adopted to maintain the social distancing with which it was expected to stop the infections. According to a United Nations report titled “UNSECO - Education During Covid-19 And Beyond”, this closure due to the COVID19 pandemic caused the largest disruption to education systems in history, affecting 1.6 billion students simultaneously in more than 190 countries, which represents approx. 60% of the student population and more than 15% of the world population and forced an abrupt change from the face-to-face classroom education model to a distance education model using online or e-learning mediums as a more appropriate alternative to ensure the continuation of the educational process. Since this drastic change was adopted by academic institutions in a complete sudden session, without having prior and adequate preparation, suitable tools and methodologies, nor the opinion of the students in this regard. This unexpected change in the educational model has impacted the learning in various ways.

The mentioned UNESCO report clearly show the extent of disruption in education sector: at the beginning of June, when important lockdown measures had already been lifted in many countries, nearly a billion learners worldwide were still affected, i.e., 55.2% of the learners enrolled in all education level. Schools and higher education institutions were still closed in 119 countries. In case of India too, significant negative impact is evident in the field of education owing to COVID19. As per the mentioned report, the figure of affected students is more than 32 crores during last 1 year. The statistics show that at primary and secondary level education the figures of affected students are 14 crores and 13 crores respectively (UNESCO 2020).

Coping up with this dramatic change, the educational institutions worldwide made successful efforts for not letting the pandemic halt the teaching and learning process. This continuity of education employing e-learning or online learning method has come across with numerous challenges, which included lack of necessary infrastructure and inadequacy of technological, curricular, and pedagogical tools. Acknowledging the fact, above mentioned study observes, “The shock of the COVID-19 crisis on education has been unprecedented. It has set the clock back on the attainment of international education goals, and disproportionately affected the poorer and most vulnerable. And yet, the education community has proved resilient, laying a groundwork for the rebound” (UNESCO 2020, p. 26).

In light of a crisis that may be prolonged, the complete shift to e-learning from traditional method of teaching (i.e. face to face teaching) as an alternative has constantly been the subject to discussion and studies are being undertaken on its pros and cons. Citing a set of advantages, some educationists view this shift to online learning or e-learning as “a panacea” (Dhawan 2020, p. 7) in present situation of COVID-19 crisis, in which the lectures and instructional contents are delivered by teacher remotely using digital platforms.

Teaching of foreign languages (FL) remains no exception from the difficulties involved in switching to a complete distance education in e-learning mode discussed above, and the crisis rendered the FL teachers with no choice other than repositioning themselves in a mode of teaching that did not use to prevail in their work. This crisis-prompted learning environment turned out to be challenging in many ways for teachers, owing to paucity of time at their disposal to work on session plans, lessons, instructional resources and learning materials in order to ensure efficient language learning and create a positive teaching and learning environment (Egbert 2020, p. 314-319). Though studies show that the shift to complete online environment of FL classroom produced significant learning outcomes as well positive perceptions of students. This paper discusses the outcomes and observations centering on a questionnaire- based study (involving Spanish FL learners and teachers of India) carried out to understand the nitty-gritty of the advantages and challenges of COVID19 crisis-prompted teaching of Spanish as a foreign language to Indian students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning is a process of acquiring new knowledge and skill. For this process to be qualified as learning, instead of a simple temporary retention, it must imply a retention of the knowledge or skill in question that allows its manifestation in a future time. Learning can be defined in a more formal way as “a relatively permanent change in behavior or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience” (Hulse, Eggeth & Deese 1980, p. 302). Since the onset of COVID19 crisis, teaching and learning activities have been taking place remotely (i.e. in distance education mode) using e-learning method of education. It is necessary to understand the duo. Moore and Kearsley define “Distance education” as “planned learning that normally occurs in a different place from teaching and as a result requires special techniques of course design, special instructional techniques, special methods of communication by electronic and other technology, as well as special organizational and administrative arrangements” (Moore & Kearsley 1996, p. 2). Distance education presupposes that there is no physical contact since the student and the teacher are geographically distant; online education or e-learning not necessarily, as classroom work is done using online communication or through a networked computer.

Etymologically, e-learning is electronic learning which refers to the learning process which happens between teachers and students in a totally digital environment where technology and learning techniques make up the educational model, thus achieving a highly interactive environment, at any time and from any place where you find. We understand a totally digital environment as an environment that is not physically real but allows remote interaction between interconnected users through a computer network. In the broadest sense, education that involves any electronic means of communication, including video conferencing and audio conferencing, is known as online education. In a more specific sense, online education means teaching and learning through networked computers.

The present COVID19 crisis-prompted education can be seen characterized with distance education based online mode of learning process which primarily counts on a wide range of digital resources available on internet for instructional purpose and which allows interactivity “within educational context with all its components: material contents, instructors, and other learners; and asking for help within the learning process to reach the maximum information, make meaning, and advance through learning encounters” (Al-Awawdeh & Ma'Moun 2020, p. 11538). Some of the characteristics of this education model are:

- Interactive model: One that allows the student to adopt an active role or role in relation to her homework or work, thus interacting with the s, her teachers and fellow students.
- Accessible: No matter the place, the area or the time you are, you can study anywhere with Internet access.
- Synchronous and asynchronous: Which allows the student to participate in tasks or

activities at the same time as others regardless of where they are.

- Online resources: It allows access to any amount and variety of material and resources without the need to have them physically, in addition to having them at any time you need it.

Though this substitution of traditional education by ICT and digital platforms based remote learning has made online courses flexible, accessible and affordable for involving negligible or partial cost on transportation, accommodation and lecture delivery in comparison of face-to-face classroom-based learning; though this model is reckoned to be the model which enables “teaching–learning process more student-centered, more innovative, and even more flexible” (Dhawan 2020, p. 7) and “a worthwhile education model in emergency situations (Moorhouse 20, p. 609-611), however a number of tenable arguments have emerged highlighting the shortcomings of the said education model. Few studies claim that this online learning at a distance imply an insurmountable obstacle and deprivation of education opportunity for a significant number of students due to their socioeconomic origin, geographical location or other factors.

Since the paper involves examining an education model for teaching of Spanish as a foreign language, it becomes important to talk about the established framework which deals with teaching and learning of a foreign language (FL) and theories related with online foreign language teaching in order to assess the efficacy and suitability of an education model as well as the accomplishment of desired outcomes of learning FL. Since a decade most of the researchers take their cue for such studies on acquisition of language from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) which is an internationally recognized framework for describing proficiency in a foreign language. In the 1990s the Council of Europe began to elaborate and in 2001 published the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learn, Teach, Evaluate*, as part of a broader effort to promote collaboration between language teachers from all European countries. It comprises a practical document whose objective is to establish the common elements that are intended to be achieved in the different stages of learning a foreign language. The framework is intended to be used in both teaching and competency assessment since it provides a collection of competency statements that lists the functions one will be able to perform using a foreign language at a given proficiency level.

For foreign language teachers, the CEFR is a guide or base in the programming of the courses that they have to teach, not only from the perspective of curriculum creation but also at a methodological level, creation of didactic units, typology of activities and evaluation of the four linguistic skills. It describes the linguistic capacities, the knowledge mobilized to develop them and the situations and contexts in which a foreign language can be used to communicate. The Common Framework recognizes that it is not only necessary to be able to speak, read and write; but also, to listen and understand. It lays emphasis on developing integrated linguistic skills, with particular attention on listening comprehension and oral production in order to develop adequate communication skills in learners of an

FL. According to this framework, communication skills are those that enable a person to act specifically using linguistic means and which are made up of these sub-competencies: Linguistic skills, Sociolinguistic competences and Pragmatic competences. Our language activities involve the exercise of these communicative linguistic competences within a specific area when processing (in the form of comprehension or expression) one or more texts in order to carry out a task. Therefore, it suggests that an FL teacher should focus on facilitating students' learning for authentic communication with an essential approach of appreciation of the nuances and cultural aspects of the language. Learning a new language must follow an appropriate method in which the learner progresses gradually and logically, progressing from very basic communication levels to others where language management occurs automatically.

Since students' reading habits and preferences have changed over the past decades because of changes in digitalisation of communication (Reimers, Schleicher & Tuominen 2020, p. 3-4), FL pedagogy which comprises an important branch of applied linguistics, consequently has experienced precedence of research studies in the field of online foreign language education particularly. These studies have decoded the complexities of imparting linguistic competences in an online environment and suggested methods of effective foreign language education in an e-learning model. Hampel and Stickler are recognized for their significant contribution in this field. In their paper titled, "New skills for new classrooms" (2005), they propose a 'pyramid of competencies' which an foreign language teacher in an e-learning model require, i.e. understanding of : basic ICT skills; the basics of teaching software such as LMS or CMS; the barriers and advantages inherent in specific teaching applications; how to foster community through such techniques as netiquette and discipline; how to promote online communication through tasks and interactions; how to creatively integrate tools and resources into complex language activities, and exploring one's own unique teaching style.

These essentials aspects of language pedagogy and online foreign language teaching laid out above provide a standard basis to assess an education model for teaching FL in a multicultural context of India, and that's why this study formulates the questionnaire of the survey, taken into account the criteria suggested by the common framework for learning, teaching and evaluation of language and the 'pyramid' of essential interdependent skills desired in a FL teacher for successful online language teaching.

Teaching of Spanish as a foreign language in India (pre-Covid19 pandemic & present time)

The teaching of foreign languages in India is a new field that began gradually with the implementation of the new educational policy of the Education Commission (1966), which highlighted the importance and necessity of the teaching and learning of foreign languages to the society. In the report prepared by the Commission it was stated that knowledge of a foreign language should be essential. It was also observed that due to new foreign policies, international trade strategies, and India's growing bilateral contacts with the rest of the world, due to economic reforms and globalization, 21st century India will

need highly skilled specialists. competence in foreign languages. However, and despite the recommendations and reaffirmations of the Education Commission in favour of the discipline of foreign languages, there was a constant negligence for several years.

In Indian education system, though language learning has been an important part of curriculum in all the education policies introduced by government in past decades however teaching of foreign languages was given importance in the new education policy of the Education Commission (1966) which stated the necessity of the teaching and learning of foreign languages in the country in wake of new foreign policies, international trade strategies, and India's growing bilateral contacts with the rest of the world, due to economic reforms and globalization (Vikash Singh 2009, p. 371). Significant efforts in implementation of this recommendation of teaching of foreign languages were seen in the immediate years after adoption of New Economic Policy (1991) by India (Dhiraj Rai 2017, p.1). Teaching of Spanish as a foreign language in India is believed to begin in 1958 when School of Foreign Languages (SFL) of Ministry of Defence introduced Spanish language course for which the target learners were defence personnel and employees of Ministry of external affairs (Gaurav & Shilpi 2014, p.14). Subsequently the major public universities like Jawaharlal Nehru University, University of Delhi and CIEFL introduced short-term courses in 1970s to cater the needs of the tourism sector. The era of liberalization in 1990s, IT boom and consequent outsourcing of projects of Europe & US to India gave a major boost to Spanish language education in India. In order to address the gap of demand and supply of Spanish language professionals, a number of private language academies started offering Spanish language courses which included institutions like Instituto Cervantes (Language and culture academy of Govt. of Spain), Instituto Hispania, Ramkrishna Mission, Alhambra Institute, Bhartiya Vidya Bhawan (Gaurav & Shilpi 2014). In school education in India, Spanish as a third language or FL was introduced later than French and German. offering Spanish responding to the changed economic scenario of the time and increasing popularity of Spanish language across the globe. Initially (since 2000) few dozens of prestigious schools of CBSE and ICSE curriculum started Spanish language as a subject at secondary level. In past decade a good number of schools of IB (International Baccalaureate) and IGCSE thrived in different parts of country which have been offering Spanish as one of the major foreign language subjects, apart from French, German, Chinese and Japanese. Owing to globalisation and increased consumption and interest in Hispanic culture and music, we see the change in the scenario of language learning in the country and in last two decades "Spanish has become the most sought-after language in IB and IGCSE curricula and trickled down towards the national curricula" (Subhash 2020). At present more than 28 public and private universities of the country offer short-term and full-fledged undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Spanish language (Priy 2008, p. 8-9). Recently the govt. of India has introduced the three-language policy in NEP 2020 which has provided impetus to foreign language learning in the country.

When it comes to teaching of Spanish language to Indian learners, it entails several challenges and peculiarities due to its multilingual and multicultural existence. The diversity of language

and culture, geographical and socio-economic differences imply great challenges in way of imparting effective learning of a foreign language. For a Spanish teacher, it becomes difficult to apply a common or uniform teaching methodology or didactic approach for teaching all the students since their varied cultural and linguistic status emerges as a major barrier.

In light of COVID19 pandemic, like any other country India too experienced substantial disruption in education and has shifted to a complete online learning at a distance since March, 2020. While e-learning had been growing rapidly in recent years, India is now experiencing a boom in e-learning since the pandemic emerged. As per the article titled “Adoption of E-Learning during Lockdown in India”(2021), 90% of schools reported use of pedagogic software tools., 72% used live streaming videos, 40% provided links or URLs to access online materials and 68% conducted meetings and academic-intellectual activities and sessions on virtual platforms. Foreign language education, in particular, is impacted in various ways in the country owing to a sudden shift to complete online or digital medium based learning and its experience has thrown up some issues to discuss.

Teaching of Spanish language as a FL in schools, colleges, and foreign language institutions has been taking place using these online synchronous and asynchronous learning environments as the primary mode of classes, which entailed several benefits as well as a set of new difficulties for teachers in terms of preparation and delivery of lessons, instructional resources and learning materials. Most of these institutions have been using common learning platforms like Microsoft Teams, Google Meet or Google classroom for delivery of lectures and learning materials to the students. However, re-designing their institutional LMS (Learning Management System) suiting to the needs of complete online teaching of Spanish for learners emerged as be a major task for all the Spanish course offering schools and institutions, since in the Pre-Covid19 times the online learning (or e-learning) used to be an additional tool of accessing resources and practice of Spanish language exercises apart from classroom teaching. During pandemic time the changed scenario forced the institutions to provide all teaching support and resources remotely in an online mode. For Spanish language learners, particularly *ePgpashshala* turned out to be a remarkable support for e-learning. *ePgpashshala* is an online portal of Govt. of India which contains high quality, curriculum-based interactive content of different subjects across all disciplines, including Spanish.

In present crisis-prompted education system, though it is a fact that e-learning has overridden geographical challenges and provided opportunities for learners to not just access information but also to interact and collaborate (White 2006, p. 247-264) but at the same time it requires adequate technological support and both teacher and student to be tech savvy and digitally prepared. Reimers et al (2020 p.2) point out that, “The period has been one of adaptive and transformative challenges, triggered by the abrupt shift to distance education, the lack of short- and long-term anticipation, the need for appropriate technical infrastructure, the need for both academics and students to have good digital literacy skills and for the former to be able to implement distance learning pedagogies” (2020, p. 2).

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire-based online survey has been conducted to collect the data from different institutions in India offering Spanish language course. A total of 96 students and 21 teachers of Spanish language participated in the survey, belonging to different levels of FL education. For the sake of continuance of teaching and learning activities, institutions in India started conducting online classes remotely. This abrupt changeover in education model paved way for new opportunities as well as raised several challenges for both teachers and students of Spanish FL. This web-based survey consisted of questions relating to the lectures, study materials, tools and exercises for practice of the four linguistic skills and overall learning experience of the students of Spanish language as well as questions relating to the delivery of lessons, designing of course materials, modules and assessment of learning and overall teaching experience of the Spanish teachers.

Subsequent to submission of questionnaire, 54 % of the total participants joined a virtual meeting (a follow-up interview) to discuss in detail about their learning or teaching experiences, sharing their views on present mode of e-learning and what the advantages or challenges of this education model they have come across with. The Spanish language teachers were asked to explain the issues which they faced due to sudden changeover in the teaching methodology and what instructing strategies and tools and innovative practices they made use of in order to ensure effective and successful continuance of Spanish language classes online.

RESULTS

Most prevalent category of comments were related with online course content and activities. Many students found the Spanish language content given to them difficult to learn and more time-consuming in online environment.

- Some students added that though e-learning promotes learning by students at their own pace however constant exposure to FL content and activities with less intervention of instructor leads to saturation of understanding and practice after certain extent, which may cause loss of motivation and confidence in learners.
- Some comments pointed out the need of designing ‘real-world’ communicative activities instead of monotonous reading materials, wherein the students can practice their use of Spanish language.
- Most of the teachers find it difficult to substitute the classroom learning content and activities completely with online content and activities, citing various limitations.

Second most prevalent category of responses pointed out to the issue of lack of instructor-student and peer-peer interactions. Many students stated that they were having lesser opportunities of individual interaction with teacher to learn these competencies than in face-to-face classroom teaching.

- In their opinion, the present mode of learning involved more reading and self-

teaching than the usual mode of learning. They expressed the need of more interaction with the instructor for language learning activities. According to them, lack of significant interactivity decouples student participation.

- There are comments of some students which state that lack of interaction impact negatively to listening and oral practices of Spanish language, resulting in poor language learning. In face-to-face classroom teaching, students get opportunity to indulge themselves in adequate communication (speaking and listening with peers in target language) whereas the remote e-learning has deprived them of such activities.
- There were also some responses which found it suitable to have adequate opportunity to learn and practice on one's own the language using digital resources given by teacher and interaction with teacher during online class should be used for clearing doubts and errors of listening and reading comprehension sort of exercises.
- Most of the Spanish FL teachers admit that learning of language can best be learned through interaction and live activity-based tasks, which gets compromised to a considerable extent in online classes.
- Teachers respond to this issue citing time limitation to converse in a synchronous session, though they feel that this shortcoming causes compromise on the component of oral competence.
- Most of the Spanish teachers admitted the problem of delayed feedback in remote mode of online-learning and emphasised on the need of adequate synchronous and asynchronous sessions on corrections of oral and listening practice exercises for better impartment of linguistic competencies in Spanish language learners.

Third most prevalent category of responses comprised of classroom management and teacher's knowledge of use of technology and digital resources. Many students stated it to be a crucial factor in learning of Spanish language since entire teaching and learning activity is taking place on digital medium only.

- Most of the students found their Spanish language teacher well-prepared for this sudden changeover to complete online environment and well-familiarised with ICT tools to be implemented during lectures.
- Though there was a miniscule of responses highlighting the need of training of their Spanish FL instructor for effective classroom management.
- Teachers' comments comprise of difficulties in monitoring student's language activity and participation during synchronous lecture sessions and technological limitation of not being able to respond to more than few queries during lectures.

The fourth most prevalent category of responses of Spanish language students dealt with the issue of socio-economic disparities and other non-academic and non-technological issues (like inability to afford data cost and paid learning materials, lack of suitable space

at home for uninterrupted e-learning etc.) which caused interruption in learning or even getting deprived of learning opportunities in many cases.

- Almost 97% of the teachers acknowledged the above-mentioned issues as significant barriers in ensuring smooth learning by all their students and most of them suggested a mechanism of financial support and other necessary support by government.

The fifth most prevalent category of responses dealt with uneven distribution of listening, reading and spoken lectures and activities in ongoing teaching of Spanish language in e-learning mode in their institution, and suggested designing of lesson plans with adequate opportunity of practice of all four language skills.

- On this issue, 47% of the teachers expressed their satisfaction over proportion of distribution of learning and practice material for speaking, listening, reading and writing, whereas remaining 53% of Spanish teachers cited limitation of time and content for ensuring equal weightage to all four language competence skills.

Distraction & short-attention span turned out to be another prevalent important category of responses. The virtuality of classes has exposed students to a variety of distractors, ranging from being in the comfort of their homes to simultaneously doing other activities, to totally losing focus during class sessions. 87% of the students in the survey accepted performing various tasks while attending their online classes. Though, 11 students also mentioned using Spanish language learning apps like *Duolingo*, *Memrise*, *FluentU* etc. simultaneously during lectures for additional learning resources. The Spanish language teachers who were part of this study also revealed that students had a tendency to listen to music, browse social networks, and send text messages during their online courses, and these distractions and decrease in attention of students have posed a serious challenge, and it did impact significantly student's performance (as admitted by 96% of the Spanish teachers).

Besides above-mentioned categories of responses, also there were comments of students stating lack of motivation and enthusiasm in participation in Spanish language learning activities due to relatively more exposure to online asynchronous learning environment and more digital interactivity with lesser or sometimes negligible interaction to humans. Most of the teachers acknowledge persistence of this issue of lack of essential student characteristics and 79% of the Spanish teachers stated having introduced several innovative measures like creating several WhatsApp groups of 5-6 students for entire class for the purpose of formal as well as informal chats and telephonic conversations, involving students in audio and video making activities in a collaborative way while providing asynchronous language activities etc.

DISCUSSION

The ongoing Covid19 pandemic has compelled all the countries to switching over to a teaching model which is driven by technology, making virtual classes a new normal and this model of education is likely to remain in use for longer time. The survey reveals how the stakeholders of this model of education, i.e. the students and teachers view it and what measure are needed to be taken in order to improve the learning experience.

Planning an online class at a distance greater amount of effort and time and it becomes challenging for Spanish language teachers to ensure adequate teacher – student interaction and adequate oral communication. Despite of providing sufficient learning materials and practice activities, online language classes ask for extraordinary availability of teacher for synchronous sessions, explanation and doubt-clearing sessions which makes teaching cumbersome for foreign language teachers.

The present crisis-prompted distance based online learning mode emerges as a necessity for Spanish and foreign language teachers to develop new e-teaching skills, combining and adapting to variety of roles i.e. facilitator of learning, designer of imaginative and innovative learning contents and well-versed and updated with new technologies in the field of foreign language pedagogy.

Since technology constitutes a significant opportunity to innovate as well as customize learning of language learners in the e-learning mode of education, the institutions in India can make effort to shape and design learning of Spanish language by the student in an experiential learning by making use of visual aids like audios, videos and other multimedia materials which allow better retention and add fun element, thus making the learning in an exciting and personalized experience. The flexibility element constitutes a great advantage of remotely functioning online-learning wherein access the online class and participate in learning activities. It provides a great opportunity to Spanish language teachers to facilitate exchange of ideas, opinions, practices, experiences. collective enrichment of the learning process without boundaries.

Survey shows that there is an upsurge in successful implementation of ICT tools by Spanish language institutions in India and a significant progress is seen in designing the Learning Management System (LMS) by institution in an effort to offer better experience of online language learning. The present education model has emerged as an enormous opportunity to improve learning materials and resources and more importantly, to facilitate interactive teaching and learning activity in a more collaborative environment like webinars, virtual discussion sessions and forums, e-conferences etc.

The findings of survey show that in spite of having advantages of technology and ICT based resources in e-learning environment, the teacher variable is the primary cause of variation in level of satisfaction of students and therefore lower student perceptions can be addressed by working on methodology and style of teaching and increased collaboration. In the online learning system, the role and responsibilities of a foreign language teacher

becomes manifold. The FL teacher is expected to play key role in facilitating efficient language learning by designing learner-centred content and practice materials in order to ensure development of essential linguistic competences. The language teachers face challenge of choosing appropriate educational aids which can allow interactive learning by engaging students as contributors in such learning activities which is otherwise difficult due to constant distraction of students across digital devices.

In addition to all above discussed advantages, opportunities and challenges related to online teaching of Spanish as a foreign language in India in the present e-learning environment, the study makes a significant observation that at one side this crisis-prompted online learning helps in building the sense of responsibility for self-development and self-discipline among the students, besides offering possibility of accessing the course whenever they want and facilitating the learning process by using more engaging techniques, however on the another side it accentuates the importance of certain aspects of traditional face-to-face teaching which are felt needed to be incorporated in the present emergency education model in order to make learning meaningful and to achieve desired learning outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Since language learning involves primarily involves acquisition of communicative linguistic competence in the target language, most of the questions of the survey intended to extract responses on the amount of time and resources and guidance were offered to students for written expression and comprehension, aural comprehension and oral expression in e-learning and the difficulties faced by them therein. This study finds that the Spanish language teachers in India quickly adapted to the new learning environment and re-designed their instructional tools within a short time, however several technological factors (poor internet connectivity, interrupted power supply) as well as non-technological factors (adequate planning and preparation of learning goals and contents; e-teaching skills; digital literacy of Spanish language learners, etc.) and non-academic factors (socio-economic gap etc.) comprised major challenges in impartment of teaching of Spanish in e-learning during the period of pandemic.

It seems that technology is no longer a limiting factor, it is FL teacher's ability to reconsider teaching and take full advantage of the tools and media that the technology provides, the one that will play a fundamental role in the future of the teaching foreign languages (in our case Spanish). For Spanish language teachers who have been involved in the creation of materials, programs, implementation of new approaches, etc. to facilitate the transformed mode of learning during the pandemic, this online medium gives them certain advantages and comfort, but as teachers of FL they need to understand and reflect on its possibilities, and the disadvantages and benefits of different technology options. Though the digital technologies based new distant learning mode of education appeals above all to creativity in pedagogical objectives and methods of teaching / learning languages. We should not, however, forget or let technology guide the methodology, although we do have to be attentive to the new doors that the digital world opens.

However, it now seems unthinkable - at least for many - that computer can replace human beings in a discipline that is dedicated to human communication with all its cultural and linguistic diversity. Technology undoubtedly has a place in the teaching of foreign languages. It is true that technology can improve the quality of the learning environment by offering the student a variety of stimulating media and an autonomous learning center and it is useful to support and enhance the learning process, but it still remains a fact that the technology could not replace human interaction. And therefore, the present remotely functioning online learning of foreign languages can neither entirely replace nor undervalue certain essential features of blended and traditional methods of teaching.

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CURRENT TRENDS AND PROMISING PRACTICES IN TEACHER LEARNING: A SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS FROM RECENT INTERNATIONAL SURVEYS

Milosh Raykov

“If you want to go fast, go alone. If you want to go far, go together.”

[African proverb]

The changing world of work and knowledge-based economy demands an increased level of knowledge and skills. Teacher work is also affected by the changing nature of work, and this study that is based on a secondary data analysis of several international surveys examines some of the issues in the domain of teachers' work-related learning. Analysis of the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) further shows that a vast majority of teachers are frequently involved in informal dialogue with their colleagues and most of them believe that it is important for their CPD. Canadian Work and Lifelong Learning survey also demonstrate that, in addition to learning at work, a large number of teachers participate in informal learning. The analysis of the data from the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies indicates that a large number, more than two-third of teachers participation in various forms of learning but a significant number, more than a third of them experience unmet needs for education. In sum, the study demonstrates that teachers' intensively participation in lifelong learning and some specific forms of CPD play a highly significant role in modern society as a response to globalization and technological changes since teacher work is also affected by the changing nature of work and learning. The available data and the review of the literature also demonstrate a discrepancy between teacher preferences and the dominant forms of CPD as well as a lack of relevant applied studies and a need for organization of the viable and innovative forms of learning that can meet teachers' needs and professional interests.

INTRODUCTION

The globalized world of work and knowledge-based economy demands an increased level of knowledge and skills (Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, 1999). The increased complexity of work requires a higher level of skills and knowledge from all employees, and educational planners are responding to this challenge through the promotion and organization of various forms of lifelong learning, as well as through mandatory participation in CPD activities in many occupations.

In the global context marked by increasingly complex and multidimensional requirements at work (OECD, 2013; Statistics Canada, 2013), many studies highlight the importance of core academic skills, as well as 'soft skills' and continuous participation in lifelong learning and CPD. Policy studies emphasize that regular monitoring of participation in learning and CPD are vital for increasing involvement in the various forms of adult learning (Eurostat, 2015; OECD, 2014; UNDP, 2014). A significant number of studies also

demonstrate a growing demand for, and motivation to obtain, higher levels of education. In many countries, however, this kind of data is not available (Bowlby & McMullen, 2002; Krahn & Taylor, 2005; Livingstone & Raykov, 2013).

There is general agreement that lifelong learning plays a highly significant role in modern society as a response to globalization and technological changes. Policy makers and human resource theorists emphasize its importance in increasing national competitiveness, organizational productivity, individual income and quality of life (CCL, 2010). Research concerning participation in lifelong learning demonstrates that large numbers of employees are engaged in formal education (OECD, 2015), while a significantly greater number engage in informal work-related learning (Livingstone & Raykov, 2013; Rubenson, 2006; Rubenson, Desjardin & Yoon, 2007).

Teacher work is also affected by the changing nature of work and learning and increasing demands for knowledge and skills (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). In addition to teacher participation in the various forms of CPD, teachers increasingly participate in some of the networks of teachers developed specifically for the professional development of teachers. According to Abbott (2014), a professional learning community (PLC) is “a group of educators that meets regularly, shares expertise, and works collaboratively to improve teaching skills and the academic performance of students.” Recent large-scale studies demonstrate an increasing rate of teacher participation in some forms of PLC as well as extensive involvement in various forms of lifelong learning.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Several international studies (e.g. European Commission, 2015; OECD, 2016) demonstrate consistently high levels of participation of adults in various forms of lifelong learning. However, there is also an apparent lack of data on the key aspects of adult learning demonstrated in many of the comparative studies of adult education (e.g. European Commission, 2014). Also, most of these studies are focused on the previous participation and engagement in lifelong learning during a relatively short period, usually four weeks to one year, preceding a particular study. This retroactive orientation at the level of participation in lifelong learning does not provide sufficient and adequate evidence for educational policy and practice that aim to widen access to educational opportunities and raise citizen participation in lifelong learning. The same case is evident in the domain of teacher learning and CPD.

OBJECTIVES

Based on a comparative analysis of adult education and lifelong learning in countries with highly developed systems of adult education, this study examines teacher participation in different forms of continuous learning as well as their involvement in some particular forms of CPD based on the the existing data related to adult education (Statistics Canada, 2013; OECD, 2013; Livingstone & Raykov, 2012) and teacher training (OECD, 2009). Taking into account the identified knowledge gaps and inconsistencies related to the

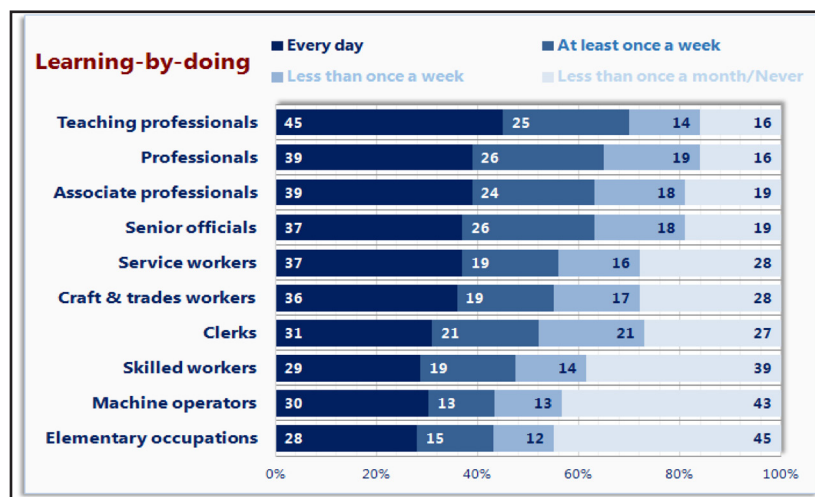
evaluation of participation in lifelong learning, and the issues identified through the studies of international data regarding unmet demand for education (Livingstone & Raykov, 2013), this study addresses the following questions:

1. To what extent do teachers participate in various forms of CPD?
2. What content and forms of lifelong learning do teachers prefer and what do they perceive as useful for their CPD?
3. To what extent are teachers interested and ready to involve in different forms of lifelong learning and CPD?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

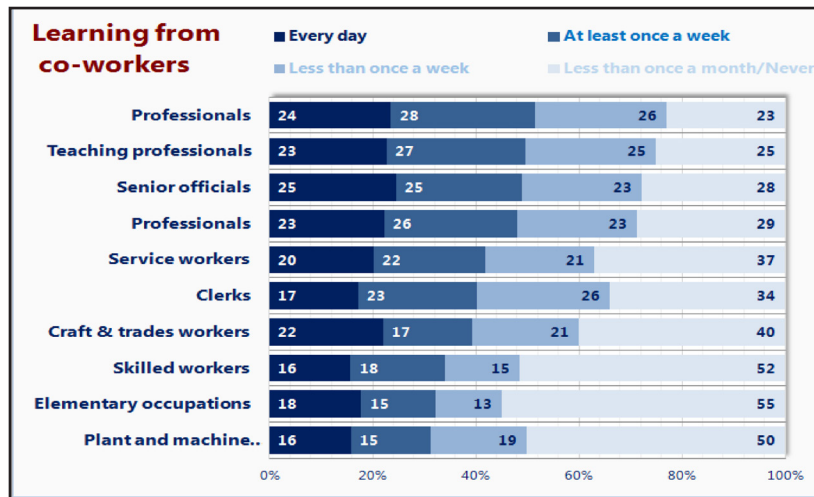
The analysis of the data from the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) that is based on responses from more than 150,000 participants from 24 countries indicates that more than half of teaching professionals (56%) regularly participate in some forms of job-related training (Statistics Canada, 2013; OECD, 2013). The same study demonstrates that most of the teachers (80%) learn for job-related reasons, slightly more than the members of other occupational groups (67%). The same study also shows (Figure 1) that a large number, seven out of ten (70%), of teachers learn-by-doing through daily teaching practice.

Figure 1
Teachers and Individual Learning (Learning-by-doing)



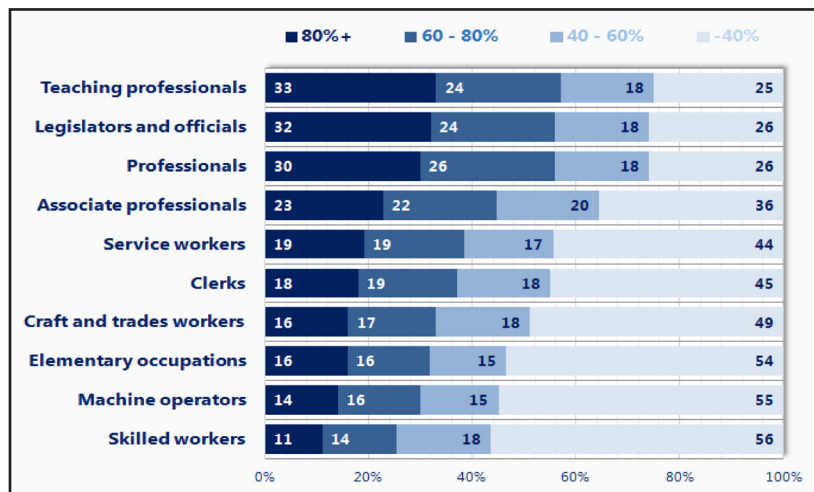
The analysis also demonstrates (Figure 2) that approximately half of all teachers (50%) learn from their co-workers or supervisors every day or several times during a week.

Figure 2:
Teachers' Participation in Collaborative Learning
(Learning from co-workers or supervisors)



As Figure 3 shows, a large number of teachers who participated in the PIAAC study (57%) also demonstrate a high level of readiness for learning. However, the Work and Lifelong Learning Surveys shows that despite such frequent participation in various forms of learning, a significant number (39%) of teachers and other employees (25%) experience unmet needs for education.

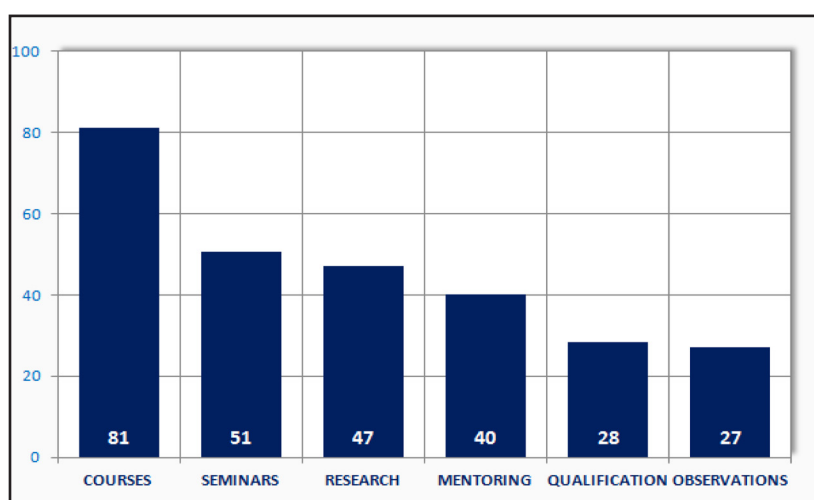
Figure 3:
Teachers' Readiness to Learn



The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) which included 72,190 participants from 24 countries, was analyzed to determine the most frequent forms of learning and teachers' opinions about the efficiency of the particular forms of continuing professional development (CPD).

This study shows (Figure 4) that a significant number of teachers participate in some individual and collaborative forms of CPD, formally organized courses or workshops as part of their CPD, and the overall level of participation is very high (81%). As well, teachers in the OECD countries frequently participate in education conferences or seminars (51%), individual or collaborative research (47%), mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching, as part of a formal school arrangement (40%), qualification programme (28%) and observation visits to other schools (27%).

Figure 4
Teacher Participation in Various Forms of CPD

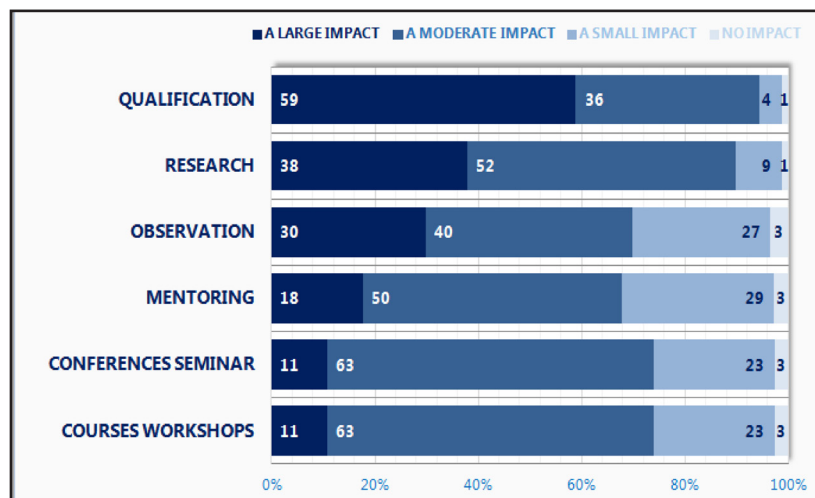


Despite the fact that teachers in the OECD countries are less frequently enrolled in degree programs and different forms of collaborative research, they highly value these types of CPD (Figure 5). The majority of teachers, (95%), highly value qualification programs and participation in collaborative research (90%) and believe that they have a substantial impact on their professional development. Also, a vast majority of teachers (92%) are frequently involved in informal dialogue with their colleagues to improve their teaching, and most of them (84%) believe that it is important for their CPD.

A smaller but a considerable number of teachers recognize observation visits to other schools (70%) and mentoring and/or peer observation (68%) as forms of CPD with a substantial impact on their professional development. Unfortunately, the most common forms of CPD only a relatively small number of teachers perceive as forms of CPD with

a significant impact on their teaching practice. Participation in conferences or seminars (11%) and workshops (11%) are rarely regarded as forms of CPD with very strong effect on but almost two-third (63%) of teachers believe that this form of CPD moderately influences their professional development.

Figure 5
Perceived Impact of CPD



Other international studies such as Work and Lifelong Learning Survey (Livingstone & Raykov, 2012) demonstrate that, in addition to learning at work, a large number of teachers participate in informal learning related to their employment. For example, the Canadian Work and Lifelong Learning Survey demonstrate that almost two-thirds of teachers (63%) and approximately half of other employees (53%) participate in some form of informal learning. The study also shows that nearly one-third (34%) of teachers often seek advice from someone knowledgeable to develop their job-related skills. A component of this survey focused on teacher learning demonstrates that the majority of teachers were involved in formally organized courses during the previous year; 90% of them. Most of the formally organized courses (82%) were related to their work. Regarding the preferred forms of lifelong learning, this study demonstrates that more than a quarter (29%) of teachers consult some experts, 20% cooperate with a specially organized group of learners, while more than half (52%) ask their friends.

The primary objective of an additional mixed methods study (Mayo, Borg & Raykov, 2016) was to provide relevant and reliable information necessary for evidence-based decision making related to supporting teacher wider participation in different forms of lifelong learning and CPD. In addition to the analysis of the large-scale surveys, this study also includes a small pilot study of adult learners from Malta interviewed by phone in

order to collect some preliminary data related to their participation in a wide variety of different forms of lifelong learning. The semi-structured interview was based on the Work and Lifelong Learning WALL (Livingstone & Raykov, 2012) and PIAAC (OECD, 2013) surveys. The survey was converted into an online form that was used as a base for computer-assisted telephone interviews. The participants were randomly selected from publicly available phonebooks, and the study was approved by the institutional ethics review board. This component of the study included 28 participants who agreed to be interviewed or to take the online survey. Thematic qualitative analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009) with the application of software for computer-assisted qualitative data analysis was used to explore the data from collected through the interviews.

Most of the participants were employed, but only a few were involved or intended to continue their formal education as students in an educational institution. A significant number of participants in this pilot study reported that they were taking different forms of accredited courses on a part-time basis. Regarding informal and non-formal, the majority of participants mentioned that they extensively participate in various forms of learning and acquire a broad range of work-related knowledge and skills through their paid work, work at home as well as through their participation in voluntary activities.

Participants with higher education attainment mentioned that they would feel “out-dated” if they do not take additional courses and many other mentioned that their profession requires continuing professional development (CPD). Employers often organize courses for their employees, and this support is perceived as very convenient for CPD participants because of the many barriers to the participation in the various learning activities and CPD. It was also evident that the participants who use computers and the online forms of learning have more opportunities for their professional development and learning.

Also, more than half of the interviewed participants reported their involvement in different forms of employment-related informal learning. Most of them indicated their participation in learning about new job-related tasks, computers, and new equipment. Also, a significant number, almost half of the participants, stated that they learn about employment conditions, health, and safety. Regarding the sources of informal learning, most participants indicated the Internet and family members. A relatively small number of participants reported learning from books. It is interesting to note that several participants mention that they learn by using audiovisual sources from the Internet as it is flexible and allows them to learn at a time that is convenient for them. A much smaller number of participants reported that their primary source of informal learning is television and radio programs.

The interviews also identified a significant number of participants who wanted to participate in formal or non-formal training but, due to various reasons, were not able to do this. The central theme that emerged from the interviews was that most of the participants were interested in participation in both, formal and non-formal lifelong learning related to their work and CPD, but several participants indicated that they face various barriers to engaging

in adult education. Similar to the results from the previous studies (Livingstone, Raykov & Stowe, 2001), the most common obstacles to participation in adult education were work-related duties, family obligations and the cost of training. Some of those who were not able to participate also mentioned a heavy workload.

Since one of the major barriers to participation in adult education for the majority of participants is their work schedule, it is evident that employers' support and the flexible schedule of adult education courses are likely to facilitate wider participation in adult education. Considering the findings from our previous studies (Livingstone, Raykov & Turner, 2005; Raykov & Livingstone, 2014; Livingstone & Raykov, 2006), it would be expected that measures aimed at improving and supporting lifelong learning could have broad effects on general levels of participation. The preferred forms of informal learning and the influence that membership in professional and trade organizations has on the degree of participation in work-related informal learning indicate some of the ways in which work-related learning can be more widely implemented.

Regarding the question concerning the frequency of learning from co-workers or supervisors, more than half of the participants mentioned that they learn from colleagues every day or at least once a week. A significantly smaller number of participants, approximately one third, stated that they rarely or never learn from their co-workers or supervisors. For some participants "learning from their supervisors and co-workers" was perceived as a "normal" part of daily routine. The pattern of responses from the interviews is, despite the small sample, similar to the results obtained through some of the large-scale surveys such as PIAAC (OECD, 2013). A very similar pattern of participation was identified with regard to learning-by-doing. The frequency of the intensive, daily learning-by-doing is in contrast with the results obtained through official surveys and indicates that there is a need for the collection of a larger set of indicators that can provide a comprehensive overview of participation in different forms of adult education.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In sum, results from the analysis of the recent international studies demonstrate substantial variations regarding involvement in different forms of lifelong learning and CPD among the various countries as well as variations in the level of participation of different social groups. The variability of involvement requires constant monitoring as well as in-depth studies focused on challenges unique to each society. At the current stage, there is an apparent lack of evidence regarding the profile of participants and non-participants in different forms of adult education and CPD. Future research studies will need to focus on the exploration of this issue. Results from this study demonstrate that collaboration, networks, and partnerships play a significant role in the CPD of teachers. The review of the literature and the available data sources shows a lack of relevant applied studies and demonstrate a need for organization of the viable forms of CPD that can meet professional interests and needs of teachers.

Overall, the study demonstrates that teachers' intensive participation in lifelong learning and some specific forms of CPD play a highly significant role in modern society as a response to globalization and technological changes since teacher work is also affected by the changing nature of work and learning. Teachers participate in many various forms of continuous professional development (CPD), and they increasingly participate in different forms of collaborative learning and professional development that significantly contribute to their professional development and efficient work.

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IN THE BACKDROP OF NEP 2020.....!

BILINGUAL CHILDREN IN THE CLASSROOM: BLISS OR MISERY?

Prema K. S. Rao

The long-awaited NEP 2020 has received mixed responses from educators and the public for a few fundamental principles enunciated in the policy. The promotion of multilingualism and the power of language in teaching is one such principle that has raised debates on satisfactory implementation, particularly for the young bilingual children in a classroom. With consideration to the multilingual and multicultural diversity in India, this fundamental principle is discussed in this article drawing support from the author's research. Two major issues related to the principle, language proficiency of teachers and communication as a tool to interact with bilingual learners is emphasized in this perspective article. The readers are encouraged to introspect on the notion of blissfulness or misery of having bilingual children in a classroom. Extensive investigation on this theme is also warranted.

The new National Education Policy (NEP) 2020, adapted on 29th July 2020, aims to universalize education. The new education policy is an effort to integrate the traditional and modern education systems, the vision being an India-centric education system with the provision of quality education and equitable access to all students in a sustainable manner. The NEP lays particular emphasis on the development of the creative potential of learners by developing the 'foundational capacities' of literacy and numeracy and 'higher-order' cognitive capacities, such as critical thinking and problem-solving in addition to social, ethical, and emotional capacities and dispositions. To achieve these, one of the fundamental principles of the NEP 2020 is 'Promotion of Multilingualism and the Power of Language in learning and teaching' (<https://www.education.gov.in>). This principle has raised debates particularly on the issue of inclusion of native languages in the NEP 2020 which is the crux of this paper. Therefore, an attempt is made to examine the power of multilingualism, particularly in early childhood education keeping in view the linguistic diversity in India. Research studies including the author's work are cited to discuss the issue of the language of education. However, before moving on to the details of the studies, it becomes necessary to offer clarity for a few terminologies applicable to the principle of multilingualism although they are generally considered commonplace vocabulary. Terminological clarification helps to eliminate preconceived notions on the issue of the specific principle of NEP 2020 addressed in this paper.

a) Bilingualism

It is widely accepted that bilingualism is a sociolinguistic phenomenon. 'Bilingualism' refers to being proficient, to varying degrees, in two languages (Edwards, 2013). Based on how the languages are learned Weinrich, as early as 1953, proposed three types of bilingualism: Compound bilingualism (when a child learns two languages in the same environment and acquires one concept with two verbal expressions); Coordinate bilingualism (when a second language, L2, is learned in a different environment with the mediation of the

first language, L1); and, Sub-ordinate bilingualism (when a child learns a second language but fails to understand it without the help of the first language unless (s)he translates the words in the second language to his/her first (language, L1, that is dominant). A distinction between simultaneous bilingualism (L1 and L2 learned about the same time) that parallels compound bilingualism; early sequential bilingualism (L1 learned first and L2 relatively early in childhood) and, late sequential bilingualism (from adolescence onwards) which is fairly equivalent to coordinate and subordinate bilingualism has been proposed by Bialystok and Hakuta (1994). In general, when a language is learned after the first or the native language is relatively well established, the term 'second language' is used. A few other terms to be considered to gain clarity are 'Biliterates' (bilinguals and second language learners who develop literacy in two languages, Perez, 2004); 'English Language Learners' (ELLs, referred to as children who are native speakers of a particular language but learn to read and write the English language) or 'English as Second Language' learners (ESL's). These terminologies have theoretical appeal to classify bilinguals but, fixed categorical terms given by a few bilingual theorists may sound absurd considering the heterogeneity in the bilingual population across diverse cultures in India (Pattanayak, 2003).

b) Bilingual Education

Bilingual education refers to teaching academic content in two languages, a native and secondary language with varying amounts of each language used under the program model. As a result, two languages are learned in educational settings. Bilingual education programs are designed to enable learners in the classroom (often English Language Learners) to become competent in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the English language through the development of literacy and academic skills in the primary language as well as in English (or the language of instruction as per the educational program). Native/regional language of the child, medium of instruction, linguistic structure, and script features of the two languages (Cazden & Snow, 1990) are a few variables to be considered in such programs. In India, the Three Language Formula (TLF: Subhash, 2013) stipulated in the educational policy wherein English language (with alphabetic script) is taught along with two other Indian languages (with alpha syllabic script) requires children to develop an additional set of skills (for example, phonemic skills) to learn reading and writing in English that may not be necessary to learn alpha syllabic scripts of Indian languages.

Compounded with the above is the multiplicity of languages in the societal context. The majority of children in India are bilinguals or multilinguals for whom often the home language may not be the school language. Also, a few languages are written in scripts borrowed from other languages as they do not have scripts. Given such complexities existing in our societal and educational system, for many decades the linguistic and cultural diversities in India have been treated as 'problem' rather than an 'asset' (Prema Rao, Shanbal & Khurana, 2010) for strategizing educational plans in our country. This perspective appears to be deeply rooted in the teachers as they directly interact with the bilingual learners in the classroom.

c) Bilingual Teachers

Teachers who are required to deliver classroom lessons in two languages, the native language of the learner as well as in English (if learners are in an ESL group) are generally called bilingual teachers. These teachers are posed with the challenge to communicate effectively with the bilingual learners to convey concepts related to education. There is a strong conviction among the educational fraternity that the model and environment provided by the teachers set the right ground for the acquisition of a second language by children. Hence, the proficiency of teachers in the second language is viewed as an important component in the learning of a second language by children in the school context. This idea is also backed up by research suggesting language competence as the most rated essential characteristic of a good teacher (Lange, 1990). Since classroom practices and proficiency in the language of instruction of teachers are considered to be directly related to the performance of children, the NEP 2020 announced the formulation of the National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST) by the year 2022. NPST defines the work of teachers by stating explicit elements of high-quality, effective teaching to enhance educational outcomes. It is constituted to govern the teaching profession besides providing opportunities for personal and professional development including competence in the use of language (<https://www.ncte.gov.in>). There are several studies on teachers, particularly focusing on their language proficiency as an essential component of professional development that fall in line with the NEP's proposal for NPST.

STUDIES ON THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY OF TEACHERS

The notion that the proficiency of teachers in the language of instruction influences children's language acquisition, the second language, in particular, has been investigated in many studies conducted by Western countries. As early as 1994, Richards and Lockhart stated that a teacher should talk about a learner's level of comprehension so that the learner would be able to understand what the teacher is saying. Teachers' limited L2 knowledge and poor usage are likely to be transferred to the learners as teachers offer the right models for young children especially to learn L2. Pretorius (2002) attributed poor L2 learning in children to poor language teaching by teachers who themselves are less proficient in the English language. Nel and Muller (2010) by evaluating the errors exhibited by students of less proficient teachers reported that teachers are responsible for the inadequate language input due to their poor proficiency in L2. In general majority of these studies suggest that limited L2 proficiency in teachers has a negative impact on children's L2 acquisition. In addition, the studies also point out that proficiency in the language of instruction has a significant impact on teachers' confidence and self-esteem particularly the Non-Native English Speaking (NNES) Teachers.

The studies in India examining the issue of bi/multilingual teachers imparting education to children who are 'native speakers' of 'non-native language' of teachers are scanty although the thrust of educational policy is on bi/multilingual children. In the Indian context, it is well known that the formulation and implementation of language policies in education have always been a challenge. While in the NPE (1986) the Three Language Formula (TLF)

has been recommended to provide education in regional language, English and Hindi in non-Hindi states, and/or any other modern Indian language in Hindi speaking states, the medium of instruction, however, differs at different levels of education.

The issue of mother tongue-based Multilingual Education (MLE) policy adopted by many states in India was discussed at the International Meet (September 2011) held with the National Multilingual Education Resource Consortium (NMRC) and many other organizations in Mysore. The International Meet was held much earlier to the formulation of NPST as classroom practices and proficiency in the language of instruction of teachers are considered to be directly related to the performance of children. One of the major issues discussed in the Meet was ‘capacity building’ for a large number of MLE teachers since the number of teachers available from within a given language community is disproportionate to the number of bilingual learners in the classroom. This was taken up to meet the challenges faced by teachers in the classroom with bilingual learners. The Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL) and the Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL) initiated training programs for upper primary and secondary teachers in English and Foreign languages. The State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) of Kerala also organized statewide training for higher secondary teachers and upper primary teachers. The training program concentrated on various methods of teaching English from a communicative perspective. Considerable efforts to boost the language proficiency of teachers are evident but in practice, the predominant use of native language for communication purposes is a common sight across several schools among the teachers and learners. Non-native language (often English) is usually restricted to the classroom environment.

For long, there is an understanding that teachers’ language proficiency is essential to impart foundational literacy and numeracy skills to children in the pre-primary classroom. Teale and Sulzby (1991), Whitehurst and Lonigan (1998) have also stated that oral language of children has an impact on the early and emergent literacy skills subsequently influencing academic skills. But it is disturbing to note that majority of training programs for MLE teachers are often geared towards upper primary and higher education teachers (Prema, et al., 2010). In view of this, the principle of multilingualism and the power of language stated in the NEP 2020 are viewed through a lens to reflect on the practicability of the principle in classrooms. Drawing support from four studies conducted by the author and her research team that examined the proficiency of teachers as well as the importance of communication between teacher and learner, the relevance of the fundamental principle of multilingualism for education in pre-primary classrooms is discussed.

Language proficiency of primary school teachers: Prema Rao and Mekhala (2013) evaluated the language proficiency of 15 Tamil-English bilingual teachers who are non-native language speakers imparting education to children who are native speakers of the Kannada language. All the teachers were administered an online bilingual (Kannada-English) proficiency test. The results indicated lower proficiency in teachers for both

Kannada and English languages, but they seemed to employ multiple modes to communicate with children. While the native language of the children was Kannada with the language of instruction in the school being English (ESL children), the bilingual children showed flexibility to respond to differences in linguistic and socio-pragmatic expectations despite the teacher being a non-native speaker (Tamil).

Language proficiency of preschool teachers: In another study, Anjana, and Prema Rao (2017) conducted a survey on the language proficiency of preschool teachers using the International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scale (ISLPR) (Wylie & Ingram, 2006). Twenty preschool teachers from five English medium schools in South Kerala (Alappuzha, Kollam, and Trivandrum) were assessed for second language (English) proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The authors reported that the preschool teachers were least proficient in English speaking skills with relatively higher proficiency ratings for reading, followed by writing and listening.

The above two studies indicated poor proficiency of preschool and primary school teachers in the second language, i.e., English in this context. The role of teachers in the acquisition of a second language by children (the language of instruction) in the classroom is emphasized in several studies (Teale & Sulby, 1991; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998 among others). Since majority of activities in preschools are geared toward building language skills and pre-literacy skills, the role of teachers is very crucial. While children from different socioeconomic backgrounds receive different degrees of input for a second language, the onus of providing quality input rests on teachers. Theoretically the thrust for language proficiency is heavily loaded onto teachers but in actuality, language proficiency in teachers reported across several studies is not satisfactory. Therefore, an intriguing question to be addressed at this juncture in the backdrop of NEP 2020 is whether the teachers TEACH or EDUCATE preschool children? Alternately stated, should the preschool children be treated as STUDENTS or LEARNERS? Let us try to understand these terms from the perspective of NEP 2020.

Teaching is imparting facts and, transference of subject matter from a teacher to a student by training the mind of learners to think. The NEP 2020 strongly emphasizes ‘educating the learners’ in the classroom instead of ‘teaching students’. As stated in the NEP the primary goal is the development of creative potential and higher-order cognitive capacities such as critical thinking and problem-solving. To educate, the teacher needs to employ different modes of communication where communication is defined as an active and intentional process through which a speaker and listener transmit messages such as experiences, ideas, thoughts, and feelings to each other. Teachers convey facts and encourage learners to exercise their thinking process by using different modes of expression. Therefore, communication becomes the key to educating learners with mutually acceptable mode(s) that best suits the context. The following two studies project the importance of communication using language as a tool in educating preschool bilingual learners.

Interaction of bilingual preschoolers with adult story readers: Prema Rao, Kaderavek, and Prarthana (2017) conducted a study on bilingual preschoolers to examine the interaction of children with adult story readers. Prema Rao and Kaderavek compared the linguistic output of typically developing bilingual preschoolers during shared book readings with a culturally familiar adult (CF) who spoke English as a second language and US English-speaking adult reader who is a culturally less-familiar adult (LF). The two adults differed in their language proficiency with CF being less proficient compared to the LF. Scripted questions were included during reading interactions. The language output during the shared book readings was transcribed and analyzed for linguistic features including mean length of utterance (MLU), and type-token ratio (TTR). The results demonstrated that children showed differences in MLU & TTR scores when different books were read but no significant difference observed in the linguistic output of preschoolers in response to CF (less proficient) and LF (more proficient) adults suggesting the adaptability of preschoolers to communication partners. De Houwer (2009) also reported that very young bilingual children can adapt to different language partners during communication. The encouraging finding of the study is that young children are likely to be interested in interacting with adult communication partners regardless of the language proficiency or cultural familiarity of adults. The reports suggest that the language proficiency of adult readers may be of less significance provided adult partners communicate effectively to convey the information. The following study further supports this conviction.

Oral language and phonological skill training through digital mode: Neha Lakshmesh and Prema Rao (2011) conducted a study using on three groups of children using digital literacy package (DiLiCoach describes various activities for language and emergent literacy skills). The three groups were from LKG-1 (experimental group from school A), LKG-2 (first control group from school B), and UKG-1 (second control group from school A). Children of LKG-1 received 20 sessions of instruction from teachers who are pre-trained for using the DiLiCoach whereas children of LKG-2 did not receive any formal training with DiLiCoach. At the end of this period, the children of LKG-1(experimental group) and LKG-2 (first control group) were again evaluated on various measures of phonological awareness, print knowledge, and oral language. Results showed significant progress on all these parameters by the LKG-1 children with the scores almost paralleling those of UKG-1 children (second control group). Children from LKG-1(experimental group) were six months ahead of their peers in LKG-2 (Control group 1). The children who were instructed using the DiLiCoach also showed improved syntax (MLU) and semantics (number of different word roots and number of main body words). An increase was also seen in the total number of complete words used by children in their narration. These findings indicated that activities strategized using language as a tool promotes foundational literacy provided teachers are sensitized to be effective communicators with children.

DISCUSSION

The fundamental principle of NEP 2020 i.e., ‘Promotion of Multilingualism and the Power of Language in learning and teaching’ is projected in this paper from various angles. In

general, two major contradictory issues need to be considered before the implementation of the policy.

Issue no. 1: Language proficiency of teachers

The premise that exists in the West regarding the language proficiency of teachers and its negative impact on learning a second language by children in the classroom has received much attention even by the educational fraternity in our country. However, there is a need to examine this premise in-depth since the multilingual and multicultural status of India provides adequate opportunities for young children to learn languages in our societal context. Children learn to use not only the specific code of a given language (for example, their native language) but also engage other communication modalities to successfully interact with their peers and adults. The two studies described earlier (Prema Rao & Mekhala, 2013 and Anjana & Prema Rao, 2017) suggested that even the teachers who are less proficient in the native language of young bilingual learners successfully communicated using varieties of communication modes. Therefore, there is an urgent need to investigate this premise in the Indian educational context before it can be generalized to a larger population of bilingual learners.

Issue no. 2: Capacity building for teachers in communicative competence

While the language proficiency of teachers is debated in our context, a disproportion in the number of bilingual teachers to the bilingual learners is also an issue to be considered. The language and communication training programs for capacity building for MLE teachers are very scanty. Besides being very few, the programs are conducted as an initiative by a few organizations but are not pursued as a sustainable activity by the government sectors. It is disheartening to note that the pre-primary teachers who are considered the pillars to initiate foundational literacy skills are rarely targeted for MLE training programs that are focused on enhancing their communicative competence. Theoretical emphasis on the conviction that teachers should learn to 'play with children' using language as a tool for empowerment remains at best as a theory without much ado given for extensive training programs to the teachers at the ground level. There is an urgent need to schematize training programs for MLE teachers if teachers should learn to communicate using different modes to convey the educational concepts and encourage children to 'think and respond' in their language. Such training programs are much needed for those responsible for building foundational literacy skills in bilingual learners.

To sum up the discussion, in the opinion of the author, it is necessary to view the fundamental principle of NEP 2020-multilingualism and the power of language as an 'asset' and not as a 'problem'. The discussion held in this paper may help to ponder over the statement 'Bilingual children in the classroom: Bliss or Misery?' with a positive perspective to treat bilingualism as an asset. However, it should be noted that at this juncture, there is a need for extensive studies in this direction to investigate the critical issue in teaching young bilingual learners and, to work out the modalities to restructure, reorganize and reorient teacher training programs.

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Please note: The idea of changing perspective towards bilingual learners was presented by the author in the webinar organised by WELLTTA (World English Language Learners, Teachers, and Trainers Association) Forum on 22-01-2022.

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