TWO YEAR

POST GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMME

IN

EDUCATION

SEMESTER – III

EDE – 01

Educational Technology - 1

SELF LEARNING MATERIAL

DIRECTORATE OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING
UNIVERSITY OF KALYANI
KALYANI – 741 235
WEST BENGAL

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Director's Message

Satisfying the varied needs of distance learners, overcoming the obstacle of distance and reaching the unreached students are the threefold functions catered by Open and Distance Learning (ODL) systems. The onus lies on writers, editors, production professionals and other personnel involved in the process to overcome the challenges inherent to curriculum design and production of relevant Self Learning Materials (SLMs). At the University of Kalyani a dedicated team under the able guidance of the Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor has invested its best efforts, professionally and in keeping with the demands of Post Graduate CBCS Programmes in Distance Mode to devise a self-sufficient curriculum for each course offered by the Directoate of Open and Distance Learning (DODL), University of Kalyani.

Development of printed SLMs for students admitted to the DODL within a limited time to cater to the academic requirements of the Course as per standards set by Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, India under Open and Distance Mode UGC Regulations, 2017 had been our endeavour. We are happy to have achieved our goal.

Utmost care and precision have been ensured in the development of the SLMs, making them useful to the learners, besides avoiding errors as far as practicable. Further suggestions from the stakeholders in this would be welcome.

During the production-process of the SLMs, the team continuously received positive stimulations and feedback from Professor (Dr.) Sankar Kumar Ghosh, Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, University of Kalyani, who kindly accorded directions, encouragements and suggestions, offered constructive criticism to develop it within proper requirements. We gracefully, acknowledge his inspiration and guidance.

Sincere gratitude is due to the respective chairpersons as well as each and every member of PGBOS (DODL), University of Kalyani. Heartfelt thanks is also due to the Course Writers-faculty members at the DODL, subject-experts serving at University Post Graduate departments and also to the authors and academicians whose academic contributions have enriched the SLMs. We humbly acknowledge their valuable academic contributions. I would

especially like to convey gratitude to all other University dignitaries and personnel involved either at the conceptual or operational level of the DODL of University of Kalyani.

Their persistent and co-ordinated efforts have resulted in the compilation of comprehensive, learner-friendly, flexible texts that meet the curriculum requirements of the Post Graduate Programme through Distance Mode.

All the Self Learning Materials are self writing and collected from e-book, journals and websites.

Director

Directorate of Open and Distance Learning

University of Kalyani

EDE-01 : EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

SEMESTER – III

SYLLABUS

(Full Marks-100)

Block	Contents	Study hour
Block-1 **Introduction to Educational Technology**	**Unit – 1 : Basic concepts of Educational Technology** 1.1 : Meaning and nature of Educational Technology. 1.2 : Scope and Educational Technology	1 Hour
	Unit – 2 : System approach in Educational Technology 2.1: Concept of System 2.2: ET as a system and its characteristics 2.3: ET as systems approach to education.	1 Hour
Block-2 **Communication and Instruction**	**Unit – 1 : Introduction to Communication** 1.1: Concept, Nature and Process of Communication 1.2: Types of Communication	1 Hour
	Unit – 2 : Communication and Instruction 2.1: Concept and types of Instruction 2.2: Components of Communication Process in Instructional Systems	1 Hour
	Unit – 3 : Classroom Communication 3.1: Components of Classroom Communication (interactive, verbal and non-verbal). 3.2: Factors affecting classroom communication.	1 Hour
Block-3 **Modalities of Teaching**	**Unit -1 : Teaching and Instruction, Conditioning and Training** 1.1: Meaning of Teaching and Instruction, Conditioning and Training 1.2: Difference between teaching and instruction, conditioning and training	1 Hour
	Unit -2 : Levels of Teaching 2.1: Concept of Memory, Understanding and Reflective levels.	1 Hour
	Unit -3: Stages/phases of Teaching 3.1: Concept of Pre-active, Interactive and Post-active Stages.	1 Hour
Block-4 **Models of Teaching**	**Unit -1 : Basic Concepts of Models of Teaching** 1.1 : Meaning, nature and functions of Models of Teaching. 1.2 : Families of Models of Teaching	1 Hour
	Unit -2 : Different Models of Teaching-1 2.1: Glaser and Bruner	1 Hour
	Unit -3 : Different Models of Teaching-2 3.1 : Ausubel and Piaget	1 Hour

Block	Contents	Study hour
<u>Block-5</u> Modification of Teaching Behaviour	**Unit -1 : Modification of Teaching Behaviour -1** 1.1 : Simulation 1.2 : Micro-Teaching	1 Hour
	Unit -2 : Modification of Teaching Behaviour -2 2.1 : Basic concepts of Flander's Interaction Analysis 2.2 : Flander's Interaction Analysis Matrix	1 Hour
<u>Block-6</u> Designing Instructional Systems	**Unit -1 : Formulation of instruction objectives** 1.1 : Classification of Instructional Objectives 1.2 : Taxonomy of Instructional Objectives 1.3 : Writing Instructional objectives 1.4 : Task Analysis: Concept and Functions.	1 Hour
	Unit -2 : Designing Instructional Strategies-1 2.1 : Lecture 2.2 : Team Teaching 2.3 : Discussion 2.4 : Panel Discussion	1 Hour
	Unit -3 : Designing Instructional Strategies-2 3.1 : Seminars 3.2 : Conferences 3.3 : Tutorials and 3.4 : Educational Games.	1 Hour

CONTENTS

EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block - 1

Introduction to Educational Technology

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

In the first part of the 20th Century there was a sudden and tremendous change in the thinking pattern of man. This is partly due to the discovery of Quantum Theory by Max Planck (1901) and Special Theory of Relativity by Albert Einstein (1905) and partly due to the increased application of science and technology in everyday life. Improvement of wireless systems and space craft technologies has improved radio and telecommunication hardware and software systems also. Development of low cost T. Vs and computers have widened the imagination of the world of human being. Now-a- days most modern information technologies have changed the distance of the world. This world has now become a ‗Global Village'.

Education is a social process. On the one hand it changes society, and on the other hand education changes itself with the change of the society. So it is obvious that these would change educational methods, instructional systems and, curriculum and evaluation procedures. Exactly this is what has happened today.

This Block will give you some basic ideas of Educational Technology.

OBJECTIVES

After going through the Block, you will be able to :

- ¯ Give the Meaning, Forms, Nature and Scope of Educational Technology (ET)
- ¯ Develop the Concept of systems
- ¯ Define a system
- ¯ Understand the Black Box concept of Systems
- ¯ Illustrate the relationship between ET and Systems Approach
- ¯ Explain the System Approach in education
- ¯ Verify the steps involved in Systems Approach to Education
- ¯ Understand the problems in implementing Systems Approach in Education

Block-1

Unit – 1

Basic Concepts of Educational Technology

1.1.1 : MEANING AND NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY.

Education always undergoes multi-dimensional changes.

According to Erie Ashby (1967) there were four major revolutions in EDUCATION :

1. The first revolution was the change of adult role in the society and shifting responsibility of education from parents to teachers and family to school.
2. The second revolution was the adoption of written word instead of oral instruction in education and the development of classroom concept.
3. The third revolution was the invention of printing and wide spread of printed books and
4. The fourth revolution is the advancement of electronics; the use of radio, T. V., computer, tape-recorder etc.

The behavioural scientists have joined in this fourth revolution. We are now in the midst of a fifth revolution. It is the revolution of ‗Information Technology'. ―*Any technology*", says Ashby, ―*which increase the fate of learning, would enable the teacher to teach less and the learner to learn more*."

The perceptions of what constitute Educational Technology have evolved over a period of 30 years. [Elton, et. al., 1993]

The term technology refers to the combination of both techniques and technical innovations. In fact techniques are related to software and equipments are hardware of technology. The hardware component is the physical device and methodologies are the soft component components.

As the term technology is distinctly connected with education, it has some special connotation for use and explaination in education.

Some time it was thought that Educational technology is the combination of Technology of education and Technology in education. But now- a- days it is thought that E. T. is more than the combination of these two terms. Technology in education is the hardware part of the education system and the technology of education is the software part and it includes techniques and mythologies of the teaching-learning process.

Before going further, let us define some of the definitions of ET. According to the National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) UK (1971) :

―Educational Technology is the development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids to improve the process of human learning."

Educational Technology is the development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids to improve the process of human learning.

This is a precise but stimulating definition of E. T. But a more elaborate definition of E. T. was given in the International Seminar on Alternative Strategies for Introduction of ET in Budapest (1976) and it was also accepted by UNESCO and UNDP. The definition is as follows :

―ETmay be defined as a separate field in the theory of Education dealing with development and application of the use of educational resources. In detail it implies the following principles:

1. Clear educational objectives;
2. The logical order of the elements of content;
3. The structure of the teaching learning process;
4. The development of models leading to the acquisition of knowledge;
5. The introduction of feed-back with the teaching learning process;
6. Media selection and criteria of media selection, also media evaluation and optimization;
7. The development of equipment to meet educational, economic, aesthetic and technical demands;
8. The study of the effectiveness of hardware and software in practical situations;
9. The various approaches to effectiveness in educational systems."

Another definition given by the Commission of Instructional Technology (USA) is as follows —Education technology is a systematic way of designing, implementing and evaluating the total process of learning and teaching in terms of specific objectives, based in research on human learning and communication and employing a combination of human and non human resources to bring about more effective instruction."

So from the above definitions it is very clear that the primary objective of ET is improving the efficiency of the process of learning. It uses modern technology and technicalities for the development of teaching and learning systems.

In a practical learning situation, conventional or distance education, a learner acquires knowledge through different instructional modes. These modes of instructions may be in form of oral communication or pictures, films, discussions, laboratory work, home assignment, etc. ET has its application in all the cases. It helps to chose effective media for different circumstances of instruction according to the characteristics of the pupil, their attitudes towards the subject matter, instructional objectives, class size, etc.

1.1.2 : FORMS OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Educational Technology (ET) has wide range of scope and has different forms. The different forms of ET depend on the nature of its applications. In a broader sense, ET uses the principles and techniques of science and technology along with psychology and pedagogy in the activities of teaching and learning process. Thus it can help teaching and learning in both formal and informal education. In this way ET, with its broad concept, is applicable in a wide variety of areas and fields.

Long time ago Lumbsdaine (1964) has suggested three types of ET. These are :

(a) Educational Technology or Hardware Approach,

(b) Educational Technology or Software approach, and

(c) Educational Technology or Instructional Designs or Systems Approach But now-a-days it is classified in the following way:

i) Teaching technology

ii) Instructional technology

Lumbsdaine (1964) has suggested three types of ET : (a). Educational Technology or Harware Approach, (b). Educational Technology or Software approach, and (c). Educational Technology or Instructional Designs or Systems Approach.

iii) Behavioural technology

iv) Instructional design technology

In short *Teaching technology* is the application of philosophical, sociological and scientific knowledge to teaching for achieving some specific learning objectives.

On the other hand, Instructional technology means a network of techniques or devices employed to accomplish certain defined set of learning objectives.

Behavioural technology has a much wider field than the above two. It covers the area of military sectors, industry, health, commerce, communication, administration, training, education, teaching and instruction and many more.

Lastly, the *Instructional design technology* covers three major concepts: Training Psychology, Cybernetic Psychology and Systems analysis.

Different experts have classified ET according to their approaches in dealing ET in different fields of knowledge. Thus Mackenzie and others (1980) have classified ET on the basis of information resources. These authors have classified it as follows:

(i) TV, language laboratories and other audio visual resources.

(ii) Feedback devices including teaching machines.

(iii) Reprographic equipments like computers and programmed learning materials. On the other hand, Ellington and Percival (1988) have classified ET in the following way:

(i) Mass instructional techniques.

(ii) Individualised instructional techniques.

From the above discussion, it may now be concluded that ET is a multifaceted concept. So it some specific types of approaches. Some authors have classified it in to five approaches:

(i). Educational Technology I — Use of psychological principles

(ii). Educational Technology II — Production and design of instructional materials, and communication means

(iii). Educational Technology III — Management aspects are considered

(iv). Educational Technology IV — Covers Educational Systems Engineering

(v). Educational Technology

(vi). V — Covers Educational Planning (economic and financial aspects)

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Define Education Technology
2. What are the five approaches of Educational Technology?

1.1.3 : NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

We have briefly discussed the forms of ET. This has given us a synoptic view of the development of ET in the passing of the age. We can now try to explain the nature of ET on the basis of the above discussion. Different persons may consider the nature of ET in different angles, because it covers a vast area in the field of education. Some have considered the nature of ET from the following stand points:

1. Evolution of the concept of ET.
2. Existing position and concept of ET
3. Distinction of ET from other related concepts.

Earliest concept of ET was linked with the use of audio visual aids like charts, models, maps etc. In this sense the term ET was used as a synonym to audio-visual aids. But with the development of science and technology and consequently the development of electronic devices, ET got a new boost. At this stage sophisticated hardware and software like projectors, tape recorder, radio and TV were used.

The development of mass media has further increased the capability of ET. In this age the use of radio, TV, tele-text, CAI, etc. has increased the reach of ET in formal and non-formal education. Again with the development of sophisticated programmed instruction concept helped to develop self learning and self instruction process. Thus use of teaching machine and computers came in to the field of teaching and instruction in a big way for preparation, design and development of self learning modules and self learning materials. With this development, there is a change in the in the approaches and applications of ET. New theories of teaching along with the new theories learning were applied in the area of

teaching, learning and instruction. Thus micro teaching, behaviour analysis of learners and teachers, systems approach came in to existence.

Thus we can now differentiate among different terms like Educational technology and Instructional technology; Educational technology and Teaching technology; Technology in education and Technology of education, etc.

Thus the nature of ET can be summarised as follows:

i). ET is the application of scientific principles to education.

ii). ET stresses on the development of methods and techniques for effective teaching and learning.

iii). It stresses the organisation of learning situations for the effective realisation of goals.

iv). It gives importance of designing and measuring instrument for testing educational outcomes.

v). It can control outcomes of education by controlling media, methods and environment.

vi). It involves input, process and output aspects of education. Thus ET also involves in system approach in education.

vii). It also helps communication in education.

1.1.4 : SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

An oft going proverb says like this:

I hear, I forgot;

I see, I remember;

I do, Iunderstand.

The traditional teachers depend too much on verbal exposition. Without proper and pragmatic visualization the pupil cannot remember and understand them. But due to binocular vision of human being, they can minutely see matters and differentiate them accurately. So one can remember what one can see. Againpracticalactivitiesinvolvemostoftheorgansofthebodyandproperunderstanding develops through the use of senseorgans.

It has been experimentally found that We learn-

1% through TASTE

1.5% through TOUCH

3.5% through SMELL

Again we remember-

% through HEARING

83.0% throughSIGHT

According to Henry Elton (1993) the scope of ET has been expanding after the World War II. Elton said that the scope of ET has expanded from mass Communication to Individualised learning and then Group learning by the use of Research, Development and Use.

20%	of	what	we	HEAR
30%	of	what	we	SEE
50%	of	what	we	SEE &HEAR
80%	of	what	we	SAY
90%	of	what	we	SAY & DO

So one can certainly say that E. T. has tremendous scope in the educational field because ET uses scientific and technological methods and concepts developed in psychology, sociology, communication, linguistics and also uses the management principles of cost effectiveness and efficiently use and deploy available resources in men and materials.

ScopeofETexpandedfurtherbythedevelopmentofprogrammedinstruction.Thisdevelopment enhances the scope of individual learning. Skinnerian psychology has been applied to produce books and text materials based on programmed instructions. Application of computer in education has improvedindividualisedlearningatafasterratethanourpreviousassumptions.

Group learning technique has begun to expand its areas in the early 60‘s by the development of humanistic psychology by Carl Rogers. Simulation, role play, case studies are some of the group learning techniques developed in this period.

Thus scope of ET is expanding day to day with the advancement of research and development in the field of education.

The scope of ET may be summarised as follows:

i) E. T. helps to solve educational problems through systems approach. Because educational problems are multivariate in nature.

ii) E. T. can be applied in developing instructional objectives and techniques. In this case it takes the help of psychological researches.

iii) By the use of multimedia approach in teaching and learning ET can develop higher cognition among children and adults.

iv) By the application of information and communication technology ET has developed multi-sensory approach in education. This approach increases the retention time in learning process. Thus it increases the scope of research and development in education in this field.

v) Development of programmed instruction by ET, individualised learning has placed its foot firmly. Thus it has extended its scope in other fields of personalised learning, viz., self learning modules, multimedia learning packages,etc.

vi) It uses the modern electronic gadgets, viz. projectors, audio &video equipments, C. C. TV, VCR, TV monitors, radio, computers, etc. Thus it relieves, to some extent, teachers on the one hand and encourages learners on the other hand. These hardware and software technologies also expend the area of research, development and use in different field of education.

vii) E.T. can now expand and change teachers‘ skills, attitudes and behaviours.

viii) ET has tremendous scope in setting goals, development and reform curriculum, try out of new methods and materials in a particular situation.

(vii). According to Spaulding, S. (1971), ―Although education has shared in the creation of technological age, education itself has not learned how to use the fruits of technology to improve the efficiency and the quality of its own institutions.” [Advanced Educational Technologies, Prospects in Education, UNESCO, 1971]

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State four characteristics of Educational Technology.
2. What are the five approaches to Educational Technology?

Block-1

Unit – 2

System Approach in Educational Technology

1.2.1 : CONCEPT OF SYSTEMS

The terms system and system approach are widely used in engineering and cybernetics. A system is any collection of interrelated parts that forms a larger whole. The parts of components of the system form the boundary of the system. And outside the boundary of the system is the system environment. As the components of the system increases, the boundary of the system also increases (Fig. 2).

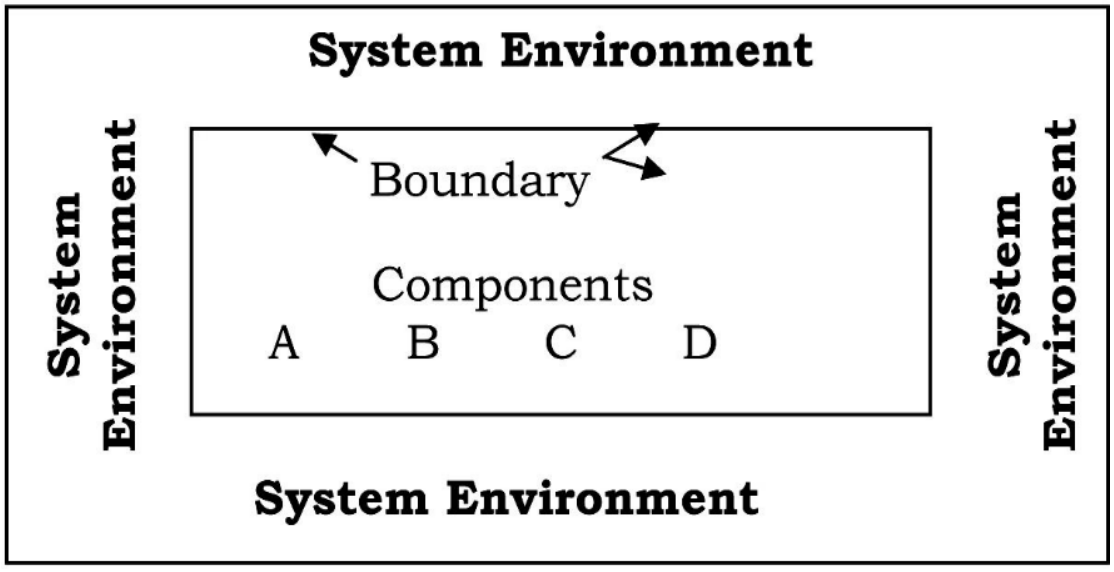


Fig. 2 : A simple form of System

A system may consist of may sub-systems. Combination of two or more sub- systems forms a system.

A system may consist of many sub-systems. Combination of two or more sub-systems forms a system. Systems may be of two types: Closed system and Open system. A closed system works in isolation, independent of the environment.

But an open system constantly interacts with the environment. An educational system is an example of open system

1.2.2 : SOME DEFINITIONS OF A SYSTEM

In the previous section we have an idea about the system. In this section we will try to know some more basic ideas of Systems.

Before going to in depth study of the subject, we should give some standard definitions of a SYSTEM.

1. The Webster's Dictionary has defined system as a —egulatory interaction or independent group of items forming a unified whole."

2. According to Paul Weiss, —A system is anything unitary enough to deserve a name."

The System approach is nothing more or less than what a complete, smart, adequate business executive adopts in the ordinary conduct of his business.

3. According to Boulding, K.(1985), — A system is anything that is not chaos."

4. Ackoff, R.(1981) defines it as follows:

   —A system is a set of two or more elements that satisfy the following three conditions:

   - The behavior of each element has an effect on the behaviors of the whole.
   - The behavior of the elements and their effects on the whole are independent.
   - However sub groups of the elements are formed, all have an effect on the behaviour of the whole, but none has an independent effect on it."

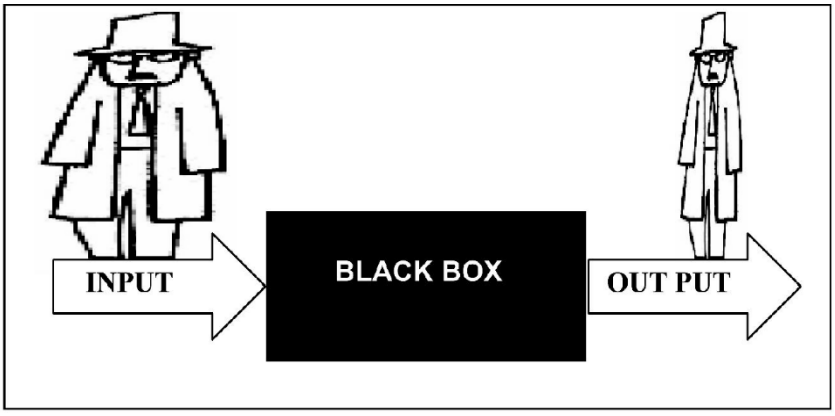
5. According to Dearder, J. (1972) —The system approach is nothing more or less than what a complete, smart, adequate business executive adopts in the ordinary conduct of his business"

6. Mukridakis, S (1971) defines it as,—.the system approach to management is basically a way of thinking. The organization is viewed as an integrated complex of interdependent parts which is capable of sensitive and accurate integration among themselves and with their environment."

Occasionally, we do not want to know the Black Box or its function e.g. the doctor may control the number of the days of treatment. A listener may control the wave band of his / her radio / TV without any knowledge of their functioning.

7. According to Rowntree (1974), —An overall approach which involves tackling problems in a approach-disciplined manner keeping priorities in mind. The sub-system definition, making up the overall system, can be designed, fitted, checked and operated so as to achieve the overall objective efficiently".

1.2.3 : THE BLACK BOX CONCEPT OF SYSTEMS



The system environment, the inputs and the outputs, develop the Black Box Concept of a system.

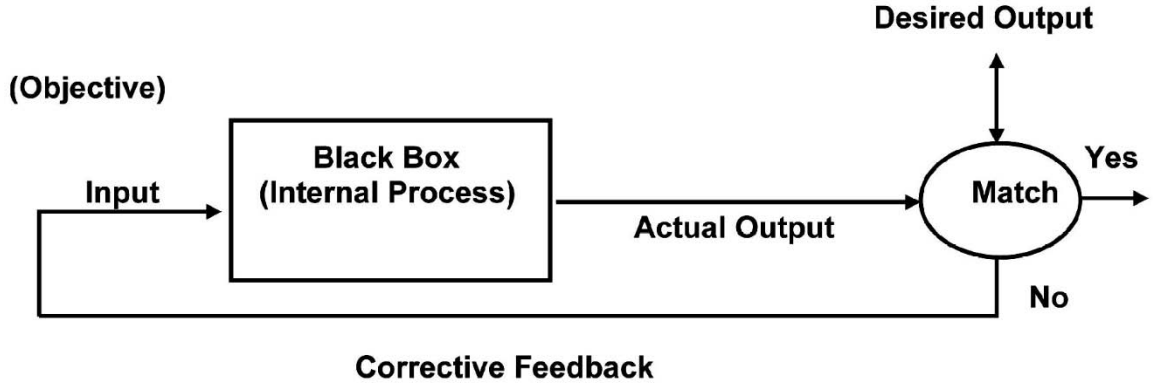
What is the black box concept? In the word of the system Engineer‘s anthem:

—A system is a big black box

Of which we can‘t unlock the locks

And all we can find out about

Is what goes in and what comes out.” [Kennth Boulding]



The first step is the system of interest, boundaries of the system, the inputs and outputs across these boundaries. System efficiency can be measured by quantifying the inputs and the outputs. Fig. 3 explains the purpose of the system i.e. reduction of weight. Its efficiency here is quite satisfactory. But it is not clear how it has been achieved; by exercise, by chemicals or by starvation? For many purposes it is unimportant to understand the process. For example, your doctor may have recommended the treatment. But you, as a potential client and raw materials on the input process, may think differently. Achieving objectives only may not be a satisfactory system for human society. It has also to be

accepted by the majority of the potential clients. In education or training, system designer should consider the above points very carefully.

8. As we have stated earlier, in many times we do not want to know the black box or it‘s functioning the doctor in the above example may control the number of the days. A listener may control the wave band of his radio/TV without any knowledge of their functioning.

When the normal control fails, we consider it a small functioning of the system and need system analysis. Only then we open then Black Box.

A ministry of education (to a point) may control the output of a school system by manipulating input resources, output criteria etc. without any detailed knowledge of the instructional system going on in the school system.

But when normal control fails, we consider it as malfunctioning of the system and need system analysis. Only then we open then Black Box. For example when malfunctioning of the education system occurs, the education ministry become interested in the nuts and bolts of the curriculum design, teachers training etc. Only when the teacher has exhausted his owner source fullness in adopting instruction, guiding, explaining, demonstrating, motivating, etc. he begins to open the Black Box i.e., he works for the system malfunctioning in the students, and may well need the expert help.

1.2.4 : EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY (ET) AND SYSTEMSAPPROACH

The concept of SYSTEM and its applications in different areas, including education, is the result of the continuous development of science and technology in theory and practice. Educational Technology (ET) uses those concepts to evaluate instructional process in classroom practices.

Thanks to the development of ET. It is now helping in a big way in different stages of educational planning by judicious application of Systems Theories and the Systems Approach concept. The relationship between ET and Systems Approach is interrelated and is shown in Figure5.

From the figure we can see that ET is the combination of Technologyin Education and Technology of Education. Systems Approach is a part of the Technology of Education.

1.2.5 : THE SYSTEM APPROACH IN EDUCATION

Application of System concept in education is a recent development. But its origin and application may be traced back in Egyptian Pyramids or in the Phoenicians navigation system based on stars or in China where system concept was used in law and management.

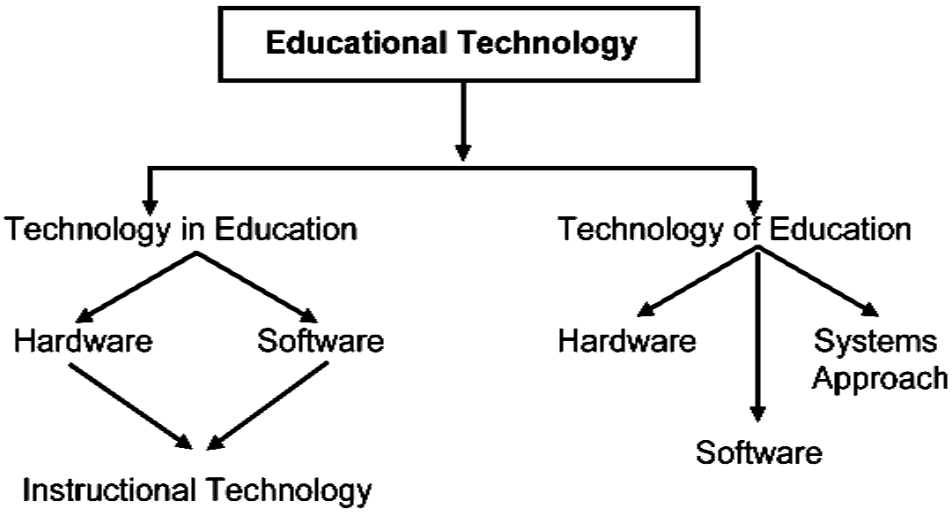


Fig.: Relationship between ET & Systems Approach

But the present form of system concept has been developed very recently after the rapid development of engineering and cybernetic system during 1950s. Before going to the elaborate discussion; let us take a very simple definition of System, because it will help us to go deep into the further discussion:

A system is any collection of interrelated parts that forms a larger whole.

So the larger whole must have a limit or boundary. Outside this boundary of the system, there is System Environment. A system may consist of two or more subsystems (Fig. 6& 7). A system may be open or close according to its functioning. A close system works in isolation, independent of the environment. But an open system constantly interacts with the environment.

Like other systems, education has inter acting and inter connected components and sub-systems, like pupils, teachers, curriculum, teaching media and materials, instructional striates, physical environment, evaluation systems etc.

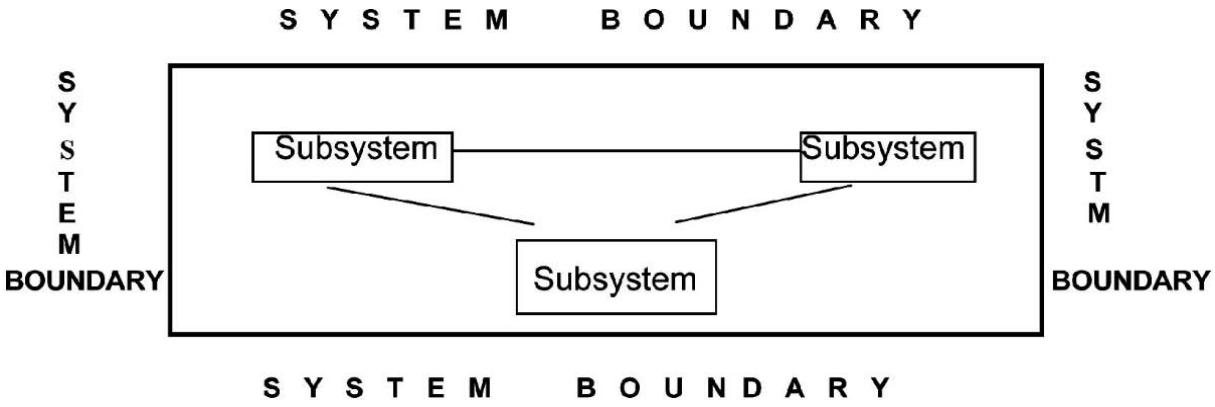


Fig. : Some basic System Terminology

Education system is an open system. Human body is a perfect example of a system where cells of the body are components of the system and different circulatory systems, respiratory system etc. are sub systems.

In system approach, piecemeal approach is replaced by an overall approach and it began to be used in training and education from the late 1950s and early 19860s. Four different names, viz. —System Engineering", —System Analysis", System Approach", and —Operational Research" are used for explaining the methodology of system approach".

In general the systems approach may help in the following areas of education:

- An in-depth study and analysis of the environment
- Fixation of goal/goals for the desired situation suitable for the environment
- Setting up mechanism to evaluate the achievements or goals
- Selecting or preparing alternative path to evaluate the achievements of goals
- Cost-benefit analysis of different paths
- Designing the details of the system
- Working out the solutions This is explained in Fig.9.

ET is 'the systematic approach to designing, implementing and evaluating learning system. Hence proper and effective use of ET to learning systems requires application of Systems Approach by educational technologists.

1.2.6 : STEPS INVOLVED IN SYSTEMS APPROACH TO EDUCATION

Generally, in Education the following steps are involved in adopting the systems approach in problem solving:

1. Identification of the problem of the education systems.
2. Formulation and determining the specifications of objectives.
3. Analysis the taskin achieving the objectives.
4. Systems analysis, i.e., analysis of the input and constraints of the system in the context of the stipulated objectives.
5. System Design and development by generating alternative strategies.
6. Identification of preferred solution in the specified environment.
7. Operation and implementation of the preferred solution.
8. Evaluation of the effectiveness of the performance in terms of the selected objectives.
9. Providing feedback in the light of the evaluation for bringing further development of the total system.
10. Further quality control (advance part of the feed back system)
11. Change to improve

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give a suitable definition of the term “System”.
2. Relate ET with system approach.
3. Mention constraints in applying system approach in Education.

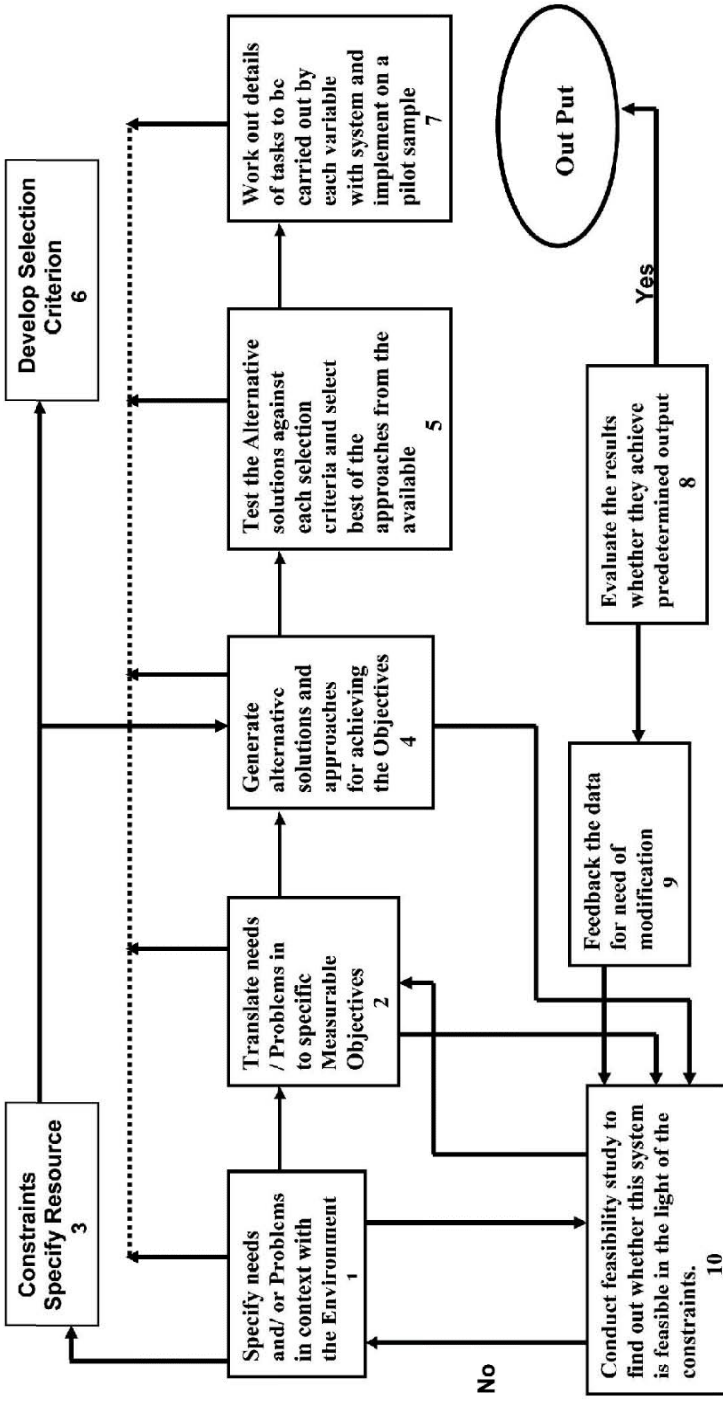


Fig. : Flow Chart of steps involved in System Approach (Dotted Lines show Feedback Loops in the formation stage among Sub-systems) [Sharma, 1980]

1.2.6 : SYSTEMAPPROACHTOEDUCATIONALTECHNOLOGY

We have discussed that ET is made effective by the use of the System Approach Strategies, because ET is ‗the systematic approach to designing, implementing and evaluating learning system.' Hence proper and effective use of ET to learning systems requires application of Systems Approach by educational technologists. They also consider it Cybernetic or Organic self-generating as well as a self-controlling system, because designing of learning system requires:

1. Deciding on the objectives
2. Developing and designing sequences of learning strategies
3. Planning appropriate modes and media
4. Deciding on the proper evaluation systems.

The inter relationships among subsystems and components are shown in Fig. 10. So in educational system, like any other Cybernetic Systems, the same procedures of system approach are used and ET helps to organize the steps by generating different probable problems devising effective strategies to overcome them [Fig.11].

1.2.7 : PROBLEMS IN IMPLEMENTING SYSTEMS APPROACH INEDUCATION

The Systems Approach is not a new concept, but its application in modern education is new. It has developed from systems engineering, but all the areas of the systems approach cannot be totally used in education system. Researchers are going on and some problems had been identified. Some of these are as follows:

(i) **Hard work :** Systems approach requires hard work and continuous programming of the effects of the system.

(ii) **Time management :** Systems approach has been very effectively used in industry but in education it is still in its infancy. The reason behind may be that the resultant effect of the process takes a long time but the time period in educational institutions are limited. So it requires time management and continuous in this field.

(iii) **Not a panacea :** It should be clearly considered that Systems approach is not a panacea for all ills of educational system.

(iv) Old systems are difficult to remove : There is always resistance to new methods or approach. So it takes time to remove the old system from the educational institutions. (Chauhan,2000)

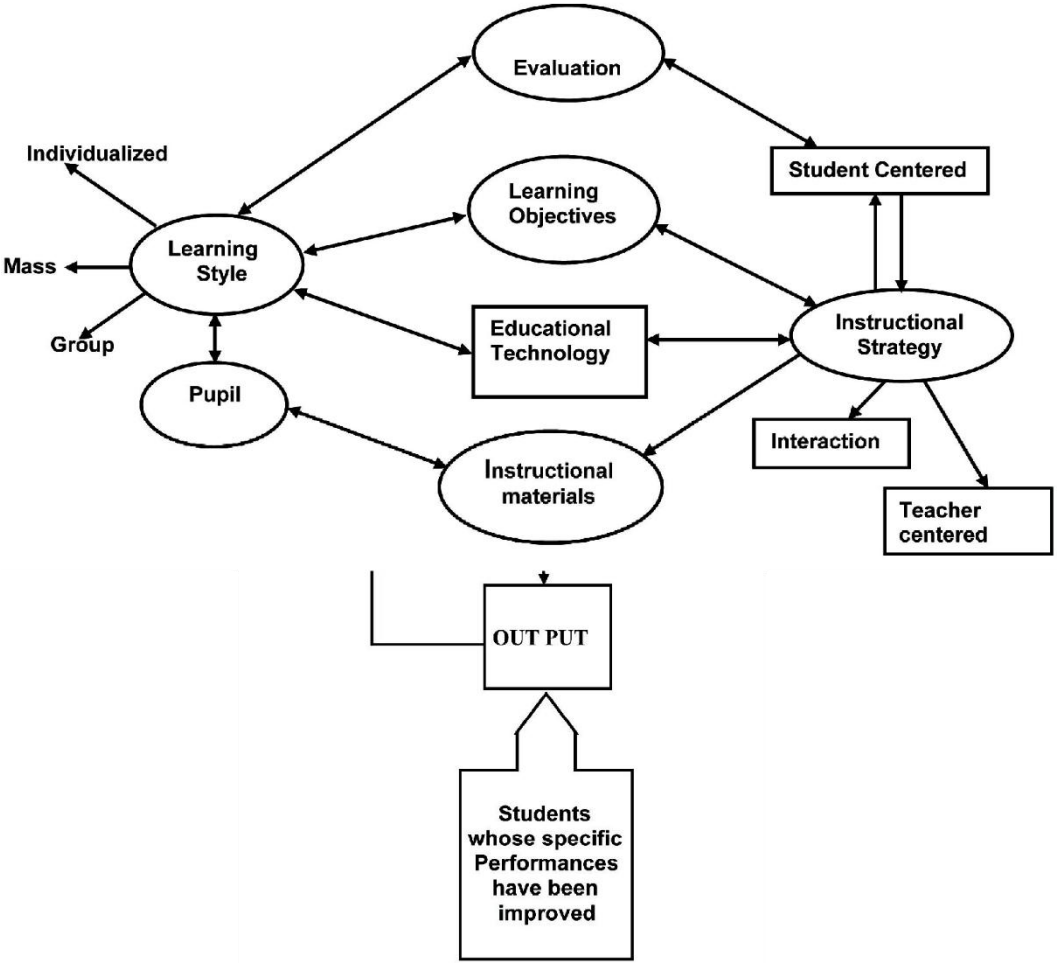


Fig. : System Approach to Educational Technology

- By reducing learning time and increasing learning outcome
- By increasing students‘ achievements
- By reducing students‘ dropout
- By reducing students‘ learning anxieties and frustration
- By increasing teachers‘ effectiveness

LET US SUM UP

Now we can conclude that Systems Approach helps to use ET effectively in designing, developing, producing, implementing and evaluating curriculum. It also helps teaching-learning processing a classroom situation in the following way.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Give a suitable definition of Educational Technology. In this case explain different forms of Educational Technology.
2. Illustrate the historical development of Educational technology. Explain the scope of Educational Technology in teaching – learning process.
3. Define system. Explain the Black Box concept of Systems.

Why is education considered as a system? What are the problems of implementing Educational Technology?

EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block - 2

Communication and Instruction

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Civilization is reflected in three priceless possessions of mankind, first is the human ability to think, second being his innate capacity to communicate and the third is his species-specific competence to acquire and use the arbitrary symbol system of language. The process of communication permits us to use and reuse the experience of others in present and in future. Communication is the means by which people relate to one another. The word communication has been derived from the Latin word *Communis*' meaning to make common. Communication is taken as a sharing process. Communication plays an important and essential role in the teaching-learning process. In many ways, teaching is like communicating and thus it is said that a good teacher must be a good communicator. This Unit shall try to familiarize you first about the meaning and nature of communication. This unit makes you acquainted with the different components of communication and the process of communication. It also highlights different components of classroom communication like verbal nonverbal etc. The factors and barriers of communication will also be dealt with in the later part of this unit. Then we will discuss some of the strategies to overcome the barriers of classroom communication.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you will be able to

- define and explain the meaning of communication;
- identify and describe the components of classroom communication;
- describe the process of communication;
- list, describe and distinguish different types of communication;
- breakdown the components of classroom communication;
- explain the factors of communication;
- generalize the barriers of classroom communication;
- infer the strategies to make communication effective.

Block-2

Unit – 1

Introduction to Communication

2.1.1 : MEANING OF COMMUNICATION

Communication plays a major role in human relationships. Although all of us have been communicating with others since our infancy, the process of transmitting information from an individual (or group) to another is a very complex process with many sources of potential error. Communication is the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another. It involves a sender transmitting an idea to a receiver. Many of the problems that occur in a classroom are the direct result of failing to communicate. Faulty communication causes most problems. It leads to confusion and can cause a good plan to fail. Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit.

Effective teachers are known for being excellent communicators. The ability to communicate effectively is essential for all teachers. However, communication does not occur automatically even though the teacher hasa high level of technical knowledge in a particular subject area. In the beginning a teacher must understand the complex process involved in communication, and become aware of the common barriers to effective communication. Mere awareness of these factors is not enough. The teacher must also develop a comfortable style of communication that meets the goal of conveying information to students.

Definition of communication :

Birvenu (1987) : communication is the process of transmitting feelings, attitudes, facts, beliefs and ideas between living beings.

Newman and Summer (1977) : communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons.

I. ***A.Richards***(1928):communicationistheexchangeofmeaningsbetweenindividualsthrough a common system of symbols.

Lyons (1977) : It is the intentional transmission of information by means of some established signaling system.

Rodriques (1992) : communication can be defined as an exchange and exact replication of thoughts, feelings, beliefs and ideas between and among the individuals through a common system of symbols to cause some actions or changes in behavior.

J. P. Leagans (1961): it is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of message.

Quail (1969): communication is a process which increases commonality but also requires elements of commonality for it to occur at all.

There are also some other definitions of communication. If you go through these definitions of communication you can find some **natures of communication**, which are given below:

- ✓ It involves at least two persons.
- ✓ It is a transactional process that involves an exchange of ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc.
- ✓ It creates better interpersonal relations.
- ✓ There ought to be something to communicate like - ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc.
- ✓ It helps one to network with other people.
- ✓ It does not mean only sending or receiving information, it includes understanding also.
- ✓ It is a reciprocal process that means feedback is an important part.

2.1.2 : COMPONENTS AND PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

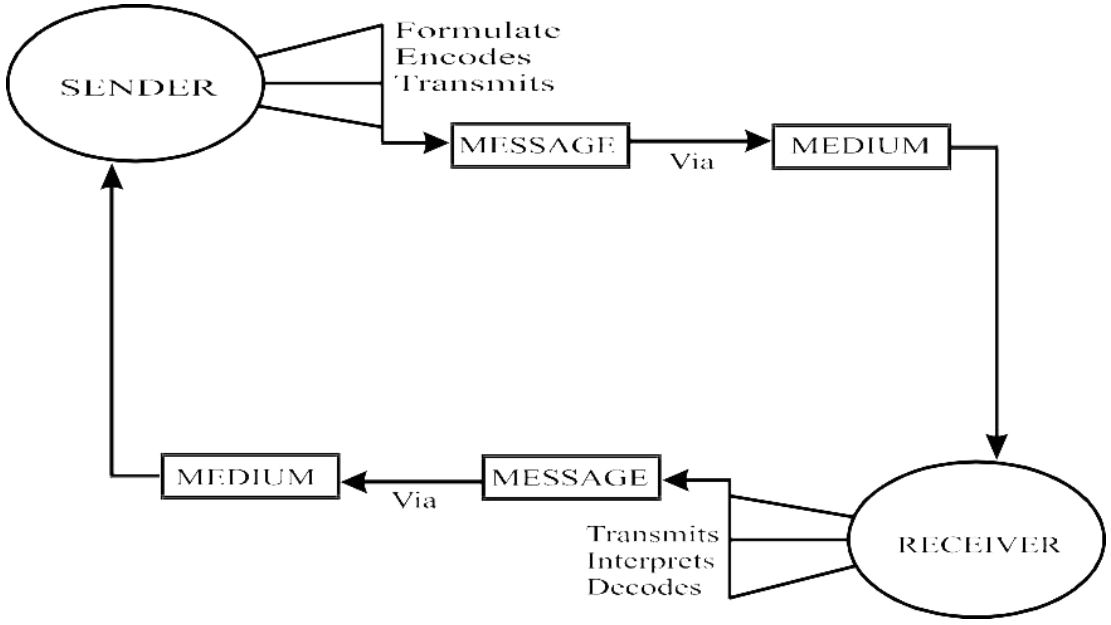
Classroom communication should be a two-way communication process involving interaction between teacher and students. Here the word process indicates that it is an activity that is connected with a series of steps, which are deliberately undertaken to reach a specific goal. To understand the communication process, you have to comprehend the **components** of communication. The components of communication are as follows:

- **Communication context**: Every communication takes place within a context. The factors, which influence communication context, are physical environment, emotions and reactions of people, their attitudes and opinions etc. Invariably these factors differ from situation to situation.

- **Sender/Source**: The communication process starts with a source. This source, whether in the form of object or event or person, must be in a position to transmit information, idea, concept, etc. In classroom situation, the source is generally a teacher.
- **Message/Content**: What is intended to be communicated by the source is called message. In teaching learning process, it is generally a part of the curriculum.
- **Channel/Media**: Channel is the vehicle that carries the message from sender to receiver. Channels are the sense of perception including sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell. In classroom situation, the channel is generally audio, visual and audio-visual.
- **Receiver**: The receiver is the individual to whom the message has been transmitted, i.e. the person(s) who receives the message. In classroom situation, the receivers are the students.
- **Feedback/Response**: Feedback is response or reaction signals of the receiver to the sender as a result of message.

Now let us explain the communication process with the help of the above-mentioned components of communication. The steps of the communication process are as follows:

- The sender
- The sender has some idea with a specific goal.
- The sender encodes the idea into a message. Encoding is the process by which the sender converts the idea into a message by using verbal or non- verbal media.
- The message travels through the channel.
- The receiver gets the message.
- The receiver decodes the message. Decoding refers to the process of translating words, signs, symbols etc. into meanings.
- The receiver provides feedback.



2.1.3 : TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Communication can be classified in different ways. Here we will discuss only two of them. The first category is based on the involvement of sense organs. They are as follows:

Speaking–Listening : Here the communication is face to face like listening to a lecture. This type of communication occurs in meeting, seminar, conference, classroom etc. An important feature of this type is eye-to-eye contact. However, there are some occasions where the eye-to-eye contact is not possible like listening to a radio programme.

Visualizing–Observing : Here the observer is physically separated from the communicator and yet is able to feel the impact of the message as in case of observing TV or motion pictures. Another example of this type of communication is dramatization.

Writing-Reading : Here the writer and reader are physically separated but the reader is able to enjoy the feelings of the message by reading it. This type of communication occurs when you read newspaper, book or magazine etc.

We can classify communication in the following way also which is based on numbers of person involved in communication:

Intrapersonal communication :In this type an individual communicates with him/herself through the process of thinking. Intrapersonal communication enables an individual to process information and to shape self-concept.

One to one communication : It takes place between two individuals.

Small group communication : This type of communication occurs among the members of a small group, like conversations of family members, interaction among students of a particular section or class.

Large group communication : It is generally occurs when a large numbers of people are involved in communication, like communication during assembly, meeting before any co-curricular activity etc.

Mass communication : This communication is meant for disseminating thoughts, feelings, ideas, and news etc. to the stakeholders and to the mass. Generally it is carried out through different types of mechanical means, like TV, radio, newspaper etc.

There are also some other types of communication, which are not discussed here. We have discussed here only those types that are related with education or classroom situation.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. St Communication is sharing of———.
2. The process by which the sender converts the idea into a message is called—————.
3. A teacher is instructing a student individually, the type of communica- tioninvolved is———

Block-2

Unit – 2

Communication and Instruction

2.2.1 : CONCEPT OF SYSTEMS

Instructional communication is a discipline that centers on the role that communication plays in the teaching-learning process independent of the type of student learner, the subject matter, or the instructional setting. Since its formal recognition as an area of academic study in 1972 by the International Communication Association, instructional communication researchers examine how several factors—such as instructor teaching strategies and preferences, student learning styles and orientations, instructor classroom management practices, instructor and student characteristics, and the development of communication relationships—not only influence how and why students interact with their instructors and their peers, but also the ways in which students respond favorably to the learning environment.

2.2.2 : TYPES OF INSTRUCTION

There are various forms of Instructional process, those are as follows:

Direct Instruction

Direct instruction is teacher-centered. It is as you would imagine: the teacher giving instruction with little to no input from the students, as in a lecture. It is most often used when presenting new information. Direct instruction yields a 5 percent retention rate and is therefore most effective when accompanied by demonstrations, small discussions and visual aids. Direct instruction should be limited to 20-minute mini-lectures to prevent students from losing interest.

Indirect Instruction

Indirect instruction is student-centered. It is best used when the process of arriving at a conclusion or product is as important as the conclusion or product itself. Concept mapping, problem solving and

reflective discussion are all types of indirect-instruction activities. Indirect instruction is used for research projects and technology-usage projects. Tactile learners can appreciate indirect instruction the most because they learn by doing.

Interactive Instruction

Interactive instruction is student-centered and requires students to interact with one another to acquire new understanding of a concept. Brainstorming, tutoring and interviewing are examples of interactive activities.

Independent Instruction

Independent instruction is student-centered. It is useful in building decision-making abilities. In independent-study instruction, the student teaches herself under the supervision of a teacher. Distance education is a prime example of independent-study instruction because the learner has very little interaction with the teacher. Some independent-study activities include research papers, essay writing and homework.

All five instructional types have beneficial uses, but teachers should not rely on one type. Students make up a diverse population with varying backgrounds, knowledge and learning styles. What works well for one will not necessarily work well for another. Varying instruction makes a teacher more likely to reach all her students.

Block-2

Unit – 3

Classroom Communication

3.3.1 : COMPONENTS OF CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

Broadly we can classify classroom into two types— verbal and non-verbal communication.

Here we will discuss them separately.

2.3.1.1 : VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Language is the base of verbal communication. The basic unit of language is word and sentence that are governed by the rules of grammar. Verbal communication refers to **oral, written** and **oral with written** communication.

In oral communication, the source communicates his/her message by speaking listening channel. In written form, the source communicates the message through written mode, like printed material, chalkboard etc. Teachers generally use the third form of verbal communication i.e. oral with written communication in classroom situation.

Oral communication should be as clear, specific, and precise as written communication should be. There are certain characteristics of effective verbal communication:

- **Courtesy** : The word courtesy means the sender should be aware of the receiver‘s feelings. The sender must try to understand the receiver‘s background.
- **Clarity** : The sender should choose simple, familiar, right words and short sentences to express the messages. Clear expression is a fine balance between familiar words and words that are precise.
- **Conciseness** : Conciseness implies to use of only relevant words and phrases. A long winding message is a time robber and the receiver generally rejects the message.
- **Concreteness** : Concreteness means opposite to being abstract or vague. Use of figures, examples makes an abstract thing to concrete.
- **Correctness** : It refers to correct use of grammar, message composition, appropriate words and adapting the right level of the receiver.

2.3.1.2 : NON-VERBALCOMMUNICATION

Actions speak louder than words. The communication process can also be carried out without the use of any verbal means. Non-verbal communication may be defined as communication without words. In many cases this type of communication may become a necessity as well as compulsion like communication with deaf and dumb. In normal situation the non-verbal communication is used with verbal mode to make communication effective. There are some components of non-verbal communication in classroom situation, which are discussed below :

Kinesics : It refers to the movement of the body of the sender (teacher). It includes gestures, postures, head nods, and leg movements etc. it should be remembered that body movements and verbal mode must convey the same message. It is claimed that in the science of body language, there are 750000 signals, of which 15000 come from the face alone (R. Denny).

Some considerations:

- A smile helps in better communication.
- Pointing out to someone may deter him/her from active participation.
- Stopping body movements help in gaining attention.

Oculesics : It refers to the movement of the eyes and techniques of eye contact and facial expressions.

Some considerations :

- Staring very hard at someone may interrupt communication.
- Looking at floor, ceiling lowers the level of attention in communication.

Paralinguistics/ Vocalics: It refers to the vocal cues that accompany our speech. It includes the volume, pitch, tone, intonation, modulation and rate of speech.

Some considerations :

- Very high speed adversely affects communication.
- Variation of tone is helpful for communication.
- A short pause may act as attention attracter.

Proxemics : It is study of the distance between people. In classroom it refers to use of distance between teacher and student. Edward Hall, who coined the term, stated four space zones according to distance.

Theyare:

i. Intimate Zone: 0 to0.5m

ii. Personal Zone: 0.5to1.2m

iii. Social Zone: 1.2 to3m

iv. Public Zone: >3m

Generally in classroom situation social zone is preferred.

Artifactics / Objectics:

Itrefersto the objects weposse ssorenvironmentaroundus. Itincludes clothing, style, objects in classroom,etc.

Some Considerations :

- Proper arrangement off an , light ,etc. is essential for communication.
- Elimination of distracting stimuli is good for communication.

Tactilics / Haptics : It is the science of touch language. It includes touching self, others, and objects. Human beings not only communicate through words or eyes, but also through the sense of touch.

Some Considerations :

- Frequent touching interferes with effective communication.
- Self-touching mannerism also acts as distracter in communication.

2.3.1.3 : INTERACTIVE COMMUNICATION

This type of communication gives emphasis on feedback process. Feedback is the receiver‘s response to the sender‘s message. In classroom situation, it is the response of the students. This response may be verbal or non-verbal. In teaching learning condition, feedback is very important because it helps the teacher to know whether the message has been understood or not by the students. Teacher deliberately asks some questions to students to seek feedback. Successful communication must be a two-way process. Both the teacher and student have an equal share of responsibility for effective communication. Interactive communication meets this criterion.

2.3.2 : FACTORS AFFECTING COMMUNICATION

It can be discussed in several ways. Firstly we will discuss factors related to the components of communication.

Sender related factors :

- Knowledge about the message.
- Communication skills.
- Personality
- Emotional characteristics
- Background knowledge about the receiver.

Message related factors :

- Clarity
- Preciseness
- Correctness
- Organized
- Use of technical terms

Receiver related factors :

- Degree of homogeneity
- Passiveness
- Emotional characteristics
- Communication skills
- Motivation

Environment related factors :

- Distractingstimuli
- Openness
- Physical facilities

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. The body movement of the teacher in the classroomis
2. ———— part of nonverbalomponent.
3. The person who decodes the message is called————.
4. Jargons are factors related to————.

2.3.3 : BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Problems with any one of the components of the communication can become a barrier to communication. Anything that prevents understanding of the message is a barrier to communication. We may group the barriers of communication as in the following way;

Physical Barriers :

- Noise
- Invisibility
- Environmental and physical discomfort
- Distraction
- Ill health of sender and receiver

Language Barriers :

- Verbalism
- Verbosity
- Ambiguous symbols
- Unfamiliar pronunciation

Psychological Barriers :

- Inattention
- Perceptual problems
- Lack of interest
- Lack of proper reinforcement

- Unfulfilled needs
- Feeling of anxiety

Background Barriers :

- Entry-level behaviour
- Cultural heterogeneity
- Previous environment

We can also describe the barriers in other ways. These are as follows:

1. **Muddled messages** - Effective communication starts with a clear message. Contrast these two messages: —Please be here about 7:00 tomorrow morning.” —Please be here at 7:00 tomorrow morning.”The one word difference makes the first message muddled and the second message clear. Muddled messages area barrier to communication because the sender leaves the receiver unclear about the intent of the sender. Feedback from the receiver is the best way for a sender to be sure that the message is clear rather than muddled. Clarifying muddled messages is the responsibility of the sender.

2. **Wrong channel** - —Good morning.” An oral channel for this message is highly appropriate. Writing —GOOD MORNING” on a chalkboard is less effective than a warm oral greeting. Here writing is wrong channel. Variation of channels helps the receiver understand the nature and importance of a message.

3. **Language** - Words are not reality. Words, as the sender understands them, are combined with the perceptions of those words by the receiver. Language represents only part of the whole. We fill in the rest with perceptions.

4. **Lack of feedback** - Feedback is the mirror of communication. Feedback is the receiver sending back to the sender the message as perceived. Without feedback, communication is one-way. Feedback happens in a variety of ways. Asking a person to repeat what has been said is a very direct way of getting feedback. Feedback may be as subtle as a stare, a puzzled look, a nod, or failure to ask any questions after complicated instructions have been given.

5. **Poor listening skills** - Listening is difficult. A typical speaker say sabout 125 words per minute. The typical listener can receive 400-600 words per minute. Thus, about 75 percent of listening time is free time. The free time often sidetracks the listener. The solution is to be an active rather than passive listener. Providing feedback is the most important active

listening skill. Asking questions, looking at the receiver straight in the eye, focusing on what the receiver is responding, repeating the main points, encouraging the receiver to speak are some of the essential steps to establishing communication.

6. **Physical distractions** - Physical distractions are the physical things that get in the way of communication. Examples of such things include the mobile telephone, an uncomfortable place, and noise. These physical distractions are common. Noise is a physical distraction simply because it is hard to concentrate on a conversation if hearing isdifficult.

7. **Culture, background, and bias** - We allow our past experiences to change the meaning of the message. Our culture, background, and bias can be good as they allow us use our past experiences to understand something new, it is when they change the meaning of the message that they interfere with the communication process.

8. **Lack of common experience** - between instructor and student is probably the greatest single barrier to effective communication. In fact, words in themselves, do not transfer meanings at all. A communicator‘s words cannot communicate the desired meaning to another person unless the listener or reader has had some experience with the objects or concepts to which these words refer. Since it is the students‘ experience that forms vocabulary, it is also essential that instructors speak the same language as the students.

9. **Overuse of Abstractions** - Abstractions are words that are general rather than specific. Abstract words stand for ideas that cannot be directly experienced, things that do not call forth mental images in the minds of the students. The word aircraft is an abstract word. It does not call to mind a specific aircraft in the imagination of various students. One student may visualize an airplane, another student might visualize a helicopter, and still another student might visualize an airship. Abstractions should be avoided in most cases, but there are times when abstractions are necessary and useful. When such terms are used, they should be linked with specific experiences through examples and illustrations.

10. **Interference** - Barriers to effective communication are usually under the direct control of the instructor. However, interference is made up of factors that are outside the direct control of the instructor: physiological, environmental, and psychological linterference.

Physiological interference is any biological problem that may inhibit symbol reception, such as hearing loss, injury or physical illness. These, and other physiological factors, can inhibit communication because the student is not comfortable.

Environmental interference is caused by external physical conditions. Noise not only impairs the communication process, but also can result in long- term damage to hearing.

Psychological interference is a product of how the instructor and student feel at the time the communication process is occurring. If either instructor or student is not committed to the communication process, communication is impaired. Fear of the situation or mistrust between the instructor and student could severely inhibit the flow of information.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. List down two important barriers to communication.
2. Suggest how you can minimize those two barriers to communication.

2.3.4 : STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

Now the question is how can we overcome these barriers for effective communication. It is discussed under following headings:

To overcome physical barriers-

- Make proper sitting arrangement
- Ensure audibility and visibility insetting
- Minimize visual and aural distractions
- Provide physical and environment alcomfort

To overcome language barriers-

- Use simple and clear language
- Explain technical words or jargons
- Use audiovisual resources
- Prepare and distribute handouts
- Recommend necessary books
- Take feedback and respond properly

To overcome psychological barriers-

- Call attention

- Motivate the receiver to participate in communication process
- Provide assistance
- Showempathy
- Arouse interest

To overcome background barriers-

- Try to understand the entry-level behaviour
- Explain the importance of the message

There are some other suggestions to make communication effective:

- Try to establish good rapport. When the sender and receiver have a good relationship, they are much more likely to accomplish their communication goals.
- Try to understand the receiver
- Select proper channel
- Try to understand the content mastery level
- Set clear expectations for student participation in discussion sessions
- Break the ice with informal talk outside the class.
- Use eye contact purposefully and strategically. Look at the receiver. Establishing eye contact opens a communication channel and selects the student for a turn to speak.
- Ask good questions
- Have a positive attitude towards communication
- Work at improving communication skills
- When speaking or trying to explain something, ask the listeners if they are following the message
- Ensure the receiver has a chance to comment or ask questions
- Be clear about what you say
- Make sure your words match your tone and body language (Nonverbal Behaviors).
- Vary the tone andpace

- Do not be vague, but on the other hand, do not complicate what you are saying with too much detail.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. How can you reduce language barriers existed in our classroom teaching.
2. Can use of educational technology devices in classroom teaching reduce barriers to communication? – Explain.

LET US SUM UP

Communication plays an important role in human relations and also in teaching learning process. It can be defined in many ways. Simply it can be said that communication is the process of transmitting and sharing ideas, feelings, concepts etc. The components of communication are context, sender, message, media, receiver and feedback. The sender encodes the idea into message and transmits it through some channel, and then receiver receives and decodes the message and provides necessary feedback.Communicationcanbeclassifiedindifferentways.Itcanbeclassifiedasspeaking-listening, visualizing-observing, and writing-reading or intra, one to one, small group, large group, and mass communication. There are three types of classroom communication-verbal, nonverbal, and interactive. Each type has different components. The components of verbal communication are oral, written, and oral-written. Then on verbal components of classroom communication are kinesics, oculesics, vocalics, objectics, haptics, and proxemics. There are different factors, which influence communication. These factors can be categorized as sender related, receiver related, message related, and environment related factors. If the components are not implemented properly they may become the barriers of communication. The common barriers are physical, language, psychological, and background barriers. There are also certain strategies to make communication effective.

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ASSIGNMENT

1. Define communication. Explain the nature of communication. Why communication is important in classroom situation?
2. What are the components of communication? Give examples of each component from classroom situation.
3. Discuss verbal component of classroom communication.
4. Explain the nonverbal component of classroom communication. How these components can be effectively used?
5. Explain how different factors influence classroom communication?
6. Discuss the barriers to classroom communication. Explain the strategies to overcome these barriers.

ANSWERS TO ‗CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

Check your progress I

1. ideas
2. encoding
3. one to one communication

Check your progress II

1. kinesics
2. receiver
3. message

EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block - 3

Modalities of Teaching

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Teaching refers to a system of a acts performed by a teacher. The main aim of teaching is to facilitate learning. There are different modes of teaching. This Unit shall try to familarize you first about the meaning of teaching. The nit will discuss different mode softeaching-conditioning, training, and teaching. These terms are somehow related to each other. Here we will discuss the meaning of each term and their relationships. The nature of subject matters varies. Each matter does not demand same level of teaching. There are different stages of teaching. This Unit will highlight different levels of teaching. It also highlights the three stages of teaching. Go through the Unit systematically and compare each level or stage with another for better understanding.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this Unit you will be able to

- define and explain the meaning of teaching
- explain the meaning of different modalities of teaching
- differentiate conditioning, training, instruction and teaching
- explain the meaning of levels of teaching
- discuss the nature, effective strategies, merits and limitations of each level of teaching
- correlate different levels of teaching
- explain the meaning of stages of teaching
- describe the activities of each stage of teaching
- correlate different stages of teaching

Block-3

Unit – 1

Teaching and Instruction, Conditioning and Training

3.1.1 : MEANING OF TEACHING

Before you start this Unit, ask yourself ‗‗whatis teaching?'' Stop, think now read the following: The term ‗teaching' is not so easy to define. If you consider a layman's point of view, the probable meaning is like that : an occupation or profession of a community called teachers, or an activity or activities undertaken to help an individual to learn something. One of the interesting accounts of teaching is provided by Paul Hirst (1973):A teaching activity is characterized by its intention not by it covertly observable features. The intention of all teaching activities is that of bringing about learning. The concept of teaching is totally unintelligible without the concept of learning. There is no such thing as teaching without the intention to bring about learning. Burton in this context has said ‗‗Teaching is the simulation, guidance, direction and encouragement of learning.'' Some other definitions are given below:

N. L. Gage : Teaching is a form of interpersonal influence aimed at changing the behaviour potential of another person.

B.O. Smith puts: ―Teaching is a system of action involving an agent, an end in view and a situation including two sets of factors –those over which the agent has no control (class size, size of classroom, physical characteristics of pupils, etc) and those which he can modify (ways of asking questions about instruction and ways of structuring information or ideas gleaned".

Thus, we may find three elements in this definition of teaching. : (1) Teaching is a system of action; (2) Teaching is directed at a goal; and (3) Teaching occurs in situation comprising the control lableandun controllablesetsoffactors.Consequently,theskillinteachingbehavior is exhibited in terms of the extent to which a person called ‗teacher' is fluent in manipulating the factors such as presenting of information, asking of questions, and providing of reinforcement or feed-back. Smith asserts that the above definition of teaching is merely ‗descriptive' not ‗normative'

Teaching as a concept poses difficulty in understanding its nature and periphery of human actions what a person called ‗teacher' does. T. H. Green asserts that ―we cannot understand teaching if we study it simply as species of human action. It must be viewed as a species of human action; that is, not simply as behavior confronting to some laws or generalizations of action. In short, it is not simply norm-conforming; it is a norm obeying". Thus, he concludes, ―Teaching is an instance of human action aimed at enhancing the human capacity for action" He also advices us to think of teaching as continuum which comprises training, indoctrinating. conditioning, and instructing. which, according to him are modalities of teaching. [You will get this idea later in this Unit]

If we make a close study of numerous definitions coined by various experts we may bring out the following qualities in the concept of ‗teaching'

1. Teaching is a system of acts or actions.
2. Teaching is aimed at changing others or causes learning in others.
3. The core of teaching act is interaction between teacher, pupils and a piece of subject matter.
4. Teaching involves an influence orientation.
5. Teaching does not just occur, rather it is planned and an implementation set of activities in an inter-action setting.
6. The verbal action ―use of language at various levels ―constitutes the predominant feature of teaching act.
7. The critical attribute of teaching act involves ‗reasoning' and an enlightened analysis of facts.
8. Teaching constitutes different modes.
9. Teaching sometimes is conceived as a rational process driven by some planned activities.
10. Teaching occur at different phases or stages , though teaching is a continuum
11. Teaching generally linked with learning some kinds.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Identify and list factors associated with teaching.
2. Develop and write down your own definition of teaching.
3. Teaching enhances the human capacity for action. - Explain with suitable examples.

3.1.2 : MODALITIES OF TEACHING

Now the question is ‗‗What are teaching modalities ?'' Model means the way something is done. Teaching involves certain modalities like conditioning, training and instruction. Each of the term denotes some type of teaching. Teaching is a larger concept and each term is a part or aspect or this larger concept.

3.1.3 : CONDITIONIN

It is the lowest mode or level of teaching. There are two types of conditioning - classical and operant. **Classical conditioning** focuses on the learning of involuntary emotional of physiological responses such as fear, salivation, sweating etc. On the other hand, **operant conditioning** refers to learning in which voluntary behaviour is strengthened or weakened by consequences or antecedents. Conditioning helps to shape behaviour or habits. It involves teaching someone to do. Most of our desirable or undesirable behaviours are the results of the process of conditioning. In fact this type is thoughtless teaching.

3.1.4 : TRAINING

It is little higher mode of teaching than conditioning. Training refers to the systematic series of activities to guide or direct the behaviour of a person (or animal) for the purpose of inducing a certain pattern of predetermined responses, particularly habitual responses. Trained persons perform some actions, which are skillfully performed according to some regular pattern or rule. This type of teaching is related to psychomotor domain. A trained person can do a particular skill without understanding the basic principles or law pertaining to this behaviour.

3.1.5 : INSTRUCTION

It is higher level of teaching than the previous two modes. It is mainly concerned with the development of knowledge and understanding of things, concepts, systems, process, etc. This mode of teaching requires thinking, reasoning, generalization, etc. It is helpful in acquiring objectives related to cognitive domain. The psychomotor and affective domains are neglected in instruction. In teaching, each and every aspect of development is considered. Instruction can also be given through different ways without the direct face-to-face interaction, like through programmed instruction, computer,

radio, etc. Therefore, it can be said that, instruction is a part of different modes of teaching. Teaching is abroaddertem, which includes instruction.

3.1.6 : INDOCTRINATING

The fourth mode of teaching, according to Green is indoctrinating which aims at shaping beliefs. The form of activity called ‗indoctrinating' is nearer to conditioning in so far as there is minimal or no scope for reasoning or intellectual processes which might alert the participants. But the concern initiswiththeshapingorformingofbeliefsandtransmissionofknowledge.Wegenerallyindoctrinate people to believe certain things, but we train or condition them to do c certain things. Instructing, on the other hand, is an activity which has to do with arriving at the right kind of grounds and find in gout the reasons for an answer or examination to a thing...

Then we see that teaching can be performed in divergent ways. These differential ways of performing the acts of teaching have been explained by T.H. Green and coined as modalities of teaching..He puts:―Its surely beyond doubt that teaching takes the form sometime soft raining and at other times of indoctrinating, instructing, and conditioning. These are the modes of teaching, the forms that teaching takes place"

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. I Habit is formed by———.
2. A trained person performs some action according to some regular———.
3. Concepts, theories, principles can be learned through———.

Block-3

Unit – 2

Levels of Teaching

3.2.1 : LEVELS OF LEACHING

Teaching-learning situations are of diverse nature.

Teaching may be done at different levels depending on the characteristics of the content. The teaching situations may be put along a continuum renging from thoughttess to _thoughtful‘ level. According to different psychologists (like Bigge, Hunt), the levels of teaching can be divided into three categories :

Teaching at Memory level Teaching at Understanding level Teaching at Reflective level.

In the above classification, memory level is the most thoughtless and reflective level is the most thoughtful. The understanding level falls in between. In requires thoughtful behaviour in a moderate reasonable a mount.

Let us understand about each level of teaching in detail.

3.2.1.1 : MEMORY LEVEL OF TEACHING

Memory is a measure of the individual‘s ability to recall or recognize and associate previously learned materials. Memory level involves the following phases –

Learning or Experience

Retention Reproduction

Recall

Recognition

If we examine our traditional teaching as it is carried out we find that in majority of the cases it operates at memory level. M.L. Biggehasde fined this level as that type of teaching __which supposedly embraces committing factural materials to memory and nothing else.‘‘ This is the lowest level of teaching. It emphanizes on memorization of factual information. Here, the teacher gives factual material which the learner memorizes it without understanding the inner meaning of the

content. This type of teaching seems to be based on either mental discipline theory which empharizes the inportance of vigorous exercise for the development of mental facultees or S-R conditioning theory of learning in which bondage is formed between the stimuli and responce without involving any purpose.

Teacher‘s Role—Here, teacher is more active and authoritarian. Teacher controls each and every aspect of teaching learning process. This level is too much teacher centered.

Student‘s Role—Here, students are merely a receiver of knowledge. They have no freedom or opportunity to gain learning experiences by their own imitiative. They get little scope to interact with teacher in this level of teaching. Students have a passive role in this level. Maturation of the learner at this level is purely extrimic.

Suggestions for effective memory-level teaching :

Teaching should be presented from whole to part. Spaced revisions should be made

All parts of the content should be well integrated and sequenced. Frequent recall of the content should be demanded.

Rhythmie repetition is very useful. Fatigue should beavoided.

Sufficient drill and practice should be there for retention.

Merits :

This level is suitable for small children it is quite helpful in teaching learning activities related to understanding and reflective level.

Teacher gets full freedom for realizing and achieving the goal.

Merits :

It provides no scope for higher cognitive abilities.

Teacher-student relationship is not developed properly due lack of interaction.

It creates a problem of class control and securing attention of students.

Total responsibility of the teaching-learning falls on the shoulder of teacher.

Students face difficulties in selecting the information as they cannot understand or apply the knowledge.

3.2.1.2 : UNDERSTANDING LEVEL OF TEACHING

This level of teaching represents relatively a high level as compared to memory level of teaching. M.L.B igge and M. P. Hunt have mentioned two aspects of understanding level:

Seeing the relationship between a generalization and particular between principles and solitary facts. When a person sees what something is for, he understands it.

It may be said that when the students are able to find out the whole relationship between the items or when the students have been able to make out a sense from given material, understanding has taken place. This level demands students thought precesses and cognitive activities. Teacher at this level, develops competency among students to recognize and explain principles and provides opportunities to develop intellectual behaviour among them.

H.C.Marris on has developed a detailed procedure for teaching at understanding level. According to him,understanding means seeing relationship and reaching Sertain generalization and their uses in life situations, and comprehension means mastery of the subject matter. He suggested that each subject should be divided into units. Each unit should present specific understanding with such throughness that mastery is achieved by most students. A unit is never completed until almost all students thoroughly understand it. Each unit should be developed according to the following sequences—

Exploration—teacher should explore what the students already know about the context by testing, questioning or discussion. This helps the teacher and learner to arrange the content in psychological order. This step helps teacher to direct the teaching learning situation.

Presentation—Then teacher should present a new material briefly. Unit II all students have fully understood the material no new material is not presented.

Assimilation—Here the learners make thorough study of the topic. The activity is highly individualized work in classroom, library, laboratory or field trip under the supervision of the teacher. At the end of each unit, the learner is tested by a mastery test to show how for the has grasped the meaning of the content.

Organization—In this step, students are asked to reproduce the essentials or the basic concepts of the unit in writing without taking any external help.

Recitation—Here, each student presents a summary, gist or condensed version of the understanding by oral presentation to his/her class fellows or teacher. This can also be in the form of a written paper.

Teachers Role : At this level teacher should be a democratic leader and should be coutious enough to

see that she does not drift into becoming an outhritarition teacher. Flexibility, dynamism, human touch, understanding, patience and faith in the learners are the qualities absolutely necessary for a teacher to teach at understanding level of teaching.

Students‘ Role : Students‘ role is not passive as in the case of memory level of teaching. Students remain active in this level and constantly developing new knowledge. The source of motivation is not only extrinsic but also intrinsic. The students have to interact with the framework set up by the teacher. However, the main human factor involved in this level is the teacher, who is the key of this level.

Suggesteions for effective understanding level teaching : Content should be presented in small unit. Unit should be presented in proper sequence.

After each unit proper test should be done to measure the level of understanding before entering into next unit.

Teacher should provide proper guidance for self learning. Teacher should motivate the learners from time to time.

Merits :

This level helps students in understanding the meaning of the content.

This level helps students to solve problematic situation in and outside the teaching learning process.

It helps in developing intellectual behaviour.

Students get proper opportunities to develop different types of cognitive abilities.

If helps in teaching at higher level.

Students are trained to remain active in teaching learning process.

Limitations :

This level is more or less teacher-centered and subject centered rather than learner-centred.

The freedom of the learners are not too much.

The motivation in largely extrinsic.

The result is judged by fixed and specific learning objectives.

3.2.1.3 : REFLECTIVE LEVEL OF TEACHING

This is the highest and most thought full level of teaching. This level is problem-centred in nature in which the learner is engaged in original, imaginative and critical approach to the subject and involved in deep and serious kind of thinking. The learner examines facts and generalization and seeks out new ones. This level enhances maximum level of cognitive abilities. Students develop curiosity, interest, inquiry and persistence by which they reach a scientifically determined conclusion or solve a problem. This level involves careful and critical examination of an idea or problem in the light of empirical evidences. Here the subject matter is not presented in highly structured form as done at the previous two levels. It is almost open in the form of a problem. After arising the problem student tries to solve the problem by their self effort.

Reflective level teaching involves the process of problem solving. The following steps have been suggested for problem-solving approach.

Recognition and definition of problem : Teacher should help the learners to feel and recognize the problem. Problem should be selected by the learners themselves. It should not be imposed by the teacher. But the teacher helps them to select an appropriate problem so that it can be solved by them. After selection, the problem must be defined in operational term.

Formulation of hypolnesis : _Hypothesis‘ means tentative solution of a problem. Teacher should encourage the learner to formulate as many hypotheses as possible. Here learner should collect relevant information from different sources.

Testing the hypothesis : Here, teacher encourages the learner to examine test the hypotheses one by one to reach a solution of the problem with the help of all available data.

Conclusion : Students with the help of teacher identify and reach possible conclusion. Teacher‘s Role—Atthis leve. Teacher does not play an outhoritarian role. She/he may be in the background, but she/he has to play a very active role in the teaching learning process. She/he helps students in selecting a problem, formulating hypothesis, listing them andin reaching conclusion. Therefore she/he must be insightful, tactful, reflective and creative and flexible.

Student‘s Role—Here, learner remains very active throughout the teaching learning process. She/he has to make use of the cognitive abilities and take all initiative. The motivation involved at this level is intrinsic in nature. Unless the learner develops the sense of oneness with the problem, no reflection is possible. The main source at this level should not be the teacher, but the learner himself.

Suggestions for effective reflective level teaching: Time schedule should not be rigid.

Teacher should provide an atmosphere of mutual cooperativeness.

Teacher should try to motivate the learner to involve in the process intrisically. The group should be small.

Teacher should not follow any fixed or rigid pathways. Teacher should since indirect guidance to the learner.

Merits :

It is learner-centred approach.

It is more thoughtful level than other.

It helps learner to solve the problem by self-effort. It develops the higher level cognitive abilities.

It helps learner to face his/her problem outside the classroom. Students enjoy greater freedom.

According to Bigge __reflectiveteaching leads to the develpment of a classroom atmosphere which is more alive and exciting, more critical and penetrating and more open to fresh and original thinking.‘‘

Limitations :

This level of teaching is not suitable for all subject matter. It is suitable where problem solving and discovery approach can be better employed.

If here is any lack of understanding level, this level of teaching does not work properly.

It demands teachers‘ expertise and more effort.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Rote learning is preferred in_____level of teaching.
2. Problem solving learning is developed in_level of teaching.
3. Teacher plays a very dominant and authoritarian role in _____ level of teaching.
4. Name and symbols in chemistry can be taught through _____ Level of teaching _____.

Block - 3

Unit – 3

Stages/phases of Teaching

3.3.1 : THE STAGES OF TEACHING

Teaching involves different activities. It implies a rationally designed process. It refers to a flow of acts, from the beginning to the end. It is supposed that this flow refers to some kind of dynamicity. To make teaching effective teacher has to do different action or play specific roles during the process. If we observe very accurately we can divide the teaching activities into three different stages or phases. They are as follows—

Pre-active stage of teaching, Interactive stage of teaching, and Post active stage ofteaching Preactive stage of teaching is the stage of planning. The activities of a teacher before entering the classroom is covered in the stage. Interactive stage of teaching includes all those behaviours or activities done between the time when the teacher enters in classroom and when the subject content has been delivered by him/her. Postactive stage is in fact evaluative stage, that begins after the second stage.

The each stage in discussed separately below—

3.3.1.1 : PREACTIVE STAGE OF TEACHING

It is preparatory or planning stage of teaching. According to P. W. Jackson, inpreactive stage the teacher __selects objectives, plans the curricula, arranges the classroom and studies the readiness of the pupils‘‘. This stage consists of the following operations or sub-stages—

Furmulating instructional objectives—The teacher determines as to what should be the specific instructional objectives in term of clearly defined terminal behaviour. For formulating instructional objectives the teacher considers the entry-level behaviour of the learner, time period, needs of the society and school.

Deciding the subject content—Then the teacher takes decision about the amount of content to be imparted and the specific structures she/he will try to develop in classroom.

Teacher takes the decision comidering the following— demands of the curriculum needs of the learner. entry level behaviour of the learner teacher‘s own preferences

Arranging or sequencing the content for presentation—Teacher then tries to decide as what shall be the style(s) at different stages of development of the lesson.

Deciding the strategy—Teacher makes decision regarding the proper strategy (method as well as technique) she/he will employ in teaching. Teaching considers the nature of the content and entry level behaviour of the learner. At this stage the teacher does other thinking, planning, decision-making with regard to designing instruction and preparing lesson plan along with development of criterion tests.

3.3.1.2 : INTERACTIVE STAGE OF TEACHING

This stage of teaching is concerned with the implementation and carrying out what has been planned at the preactive stage of teaching. The activities of teacher right from entering the classroom till the presentation of the content are included in the stage of teaching. According to P. W. Jackson –the teacher provides pupils verbal stimulation of various kinds makes explanation, asks question, listens to students responses and provides guidance‘‘ at the stage of teaching. This is the execution stage. This stage includes the following activities—

Sizing up the class—Teacher‘s first activity in this stage is concerned with the perception of classroom climate. She/he keeps him/her eyes around the faces of the learners to locate which area in or may be troublesome area, which faces are or may be discouraging, encouraging or apathetic. In this way, teacher tries to size up or understand the whole scoio-emotional climate of the classroom. Similarly, the students also perceive the personality of the teacher whether a few initial seconds.

Diagnosing the learner—After perceiving the classroom climate, teacher tries to diagnose the levels of students achievement in three levels—

Activities interest and attitudes academic backgrounds. After diagnosing the students achievement level the teacher starts the interaction sessions. Action and Reaction—The following activities are taken in this sub-stage—

Selection of stimuli—In classroom situation stimuli may be in the verbal form or non-verbal form (like systems expression etc.).

A good teacher should know which stimuli are relevant and which are not for a particular content. A stimulus (verbal or non-verbal) which is relevant for KG level may not be suitable for secondary or higher level of teaching. A teacher of secondary level may select properly the relevant stimuli for his / her class and not be able to select proper stimuli for primary or lower level.

Presentation of stimuli—After selecting the appropriate stimuli, the teacher presents the stimuli before the learner. Teacher should consider the following to present thestimuli—

What types of stimuli should be presented.

When the stimuli should be presented, and

How or in what sequence the stimuli should be

Feedback/Reinforcement—Reinforcement means the application or removal of a stimulus to increase the strength of a specific behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement.

Positive reinforcement—here the frequency of a response increases because it is followed by a rewarding stimulus, as in the example in which the teacher‘s positive comment, praise, appreciation etc. increased the student‘s behaviour.

Nagative reinforcement—the frequency of a response increases because it is followed by the removal of an arrive or unpleasant stimulus.

Therefore, with the help of reinforcement the teacher tries to strength or change students behaviour.

Deployment of Strategies—Teacher continues all the strategies considered at this interachive stage when she/he is actually teaching in the classroom. Remember that the learners also remain active in the stage. They also do a lot of activities like—Select stimuli, provide feedback etc.

3.3.1.3 : POST-ACTIVE STAGE OF TEACHING

This third and final stage is concerned with evaluative activities. Here the teacher evaluatives students performance on the basis of terminal behaviour. Teacher also asesses the effetiveness of the teaching learning process as occured in the interactive stage. The substages of this stage of teaching are as follows—

Selecting appropriate testing devices—Teacher selects appropriate tools or techniques for measuring

different dimensions of behaviour as expressed in terminal behaviour. The test may be of written, oral or practical.

Testing the actual behaviour —with the help of testing devices the teacher measures or evaluates the performance of the learners.

Defining the changes of behaviour —the teacher compares the expected and actual behavioural changes of the learner.

Changing the strategies of teaching—the results found in the previous stage help the teacher to understand the strength and weakness of the teaching-learning process. Accordingly the teacher modifies a changes his/ her teaching strategy for better result.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. List down teacher's activities in preactive stage/phase of teaching.
2. Explain importance of postactive stage of teaching.
3. 'Teaching is a continuous process in a certain classroom Teaching'.–Explain with suitable examples.

SUMMING UP

Teaching help the learner to learn to require knowledge, skills etc. There are some related term with teaching like—conditioning, training, instruction etc. Conditioning is the lowest mode of teaching which helps learner to learn to do something without understanding the content. Generally habits are formed by conditioning. Training is higher mode of teaching than conditioning. It helps learner to act following some particular rule or regular pattern. It is not necessary that learner understands the underlying principles or rules or concepts. Instruction is that type of teaching which helps learner to understand the concepts theories or principles. There are three levels of teaching —memory, understanding, and reflective level. Memory level is the lowest level and it is thoughtless. Teachers remain very active, play a dominant role in this level. Next higher level of teaching is understanding level. The highest level is reflective level and this is more thoughtful than the other two levels learners remain very active and can solve problems at this level.

Finally, teaching has been explained as a process or flow of rational and goal-oriented acts whose structure may be categorized to have three phases or stages–preactive, interactive and post active.

Therefore, proper understanding of teaching warrants understanding deeply all the three stages with an integrative outlook.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. What is teaching ? Discuss its relationship with conditioning, training and instruction.
2. What do you mean by levels of teaching ? Why it is necessary in teaching- learning process?
3. Explain the meaning of memory level teaching. Discuss the strategies which are helpful for the level.
4. What do you mean by understanding level of teaching ? How can the teaching task can be organized at this level?
5. Describe the nature of reflective level of teaching. Suggest some guidelines for affective reflective level teaching.
6. Give a comparative study on memory, understanding and reflecture level of teaching.
7. Discuss the merits and demerits of each level of teaching.

8. What do you mean by stages of teaching?

9. Describe the operation involved at each stage of teaching. 10. Discuss the role of teacher at each stage of teaching.

ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

I (i) conditioning

(ii) pattern

(iii) instruction

II (i) memory

(ii) Reflective

(iii) Memory

(iv) memory

EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block - 4

Models of Teaching

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

The task of TEACHING is the vital and in fact the most important part in a classroom environment. It requires both art and skill. But these art and skill should be based on sound philosophy and theory of teaching and learning for a particular teaching and instructional situation. In other words selection of methods of teaching or instruction depends on several factors e.g. nature of task, learning objectives, learner‘s maturity and ability, entering behaviour etc. But effectiveness of the strategy again depends on another factor, it is the teacher. So success and failure of the total system will depend on several factors, e.g., philosophical environment of the system, theory of teaching used, motivation of teachers, his knowledge about the content and many more.

In teaching method, use soft mode lsarean old practice. Socrates used model of question answer. This method was named dialectic method of teaching. Indian teachers used their own models of teaching to bring desirable changes in to their pupils. There are, now-a-days, several models of teaching. Each model influences the construction of curricular pattern and ultimately, they again influence media and methods of instructions.

OBJECTIVES

After going through the Unit, you will be able to :

- Give the Meaning ,Nature and Functions of Model soft Teaching
- Identify different families of teaching models
- Explain some models of teaching (Glaser’s Model of Teaching, Bruner’s Concept Attainment Model, Advance Organiser Model of David Asubel and Cognitive Development Model of Piaget) and apply them ineducation.

Block - 4

Unit – 1

Basic Concepts of Models of Teaching

4.1.1 : MEANING OF MODELS OF TEACHING

Before starting a building an architect develops plans, programmes and design of the building scientifically. He prepares a miniature of the proposed building, so that the building can face the environmental hazards and last long. A teacher is like an architect in the educational arena. Before starting instruction he also prepares plan, programme of instruction based on the philosophy and psychology of teaching and learning.

According to Gage (1963) theory of teaching should answer three questions :

(a) How do teacher be have?

(b) Why do they behave as they do? and

(c) What are the effects?

Gage considers that a —Theory of teaching should be a general concept applied to all teachers, to all students, to all subject matters and to all situations where teaching learning occurs even in outside the class room situation." Again it must explain, predict and control the behaviour of the teacher which affects the learning of the students.

But it is very difficult to find a single theory of teaching which can function in a multifarious and multidimensional ways. Thus theories of teaching act in a two way traffic. In one way, it considers the behaviour of the teacher. It is the cause side of the theory and in another way it considers the learning of the students.

It is the effect of side of the theory. So, a teaching theory must be based on _Theories of learning' too. There are many theories of learning; hence there should be many theories of teaching too.

"The best substitute for a theory of teaching is a model of teaching Teaching and learning conditions can be interrelated" (DeCecco, 1988)

—The best substitute for a theory of teaching is a model of teaching. Teaching and learning conditions can be interrelated" (DeCecco, 1988). Sometimes models are prototypes of the theories, because they help conceptualization and study of phenomena. But theories have their factual support, but models need support from theories.

4.1.1.1 : DEFINITION OF MODELS OF TEACHING

Many educationist shave defined Teaching Models according to their Benton theories of learning and instruction. For example, Lawrence Stolurow and Daniel Davis (1965) had developed their own teaching model based on computer. According to their teaching model, teaching is asystem of actions involving an agent (teacher), an end in view (objectives), a situational factor over which the teacher has no control (like class size, pupils entering behaviour etc.) and those the teacher can modify (like arrangement of ideas, questioning techniques). Stolurow's model has two phases : the pre-tutorial phase and the tutorial phase which have their own consequences according to his own idea.

In teaching model of John Carroll, Time based teaching model, components of instructions depend on time. Hibda-Taba, Turner, Fox and Lippit had defined teaching models according to their own views.

According DeCecco(1988) :

> *"The best substitute for at theory of teaching is a model of teaching. Teaching models merely suggests how various teaching and learning conditions are interrelated. In many fields, models are proto type of the orgies because they make possible our early conceptualisation and study of phenomena.* (DeCecco, J.P.,1988)"

But the best and unique definition was given by Joyce and Weil (1997) :

> *"A model of teaching is a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculum (long term courses of study), to design instructional materials, and to guide instructions in the classrooms and other settings.* (Joyce, B. &Weil, M.1997)"

In their book —Models of Teaching" (1997) the above authors had defined —Models of Teaching according to different aspects of learning and instructions. These are as follows :

> *"Teaching models are just instructional designs. They describe the process of specifying and producing particular environmental situations which cause the student to interact in such a way that specific change occurs in his behavior."*

Teaching model is a —pattern or plan which can be used to shape a curriculum or course, of select instructional materials and to guide a teacher‘s actions.”

“A model of teaching is a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculum (long term courses of study), to design instructional materials, and to guide instructions in the classrooms and other settings (joyce, B. & Well. M. 1997)”

(i) —A model of teaching consists of guidelines for designing educational activities and environments. It specifies ways of teaching and learning that are intended to attain certain kinds of goals.”

Another author defines it in the following way also :

Model soft teaching can be defined as instructional design which describes the process of specifying and producing a particular environmental situation which causes the students to interaction such a way that a specific change occurs in their behaviour.

According to Paul Eggan and Others :

—Teaching models re prescriptive teaching strategies designed to accomplish particular teaching goals.”

N.K. Jangira (1983) has defined _Models of Teaching‘ as :

—A model of teaching is a set of inter-related components arranged in a sequence which provides guidelines to realize specific goal. It helps in designing instructional activities and environmental facilities, carrying out of these activities and realization of the stipulated objectives.”

According to H. C. Wyld a Model of Teaching is used

—To confirm in behavior, action and to direct one‘s action according to some particular design or ideal.”

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give a suitable definition of ‘Models of Teaching’.
2. Why is the Models of Teaching important for a teacher?

4.1.1.2 : NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MODELS OF TEACHING

As has been stated earlier each teaching model attempts to explain the main important connections between learning outcomes, environmental conditions, expected pupil performance and relevant teaching procedure. In fact it also helps improve teacher‘s effectiveness.

Any new strategies are based on some assumptions. These assumptions are again developed from some theories. Models of teaching are also based on some assumptions and in fact these assumptions are based on teaching theories. The general nature of teaching models are as follows :

(a) Various components of teaching environments are interdependent.

The task of teaching is the creation of proper environment.

(b) Components of teaching environment are subject matter content, skill, instructional role, types of activities, social interaction, physical facilities, environmental systems etc. These components are interactive and affects on the participant teachers and students.

(c) Different combinations of the components from different types of teaching environments and are responsible for different types of teaching outcomes.

(d) The models of teaching can provide a new specification of class room environment in a specific teaching learning process.

A good model of teaching will have the following characteristics:

(a) Clear and unambiguous statement about learning outcome.

(b) Statement of the environmental conditions on which the model will work.

(c) Expected pupil‘s performances.

(d) Teaching method by which the model will function.

(e) Model will also function through a scientific procedure. And

(f) Evaluative system for teachers‘ effectiveness will be present. In teaching models the activities included are :

(i) To give practical shape to the learning achievement.

(ii) To specify situations where the response of the pupils may be seen.

(iii) To select the stimulus for obtaining expected response.

(iv) To determines such criterion behaviours so that the performance of pupils may be seen.

(v) To specify the specific teaching strategies for achieving the desirable educational objectives by anslysing the interaction in the classroom situations.

(vi) To modify the teaching strategies and tactics if the expected changes in the behaviour do not occur.

Joyce and Weil (1997) comments :

"Teaching models are just instructional designs. They describe the process of specifying and producing particular environmental situations which cause the student to interact in such a way that specific change occurs in his behaviour."

4.1.1.3 : FUNDAMENTAL ELEMENTS OF A TEACHING MODEL

In the operational heart of each model there are some concepts or elements. These concepts or elements will tell the activities, appropriate time of occurrence and its sequence. Fundamental Elements of a Teaching Model are as follows:

1. Focus
2. Syntax
3. Principles of reaction
4. Social system
5. Support system
6. Application

1. Focus : It refers the frame of reference and is the central aspect of any teaching model. All the models have some specific goals and objectives of teaching and it is the aim of teaching to reach the specific goals through the objectives. So the objectives of teaching and environment of the learners are the focus of the model.

2. Syntax : It will describe the activities planned for the instructional system i.e. activities of the model in action. Each model has some unique phases and activities. Syntax helps a teacher to use the model properly and guide him/her to proceed further.

3. Principles of Reaction : This element helps the teacher about the method and procedure to respond to the activities of learners. So the response should be appropriate and selective because it will help further learning. Joyce and Weil comments that the principle of reaction provides the teacher the rule of thumb by which the teacher selects the particular responses.

4. **Social system :** It will describe the role of teachers and the pupils in the instructional systems and also the terminal behaviour of the learners. Different models may have different social systems. In some models the teacher may be the centre of activities in teaching and learning but in other models the role of teachers may be different. Naturally the social system may be different in different models and it is the responsibility of the teacher to ascertain the social system part of the model. This part of the model will also determine the role of the teachers regarding the desirable changes of the learners' behaviour.

5. **Support System :** This element will determine the facilities needed to support the total system. This is done by oral or written examinations. This element will also help to understand the additional support system requires for the model. On the basis of the results it is also estimated the degree of success of the model, further skills required, additional special aids and material support required to improve the model etc.

6. **Application:** This element describes the application part of the model. Some models are required for short lessons, some for long lessons and some models are used for both. Different types of models differ in goal achievement levels in different domains, e.g. cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains, of learning. So this element helps to understand the use of the model in the specific areas of teaching – learning process.

"The best substitute for a theory of teaching is a model of teaching Teaching and learning conditions can be interrelated" (DeCecco,1988)

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Why assumptions are developed from theories ?
2. Why 'Social system' is important in 'Teaching Models'?

4.1.1.4 : FUNCTIONS OF MODELS OF TEACHING

In a teaching-learning situation a Teaching Model has three major functions: (i) Designing and specifying instructional objectives, (ii) Developing and selecting instructional materials and (iii) Specifying teaching-learning activities for the attainment of the selected instructional objectives. This is shown in figure 1.

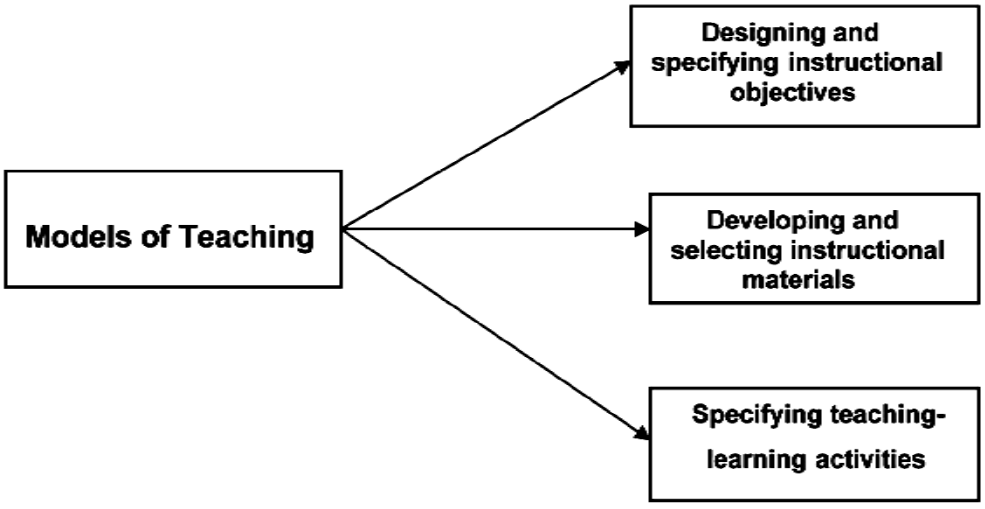

Fig. 1 Functions of models of teachin

4.1.1.5 : DIFFERENT FAMILIES OF TEACHING MODELS

Joyce and Weil (1997) have categories the families of teaching models in to four groups and under each group there are several models. The groups are as follows (Fig. 2 & 3) :

(i) Information – processing models

(ii) Personal development models

(iii) Social interaction models and

(iv) Behaviour Modification models

Let us try to discuss these families in a very synoptic way.

(i) Information – processing models :

According to Joyce and Weil (1997) :

―Information-processing models emphasize ways of enhancing the human being‘s innate drive to make sense of the world by acquiring and organising data, sensing problems and generating solutions to them, and developing concepts and language fo conveying them.”

In Information Processing Models there are several models. These models can share an orientation toward the information processing capability and information processing abilities of the learners. The models fall under these category are as follows:

(a) Inductive thinking model of Hilda Taba (1966).

(b) Inquiry training model of Suchman, R.(1962).

(c) Scientific inquiry model of Sehwab, J.J.(1965).

(d) Concept attainment model of Bruner, J.(1967).

(e) Cognitive growth model of Piaget, J. (1952).

(f) Advance organisor model of Asubel,D.(1963).

(g) Memory model of Lorayne, H. and Lucasi, J. (1974).

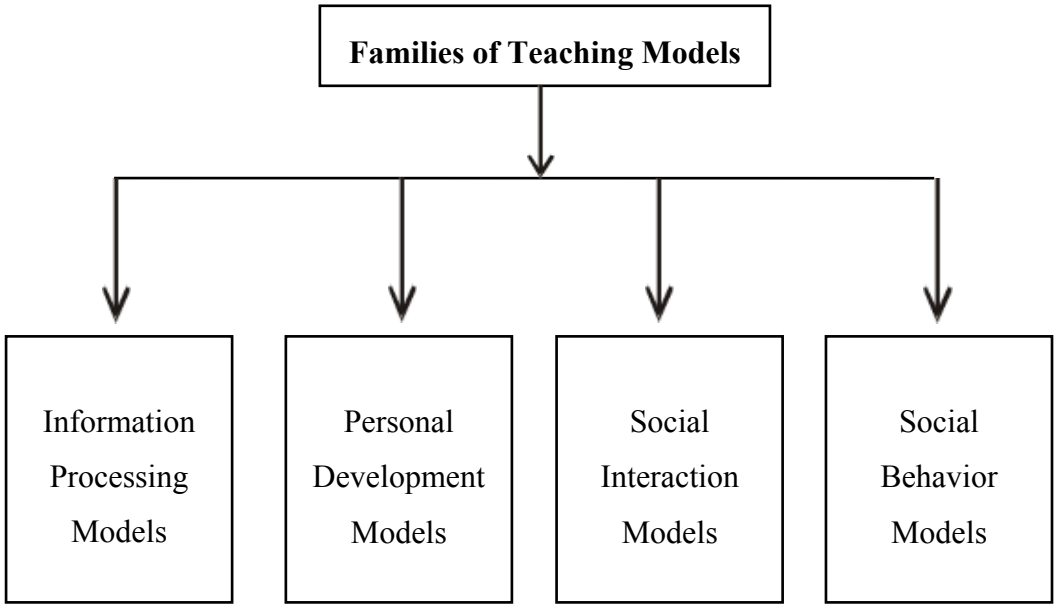

Fig. 2 Families of Teaching Models

The focus of the methods associated with information processing approaches are more linked to concepts and principles developed in cognitive psychology. Many of the tests used to measure school learning are being modified so that they consider important mental processing skills that these models are designed to address.

Inquiry Training / Inductive Thinking—focus on concept formation, interpretation of data, and formation of principles and theories

Concept Attainment—focus on categorizing, concept formation, and concept attainment Cognitive growth model (Intellectual Development) —based on the cognitive developmental theory of Jean Piaget

(ii) Personal Development Models :

Personal development models give an orientation toward the development of individuality and selfhood. These types of models emphasize on the individual construct and organize their unique reality. They also focus how to develop individuals and make an effective relationship with the environment.

(iii) Some of the models fall under this category is :

(a) Nondirective teaching model of Rogers, C.(1971).

(b) Awareness training model of Pearls, F. and Schutz, W. (1968).

(c) Synectics model of Gordon, W.(1961).

(d) Conceptual systems model of Hunt, D. (1970).

(e) Classroom meeting model of Glaser, W.(1965).

The focus of these models is on those outcomes held in high regard by humanistic educators: high self-concept and self-esteem, positive self-direction and independence, creativity and curiosity, and the development of affect and emotions. Most of the methods used are associated with open education. While these models have not demonstrated an ability to impact outcomes associated with traditional education, they do show promise in impacting other outcomes important for the information age. This family gives stress on the following areas:

Facilitative teaching—student-centered; based on the methods of Carl Rogers

Increasing Personal Awareness—focus is on developing an awareness and fulfilment of individual potential

Synectics—focus on the development and application of creativity

The families of teaching modelsare:

* ***Information-processing models***
* ***Personal development models***
* ***Social interaction models and***

Behaviour Modification models.

(iv) Social Interaction Models :

According to Joyce and Weil (1997) :

―The social models of teaching are constructed to take advantage this (Synergy) phenomenon by building learning communities."

Social interaction models give importance on the relationship between individual and society. These models give priority to the individual improvement in social interactions, democratic outlook and to work for productivity in the society. The following are some of the models fall under this category:

(a) Social simulation model by Borock, S. and Guetzkow (1968).

(b) Role playing model by Shaftel, F. and Shaftel, G. (1967).

(c) Jurisprudential model by Oliver, D. and Shaver, J.P. (1966).

(d) Laboratory method by National Training Laboratory, Bethel and Maine (1964).

(e) Social inquiry model by Massials and Cox (1966).

(f) Group investigation model by Thelan, H. and Dewey, J.(1960).

The models associated with the social interaction family are focused on developing the concepts and skills needed to work in groups. Cooperative learning has demonstrated ability to impact standard achievement measures as well as group interaction.

- Cooperative Learning—focus is on working in groups; based on the methods of Slavin and Johnson and Johnson
- Role playing—focus is on the study and development of social behavior and values

(v) Behaviour Modification Models :

Lastly, behavioural models give stress on the visible behaviour of the learners. It is much used in education, training, interpersonal behaviour development, and therapy. These models are based on principles of stimulus control and reinforcement. The following models have been categorised under this field:

(a) Contingency management model by Skinner, B.F. (1953). (b) Self control model by Skiner, B.F.(1953).

(b) Relaxation model by Rimm et al.(1974).

(c) Stress reduction model by Rimm et al.(1974).

(d) Assertive training model by Wolpe et al. (1966).

(e) Desensitization model by Wolpe(1966).

(f) Direct training model by Gayne(1962).

The focus of the methods associated with this category is on observable skills and behaviors. These methods have generally proved more likely to positively impact scores on standardized tests of basic skills than models in other categories. Two of the most important characteristics of this family are :

- Direct Instruction—highly structured, teacher-directed; maximization of student learning time.
- Mastery Learning—given enough time and quality instruction, nearly all students can master any set of objectives.

	F A M I L I E S			
	The Social Family	**The Information Processing Family**	**The Personal Family**	**The Behavioural Systems Family**
M O D E L S	1. Partners in learning 2. Positive interdependence 3. Structural inquiry 2. Group investigation 3. Role playing 4. Jurisprudential Inquiry	1. Inductive thinking (classification oriented) 2. Concept attainment 3. Mnemonics (memory assists) 4. Advance organizers 5. Scientific inquiry 6. Inquiry training 7. Synectics	1. Non directive teaching 2. Enhancing self esteem	1. Mastery learning 2. Direct instruction 3. Simulation 4. Social learning 5. Programmed Schedule (task performance reinforcement)

Fig. 3 Families of Models of Teaching

4.1.1.6 : COMMON FEATURES OF MODELS OF TEACHING

The above families of models are not mutually exclusive, though each model has some uniqueness in itself and has a distinctive approach to teaching. As because students need growth in all directions, one model is not sufficient for students‘ all round growth. So a master teacher should have mastery on variety of models of teaching. Certain models are useful for developing a definite curriculum, but these may not be useful for other purposes. For example, personal models can help to develop the learners‘ selfhood, but social interactions are also necessary for developing democratic values in them. Hence social interaction models are no less important for teachers. An efficient teacher can make a new model by combining one model with other models.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Why has ‘Information processing model’ family given such name ?
2. State two common features of Models of Teaching.

Block - 4

Unit – 2

Different Models of Teaching-1

4.2 : DIFFERENT MODELS OF TEACHING-1

Research and practice suggest that learners‘ attainment can be enhanced by the consistent use of specific teaching and learning models.

A number of teaching and learning models have been developed as a direct consequence of theories about learning. Each can be expressed as a tightly structured sequence that is designed to elicit and develop a specific type of thinking or response. We shall discuss here only four models, viz., Glaser‘s Model of Teaching, Bruner‘s Concept Attainment Model, Advance Organizers Model of David Asubel and Cognitive Development Model of Piaget. Below you will get descriptions and uses of these models in education.

4.2.1 : GLASER‘S MODEL (BASIC TEACHING MODEL)

In 1962 Robert Glaser has put forward a simple, yet effective teaching model. This is known as basic teaching model. It is called ‗basic‘ because it tries to explain the whole teaching process in a systematic manner. Glaser‘s model has the following four major components :

(a) Instructional objectives (b) Entering behavior (c) Instructional procedure and (d) Performance assessment It has a feedback loops for evaluative purposes. The model is shown in figure 4**.**

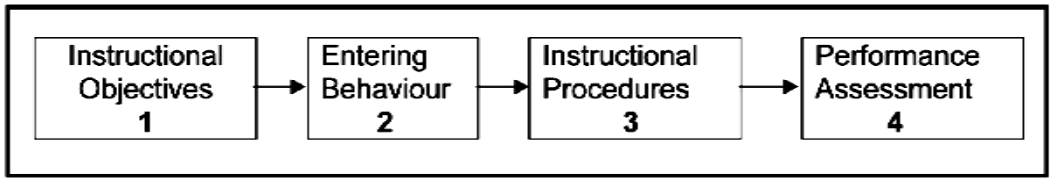

Fig. 4 Components of Glaser‘s Basic Teaching Model (1962)

In the above figure Box 1 is the *instructional objectives* which is attained by the learners after completion of segments of instructions. ‗In theory, objectives can vary in scope and character from mastery of a spelling list to the acquisition of Greek virtue‘ (DeCecco, 1988). These instructional objectives are objectives of teachers and students and these can guide to the ultimate aim of learning process. These instructional objectives are segmented into behavioural form called task description

and are stated in a behavioural analysis form as given by Gagne or Bloom. Thus the performance of the students can be observed in a more easy way by their behaviour.

Box2contains*enteringbehaviour*ofthelearners.Itindicatesstudents'leveloflearningbefore teaching-learning process begins. Teacher will prepare his instructional objectives and teaching materials on the basis of entering behaviour of the learners. The entering behaviour also indicates learner's intellectual ability, his development, motivational state, certain social and cultural ability, his individual differences, readiness etc. It may seem that the model gives priority to instructional objectives, but entering behaviour and instructional objectives interact with one another.

The third box is *instructional procedures* and it is the main component of this teaching model. It describes the instructional procedures. ‗Proper management of this component results in those changes in student behaviour which we call learning achievement' (DeCecco). Teachers' activities are mainly on this phase of classroom instructions. Teachers design their instructional procedures in such a way that the learners can achieve the instructional objectives set previously and behaviour modification take place in the desired way. This will indicate that learning is taking place. It must be kept in mind that instructional procedure may change with the change of instructional objectives, for example instructional procedure for language teaching may differ from concept learning or a problem solving.

The 4^{th} box is the *performance assessment.* It contains the tests and measurements by which the final outcome of the learner can be assessed. This is also a vital part of this model. This evaluation part is done with the help of tools and techniques.

The uniqueness of this model is the feedback loop. After performance assessment, if it is found that the learner has achieved the proper mastery on the subject as directed in the instructional objectives and desired modification of behaviour has also taken place, then it is considered that the objectives proposed, entering behaviour assessed and teaching procedure set in the model is in proper direction. Otherwise some changes are necessary. The feedback loop will indicate where the change or changes should occur. The change may occur in one box or it may occur in two or all the places. This feed-back comes from performance assessment part of the model (Fig.5).

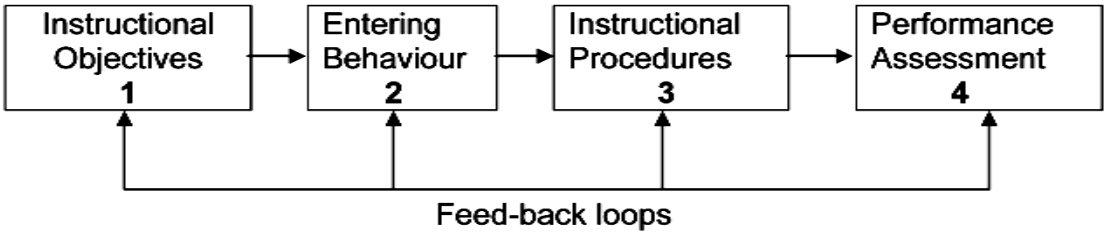

Fig. 5 Feedback loops for performance assessment

Glaser wrote (1962): —The development of the system is initiated with the specification of the goals of instruction. These goals constitute the objective to be accomplished and the purpose for which the system is to be designed. The main input into the system, upon which it is designed to operate, consists of the entering behavior of the student. This consists of the initial repertoire, aptitudes, and prior educational background with which the instructional process begins. The next phase constitutes the actual instructional procedures and experiences which are employed to guide and modify behavior. The final phase in an instructional situation is some sort of —quality control," that is, assessment of the extent to which the end-of-course behavior has been achieved by the student in light of the kind of performance required by the specified instructional goals. These phases are the main flow of the instructional system, but it has many feedback loops and subsidiary inputs. The information obtained in each phase supplies data which are useful for monitoring and correcting the output of the preceding phase; for example, measurement of the kind of performance achieved can provide information for redesign of instructional procedures, and information on instructional procedures can interact with the characteristics of the entering behavior. Feeding in to all phases are the results of research and development. The implementation of these results and the fruitful inter play between research and development, on the one hand, and the operating aspects of the system, on the other, involve important logistical considerations."

Fundamental Elements of Basic Teaching Model

It has already been said that each model has five fundamental elements, viz., focus syntax, principle of reaction, social system, and support system.

The five aspects of Glaser's model acts in the following way :

1. **Focus :** The model tries to pinpoint the process and major activities covering four basic functions, processes and major activities covering teaching-learning sequences. It also pinpoints the steps to be followed in the instructions system.
2. **Syntax :** This is the teaching activity step. First of all, the objectives to be achieved through the instruction carried out by the teacher are fixed. Then attempts are made to assess the potentiality of the learners in terms of their entry behaviour. Then, in the light of the entry behaviour, instructional work is carried out to achieve the stipulated objectives and achievement of the model is ascertained in this step. It has the following phases:

Phase – I	**Phase – II**	**Phase – III**	**Phase – IV**
Framing instructional objectives	Deciding entering behaviour	Preparing instructional Procedure	Performance assessment by evaluative tests

3. **Principle of Reactions :** This indicates the method of receiving the reaction of pupils by the teacher. The teacher should mind that he must develop a personal, worm, interesting and sensitive relation with the learners. This will help him to judge and understand learners. The principle of reaction must be based on flexible attitude of teachers.

The main principles of reaction are as follows :

i) Principle of interdependence :

Four stages of interactions are: instructional objectives, entering behaviour, instructional procedures and performance assessment. The student‘s responses are to be understood by the interdependence of the abovestages.

ii) Principle of active involvement :

The model requires active involvement of both teachers and learners. So the teacher will develop proper attention, skills of setting instructional objectives, skills of assessment of entry and terminal behaviours of the students. It will help teachers to identify the difficulties and potentialities of the learners to beassessed.

iii) Principle of correction and follow-up :

Follow-up action is another important activity of the teacher. If it is found that students are not achieving in the line of set objectives, the teacher will take follow-up action so that they can achieve maximum benefits.

4. **Social System :** The model is sufficiently structured and supposed to be determined by the active role and control of the teachers. This element will indicate the activities during the teaching which will generate a social environment. This will be developed by democratic outlook of the teacher by equality of opportunity in instructional procedure and mutual love and respect for each other.

5. **Support System :** Optimal performance of learners will be achieved by maximum support system. This suggests that maximum infrastructural system will have maximum level of performance. This support system may be books, journals, teaching and instruction, and use of technological aids. For optimal success of the model the following additional support systems are required:

(i) Sufficient pre and in-service training of teachers are important.

(ii) Desirable teaching learning situation and environment are important for proper application instructional strategies.

(iii) Development of proper evaluative tools for assessment of entry and terminal behaviours of the students.

Applicability of the Model

It should be born in mind that personality of the teachers does not play a vital part in this model. The model also indicates that teaching and instruction requires broad range of decision and practice. The model suggests the use of broad range of technological devices, team teaching etc. than mere personal contact. The model suggests that the teacher‘s competence is more important than his/her personal charisma.

Advantages of Glaser‘s Model

The model has several advantages. This is summarised as follows:

(i) It is a structured model and can be used in all teaching learning systems.

(ii) The model lays no over importance of teachers‘ personalities. So they can achieve maximum success from this method.

(iii) Glaser‘s model helps teachers to set instructional objectives in behavioural term and help to develop task description and task analysis from instructional objectives.

(iv) Determination of entering behaviour is another advantage of Glaser‘s model. This will help to select students for a particular course.

(v) The model has been applied successfully in programmed instructions. Glaser found that (1966) use of rule example technique helps rapid reinforcement for both teachers and students.

(vi) The model can be applied in teaching machine too.

(vii) The model is a good example of using performances mention —measuring of student‘s auxiliary and terminal performances during and at the end of instructions (DeCecco, 1988).

(viii) The planning and arranging of different activities of teacher education may be worked out from Glaser‘s model.

4.2.2 : BRUNER‘S CONCEPT ATTAINMENT MODEL

The concept attainment model was developed by Jerome Bruner in 1967. This was redeveloped by Fred Lighthall, Tennyson, Cocchiarella and Bruce Joyce.

Though the model was developed by Bruner, yet Good now and Austin (1967) contributed their thinking and researches in the development of the original model.

This model falls in the category of Information Processing Models and it helps both teachers in their teaching and students in their learning to attain a concept. The model can be effectively used for processing and organizing information of different areas of topics in any stage of development.

The Model

Bruner was mainly a cognitive psychologist and was interested in the field of development of mental abilities. In later stages he was concerned with teaching profession. In one article he wrote.

> *"Any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" (*Bruner in *The Process of Education,* 1960*).*

In later stages he, with his co-workers, developed the Concept Attainment Model of Teaching.

According to Bruneretal. ―conceptattainment refers to the process of finding predictive defining attributes that distinguish exemplars from non exemplars of the class one seeks to discriminate".

Thus in the definition of concept attainment, there are some new terms which should be clarified first.

Concept Attainment : Concept attainment is ―the search for and listing of attributes that can be used to distinguish exemplars from non exemplars of various categories" (Bruner, yet Good now and Austin, 1967). It is the ‗process of identifying the attributes that characterises a particular category'. For example : table has the following attributes : (i) flat horizontal surface, (ii) leg or legs suitable height for use, (iv) objects can be placed on it (v) made of wood or metal.

Concept Formation : Concept attainment and concept formation are different. For example, a child is learning to distinguish between the categories of dangerous and harmless snakes. He does not know the different attributes of dangerous and harmless snakes. But he has already formed some concepts about it. He has to find something distinguishing characters which can differentiate between harmless and dangerous snakes. This is known as ‗concept attainment'. The combined process is known as concept learning. So concept learning is the combination of concept formation and concept attainment.

Attributes : The characteristic features of a concept are called attributes. For example, ―A Green Circle" has three attributes number, colour and shape.

Attribute Values: Values are the attributes of a concept. In the above example there are values of three attributes e.g. a green and circle.

Exemplars and Non exemplars : Examples (called exemplars) are instances of the concept. It can be positive and negative. For example, the concept is an ‗orange'. Then each fruit is an example and banana, apple etc. are non exemplars and orange is an exemplar.

The categorising activity of concept has two components: concept formation is the first component and concept attainment is the second component.

The Concept Attainment Model

The concept attainment model is the process of defining or identifying concepts by finding those attributes that are absolutely essential to the meaning of the concept and disregarding those that are not; it also involves learning to discriminate between what is and is not an example of the concept.

In course of experimentation Bruner has identified four strategies in concept attainment. They are as follows :

(i) Simultaneous scanning strategy

(ii) Successive scanning strategy

(iii) Conservative focussing strategy

(iv) Focus gambling strategy

(i) Successive scanning: Simultaneous scanning strategy:

In this strategy the learners use positive examples to deduce invalid instances. This is a crude technique, because it puts a great strain on students‘ memory.

(ii) Successive scanning:

In this strategy the subject verifies the correct concept in a successive stage one by one. This technique is not so effective as it does not give any new information.

(iii) Conservative focusing:

According to Bruner, this technique is more effective, as the subject uses a correct instance as a point of reference.

(iv) Focus gambling:

Here more than one attributes are considered at a time. This strategy is called gambling because the subject takes a chance with varying attributes two at atime.

Steps in the Model

The concept attainment model includes the following steps:

1. The concept is selected and defined; text or dictionary definitions should not be automatically used.

2. Select of the attributes or examples are made.

3. Positive and negative examples are developed: positive examples must have all the correct attributes and may have some non-essential attributes.

The families of teaching modelsare:

* ***Information-processing models***
* ***Personal development models***
* ***Social interaction models and***

Behaviour Modification models.

4. Introduction of the process to the students is made.

5. Presentation of the examples and list the attributes are made.

6. Students develop a concept definition.

7. The teacher will give additional positive and negative examples and then students give examples to assess their understanding.

8. The teacher will discuss the process with the class.

9. Students are assessed.

Phases of the Concept Attainment Model (CAM)

The five phases of CAM function as follows :

1. Focus :

—Thefocus defines the field of search for the students. It may eliminate non relevant lines of enquiry. Often it pitched at a level of abstraction just above the exemplars".

The main focus of the model is to develop inductive reasoning of the students. Bruner and his associates orient their work for the description of a process by which the students discriminate the attribute of the things, persons, and events and place them into categories. The students are also taught about the concept which is of great use to them in order to live successfully in different life situations.

2. Syntax of CAM :

The phases of the syntax are as follows :

Phase – I : Presentation of data and identification of concept :

Here –

(a) The teacher presents definite examples;

(b) Students compare examples in positive and negative examples;

(c) Students generate and testhypothesis.

(d) Students state a definition according to the essential attributes.

Phase – II : Testing attainment of the concept :

Here —

(a) Students identify additional unlabeled examples as yes or no.

(b) Teacher confirms hypothesis, names concepts and restates definitions according to essential attributes.

(c) Students generate examples.

Phase – III : Analysis of thinking strategies :

Here —

(a) Students describe thoughts.

(b) Students discuss role of hypothesis and attributes.

(c) Students discuss type and number of hypothesis.

In Phase I data are presented to the learner. These are any events, persons or any other matter which can be differentiated. The learners are directed that all positive examples have one idea in common and their duty is to develop a hypothesis about the nature of the concept. They are asked to compare and justify the concepts from the given examples. Finally they are encouraged to from rule, name the concept according to that rule etc.

In Phase II students test their attainment. This is done first by identifying the unlabelled examples and then by setting their own examples. Thus the original hypothesis is accepted or rejected and their choice is revised or modified.

In Phase III students begin to analyse the thinking strategies to attain the concept. Some students try to frame broad construct and gradually narrow it down. Others try to frame it in other ways and become specific in discussing the hypothesis.

3. Principles of Reaction

When the model goes on in the actual classroom situation, the teacher will act as a supportive system of the students‘ hypothesis. They will develop dialogue with the students to establish or reject their hypothesis. Thus they will help students to analyse their concepts and strategies in the later part. The teacher should encourage, at this stage, to access various other strategies and find out their merits and limitations. The important principles of reaction may be put forward as follows:

(a) The teacher is to remain supportive to the student‘s hypothesis, but emphasises that they are hypothetical in nature.

(b) The teacher has to keep record by keeping track of the hypothesis (concepts) of the attributes as they are mentioned by the students.

(c) The teacher is to remain supportive to the students‘ attention and help them to analyse their concepts and strategies.

(d) The teacher will encourage analysis of the merits of alternative strategies rather than attempting to seek one strategy for all students in all times.

4. Social System

Before starting, the teachers will arrange the concepts in graded difficulties, organise the materials with positive and negative examples. The text books available in the market are not written according to the need of the students. So, here the duty of teachers is very important. The teachers will have to prepare exemplars and non exemplars, prepare extract ideas and materials from other sources and design them according to the requirement of the learners‘ intellectual ability.

The social system of the model demands from the teacher to place responsibility of identifying and verifying the concept on the students. The teacher should try to communicate the students that the solution to the problem of identifying the concept lies not within the teacher but in the data (examples). (Eggen et al.19979)

5. Support System

Lessons of these model require positive and negative exemplars. Here the task of the student is not to develop other concepts than those selected by the teacher. For this reason data sources should be arranged before hand and students can explain the example with its characteristics and discriminate it from non examples.

Application of Bruner's Concept Attainment Model CAM)

The model provides an excellent way to teach concepts through t he use of examples and it also helps the students to understand unfamiliar concepts. It can be used to teach concepts related to any discipline or area of the curriculum. Some of the applications of the model are given below:

(i) It can be effectively used in language teaching. In grammar teaching it is also useful, because here exemplars and non exemplars can be effectively used.

(ii) The model is also useful in teaching of different branches of science because discovery, enquiry and hypothesis framing and testing can be properly used.

(iii) It can be used with all children of all ages and grades.

(iv) The model can also be used as a useful evaluative tool for the teachers. A quick estimate of the mastery of the students can also be assessed by this model.

(v) Lastly, this model can be made as a foundation of non-machine relationship in modern teaching learning system.

Merits of the model

Merits of the model are as follows :

(a) It develops thinking and reasoning capacity of the students.

(b) The model keeps students active during the teaching learning system.

(c) It develops imagination power of the students.

(d) It also encourages self study of the students.

(e) The model helps students in systematic approach in developing study habits.

(f) It also helps students to apply their knowledge in other different fields.

Limitations of Bruner's Concept Attainment Model

Some of the limitations of the model are as follows :

(a) The model demands high returns from the students and the teachers.

(b) Students have their own individual differences. Due to this some students may not move at par with other students.

(c) Sometimes it is also difficult to apply the model in big classes.

Instructional and Nurturant Effects of CAM

From the above discussion it is clear that the CAM can be effectively used with some minor limitations. It can be used in achieving goals depending on the emphasis on a particular topic. The model is designed for a specific concept depending on its nature. There is also scope for practice in inductive reasoning. CAM also provides opportunities for developing communication strategies in different concept attainment. Joyce and Weil have expressed it in figure 6.

Robert Gagne (1965),Merrill and Tenyson (1977), Mc Kinneyetal.(1983) have studied on the model and reported that CAM is very useful in forming and aininonce.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State two applications of Glaser's Basic Teaching Model?
2. What are the limitations of Concept attainment model?

p

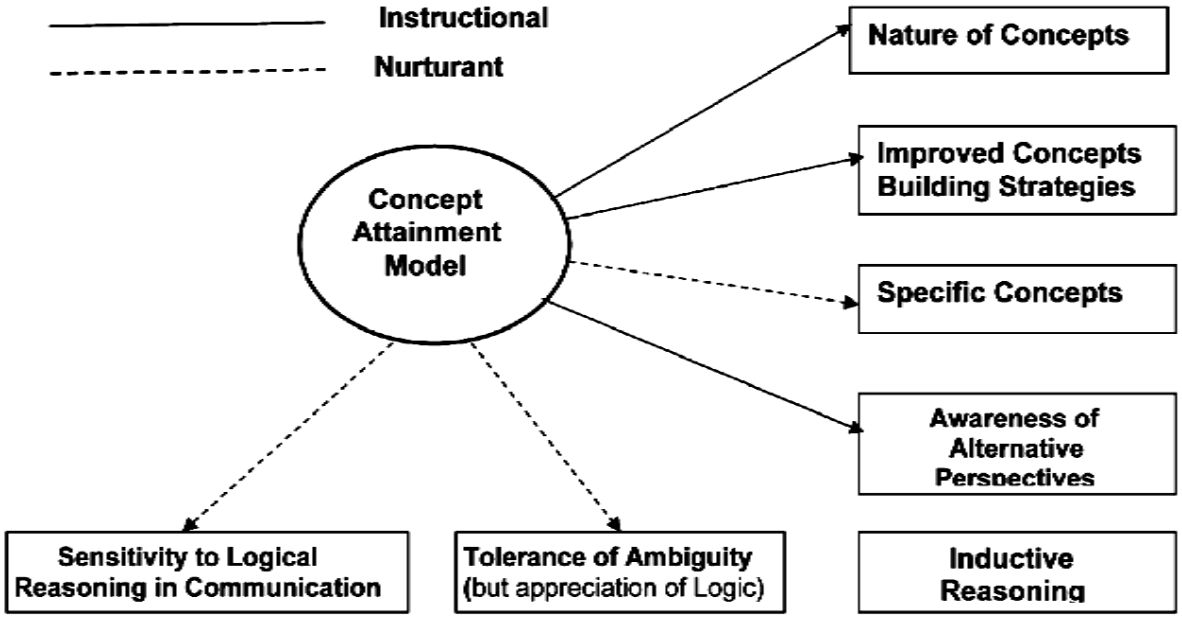

Fig. 6 Instructional and Nurturant effects of CAM

Block - 4

Unit – 3

Different Models of Teaching-2

4.3.1 : ADVANCE ORGANIZERS' MODEL (AOM) OF DAVID

Ausubel

(A) Introduction

David Ausubel is a psychologist who advanced a theory which contrasted meaningful learning from rote learning. In Ausubel's view, to learn meaningfully, students must relate new knowledge (concepts and propositions) to what they already know. He proposed the notion of an advanced organizer as a way to help students link their ideas with new material or concepts. Ausubel's theory of learning claims that new concepts to be learned can be incorporated into more inclusive concepts orideas.

These more inclusive concepts or ideas are advance organizers. Advance organizers can be verbal phrases, or a graphic. In any case, the advance organizer is designed to provide, what cognitive psychologists call, the "mental scaffolding: to learn new information". (Hassard, J.,2007)

(B) Theory

This model falls in the family of information processing models. David Ausubel is the proponent of this model (1963). It helps students to develop cognitive structures through lectures, reading and other media. It can also be helpful for all ages and all levels ofstudents.

According to Ausubel Reception Learning (RL) or Meaningful Verbal Learning (MVL) entails the internalisation of materials presented to the learner so that he/she can reproduce it in future. Most of the learning, which are presented to the learner occurs in or out side school rather than discovery.

According to Ausubel when inclusive and appropriately relevant concepts existed in the

cognitive structure, new ideas and information can be properly learnt by the students. The inclusive and relevant concepts are organised and new ideas or concepts are incorporated in the cognitive structure. Similarity and differences are adjusted in the cognitive field and give place for new concepts. According to Ausubel, new learning takes place as a result of mental exercise. Meaningful learning is not forgotten. Learning can be made meaningful by providing advance organisers or subsumers to assist invoking recall of relevant principles in this case. Thus the advance organisers or subsumers diagnose the cognitive structure of the learner before learning starts. With this base, learning will be started in an organised manner which will enable to accommodate new ideas through progressive differentiation of ideas from those already present in the cognitive structure and trough integrative reconciliation of those ideas in to the structure. Thus the learner can develop critical thinking and learning is retained through meaningful learning.

(C) The Model

According to Ausubel advanced organisers are ‗concepts or principles introduced before the presentation of the main body of instructional material' (Dececco, 1988). They are selected in such a way, that they can help organising and explaining that matter. Ausubel suggests that use of advance organisers may reverse the traditional teaching practice, because here students receive details new and unfamiliar information before they acquaint with a body of subsumers (principles, concepts etc.). Ausubel believes in expository teaching rather than discovery method. He said, ―The art and science of presenting ideas and information meaningfully and effectively – so that clear, stable, and unambiguous meanings emerge and are retained over a long period of time as an organised body of knowledge – is really the principle of pedagogy. ……. Through proper expository teaching they can proceed directly to a level of abstract understanding that is qualitatively superior to the intuitive level in terms of generality, clarity, precision and explicitness"(1963). The advance organisers model was designed to follow the idea of Ausubel.

(D) Strategy of the Model

Ausubel gave stress on two concepts : anchoring ideas and advance organisers.

(i) Anchoring ideas :

According to Ausubel anchoring ideas are established knowledge existed in the students cognitive structures.

(ii) Advance organisers :

An advance organizer is a cognitive strategy proposed by Ausubel in his Subsumption Theory, which allows the learner to recall and transfer prior knowledge to the new information being presented. This theory is based on the idea that learning is facilitated, if the learner can find meaning in the new information. If a connection can be made between the new information and previous

knowledge, the learning experience will become more meaningful to the learner. Therefore, the new information will belearned.

In the words of Ausubel —An advance organiser is a pedagogic device that bridges the gap between what the learner already knows and what he needs to know if he is to learn the new material most actively and expeditiously".

According to Entwistle (1990), —The function of advance organisers is to provide a framework within which the details presented later can be readily allocated".

For effective functioning of the model, Ausubel stress on :

(i) The availability in the learner's cognitive structures of specifically relevant anchoring ideas at an optimal level of inclusiveness, generality, and abstraction.

(ii) The extent to which such ideas are discriminated from both similar and different concepts and principles in the learning material.

(iii) The stability and clarity of the anchoring ideas.

(E) Phases of the Advance Organisers Model (AOM)

The five phases of AOM function as follows :

(a) Focus :

The key aspect of the model is the use of suitable organisers, so that the students can acquire new subsumers according to his cognitive structure. So, at this phase, the teacher will organise concepts for presenting it to the students, so that the new knowledge can be received in the existing cognitive frame work. The main task of this element may be summarised as follows:

(i) Help teachers to improve their methods of presentation of thesubject matter, lecture and other expository form of teaching.

(ii) Organise and convey large amounts of information as meaningfully and efficiently as possible.

(iii) Help learners to strengthen their existing cognitive structure by receiving, processing and retaining the present information or knowledge for its use in their further learning.

(b) Syntax :

This model (AOM) has three phases of activity. These are :

- Phase – I : Presentation of advance organiser
- Phase – II : Presentation of learning task
- Phase–III : Strengthening cognitive organisation

Phase – I : Presentation of advance organiser :

a. Clarifying aims of the lesson.

b. Presenting the organiser : this will include (a) identification of defining attributes, (b) giving examples, (c) providing context and (d) repeat.

c. Eliciting prompt awareness of students‘ relevant knowledge and experience.

Phase – II : Presentation of learning task :

i. Material is presented.

ii. Students‘ attention is ensured.

iii. Explicit organisation is done.

iv. Learning material is produced in a logical and explicitform.

Phase – III : Strengthening cognitive organisation :

(i) Principles of integrative reconciliation are used.

(ii) Active reception learning is promoted.

(iii) Critical approach to the subject is developed.

(iv) Clarification of new knowledge is ensured.

Ausubel viewed that presentation would be potentially profitable if the teachers teach their students to become more active to help them to find out new organising ideas, and reconcile information received with the existing frame work.

(c) Social System :

In this model the teacher controls the intellectual structure because students always relate the organiser with the new learning materials by differentiating it with the previously learned materials. Social system will be more useful when students are active and interactive, interested in learning. Thus critical mindedness in presentation and organisation of the material is also important at this phase.

(d) Principles of reaction :

This stage mainly depends on the effectiveness of the teacher because the teacher will guide to clarify the meaning of the new learning materials, adjust it with the old structure and organisers and help them to create a critical approach so that learners can develop new organisers at their own.

(e) Support system :

To support the students, well organised materials are essential in this system. Most effective organisers will be those which develop integral and appropriate relationship between the conceptual organiser and the content. So data should be rich and material should be well organised.

(f) Application :

(i) Reception learning is important because most of the new ideas that are acquired by the students in the classroom and outside are rather presented than discovered.

(ii) This model is useful to structure extended curriculum. The learner will be presented a step by step idea of the new concept by advance organisers.

(iii) This model is also useful in abstract learning. This can be done by proper expository teaching through reception learning.

(iv) Critical ability and the readiness to receive can be enhanced by active meaningful learning by using accurate definition of concepts, helping students to differential similarity and differences between related concepts etc.

(v) This model helps to develop reception activities by increasing skill of effective reception in classroom situation.

(g) Instructional and Nurturant Effects of the AOM :

The model is very effective in instructional situations because the ideas that are used as the organiser are learned and information presented to the students.

―Abilyt to learn from reading, lectures and other media used for presentation is another effect, as are an interest in enquiry and precise habits of thinking. (Joyce and Weil, 1997)"

Instructional and Nurturant value of this model is quite important. This is shown in figure 7

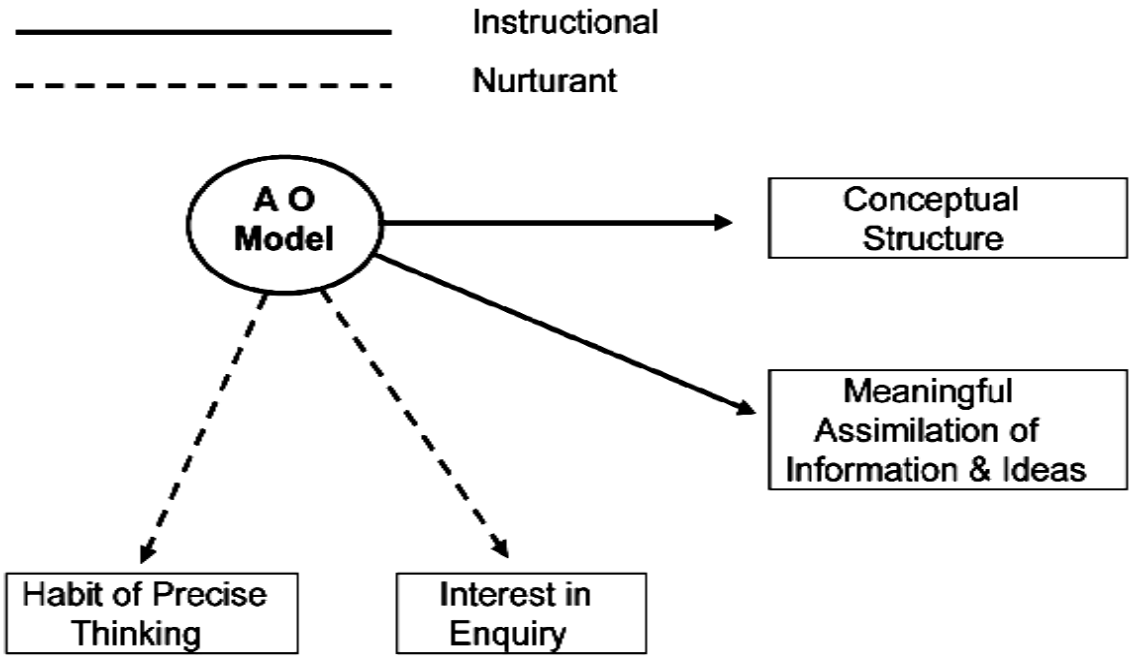

Fig. 7 Instructional and Nurturant effects of AOM

4.3.2 : COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF PIAGET

(A) Introduction

A Swish Psychologist, Jean Piaget, has given us a coherent description of the changes that take place as children develop.

In 1920, Piaget observed and interviewed children through his unique system of data collection procedure. Piaget's theory is the outcome of his extensive research on this field. The Cognitive Development Model (CDM) of Teaching is based on Piaget's cognitive development theory.

(B) Theory

Piaget believes that human being develops their intellectual ability in certain definite ways or stages. Each, stage has its characteristics or / and limitations.

According to Piaget, when a child acts upon an object by physical or mental operations, he can replace the object, connect, combine, rearrange or subtract tem. Piaget termed it schemas. Piaget believes that human being can reconstruct the scheme in a variety of ways once he develops it. The new schemas develop by adaptation in two stages: assimilation and accommodation.

Piaget states, ―From a biological point of view, assimilation is the integration of external elements into evolving or completed structures of an organism".

After the new schema assimilates in to the new structure, accommodation takes place. Actually, accommodation modifies the schema step by step. Assimilation and accommodation goes side by side. Sometimes the difference is so sharp, that it becomes difficult to identify the point of difference.

In the end process an equilibrium is reached. Equilibrium is a dynamic process and it moves from simple to complex schemes. Students always seek better answer. This sifts equilibrium. Thus they search for new schemes through assimilation and accommodation till equilibrium is reached.

Piaget process a plan of intellectual development according to physiological maturation. This is arranged in stages. Some schemas can permit certain stages of physiological structures, others not. The stages are as follows (Fig. 8):

Stage	Age	Characteristics of Stage
Sensorimotor	0–2	The child learns by doing: looking, touching, sucking etc. The child also has a primitive understanding of cause- and-effect relationships. Object permanence appears around 9 months.
Preoperational	2–7	The child uses language and symbols, including letters and numbers. Egocentrism is also evident. Conservation marks the end of the preoperational stage and the beginning of concrete operations.
Concrete Operations	7–11	The child demonstrates conservation, reversibility, serial ordering, and a mature understanding of cause-and-effect relationships. Thinking at this stage is still concrete.
Formal Operations	12+	The individual demonstrates abstract thinking, including logic, deductive reasoning, comparison, and classification.

Fig. 8 Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

Though ages stated here are approximate only.

(C) The model

The cognitive development model is based on Piaget‘s theory. Naturally, application of the model depends on the age of the students.

Wadsworth, B. (1978), an American psychologist has framed three principles, based on Piaget‘s concept, the principles are as follows :

(i) The teaching is the creation of environment.

(ii) The demands of learning situations are different for physical, social and logical knowledge.

(iii) The teaching and learning will depend on social environment.

According to Wadsworth (1978) three roles for the teachers, in this model, are as follows:

Teachers are —

(a) rganisers of the learning environment; (b) Assessors of children‘s thinking; and (c) Initiators of group activities.

The first model was developed by Lavatelle, C.(1970) for 4 to 7 years old children. The time based curriculum outlines several activities for the students.

David Weikart (1971) devised another model. Though it is modified form of Lavatelle.

The third model, based on this theory, was developed by Kamii and Devries (1974). This model is somewhat more effective a modern in comparison to other two models. It is based on long-term objectives viz., intellectual inventiveness, critical thinking and autonomous judgement. It stresses on both cognitive and socio-emotional development.

Others noted educationists, who tried to develop teaching models based on the developmental theory are David Olson (1970) and Irving Sigel (1969).

(D) Phases of the Cognitive Development Model

The five phases of the model functions as follows:

1. Focus:

The model organises the teaching–learning environment and teaching-learning activities for the development of sage relevant cognitive abilities and testing the nature of their cognitive development.

This preparatory phase consists two strategies :

(a) Using developmental pictures to arouse interest among students.

(b) Using developmental teaching strategies to accelerate learning.

The working of the model is based on some assumptions and the following are the basic assumptions :

(1) Suitable environment is created through teaching and this is also stage and age related. Desired objectives are achieved through it.

(2) All three types of knowledge are acquired. These are:

a). Physical (e.g. a ball bounces) b). Social (e.g. language development) c). Logico-mathematical (e.g. three blackbirds).

(3) Proper organisation of social environment helps teaching.

2. Syntax:

This stags is divided in to three phases.

(a) Phase I : Confrontation with stage related task

In this phase the teacher presents a confronting situation according to the age group of the pupil. This is done to confront the new situation with the illogic of his thinking or problematic situation. The tasks are puzzling, thought provoking and challenging enough to persuade the learners to for seeking explanation and solutions of problems. There should be newness in the confronting situation, so that assimilation and accommodation can suitably take place.

(b) Phase II : Enquiry

In the second phase the teacher provides cue or guidance so that the students can match new situation and form schema. They are also asked to give their suggestions, solutions and responses in the puzzling and problematic situations. These responses help teacher to understand the level of maturity and cognitive levels of the learners. At this phase some of the activities of the teachers are :

(i) Probing questions are to be asked for eliciting responses.

(ii) Ask for justification of the responses given by the learners to assess their levels of reasoning abilities.

(iii) Counter problems are to be given to verify their soundness and reasoning abilities.

(c) Phase III : Transfer

In this phase teacher will try to understand the abilities of the learners to think and reason of the previously learned solutions and apply them in similar other puzzling and problematic situations. So responsibilities of the teachers, at this phase, are crucial and important. For this purpose:

(i) The teacher will develop a similar puzzling task is to be developed and it present it to the learner.

(ii) Learners are encouraged to respond it.

(iii) The teacher also put probing questions, ask for justification of their responses and give suggestions to develop the responses further.

3. Social system :

The social system can range from highly structured to minimal structured teaching. The role of the teacher here is as initiator. The teacher will see that proper interactions are developing among students. Functions of the teacher at this stage may be as follows :

(i) The teacher will make initiative so that the students may give responses to the puzzling situations and develop their cognitive abilities.

(ii) The teacher will give sufficient freedom to the learners so that they can manipulate the situation according to their level of cognitive development.

(iii) The teacher will initiate and guide the enquiry in a democratic setup leading to a logical conclusion.

4. Principles of reaction :

In this phase the teacher will create a proper conducive atmosphere. In this atmosphere students will interact with one another and with the teacher. This will help them to form new schema. The teacher will see that the problems set by him/her should be in accordance with the cognitive growth level of the students. In this interacting situation new and novel schema will also develop in students‘ mind. The main principles of reaction are:

(i) **Principle of creating appropriate environment -** The teacher has to create an appropriate environment where the students will feel free to respond the problems in the puzzling and difficult situations.

(ii) **Principle of providing cues -** The teacher will help students to respond on the basis of their own reasoning. However the teachers will also give them cues when necessary. But these cues should be properly framed and it should never be given at the initial stage.

(iii) **Principle of probing and providing counter-suggestions -** Here the teacher will provide counter suggestion to verify their soundness and reliability of their reasoning; but it should be in such a way that the students feel satisfied and encouraged to respond further.

(iv) **Principle of helping in transfer -** The students will develop their cognitive levels through puzzling and problematic situations and the teacher should try to help them to transfer these cognitive capabilities to other similar situations.

5. Support system:

This is a vital part of the model because Piaget considers cognitive growth according to age level; so new schema should be introduced keeping an eye on the age group of the learners. If the schema is easy, it will fall below their age level and naturally the students will not apply their cognitive abilities in such cases. On the other hand if it is too difficult, it will move above their heads and no interaction will take place. So the main duty of the teacher, at this phase, will be to create confronting situations to work the cognitive problems, observe the situation and help them were necessary.

(E) Application of the Model

Though no single model have been developed by using the theory, yet the developed models for different stages are important in class room teaching and instructions. Some of them are as follows:

(i) It is applicable in cognitive and social development.

(ii) It is applicable in all subject areas where cognitive development is related.

(iii) It is useful for diagnosis and evaluation of students.

(iv) The model helps students to operate the environment at their own.

(v) By developing schema, cognitive growth can be diversified so as to create disequilibrium. This will further develop their cognitive growth.

(F) Cognitive Development Model and Teachers‘ Role

The teacher should keep in mind the following key points before application of the model:

- There needs to be a match between the demands of a learning task and the current cognitive capacity of the learners. Teachers‘ need to assess where learners are in terms of their levels of thinking, and then match teaching methods, tasks, and the language we use to suit where our learners are.
- The teachers should not assume that all learners in a given class will be at the same stage of cognitive development. There needs to be a variety of learning experiences appropriate for children at different levels of cognitive development.
- Focus on what children at each stage can do and avoid what they cannot meaningfully understand.
- Discovery learning is a powerful tool for teachers who are concerned with their learners‘ cognitive development.
- Learning through activity and direct experience is essential. So plenty of materials and opportunities should be provided for learners to learn on their own.
- Because intellectual growth occurs when learners attempt to eliminate disequilibrium, by assimilating and accommodating new information or experiences, instructional lessons and material that introduce new concepts should capture learners‘ interest and curiosity.
- Since learners‘ schemas are expanded and built on with time, teachers should point out to learners how new ideas and concepts relate to old ones.
- Lessons should be started with concrete objects or ideas and gradually shift explanations to a more abstract and general level.
- Structured learning situations should be allowed for social interaction, so that learners can learn from one another.
- To become aware of the type of thinking used by learners, teachers should ask them to explain how they arrived at solutions to problems.

- Keep in mind that some high school learners may be more interested in possibilities than realities.
- Allow for the possibility that younger adolescents may go through a period of egocentrism that will cause them to act as if they are always on stage, and to be extremely concerned about the reaction of peers.

(G) Conclusion

Piaget's theory of cognitive development is a valuable and helpful guide to teachers. It helps teachers, firstly, to assess the current level of thinking of each learner in a class, and secondly, to construct learning experiences for each learner which is suitable and appropriate to their level of thinking. By taking each individual learner into account, and thinking about how we can create the best learning experience to suit them, we are offering each of our learner's quality learning experiences.

Piaget's view on the role of a teacher can best be summed up in his own words:

—What is desired is that the teacher cease being a lecturer satisfied with transmitting ready-made solutions; his role should rather be that of a mentor stimulating initiative and research" (Good, 1979).

LET US SUM UP

The task of teaching requires both art and skill. But these art and skill should be based on sound philosophy and theory of teaching and learning for a particular teaching and instructional situation.

In teaching, uses of models are an old practice. Now-a-days there are several model sof teaching. Each model influences the construction of curricular pattern and ultimately, they again influence media and methods of instructions.

Gage (1963) considers that a —Theory of teaching should be a general concept applied to all teachers, to all students, to all subject matters and to all situations where teaching learning occurs even in outside the class room situation." But it is very difficult to find a single theory of teaching which can function in such a way.

DeCecco wrote (1988), —The best substitute for a theory of teaching is a model of teaching.

Teaching and learning conditions can be interrelated. "Sometimes models are proto types of the theories, because they help conceptualisation and study of phenomena.

According to Joyce, B. & Weil, M.(1997),—A model of teaching is a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculum (long term courses of study), to design instructional materials, and to guide instructions in the classrooms and other settings."

In this unit we have tried to describe teaching models and its different dimensions including some selected types of models of teaching.

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EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block-5

Modification of Teaching Behaviour

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

The goals of education cannot be achieved unless teachers have the necessary skills and competencies. These skills and competencies can be developed through a systematic approach to teacher education. The concept of teaching can be operationalised in terms of teaching behaviour patterns invariably related to pupil achievement. Teaching behaviour is a new entry in the field of educational thought and practice. Teaching behaviour refers specifically to a number of acts and activities of operations of teaching of a teacher in the presence of pupils with the intention of achieving teaching-learning goals. Certaintraining techniques are now available through which requisite teaching behaviour patterns can be developed in the prospective teacher to affect the desired educational outcomes. Once such behaviour patterns are developed in the teacher, they are sustained and carried out to his /her assigned professional work. The growing concern for improvement of teaching competencies of prospective teachers through programmes based on scientific knowledge led to several innovations like sensitivity training, behavior modification approach, simulation, role playing, interaction analysis, modular approach to training, microteaching and the like. All these innovations are analytic in approach and have influenced the process of teacher preparation to a greater extent.

You are going to study the three of such innovative teaching behaviour practices, namely, simulation, micro teaching and interaction analysis in this Unit.

Traditional method softeaching practices in our teacher education programme hardly develop the effective teaching skills. Merely, lesson-planning and question- answer method have been emphasized there. New innovative practices, as researchers claim, create situations for the trainee-teacher in order to fulfil two objectives-to provide sufficient opportunity for practicing teaching skills, and to provide feedback for modifying teaching behaviour. These feedback devices are effective in developing teaching efficiency and competency of trainee teachers.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you will be able —

To understand how classroom teaching behaviour is modified;

To get an orientation on the three innovative techniques in this regard;

To practice the three techniques in real teaching situation;

To guide any student teacher towards effective teaching in the classroom; and

To select the particular technique in the context of a particular objective for modification of teaching behaviour of a particular trainee teacher.

Block - 5

Unit – 1

Modification of Teaching Behaviour -1

5.1.1 : SIMULATION

Use of simulation in teaching is comparatively very recent. Its systematic use started after the First World War in the training of pilots in air force. In the field of education, simulation has been emerged as a strong wave of effective teaching techniques. Modern world of teaching being progressive and innovative, moves fast towards introducing a number of pioneer techniques, and simulation is one of them. The potential of the technique has been recognized all over the world by educationists. Its use has been made in the last decade in education with great success.

What is Simulation?

Simulation has been defined as an attempt to ‗give the appearance and / or to give the effect of something else'. This somewhat wide definition would seem to cover such things as play acting, disguise, models, even photographs and paintings. There is, however, another aspect of simulation which any definition of simulation should include. All simulations actively involve the learners in making decisions, playing roles, adopting attitudes or operating the simulator. The learner learns by ‗manipulating the model'. If we use the word ‗model' here in the wide sense (i.e. a model of an object, a process, or a complex system), then simulators are models which can be manipulated or operated in some way or other. Therefore, an educational simulation 1) requires a model (something giving the appearance and / or the effect of something else); and 2) requires that the learners operate or manipulate the model in order to learn.

The model is usually a simplified version of the real object, processor system under study. However, the extent to which one can simplify the model depends very much on the learning objectives. Those aspects of reality under study must be reproduced as faithfully as possible in the model; aspects not under study may be omitted from it. Thus when learners operate the model the effects of certain actions or decisions are similar to the effects one would obtain in reality. Educational gaming is sometimes considered as a branch of educational simulation. But there are some differences. The

element of competition is perhaps the main discriminating factor between games and simulation. Many renowned educationists use the two terms synonymously.

In a simple term, the simulation technique is to induce certain behavior in an artificial situation. A student teacher has to play several roles as a teacher, as a student and as a supervisor. The most important aspect of simulation is the introduction of the student to teaching in non-stressful conditions as the trainee feels freer in front of peer group than the real student group. Simulate detaching in tends to develop some desirable social skills which are essential for conducting an effective teaching-learning process. The elements of simulation are very conveniently transferred or adopted from their existing contexts and used consciously as an appropriate approach to learning.

Gaming / Simulation is defined as a gestalt communication mode, a future's language which combines a game-specific language and appropriate communication technologies with the multilogue interaction pattern. In education, simulation refers to such role-playing exercises where the process of teaching is enacted artificially through which the student teacher develops an identity with the actual classroom environment in order to develop important teaching skills. Thus, simulated teaching become straining in role perception and role playing.

On the basis of the above discussion, simulation as a teaching technique refers to such learning exercises that place learners / student teachers (as we concern with the ‗modification of teaching behaviour') in roles similar to real world roles, and in playing the game require them to make decisions as if they were part of those real world situation. It implies a mock situation of learning or practicing teaching.

Simulation and Game categories :

A simulation is a working model of reality. Educational simulations are often simplified or accelerated representations which allow students to explore situations which would be too difficult to deal with ―foreal". **A game** is played by one or more players, competing and/or cooperating toward a definite objective, according to an agreed set of rules. These specify procedures for attaining the objective from the materials provided, and indicate as coring system or method for identifying winners and losers. **A simulation game** combines the feature of a game (players, rules, and competition / cooperation) with that of a simulation (working model of reality). When the real-life situation to be simulate discompetitive, simulation games tend to arise naturally. Thus simulations and games represent two distinct, but not incompatible, categories whose overlap is the category of simulation games.

Types of Simulation and Gaming techniques :

Several types of instructional techniques are commonly classified as simulation, gaming, or a combination of the two. These are as follows –

Case study: case studies are based on data extracted from a real case and adapted to illustrate better a specific phenomenon or to practise a particular decision making process.

Role - play : role - playing exercises may use some data about a real situation, but also include a specification of the characteristics, or roles, of the people involved, thus in some respects mirroring the reality more closely than a case study.

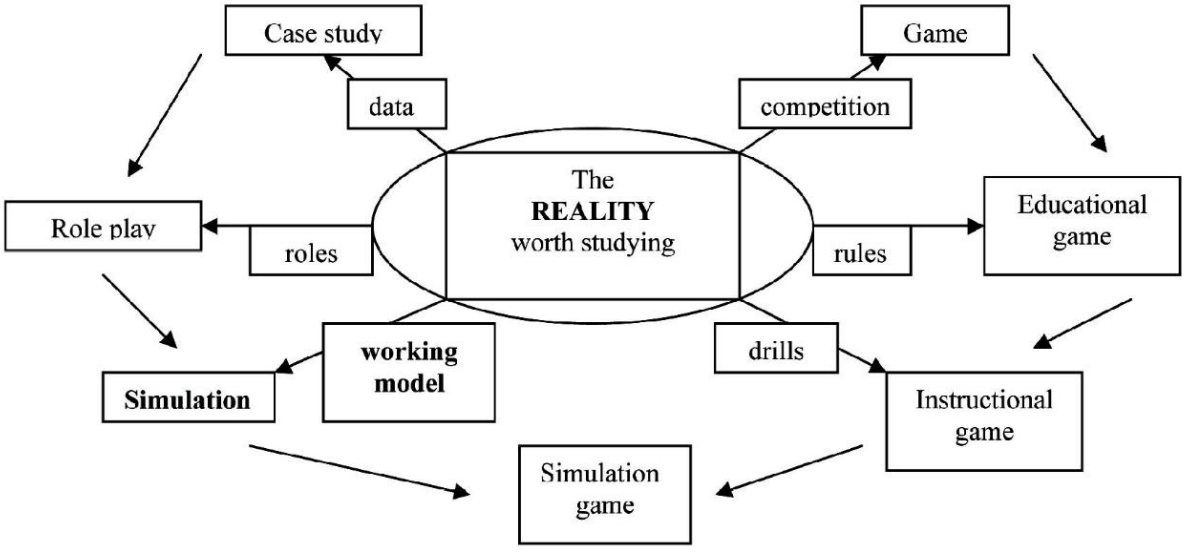
Simulation: a full simulation is even closer to reality, being based on a model of certain aspects of the real situation under study that the learners may operate in an interactive manner.

Educational Game and Instructional Game :

Educational games aim at general educational objectives - basic skills, general knowledge. Instructional games are based on specific objectives which the learners should achieve. These are more directly based on the analysis of a particular real situation. Games, whether instructional or educational, do not have to be full-scale simulations, as they may only practice isolated skills or specific steps of a much more complex real-life procedure. They do this in the context of *competition,* either between learners, or against some standard of performance.

Simulation Game : this is a learning exercise that combines the elements of the full simulation exercise with the competitive element of games. This category has become more generally used in recent years, at all levels of education and for all categories of objectives.

Follow the figure which shows *the relationships between games and simulations used in education and training.* We are concerning mainly with the _simulation‘ technique.



Applications :

It is possible to use simulations and games across the whole spectrum of learning categories, althoughitmaynotalwaysbedesirableorparticularlyefficienttodoso.However, in each and every case, the particular application must be analysed from two viewpoints:

1. Analysis of the real phenomena, situations or skills that are to be learned, in order to be able to design an appropriately realistic model or exercise.
2. Analysis of the learning tasks and difficulties involved, in order to decide how much simplification of reality, or how much breakdown into simpler exercises, is appropriate.

Once this analysis is complete, the next steps will depend on the type and purpose of the proposed simulation or game. Using the four major skill categories as a basis, we can distinguish the principal uses of simulations and games.

1. Cognitive domain : The learners should demonstrate an understanding of the phenomenon being simulated, (the conceptual knowledge) and should use this understanding to explain the phenomenon and invent new ways of using the phenomenon, etc. Most simulations and games may have two separate functions in this domain:

a) the transmission of new knowledge and / or the formation and restructuring of conceptual schemata;

b) the development of logical thinking, memorization, analytical, creative and other cognitive skills.

2. **Psychomotor domain :** Any well-designed off-the-job training exercise is a form of simulation of the real job situation, or of a specific selected part (one sub skill, for example). Occasionally, special exercises for the development of perception (as in classroom situation), or strength and stamina (which are general use and not related to one specific job situation) may be organized. But the more complex, ‗total' simulations in this domain often involve the development of productive skills that require both the planning and execution of actions. In such cases, the simulation exercise may also help the learner to acquire and organize relevant knowledge into effective planning strategies.

3. **Reactive domain :** In many simulations and games the main objectives are that the learners should emerge from the experience with a changed attitude, or with new values. Many so-called ‗social' simulations fall into this category. Learning may involve the development of self-control skills, as in the case of classroom teaching, which aims to give an idea to trainee teachers of what it is like to teach a heterogeneous group of schoolchildren.

4. **Interactive domain :** In this domain, simulations are used to develop the learner's perceptions of other people's feelings and attitudes and their inter pretation of other people's reactions and underlying motives. Some simulations in this category aim to develop the learner's skills in ‗managing' others, while other examples are more concerned with the knowledge structures that explain the behaviour of others.

Simple, drill and practice-type, exercises in simulated conditions are principally concerned with the development of reproductive skills. The more complex, 'full' simulations and simulation games may sometimes be concerned with imparting knowledge, by means of discovery, but very often are concerned with a mixture of objectives-development of productive skills and the acquisition of related knowledge, or the reorganization of existing knowledge, to accommodate new and more complex ideas.

Preparation and Use :

The only firm rule for the teacher/facilitator who wants to use simulation/gaming is that there are no firm rules. Neither the suggestions nor the rules stated by the designer are sacred. A degree of improvisation is often desirable and sometimes necessary, according to how the classroom events unfold. Never the less, the following guide lines have been a useful starting point for many ―first timers".

1. Preparation:

Careful preparation is essential, and a "dry run" helpful. The teacher will need a clear grasp of the administrative needs (time, numbers, arrangement of furniture, support, and so on) as well as a full understanding of the rules.

2. Introduction:

Introducing the simulated teaching requires special thought. Nothing is more boring and ineffective than reading out rules at length. A short demonstration, dummy run, audiovisual sequence may help students to get the idea far more quickly and thoroughly.

3. Assigning roles:

Role allocation involves difficult problems. The teacher should decide in advance whether to pre-empt role choices. In any event, participants should be given as long as possible to "feel" their way into their roles, and possibly some kind of warm-up exercise.

4. Observers:

It is often useful to recruit observers from among the students at the start. It can be an excellent solution to the problem of the reluctant participant, since they take no part in the action. Research studies suggest that such observers seem to learn as much if not more than the participants. They may also perceive things which are not noticed by the teacher, who has many concerns and cannot be everywhere at once. In some simulation/games there is so much happening at the same time that an observer will be needed for each major group, or even to "shadow" key individuals. The use of a checklist identifying key questions may be useful to observers at the time, and will also help them to focus their reporting back afterwards.

5. Intervention:

Intervention while the exercise is in progress should be avoided if possible. The whole point of an open-ended exercise is to allow students to make their own decisions and experience the consequences. In general, the teacher will use the time when the exercise is running to gather material for the discussion afterwards - issues, questions, and perhaps verbatim quotes. Sometimes participants' direct questions about the rules or strategy are better deflected back to them. Nevertheless, there are bound to be occasions where intervention is unavoidable. If the exercise involves role play, the teacher should consider whether to intervene in a plausible role, rather than breaking in "as teacher". Role players could hardly be expected to sustain their roles for long if they were continually interrupted by an insensitive teacher.

6. Discussion:

The discussion after a simulation is a vitally important part of the exercise. It is in the discussion afterwards that participants make sense of their experiences and much of the learning takes place. Novices often make the great mistake of becoming so engrossed in the simulation itself that they leave too little time for this vital stage, which can profitably occupy one-third to one-half of the time taken to run the simulation.

This step consists of four separate tasks to be attempted :

a) Participants and observers need to talk about what happened.

b) The teacher wants players to relate the simulation events to reality, and question how far the outside world is, or ought to be, like the model of it that was built into the simulation.

c) A wider ranging discussion of the similarities and differences between the exercise and the real world, and of their implications, is required.

d) The teacher and participants want to stand outside the exercise and discuss its good and bad points, suggesting how it could be modified or extended. In addition to the skills involved in running any group discussion, the teacher running a simulation / game discussion needs to combine clear thinking about the agenda with enough sensitivity to modify it in the light of the participants‘ responses.

7. Follow-up:

Like any other teaching technique, simulation / games need to be integrated in to the curriculum as a whole. Without appropriate follow-up activities, a large-scale simulation is in danger of becoming a mere diversion from the main business of education. Used at the start of a course of study, however, such an exercise can provide a rich fund of shared first-hand experience on which subsequent lessons can draw freely.

Following the rapid growth since the beginning of the simulation and gaming movement, simulation/games have become widely established as a motivating and effective technique in a variety of subjects and with many different kind of trainees. There is an extensive literature on using these techniques with teacher trainees, cover ingvocational as well as strictly educational applications. Inspite of that, most simulationg a mers would agree that any interested new comer would learn more from taking parti none simulation game than from reading all of the above.

Steps in simulation :

There are no rigid hierarchy steps to be followed in simulated techniques in classroom learning.

Following the views of some reputed educationists, the steps may be recommended as follows:

All the participants of a group are to be designated by the letters A, B, C, and the like in order to assure their role assignment as a teacher, student and observer in rotation.

This step involves planning, preparation and decision - making about the topic selected for practice in simulated condition.

This step involves the role allotment among the participants - ‗who will do what' during simulated teaching.

This step concerns with the recording of data and the procedure of evaluation. This step concerns with the enacted role-playing situation with the feedback provided. In this last step, alterations of practicing procedure and change of practicing skills have been dealt with.

Advantages :

The most consistent experience of teachers and trainees who use simulation / gaming is that their students find the experience motivating, enjoyable, or compelling, sometimes all three. The motivational power depends partly on how it challenges the participants, partly on whether it appeals to their sense of fantasy or curiosity.

Simulation / games promote and / or assist learning, sometimes quite powerfully, depending on the different roles they perform in different subjects. In the course of many simulations, participants are obliged to draw on their knowledge from a variety disciplines and bring it to bear on the problem in hand.

Besides the above two, the other benefits of the use of simulation and gaming exercises are :

They can provide the student with experiences and practices which are much closer to the real-life situations he would encounter than might otherwise be possible in a training course. In particular, they can reproduce the pressures and stresses under which students will have to work.

They can therefore be useful as methods of measuring how well students are able to apply previously learned facts, concepts, or principles to real-life situations.

They allow one to simplify reality, controlling those aspects of a real-life situation to which a student should attend and respond.

They are often economically justified as a substitute for on-the-job practice.

They are often justified on safety grounds, in that they enable students to practice any stressful job (e.g. dealing with discipline problems in the classroom) without real threat.

A well-designed simulation usually involves students in the learning task, both intellectually and emotionally, more than other available techniques.

They have generally been found to be an extremely effective way of measuring, changing and reinforcing student attitudes.

Epilogue :

A wide variety of claims and counterclaims are made about specific simulations and games. Therefore, some points are necessary to remember. First, they can be especially useful when objectives include changing students‘ attitudes - a task on which traditional lessons and lectures have proved rather ineffective. Another feature of simulations is the way in which they abstract from reality. While some simplification may be essential, there is a real danger that students emerge from a simulation with some misconception sunless the discussion afterwards explicitly considers the ways in which the exercise was, and was not, realistic. Another problem which requires sensitive handling is presented by those few students who reject or dislike the technique. At the same time great care should be taken over the specification and giving out of roles. Role allocation can be a creative opportunity for the teacher to cater for individual differences. However, a carefully structured process of introduction can overcome most of such difficulties.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What do you mean by ‘educational simulation’?
2. What are the types of simulation and gaming techniques?
3. Mention the essential steps for preparing a simulation technique.
4. What points are to be remembered while dealing with a simulation technique?

5.1.2 : MICRO-TEACHING

Microteaching is a scaled-down, simulated teaching encounter designed for the training of both preserviceandin-serviceteachers.IthasbeenusedworldwidesinceitsinventionatStanfordUniversity in the late 1950s by Dwight W. Allen, Robert Bush, and Kim Romney. It was conceived and first implemented as a part of teacher education programme at Stanford University in 1963. It evolved slowly as an answer to the problem of trainees‘ apathy towards training. In the period between 1963

and 1967 microteaching technique has been considerably refined and widely applied in a variety of educational settings in the USA and other countries. In India too microteaching becomes gradually popular.

What is Micro teaching ?

Micro teaching is defined by Turney*etal* (1976) as teaching in miniature where it is scaled down in terms of class, size, time and task. The focus is on a specific skill.

Microteaching is also defined as a ―system of controlled practice that makes it possible to concentrate on specific teaching behavioir and to practise under controlled conditions" (Allen and Eve, 1968).

McAleese and Unwin (1971) further refines this definition : ―Microteaching is scaled down teaching encounter designed to develop new skills and refine old ones."

―In the broadest sense, "according to Miltza (1978) ―micro teaching is an opportunity to present something and then analyse outcome; the two crucial elements are the ability to see oneself in action and analyse what was done." So, it is self - confrontation.

Some educationists preferred its practice in real classroom set up than in simulated one. Bush in 1960 emphasised micro-teaching as ―teacher education technique' and defined that ―it allows teacher to apply well defined teaching skills to a carefully prepared lesson in a planned series of five to ten minutes counters with a small group of real classroom students, often with an opportunity to observe the performance on videotape."

As defined by Passi (1976),―Microteaching is a training technique which requires student teachers to teach asinge concept using specified teaching skill to a small number of pupils in a short duration of time."

Singh, L. C. (1979) in his definition focuses on immediate feedback of micro teaching and defines it as ―a new design for teacher training which provide trainees within formation about their performance immediately after completion of their lesson."

Micro-teaching is one of the most important developments in the field of teaching practice. It is viewed as a form of simulated teaching usually incorporating reduced complexity and some feedback placed along a simulation spectrum ranging from the purely abstract text-book of teaching practice through the actual classroom teaching. In simulated condition it is called "peer teaching" as the other trainee teachers adopt the role of the students. But a trainee teacher can work with a small group of real students.

Jangira (1980) defines microteaching as —a training setting for the student teachers where complexities of normal classroom teaching is reduced by practicing a particular teaching skill, for 5– 10 minutes on 5 – 10 pupils using single concept."

In a word, microteaching is a technique of training in which one learns the skills of teaching through a scaled-down process of teaching-learning.

Why micro?

There are many variations of exercises for the development of teaching skills that go by the name of microteaching'. The original system developed at Stanford University in the USA could merit the label of micro' for two distinct reasons: 1) the trainee teacher would practice only one or two of the skills normally used in a lesson during a session, and 2) the session itself was much shorter than the normal lesson. Thus, the microteaching session resembles a lesson, but is much less complex and very much shorter.

The phrase micro' is used to denote the scaling down in class size, time and task of a teaching as follows :

The number of students is between 5 and 10.

The time of presentation is between 5 and 10 minutes.

The number of instructional objectives and the content is kept low.

The number of teaching skills are limited; either to just one specific skill at a time or a small number as required to achieve the objectives.

The plan for teaching is focussed on micro events, i.e., execution of the identified skill(s).

The microanalysis of the teaching process consists of analysing the minute details of the teaching skill(s).

In reality, microteaching is conducted in a simulated situation where a group of learners get together and organise themselves, ususally under the supervision of a teacher-observer. When one of them teaches, the others role-play as students. After the teaching encounter, all of them act as peers and offer constructive criticism in terms of feedback to one another.

Teaching is a complex task involving a number of component skills. Again, any teaching skill is defined in terms of micro behaviors it pertains to. For example, the skill of asking question' consists of micro behaviours like standing still, thinking, framing a question, facing the students, listening,

looking around for a response, recalling the name of students, calling students by names, pausing to think etc. But different teaching skills are not exclusive to each other with respect to a number of common micro behaviours. Their quantification is possible through micro teaching. Thus, micro teaching is all about demonstrating, quantifying and improving such teaching skills-necessarily, one at a time.

Micro teaching is so called since it is an alogous to putting the teacher under a microscope so to say while he is teaching so that all faults in teaching methodology are brought in to perspective for the observers to give a constructive feedback. It provides skilled supervision with an opportunity to get a constructive feedback. Analogous to swimming, microteaching is an opportunity to practice at the shallower and less risky side while classroom teachingis like learning to swim at the deeper end of the pool.

Basic assumptions :

Microteaching is based on the following assumptions:

Complex teaching skill consists of a number of component skills.

Component teaching skills can be mastered one by one through micro-session practice.

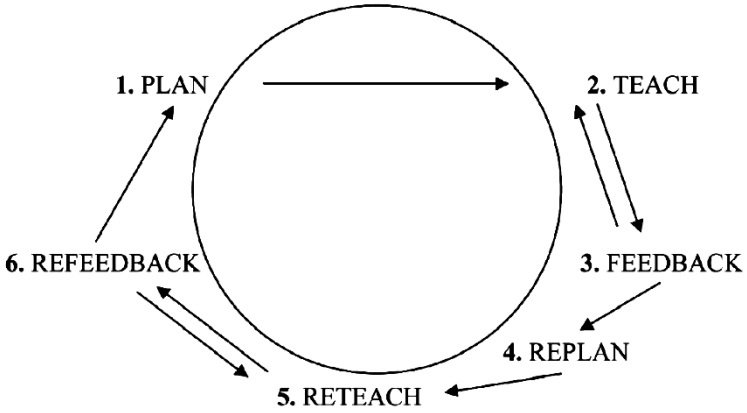
The purpose of micro teaching is to provide teachers with the opportunity for the safe practice of an enlarged cluster of teaching skills while learning how to develop simple, single-concept lessons in any teaching subject. Microteaching helps teachers improve both content and method soft teaching and develop specific teaching skills. Immediate, focused feedback and encouragement, combined with the opportunity to practice the suggested improvements in the same training session, are the foundations of the micro teaching protocol.

Systematic feedback is essential for mastery learning of skill.

Integration of component teaching skills mastered earlier is possible for real teaching. There will be positive transfer of skill learning from microteaching to macro teaching

Microteaching cycle :

Microteaching is conducted through the following steps which are the parts of a closed loop system and form a cyclic pattern as follows –



The Microteaching cycle starts with planning. In order to reduce the complexities involved in teaching, the student teacher is asked to plan a —micro lesson" i.e. a short lesson for 5-10 minutes which he will teach in front of a —micro class" i.e. a group consisting 3-4 peer students or students if necessary, and a supervisor. There is scope for projection of model teaching skills if required to help the teacher prepare for his session. The student teacher is asked to teach concentrating one or few of the teaching skills enumerated earlier. His teaching is evaluated by the students, peers and the supervisor using checklists to help them. Video recording can be done if facilities permit. At the- end of the 5 or 10 minutes session as planned, the teacher is given a feedback on the deficiencies noticed in his teachingmethodology.Feedbackcanbeaidedbyplayingbackthevideorecording.Usingthefeedback to help himself, the teacher is asked to replan his lesson keeping the comments in view and reteach immediatelythesamelessontothegrouportheanothergroupifconsistingofstudents.Suchrepeated cycles of teaching, feedback and reteaching help the teacher to improve his teaching skills one at a time. Several such sequences can be planned at the departmental level. It is important, however, that the cycle is used purely for helping the teacher and not as a tool for making a value judgment of his teaching capacity.

The duration of microteaching cycle (as referred by NCERT, 1990) is as follows – Teach 6minutes

Feedback	6 minutes
Replan	12 minutes
Reteach	6 minutes
Refeed back	6 minutes
TOTAL	**36 minutes**

However, this time schedule may vary from 5 to 10 minutes within each part of the cycle.

Microteaching Events :

In detail, the following sequence of events comprise the microteaching cycle –

1. A teaching skill from the identified list of skills is defined for execution. Alternatively, a list of skills is prepared – some of which may be executed.
2. Planning for teaching which consists of detailed preparation, teaching plan, selection of media, preparation of all audiovisuals, etc.
3. Teaching session, where the actual teaching is done for, say, 10 minutes facing a small group oflearners,say,5to 10. The teaching is recorded on a video recorder or a closed circuit television system. Instead of electronic gadgets, teaching may be recorded in written form.
4. The recorded microteaching is played back / read out and studied by the teacher and the group of peer teachers.
5. Analysis of the skills where constructive criticism / feedback is made on various aspects of lesson presentation.
6. The teacher replans the lesson as in step 1 with the improvements considered necessary.
7. The teaching session is repeated as in step 3with improved teaching.
8. The recorded microteaching is replayed for observation and further criticism / feedback as in steps 4 and 5.

The cycle of events from step 1 to 5 as repeated from step 6 to 8, is carried out until the required improvement in teaching is achieved.

The microteaching procedure :

The classical procedure for a microteaching session runs as follows:

1. The instructor / teacher-observer demonstrates the skill to be practised. This demonstration may be acted out by the instructor, but more often, it is pre recorded on videotape (readymade demonstration films, if available, may be bought or hired).
2. The group members select topics or situations from a list and prepare the session, in which they will practise the particular skill that was demonstrated.
3. One of the group members takes on the role of the teacher, while the others adopt the roles of students, and the session is enacted. (When real students are used, the other trainee teachers act as observers and evaluators).

4. The progress of the session and the performance of the _teacher‘ are evaluated. There are many possible ways of doing this. These include observations and comments by the instructor and observations and comments by the other trainee teachers, supported by notes made on pre-prepared evaluation checklists or a video recording of the performance, which can be analysed by all, including the performer being evaluated.

5. If the trainee‘s performance is not up to the expected standard, he may prepare a second topic and try again. This _teach-evaluate/feedback-reteach‘ cycle may be repeated as often, within the limits of the time available, as it is necessary to reach mastery in the skill. Usually, all the other trainees will have a chance to perform once, before the reteach sessions are held.

6. This procedure is repeated for each of the separate basic skills considered important for the teacher. Models differ: the original Stanford University model comprised 16 separate skills; other models are restricted to 12 or fewer.

7. When the separate skills have been mastered individually, further practice is arranged on somewhat more complex topics and in sessions that may be about 15 minutes long during which several of the skills are practised in combination.

8. Finally, when the instructor judges that the separate skills are sufficiently well mastered and integrated, the trainees continue their practice in supervised real-life classroom situations.

Variations on the basic procedure :

Over the years microteaching has taken many forms. Its early configurations were very formal and complex. Real students (typically four or five) were placed in a rotation of teaching situations in a micro teaching setting. Teachers would teach an initial five to ten minute single element lesson that was critiqued by a supervisor. The teacher would have a brief time to revise the lesson and then reteach the same lesson to a different group. In later years these sessions were videotaped. Videotaping microteaching lessons became the optimal practice because it allowed teachers to view their own performance. In later years, this nature of microteaching has been changed a lot.

There are many variations on this basic routine. Although very commonly used, video feedback is not an essential element of micro teaching. What is essential is the practice of real skills in simulated and simplified situations. Video feed back is most effective and tends to enhance the learning efficiency of the system, but we can get by without it. The custom of videotaping whole lessons in the real classroom and later analysing the teacher‘s performance is sometimes passed off as microteaching,

which it is not. It may be a useful exercise, but there is no effort to simulate the essential elements of the process and absolutely nothing _micro‘ about its execution.

The greatest variety appears in the means of supplying feedback. Some instructors like to get all the participants to act as evaluators of each other; others prefer not to do this. Some use complex performance inventories or interaction analysis questionnaire; others use the minimum of instrumentation. Some rely heavily on video feedback; others do not.

The New Microteaching :

Simplified :

In the late 1980s and 1990s microteaching was reinvigorated with a completely new format developed in southern Africa and later in China. Because of the lack of available technology in developing countries, micro teaching‘s for mathad to be made less technology dependent in order to be useful. Early modifications were made in Malawi, but it was in Namibia and China where micro teaching was completely transformed. In India, microteaching generated a great deal of enthusiasm in the early seventies. As a result of systematic efforts from teacher-educators and scholars, this technique was not only stabilized in India but emerged as _Indian model of Microteaching‘. The Indian model does not involve high cost and is suitable for teacher training programmes in the developing countries.

Twenty-first-century microteaching increases training effectiveness using an even more scaled- down teaching simulation environment. The new microteaching format was primarily shaped as a response to in-service teacher education needs in Namibia, where the vast majority of teachers were uncertified and there were few resources with which to train them. In China it became part of a national effort to modernize teaching practice. Three important new concepts were incorporated:

1. **Self-study groups.** Teachers rotate between the roles of teacher and student, building on earlier versions of ―peer microteaching.” Self-study groups of four or five teachers have become the norm.

2. **The 2 + 2 evaluation protocol.** In earlier versions of microteaching, rather elaborate observation protocols had been developed to evaluate performance for each teaching skill. In the new microteaching, each new skill is introduced to trainees in varied combinations of face-to-face training sessions, multimedia presentations, and printed materials. These training materials give cued behaviors to watch for and comment on in the accompanying microteaching lesson. After a microteaching lesson is taught, each of the teachers playing a student role provides peer evaluation of the teaching episode using the 2 + 2 protocol - two compliments

and two suggestions. Compliments and suggestions are focused on the specific skill being emphasized, but may relate to other aspects of the lesson aswell.

3. **Peer supervision.** Originally the microteaching protocol required the presence of a trained supervisor during each lesson. However, with minimal training the compliments and suggestions of peers can become powerful training forces. Trainees feel empowered by the practice of encouraging them to evaluate the compliments and suggestions they receive from their peers (and supervisors, when present), allowing them the discretion to accept or reject any or all suggestions. On average, about two- thirds of the suggestions are considered worthwhile and suggestions from peers and trained supervisors are about equally valued.

   The new, simplified format - widely used in the United States as well as abroad in the early twenty-first century - also makes it easier to incorporate the full, recommended protocol of teaching and reteaching each lesson for each student. The microteaching experience goes well beyond the formal, narrow training agenda. The gestalt experience of planning and executing a brief lesson that is closely monitored and scrutinized and the offering and receipt of feedback from respected peers is an integral part of the experience.

Micro teaching can be an effective to olfor the development of teacher training materials. When training protocol sare being created to demonstrate new teaching skills, micro teaching sessions can be developed and taped giving in stances and non-instances of the skill. Asking trainees to view these tapes together is an effective way to highlight and demonstrate the essential aspects of the skill being taught.

Microteaching Phases :

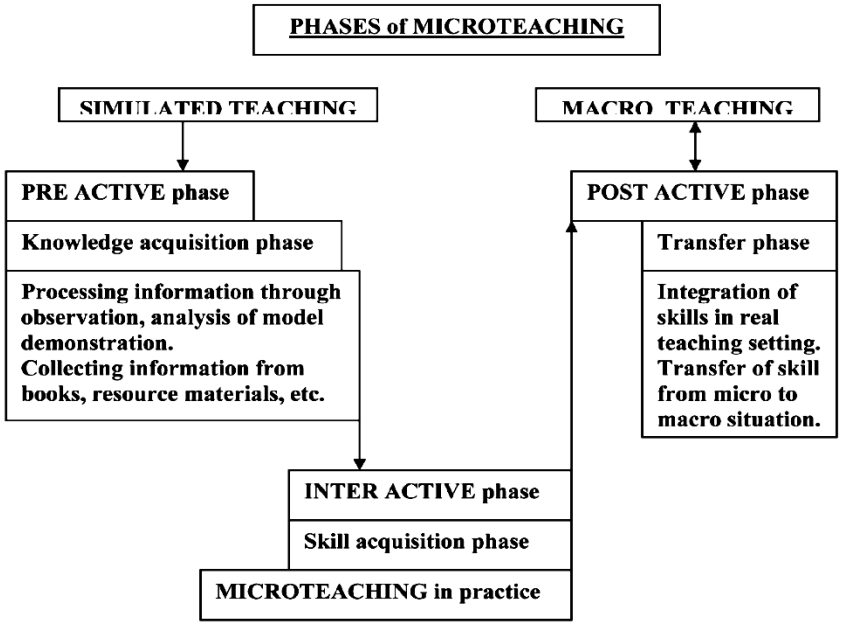
J. C. Clift, et al (1976) mentioned the following three phases through which a microteaching session runs:

1. **Knowledge acquisition phase :** At this phase, the trainee teacher collects and processes information regarding the component teaching skill and its ingredient behaviours associated in macro teaching. Modeling is directly related to this knowledge acquisition. The trainee teacher may collect information from books, other relevant resource materials and /or observing the demonstration lesson, even analysing the teaching behaviour presented in the model.

2. **Skill acquisition phase :** This is the phase of microteaching in actuality, in practice, though in simulated setting with adequate feedback.

3. **Transfer phase :** This is the phase of integration between ‗micro' and ‗macro' - positive transfer of micro skill learning in real teaching situation.

Below drawn figure may help you to understand the stage wise features of micro teaching and its relation to real teaching situation -



Microteaching as an example of Role-playing:

Though some aspects of the real class room teaching situation are simulated in the micro teaching, these sessions bear little resemblance to real lessons. They are more a set of separate exercises, which only at a later stage are welded together into realistic classroom teaching. However, the essential elements of a role-playing situation are present. The scenario is based on reality. Real topics from the curriculum are used as the vehicles for the exercises which are enacted in a realistic classroom environment, with all the necessary teaching aids available. The roles are based on real teaching behaviour, and the skills to be practiced by the trainee teachers are derived from a task analysis of typical teaching.

Micro teaching is are presentative example of arrange of role-play exercises for the development of specific interactive skills. There is no gaming element involved. At the same time, it is not to be considered as full simulation. However, in microteaching it is almost mandatory to present models of the skilled behaviour expected, either with live presentation or with videotape. In this respect and for the nature of its essential features micro teaching uses both guidance and feedback.

Component microteaching skills :

Inherent in the process of micro teaching is what is called the ~~–i~~ndividual component skills". The essential individual skills, besides a number of peripheral ones, which go to make teaching effective, are:

i) Lesson planning - having clear cut objectives, and an appropriate planned sequence.

ii) Set induction - the process of gaining pupil attention at the beginning of the class.

iii) Presentation - explaining, narrating, giving appropriate illustrations and examples, planned repetition where necessary.

iv) Stimulus variation - avoidance of boredom amongst students by gestures, movements, focusing silence, changing sensory channels etc.

v) Proper use of audio-visualaids.

vi) Reinforcement - Recognising pupil difficulties, listening, encouraging pupil participation and response.

vii) Questioning-fluency in asking questions, passing questions and adapting questions.

viii) Silence and nonverbal cues (body language).

ix) Closure - method of concluding a teaching session so as to bring out the relevance of what has been learnt, its connection with past learning and its application to future learning.

Advantages :

In microteaching the trainer can concentrate on practicing a specific, well-defined teaching skill and it is easier to practice the skills stated in behavioural terms.

Microteaching provides for the pinpoint feedback. It is also immediate. Therefore, it is much easier to incorporate than the usual feedback which is delayed and global in nature.

Microteaching being miniaturized teaching there is no problem of classroom discipline. It is a safe practice.

There are less administrative problems in the organization of microteaching in teacher training institutes because the teaching sessions are arranged with peers. The problems of space and supervisors can also be solved by making skillful arrangements of available facilities.

Microteaching provides an opportunity to undertake research studies with better control over conditions and situations.

Microteaching can be adopted as an integral part of teacher training in Indian context using simple paper pencil tools and there is no need of sophisticated electronic gadgets.

Epilogue :

Lack of adequate and in-depth awareness of the purpose of microteaching has led to criticisms that microteaching produces homogenised standard robots with set smiles and procedures. It is said to be (wrongly) a form of play acting in unnatural surroundings and it is feared that the acquired skills may not be internalised. However, these criticisms lack substance. A lot depends on the motivation of the teacher to improve himself and the ability of the observer/s to give a good feedback. Repeated experiments abroad have shown that over a period of time microteaching produces remarkable improvement in teaching skills.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What do you mean by 'micro' in microteaching?
2. What are the phases of microteaching?
3. Depict the microteaching cycle. Why're feedback'?
4. Name two / three practices that you should do in conducting microteaching.

Block-5

Unit – 2

Modification of Teaching Behaviour -2

5.2.1 : FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS

When a class teaching goes on it is a general observation that someone is talking or somehow engaged in activity, and most of the events it is the chance of the teacher. Thus it seems that teaching is a one-way process, and activities from the part of the teacher, not those of the students, make any teaching effective in terms of learning outcome. But theories of teaching do not say so. For an effective class room teaching, students need to be active in responding, questioning, discussing, expressing relevant comments and the like. They may even communicate in a non-verbal fashion. At the same time teacher needs to be silent providing his / her time in listening to students. Teaching necessitates different activities including non-verbal communication also rather than talking. In this way, teaching becomes necessarily an interactive process where teacher and students participate in a reciprocal manner. Therefore, it is obvious that the teaching-learning situations in the class-room involve interaction between the teacher and the students. The success of a teacher may be judged through the degree of effectiveness of his teaching which may be objectively assessed through his class-room behavior or interaction. Thus a systematic or objective analysis of the teacher's class-room interaction may provide a reliable assessment of what goes on inside the class-room in terms of teaching and learning. Under this backdrop, educational technologists tried their best to develop certain models which can provide systematic and objective data regarding the nature of class room interaction. In this arena, Ned Flanders (1960) has developed a legendary psychological model of teaching known as _social interaction model'

One of the important innovations in classroom interaction of teaching-learning is the analysis of classroom interaction of teaching behaviour. This technique of analysing teaching behaviour has been evolved to improve classroom teaching. It provides insight into the nature of classroom communication and helps in modifying teachers' behaviour. It is widely acknowledged that knowledge about classroom interaction analysis is very helpful to the practicing teacher to modify his behaviour and to make his teaching more effective and meaningful.

What is classroom interaction analysis?

Class-room interaction analysis refers to a technique consisting of objective and systematic observation of the class-room events for the study of the teacher‘s class-room behavior and the process of interaction going inside the class-room. Following Flanders‘ concept it may be defined as a system which aims at coding spontaneous verbal as well as non verbal communication and arranging them in a systematic manner so that analysis of the interaction involved in teaching-learning process is possible. Class-room interaction analysis provides objective data, systematic record on the teaching behavior of the teacher which may be helpful in giving definite instructions and guidance to the teacher for improving his teaching. This system helps to identify the pattern of teacher‘s classroom behavior which in turn evolves remedial strategies in reconstructing the teaching methodology including lesson plans.

A particular system for interaction analysis usually includes: Set of categories each defined clearly. A procedure for observation and a set of ground rules which govern the coding process.

Steps for tabulating the data in order to arrange a display which aids in describing the original events.

Suggestions which can be followed in some more common applications.

Flanders‘classroominteractionanalysissystemcontainsalltheabovecharacteristicsinorderto ascertain its ‗scientific‘ nature.

Basic assumptions :

Class-room interaction analysis is based on the following assumptions:

Teaching-learning is better when teacher hears talking of others than talking oneself.

Both verbal and non-verbal behavior in the classroom serve as an adequate sample of total behaviour.

Type of teacher‘s behaviour is a significant determinant of students‘ behaviour.

Nature and amount of reciprocal behaviour determines the effectiveness of classroom teaching.

Socioemotional climate of the classroom is a decisive determining factor of learning.

Classroom interaction can be observed objectively by observational techniques without disturbing its natural mode and with least observational error.

Modification of teaching behaviour is possible through feedback based on observation of classroom interaction.

Flanders' Interaction Analysis System (FIAS) :

Flanders Interaction Analysis is a system of classroom interaction analysis. Flanders classifies the statements of students and teachers into ten categories. The system in its original and modified forms has been used extensively in classroom observation studies. It has also been used in the study of differences between expert and non-expert teachers at any level of classroom. It is a system for coding spontaneous verbal communication. The system has two primary uses. Firstly to provide evidence of difference in teaching patterns that distinguish one curriculum from another and secondly it can also provide data which may help to explain why differences in learning outcomes appeared or failed to appear.

Though several techniques have been devised to observe and analyse classroom communication systematically, the pioneer work was done by Ned Flanders (1960). He developed the system, originally, as a part of his research into teacher influence and pupil attitudes and achievement at the University of Minnesota. It was used as a teachers' training device. In between 1959 and 1967 he and his associates had done so many studies and found that teacher talk correlated positively with student achievement, and that flexibility in interaction and achievement produced the most consistent positive correlations indicating the importance of tailoring teacher behaviour to each situation.

The major feature of the system is the analysis of patterns of initiative and response. To initiate means to make the first move, lead, begin, and introduce idea or concept for the first time. To respond means to take action after an initiation, to counter, to amplify or react to ideas already expressed. In the traditional teaching situation it is expected that the teacher will show more initiating behaviour than the pupils.

5.2.2 : FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS CATEGORIES (FIAC) :

The Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) consists of 10 categories of communication (Table1) which are said to be inclusive of all communication possibilities. There are seven categories used when the teacher is talking and two when the pupil is talking. Because the system is totally inclusive coding at a constant rate allows calculation of the proportion of time spent in one or more categories. In FIAC, the total classroom interaction is put under three major sections : a) teacher talk, b) student talk, and c) silence or confusion. At the end of each three-second period, the observer decides which category best represents the communication behaviour of that period. For example, when the teacher is talking, the observer can classify the statements as criticizing or justifying

authority" or he can put them into one of the six other categories. He can classify the statements of Restricting student freedom of participation later in the cycle of classroom learning activities does not increase dependence but does increase achievement.

1. Accepts feeling: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included. **[RESPONSE]**	**Teacher Talk** **Indirect Influence**
2. Praises or encourages: praises or encourages student action or behaviour. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying 'uh huh?' or 'go on' are included. **[RESPONSE]**	
3. Accepts or uses ideas of student: clarifying, building, or developing ideas or suggestions by a student. As teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five. **[RESPONSE]**	
4. Asks questions: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student may answer.	
5. Lectures: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing one's own ideas; asking rhetorical questions. **[INITIATION]**	**Teacher Talk** **Direct Influence**
6. Gives directions: directions, commands, or orders with which a student is expected to comply. **[INITIATION]**	
7. Criticises or justifies authority: statements, intended to change student behaviour from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern, bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing, extreme self-reference. **[INITIATION]**	
8. Student talk-responses: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement. Freedom to express own ideas is limited. **[RESPONSE]**	**Student Talk**
9. Student talk-initiation: talk by students which they initiate. Freedom is given to express own ideas. [If 'calling on' student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category]. **[INITIATION]**	
10. **Silence or confusion:** pauses, short periods of silence and which communication cannot be understood by the observer.	periods of confusion in
There is no scale implied by these numbers. Each number is classification designated a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is merely to identify and enumerate communication events, not to judge them.	

Expanding student freedom of participation early in the cycle of classroom learning activities decreases dependence and increases achievement.

The teacher restricts student freedom of participation when he exercises direct influence (categories 5, 6 and 7 in Table 1) through lecturing, giving directions, and criticizing or justifying authority. In these behaviour categories the teacher talks more and therefore plays a dominant role in the classroom. Expansion of student participation occurs when the teacher employs categories 1 through 4: the teacher accepts feeling, praises or encourages, accepts or uses student ideas, and asks questions. The phrase *early and late in the cycle* refers to Flanders' particular conception of the order in which events recur in the classroom. Flanders describes this cycle as follows:

First, an intellectual difference or problem is created; second, the major dimensions of the problem are identified; third, relationships within the problem are isolated. Fourth, work occurs - such as the gathering of information, the application of a formula, or the trial solution of a problem. Fifth, progress is evaluated and tested. Sixth, the new knowledge is applied to additional problems and interpreted in some meaningful way.

Steps 1 and 2 represent the early part, and steps 5 and 6 represent the late part of the cycle.

The directness or indirectness of the teacher‘s influence in each part of the cycle affects two aspects of learning: the student‘s dependence and his achievement. Flanders defines dependence in terms of the degree of concern the student has for pleasing the teacher. A dependent student is more concerned about which method the wants him to use than about which method will solve the problem. According to Flanders, sustained direct influence by the teacher results in increased dependency. Achievement is the difference in pretest and posttest scores. Again, the directness or indirectness of the teacher‘s influence, in the interaction model, increases or decreases this variable.

Flanders contended that comparing teacher talk in the categories 1, 2 and 3 with those in 5, 6 and 7 can attain an accurate estimate of the initiative-response balance of classroom interaction. There is a complementary and logical relationship between the initiative-response balances of teacher statements and the same balance is expressed by the pupils. In other words, an average use of categories 5, 6 and 7 is more likely to be associated with a higher incidence of category 8, and an verge use of categories 1, 2 and 3 is more likely to be associated with category 9. This balance varies as learning activity, teaching strategy, nature of subject matter, age & maturity of students, and teaching-learning situation vary.

In a nutshell, in the Flanders‘ model, instructional objectives are determined by the interaction of teacher and student; student‘s feelings, ideas, and present information are considered as entry level behaviour; instructional procedures concern with the interactions between teacher and student ranging from direct to indirect teacher influence; and performance assessment is done through achievement tests and attitude questionnaire used at conclusion of instruction. Thus, with respect to the four basic components of any teaching model, Flanders‘ is perhaps the most easily applied to the conventional classroom.

FIAC considers only the verbal interactions, though there are nonverbal classroom interactions, as Flanders assumed that in anormal classroom situation verbal communication is predominant, that the verbal statements of a teacher are consistent with his / her nonverbal gestures in the classroom and that verbal behaviour can be observed with high reliability than non verbal behaviour.

The Procedure :

The observation procedure through FIAC is highly complex though technical and systematic. It is conducted through the two stages of ‗encoding' and ‗decoding'. **Encoding** means organisation of verbal interactions as per ten categories. The observer sits in a classroom in the best position to hear and see the participants, viz. the teacher and the students. At the end of each three-second period, he decides which category best represents the interaction event just completed. He writes this category number down on the data sheet, while simultaneously, assesses the interaction for the next period, and in this way continues at a maximum rate of 20 observations per minute. After completion of observation of the total period of a class, encoded data needs to be tabulate dina10x10matrix for decoding.

Because of the complexity in categorization several **ground rules** have been established by Flanders for the observer. Some important ones have been mentioned here -

When not certain to which two or more categories a statement belongs, choose the category that is numerically farthest from category5.

If the primary tone of the teacher's behaviour has been consistently direct or consistently indirect, do not shift into the opposite classification unless a clear indication of shift is given by the teacher.

The observer must not be concerned with his own biases or with the teacher's intent.

If more than one category occurs during the three-second interval, then all categories used in that interval are recorded.

If a silence is longer than three seconds, it is recorded as 10. Rhetorical questions are recorded as 5.

When several students respond in unison to a question asked 8 is recorded.

The Matrix :

The encoded data are next to be tabulated in a 10 row by 10 column matrix through paired categories. In the paired category the first number represents a ‗row' and the second number a ‗column'. For example, a pair 4-6 means 4 is to be tallied within the 4^{th} row and 6 to be within the 6^{th} column of the matrix. In reality, the observer continues to write down the category numbers (6, 8, 5, 1,4,8 etc.) as the classroom interaction proceeds.To tabulate this observation in the matrix is first to add10as the starting as well as the ending point (step1), and second to make pairing (step2). As10 represents ‗silence', it is supposed that the interaction starts and ends with silence. Therefore, if silence occurs at the beginning or at the end, there is no need to add 10. Now, follow the following illustration:

Suppose the observation data are :

5	5	4	8	2	6	7	4	5	5
Step 1:	10 5 5	4	8	2 6	7	4	5	5	10
Step 2:	10-5, 5-5, 5-4,	4-8,	8-2,	2-6, 6-7,	7-4,	4-5,	5-5,	5-10	

INTERACTION MATRI

Categories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	**total**
1											0
2								/			1
3											0
4					/		/				2
5				/	/ /					/	4
6		/									1
7						/					1
8				/							1
9											0
10					/						1
total	0	1	0	2	4	1	1	1	0	1	**11**

(It is a correctly tabulated matrix as the sums of the corresponding rows and columns are equal)

Decoding means explanation of teacher‘s classroom verbal interactions in terms of FIAC.

There are various methods but the most popular and convenient one is to convert all column totals into percent of the matrix total and then calculate certain interaction ratios. These are called behaviour

ratios. Flanders conceptualized fifteen such ratios with particular formula for explaining and interpreting the matrix data. Some of these are as follows:

1. Teacher - Talk (TT) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 1 to 7) / N} x100
2. Pupil - Talk (PT) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 8 and 9) / N} x100
3. Silence / Confusion (SC) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 10) / N} x100
4. Teacher Response Ratio(TRR) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 1,2 and 3) / (sum of frequencies in columns 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7)} x100
5. Teacher Question Ratio(TQR) = {(sum of frequencies in column 4) / (sum of frequencies in columns 4 and 5)} x100
6. Pupil Initiation Ratio (PIR) = {(sum of frequencies in column 9) / (sum of frequencies in columns 8 and 9)} x100
7. Indirect Teacher Talk (ITT)={(sumoffrequenciesincolumns1to4)/N}x100
8. Direct Teacher Talk (DTT) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 5, 6 and 7) / N} x 100
9. Indirect to Direct Ratio (I / D Ratio) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 1 to 4) / (sum of frequencies in columns 5, 6 and 7) } x100
10. Content Cross Ratio (CCR) = {(sum of frequencies in columns 4 and 5) / N} x 100 In this way, Flanders presented Steady State Ratio, Pupil Steady State Ratio, Instantaneous Teacher Question Ratio, Instantaneous Teacher Response Ratio and Vicious Circle.

However, these above ratios are meaningless unless and until they are interpreted on the basis of some _norm'. Some norms have been developed by Flanders himself as well as by some Indian educationists. But Flanders' is applicable to USA population and ours to Indian population. In this regard, it can be mentioned that ours are too backdated (in terms of changes of curriculum in school level) to use, and new norms are yet to be developed. Still, FIAC data can be interpreted in the following manner - the teachers who have the greater values of pupil-talk, teacher response ratio, pupil initiation ratio, indirect teacher influence and pupil steady state ratio than the normative values are considered to bean effective teacher. On the other hand, teachers who have higher teacher-,silence or confusion, steady state ratio, content cross ratio and direct teacher behaviour than their normative values are stated as ineffective teachers.

FIAC-interpretation is not a simple method. Flanders admitted that the computation of behaviour ratios and interaction variables do not reveal the structure and flow of verbal interaction. The 'clockwise flow an alysis' and 'box flow diagrams' are required, and these can be prepared with the help of matrix-table. The qualitative and visual interpretation can be made with the flow analysis. The interaction models of the teacher can also located from the clockwise flowchart. (These are not discussed here. Interested learners may follow : Rosen shine, Barak. (1971) Teaching behaviours and student achievement. The national foundation for educational researches in England and Wales.)

Sample Matrix (Reproduced from Flanders) :

Category	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	total
1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
2	1	-	-	6	6	-	-	-	-	-	12
3	-	-	8	17	4	1	-	1	1	-	32
4	-	-	-	14	3	-	1	38	48	-	104
5	-	1	-	26	62	8	5	-	1	2	105
6	-	-	-	5	5	13	-	-	1	3	27
7	-	1	-	2	4	-	3	1	-	2	13
8	-	5	9	15	6	-	3	4	2	-	44
9	-	4	14	17	13	2	1	-	13	2	66
10	-	1	1	1	3	3	-	-	-	8	17
Total	1	12	32	104	105	27	13	44	66	17	**421**

Following the data in the above table you can understand the ‗decoding' of the interaction matrix. ‗Decoding' is simply the interpretation of the matrix. Here, teacher talk is - the sum of first seven categories (1to7) i.e. 1+12+32+104+105+27+13 = {(294) / (421)} × 100 = 69.8 %. In this way, student talk = (44 + 66) or (110 / 421) × 100 = 26.12 %.

Following conclusions may be drawn from the above table - The teacher is active.

The control of interaction rests with the teacher.

50.7 % of teacher‘s statements are indirect i.e. the sum of first four categories (149) out of 294 × 100.

The flow of communication between the teacher and the student is flexible and shifts from one category toanother.

The class is business like and works rapidly.

Flanders has observed ―itwill be the responsibility of the supervisor to help prospective teachers discover what their teaching intention should be then creates training situations in which behaviour gradually matches intention with practice. Teaching will remain an art but it will be studied scientifically.”

Precautions are to be taken with regard to the use of FIAC. Person collecting data from the live classroom interaction should be well trained with the entire process and should know the limitations of FIAC. Questions to be answered during the matrix development are to be preset before observation takes place. At least two inter-rater matrices are required in order to establish cause-effect relationship in teaching-learning situation and to control value judgment regarding “good” or “bad” teaching.

Advantages :

Flanders‘ model is a scientific and systematic observation technique for analysis of class-room behavior.

If carefully recorded by a skilled person its data provides true representation of class- room behaviour.

It acts as a measuring instrument for class-room teaching.

It acts as an evaluative device for modification of teaching behaviour.

It functions as a feedback device to the trainee-teacher for improving his / her existing behaviour.

It supplies fairly reliable record of spontaneous verbal interaction.

It supplements the other training techniques like micro-teaching and team teaching.

Epilogue :

As a technique for modification of teaching behaviour Flanders‘ system provides an analytic approach in order to develop an insight within the trainee teacher about what actually goes on in the classroom. But the system does not describe the totality of the classroom activity. Some behaviouris always over looked. FIAS is content free and concerns solely with the verbal communication though non-verbal

communication has significant role in classroom interaction. Moreover, it emphasises on the quantity rather than quality of classroom interactions. Due to these and other practical shortfalls (e.g. to note down the right category every three seconds; adequate, if possible, careful training on the part of the observer and the like) Flanders' model gradually loses its appeal especially in the field of teacher-training programme.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What is classroom interaction analysis?
2. Differentiate between FIAS and FIAC.
3. Name the categories under 'Teacher Talk'.
4. Explain 'encoding' and 'decoding' in FIAC model.

LET US SUM UP

In order to produce effective classroom teachers educational technology studies a lot and brings out a handful of innovative techniques which can modify the existing teaching behavior in the direction of generating successful teachers. In this unit, three such practices have been discussed - simulation, microteaching and interaction analysis.

In the *International Dictionary of Education*, "simulation' is defined as a teaching technique usedparticularlyinmanagementeducationandtraininginwhicha"reallifesituation'and values are simulated by "substitutes' displaying similar characteristics". It also means a technique in teacher education in which students act out or role play teaching situations in an attempt to make theory more practically oriented and realistic. Simulation is a constructed situation identical to the real situation which helps student teacher to get the experiences of real field without entering in the real field. For removing some of the deficiencies of the teacher training programme, simulated teaching is adopted in order to improve the teaching behaviour of thetrainees.

Microteaching has been developed as a course in many teacher-training institutions around the world. It readily combines theory with practice. When one considers that teacher trainees in many training programs do their practice teaching under inadequate supervision with no student / peer feedback, the relative merits and economy of microteaching become more and more apparent.

Micro teaching offers the advantages of both a controlled laboratory environment and realistic practical experience. It is hardly a substitute for teaching practice, but it offers advantages such as close supervision, manageable objectives established according to individual trainee needs and

progress, continuous feedback, an unprecedented opportunity for self-evaluation, immediate guidance in areas of demonstrated deficiency, and the opportunity to repeat a lesson whenever desired. When these advantages are combined with the economy of resources required to obtain them, microteaching becomes a valuable training method under many conditions throughout the world. It is a vehicle of continuous training applicable at all stages not only to teachers at the beginning of their career but also for more senior teachers.

Teaching is an interactive process between a teacher and students. The classroom teaching activities and events can be studied objectively by observing and analysing these situations. In this direction Ned Flanders and his associates conducted the most useful research prior to the 1970s and introduced the FIAC model. He opined that classroom interaction analysis may be defined as any system for coding spontaneous verbal communication, arranging the data into a useful display, and then analyzing the results in order to study patterns of teaching and learning. In FIAC, total classroom interaction has been analysed through ten categories of behaviour under three headings, namely, _teacher talk' - _direct' and _indirect' influence, _student talk', and _silence' / _confusion'. Interactions of teacher and students have further been identified as _initiation' or _response'. Ultimately, through preparation of a matrix and calculation of different ratios, that is, through _encoding' and _decoding' processes FIAC presents the classroom interaction profile of an individual teacher in order to provide feedback to the teacher regarding his / her nature of classroom teaching. But use of FIAC model requires sufficient training.

All these three innovative practices which are technically called the _feedback devices" have been discussed in detail in this Unit.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. Why does teaching behaviour need to be modified? Name some techniques of modifying teaching behaviour. Present the characteristic features of any one of them indetail.
2. What do you mean by ‗simulation' in teaching? How could you justify the relations among simulation, role-play, game and simulationgame?
3. What are the major skill categories that a simulated teaching intends to develop? State the merits of simulatedteaching.
4. Give an outline of preparing and using of simulated teaching on any subject discipline. Explain the different steps of simulated teaching. Why is ‗discussion' a necessary step?
5. "Micro-teaching is a scaled down encounter" - justify the statement. In this regard, explain micro-teaching and show its merit points.
6. Explain the micro-teaching events with the help of micro-teaching cycle.
7. Write notes on:

a) Simplified micro-teaching.

b) Phases of micro-teaching.

c) Component micro-teaching skills.

8. Explain the term ‗classroom interaction analysis'. What are its basic assumptions?
9. Present in detail the categories in FIAC. Explain the terms "teacher - talk', ‗student - talk', ‗indirectness', ‗directness', ‗response', ‗initiation' and ‗response - initiation balance.'
10. Elucidate in detail the FIAC model with its encoding and decoding processes.

EDE – 01

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY-1

Block-6

Designing Instructional Systems

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

You have already gone through the concept of _System Approach‘ in education. one of the most important application of this approach is to design instruction. An important aspect of instructional design is formulation of instructional objectives. In this Unit we shall discuss the meaning, classification and taxonomy of instructional objective. This Unit will also highlight the guidelines of writing instructional objectives. Another important aspect of instructional design is task analysis. This is a rather complex concept. This unit will try to make you understand this concept. There are different types of instructional strategy. Each has some advantages and disadvantages. This Unit we will discuss how these strategies can be effectively implemented. Hope you will enjoy this unit.

OBJECTIVES

After completing this Unit, you will be able to:

- define instructional objective
- classify instructional objectives according to different domains
- show examples of action verbs for different instructional categories
- distinguish between different categories of instructional objectives
- construct instructional objectives for each category of behaviour
- define task analysis
- explain the purpose of task analysis
- analyse the task analysis process
- analyse a given task
- suggest some guidelines for effective implementation of different instructional strategy viz. lecture, team teaching, discussion, panel discussion, seminar, conference, tutorial and educational game
- differentiate the above mentioned strategies
- compare the above mentioned strategies.

Block-6

Unit – 1

Formulation of Instruction Objectives

6.1 : FORMULATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Educational objectives are global statements which can be at times be beyond the comprehension of teachers. Unless teachers and learners understand what they mean, these cannot be achieved. Therefore these educational objectives are further stated in operational terms known as instructional objectives. An instructional objective should be clear and concise statement of the skill or skills that the learners will be expected to perform after a unit of instruction. It should include the level of proficiency to be demonstrated and the special conditions under which the skill must be demonstrated. It should be stated in observable, behavioural terms (action verb) so that two or more individuals can agree that a learner has or has not displayed the specific learning outcome. Therefore, a complete instructional objective includes—

- an observable behaviour
- any conditions under which the behaviour must be displayed
- the performance level considered sufficient to demonstrate mastery.

6.1.1 : CLASSIFICATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Instructional objectives fall into three major categories or domain —

- **Cognitive** — This domain represents the intellectual component of mental life and is certainly the most basic one from the point of view of education. This domain is related to knowledge out comes and intellectual abilities and skills. For example —The student will list from memory the names of at least three of the last four Indian presidents".
- **Affective** — This domain describes objectives that reflect underlying emotions, feelings, or values. This domain is related to attitudes, interests, appreciation, and modes of adjustment. For example — –After completing this practical class, the learners will be interested to do other experiments in their own hands".

- **Psychomotor** — This domain concerns itself with levels of attainment on neuro-mascular coordination. This domain includes virtually all behaviour — speaking, writing, running, dancing, driving a car, etc. In fact this domain includes those objectives which deal with manual and motor skills. For example — "After completing this spoken English course, the learners will be able to speak fluently in daily life."

These three domains of learning do not occur in isolation but rather work together to make up one whole learning, as shown below—

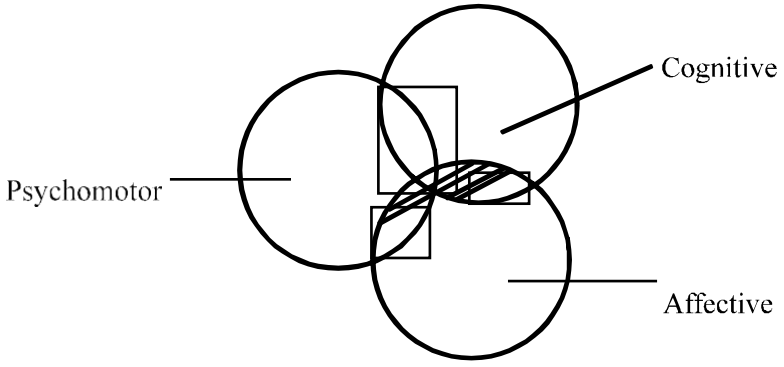

Figure 6.1. Overlapping of three domains of learning

Suppose learner does some laboratory practical work in 'Titration'. Here the three domains of learning includes:

Cognitive — knowledge regarding titration.

Psychomotor — handling pipette and burette.

Affective — interested in physical science experiments.

6.1.2 : TAXONOMY OF INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Several attempts were made by Crecelus (1923), Watkins (1924), Pruitt (1935), Croxoton (1937), Mayfield and West (1941), Martin (1944), Blough (1948), in listing science objectives into different categories. But the first systematic work based on behaviour-based classification of objectives was carried out under the leadership of Tylor (1936). The most significant and outstanding effort was made by Bloom and his associates (1956). It was the beginning to identify the instructional objectives in behavioural terms. This taxonomy (classification) generated a lot of criticisms. Moreover this

classification has already been subjected to a fair degree of logical and emperical validation. This classification is also supported by psychological findings of mental process. Let us have a brief description of these taxonomies of three learning domains.

6.1.2.1 : COGNITIVE DOMAIN (BLOOM, 1956)

There are six categories in cognitive domain. These are discussed below—

1. *Knowledge*—It is the lowest level of learning outcome in cognitive domain. It is defined as the remembering of previously learned material. Objectives at this level require the students to remember. Test items ask the student to recall or recognize a wide range of material, from specify facts to complete theories.

   Related Action verbs—define, describe, identify, list, label, match, name, outline, recall, recite, select, state, reproduce etc.

2. *Comprehensive*—It is defined as the ability to group the meaning of material. Test items require the student to change the form of communication, to restate what has been read, to see connection, to see relationships, or to draw conclusions or consequences from information.

   Related Action verb—convert, defend, discriminate, distinguish, explain, extend, estimate, generalize, infer, para phase, predict, summarize, rewrite etc.

3. *Application*—It refers to the ability to use learned information in new and concrete situations. It includes both knowledge and comprehension. Application differs from comprehension in that question requiring application presents the problem in different and often applied context or in a setting other than that in which it was learned.

   Related Action verbs—change, compute, demonstrate, develop, employ, modify, operate, organize, prepare, produce, relate, solve, transfer, use, manipulate, etc.

4. *Analysis*—It refers to the ability to break down material into its component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. This may include the identification of the parts, analysis of the relationships between parts, and recognition of the organizational principles involved.

   Related Action verbs—break down, deduce, diagram, differentiate, distinguish, illustrate, identify, infer, outline, point out, relate, separate out, subdivide, etc.

5. *Synthesis*—It refers to the ability to put parts together to form a new whole or new pattern,

theory emerges for from it. This level require the student to produce something unique or original. It has elements of creativeness. This may involve the production of a unique combination, a plan of operation or a set of abstract relation.

Related Action verbs—categorize, compile, compose, create, design, devise, formulate, rewrite, combine, generate, organize, plan, rearrange, reconstruct, reorganize etc.

Evaluation—It refers to the ability to judge the value of material. The judgements should be based on definite criteria. At this level students are required to form judgements about the value or worth of methods, ideas, people, or products that

6. appraise, compare, contrast, conclude, criticize, defend, justify, interpret, support have a specific purpose. This is the highest level of learning out comes in cognitive domain.

Related Action verbs —, validate, support etc.

6.1.2.2 : AFFECTIVE DOMAIN (KRATHWOHL, 1964)

There are five broad categories as given under —

1. *Receiving (Attending)*—This is the lowest level and the most rudimental objective of affective domain. Receiving refers to the student‘s willingness to attend to a particular phenomena or stimuli (text book, music, lecture etc.). Once this has occurred, a willingness at least to listen or attend to the stimulus must be present.

Related Action verbs—ask, choose, follow, hold, locate, point to, select, reply etc.

2. *Responding*—It refers to active participation on the part of the student. It expects greater motivation and regularity in attention. At this level the student not only attends but also reacts in some way. In the most basic form of responding, a student will choose some activity. The highest level is indicated in this category is indicated by satisfaction after engaging in a response.

Related Action verbs—answer, assist, discuss, help, perform, practice, read, recite, till, write etc.

3. *Valuing*—Valuing is concerned with the worth or value a student attaches to a particular object, phenomenon, or behaviour. This ranges in degree from the more simple acceptance of a value to the more complex level of commitment. At this level students judge an activity as to its worthiness and tend to do so consistently enough that the pattern is recognizable to others.

Related Action verbs—complete, follow, describe, explain, initiate, join, invite, propose, share, study, work etc.

4. *Organization*—It is concerned with bringing together different values, resolving conflict between them, and beginning the building of an internally consistent value system. The emphasis is on comparing, relating, and synthesizing values. Objectives in this category ultimately leads the learner to forma set value structure or philosophy of life.

   Related Action verbs—adhere, alter, combine, compare, defend, integrate, modify, synthesize, generalize, order etc.

5. *Characterization by a value or value complex*—This is the highest level of learning outcome in affective domain. Students operating at this level behave in a way that is consistent with their value system, avoiding hypocrisy and behaving consistently with an underlying philosophy. Here, an students thoughts and behaviour are consistent.

   Related Action verbs—act, discriminate, display, influence, listen, modify, practice etc.

6.1.2.3 : PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN (SIMPSON, 1972)

Different experts classify this domain differently. Here we will discuss the classification asproposedbySimpson.Therearesevencategories,whicharediscussedbelow—

1. *Perception*—This is the lowest level and is concerned with the use of sense organs to obtain cues that guide motor activity. This category ranges from sensory stimulation, through cue selection to translation (action in a performance).

   Related Action verbs—choose, detect, distinguish, identify, select, separate etc.

2. *Set*—It refers to readiness to take a particular type of action. This involves mental readiness (mental set), physical readiness (physical set) and emotional readiness (emotionalset). Perception serves as an important prerequisite for this level.

   Related Action verbs—begin, display, explain, move, proceed, react, respond, show, start etc.

3. *Guided Response*—It is concerned with the early stages in learning a complex skill. It includes imitation and trial and error.

   Related Action verbs—assemble, build, construct, display, dissect, fix, manipulate, mix, sketch, organize.

4. *Mechanism*—This is concerned with performance acts where the learned response have become habitual and the movements can be performed with some confidence and proficiency. Here the movement pattern are less complex than at the next higher level.

   Related Action verbs—same as mentioned in Guided Response category.

5. *Complex Overt Response*—This is concerned with the skillful performance of acts that involve complex movement patterns. This proficiency is indicated by quick, smooth, accurate performance, requiring a minimum of energy. Learning outcomes at this level include highly coordinated motor performances.

   Related Action verbs—same as Guided Response category.

6. *Adaptation* — This is concerned with skills that are so well developed that the individual learner can modify movement patterns to fit special requirements or to meet a problem situation. Related Action verbs—adapt, alter, change, rearrange, revise etc.

7. *Origination*—It refers to the creating of new movement patterns to fit a particular situation or specific problem. This is the highest level and emphasizes creative based skills based upon highly developed activities.

   Related Action verbs—combine, originate, design, create, construct, arrange etc.

6.1.3 : WRITING INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Instructional objectives specify exactly what is supposed to be learned, they are helpful to the teacher as well as the learner throughout the learning process. An instructional objective —is a statement that will describe what the learner will be able to do after completing the instruction (course)". (Kibler, Kegla, Barker, Miles—1974). Instructional objectives need to be **realistic, measurable** and **learner centered.**

- Realisticobjectivescanbeachievedwithinatimeframeandinagivenenvironment.
- Measurable objectives enable a teacher to know how well learners have acquired skills and knowledge.
- Learnercenteredobjectivesstatewhatthelearnercandoattheendoftraining.

The format known to work for stating clear objectives includes four characteristics. These characteristics answers four questions :

- Who will be doing the behavior?
- What should the learner be able to do?
- Under what conditions do you want the learner to be able to do it?
- How well must it be done?

Let Us Check Our Progress

Distinguish observable learning outcomes from unobservable outcomes. Write 'O' for observable and 'U' for unobservable outcomes. Compare your answer with unit end answers.

1. be familiar with thelaw.
2. add two digitnumbers.
3. enjoy speakingEnglish.
4. appreciate thepoem.
5. understand taskanalysis.
6. differentiate affetivefrom psychomotordomain.
7. really understand the meaning of educationaltechnology.

An easy way to remember these components is to use the acronym : **ABCD** (audience, behaviour, condition, degree)

Audience

The learners for whom the objective is attended.

Behaviour (Performance)

What the learner will be able to do. Make sure it is something that can be seen or heard. The specific observable actions / behaviours that the learner is to perform or exhibit. It is expressed in terms of action verbs.

Condition

Relevant factors affecting the actual performance (the givens), example :

- Given a case study, diagram...
- After a lecture or demonstration...
- After completing the unit or lesson...
- After attending this work whop...

Degree (Criterion)

Wherever possible, an objective describes the criterion of acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform in order to be considered acceptable. A degree/ criterion is the standard by which performance is evaluated. Common degrees include : Speed, Accuracy, and Quality.

This indicates acceptable performance (the competence), example :

- To a degree of accuracy, like 90%.
- To a stated proportion, example 3 out of 5 or a minimum of 3.
- Within a given period of time like within an hour.
- According to the information given in the text, lab-manual, and lecture.
- Incompliance with criteria presented by the instructor.
- In accordance with recommendations of some external organization or authority.

Steps of writing instructional objectives :

Step One : Determine Performance :

The performance is a description of the behaviour that learners are expected to perform (measurable, observable).

Step Two : Identify and Describe the Conditions (–Given") :

Conditions represent a description of the circumstances under which the performance will be learned and/or carried out.

Step Three : Identify and Describe the Standard (Criterion) :

A standard is a description of the criteria for acceptance of a performance as sufficient. A standard is stated in the objective only when necessary when the stated performance required qualification to it. For example, the objective —Given an objective with clearly-defined linear sides, students will estimate the object's length within 10 mm of its actual length." The standard —...within 10 mm of it's actual length" helps define the performance –estimate".

Four-part Instructional Objective :

Examples :

The students will be able to *tell the time* represented on *an analog clock* to *the nearest minute.*

- —The student" represents the audience
- —tell the time "represents the behaviour or performance
- —analog clock" represents the condition
- —to the nearest minute" represents the degree of standard or criterion.

Remember that generally in case of writing instructional objectives in school subjects we do not mention the condition or criterion.

6.1.4 : TASKANALYSIS

A task is a coherent set of activities (steps, operations or behaviour elements) which leads to a measurable end result. The stops or activities are inter-related and sequenced. For example, task of a telephone operator to connect an outside caller to the correct internal extension is a sequence of steps, with some branches, depending on the demand of the caller. Caller may ask for a specific extension number, or for a person by name, or simply asks a question or problem not knowing to whom she/he really wishes to speak. Above example shows another characteristic of a task. In any task, there is a specific stimulating event which starts off the execution of a task, and a specific terminal event which shows that the task is complete. Thus task analysis refers to identify the steps activities or objectives within a task and to sequence the steps in a specific pattern. In task analysis, the entering event and terminal event are also identified. It is not only possible to describe but also to analyse the task the teacher expects the student to perform. Alterto and Troutman (199) have defined task analysis as breaking down a complex task that students are to learnin to its component parts:

According to Moyer and Dardig (1978), task analysis involves three basic steps —

1. Determinewhatskillorconceptsthestudentsneedstohavetolearnthetask.
2. List any material that will be required in order to perform the task.
3. Listallofthecomponentsofthetaskinorderinwhichtheymustbeperformed.

Therefore, task analysis breaks down a task into its constituent parts and involves detailed listing of

component behavioural elements. It implies a way of describing how a task is performed. To explain the objectives to task analysis. Alexander Telon has said —A major objective of the task analysis is the isolation and identification of the different elements in the task to be learned so that the designer can decide who types of learning are involved and how to go about teaching the various aspects, principles and perceptual motor skills embedded in a task", Gange (1977) defined task analysis as —The process of breaking tasks down into their simpler components." He also mentioned that —In this task analysis we identify classes of behaviour, which differ in respect to the conditions necessary for learning." Task analysis describes the task which the student has to learn. According to Davies, four activities are included in task analysis—

- Description of activities which are to be learnt by the pupil.
- Identification of expected behaviours.
- Identification of those stimuli and conditions with the help of which pupils may show expected behaviours.
- Determination of norms for expected performance or achievement.

Dececco and Crawford mentioned *task description* to explain task analysis. According to them, task description refers to a full description of terminal performance or the end product of learning. It denotes how the end product of learning is expressed through explicit statement or statement of behavioursl objectives. Task description is a very essential part of task analysis. Taxonomy of instructional objectives describes this task description, which has been already discussed.

Learning Contingency Analysis (LCA), proposed by Gropper (1971) is another approach of task analysis. LCA deals with the following two important aspects of instructional design—

- sequencing the instructional content, and
- determining the specific instructional conditions under which the instructional content is best taught.

Gange has developed a different approach to classify the educational objectives. He identified eight type of learning progress from the simple to the complex. The types of learning are mentioned below—

1. Signal Learning
2. Stimulus Response Learning
3. Chaining

4. Verbal Association

5. Multiple Discrimination

6. Concept Learning

7. Principle Learning

8. Problem solving.

[For further detail go through Gange's theory of Learning Module-2, Unit-2 of Paper II]

Gange has produced several books and articles showing how his system can be used for task analysis. According to him, task analysis is the process of analysing learning tasks systematically to identify their component parts, determining what types of learning are involved, and deciding what would be the best method for teaching them, consider the following two examples—

Example 1 Teacher tries to help in pronounciation a certain word. Example 2 Teacher tries to explain (a+b)2 = a2+b2+2ab.

Example 1 is Stimulus-Response learning, and Example 2 is principles learning. The conditions for learning these two tasks are quite different.

From the above discussion of task analysis, it can be said that task analysis is a part of instructional design where tasks are analysed and subdivided into different sub-tasks. These sub-tasks requise particular instructional conditions for learning. The sub-tasks can be identified through task description or through different types of learning (as suggested by Gange)

Block-6

Unit – 2

Designing Instructional Strategies-1

6.2.1 : DESIGNING INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

A teacher has a variety of teaching strategy and techniques available for use in the classroom. The selection of appropriate teaching strategy depends on basically three criteria the objectives of the lesson level of the learner, and competencies of the teacher. There are basically two types of teaching strategy — teacher-centred and learner-centred strategy. Both types have some advantages and disadvantages. So the teacher should know the shortcomings. There are some specific guidelines for each strategy to make it effective.

6.2.1.1 : LECTURE

This method has been the earliest known method of instruction. When books were not available and manuscript were rare, the lecture method was used for instruction. Research on lecturing in higher education has shown that this method is very useful at this stage. Although research shows that the lecture is less effective than activity methods at school level, many teachers find themselves pending at least 30% to 50% of their teaching time in lecturing.

Carter Good‘s dictionary defines lecture method as——aninstructional procedure by which the lecturer seeks to create interest, to influence, stimulate, or mould opinion, to promote activity, to import information, or to develop critical thinking, largely by the use of the verbal message, with a minimum of class participation; illustrations maps, charts, or other visual aids may be employed to supplement the oral technique.” Warely et.al. suggested that the lecture method serves four basic purposes to motivate, to clarify, to review, and to expand. It is mostly teacher-centred, autocratic, and expository method where teacher plays the main role and controls each and every situation in the classroom.

Designing lecture as instructional strategy—There are three phases for designing, which are discussed below:

1. *Preparation* — Before starting to prepare a lecture, the teacher must be able to answer the following four basic questions

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain 'Task Analysis"?
2. Write down three instructional objectives.

- Who is the auidence?
- What is the purpose of the lecture?
- How much is the time available?
- What is the content?

After getting the answers the following guidelines should be considered —

- The learning objectives should be expressed in behavioural terms (with the help of action verbs).
- The entry-behaviour of the learner should be assessed.
- Proper task analysis should be done.
- Detailed lesson plan with proper pedagogy should be prepared.
- Relevant teaching aids can be thought of while planning.

2. *Presentation*—This stage requires the following considerations—

- Various techniques of creating interest should be utilized, like-relevant newspaper information, visual aids, real objects etc.
- Non-verbal components, like-vocalics, kinesics, oculesics (discussed in Module - 1, Unit - 4) should be used intelligently.
- Blackboard should be placed in proper place and utilized systematically (as discussedinModule-4,Unit-8).
- Different types of question should be delivered during developing the lesson.
- Students should be motivated to give feedback.
- Students should be incorporated in teaching-learning process for better communication.

3. *Evaluation* — There are two types of evaluation — formative and summative. Formative evaluation is very much effective in lecture method. During lecture student should be evaluated

by questions as per instructional objectives of the content. Through this type of evaluation teacher can assess the effectiveness of the lecture method.

- Colleagues can be requested to assess the effectiveness of a lecture with the help of a check list or otherwise.
- Different types of recording devices can also be used to make lecture method effective.
- In case of higher education, students suggestion can also be used for making lecture effective.

6.2.1.2 : TEAM TEACHING

In convention classroom setting, a single teacher takes the whole responsibility. Teaching is aprocess and learning is its goal. Failure to learn may be due to several causes, like—

- Teachers may have chosen methods unwisely.
- Teachers may not have mastery about the content
- Communication may be hampered due to teachers limitation etc.

These problem can be solved if a group of teachers works together. Working with the support of a team makes teaching more positives, less threatening. This approach of teaching is called ‗team teaching'. It assumes that ―thewhole of the particupants, working together, will make a greater contribution than the ‗sum' of the participants working alone" (Davis, 1966). For the firsttime in 1957 this method was tried out at Harvard University.

Some definitions :

Singer : Two or more teachers, with or without teacher aides, cooperatively plan, instruct, and evaluate one or more class groups in an appropriate instructional pace and given length of time, so as to take advantage of the special competencies of the team members.

Warwick : A form of organization in which individual teachers decide to pool resources, interests and expertise in order to devise and implement a scheme of work suitably to the needs of their students and the facilities of the institution.

Callahan : Team teaching is that teaching learning process where two or more teachers cooperatively formulate a plan, carry it out, evaluate its effectiveness as it relates to a specific group of students.

Anderson : Team teaching is a formal type of cooperative staff organization in which a group of teachers accept the responsibility for planning, carrying out and evaluating an educational programme or some major portion of a programme, for an aggregate of pupils.

From the above and other definition given by experts, the following *characteristicsof team teaching* has been identified—

- It is an instructional arrangement.
- Two or more teachers participate in this type of teaching.
- It is based on cooperation.
- Total responsibility of teaching is shared by a team of teachers.
- The main aim is to make teaching effective.
- this technique is flexible.
- It is organized for a specific group of students.
- It is based on pooling and best utilizing the available resources.
- It focuses on the best utilization of available teacher expertize.

Types of Team teaching : Team teaching is flexible in nature. It may be of many forms. Johnson and Hunt (1968) have identified three types of team teaching as follows —

- Team teaching within a single discipline — Here the members of team belong to same subject and also same institution.
- Different team experts related to the course — Here the members of team belong to same institution but from different disciplines.
- Combined team teaching with related innovation — Here members are not confined to the same institution. In this type team experts are called from different organizations.

Procedure of Team teaching : Team teaching is carried out in a cooperative way by a team of teachers. It is difficult to describe the general procedure of team teaching, as there are different types of this type of teaching. However, any team teaching involves three major stages—planning, execution and evaluation.

Francis J. Buckley, S. J. in his book ―TeamTeaching — what, why, and how?" has mentioned the following steps team teaching —

1. *Define and prioritize all the essential outcomes* — Teachers must discuss and settle on the cognitive, affective and behavioural goals and objectives of the entire programme.

2. *Identify and prioritize other desirable but nonessential outcomes* — There are some objectives which are not essential for content but desirable in team teaching, like — increasing teachers expertize, insight from watching others; improving the quality of scholarship and teaching of the teachers; enhancing flexibility of teachers; improving the thinking and adjustment ability of students. These objectives are no direct but indirect, but these should be considered in team teaching.

3. *Brainstorm all promising strategies* — Now, teachers try to brainstorm different ways to look at the course to stimulate creative approaches, like—

   - Will teachers begin with easiest or hardest material?
   - Will the arrangement of topics be deductive or inductive?
   - How will teachers vary the pace and rhythm to keep attention? etc.

4. *Get the information necessary about factors that would promote or hinder the proposed strategies* — Here two factors are generally considered, viz., environmental factor and personality factors of the teachers.

5. *Evaluate the proposed strategies* — Evaluate the selected strategies in the light of the essential and desirable outcomes. The team should select the strategies that best meet the criteria and reject strategies that have undesirable side effects.

6. *Develop an action plan* — It is important for all members to know what is expected to each member of the team so that common burdens are easily shared and solved.

7. *Plan assessment steps* — Teachers then consider different aspects of assessment procedure, like—

   - methods of data collection
   - time of data collection
   - means of evaluation etc.

8. *Implement the plan* — After considering the above steps, now teachers implement the plan and teaching-learning process begins.

9. *Evaluate the results and redesign the process* — Here teachers should collect data, evaluate it and take necessary actions.

10. *Inform the administration of progress*—Report the progress to other personnel involved in this process. Their support is crucial in terms of financial, technical and environmental factors.

11. *Encourage communication within the team* — There should be opportunities for all to express their ideas, needs, and feeling about the session. It should be clearly written and distributed to all other members.

Advantages of Team Teaching : There are different advantates of team teaching. Some of them are discussed below—

- Team work impoces the quality of teaching.
- As teacher strengths are combined, the weakness (if any) of teachers can be remedied.
- Sharing with in team promotes self-discipline and maturity in teachers.
- Teacher may learn different perspectives and insights from watching one another teach.
- Curriculum may be enriched.
- It provide support unities to form and deepen friendships with peers.
- Different styles, voices, personalities stimulate learners‘ motivation and attention.
- Students get more comprehensive view of the content.
- It improves the critical thinking ability of the learners. They raise question, debate different issues and point out consequences.
- In this process, students and teachers both learn.
- As the students are highly motivated, they learn more content.

Disadvantages of team teaching : Inspite of several advantages, there are some disadvantages —

- Some students are confused by conflicting opinions
- Too much variety may hinder habit formation.
- It demands extensive cooperation among teammates and often creates problem because of individual differences.

6.2.1.3 : DISCUSSION

Effective teaching depends on the participation of students in the process. In lecture method there is limited scope in participation on the part of students. Generally, students are passive in lecture method. The proportion of students participation can be increased by discussion method. The discussion method of teaching is a process in which a small group (usually 6 to 10 students) assemble to communicate with each other in presence of a leader (teacher). This method can be followed in two ways depending upon the time and resources available in a particular situation.

In the first method, the teacher gives a topic with a brief introduction to the students for discussion. This is followed by supervised study by the pupils in groups or individually for a specified time (usually 1 to 2 hours). Students may study in the class or in library. If students face difficulties teacher helps them to solve by giving proper guidance or giving reference materials. After the schedule time, the teacher starts discussion by posing some questions or problems related to the topic.

In the second method, after introducing the topic the class is divided into a number of groups (generally 3 or 4). The topic is also divided into equal number of subunit. References are given to each student and they are asked to read thoroughly. Each group is assigned one subunit of the topic. Groups may be headed by leaders. The students are asked to come prepared for discussion on the next day. Then the first group is asked to explain the assigned subunit. The group leader may initiate the explanation of group. The other groups are asked to put questions on this subunit. The first group then explain the question asked by different other groups. Blackboard can also be used in explanation stage. After finishing the first subunit, other groups also explain their portion in the same way. In this way the while unit is discussed and covered.

For designing discussion method following considerations should keep in mind —

- The topic for discussion should be of general nature — neither very easy nor very technical.
- Students should be encouraged to study the whole topic as well as their assigned topic thoroughly.
- It must be carefully observed that the discussion is not dominated by one or two students. In that case, no student should be allowed to put more than one question or answer a question at a time.
- Time should be wanted by discussing irrelevant question.
- More than one student should not be allowed to speak at a time.

- Controversial issues or points should be settled by the teacher.
- There should be a healthy competition among the students.
- These should be certain norms, which are related to willingness to remain reasonable and to respect views of opinions of other members.
- Group should be homogeneous in nature.

6.2.1.4 : PANEL DISCUSSION

Panel discussion is an effective teaching method for higher education and training. H. A. Ober Street first used this techniques. There are four types of person in a panel discussion. Their role are discussed below—

Instructor — Instructor plays an important role in this type of discussion. She/he takes the decision about the timing, place, purpose, and procedure of this discussion. If necessary, she/he plans rehearsal for discussion.

Moderator — Moderator encourages the participant for interaction and keeps the discussion on theme. She/he summarizes and highlights the discussion.

Panelists — Generally four to ten panelists are involved in panel discussion. They sit in semicircle before the audience. The members discuss the theme from different angles to the audience.

Audience — At the end of discussion given by panel members, audiences are allowed to put questions and seek clarification. They can present their view and share their experiences about the theme. The panelists try to answer the queries of audience. Moderator may also help in this regard.

At the end, moderator summarizes the discussion and presents his/her point of view. This type of discussion is more or less autocratic in nature. These are two types of panel discussion — Public panel discussion and Educational panel discussion. The former is organized for the problem of common men. And educational panel discussion is organized in educational institution to provide factual informal or conceptual knowledge and to provide solution of certain problems.

Designing panel discussion —

It should be designed for college and university students

- There should be rehearsal before the actual discussion.
- The pane lists should sit in semi-circle before the audience and the moderator sits in the middle of the pane lists.
- Moderator should encourage the audience to ask questions.
- Pane lists should interact with each other.
- Spontaneity, freedom, and democracy should be maintained throughout the session.
- Specific time should be fixed for discussion and interaction.
- Moderator should summarize the whole session at the end.
- If any controversy arises, moderator must resolve.

At the college or university level such panel may be arranged where students play the role of instructor, moderator, panelists and audience. Teacher may play the role of instructor and she/he assigns the responsibilities to different members (students) according to their interests and abilities.

This technique has the following advantages —

- encourages social learning
- develops the higher level cognitive abilities, like— logical reasoning, problem solving.
- develops divergent thinking by asking questions.
- Develops the ability to organize the matter.
- Develops the attitude to respect other side as.

Block-6

Unit – 3

Designing Instructional Strategies-2

6.3.1 : SEMINAR

The term seminar generally refers to a structured group discussion that may precede or follow a formal lecture. This method is suitable and useful for students of post-graduate level. Generally there are five types of persons in seminar — Organizer (Instructor), Chairman (Convener), Speakers, Participants, Observers. Organizer decides the theme (topic) of the seminar and then plan the whole programme. Speakers are assigned the subtheme of the topic. They may also choose the subtheme. Then they prepare the subtheme thoroughly. They must search different related materials from different sources (journals, reference books, survey reports, internet etc) and put the colleced material in the form a paper which is circulated among participants in advance or before the paper presentation. Then a speaker presents the subtheme to the auidence of participants. Then it is discussed by the group. Participants then may — seek clarifications, raise issues pertaining to the topic, make observations. In practice they criticise the topic from different angles. In this way, all speakers present their topics (sub theme).

Ellington and et.al have mentioned different forms of seminar. One common method of running a seminar is to base it on an essay, paper or prepared talk presented by one of the students in the group, with the group then discussing the presentation in depth. Another method is to run the seminar as a *free group discussion* of particular topic based on some guidelines. In *fishbowl technique*, another approach of seminar, some students sit in an inner circle and conduct a discussion whle the remainder sit in an outer circle and remains non-participating observers; both selectors of the group then combine for a general discussion. Another approach is *brainstorming*. Here teacher poses a problem and the students spontaneously suggest a range of possible solution of the problem. Initially no criticism is accepted or further participants are requested not to criticise any solution or suggestion. But finally the teacher evaluates the all possible solution and selects some of the solutions are good.

The main advantages of seminar as teaching strategy are as follows —

- develops higher cognitive abilities, like — analysis, synthesis, evaluation, organizing, critical thinking etc.
- develops affective behaviours, like—tolerance, openness, cooperation,
- develops study—habit, independent study etc.
- learner-centred and activity-centred approach, which are helpful for learning.
- develops self-reliance and self-confidence.

6.3.2 : CONFERENCES

This is a technique of higher learning to achieve the highest cognitive and affective domains. This technique is used to develop the abilities of problem solving, reflective thinking, evaluating and critical thinking. A conference is a meeting of individuals called together to engage in discussion with the aim of accomplishing a limited task with restriced time. In the area higher learning this is one of the most effective technique. In educational field, most of the conferences are organized on various research topics or problems. The problems are related to nation, society, religion, science, or education. Participants are usually take part in conferences for their own interest. They are not forced to join the conference. Generally conferences are organized periodically or annually. The topic of a conference is broad in nature and related to current problems.

In general, a conference has three stages —

At the first stage, the large group is divided into a number of small groups to discuss the different aspects of the selected topic. A convener is selected for each group by the chairman of the conference. Each group then meet and discuss in different rooms according to the specific aspect.

At the second stage, conveners of each group organize and conduct group discussion. The members of the group present their paper and point of views and these are followed by discussion. The convener prepares a note or report from the group discussion.

At the third and final stage, all the groups assemble in conference hall. It is known as validictory session. This session is presided over by the chairman. All the conveners present their reports on the particular aspect assigned to them. The reports of the conveners are again discussed by the participants. Then a final suggestion are prepared for the selected topic or problem.

In fact, a conference is a combination of number of seminars at a time. It has the same advantages as mentioned in seminars and also discussion techniques, which are discussed earlier.

6.3.3 : TUTORIALS

In general, group-teaching is emphasized or preferred so that a large number of students may be educated at the low rate of expenditure. For that reason lecture method is used very oftenly. But it creates some problem. A teacher can not solve the personal problems of each student. Therefore, there must be some follow up programme to meet the challenge. Tutorial strategy is that type of follow-up teaching strategy. Generally lecture method is followed by tutorials. This technique is highly individualized type of teaching.

Tutorials may be classified under three heads —

- *Supervision tutorial*—Here students and teacher meet regularly to discuss their problems.
- *Grouptutorials*—Group tutorials are arranged for solving the problems of pupils of average level.
- *Practical tutorials*—This technique is commonly used for both group and individual basis to achieve psychomotor skills in laboratory.

Procedure of turorial strategy : Tutorial classes are formed by considering the homogeneous type of difficulties of the learner. A teacher may proceed as follows —

- *Establishing rapport* — The teacher must consider the individual difference. She / he must try to win the confidence and trust of the students by establishing good rapport. Only then they express their difficulties before the teacher and willingly cooperate in tutoring session.
- *Finding the strengths and weakness* — Teacher should try to understand the nature of the problem by discussing with the students. Diagnostic tests may provide sufficient informations in this regard. Interview technique is also very useful in this respect.
- *Providing remedial or supplementary instruction or material* — On the basis of previous step, the teacher should plan, develop and provide remedial or supplementary instruction. It should be done on personal basis. If the students who faced difficulties are talented, then the supplementary material should be enriched in nature.
- *Evaluating and taking follow up programme* — After giving personalized instruction, the teacher should evaluate the performance and progress of his/her students. Achievement and also diagnostic test serve this purpose. Teacher, after getting proper feedback from students will take decision for further action. A proper follow-up programme should be considered.

Tutorials may be improved by considering the following—

- The group should be homogeneous in different aspects. Teacher should have the knowledge of social psychology, educational psychology and group dynamics.
- Remedial instruction should be based on testing of the nature of difficulties.
- Teacher should encourage each student of eel free to express this difficulties.
- Regular class teacher should be asked to help in detecting the initial problems.

6.3.4 : EDUCATIONAL GAMES

An educational game is an activity among two or more independent decision-makers seeking to achieve their objectives in some limiting content. Usually, it was considered as role playing, which stimulate or at least approximate real life situation for helping students to understand life situations and human behaviour. But now the idea or concept (Educational games) has expanded its meaning. Some considers it as a game designed to teach children abouta certain subject or help them learn a skill. It is actually education through entertainment. Some definitions of Educational Game are given below—

J. Gaugh — —Theyprovide participants with opportunities to experience learning through involvement in a training event. They are active rather than passive, and offer an effective fun and creative way of developing skills and knowledge. They introduce a sense of playfalness in another wise some times stressful world."

K. Jones — —Whatever the motive of running a game (enjoyment, education or competition) all the participants are in one role players. As player, they have a duty to try, to win and a scoring machine is provided to enable them to ascertain wins and winers and losers."

Ellington et.al — —Inan educational and training context games are exercises which involve competition and have set rules. The term covers an extremely wide range of exercises — everything from single card and board game to large management games and sophisticated competition."

Procedure of Educational Games — There is no rigid procedure for educational games. However, has mentioned the following stops for this technique —

- Identifying the problem to be used in simulation.
- Developing the outline of the simulation game.

- Identify the actors or teams of simulation.
- Identifying game resources.
- Playing the simulation games.
- Conducting post-game discussion.

Jones mentioned three stages in this technique.

First stage — This stage is called ‗idea stage'. In this stage formulates objectives and explores different ideas to materialize the objectives through educational games. Teachers and assistants may ‗brainstorm' the session to solve the problem.

Second stage — This stage is called ‗design stage'. The teacher should consider the following for designing—

- structured frame of the game.
- Each member can control the action and outcomes.
- Successful debriefing.

Third stage — This stage is called ‗testing stage". After designing the game, a trial or try-out should be conducted. This tryout gives feedback and necessary modification or rectification are done. The following points should be considered—

- It will not be too complicated or tough.
- it will have specific objectives.
- Particular advantages should be stated.
- It will be a joyful experience to the learner.

Teacher's Role — Here teacher plays a relatively non-directive role. The most and important directive part of the teacher remains in the debriefing or post-game session. In this session well evaluate the game.

Advantages :

- It develops cognitive and affective abilities.
- It enhances transfer of learning.
- It increases role awareness.

- It is easily followed by the students.
- Students usually enjoy the games.
- Social relationship gets flourished.

LET US SUM UP

Instructional objective is a very important and essential part of classroom teaching. It is a statement that will describe what the learner will be able to do after completing the instruction. There are three types of human behaviour — cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains of behaviour. In each domain there are certain categories of instructional objectives which are called taxonomy of instructional objectives. The writing of an instructional objective is very specific. The teacher must include four essential components — Audience (for whom), Behaviour (learning out come with the help of action verb), Condition and Degree or criterion. However, in many cases it is very difficult to determine the degree or criterion of correctness. There are different opinions regarding task analysis. But it can be said it is a process by which task is subdivided into different part and then the conditions of instruction are determined. Selection of appropriate instructional strategy depends on many things some of them are teacher-centred and others are learner-centred. Learner-Centred strategy is more effective than teacher-centred strategy. But teacher-centred approach is used in many classroom situations. There are some guidelines for designing each strategy.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Distinguish between 'Seminar' and conference.

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ASSIGNMENT

1. What do you mean by instructional objectives? Explain the importance of instructional objectives in instructional design system.
2. Classify the instructional objectives under each domain of behaviour.
3. Describe the steps of writing instructional objective with a suitable examples.
4. Write instructional objectives for each category of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain.
5. What is the meaning of "task analysis" ? Explain the importance of task analysis in designing instruction.
6. Select a task from your own interest and prepare a outline of task analysis of this task.
7. Suggest strategies to make lecture method effective.
8. Define "team teaching". Describe the important features of team teaching. What are the types of team teaching? Describe the procedure of team teaching.
9. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of team-teaching.
10. Explain discussion method as a teaching strategy. Mention some points to make discussion method effective.
11. What is panel discussion ? Describe the role of persons involved in panel discussion. How do you design a panel discussion?
12. What are the different types of seminar ? Describe the procedure of seminar method as a teaching strategy.
13. What do you mean by "conference"? Is there any difference between seminar and conference ? Describe the stages of conference.
14. What do you mean by tutorial ? Describe the procedure of tutorial method and mention strategies to improve this method.
15. What is "educational games' ? Describe the procedure or steps of educational games. Explain the role of a teacher in educational games.

ANSWERS TO CHECK OUR PROGRESS

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2. O
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TWO YEAR

POST GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMME

IN

EDUCATION

SEMESTER – III

PAPER : EDE - 02

Teacher Education (TE) - I

PERSPECTIVE (Elective)

SELF LEARNING MATERIAL

DIRECTORATE OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING
UNIVERSITY OF KALYANI
KALYANI – 741 235
WEST BENGAL

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Director's Message

Satisfying the varied needs of distance learners, overcoming the obstacle of distance and reaching the unreached students are the threefold functions catered by Open and Distance Learning (ODL) systems. The onus lies on writers, editors, production professionals and other personnel involved in the process to overcome the challenges inherent to curriculum design and production of relevant Self Learning Materials (SLMs). At the University of Kalyani a dedicated team under the able guidance of the Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor has invested its best efforts, professionally and in keeping with the demands of Post Graduate CBCS Programmes in Distance Mode to devise a self-sufficient curriculum for each course offered by the Directoate of Open and Distance Learning (DODL), University of Kalyani.

Development of printed SLMs for students admitted to the DODL within a limited time to cater to the academic requirements of the Course as per standards set by Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, India under Open and Distance Mode UGC Regulations, 2017 had been our endeavour. We are happy to have achieved our goal.

Utmost care and precision have been ensured in the development of the SLMs, making them useful to the learners, besides avoiding errors as far as practicable. Further suggestions from the stakeholders in this would be welcome.

During the production-process of the SLMs, the team continuously received positive stimulations and feedback from Professor (Dr.) Sankar Kumar Ghosh, Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, University of Kalyani, who kindly accorded directions, encouragements and suggestions, offered constructive criticism to develop it within proper requirements. We gracefully, acknowledge his inspiration and guidance.

Sincere gratitude is due to the respective chairpersons as well as each and every member of PGBOS (DODL), University of Kalyani. Heartfelt thanks is also due to the Course Writers-faculty members at the DODL, subject-experts serving at University Post Graduate departments and also to the authors and academicians whose academic contributions have

enriched the SLMs. We humbly acknowledge their valuable academic contributions. I would especially like to convey gratitude to all other University dignitaries and personnel involved either at the conceptual or operational level of the DODL of University of Kalyani.

Their persistent and co-ordinated efforts have resulted in the compilation of comprehensive, learner-friendly, flexible texts that meet the curriculum requirements of the Post Graduate Programme through Distance Mode.

All the Self Learning Materials are self writing and collected from e-book, journals and websites.

Director
Directorate of Open and Distance Learning
University of Kalyani

SEMESTER-III

Syllabus

Teacher Education (TE)

PERSPECTIVE (Elective)

(Full Marks-100)

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	Unit-3 : Recommendations of Various Commissions on Teacher Education in Post-Independence Era 3.1 : University Education Commission 3.2 : Secondary Education Commission 3.3 : Kothari Commission 3.4 : National Commission on Teachers 3.5 : NPE & POA	**1**
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	Unit-5 : Modification of Teacher Behaviours 5.1 : Micro Teaching 5.2 : Core Teaching Skills 5.3 : Classroom Interaction Analysis	**1**
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	Unit-2 : Elements of Models of Teaching 2.1 : Elements 2.2 : Assumptions	**1**

	Unit-3 : Families of Models of Teaching 3.1 : The Information Processing Models 3.2 : Personal Models 3.3 : The Social Interaction Models 3.4 : Behaviour Modification Models	**1**
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BLOCK-1

Evaluation and development of teacher education

Unit-1

Evolution and Development of Teacher Education

Unit-2

Teacher Education in a Changing Society and Teachers' Role

Unit-3

Recommendations of Various Commissions on Teacher Education in Post-Independence Era

Unit-4

Aims and Objectives of Teacher Education in Various Levels

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

This unit gives you some ideas on evolution as well as development platform of our teacher education systems, an integral component of the total education systems of our country. The underlying assumptions are that the teachers require education and they can be educated as every professional group is tuned up for performing some defined tasks driven by a publicly recognized professional code of ethics. The framework of teachers' competency and commitment has undergone changed in various dimensions as concepts like education, curriculum, and education's linkage with human development have changed. The changes are multifarious – training concept has been replaced by education; one-shot training concept has changed to lifelong education for the teachers; from requirements of teacher training only for the school teachers to teachers of all teachers; from local effort of teacher training to national/ global efforts for continuous lifelong teacher education for the non-formal, formal and distance teachers; need analysis and research for teacher education. That is today's teacher education is the results of interaction of many changes witnessed in the world, especially during the last fifty years or so. Not only this, it is now in a flux of change in the age of globalization and accelerated in-road of technology in teaching. However, this Unit gives you an evolutionary picture of teacher education in our country.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to:

- discuss, in brief, a historical development of teacher education system in our country ;
- analyze critically needs for teacher education in a changing society ;
- acquainted with the views and main recommendations of some major Indian documents and events on teacher education for improving its quality and effective functionality ;
- discuss critically aims and objectives of teacher education at different levels of education ladder, especially in India; and
- develop your own views on limitations, strengths and challenges of teacher education in India.

Unit-1

Evolution and Development of Teacher Education

1.1 : Need and Importance of Teacher Education

Since the dawn of civilization human society began to feel the need of having certain specific institutions where young people could be educated for preparing them as efficient members of family and community. Here, they were expected to acquire such knowledge and life-skills that the elders and experienced people in the society deemed necessary. For the purpose, some knowledgeable persons were selected and employed in the institutions for teaching the youngsters according to the requirement of the Society. Their job was to teach as such they were called Teachers, Shikshakas or Gurus.

In course of time, Society felt that these teachers needed some training and orientation for better performance in their profession. Certain teaching skills were identified which could help them transact necessary knowledge and information to the students to facilitate learning.

In India, during colonial period of educational developments Normal schools, Guru Training (G. T.) schools, primary training (P. T.) as they were called, came into being with a headmaster to conduct one-year training course for primary teachers. Sometimes a novel practice was accepted and used to be followed in primary schools, known as monitorial system where senior student of the school were asked by the headmaster to teach the students of lower classes. The G. T. and P. T. Schools were a step forward to this system. For Secondary Teachers. B. T. (Bachelors‘ Training) was conducted by the universities in their respective degree colleges or B. T. Colleges in imparting training for Teachers of Secondary Schools.

Teacher Training was the former concept at the beginning which meant only imparting some skills in the teacher for better performance as a professional person. These skills were, Speaking, Reading, Writing, delivering contents of subjects, asking questions, eliciting answers, giving feedback, use of Black Board, teaching aids and other instructional materials. To that end, training colleges and institutions were established and professionally experienced

meta-teachers were employed there who used to teach the teachers to educate their children in schools.

Gradually the society expected teachers to assume newer roles, not only in classrooms but in the community at large, for better understanding and interaction between the schools and community, as the students are to be perceived as individuals bearing indispensable imprints of the socio-cultural pattern of their families and communities which bound to lay impact on their learning mode in general and personality building in particular. To understand the students as individuals, the socio-cultural and economic context of the community they belong to, to have a clear perception of the psychology of their learning behaviour and of the stages of their cognitive, emotional, social development, to learn the methodological science of teaching different subjects, comprehensive packages of education the felt necessary and not only some discrete training programmes.

Now, there is a need for intervention as teacher training level in order to prepare teachers to suit different contexts, providing alternative pedagogical skills to teachers, orienting teachers to develop community partnership, etc. This implies change and revision in the teacher training context, provision of in-service training to teachers, developing alternatives mechanism to train teachers both during pre-service and in-service, breaking isolation among teachers and restraining the scope to teachers responsibilities to more of school as primary activities; preparation of teachers to meet the dynamic role in regard to the changing society.

Formal general education imparted by the conventional institutions is not at all sufficient of prepare a professional teacher out of a common educated person. Hence is the need of Teacher Education of which training is only a part, an integral part of course, of the package.

1.2 : Evolution of Teacher Education in the British India

With these general orientations we now move to see some historical orders of evolution of teacher education in India. The teachers were socially recognized persons and they enjoyed high status and honour since the dawn of Indian colure and education. However, systematic training for the teachers came into being at the beginning of the nineteenth century. In Bengal

the Calcutta School Society, established in 1819, took early steps to train teachers on the Lancastrian System. Then Woods Despatch (1854) stressed the training of teachers and envisaged ~~to~~ see establishment with as little as possible, of training schools, classes for masters in each presidency in India". This proved just lip sympathy and Stanley's Despatch (1859) admitted such lacuna in teacher training. The new grant-in-aid rules framed after 1859 asked certificate of teacher training for receiving government grants by the schools. As a result, the needs for training of teachers received an increased attention. Historical data show that in 1881-82 there were only 106 normal schools with 3,886 trainee teachers meant for elementary schools. The entry qualification of the trainees was completion of elementary education, duration of training varied from province to province and curriculum contained very little of pedagogical load and was tilted to imparting subject-matter knowledge needed for teaching pupils. Gradually, a system of apprenticeship by attaching pupil teachers to an experienced for a fixed period was evolved. During this time need for training of women teachers was realized. The idea was stimulated by Miss Marry Carpenter, a British educationalist; as a result by 1881- 82 about 15 normal schools for women were established usually in town areas. Two noteworthy training colleges were — Government Normal School (Madras, 1856) and Lahore Training School (1877), the former one introduced ideas of having model school and a practical school attached to it. A controversy prevailed at this time regarding the model of training curriculum – stress on subject matters to be taught to the pupils (French model) and more emphasis on pedagogy (German odel).

The need for definite training was articulated in the recommendations of the first Indian Commission of 1882 and that advocacy was also endorsed in the Government of India's Resolution on Education Policy, 1904. The said Commission urged for equitable distribution of normal schools in the country and recommended that: ~~a~~n examination in the principles and practice of teaching is instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher to any secondary school, Government or aided". The Commission further recognized need for separate training formats for the graduates and undergraduate teachers at least in two aspects-courses of training and syllabus. The Government Resolution of 1904 laid down some principles of teacher training of which some may be cited here. ―Forgraduates, training course should be a one-year — university course, leading to university degree or diploma. The course should be chiefly directed towards

imparting to them knowledge of the principles which underlie the art of teaching and some degree of technical skills in the practice of art. For others, it should be a two-year course, embracing the extension, consolidation and revision of their general studies to make them capable teachers". Moreover, it stressed for integration of theory with practice at school attached to the college, and an intimate connection between training college and the school for breaking isolation. This document may be a landmark resolution in teacher education and as a results history has witnessed establishment of teacher training colleges like S. T. College (Bombay, 1906), David Hare Training College (Calcutta, 1908), Patna Training College (1908), Decca Training College (1910) and the Spench Training College (Jabalpur, 1911).

The Calcutta University Commission, (1919) gave further stimulus to the concept of teacher education. It stressed on the need for systematic research and increasing output of trained teachers, creating a Department of Education in Indian University. The Hartog Committee, 1929 articulated importance of training of primary teacher and suggested that the standard of primary teachers should be raised, duration of the course should be lengthened, training institutions should be adequately staffed and frequent refresher and conferences should be arranged for the onward benefits of the in-service teachers and overall quality of teacher education should be elevated. Resultantly the proportion of trained teachers to the untrained increased markedly. In 1946-47 approximately 61.5 percent of secondary and primary teachers were trained although the percentage of trained teachers was hardly 29 for high schools, 37 for middle schools and 25 for primary schools in 1906- 07. How far such quantitative growth of teacher education was also qualitative one begs questions.

Since independence, a new conception of teacher education, in place of teacher training emerged for several reasons. Prof. S. N. Mukherjee has given a set of arguments — emergence of and envisaged motto of placing education in the centrality of all development plans in India, changes in the conceptions of education and teacher education in the world after World War-II, new developments in psychology, sociology, instructional sciences, science and technology, economics of education, stimuli given by UNO and its sisters organizations, etc.

Thus, during the last two hundred years teacher education systems in India has been shaped and witnessed changes both in its internal structure and mechanisms. However, that system did little care in injecting spirit of professionalism per se. The National Commission

on Teachers (1983-85) under the Chairman of Prof. D. P. Chattopadhyaya puts —Training of teachers demands urgent attention. A majority of our teaching colleges and training institutions are woefully inadequate in the context of changing needs of India today". Delors' (1996) report (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century) says that —education has a fundamental role to play in personal and social development." ...—Improving the quality of education depends on first improving the recruitment, training social status and conditions of work of teachers"... —The powerful relationship between teacher and learner is central to the teaching process."... —The Commission feels ...the importance of teachers in basic education and improving teachers' qualifications are tasks to which all governments must address themselves."

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Distinguish between teacher training and teacher education.
2. Write down two main limitations in teacher education system during the British rule in India.
3. Identify and state the main changes that you have observed in teacher education from 1854 to 1882.

Unit-2

Teacher Education in a Changing Society and Teachers' Role

2.1 : Teacher Education in a Changing Society

At the down of this millennium, human societies around the globe tend to become more and more dynamic though the pace of change is not always the same everywhere. Societies of all the nations of the world, in spite of the trends of the so-called globalization, are not advancing at the same pace. Even in the same country, different societies show different patterns of change and dynamism, unique for themselves. Some are still more tradition-bound and convention-stricken and less prone to change; some are accepting modernity comparatively at a faster rate, indifferent to traditional norms and mores and values, rapidly changing to adopt global trends — economic and socio-cultural.

In our country also, we experience varied dynamics of different societies — rural, semi urban, urban; urban super elites, urban elites, rural elites; urban middle-class, rural middle and lower middle and so on. In some other aspects, there are industrial societies, agricultural societies, mercantile societies, intellectual societies and so on, having different philosophies of life, different socio-political view point, different options of consumerist culture and life-style accordingly.

All societies are more or less concerned with impending explosions of various natures like information-explosion and knowledge-explosion, aspiration and expectation explosion, communication-explosion, population explosion on one hand, and on the other, maladies of pollution explosion, explosion of dehumanising elements in human behaviour, corruption explosion. These phenomena often cause and affect the following parameters in a society:

- Constantly growing and increasingly varied students' population in educational institutions;
- Urge for vertical and lateral socio-educational mobility of First Generation learners and learners coming from marginally backward communities;
- Inclusion of Parallel channels of education in the mainstream-education like, polyvalent classes, multivalent schools, integrated schools, non-graded schools, transitory courses, unstreamed classes, open schools, comprehensive schools, community colleges and so on.

- Introduction, accessibility and uses of newer technological gadgets and their know-how in day-to-day life that had widened the horizons of perception of the world around in respect of material pursuits as well as mental pursuits i.e. cognitive, affective and psychomotor pursuits and as such rapid transformation of the notions of the individual and groups in a community in regard to the craze for modernization.
- Changes in production process, development in science and technology, disparities in life-style, enjoyment of benefits of scientific and technological advancement.
- Globalization — that have compounded the problem of cultural imperialism as the majority of the under privileged tend to find their language, culture, values and whole way of life eroded by the invasion.
- Difference between the socio-economic condition of the classes and that of the masses that are getting widened day by day.

Under the circumstances, a teacher has to act as a catalyst of changes and has to respond to and counteract with certain tensions that have emerged in the changing society:

- approach to universal and globalized world citizenship without losing cultural identity and national identity of the students.
- to reconcile tradition and modernity in respect of knowledge, concept and values.
- to shift between short-term and long-term goals of education; to consider and respond to immediate problem without forgetting long-term goals.
- reconcile between the needs for competition as a consequence of global economics and concern for equality of opportunity.
- tension between the extra-ordinary expansion of knowledge and capacity of human beings to assimilate it.
- tension between the material and spiritual pursuits - to lift people‘ mind and spirit to the plane of the universal, acting in accordance with their tradition and conviction, paying full respect to pluralism.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Why Teacher Education needs reorientation in the changing society?

2.2 : Teachers' role in the context of the changing

On the aforesaid backdrop, we can look afresh to the teachers' role in a changing society and ascertain how Teacher Education could equip and empower a teacher to play his/her role efficiently.

The school has to be regarded and conceived as a microcosm within a macro-cosm, where s/he has to act as mediator between school and community.

Teacher has to keep abreast of the fast-changing academic, social and economic realities of the present day society.

S/he has to ensure community support to schooling, has to be a mediator between the school and community for their reciprocal development and updating.

With the new tools of communication and the advances of Educational Technology, teacher has to be reoriented beyond his/her academic role as subject-specialist and repository of knowledge and values into media-experts, instructional designers and team-manager.

Desire and ability to continue to learn and dedication to acquiring knowledge and its dissemination, need to be the important part of teachers' intellectual personality.

Teacher has to become aware of the handicaps of First Generation Learners (FGLs), their cognitive behaviour, emotional and language behaviour.

Teacher needs to continuously upgrade his/her knowledge, s/he has to promote competencies in students so that they are able to learn on their own and function effectively in a knowledge-driven society.

Teacher needs to inspire the pupils to seek knowledge, to arouse curiosity and inquisitiveness in the students.

Teacher is a dispenser and disseminator of knowledge and information.

Teacher is an animator to the students; s/he has to act as a facilitator of learning, inside and outside the classroom.

Teacher is a transformer of knowledge and information to cater to the needs of the students, school and society.

Teacher acts as a monitor to streamline the class-room behaviour of the students.

Teacher acts as a counsellor in solving students psychological problems to cognitive and affective behaviour, in helping them to select subjects of their choice according to their abilities and aptitudes.

Teacher Education, as a programme and curriculum, has to be continuously reconstructed and upgraded so that it can keep pace with the multi-dimensional role in the fast changing society which s/he has to work in. To build up a smart Professionalism in him/her as well as a versatile personality s/he has to undergo a preparatory curriculum comprising philosophical, sociological, psychological and pedagogical bases of Education as necessary components. This would constitute pre-service education of a teacher for imitation to teaching job. But this is not and should not be the Be-All and End-All of the process. Teacher needs a continuing and lifelong education for the purpose; s/he has to undertake formal and non-formal in-service education from time to time that has to be programmed and arranged by teacher-education institutions, regular and extra-moral. Society is changing fast, students need and aspiration, thirst for knowledge also growing fast, social, emotional and learning behaviour patterns are changing accordingly. Responsibilities of schools are changing and increasing to deliver the goods to cope with the needs and expectations of the community. Teacher is the sole performer as a mediator, a dispenser to translate that responsibility into actions, and as such, has to construct and reshape the comprehensive curriculum of the institution s/he serves. S/he has to conduct state of the art teaching-learning programme from the conceptual field of the global education to the classroom and from the class-room to students‘ mind - their perception and consolidation. Last and not the least, teacher education should quit the teacher to serve two major purposes: one, to educate students in academics or cognitive skills and knowledge, and two - develop in them individual social skills and knowledge necessary to become a useful adult member of the community and society.

Moreover, a teacher should equip a student with ethical, intellectual and emotional balance so that universalism, democracy in a technological united world could he achieved through the teachers in the class-room and outside class-room.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. How could you define teacher‘s role in the context of dynamics of the changing society?
2. What do you mean by Professionalism in teacher fraternity?

Unit-3

Recommendations of Various Commissions on Teacher Education in Post-Independence Era

3.1 : University Education Commission

In Post-Independent India, the following Education-Commissions were the major ones that put forwarded recommendations of educational reforms. Teacher Education also was a matter of concern to them, and they made relevant recommendations and observations accordingly.

In 1948, University Education Commission or Radhakrishnan Commission observed and recommended that —

(a) Our main criticism of the existing courses of Teacher Training is that, too little time is given to school practice, too little weight is given to practice in assessing the students‘ performance, and conditions of school practice are often unsatisfactory. We consider that in a year‘s course, not less than twelve weeks should be spent by the students in supervised school practice.

(b) Regarding the theory part of the B. Ed curriculum, the courses must be flexible and adaptable to local circumstances.

(c) Bulk of the staff of the training college be recruited from people who have firsthand experience of school teaching.

(d) The students be encouraged to proceed to the Masters Degree only after some years of experience to teaching.

3.2 : Secondary Education Commission

In 1952, Secondary Education Commission or the Mudaliar Commission observed and recommended that —

(1) During the one year training course, the graduate teachers should be trained in methods of teaching at least two subjects.

(2) The scope of the teacher training, particularly in its practical aspects, should be broadened to include some of its activities that a student-teacher will be expected to perform when the becomes a full-fledged teacher.

(3) For Higher Secondary passed students, the period of training should be two years. For graduates, the period should continue to be one academic year for the present, but extended as a long-term programme to two years.

(4) The teacher-trainees should receive training in one or more of the various co-curricular activities.

(5) The training colleges should, as a normal part of their work, arrange refresher courses, short intensive courses in special subjects, practical

(6) The training colleges should conduct researches in various important aspects of pedagogy.

(7) For the Masters' Degree in Education, only trained graduates who have normally done a minimum of three year's teaching should be admitted.

3.3 : Kothari Commission

Education Commission (1964-66) or Kothari Commission on Teacher Education, observed and recommended:

(1) In order to make the professional preparation of teachers effective, teacher Education must be brought into the mainstream of the academic life of the universities, on the one hand, and school life and educational development on the other. To that effect,

   (a) Recognition of education as an independent academic discipline and its introduction as an elective subject in the B.A./B.Sc and M.A./M.Sc. degree courses.

   (b) Establishment of schools of education in selected universities to develop Programmes in Teacher Education and studies and research in education, in collaboration with other university disciplines.

(2) Recognize extension work as an essential function of a Teacher Education institution and establish Extension Service Department in each institution, pre-primary, primary and secondary - as an integral part of it.

(3) Organisation of practice teaching in active collaboration with selected schools that would receive recognition from the Education Department as cooperating schools, getting special grant for equipment supervision.

(4) Provision must be made for study of the subjects to be taught in schools, in depth as well as in range. There is need to eliminate irrelevant matters and to relate the curriculum closely to the teachers responsibilities and to Indian conditions, problems and studies.

Major specific recommendations :

(1) Key area of educational development should be the professional preparation of teachers for the qualitative improvement of education.

(2) Teacher Education must be brought into the mainstream of the academic life of the universities.

(3) Qualitative improvement should be given highest importance. This can be done through the following:

(a) Organisation of well planned content courses in collaboration with university departments. Leading to insight into basic concepts, objectives and implications of subjects to the taught.

(b) Introduction of integrated courses of general and professional education in universities.

(c) Improving practice teaching and making it a comprehensive programme of internship.

(d) Using improved methods of teaching which give better scope for self-study, improved methods of evaluation through continuous internal assessment.

(e) Removing the existing isolation of teacher education from university life; isolation of teacher education from schools; isolation among the institutions preparing teachers for different stages of education.

(f) Establishing comprehensive colleges of education in each state;

(g) Establishing State Board of Teacher Education in each state to be responsible for all functions related to teacher education at all levels and in all fields.

(h) Duration of the professional courses should be two years for Primary Teachers who have completed secondary school course, and one year for graduate students, but this number of working days should be increased to 230 days in a year.

(i) Staff of the training colleges should have a double masters degree, in an academic subject and in education, qualified specialists in subjects like Psychology, Sociology, Science and mathematics may be appointed on the Staff even if they have not had professional training.

(j) Every Training Institution should have an Experimented or Demonstration school attached to it.

3.4 : National Commission on Teachers (1983-85)

Under the Chairmanship of Prof. D. P. Chattopadhyay, this Commission specified the objectives of Teacher Education on as follows:

To enable to trainee to acquire the basic skills and competencies of a good teacher as such as —

(1) To manage a class with pupils of varying abilities.

(2) To communicate ideas logically and with clarity.

(3) To use the technology available to make teaching effective.

(4) To organise educative experiences outside of class and to learn to work with the community and help the students to do so.

To break the isolation of Teacher education, as stated in the Kothari Commission, this Commission stated, education should be brought into the mainstream of the academic life of the universities.

The commission recommended for —

(a) Four year Training course after Senior Secondary leading to graduation and training. Each state should make a beginning by starting at least one 4-year integrated college of education.

(b) Two year training course for elementary teachers after class XII. The Possibility of developing of 4-year integrated course after class X with a built in-provision for upward mobility may also be explored.

(c) One year B. Ed. course should be extended by two summer months ensuring an academic session for 220 days.

(d) On the job-training. The approach could be tried out to recruit an untrained First Class graduate/post graduate and then give him on-the-job training to be followed by full training through Distance Education Programme.

(e) Elements of integrated 4-year curriculum: should consist of two elements, namely, general education and professional preparation.

(A) General education will include —

- Study of a language
- Three or four discipline subjects from among subject taught in school.
- Seminars, projects and study visits.

(B) Professional preparation part should consist of –

- Study of education as a discipline, including educational Psychology, Sociology of education and educational Philosophy.
- Content-cum methodology.
- Learning a variety of skills including educational technology and preparation of necessary software.

(f) Preparation of Teacher Educator —Teacher educators in colleges of Education should be drawn from disciplines of various school subjects and educational disciplines like Psychology, Sociology, and Philosophy etc. The minimum qualification for a teacher educator should be PG degree in the subject and a B. Ed., preferably an M. Ed. degree.

(g) Training curriculum for Elementary Teachers—It will consist of general education (Secondary level) sufficient emphasis needs to be given to the mastering of language and communication skills. Besides, pedagogy, Practice Teaching, development of skills in story-telling recitation, bb work, questioning and development of lessons.

During practice Teaching, internship ideas to be adopted, teacher should take on full responsibilities of a regular teacher of the school.

Teacher educator for elementary training institutes should have minimum qualification of Post Graduate degree with B. Ed. Training and continuing in-service education.

3.5 : NPE & POA

National Policy on Teacher Education and Programme of Action (1986)

All universities should have a Teacher Education Department with its teachers as students. Its central task should be to provide them with a sense of purpose and with a Philosophy of education. In view of the teachers‘ crucial role in improving the quality and coverage of education, the new educational policy attaches very high importance to pre-service components of teachers education.

As a follow up measure of National policy on Education Government India came out with a concrete and specific programme of Action (POA).

(1) As the first step towards educational reorganisation, selected Educational Institutions would be developed as DIET, it District Institute of Education and Training, for both pre-service and In-service courses of elementary school teachers and for continued education of the personnel working in Non-Formal and adult education programme. Reorganisation of Secondary Teacher education system is also implied in the Policy.

Academic support to school complex and District Based on Education should be extended by the DIET.

DIET would also provide support for Action Research and other experimental work. Facilities of latest Technology such as computer based learning, VCR, TV etc. will be provided by the DIETS.

(2) About Secondary Teacher Education, POA stated that responsibility for Secondary Teacher Education would continue to rest with colleges of Teacher Education affiliated to Universities. University in cooperation with NCTE will exercise responsibility for academic aspects including conduct of examination, award of degrees and ensuring quality of Secondary Teacher education institutions.

(3) Comprehensive institution —

Some colleges of Teacher education will be developed as comprehensive colleges. This college will organise programmes for —

1) Primary Teacher education.
2) 4-years integrated courses after secondary stage.

3) Usual B. Ed., M. Ed. courses.
4) Provide facilities and staff for undertaking research and supplement efforts of SCERT, State Council of Educational Research & Training.

(4) In order to promote innovations and experimentation, good colleges and Departments of Education of Universities will also be given autonomous status.

(5) Distance in service education — This will be prepared by and extended with the help of broadcasting agencies. SCERTs, comprehensive colleges of Education and DIETs would be provided with necessary resources for production of learning materials of training programmes. Experiences of similar voluntary organization should be drawn upon n designing courses, development of materials and strategies for in service education.

(6) Role of NCTE

As an important counterpart of NCERT, NCTE of National council of Teacher Education has been in existence since 1973. It was supposed to perform the functions like —

(i) Accreditation and disaccredition of institutions of Teacher Education.
(ii) Laying down standards and norms for Teacher Education institutions.
(iii) Development of guidelines for curricula and methods of Teacher Education.

NPE and POA suggested that NCTE will be conferred autonomous and statutory status to perform the aforesaid functions.

(In 1993 it was given the status by an Act of Parliament)

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What impact was expected to be found by the recommendation of Secondary Education Commission?
2. Write two important recommendations made by the National Commission on Teacher?
3. Indicate limitations of NPE with respect to some important aspects of teacher education.

Unit-4

Aims and Objectives of Teacher Education in Various Levels

While defining aims and objectives of Teacher Education at different levels of education, it becomes necessary to examine and analyse the nature and condition of education of respective levels and their perspectives.

4.1 : Aims and Objectives of teacher education at Elementary Stage

Elementary education is being conducted as comprising three subsystems —

(a) ECE - Early childhood education, 2-3 years, Age 2/3 to 5/6.

(b) Lower primary - 5 years, Age 5/6 to 10/11, Classes - Formal I - IV/V.

(c) Upper primary or Junior High —

3 years, Age 10/12 to 13/14 classes V/VI to VIII. If the Society has the commitment to ensure Education For All, (EFA), the objectives nature and Scope of Elementary Education must be taken care of.

Major areas concerned with the above parameters are —

1. Language – difference in languages spoken in school and spoken at home; differences in language, dialects of the same language, vocabulary and accents due to regional variations.
2. Scripts used in languages – State language, mother tongue / First Language / Second language. etc. — incapability and problems in handling the skills.
3. Developing basic communication skills – Listening, speaking, reading, writing, differences cause tensions.
4. Culture conflict, Sub-culture conflict; due to difficulties in social access – physical, due to geographical peculiarities, rigid norms and routine strategies of families; gender inequalities – indifference towards girl children.

   Children coming from First Generation Learner (FGL) families, coming from disadvantaged groups.
5. Tensions among the students/children coming from different SES (Socio-economic status) families.

6. Emotional Stress – in children coming from different ethnic minorities, dispersed persons in remote and inaccessible areas, urban poor (slum -children), street children, working children.

   What to do: (objectives of Elementary Teacher Education)

   a) Bridging gaps between home and school, Socialization of children, acquaintance with the stages of Psychological development of a child, starts from early childhood to pre-adolescence; to render scientific treatment to the individuals of heterogeneous communities.
   b) Providing alternative pedagogical skills to teachers, orienting them to develop community partnership.
   c) Empowering local bodies to take responsibility in monitoring school management and community partnership and sensitization.
   d) Working jointly with schemes of child welfare (ICDS - Integrated Child Development Scheme) etc, receiving and providing feedback for reciprocal enrichment.
   e) Develop schooling habit in children – Sense training, health habits, self-help practices, attitudinal adjustment to live with peers and learning together
   f) Develop and restructure action-curriculum integrating play way activities, content knowledge and life-skills.

To realise all these objectives, teachers are to get familiar with, and involved in, the national and state level programmes like DPEP (District Primary Education Project), NFE (Non-Formal Education), SSA (Sarva Siksha Abhijan), NIOS (National Institute of Open Schools), and explore the programmes there in to exploit them for improvement of his/her school environment and status.

Teachers are to be involved in preparation of quality training/ instructional materials and proper use of the same in the classroom.

Series of regular in-service training programmes and packages of continuing education are to be organized and prepared for the purpose – Necessary infrastructure is to be provided by respective authorities and agencies who are again, to be professionally trained and equipped.

Specific Objectives

The teacher is expected to be enable to —

1. develop understanding of the psychological and sociological principles relevant to the elementary stage of education.
2. select, prepare and use appropriate resources for organizing learning experiences.
3. acquaint methods and materials of teaching children with variant needs, ability, aptitude and interest.
4. develop capacity to solve social and emotional problems of children.
5. acquire skills necessary to develop curiosity, imagination and self-confidence among children.
6. develop communications skills.
7. organize games, sports, physical and other co-curricular activities.
8. mobilize and utilize community resources as educational inputs.
9. organize supplementary educational activities.
10. undertake action research projects as and when necessary.
11. establish mutually supportive linkages with the community.
12. have willingness to maintain professional code of conduct,
13. be a life-long learner.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write down two main objectives of Elementary Teacher Education?
2. Formulate three specific objectives of Elementary Teacher Education.

4.2 : Aims and Objectives of teacher education at Secondary Stage

Secondary Education comprises two sub-systems.

(1) Lower Secondary.

(2) Upper/Higher Secondary.

Lower Secondary stage comprise 5/6 classes — V/VI to X. Age - 11/12 to 16.

The Junior High stage (VI - VIII) actually falls under Secondary stage though in is included in EFA (Education For All Programme) for universalization of education up to Age K‘, and some schools are there which have two Sections —

(1) Primary (I - IV/V)

(2) Junior High (VI - VIII)

All the lower secondary Schools have combined the two stages – Upper Primary or Junior High V/VI - VIII and lower Secondary IX - X.

Higher/Upper Secondary stage comprises two classes — (XI - XII). Age group 16-18.

Objectives of Secondary Teacher Education –

(1) Psychologically, this (Secondary) Stage is very crucial because here the child passes from pre-adolescence to adolescence and reaches post adolescence and adulthood. This is known as a period of Psycho-Social stress and strain. Newer emotional sensitivities, maturity in Socialization and entry to the mysterious world of covert and overt sexual behaviour, drive them to some sort of indiscipline and revolt to the conventions and mores of society. On this background, Teachers should be professionally equipped to counsel, guide and monitor the students skilfully and sympathetically and transact knowledge, skills and values that are expected from them.

(2) Through Teacher Education, a teacher has to be made professionally competent, pedagogically sound and intellectually strong.

(3) Reorganization and incorporation of content-cum-methodology courses in Teacher Education Programme which could enrich teachers‘ professional skills in addition to the formal university/institutional degrees in their respective subjects to teaching.

(4) Acquaintance with ICT (information - communication - technology) to cope with the present day knowledge - explosion, to ensure their participation in community partnership, to develop attitude and ability to act as a Social Engineer.

(5) To act according to the present day assumption that Secondary Education is a gateway for Higher Education and also a vital link to the world of work, Technical and vocational education need to be developed and closely linked with the employment sector.

(6) Provision of in-service and continuing Teacher Education Programme and alternative mechanisms of distance modes of Education for regular refreshment of teachers‘ content knowledge and pedagogical skills.

(7) Developing linkages among the sister - institutions and universities to break isolation among teacher fraternities.

(8) To construct and administer programmes to update the teachers‘ knowledge and information in their content areas, areas of up-to-date educational technology for helping students in learn to learn programmes in and outside classroom.

(9) Proper coordination to be maintained in the curriculum between theory and practice to enable teachers to face problems and challenges. Latest educational developments in the country and the world should be reflected in-in-service programmes.

Specific Objectives

The teacher is expected to be enable to —

1. Understand the nature, purpose and philosophy of secondary education and its linkages with human resource development.
2. Understand psychology of adolescents.
3. Understand process of socialization among adolescents.
4. Understand competencies relevant to stages specific pedagogy, curriculum development, its transaction and evaluation.
5. Make pedagogical analysis of the subject knowledge which are to be taught.
6. Develop skills for guidance and counselling.
7. Foster creative thinking among the learners.
8. Develop communication skills.
9. Acquaint with the factors and forces affecting educational system and classroom situations.
10. Acquaint educational needs of students with divergent needs, ability, aptitude and interest.
11. Utilize community resources as educational inputs.
12. Develop skills for application of instructional aids in classroom teaching.
13. Develop competency in using ICT gear in teaching.
14. Develop aesthetic sensibilities.
15. Perform action research for solution of problems and perfecting professional competency.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Formulate three specific objectives of Secondary Teacher Education?

14. What are the two fundamental Competencies to be developed for the secondary school teacher?

4.3 : Aims and Objectives of teacher education at College Level

Previously and probably till date, the academic community is much concerned with training/education of teachers at school level — elementary and secondary. College and university teachers are accustomed to rest assured that their only task is lecturing in the class and ask students to take note of that. Of course, there are certain individuals who are serious about their self-enrichment in subjects through research and studies, there are also some such people who are seriously concerned with the mode and method of transaction, understanding students' psychology of learning and reception of the content delivered. But these were not taken care of institutionally and programmes of their continuing in-service education were not constructed by the universities/ institutes of the kind.

Recently the National Government, through its various agencies, recommended and asked the universities to establish Academic staff colleges for conducting regular in-service orientation and continuing education courses for professional enrichment of the teachers in their own content subjects areas and modern psycho-sociological factors of teaching-learning methodology. Basic assumptions behind is that, teachers as they are, at any level of teaching, have to undergo certain type of Teacher Education appropriate in terms of content transaction, classroom management, preparation and use of proper evaluation tools and use of education as a means for sustainable development.

Objectives :

(1) To orient the teachers in the areas of concern for higher education (as envisaged in Delor's Commission)-

- Education and culture.
- Education and citizenship.
- Education and social cohesion.
- Education and work and employment.
- Education and Development.
- Education and Research and Science.

(2) Competency in the following aspects should be attempted to develop through Teacher Education at all levels in general and higher education in particular contextual competencies, conceptual competencies, context competencies,

transactional competencies, competencies in developing teaching-learning materials, Evaluation competencies, competencies in working with the community.

(3) Teacher Education programmes should highlight the commitment part as well as performance part in transaction — commitment to the learners, to the society, to professional excellence, to research and to life-long learning process.

Priority to be given to performance part also. Performance within the classroom, outside the classroom and out of the institution – as curriculum developer, in DIETS (District Institute of Education & Training). IASE (Institute of Advances studies in Education) ASC (Academic Staff Colleges) and universities.

(4) University Departments of Education and Colleges of Education have to conduct Pre-service and In-service courses to train Teacher Educators, Faculty members, administrators, Supervisors and Inspectors of SCERTs, DIETs, IASEs, etc. through conventional and Distance modes. These departments should act in coordination with other departments of content subjects, seeking their help and cooperation.

(5) College and university teachers, teaching subjects other than education and other attend subjects like Psychology, Sociology, Philosophy etc. should also undertake refresher courses for content-enrichment and updating their knowledge and information. Not only that, they have to learn that teaching itself is a teaching learning process where teacher is also a co-learner with the students. They have to learn that as they are dealing with human elements, e.c. the students, they have to be concerned with psychology of motivation, of learning habit, reception and conceptualization of contents and, never the less, of effective class-room management; have to be concerned with sociology of behaviour of students having allegiance to varied political organizations and belongingness to varied family-sub cultures.

(6) These teachers have to be familiar with and sincerely understand the impact of the present-day dictums of educational parlance like – ECE, EFA, SSA — the programmes for ensuring universal and compulsory elementary Education which are to be closely and organically linked with the objectives and functions of universities and Institutes of higher education. Moreover, teachers of higher education should be adequately knowledgeable about ESD, (education for

sustainable development, which means, faculties of education must decide which themes of emphasize within the curriculum, programmes, practices and policies to ensure that teacher education programmes fit the environmental, social and economic conditions and development of their communities, regions and nation). They should be knowledgeable about ICT, information — communication Technology, which provides a sound Pedagogy-technology-interface and integration. Interactivity, flexibility and convenience have become the humark of ICT-supported teaching-learning environment. Interactivity - to explore access, represent information dynamically and in multimode forms. Flexibility - of partial and temporal dimension changes the ways of teaching and learning.

Convenience - it has opened up immense opportunity for the learners to access, extend, transform and share information and ideas at their own pace and time.

ICT started its journey primarily with productive tools, proceeded to self-learning course ware and multimodal instructions and finally progressed to web-based learning-management system.

Through ESD and ICT, teachers of higher education can grow in them state of the Art competence and knowledge of educational management - academic and administrative.

Building efficiency in higher education has been focused greatly since the National Policy on Education, 1986. This emphasizes introduction of teacher education for teachers engaged in colleges and universities. This may be taken as an evolutionary idea as earlier the needs for professional education of the teachers of college and university had never been realized. The simple belief was that a well qualified person can teach well, she/he needs no professional training and education. The policy document puts: ―Thepresent system does not accord teachers a proper economic and social status opportunities for professional and Career development, initiative for innovation and creative work, proper orientation in concept, techniques and value system to fulfil their role and responsibilities. Motivation of teachers is important for implementation of the policy.” In order to achieve this, the policy document proposed:

a. Organize specially designed orientation programmes in teaching methodologies,
b. Pedagogy, educational psychology, etc. for all new entrants at the level of lecturers.

c. To organize refresher courses for serving teachers to cover every teacher at last once in 5 years.

d. To organize orientation programmes by using the internal resources of

e. Universities and by bringing a number of college teacher.

f. To encourage teachers to participate in seminars, symposia, etc.

Since then four weeks Orientation Programme and three weeks Refresher Course have been mandatory for every teacher of colleges and universities under some UGC stipulation and conditions. Some Academic Staff Colleges (ASC) has been established although our country, attached to some selected universities. Such teacher education programmes have been a regular feature of ASCs for imparting in-service education of teachers of colleges and universities.

Our learning about this Unit will be complete if we overlook *education of teacher educators*. Today nearly 50,000 teachers educators are engaged in a huge (numbering about 6000) systems of teacher education institutions, colleges, universities, DIETs, CTEs, IASEs, SCERTs and NCERT. They are the catalyst of change in teacher development. Along with these, the National University of Educational Planning and Administration is the apex organizations for professional education of education managers including teachers educators. It is true that the professional quality of teacher educators determine partly the quality of teacher education and in turn quality of professional education of classroom teachers.

The rationale behind such programmes may be stated that education and training of teacher educators has to focus on the new role of this professional group on the problems which pins the emerging national and global trends in education and the overall needs and aspirations of people of India. Admittedly, the objectives may be highlighted as below:

1. Develop update of knowledge, competencies and skills needed for preparation of teachers in the changing orders of Indian society.
2. Develop pedagogy relevant to the education of teacher educators.
3. Update understanding of needs and problems of teacher education and educational institutions.
4. Develop and also update competencies of curriculum development, preparation of learning and evaluation materials.
5. Develop further management of learning and institutions.

6. Acquire capabilities to organize in-service continuing education for teachers.
7. Develop competency for use of ICT and other modern technology — soft and hard- for augmenting learning.
8. Understand the relationships of Indian ethos, modern technology and paradigm shifts in learning.
9. Develop capacities to interpret Indian heritage, culture, values and indigenous pedagogy leading to local knowledge in the emerging social orders.
10. Develop competencies and commitment to undertake research and publications.
11. Develop mind set to continuous professional learning by participating and also organizing seminar, conference, workshop, etc.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the necessities of Teacher Education for teachers of Higher Education?

2. Elaborate the concepts of ESD and ICT, particularly in the context of education of College teachers?

LET US SUM UP

This Unit has given us a general orientation to teacher education which is held as an integral component of the total education systems. In the contemporary world orders we are living in a continuous flow of change and therefore, needs for changes in teacher education is relevant if we like to aspire and also consume quality education for all at every steps of life. Teacher education is now implying a continuous lifelong education for teachers and this education has melted down the dividing walls between initial/pre-service and in-service teacher education.

In this Unit we have learnt evolution of teacher education in our country, role of teachers in the changing orders of our present society. We have also been enriched with the ideas and recommendations what have come from various reports, policy documents, etc. and each of them have suggested for improvement of teacher education. We have also been enriched with our understanding about aims and objectives of teacher education at different stages of our education.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. Discuss evolution of teacher education in India, since 1947.
2. Justify the needs, relevance and importance of teacher education in the changing orders of Indian Society.
3. What are the recommendations of Kothari Commission that have been implemented and considered in NPE, POAs and NCTE documents?
4. Discuss roles of NCTE in teacher education system.
5. Critically discuss objectives of teacher education for teachers at Elementary and Secondary stages.
6. Write down needs for teacher education at College and University levels. Discuss the present conditions of UGC sponsored orientation and refresher programmes in India.

BLOCK-2

Student teaching programmes

Unit-1

Teaching Objectives : Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

Unit-2

Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

Unit-3

Teacher Education and Practicing School

Unit-4

Teacher Education and Community

Unit-5

Modification of Teacher Behaviours

Unit-6

Evaluation of Student Teaching

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

In this Unit more than one concepts and technicalities in relation to teacher education with the broad intention to learn some important aspects of initial teacher preparation programme have been our learning objectives. These are about instructional (teaching) objectives; relation of teacher education and practicing schools (actual place for applying theory to practice), teacher education and community, techniques of teacher training (especially in simulated scaled down teaching encounters); and evaluation of student teaching.

One clarification is needed at outset which is about the term teaching objectives, more technically called instructional objectives, which are referred to the end product of pupil learning expressed in behavioural terms. Instructional objectives indentify the end product of instruction with the convention in mind that the goal of teaching/ instruction is to insert some conditions by the teacher in the learning-teaching environments that facilitate pupil learning. The teacher‘s conscious actions are called teaching acts (observable, measurable and modifiable). Then the teacher‘s job is to perform some tasks for causing pupil learning. These tasks are selected by the teacher taking in cognizance of the kind and quality of pupil learning will be caused. Hence, understanding instructional objectives and expressing them in observable and measurable terms are most important. In this sense the teaching or instructional objectives may be held as the centre of teacher education.

OBJECTIVES

You will be able to:

1. Be acquainted with Taxonomy of Educational objectives for understanding clearly task analysis of learning objectives according to Bloom and his associates.
2. Understand the activities in and approaches to teacher preparation in practice teaching schools.
3. Develop your professional knowledge about relation of teacher education and community.
4. Understand some technicalities about core teaching skills and their drill in scaled down simulated condition in micro-teaching format.
5. Get acquaintance with Flanders Verbal Interaction Analysis; and.
6. Develop competence in understanding evaluation of student teaching.

Unit-1

Teaching Objectives: Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

1.1 : Basic concept of Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

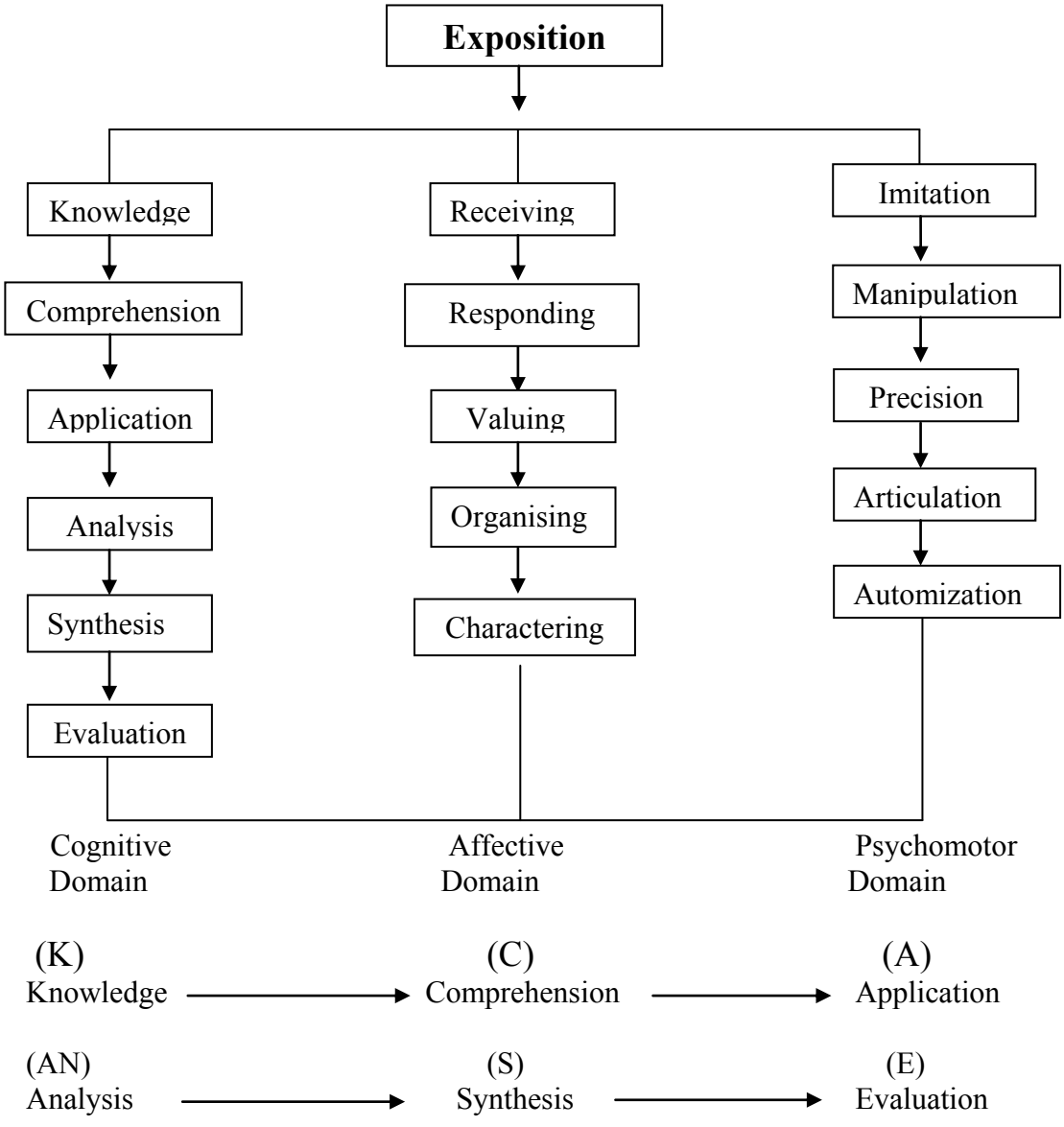
We have learnt that instructional objectives tell us the terminal behaviour or say, terminal performance of pupil learning. A full description of the terminal performance is technically called task description. But mere description of tasks to be performed by the learner at that end point of learning is not very profitable to us. To be more systematic we must have to analyse tasks of learning in some scientific manner. In this task analysis we identify classes of behaviour which differ in respect to the conditions necessary for pupil learning. The chief purpose of task analysis is to help teacher determine the specific tasks the pupil has to perform.

There is more than one system which can be utilized for task analysis. We shall in this Unit mention and explain only one which has been developed by many experts of which Benjamin Bloom and his associates are the leaders. They have developed a method for classifying educational objectives, a process we have called task analysis. This is known as Taxonomy (the science of classification) of Educational Objectives. We have in our stock of knowledge three separate classification system for expressing and defining multiple educational objectives that are translated into instructional objectives. These are popularly grouped into three domains representing our intellectual, feeling and movement activities—Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor.

Some general features of such Taxonomy may be viewed as:

1. Since the taxonomy is to be used in regard to existing educational units and programs, the major distinctions between classes should reflect, in large part, the distinction features make among student behaviours. These distinctions are revealed in the ways teachers state educational objectives.
2. A second principle is that the taxonomy should be logically developed and internally consistent. Thus, each term should be defined and used in a consistent way throughout the taxonomy.

3. A third principle is that the taxonomy should be consistent with our present understanding of psychologically phenomena. Those distinction which are psychologically untenable, even though regularly made by teachers, would be avoided.
4. A fourth principle is that the classification should be a purely descriptive scheme in which even type of educational goal can be represented in, relatively neutral fashion.



Unit-2

Taxonomy of Educational Objectives

2.1 : The Cognitive Domain (Bloom) Objectives

Six layers of knowledge Domain are:

1. Knowledge Objective

Knowledge is defined as recall of specifics and universals, recall of methods and processes or the recall of a pattern, structure or setting. This objective stresses the psychological process of remembering.

(a) Knowledge of specifics includes.
  (i) Knowledge of terminology.
  (ii) Knowledge of specific facts.

(b) Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics:
  (i) Knowledge of conventions.
  (ii) Knowledge of trends and sequence.
  (iii) Knowledge of classifications and categories.
  (iv) Knowledge of criteria.
  (v) Knowledge of methodology.

(c) Knowledge of the universal and abstractions in a field.
  (i) Knowledge of principles and generalizations.
  (ii) Knowledge of theories and structures

2. Comprehension

(i) Translation.

(ii) Interpretation.

(iii) Extrapolation.

3. Application

It involves the application of a concept to new or unfamiliar situations.

4. Analysis

It implies the breaking down of a communication into its constituent elements or parts so that relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear.

(i) Analysis of elements.

(ii) Analysis of relationship.

(iii) Analysis of organizational principles.

5. **Synthesis**

   It refers to putting together of elements and parts into a whole.

   (i) Production of a unique communication.

   (ii) Production of a plan or a proposed set of operations.

   (iii) Derivation of a set of abstract relations.

6. **Evaluation**

   It refers to the judgments about the values of materials and methods for given objectives.

   (i) Judgment in terms of internal evidence.

   (ii) Judgment in terms of external criteria.

Above mentioned objectives are clarified as under:

1. **Knowledge :** It is defined as the remembering of previously learned material. It represents the lowest level of learning outcomes in the cognitive domain.
2. **Comprehension :** It is defined as the ability to grasp the meaning of material. The learning outcomes go one step beyond the simple understanding of material and represent the lowest level of understanding.
3. **Application :** It is the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. Learning outcomes in this area require a higher level of understanding than those under comprehension.
4. **Analysis :** It refers to the ability to breakdown material into its component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. Learning outcomes here represent a higher intellectual level than comprehension and application because they require an understanding of both the content and the structural form of the material.
5. **Synthesis :** Synthesis refers to the ability to put parts together to form a new whole. Learning outcomes in the area stress creative behaviours, with major emphasis on the formulation of new patterns or structures.

6. **Evaluation :** Evaluation is concerned with the ability to judge the value or material (Statement, novel, poem, research report) for a given purpose. Judgments are to be based on definite criteria.

Objectives and Mental Process or Ability in Bloom's Taxonomy are as:

Objective	Mental Process or Ability
1. Knowledge	1. Recall
	2. Recognize
2. Comprehension	1. See relationship
	2. Cite example
	3. Discriminate
	4. Classify
	5. Interest
	6. Verify
	7. Generalize
3. Application	1. Reason
	2. Formulate
	3. Establish
	4. Infer
	5. Predict
4. Analysis	Analyse
5. Synthesis	Synthesize
6. Evaluation	Evaluate

Cognitive Objectives and Associated Words Verbs

Objective	Associated Action Verbs
1. Knowledge	1. Define 2. State 3.List 4.Name 5.Write 6. Recall 7. Recognize 8. Label 9. Underline 10. Select 11. Reproduce 12. Measure
2. Comprehension	1. Identify 2. Justify 3. Select 4. Indicate 5. Illustrate 6. Represent 7. Name 8. Formulate 9. Explain 10. Judge 11. Contrast 12. Classify
3. Application	1. Predict 2. Select 3. Assess 4. Explain 5. Choose 6. Find 7. Show 8. Demonstrate 9. Construct 10. Compute 11. Use 12. Perform
4. Analysis	1. Analyze 2. Identify 3. Conclude 4. Differentiate 5. Select 6. Separate 7. Compare 8. Contrast 9. Justify 10. Resolve 11. Breakdown 12. Criticize
5. Synthesis	1. Combine 2. Restate 3. Summarize 4. Precise 5. Argue 6. Discuss 7. Organize 8. Derive 9. Select 10. Relate 11. Generalize 12. Conclude
6. Evaluation	1. Judge 2. Evaluate 3. Determine 4. Recognize 5. Support 6. Defend 7. Attack8.Criticize 9. Identify 10. Avoid 11. Select 12.Choose

2.2: Affective Domain Objectives

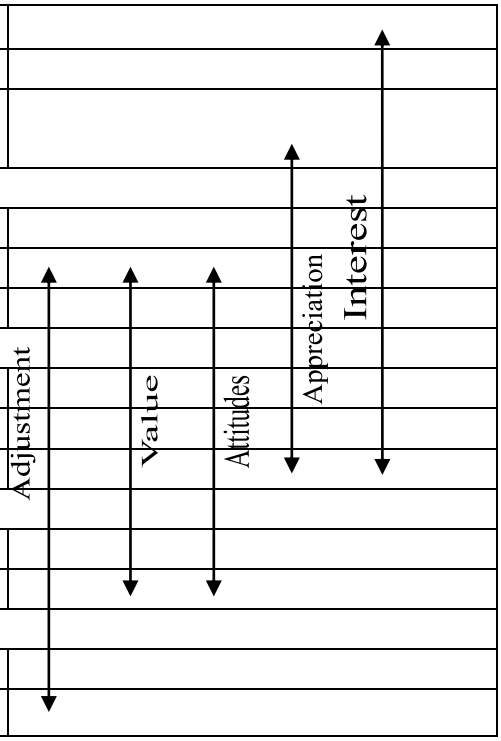
Five layers of Affective Domain are:

1. Receiving (attending
    - Awareness
    - Willingness to receive
    - Controlled or selected attention

2. Responding
    - Acquiescence in responding
    - Willingness to respond
    - Satisfaction in response
3. Valuing
    - Acceptance of a value
    - Preference for value
    - Commitment (Conviction)
4. Organization
    - Conceptualization of a value
    - Organization of a value system
5. Characterization by a value or value complexes
    - Generalized set
    - Characterization

Relation of the Affective Domain Structure to Common Affective Terms

Receiving	**Awareness**	
	Willingness to receive	
	Controlled or Selected attention	
Responding	Acquiescence in responding	
	Willingness to respond	
	Satisfaction in response	
Valuing	Acceptance of a value	
	Preference for a value	
	Commitment	
Organization	Conceptualization of a value	
	Organization of value system	
Characterization by a value	Generalized set	
	Characterization	



Relations between the Taxonomy Categories of the two Domains

When one looks for relations between the subcategories of the two domains one finds that clearly overlap. This overlap is implicated in the following descriptions of roughly parallel steps in the two continua. The terms set in italic are used as heads of divisions in the Taxonomy of the cognitive or affective domains.

1.	The Cognitive continuum begins with the students recall and recognition of knowledge.	1.	The affective continuous begins with the student‘s merely receiving stimuli and passively attending to it. It extends through his more actively attending to it.
2.	It extends through his comprehension of the knowledge.	2.	His responding to stimuli on request. Willingly responding to these stimuli and taking satisfaction in this responding.
3.	His skill in application of the knowledge that he comprehends.	3.	His valuing the phenomenon or activity so that he voluntarily responds and seeks out ways to respond.
4.	His skill in Analysis of situations involving this knowledge, his skill synthesis of this knowledge into new organizations.	4.	His conceptualization of each value respond to.
5.	His skill in evaluation in that area of knowledge to judge the value material and methods for given purposes.	5.	His organization of this of values into systems and Finally organizing the value complex into a signal whole a characterization of the individual.

Explanations :

Objectives in these domain concern feelings an attitude that students are expected to develop as a result of instruction. Affective learning is not completely separable from cognitive learning. Students invariably think about their feelings and attitudes when they learn various categories of affective domain which have been briefly discussed below-

1. **Receiving (attending and awareness) :**

   This is the first and the lowest level of the objectives under affective domain. At this level, we are concerned with the students sensitivity to certain stimuli; i.e., whether he is willing to receive or attend to the stimuli. It is like a teacher catching students attention. Awareness about the information, willingness to receive the information and the selective nature of attention are the important levels of receiving. These levels are responsible for making students learning-oriented.

2. **Responding (action, feelings, movement, and change) :**

   It is the next higher level to simple awareness or attention. This category implies greater motivation and regularity in attention. It may also for practical considerations, be described as interest by which we mean a tendency to respond to a particular object or stimuli. Interest in turn is evidenced at three levels:

   (a) Compliance when expected. For example, willingness to comply with health rules.

   (b) Voluntary response. For example, the student takes care of his health and that of others too.

   (c) Response with emotional pleasure. For example, the student feels satisfaction in looking after sick persons.

3. **Valuing (Worth, Utility and Cause-effect relationship) :**

   This is the third level under affective domain and implies commitment to certain ideas or values. This objective includes development of attitudes. For example, the development of scientific attitude plays a role in developing of scientific attitude plays a role in developing a preference for information acquired from empirical evidence rather than opinions of other people, a disregard for superstition, willingness to suspend judgment until there is ample evidence to make a judgment, etc.

4. **Organization (Judging, integrating, categorizing) :**

   This level pertains to building a system of values. At this level, values are

conceptualized and conflicts between the values are resolved and interrelationships are established. This level of affective behaviour involves the cognitive behaviours of analysis and synthesis. Development of one's own code of conduct or standard of Public life is an example of the organization of a value system.

5. **Characterization (Sustained use of new values and expressions of Commitment) :** Characterization by a value and set of values is at the top of affective domain. It regulates a person's behaviour through certain values, ideas or beliefs and the integration of values and attitudes into a world view or total philosophy of life of his own.

   The taxonomy of the affective domain may not appear quite hierarchical. But nevertheless the categories become increasingly complex as we move from receiving to characterization. This is not only a taxonomical consideration but also a useful educational principle.

2.3 : Psychomotor Domain Objectives

The psychomotor domain is based on the concept of coordination among various organs of the body. The domain includes muscular action and neuromuscular coordination. Educational objectives in this domain aim at developing proficiency in performing certain acts by effecting the best possible coordination between psychic and muscular action and also between different muscular actions performed by various parts of the body. In this domain, learning depends on mastery of a physical skill. In this domain five broad categories have been identified by Dr. R.H.Dave (1968) of NCERT. These are as follows:

(i) Imitation : Imitation is the lowest level of the objective in the psychomotor domain. When the student is exposed to an observable action, she/he begins to make a covert imitation of the action. Imitation begins with inner rehearsal of the muscular system guided by an inner push or an impulse to imitate action. Such covert behaviour appears to be the starting point in the growth of psychomotor skill. This is then followed by covert performance of an act and the capacity to repeat it. The performance however lacks neuromuscular coordination or control, and hence it is generally in an ode form.

(ii) Manipulation : Manipulation is the next higher level of behaviour in psychomotor domain. At this level, the student should be capable of performing an act according to

instructions rather than just on bair of observation as is the case at the level of imitation. She/he begins to differentiate between one set of act from another and is able to select the required act. She/he begins to attain skill in manipulating chosen elements. With sufficient practice of selected action, she/he gradually moves towards the fixation of action. At the level the performance is fairly well set. That is to say, the act is performed with relatively greater ease, though with certain amount of consciousness. The response is not automatic at this level.

(iii) Precision : At the level of precision, the proficiency of performance reaches a higher level of refinement in reproducing a given act. The accuracy and exactness in performance become significant. The student does not need a model to reproduce or to guide his/her action. He is able to increase or decrease the speed of the action and introduce several variations according to specific requirements of different situations. Performance at this stage is accompanied by confidence and also conscious vigilance.

(iv)Articulation : This category of behaviour emphasizes the coordination of a series of acts by establishing an appropriate sequence and accomplishing harmony or internal consistency among different acts. On many practical situations, as you know, not one but several acts are to be performed and different parts of the body are involved. The student becomes able to perform them in a harmonious manner with appropriate articulation in performing a number of related acts simultaneously and sequentially and thereby can produce the designed effect.

(v) Naturalisation : This is the highest level of behaviour in the psychomotor domain. This category refers to naturalization of the single act or a series of articulated acts. At this stage, the skill of performance attains its highest level of proficiency and the act is performed with the least expenditure of psychic energy. The act is reutilized to such an extent that it results is an automatic and spontaneous response. Ultimately, it is automatised to the extent that it is carried out unconsciously. The student does not even know that the act is being performed, until he is obstructed or severely disturbed. In other words, the habit of performance becomes his second nature.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the guiding principles of framing educational taxonomy?
2. Mention basic points of cognitive or effective or psychomotor Domain?

Unit-3

Teacher Education and Practicing School

3.1 : Basic concept of Practice Teaching

Teaching is a plasticising art and hence teacher education needs teaching practices.

The focus of the school of Teacher education practice is on examining and developing teacher‘s professional practice in context effective teacher education practice is not only dependent on programme cohesion and coherence, but also on collaboration with childhood and school communities.

There are five themes that underpin the teaching and research agenda for the school:

- The nature of the practice setting.
- The role of supervisions/mentors in field based setting.
- The nature of the relationship between practitioners, student teachers and faculty in the practicum.
- The connection of the practicum to the faculty‘s teacher education programmes.
- The nature of the learner‘s experience in the practicum setting.

Opportunities for practice in pre service teacher preparation programmes are designed to scaffold student teacher‘s experience in controlled contexts that approximate ―real-life‖ situations. On practicum, student teachers are required to demonstrate, in a range of contexts, their ability to integrate understanding and to articulate and justified theories that underpin and guide their practice.

The Teacher Training Institution is responsible for assessing student teaching practice against the Faculty of Education‘s teacher education standards and the associated norms laid down by National Council of Teacher Education. Some modern methodology is mentioned below.

1) The first thing to do is to allow student teachers to deserve teaching in practicing schools and the demonstration school, if any. While conducting the theory courses it will be a good practice to observe actual teaching work and then to work out ways in which a particular idea can help in improving instruction or school programme or revising school curriculum as the case may be.

2) The next step could be to provide student teachers with the opportunities to familiarize themselves with children, classroom and environment so that they have affected of the situation.
3) Perhaps a training in teaching skill like using of devices, aids or conducting of a class to achieve a specific objective of curriculum, can also be taken up by making student teachers to teach a few lessons to the lower grades and a few to the higher grades of the school with specific objectives and aids planned for use in the class.
4) Then the fourth step would be to organize group discussions and conferences between student teachers, lecturers of the teachers training institution and teachers of the practicing school to plan activities of the curriculum throughout the year.
5) Student teachers during the final stage of their block practice should not only develop skills of classroom teaching and guiding individual pupils but diagnostic tests for remedial work, preparation of teaching aids and assignments and checking of home works, maintenance of cumulative record, and organization of co curriculum activities. In short, they should be provided with all experience which is essential for carrying out the teachers varied responsibilities in the school.
6) Perhaps the most important and crucial aspects of the programme are the relationships between lecturers, school teachers and student teachers, and the attitude they have towards the whole programme. Co-operation, sympathy and understanding between lecturers and teachers of the practicing school can go a long way to make to programme successful and to left the student teachers develop proper teaching behaviour perhaps it has to be kept in mind that development of a proper teaching behaviour comes about through a gradual and slow process of action and interaction within the situations and problems of teaching.
7) It should have roofs in the social cultural milieu around the school. Students teachers should not only require sufficient standard of competencies but also work out its education potentialities in a better way.

3.2 : A new approach towards teacher education and practicing school

1. In the different countries new models of partnership collaboration between Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) and schools are being developed for Teache Education become meaning meaningful. In these new models responsibility for

initial Teacher Education ranges from TEIs being fully responsible for the education of new teachers at one extreme, to schools being fully responsible for School-based teacher education at the other.

2. Relationships between TEIs and schools have often encountered in the following ways :
   - It has often been a ‗one-sided' relationship, in which the school is the passive recipient of trainee teachers and in which most power lies with the TEI;
   - Communication between the two parties has not always been optimal;
   - Schools may have negative perceptions of TEIs, and vice versa;
   - A gap is sometimes perceived between ‗theory' and ‗practice';
   - The contribution that TEIs can make to a school's programme of continuous professional development (CPD) for its staff, the contribution that student teachers can make to school development, or the contributions that school staff can make to Teacher Education have not always been recognized, leading to wasted opportunities.

1. A number Teachers and Trainers had expressed an interest in exploring the ways in which a partnership approach could help overcome such difficulties, and they agreed that that this issue should be the focus of a Peer Learning Activity (PLA).
2. In many countries policies concerning partnerships between schools and TEls are already effective. The results of the Peer Learning Activity can be used to review existing policies to revive the present systems.

Aims of Partnerships for Removing Isolation

The aims and ambitions of partnerships can vary. In its most basic form a partnership should support the ambition to provide the best education for pupils. In this ambition these elements are crucial:

(a) Improving methods for teaching and learning,

(b) Raising the quality of teachers, and

(c) Developing knowledge about teaching and learning through research Teacher Education and practicing schools are almost isolated needs to be modification otherwise only imposing conditions cannot upgrade the process

(d) Partnerships between school and TEI should create a system of support to help Schools to handle this ambition.

(e) The interest in partnerships between schools and TEls is rooted on education and training, as the teaching profession is a _profession based on partnerships'.

The changing demands of society create heavy expectations on teachers to _help young people become fully autonomous learners by acquiring key skills, rather than memorizing information; they are asked to develop more collaborative and constructive approaches to learning and expected to be facilitators and classroom managers rather than ex-cathedra trainers'. Partnerships between schools and TEls can provide such a support system.

3.3 : Models of teacher education and practicing school

A wide variety of partnerships models can exist, depending on local and national structures, conditions, traditions, based on the following dimensions that will help to apply the model in a better way —

- The nature of the contract or partnership agreement;
- Financial arrangements;
- Number of partner institutions involved;
- Type of partner institutions involved (TEI, local authority, national agencies, one school, several schools ...)
- Focus of the partnership (the training of student teachers / in-service training of school staff/ training of mentors in school/ school development / research)
- The geographical extent of the partnership (involving local partners, regional or national stakeholders or also focusing on international exchange and networks) Different partnership models of different countries may be mentioned as for example-

1. Partnership models between schools and TEIs in Denmark, focusing on strengthening the mentoring role of the schools. The models were designed locally, based on the local situation.
2. Partnership models between schools and TEIs in the Netherlands, focusing on strengthening the involvement of schools in the teacher education curriculum and

strengthening the contribution of the TEIs and student teachers to school development. In these models, schools take a very proactive role.

3. Partnership models between local authorities and TEIs in Sweden focusing on using student teachers to support educational developments in schools. In these models local authorities play a crucial initiating role.
4. The Think Tank project in Sweden, in which research groups of teachers, teachers educators and other experts are created to analyze and solve specific problems faced by teachers and schools.
5. The Finnish model, in which special teacher training schools are connected to and part of universities. In these schools, student teachers have room to experiment and to do research and are supported by specially trained supervisors.
6. These examples show some of the wide variety in partnership models with respect to intentions, focus, partners and initiative.
7. In several of the models presented, partnerships only existed between certain schools and TEIs.

Models of Teacher Education & Practicing School

The school:

The collaboration can vary from one school to another school:

- Involvement in the initial education of new teachers;
- In-service development of staff within the School;
- Increase school‘s capacity for innovation and knowledge development through support from teacher educators and through student-teachers‘ development and research activities;
- The feedback of the outcomes of education research into the reality of the professional within schools.

The TEI :

Benefits for TEIs are :

- Opportunities to relate the curriculum of teacher education more closely to the complex reality within the school;
- To provide student teachers with a realistic learning environment;

- To get realistic and relevant research questions and assignments for student teachers

The student teacher

As student teachers are a crucial factor in partnerships, it is also important to make explicit the benefits for student teachers :

- Involvement in the reality of schools helps to reduce the „practice shock' sometimes experienced by students at the end of their studies;
- Students will get a more realistic view of the profession and the demands that it places on teachers;
- Students will be involved in a wider variety of activities, better reflecting the breadth of the profession.

The system

At the system level

- Partnerships can play a role in moving towards a more coherent and integrated approach to Teacher Education that links initial education to induction and continuous professional development;
- Partnerships can create strong connections between innovations, professional development and research.

Conditions for Success

In discussing the partnership examples a number of crucial conditions have been identified. These conditions can be divided into conditions regarding the quality of structures, of process and relations, and of results.

Quality in structures

1. The partnership should be based on a national framework, identifying aims, expectations, outcomes, conditions and resources.
2. The partners need to be clearly identified. This can be done on two levels: the institutional level (schools, TEIs, local authorities) and the participants level

(teachers, teacher educators, student teachers, school leaders). On both levels it is important to identify the benefits for each involved.

3. The partnership is based upon, supported and strengthened through concrete activities.
4. For each of the institutions and participants, the contribution, roles and responsibilities need to be clearly stated. In most countries, this is made explicit in some kind of contract as regards in Teacher Education, it would be necessary to negotiate how responsibility should be shared for:
   - deciding the content of the curriculum
   - input on Didactics and input on Subject Studies
   - mentoring of student teachers
   - assessment of student teachers
   - training of mentors

15. The partnership model, the activities and the roles and responsibilities should fit the local context of the partnership; therefore, the concrete structure of the partnership may vary.
16. Partnerships should have clear mechanisms for creating a shared understanding and involvement, e.g. through the exchange of staff or by creating pairs of participants one from each partner which work closely together.
17. Partnerships should explicitly take responsibility to exchange, spread and disseminate the partnership results to schools and institutions outside the partnership.
18. Partnerships should have the opportunity to grow and to extend their focus beyond the initial education of student teachers and to extend to the innovation and research in education.

Quality in process and relations

1. For each of the partners the benefits must be clear, leading to a _win-win‘ situation in which each partner understands the tangible benefits to be obtained by taking part.

2. An essential condition for effective partnerships is to have a shared vision, purpose and understanding between all participants in the partnership.
3. The partnership should model the values of the educational system within which it operates, e.g. :
   (a) The partnership should be based on parity, equity and recognition of the qualities
   (b) Competences of each of the participants;
   (c) The partnership should be based on mutual trust. This has consequences on different levels: trust between partners within a partnership and trust between stakeholders inside and outside the partnership.
   (d) Trust can have different manifestations and should not only be based on formal contracts, but also on the relation and intentions of the partners.
   (e) The participants in the partnership must have a feeling of personal control and ownership.
4. All participants should have the opportunity to contribute to selection processes with respect to selection of participants, selection of research questions, etc. The partnership should be arranged in such a way that both the long term continuity and sustainability of the partnership and the medium and short term dynamics of the partnership activities are addressed.

Quality in results

1. The partnership should invest in the quality of its participants (e.g. the quality of the mentor, research quality, etc.).
2. For the partnership as a whole, and the partnership activities, the intended outcomes need to be clarified.
3. Indicators for measuring the outcomes should create a support system for the partnership.
4. The partnership should include outsiders to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of the outcomes of the partnership.

Policy Support for Partnerships

To create the conditions for effective partnerships there is an important role for educational policy at national and regional level. Alongside the issues mentioned above, some additional aspects can be identified:

1. Different policy approaches can be used, depending on national contexts and policy traditions :
   - Structures and regulations creating formally binding frameworks for schools and TEIs.
   - Support and stimulation through project funding for partnerships programmes Quality criteria in which partnerships between TEI and schools are a condition for included in the collaborative framework.
2. Although partnerships between schools and TEIs need to be addressed at the policy level, partnerships are not an aim in themselves; they are a means to improve the quality of teacher education (both initial and in-service) and to support innovation within schools and school development.
3. Policy activities should support and stimulate _trust generating events', both within the partnership and between partnerships and other levels in the educational structure.
4. Policy activities should support the dissemination of the outcomes of partnerships, both with respect to the partnerships in themselves (presenting overviews of good practices of partnerships) and their outcomes.
5. Finance can be used as an explicit instrument to stimulate, facilitate and steer the development and activity of partnerships.

Other Features

1) There should be a close liaison between the training-college and schools in the surrounding areas so that the change that training college staff live and work in ivory towers gradually loses force.
2) Another improvement that could be suggested is that training college. Staff should have had school experience before joining the training colleges.

3) It is necessary that a study of the syllabus followed at the relevant school stages is made an important part of the training courses. In teaching subject areas also a thorough study of the relevant syllabus should be a _must‘.
4) The internship in teaching scheme, if introduced may succeed in giving to the thainess an idea of the nudes of the schools and of the actual conditions available there.
5) A research corner, a curriculum development laboratory and a guidance corner could be additional facilities in the institutional plant, where trainees during the later part of their training be encouraged to study actual problems comforting education in the various areas think out remedies.
6) The training college should also be a sort of community centre for teachers in the locality and the surrounding area. Extension work should be made an integral part of every training college and arrangements should exist to adopt a few school.
7) The training curriculum should be flexible so that necessary adjustment and additions could be made as and when needed within the existing framework.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the main objectives of practice teaching at school for pre-service teacher education programme ?
2. Suggest a partnership model for improving relationship between B. Ed. colleges and practicing schools.

Unit-4

Teacher Education and Community

The community means a group of people with common interests and needs, participating in the cause of education within a particular area for Teacher Education.

Both formal and non-formal, seeking community support and participation in this task. It has been the experience that programmes introduced through governmental agencies, often do not achieve their goals to the desired extent, without sufficient community support. This is applicable also to Teachers Education Programmes. If the educational facilities have to be increased on the one hand, with the introduction of NPE, the qualitative change in education to meet the specified educational needs of the community also need to be brought about, on the other, this requires participation and involvement of the community, in the present context of knowledge society.

4.1 : Objectives of Community Involvement in Teacher

- To understand and explain the meaning and types of the community participation,
- To appreciate the need for community participation in educational programme.
- To analyse the causes of insufficient community participation in educational programmes, and take remedial steps.
- To identify the area in which community participation may be required, and its feasibility.
- Understand the role of school in maintaining better school community relationship and drawing latter‘s participation.
- To understand some basic aspects of community participation and understand and practice
- Some methods of community contract to enhance community participation.

4.2 : Learning Activities

Community participation has been emphasized in various documents as well as by several eminent educationists.

Generally, we tend to believe that help rendered by the community is community participation. But this is not always true. Participation has a wider connotation participation may also be of different types from the standpoint of willingness and desire of the community to participate in a programme. Let us try to understand these aspects better.

It is not necessary that community members contribute on every occasion. Sometimes they just attend the functions enthuse the learner on the need for regular attendance, help you in educational activities, and for advice and depend on the school for community function. This means, it is a two-way traffic. In other words, it is the process of sharing with each other.

You may have noticed that community participation or involvement may be spontaneous at times and seem to be reluctant at other times, participation can be categorized as :

1. **Spontaneous –** Persons come forward on their own to participate without any external support to force.
2. **Sponsored –** Persons participate because some mandate or official endorsements are issued. No force is applied, but it has been externally supported.
3. **Compulsory –** Persons participate because it has been made compulsory. Often its violation may demand coercion.

Let us take a particular situation in which required community participation can be achieved through any of the above three ways. This will help in understanding these concepts.

The Knowledge Commission, besides many other things envisaged expansion of educational facilities to remove disparities in educational opportunities, making education relevant to the societal needs and decentralization of management which are not likely to be achieved without the active participation of the community. It emphasizes _decentralization' and the creation of a spirit of autonomy for educational activities as well.

The areas in which community participation or help is needed relate to the academic, management and administrative aspects of the school. Let us synthesize our experiences:

1. If there is a proper dialogue with the community it can substantially help in motivating and persuading the members to enroll their children in school. It can help in enhancing regular attendance of children, as well as their retention in the school. Sometimes, social pressure can also be put on parents by the community, to send their children to school.

2. The school is a part of the community. Therefore, the latter can help in providing physical facilities, such as construction and maintenance of school buildings, desk, teaching aids, residence for teachers, particularly in rural areas. It can also contribute funds for various functions or help the school by providing free labor, especially in rural and tribal areas.
3. There are many skilled persons in the communities who can help the school in taking up activities related to work experience. Besides, in the absence of teachers, educated persons can come forward for voluntary teaching.
4. It has been observed that in villages where the community is education minded and interested in educational activities, this helps the regular functioning of schools by solving unforeseen day-to-day problems, and also by close supervision and help.
5. The community helps in maintaining a congenial atmosphere in the school, by intervening in any dispute between the teacher and the parents or among teachers.
6. The administrative problems in the schools are also often taken care of by the community. It has been observed that on such occasions, the panchayat or the community members help the school.
7. In academic aspects, the community can contribute by way of giving valuable suggestions in planning and execution of activities. One important contribution of the community is to provide authentic feedback to the school, regarding children‘s views about teaching and co-curricular activities in order to make necessary modifications in the teaching-learning processes.

There are many other aspects, in which the community can participate and, help an educational institution.

The school can play a positive role in community. The following are some important aspects in which a school can help the community:

1. The school may extend its role and become a center for learning for everyone in the community. It may not confine itself to only formal instruction to pupils but can also help community members in learning. The school may provide academic assistance to its members and encourage them to go in for further learning. It can thus become a community centre.

2. In most places as the school is the only place where people can hold meetings and functions. In such circumstances, the community can be helped with facilities such as the library and playground, without disturbing regular school programmes.
3. Teachers are considered knowledgeable and educated persons in the villages. People come to them for advice and guidance. They should be helped.
4. The role of the school may be enhanced as an agent of change in the community.

Now that the area in which the community can help the school and can be helped in return has been analyzed, let us synthesize our ideas. Some basic factors influencing community participation need explanation.

As discussed, it appears that the following major factors, which influence community participation, can be listed.

1. The school and the communities should work as co-partners which means, the community should be involved in the affairs of the school. Unless a sense of belongingness and sharing is created amongst community members, they will not feel sufficiently concerned to participate.
2. There has to be an organization at community based through community participation can be channelized. Under different names, such as, the school committee, the coordination committee, the parent-teacher association, but such committees are not properly utilized for ensuring community participation. These have to be operationalised and activated.
3. You may have noticed that in places where the youth or younger generation comes forward to take part in educational programmes, the rate of community participation increases. This aspect needs further emphasis.
4. Those of you who are working in remote, tribal and rural areas, may have noticed the existence of some traditional institutions like, youth dormitories. If these institutions are fruitfully utilized, the community participation rate will be accelerated.
5. The role of voluntary organization in increasing community participation has been encouraging. Wherever such organizations exist, they should be approached for help.

6. It is desirable that a survey of the community/locality should be made to identify the community resources in order to know and expect the excellent of community participation. It should include the survey of socio-economic status of the community, composition of social groups, human resources village functionaries and reasons for non-attendance of students.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the needs for teacher‘s community involvement.
2. Mention at learnt their strategies that a teacher can employ to enhance learning resources in the community.

Unit-5

Modification of Teacher Behaviours

5.1 : Micro Teaching

The central assumption of teacher education is that teaching can be expressed in terms of observable, measureable and modifiable teaching behaviours. Hence teacher behaviour modification exercising through learn-do-assess-re-do-reassess module. This has been used in micro teaching which is not real but a simulated teaching.

What is Micro-Teaching?

Micro-coaching is one of the most recent innovations in teachers educational programme which aims to modify teachers behaviour according to specified objectives. We have recently noticed a number of changes in education and training emphasizing the importance of the individual than the group, changes from memory to enquiry, from teaching to telling to as guiding etc. A number of innovative ideas have been involved in recent past to improve class room teaching. Micro-teaching is one of them which are exclusively meant to improve teacher education programme.

Definition

Micro-teaching has been defined in different ways. Some selected definition will be examined.

Allow (1966) : —A scaled down teaching encounter in class size and class time."

David B.Young : —A device which provides the novice and experienced teacher alike, new opportunities to improve teaching."

Allen and Rayan (1969) : They have not given a formal definition of micro-teaching but they have specified the essential pro-positions of microteaching as follows:

1. Micro-teaching is real teaching but complexities of normal class room are simplified.
2. There is emphasis training for the accomplishment of specific task.
3. There is increased control of practice.
4. Normal Knowledge of results or feedback is greatly expanded.

Operations in Micro-Teaching

Micro-teaching is a new technique which has been very successfully used in teachers training programmes. It involves various operations for its success. The operations are detailed below :

1. Operation is the analysis of a skill in behavioural terms. The trainee is made clear the objectives of the skill.
2. The second operation involves the demonstration of the skill a videotape, or films, or in normal class room teaching.
3. The trainee plans a short lesson in the subject of his interest in which he can use the skill.
4. The trainee teacher the lesson to a small group of student (5-10) which is videotaped or audio taped.
5. The supervisor who observes and analysis his lesson and makes reinforcing remarks where the student-teacher used the skill effectively and point out the situation where the skill would have been exercised.
6. The supervision‘s replans the lesson in order to use the skill more efficiently second time.
7. The revised lesson is retaught to different but comparable groups.
8. Feedback is again provided on the retaught lesson which analyzed with the help of the supervisor.

Standard procedure of Micro-Teaching

Now we will describe the concrete steps involved in organizing micro-teaching.

Dr. L.C.Singh, Reader in Education, NCERT, has recommended the following procedure for introducing micro-teaching in secondary teacher education in India.

Step 1. Orientation :

In order to orient teacher-educators and student teachers about micro-teaching, theoretical discussion an micro-teaching may be arranged. Merits and demerits should also be explained.

2. Discussion of Teaching Skill :

The concept & teaching skill is clarified first. At last give teaching skills should be selected and explained at length with the help of Handbooks an specific teaching skills (developed by CASE). One skill at a time may be discussed before practice. Selected student teachers should be trained in observing the teaching skill.

3. Presentation of Model Lesson :

The model lesson of the corresponding skills are then demonstrated by the trained teacher-educator preferably in all the method subjects chosen by the student-teachers.

4. Preparation of Micro-Lesson Plan :

The student-teacher should preferably select one unit concept for micro lesson.

5. Micro-Teaching Setting :

The following setting is suggested for the micro-teaching technique under this procedure:

Teach	6 Minutes
Feedback	6 Minutes
Replan-Reteach	12 Minutes
Refeedback	6 Minutes
Total	36 Minutes

6. Simulated Condition :

Peers (student-teacher) should act as pupils. Micro-teaching is conducted in the cottage itself.

7. Practice of Teaching Skills :

At least 20 component teaching skills have been suggested to practice by a Student-teacher. Some of the skills are:

1) Probing questions
2) Stimulus variation
3) Reinforcement
4) Silence and non-verbal cues
5) Encouraging pupil‘s participation
6) Illustrating with examples

7) Explaining
8) Effective use of blackboard
9) Set induction
10) Closure

8. Observation of Teaching Skills :

The teaching skills being developed through micro-teaching are to be observed by peers/college supervisor.

9. Feedback :

Immediate feedback may be given to the student-teachers individually. Tallies and the ratings on the observation schedule may be used while giving feedback and the interpretation about the performance of student teacher in the light of model lessons.

10. Teaching Time :

Complete cycle of a micro-lesson for each of the five skills will be teach feed Back-replace-reteach-refeedback. Normally, 35 minutes will be taken by a trainee to complete one cycle.

11. Assumption of Micro teaching :

1) Teaching is complex skill, which can be analyzed, into simpler skills.
2) Component teaching skills can be practical for mastery under simplified teaching situation one by one.
3) Training with systematic feedback is helpful in skill mastery.
4) Once Component-teaching skills are mastered one by one, they can be integrated for real teaching.
5) The skill training can be transferred to actual teaching.

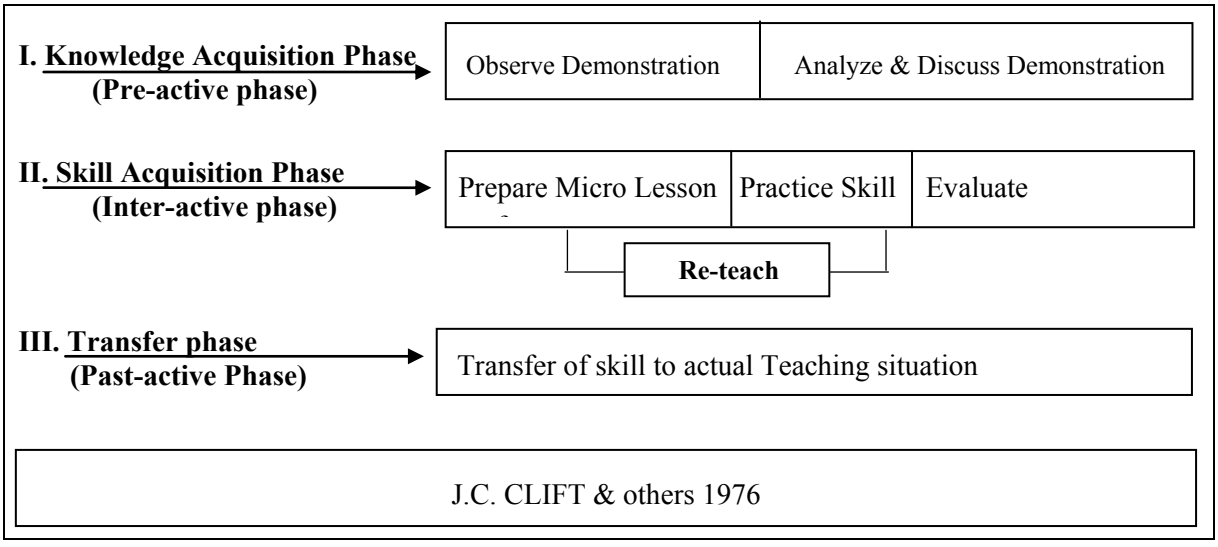
12. Phase of Micro Teaching :

N. K. Jangira and Ajit Singh present these phases as under:

i) Knowledge acquisition phase : In this phase, the student-teacher attempts o acquires knowledge about the skill – its rational, its role in class-room and its component behaviours. For this he reads relevant literature. He also observed demonstration lesson – mode of presentation of the skill.

ii) **Skill acquisition phase :** On the basis of the model presented to the student-teacher, he prepares a micro-lesson and practices the skill and carries out the micro-teaching cycle. There are two components of this phase: feedback and micro-teaching-setting. Micro teaching setting includes condition of the micro-lesson, supervisor, types of students etc.

iii) **Transfer phase :** Here the student-teacher integrates the different skills. In place of artificial situation, he teaches in the real classroom and tries to integrate all the skills.



Core-teaching skills in context of microteaching have been shown in the next section of this Unit.

Rationale of Micro Teaching in India

The forgoing discussion indicates that there were scientific and systematic efforts made in India for the installation of microteaching technique at various levels of teacher training. There was also ample support of research results to justify further the use of micro-teaching as supplementary technique to the existing teacher training practices. Therefore, the rationale for microteaching was searched by many (Singh, 1979) as discussed below:

1. In micro teaching the trainer can concentrate on practicing a specific, well- defined teaching skill and it is easier to practice the skills stated in behaviour terms.

2. Micro teaching provides for the pinpointed feedback. It is also immediate; therefore, it is much easier to incorporate them the usual feedback which is delayed and global in nature.
3. Micro teaching being miniaturized teaching, there is no problem of classroom discipline so, it is a safe practice.
4. There are less administrative problems in the organization of micro teaching in teacher training institutes because the teaching session are arranged with peers. The problems of space and supervisors can also be solved by making skilful arrangements of available facilities.
5. Micro teaching provides an opportunity to undertake research studies with better control over conditions and situation.
6. Microteaching can be adopted as an integral part of teacher training in Indian context using simple paper pencil tools and there is no need of sophisticated gadgets like, CCTV or VTR for microteaching.

Advantages of Micro Teaching

1. It is a teaching in a relatively simple and non-threatening context. It is simple because only one skill is selected for practice and non-threatening because the number of student is hardly 5-10.
2. The student can focus his attention on clearly defined aspect of his behaviour.
3. There is no provision for much fuller and more objectives feedback to the trainee than in other teacher training procedure.
4. The teacher can experience several alternatives with a limited number of student each time with the opportunity for immediate evaluation and additional trials.
5. The micro-teaching sequence proves most effective when one or two teaching skills are selected emphasis.
6. The student teacher can concentrate on some specific aspect of teaching learning.
7. The micro-teaching focus on individual task so that the teacher gets a very clear idea about the topic and the reaction it makes on the small groups.
8. The objectives of micro teaching are specified in terms of behaviour outcomes.

9. Individual micro-lesson are observed by other teachers and improvements can be suggested by them. All the activities in micro-teaching set-up can be received. Tapes (including videotape) of excellent teachers can be heard or viewed.

Some Microteaching Terminology

1. Modelling :

The term modelling has been borrowed from the behaviour modification psychology. The rationale for the use of modelling in microteaching is derived from the theories of initiative learning as propounded by Baundura and Walters (1963). These theories and other research work in the area of social modelling amply demonstrate that imitation play a crucial role in acquiring and regulating different types of social behaviour. In the teaching-learning process, also, there is ample evidence that different types of models do produce student learning (Young, 1969; McDonald and Allen; and Koran et al 1969).

2. Feedback :

The concept of feedback is being used widely in modifying human behaviour. The term refers to providing information to an individual about his behaviour/ Performance with a view to modifying it in the desired direction. It includes points of strengths as well as Weakness relating to the behaviour/performance. It has been found that the systematic feedback provided to an individual on his Performance/behaviour helps him to improve upon it in the desired direction.

3. Microteaching Setting :

This section deals with microteaching setting comprising such variables as the number of pupils comprising a micro class, and the type of supervisor. Having gone through this section, you are expected to realize the objectives given in the box.

Integration of Teaching Skills

One of the criticisms generally levelled at the existing practice teaching programme is that the student teachers, after being taught principle of teaching, are sent to schools for teaching practice. The procedure is comparable to an individual who after having been taught

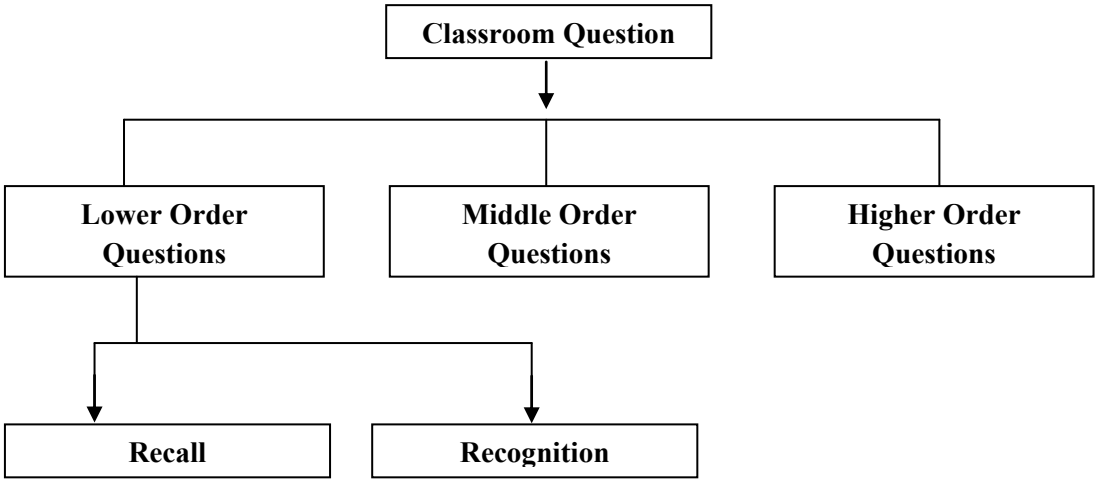
principles of swimming. The individual struggles for life. If he succeeds, he learns swimming. It may also happen that he may get drowned. Such a procedure in the training of teachers may work with some student teachers, but it is likely to destroy the confidence of others.

Some Example of teaching skills

Questioning :

Like any other type of statement, questions also follow structures which include format and such characteristics as relevance, precision, clarity grammatical correctness and the level of thinking it generates in the pupils. The skill of structuring class-room questions can, therefore, be defined as the process of phasing classroom question with specified characteristics.

Levels of Classroom Questions :



Reinforcement

Skill of reinforcement is one of the most vital teaching skills. This unit presents definition of the relevant terms and the use of the skill of reinforcement; specific component teaching behaviours comprising the skill outlines guidelines for using the skill; and gives observation tool for providing feedback on the use of the skill in practice sessions. Reinforcement is a term taken from the psychology of learning. The term implies the use of the technique for influencing behavior of individuals in the desired direction. The concept of reinforcement is based on the hedonistic principle which envisages that an individual tends

the repeat the pleasant experiences and avoid the unpleasant ones. Reinforcement, therefore, constitutes one of the essential conditions of learning.

Illustrating With Examples

Many a time, it happens that a teacher explains in the classroom a scientific, or a mathematical rule or an abstract idea and observes that his pupils do not comprehend it. In such a situation, the teacher attempts to explain the concept or generalization more and more but he fails in his attempt. The concept or generalization requires more than more explanation for the pupils understand. This presents a challenge to the teacher. An unskilled teacher may deal with his challenging situation by rebuking the pupils for being inattentive in the classroom and asking they just to memorize the concept or rule.

Explaining:

A pupil is required to learn a number of concepts, phenomena, generalizations, procedure, functions and reason for certain occurrence. He is to learn about their attributes, constituent elements, relationships and applications. A teacher organizes a number of learning experiences in the classroom towards this end. He uses a number of interrelated statements related to concept, phenomena, generalizations and functions with a view to developing in pupils and understanding about them. The set of interrelated statements used for this purposes is termed as explanation and process is termed as explaining. The term explaining can, therefore, be defined as the use of interrelated statements about a concept, phenomenon, and generalization with a view to providing its understanding to someone else.

The outcomes of the micro-teaching in this way can be summarized as follows:

1) Microteaching can be successfully implemented in India teacher training institutes without major difficulties.
2) Only these general teaching skills which are useful for all school subjects should be considered for microteaching. Questioning, B.B. Work, Explanation and stimulus variation could be such skills.

3) The conditions to be selected for microteaching depend upon the mature of skill. However, the skills generally selected in B.Ed colleges can be practiced in simulated conditions.
4) Student-teacher and teacher-educators in general show favourable attitude towards Microteaching.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State importance of micro-teaching in modification of teacher behaviours.
2. Mention three demerits of micro-teaching.

5.2 : Core Teaching Skills

Core teaching skills are related to Micro-teaching. Teaching can be analyzed in terms of teacher behaviour at least at three levels viz. Component teaching skill, component teaching behaviours comprising the component skill, and atomistic teaching behaviours.

Teaching can be analyzed into component teaching skill at the first level. Following the analysis at this level, teaching can be defined as a set of component skills for the realization of a specified set of instructional objectives. By implication, teaching itself is a complex skill comprising a set of component teaching skill. The component teaching skill can be further analyzed into respective sets of component teaching behaviors at the second level. Thus, component teaching skills can be defined as a set of interrelated component teaching behaviours for the realization of specific instructional objective. The set of instructional objectives to be realized by a particular skill will be limited as compared to the set of instructional objective envisaged in the definition of teaching since the former is more comprehensive. Component teaching behaviours can be further analyzed into simpler atomistic teaching behaviours at the third level of analysis. The component teaching behaviours of a skill, therefore, can be defined as a set of interrelated atomistic teaching behaviours contributing to the realization of some aspect of the instructional objective purported to be realized by the component teaching skill. Then we may consider that:

1. Teaching skill is a set of strictly overt or observable behaviours.
2. Purely cognitive skills such as problem - solving and interpretation, etc. will not go under the preview of teaching skills.

3. Teaching skills have essentially three components viz. perception, cognition and action.
4. A setting on situation and the role played by a person determine whether the behaviour exhibited is to be classified as a teaching skill or otherwise.
5. Teaching skills have dimensions of non – verbal behaviour, message of communication and reciprocity in communication.
6. Teaching skill is a set of behaviours which serve one and only one pedagogical function leading to enabling learning outcomes or changes in process pupil behaviour. Intermediate and ultimate learning outcomes are not solely due to teaching skills. These are products of many more factors including broader strategies, methods and models of teaching.
7. The component teaching skills may be shown as:

Teaching Skill and Their Components

1.	Writing Instructional Objectives	— Clarity, relevance to the context adequacy with reference to the domains and level of objectives, attainability in terms of pupil outcomes.
2.	Organising content	— The logical organization according to content and psychological organization as per need of the pupil.
3.	Creating set for introducing the lesson	— Greeting, accepting greating, securing attention and giving instructions, establishing support, ensuring facilities like chalk, duster, aids, apparatus, etc.
4.	Introducing the lesson	— Linking with the past experiences, link between introduction with main parts, use of appropriate devices/techniques like questioning, examples, exhibits arousal.
5.	Structuring classroom Question	— Structuring questions at different levels which are grammatically correct, precise and relevant to content.
6.	Questions delivery and distribution	— Questions delivered with appropriate speed, with proper intonation and pitch, allowing pause for thinking and questions well distributed covering even nonvolunteers.

7.	Response management	— Management of pupil response using teaching techniques like prompting, eliciting further information, refocusing and asking criticalawareness questions, accepting rejecting, redirection.
8.	Explaining	— Clarity, continuity, relevance to the content using beginning and concluding statements covering essential points.
9.	Illustrating with example	— Simple, interesting and relevant to example the point being explained.
10.	Using teaching aids	— Relevant to content, appropriate to the pupil‘s level, proper display and appropriate use.
11.	Reinforcement	— Use of praise words and statements, accepting and using pupil ideas, repeating and rephrasing pupil ideas. Use of pleasant and approving gestures and expressions, writing pupil answers on blackboard.
		— Relevant to content, appropriate to the pupil‘s level, proper display and appropriate use.
12.	Stimulus variation	— Body movements, gestures, change in intonation and pitch, change in interaction pattern and pausing.
13.	Pacing of the lesson	— adjusting the speed of the lesson to the level of the Pupils and difficulty level of the content.
14.	Prompting pupil	— Providing opportunity to pupil to increase participation through asking questions, creating climate of participation, use of silence and non-verbal cucs, calling upon pupil‘s physical participation.
15.	Use of blackboard	— Legible, neat, adequate with reference to the control Covered.
16.	Achieving closure	— Summarization, establishing link of the lesson with between the present learning earlier as well as future learning, creating a sense of achievement in pupils.

17.	Giving assignment	— Relevant to the content covered and level of pupils.
18.	Evaluating the pupil‘s	— Relevant to the instructional objectives, use progress appropriate questions and observations.
19.	Diagnosing pupil learning	— Identifying learning difficulties along difficulties and talking with causes, remedial measures remedial measures suited to the type of the learning difficulties and the level of pupils
20.	Management of the class	— Attention behavior reinforced and direction given to eliminate nonattending behavior, clarity of directions, appropriate handling of pupils‘ disruptive behaviors.

These 20 component teaching skills are held as general teaching skills common to all types of classroom teaching sessions; hence these are called core teaching skills.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What do you mean by component teaching skills?
2. What is simulation?

5.3 : Classroom Interaction Analysis

This is another system of teacher behaviour modification.

What is Interaction Analysis?

Classroom Interaction Analysis may be defined as, ―anysystem for coding spontaneous verbal communication, arranging the data into a useful display, and then analyzing the result in order to study patterns of teaching and learning".

A particular system for Interaction Analysis usually includes –

a) Set of categories each defined clearly.
b) A procedure for observation and a set of ground rules which govern the coding process.
c) Steps for tabulating the data in order to arrange a display which aids in describing the original events.
d) Suggestions which can be followed in some more common application.

Objectives of Studying Class Room Interaction :

It provides no objective data which may be helpful in modifying teachers behaviour to bring improvement in teaching -

(i) Class room interactive techniques provide objective data, systematic record on the teaching behaviour of teacher which may be helpful in giving definite instructions and guidance to the teacher for the improvement of his teaching. Thus we can say that interaction analysis is a standardized observation tools.

(ii) The second objective of studying Classroom interaction is to identify the pattern of teacher behaviour.

(iii) The third objective is to evolve remedial strategies in reconstructing our whole concepts of teaching methodology.

Assumption of Class Room Verbal Interaction Analysis :

1) —Bitter than 60 percent that one would hear someone talking" (Flanders, 1965).
2) Verbal behaviour can be observed with higher reliability than most non-verbal behaviour and also it can reasonably serve as an adequate sample of the total behaviour in the classroom.
3) The teacher exerts a great deal of influence on the pupils behaviour. It is affected to a great extent by the type of teacher verbal behaviour.
4) Teachers class room behaviour in particular exerts a crucial influence on the pupils.
5) The relation between students and teacher is a crucial factor in the teaching process and must be considered as an important aspect of methodology.
6) It has been established by experimental studies that social climate in the class is related to productivity and to the quality of interpersonal relations. It has been proved that a democratic atmosphere tends to keep work at a relatively high level even in the absence of the leader (Lewin, 1939).
7) Children tend to be conscious of a warm acceptance by the teacher and to express greatest fondness for the democratic teacher (Perkin, 1950).
8) Role of the class room climate is crucial for learning.
9) Teacher classroom behaviour can be observed objectively by use of observational techniques designed to —catch" the natural modes of behaviour which will permit

the process of measurement with a minimum disturbance of the normal activities of the groups or individual (Winghsfone J. Wayne, 1956).

10) Research has revealed ways and means by which observer error may be reduced. These include clearly defined definitions of behaviour to be observed and structured forms for recording observations immediately, thus minimizing observer interpretation or inferences.
11) Changing class room behaviour through feedback is possible (Flanders).

Description of Flanders Verbal Interaction Categories : - (FVIAC)

Category: Teacher Talk	Nature	Specifications
1. Accepts feeling	Response (Teacher)	Accepts feeling. Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a nonthreatening manner. Feeling may be either positive or negative. [Predicting and recalling included.]
2. Praises or encourages	Response (Teacher)	Praises or encourages–Praises or encourages pupil action or behaviour jokes that releases tension but not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying —Uh Uhm‘ or _Go On‘.
3. Accepts or uses ideas	Response (Teacher)	Accepts or uses ideas suggested by a pupil. Clarifying, building or Developing ideas suggested by a pupil; [Teacher‘s help in building pupil‘s ideas but not teacher‘s addition in idea formation is deleted].
4. Asks questions	Response (Teacher)	Asks questions: - Asking questions about content/ or procedures based on his/her ideas with intent that a pupil will give answer.
5. Lecturing	Initiation (Teacher)	Lecturing: - Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his/ her own ideas, giving his/ her own explanation or citing and authority other than a pupil.
6. Giving directions	Initiation (Teacher)	Giving Directions:-Directions, commands or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply.
7. Criticizing or	Initiation (Teacher)	
8. Response to teacher	Response (Pupil)	Pupil talk response: - Talk by pupil in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits pupil statements or structures. Situation freedom to express own ideas is limited.

Category: Teacher Talk	Nature	Specifications
9. Initiation	Initiation (Pupil)	Pupil-talk initiation: - talk by pupils which they initiate expressing own ideas initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structure.
10. Silence	Silence	Silence or Confusion:-Pauses, Short period of confusion in which communication cannot beunderstood by the observer.

Ground Rules :

Rule 1

When not certain to which two or more categories a statement belongs, choose the category that is numerically farthest from category 5.

Rule 2

If the primary tone of the teacher‘s behaviour has been consistently direct or consistently indirect, do not shift into the opposite classification unless a clear indication of shift is given by the teacher.

Rule 3

The observer must not be concerned with his own biases or with the teacher‘s intent.

Rule 4

If more than one category occurs during the three – second interval, then all categories used in that interval are recorded; therefore, record each change in category. If no change occurs within three seconds, repeat that category number.

Rule 5

If a silence is longer than three seconds, it is recorded as 10.

Rule 6

When the teacher calls a child by his name, the observer ordinarily records.

Rule 7

When the teacher repeats a student‘s answer and if the answer is correct one, this is recorded as 7.

Rule 8

When the teacher repeats a student‘s idea and communicates that the idea will be considered or accepted as something to be discussed, a 3 is used.

Rule 9

If a student begins to talk after another student, a 10 is inserted between 9‘s and 8‘s to indicate the change of student.

Rule 10

Reactions such as _All Right‘, _Okay‘ and _Yes‘ etc, are recorded as 9.

Rule 11

A teacher‘s joke which is not made at the expense of children is 2. but if the joke makes fun of a child then it is recorded as 7.

Rule 12

Rhetorical questions are recorded as 5.

Rule 13

If the student gives a specific predictable answers to a narrow question, this is recorded as 8.

Rule 14

An 8 is recorded when several students respond in answer to a narrow question.

Constructing an Interaction Matrix

It is done during observation of a fetching session.

The numbers that an observer writes down are tabulated in a matrix 10 row by 10 – column table. It is in sequence pairs, that is, a separate tabulation is made for each overlapping pair of numbers. An illustration will explain this procedure.

Suppose, the observer has written down 6, 10, 7, 5,1,4,8 and 4. As the interaction proceeds, the observer will continue to write down numbers. To tabulate these observations in a 10x10 matrix, the first step is to make sure that entire series begin and ends with the same number. The convention is to add a 10 at the beginning and end of the series unless it is already present. Our series now become.

1^{st}	2^{nd}	3^{rd}	4^{th}	5^{th}	6^{th}	7^{th}	8^{th}
10, 6	6, 10	10, 7	7, 5	5, 1	1, 4	4, 8	4, 10
Pair	Pair	Pair	Pair	Pair	Pair	Pair	Pair

These numbers are tabulated in a matrix one pair at a time. The column is indicated by the second number and row id indicated by the first number. The first pair is 10-6;the tally is placed in row ten and column six cell. The second pair is 6-10; this tally is the row six, columns ten cell. The third pair is 10-7, the fourth pair is 7-5, and so on. Each pair overlaps with the next, and the total number of observations, _N' always will be tabulated by _n-1' tallies in the matrix. In this example, we started a series of ten numbers, and the series produced nine tallies in the matrix.

The location of these tallies is shown in the following Table:-

Sl.No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1				1							**1**
2											**0**
3											**0**
4								1		1	**2**
5	1										**1**
6										1	**1**
7					1						**1**
8				1							**1**
9											**0**
10						1	1				**2**
Total	**1**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**9**

It is a tabulated matrix and the some of the corresponding rows and columns are equal.

Construction of Interaction Matrix: Encoding

For every three-second period, one of the ten categories is recorded by a trained observer. The sequence of observation that results is shown on a 10x10 matrix, whose rows and columns correspondents the categories. Observations and tabulated on this matrix by pairs

SAMPLE MATRIX (Reproduced from Flanders)

Category	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
2	1	-	-	6	5	-	-	-	-	-	**12**
3	-	-	8	17	4	1	-	1	1	-	**32**
4	-	-	-	14	3	-	1	38	48	-	**104**
5	-	1	-	26	62	8	5	-	1	2	**105**
6	-	-	-	5	5	13	-	-	1	3	**27**
7	-	1	-	2	4	-	3	1	-	2	**13**
8	-	5	9	15	6	-	3	4	2	-	**44**
9	-	4	14	17	13	2	1	-	13	2	**66**
10	-	1	1	1	3	3	-	-	-	8	**17**
Total	**1**	**12**	**32**	**104**	**105**	**27**	**13**	**44**	**66**	**17**	**421**

Interpreting a matrix. This teacher talk is the sum of first 7 categories 1 to 7
i.e. 1+12+32+104+105+27+13=294
Student talk is the sum of categories 8 and 9 i.e. 44+66=100. This means that out of 421 talks, teacher talks are 294 and students talk 110 which comes to 69.8% and 26.2% respectively.

Following conclusions may be draw from above:

1. The teacher is active.
2. The control of interaction rests with the teacher.
3. 50-70% of teacher‘s statements are indirect i.e., sum of first four categories 1+12+32+104=149 out of 294.
5. The flow of communication between the teacher and the student is flexible and shift from one category to another.
6. The class is business like and words rapidly.

Flanders has observed, ~~–It~~ will be the responsibility of the education instructor to help prospective teachers discover what their teaching intention should be and then create training situation in which behaviour gradually matches intention with practice. Teaching will remain an art but it will be studied scientifically."

Use of the Flanders' Verbal Interaction Category Systems

1) The category system can be used for research in verbal interaction for pre-service and in-service education of teachers.
2) The concept of flexibility of teacher influence can be investigated.
3) The techniques may help in the grouping of students.

Procedures for observation–Encoding Process

1) The observer sits in a class room in the best position for hear and see the participants.
2) At the end of each three – second period he decides which category best represents the communication events just completed.
3) He writes down the category number while simultaneously assessing communication in the next period and continues at a rate of 20 to 25 observations per minute, keeping his tempo as steady as possible.
4) His notes are merely a series of numbers written in a column top to bottom so that the original sequence of events is preserved.
5) Occasionally marginal notes are used to explain the class formation of any unusual circumstances.
6) When there is a major change in the class formation the communication pattern or the subject under discussion, a double line is draw and the time indicated.
7) As soon as the total observation is completed, the observer retries to a nearby room and completes a general description of each separate activity period separated by the double line including the nature of activities, the class formation and the position of the teacher.

Principle of Observation : Flanders has suggested the following principles for classroom observation:

1. No interaction analysis data should be collected unless the person is familiar with the entire process and knows its limitations.

2. Questions to be answered by inspecting the matrix should be developed before the observation taken place.
3. Value judgments about good and bad teaching behavior are to be avoided.
4. Emphasis is to be given to the problem being investigated so that cause and effect relationship can be discovered.
5. A consultation based on two observations or at least two matrices helps to eliminate value judgment or at least control them. Comparisons between the matrices are more likely to lead to principles.

Decoding : The decoding of the interaction matrix is the interpretation stage. The decoding may be done at two levels: i) Quantitative analysis of teacher behavior, and ii) Qualitative analysis of teacher behaviour.

Conclusion : It helps the teacher in the grouping of students for their betterment by finding out student talk. It provides feedback to the teacher and thus helps him in modifying his pattern to teaching and behaviour. It helps in understanding analytically what goes on in the classroom and what should be done to improve teaching- leaning environment.

The FVIAC takes note of verbal teaching behaviours only although teaching involves both verbal and non-verbal interactions. Secondly, this system does not provide any information about content. Thirdly, it has considered only ten categories; teaching may have other interactions too. Fourthly, it analyses only the verbal interaction when the class is supposed to be basically teacher cantered. Fifthly, use of this system requires expertise on the part of the observer.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the main importance of student evaluation.
2. How can the results of student evaluation data improve quality of our teacher education programmes? – Give your own suggestions.

Unit-6

Evaluation of Student Teaching

6.1 : Basic Concept

What is?

Evaluation of student teaching refers to assessment of performance of a student teacher in practice teaching school while he/she is, especially undergoing initial teacher education in the teacher education institution. The specific tasks to be evaluated depend upon the specific curriculum requirement of the teacher education programme or course. Commonly, student teaching includes : (1) planning and observation of good (model) lessons; (2) class teaching and experiments/demonstrations; (3) organization of school-based practical work and participation in co-curricular activities; (4) study of school services and resources; (5) preparing teaching aids using them effectively in class teaching; (6) developing tests and using them; and (7) maintaining school and students‘ records.

6.2 : Objectives

Specific objectives of student teaching, in terms of competency may be developed as a result of student teaching. The student teacher will be able to:

1. Become aware of the need for putting theory into practice in order to integrate these two components.
2. Acquire knowledge by experience and exposure to a variety of teaching learning situation about their professional duties.
6. Understand different approaches to teaching and communication techniques and use them in class teaching.
7. Develop competence in relating and using types of learning aids for effective teaching.
8. Devise minimum essential instructional media in relation to different units of teaching.
9. Develop needed competence in delivery of knowledge, skills and appreciation lessons at appropriate levels of learning.

10. Apply knowledge and understanding of theory in delivering new strategies of teaching.
8. Manage real classroom problems that may arise during instruction;
9. Interpret, summarize and report evidence that accrue from the use of various assessment modalities and tools;
19. Undertake effectively other collateral activities like organization of co-curricular activities, need based projects, course development, etc;
20. Analyze question papers, course of studies and content analysis as well as pedagogical analysis of content to be taught.
21. Reflect professional commitment, indicative of work ethics, pride in profession, code of conduct and human feelings towards students, co-workers, etc;
22. Self evaluate on various teaching tasks and skills developed during student teaching;
23. Establish human relations with students, co-workers, principal, parents and the community.

6.3 : Models of teacher evaluation

A number of models of teacher evaluation are available and the institutions take advantages of them as per course requirements. These may be:

1. **Formative Models :** These models refer to improvement of teaching performance based on observation of some selected criterion behaviours and feedback of trained observers as well as peers. Focus on delivery system of instruction, improving school effectiveness through staff development, school improvement, self-evaluation, evaluation by peers etc. This is continuous during the practice teaching session or internship. These are exclusively internal.
2. **Summative Models :** The intention of these models of teacher evaluation are to certify teachers using rigorous standards, recognize and reward teachers, grade teaching performance, focus on assessment impact of educational systems and teachers on students‘ yearly gains on norm referenced tests, etc.
3. **Formative-cum–Summative Models :** These are a combination of the above classes of models of student teacher evaluation. The main intentions of these models are to improve student teacher performance and influence student

achievement through skilled observations and lesson analysis, develop staff competency for use in formative evaluation, or if needed, for summative evaluation, strengthen and maintain teacher morale through participative decision making and maintaining professional standards.

Every model has its strengths and weaknesses. What is important is that the summative student teacher evaluation models are invariably used in Indian teacher training programmes and these are exercised by the examining bodies as per set regulations. However, NCTE suggests using the both models of student teaching evaluation. In most cases the curriculum planners are reluctant to use formative part in the plea that this will be highly biased and subjective.

Rationales of Evaluation of Student Teaching

There are some compelling reasons for student evaluation. These are to:

- help teacher educators to certify trainees acceptable level of proficiency in various educational practices;
- provide for accountability of student teachers for competency based teaching;
- help diagnose ineffective areas of teaching to remediate;
- motivate and provide for self-evaluation to improve teaching; and
- yield evidence that can be used for maintaining performance standards.

6.4 : Process of evaluating student teaching

Evidence of student teaching may be gathered in many ways and many persons and the sum of all the data, thus, collected is indicative of student teacher‘s performance.

Who appraises?

Four models may be there.

1. Self-appraisal by the student teachers as the ultimate aim of evaluation is self-evaluation.
2. Peer-appraisal, that is, the fellow student teachers placed in a particular practice teaching school in a particular term.
3. Hierarchical supervisor-subordinate model, in which the immediate superior teacher educator of the student teachers evaluates and, in turn, they are evaluated by

one or more immediate supervisor(s) of the teacher education institution. This may be formative as well as summative.

4. External appraisal carried out by the examiners appointed by the examining body or authority which is exclusively summative evaluation.

What will be appraised?

The following areas of performance of the student teachers are evaluated.

1. Mastery of the subject matter attained.
2. Level of teaching competence developed.
3. Technical know-how developed in assessment and evaluation of pupils.
4. Efficiency acquired in classroom management.
5. Sustained interest and efficiency manifested in organizing co-curricular activities.
6. The degree of professional commitment reflected as a teacher.
7. Originality in teaching proficiency developed.
8. Human relations maintained and developed in instructional implementation and as a colleague.
9. Proficiency developed in preparing other school-based practical activities.

Evaluation Tools and Techniques

Following tools and techniques of evaluation may be used.

1. Testing-using written unit test.
2. Observation-observing a lesson or a series of lessons in a unit.
3. Inquiry-oral questioning.
4. Analysis-analyzing the content of lessons and other reports of practical activities performed.
5. Interview technique-interview technique for understanding the perspective, attitude, planning skills, etc of the student teachers.
6. Self evaluation-using self-rating scales.

Each tool and technique should be systematic, objective, relevant, easy to use, and valid.

Student Teacher Profile

Most of the aspects of evaluation of student teacher can be rated (graded) on a 5-point or 7-point or 9-point rating scale depending upon the ease of practical application. For instance if the requirement specify use of the following eight aspects of evaluation like.

A. Lesson Plan

B. Class management

C. Content mastery

D. Instructional strategy

E. Communication skills

F. Questioning skills

G. Use of teaching aids

H. Review w and Assessment

Each student teacher is rated in each of the above eight aspects independently and finally a student teacher profile is constructed.

Proficiency Index

Besides student teacher profile we may calculate the proficiency index of as exemplified below.

Index of Proficiency

Serial No.	Aspects of Assessment	Marks	Rating Allotted	Weighted Score
1	Mastery of subject matter	25	4	100
2	Communication skills	20	3	60
3	Questioning skills	15	5	75
4	Pupils‘ involvement	10	1	10
5	Review and reinforcement	10	2	20
6	Assessment and evaluation	10	3	30
7	Classroom management	10	4	40
	Total	**100**	**1-5**	**335**

Weighted Score =335

Possible Score = 500

Proficiency Index = 335/500=67%

This is an overall index Similar index can be prepared for each of these aspects separately if needed.

LET US SUM UP

The present Unit is intended to explain teacher education for the present day need and its up gradation for societal involvement .In the first part of this Unit taxonomy of educational objectives have been discussed for getting knowledge about what we have to do in a real class room situation from cognitive domain to affective domain. Different techniques of teacher behaviours modification have been discussed through student teaching micro teaching, interaction analysis and core teaching skills. Efficacy is also an another turn which explains the process successfully in teacher education pointed out here in terms of evaluation of student teaching.

SUGGESTED READINGS

- Bloom, S. B. (1960) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, New York; Longmans, Green and Co.
- Singh L C (1990) Teacher Education in India, New Delhi, NCERT.
- Singh, L C, (1990) Microteaching in India, New Delhi, NCERT.
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- Aggarwal J C (2001) Essentials of Education Technology, (New Delhi), Vikaspublishing House Pvt. Ltd.

ASSIGNMENT

1) Discuss any one domain of taxonomy of educational objectives and communicate how these objectives may be applied in the class room teaching.
2) Elaborate a model of teacher education and practicing school.
3) Explain how teacher education and community be collaborative?
4) Explain different techniques of teacher training with its efficacy of teaching improvement.
5) Discuss the different techniques of evaluation of student teaching and its relevance for teacher preparation.

6) Suggest some functional strategies that might be helpful for removing isolation between teacher education institutions and practicing schools.
7) What do you mean by Core teaching skills? To what extent is micro-teaching useful in improving teacher competencies applying the core teaching skill in real classroom instruction?–Discuss.
8) What are the assumptions of Flanders‘ Verbal Interaction Analysis system? State the ten classification categories of verbal interaction as suggested by Flanders. Discuss its merits and demerits.
9) What do you mean by micro-teaching? How can it be applied in teacher education institutions? Discuss is micro-teaching without integrating the practice of component teaching skills effective?–justify.

BLOCK-3

Models of Teaching

Unit-1

Models of Teaching

Unit-2

Elements of Models of Teaching

Unit-3

Families of Models of Teaching

Unit-4

Concept Attainment Model

Unit-5

Advance Organizer Model

Unit-6

Basic Teaching Model of Glaser

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Teaching involves a system as well as family of activities or acts. Teaching is goal-oriented as well as influence-orientenal family of activities. The mostexplict goal of teaching is causing as well as facilitating student learning. Up till now no systematic theory of teaching independent of cogent learning theories, have been evolved and applied in classroom practices or in distance learning system. Therefore, keeping in mind quality and quantity of student learning, same experts have thought to develop model of teaching (theory in evolving stage or loose theory) from different theories of learning. As because there are numerous theories of learning, models of teaching are also many, not one.

Our experience tells that if teachers understand clearly models of teaching and use them in their professional activities of teaching, then professionalism will be improved. And ultimately a teacher will be enable to evolve his/her own model of teaching. In this way out community will get creative teachers.

In this Unit we shall learn some essential features of some popular models of teaching that can be applied in our learning-teaching situations.

OBJECTIVES

You will be able to: —

1) Understand main characteristics and fundamental elements of some models of teaching.
2) Elaborate your conceptions about some of modern teaching models.
3) Critically discuss Basic Teaching model, Advance Organizer model, or Concept Attainment Model.

Unit-1

Models of Teaching

DEFENITION

There are many definitions of _Model of Teaching‘. We shall concentrate our views on model of teaching with the definition given by Bruce Joyce and Martha Weil. —A model of teaching is a plan or program that can be used to shape curriculum (long-term courses of students), to design instructional materials and to guide instruction in the classroom and other settings”. It tells us how to systematically create learning environment.” A model of teaching consists of guidelines for designing learning environment.

CHARACTERISTICS

All good and systematic models of teaching have some common identifiable characteristics which are described as follows:-

1) Scientific Procedure : A model of teaching is not a haphazard combination of facts but on the other hand it is a systematic procedure to modify the behaviour of learners. They are based on certain assumptions as well as grounded on specific theories of learning.

2) Specification of learning outcome : All models of teaching specify the learning outcomes in detail in observable student‘s performance. What the student will perform, after completing an instructional sequence, is specified in detail.

3) Specification of environment : This means that every model of teaching specifies in definite terms the learning environmental conditions under which a students will learn and modify their behaviours as focused in the model.

4) Criterion of Performance : A model specifies the criteria of acceptable performance which is expected from the students. The model of teaching delineates the behavioural outcomes which the learner would demonstrate after completing specific instructional sequences.

5) Specification of operations : All models of teaching specify mechanism that provide for students reaction and interaction with the environment of learning that is assumed to crcale with the interplay of the tasks indicated in the model.

6) Assumptions : Each model of teaching has certain basic assumptions which are kept in mind while a model of teaching to be developed. The assumptions pertain to at least three elements or aspects—(a) creation of appropriate learning environment,(b) occurrence of the nature and quality of interaction between the learners and the teacher, and (c) using appropriate teaching strategies.

7) Answer to some Fundamental Question : A model of teaching Provides answer to all the fundamental questions: (a) How does a teacher behave? (b) Why he/she does like this? (c) What would be affects of his/her such behaviour on the learners?

8) Based on Individual Differences : A model takes into consideration of rate of learning, potential to learn, readiness to learn and other attributes of the learners under instruction.

9) Presenting Appropriate Experiences : A model of teaching provides some kind of experiences to both the learners and the teacher. These experiences are not based on rule of thumb, rather on the basic of some valuable data, theory or even philosophy.

10) Maxims of Teaching Driven : All models of teaching follow our age old maxims of teaching what have been accumulated by our long experience in teaching.

11) Development of Human Ability : All models are humanist in nature as well as in orientation. They are developed and used for the development of human ability and capability. All consider that teaching is a system of human acts for the purpose of development of human capacity of others, called learners, in the best economic and efficient manner.

12) Influenced by Philosophy : Each model of teaching is influenced by some kind of philosophy of real life. That is reflected in the edifice of curriculum.

1.3 : Functions

The basic question which may be asked by a reader here, why should we develop a model of teaching and what are its specific function or how does a model help the practicing teacher in class room teaching-learning process?

The pertinent answers may be many. Some of these are:

1. **Guidance :** A model of teaching serves a useful purpose of providing in definite terms what the teacher has to do. He has a comprehensive design of instruction through which he/she can achieve the objectives of the course. Teaching is a

scientific, controlled and goal-directed activity. Thus a model of teaching provides guidance to the teacher as well as to the students to attain the goal of instruction.

2. **Developing Curriculum :** A model of teaching helps in the developing of curriculum for different courses at different level of education which is functionally transacted by the teacher.
3. **Specification instrumental material :** A model of teaching specifies in detail the different types of instructional materials which are to be used by the teacher to bring desirable changes in the personality of the learners.
4. **Improvement in teaching :** A model helps improving the teaching-learning process in systematic and scientific manner sand ultimately helps developing. Other functions are more specific in nature. Model of teaching (i) gives practical shape to the systems of teaching acts, (ii) determines criterion behaviour so that performance of the learners could be observed, assessed and evaluates for taking further decisions, (iii) helps modify teaching strategies for teachers more scientifically and (iv) helps modify teacher behaviours through teacher development programmes.

Unit-2

Elements of Models of Teaching

2.1 : Elements

A model of Teaching generally consists of the following elements:-

1. A Focus
2. A Syntax
3. A Social system
4. A Support system

However a model of teaching has two other elements: principle of reactions, and instructional and nurturance effects. Let us now understand meanings of these elements of models of teaching.

1. Focus :

A focus of a system refers to the frame of reference around which the model is developed. It is the main thesis which determines combinations and relationship of various processes, conditions and factors built into the model. Objectives of teaching and aspects of the environment, generally, constitute the focus of the model. What is aimed to be achieved is found in the focus of most of the models of teaching. Focus is the central aspect of a teaching model. Focus of a model of teaching gives explicit goal of the model.

2. Syntax :

The syntax or phasing of the model refers to the description of the model in action, i.e., the kind of activities which are organized at well-defined stages of the whole programme typifying the educational environment belonging to each model. It is the sequence of steps of activities involved in the organization of the complete programme of teaching.

3. Social System :

The social system refers to two elements – roles of students and teacher, particularly, the hierarchical relationship or authority relationships, and norms or the student behaviour which is rewarded. Social system is an important element of every model. Specific learning‘s are very much controlled by the kinds of relationship that are structured during the process of teaching. Models of teaching prescribe system for teaching of attitudes, skills and

understandings, etc. It describes the structure of the learning environment, or two what extent the metrication will be teacher-centric or learner-centric.

4. Support System :

Another important aspect of a model is the support system which describes the facilities will be ensured to teacher and the students, and implement the strategy of teaching. For example, if we want to implement individualization, we have to provide a number of audio visual aids, teaching machines, programmed text etc., to cater to the needs of individual learner. Support system refers to the additional requirements of the model beyond the usual human skills and capacities and technical facilities necessary for creating appropriate learning environment as suggested in the focus and syntax of the particular model of teaching.

5. Principles of Reaction :

Principles of reactions conveys to the teacher how to regard the learner and how to respond to what the learner does. In some model of teaching the teacher overtly attempts to shape behaviour by rewarding certain student activities and maintaining a neutral stance towards others. On the contrary, in other models such as those designed to develop creativity the teacher tries to maintain a nonevaluative, equal stance so that the learner becomes self-directing.

6. Instructional and Nurturing Effects :

The effects may be either explicit or implicit. The effects of an environment developed by the model of teaching in action can be direct-designed to come from the content and skills on which the activities are based. Or effects can be implicit in the learning environment. For example, a model that emphasises academic discipline can also (but need not) emphasize obedience to authority. In this example, the first kind of effects is called instructional effects and the second nurturing effects. The instructional effects are those directly achieved by leading the learner in certain directions. While the nurturing effects come from experiencing the environment created by the model of teaching. We must choose those models of teaching that have high probability to get instructional effects with substantial room for getting nurturing effects too.

2.2 : Assumptions

Models of teaching have been evolved on the following assumptions:

1. The first assumption underlying all models of teaching is that teaching is the creation of appropriate environment. There are various component parts of the teaching environment which are interdependent.
2. The second assumption is that content, skill, instructional roles, social relationships, types of activities, physical facilities and their use, all form an environmental system whose parts interact with each other to constitute the behaviour of all participants, teachers as well as students.
3. The third assumption is that different combinations of these elements create different types of environment and elicit different outcomes.
4. The fourth and the last assumption is that models of teaching create environment. They provide rough specification for environment in the class room teaching learning process.

Unit-3

Families of Models of Teaching

Expert, particularly Joyce and Weil, conducted search for useful models of teaching. They observed that models of teaching are based on practice, empirical work, theories, hunches and on speculations of several teachers, researchers and practioners, they eventually developed some families of models of teaching. Models of teaching have been grouped into four families on the basis of their sources. These represent distinct orientations towards people and how they learn. The families are described as follows:

1. **The information processing models :**

   The information processing capability of the learner is the main orientation to this family of models of teaching. Information processing means the way in which people handle stimuli, organize data, sense problems and solve them. Some models of teaching of this family are concerned with the ability of the learner to solve problems, and thus emphasize productive thinking, other are concerned with general intellectual skills. Again some models of this category develop creativity, and general intellectual ability of the learner. They emphasize the use of specific strategies within or outside academic disciplines.

2. **Personal models :**

   This family of models of teaching share orientation towards the individual person. These models emphasize the processes by which the individual constructs and organizes his unique reality. Personal and emotional life of the individual and their internal organization as it affects relationship with his environment, are the main orientation of this family of models of teaching. The focus is on helping individuals to develop a productive relationship with their environments and to view themselves as capable persons is expected to result in richer interpersonal relations and a more effective information processing capability.

3. **The social interaction models :**

   The models of this family emphasize the importance of social relationship of the person and his instructional urge to relate himself with others in the society. This type of model

increases democratic processes in the society. All models of family category are based on the assumption that social relation is the vehicle of education.

4. **Behaviour modification as a source :**

The models in this family share a common theoretical base, a body of knowledge, we popularly refer to as behaviour theory. This family of models of teaching addresses to more than one concepts like learning theory, social learning theory, behaviour modification, and behaviour therapy. The commonality in these concepts is an emphasis on changing the visible behaviour of the learner rather than the underlying structure and the unobservable behaviour. These modes are widely applicable in addressing a variety of goals in education, training, interpersonal behaviour and therapy. They also include models for teaching facts, concepts, and skills as well as models for reduction of anxiety and for relaxation.

3.1 : The Information Processing Models

Model	Major theorist	Missions or goals which intended
Inductive Thinking Inquiry Training	Hilda Taba Richard Suchman	Designed primarily for development of inductive mental processes and academic reasoning of theory building, but these capacities are useful for personal and social goal as well.
Scientific Inquiry	Joseph J, Schwab (also much of the Curriculum Reforms Movement of the 1960‘s)	Designed to teach the research system of a discipline, but also expected to have effects in other domains (sociological methods may be taught in order to solving social problem solving)
Concept Attainment	Jerome Bruner	Designed primilarily to develop inductive reasoning but also for concept development and analysis.

Model	Major theorist	Missions or goals which intended
Cognitive Growth	Jean Piaget, Irving Sigel, Edmund Sullivan Lawrence Kohlberg	Designed to increase general (intellectual development especially logical reasoning, but can be applied to social and moral development as well. (see Kohlberg 1966).
Advance Organiser Model	David Ausubel	Designed to increase efficiency of information processing capacities to meaningfully, absorb and relate bodies of knowledge.
Memory	Jerry Lucas Harry Lorayne	Designed to increase capacity to memorize

3.2 : Personal Models

Model	Major theorist	Missions or Goal
Non-directive Teaching	Carl Regers	Emphasis on building the capacity for personal development in terms of self-awareness understanding auto-nomy and self-concept.
Awareness Training	Fritz Perls William Schultz	Increasing one‘s capacity for self-exploration and self-awareness. Much emphasis on development of interpersonal awareness and understanding, as well as body and sensory awareness.
Synetics	William Gordan	Personal development of creativity and creative problem solving
Conceptual Systems	David Hunt	Designed to increase personal complexity and flexibility.
Classroom Meeting (Social Problem Solving)	William Glasser	Development of self- understanding and responsibility to oneself and one‘s social group.

3.3 : The Social Interaction Models

Model	Major theorist	Missions or Goal
Group Investigation	Herbert Thelen John Dewey	Development of skills for participation in democratic social process through combined emphasis on interpersonal (group) skills and academic inquiry skills. Aspects of personal development are important outgrowths of this model.
Social Inquiry	Byren Massialas Benjamin Cox	Social problem-solving; primilarily through academic inquiry and logical reasoning.
Labarotory Method	National Training Laboratory (NIL) Bethel Maine	Development of inter personal and group skills and through this personal awareness and flexibility.
Jurisprudential	Donald Olive James P. Shaver	Designed primarily to teach the jurisprudential frame of reference as away of thinking about and resolving social issues.
Role Playing	Famine Shafted George Shafted	Designed to induce students to inquire into personal and Social values, with their own behaviour and values becoming the source of their inquiry.
Social Simalation	Sarene Boocock Harold Guetzkow	Designed to help students experience various social processes and realities and to examine their own reactions to them, also to acquire concepts and decision making skills.

3.4 : Behaviour Modification Models

Model	Major theorist	Missions or Goal
Programmed Instruction (Contingency Management)	B.F.Skinner	Facts, concepts, skills
Managing Behaviour (Self-control)	B.F.Skinner	Social behaviour/skills
Anxiety/Stress Reduction	Rimm, Wolpe	Substitution of relaxation for anxiety in social situations.
Relaxation	Rimm and Masters, Wolpe	Personal goals (for example, reduction of stress anxiety). in social situation
Assertive Training	Wolpe Lazarus Salter	Spontaneous expression of feeling in social situation
Simulation	Link, Guestzkow Glass	Concept and decision making skills in social situation
Direct Training	Smith and Smith Lumsdainc Gagn	Pattern of behaviour, skills.

Unit-4

Concept Attainment Model

This belongs to Information Progressing Family of Teaching Models. The concept Attainment Model was developed from the work of Jerome Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin. Their work, _A Study of thinking‘ culminated many years of research into the process by which people acquired concepts. This model helps students to attain new concepts. Three concept Attainment models have been evolved:

1. Concept attainment under reception condition,
2. Concept attainment game under selection condition
3. Analysis of concepts in unorganized data.

The first is more direct in teaching students the elements of a concept and their use in concept attainment. The second permits students to apply this awareness of conceptual activity more actively by using their own initiation and control. The Third variation of this model transfers concept theory and attainment activity to real life setting using unorganised data. The educational objectives of the Concept Attainment Model are:

1. To acquire a new concept.
2. To enrich and clarify known concepts.
3. To develop an awareness of thinking strategies.
4. To understand the nature of conceptual activity, the specific behavioural objectives of the model are:
    a) The pupil correctly recognizes examples.
    b) The pupil generates new examples.
    c) The pupil locates examples in books.
    d) The pupil states the attributes of concepts.

These are the strategies followed in concept attainment. These strategies are: Reception and Selection. The phases of specific syntax of these are given in the following paragraphs.

4.1 : Focus

The concept attainment model facilitates the type of learning referred to conceptual learning in contrast with the rote learning of factual information or of vocabulary. In practice, the model works as an inductive model designed to teach concept through the use of examples. Therefore, in addition to help the students in the attainment of a particular concept, the model enables them to become aware of the process of conceptualizing.

4.2 : Syntax

Phase 1 : Presentation of data Identification of Attributes of concept

- Teacher presents unlabeled examples.
- Students inquire which examples are positive ones
- Students generate and test hypotheses.

Phase 2 : Testing Attainment of the Concept

- Students identify additional unlabelled examples.
- Students generate examples.
- Teacher confirms hypothesis, names concept and relates definition according to essential attribute.

Phase 3 : Analysis of Testing Strategy

- Students describe thoughts.
- Students discuss type and number of hypotheses
- Students discuss type and number of hypotheses.

Syntax of Reception Model:

Phase 1 : Presentation of Data and Identification of Concept.

- Teacher presents labelled examples (both positive and negative).
- Students compare the attributes, in positive and negative attributes
- Students generate and test hypotheses.
- Students name the concept.
- Students state a definition.

Phase 2 : Testing Attainment of the Concept

- Student of identify additional unlabeled examples as yes or no.

- Teacher confirms hypothesis, names concept and relate definition according to essential attributes.
- The pupils generate examples.

Phase 3 : Analysis of Thinking Strategies

- Students discuss thoughts.
- Students discuss the role of the hypotheses and attribute
- Students discuss the type and the number of hypotheses.
- Students evaluate strategies.

4.3 : Principles of Reactions

During the initial stage of the lesson the teacher should support the students hypotheses-emphasizing, however, that they are hypothetical in nature and to create dialogue in which students test their hypothesis. Later, he/she needs to turn the students attention towards analysis of their concepts and their thinking strategies. The teacher should encourage analysis of the merits of various strategies rather than attempting to seek the one best strategy for all people in all situations.

4.4 : Social System

While using the reception model of concept attainment the teacher selects the concepts, selects and organizes, and labels the material into positive and negative examples and sequences the examples. The pupils are required to study the attributes of positive and negative examples and frame hypotheses. The teacher supplies additional examples, when needed. The Three major functions of the teacher during reception oriented concept attainment activity are to record, prompt (cue), and present additional data, both examples and non-examples. When using the selection model of the concept attainment model the teacher presents unlabelled examples and he/she has no control over the sequence of the examples chosen by the pupils. Further, the pupils have to frame a hypotheses regarding the concept and then select an example and ask the teacher whether it is a _Yes‘ or _No‘.

4.5 : Support System

Concept attainment lesson require material that has been designed so that concepts are embedded in the material with positive and negative examples. The material must be organized so that positive and negative examples are pointed out to the student. It is instructive to note that the students‘ job in a concept attainment strategy is not to invent new concepts, but to attain the ones that have previously been selected by the teacher. Hence the data sources need to be known before head.

Critical Features :

The Critical features of concept attainment model of teaching may be summed up as:

- The model emphasises an analytic role of the teacher in all the four components of the model
- The concept attainment lessons use concept embedded material.
- The job of the student in concept attainment strategy is not to invent new concepts but to learn the ones have been previously been attained.
- In the beginning stage the teacher using this strategy has to be supportive of the student‘s hypothesis about the concepts.
- The concept attainment model can be adopted to the entire curriculum in various discipline and it can be the basis for extensive man-machine systems.

Limitations :

The concept attainment model ignores the _social interaction‘ matrix of the classroom Situation. It decries expository teaching.

Implications for Teachers :

The concept attainment model has a great relevance for teachers who intend to improve the instructional systems. This model has special implications for teachers of languages. Mathematics, sciences and some of the social sciences. This model guides teachers to go to the depth of the content to be imparted for exploring various examples and non examples.

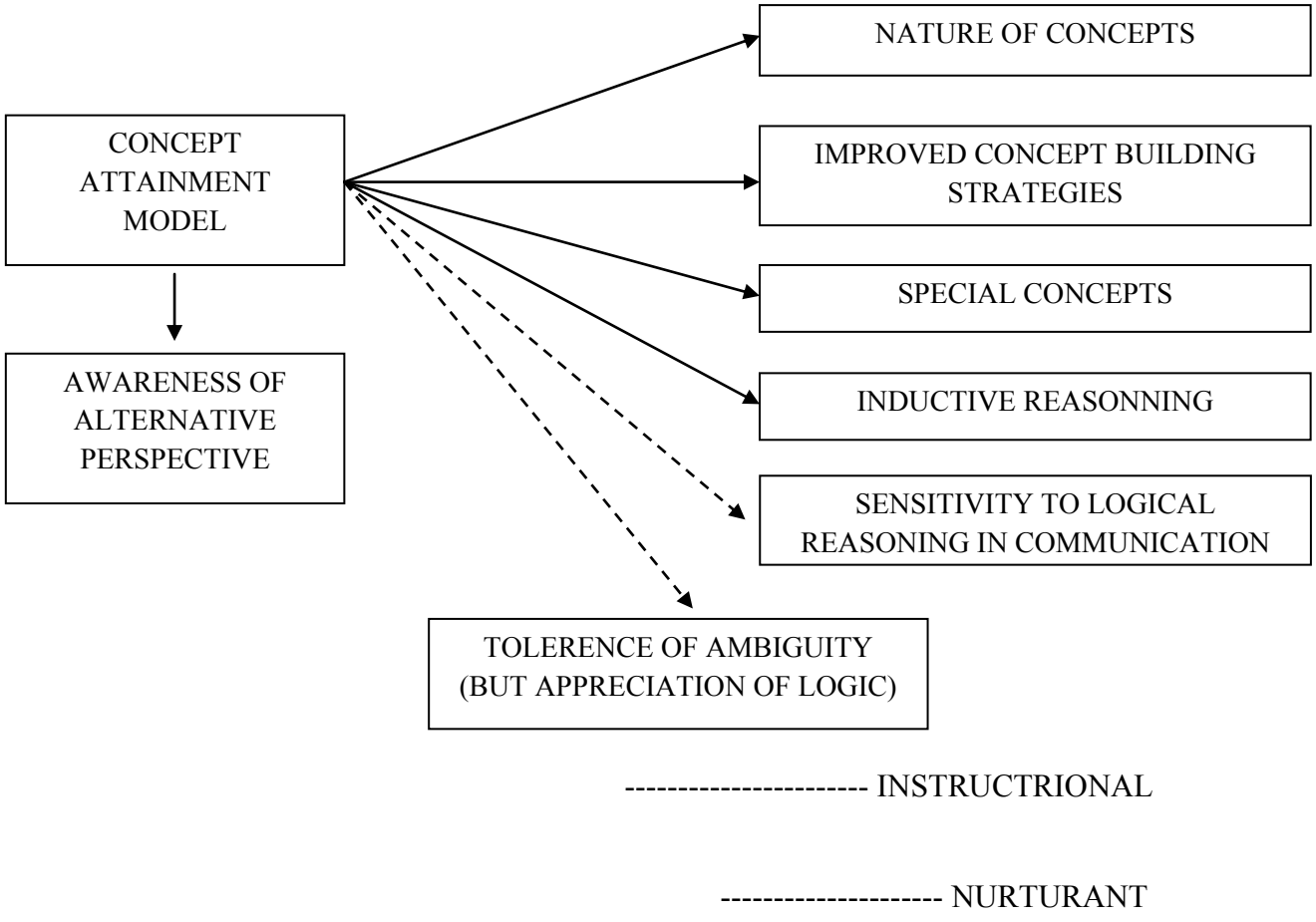
Instructional and Nurturing Effects :

The concept attainment models are designed for instruction on specific concepts and on the nature of the concepts. They also provide practice in inductive reasoning and opportunities for altering and improving students concept building strategies. Especially with abstract

concepts, the strategies sensitivity to logical reasoning in communication, and a to tolerance of nurture an awareness of alternative perspectives, a ambiguity. These have been shown in the Figure.

Instructional and Nurturing Effects of Concept Attainment Model

4.6 : Application



Instructional and Nurturant Effects of Concept Attainment Model

Application of the Model : The concepts attainment model of teaching can be used extensively in language teaching. Teaching of grammar is done through this model Bruner‘s strategies of concepts teaching can be applied profitably in the teaching of science. The use of discovery and inquiry techniques in teaching science provides the pupils with experience quite similar to tasks used by Bruner. For example, if we want the students to invent their own system of clarification of plants and animals, they can do it by identifying the attributes and

putting the plants or animals with common attributes in one groups. The concept attainment model can be made the basis of extensive man machine systems in modern teaching-learning process.

Merits :

1. It is a natural way of teaching and learning.
2. It is helpful in developing the power of imagination of the students.
3. It helps in the development of reasoning power of the students.
4. It helps students to analyze things systematically.
5. It helps students actively engaged in the classroom activity.
6. It helps in making the students good observers.
7. It encourages the habit of self study in the students.
8. It helps the learners to apply their knowledge in different situations.
9. It helps the students busy in the classroom work.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the phases of the concept attainment models.
2. What are the merits of concept attainment model of teaching in teacher education?

Unit-5

Advance Organizer Model

5.1 : Focus

The model of Advance Organizer was developed by David Ausubel. It responds to an almost purely information processing theory for meaningful verbal learning. This model is based upon Ausubel‘s ideas about subject matter, cognitive structure, active reception learning and advance organizer.

According to Ausubel, each discipline has a structure of concepts which form the basis of information processing system of the discipline. He believes that each discipline consists of sets of concepts which are hierarchically organized. The concepts are organized from the simple perceptual to very abstract at the top. All these concepts are linked with each other. Each discipline has its own unique set of concepts.

Ausubel like Bruner believes that the structural concepts of each discipline can be identified

and taught to the student and they then become an information processing system for him. An intellectual map which can be used to analyze particular domain and to solve problems within

those domains of activities.

According to him, the main task of the school is to identify the stable and organized bodies of knowledge within the discipline. The most important kind of learning which the school can foster is the acquisition of these bodies. The teacher should transmit these stable bodies of knowledge in such a way that the learner will incorporate them meaningfully into his own system and they become his own and function for him.

The heart of this system is meaningful verbal learning. The main idea of meaningfulness refers to connecting the new learning material with existing ideas in the learner‘s cognitive structure. That is we must relate and reconcile what we know with what we are learning. In that case learning is not rote learning. And the learner is not passive, rather active.

5.2 : Syntax

The Advance Organizer Model has three phases of activity. Phase one is the presentation of the advance organizer, phase two is the presentation of the learning task or learning material, and phase three is the strengthening of cognitive organization. Phase three tests the relationship of the learning material to existing ideas to bring about an active learning process.

The activities are designed to increase the clarity and stability of new learning material so that fever ideas are lost, confused with one another, or left vague. The students should operate on the material as they receive it by relating the new learning material to personal experience and to their existing cognitive structure, and by taking a critical stance toward knowledge.

Phase one consists of three activities :

Clarifying the aims of the lesson, presenting the advance organizer, and prompting awareness of relevant knowledge.

Some important clarifications are needed to understand activities in phase one. The organizer is not just a brief, simple presentation; it is an idea in itself. The actual organizer is built around the major concepts and/or propositions of a discipline or area of study. The organizer has to be constructed so that the learner can perceive it for what it is an idea distinct from and more inclusive than the material in the learning task itself. The organizer must be at a highest level of abstraction and generality than the learning material itself.

In **phase two** lectures, discussions films, experiments or reading may provide the learning material which is preceded in the first phase by the advance organizer. Two procedures are there seeking and maintaining students attention, and making the organization of learning material explicit/clear to the students so that they have an overall sense of direction.

The purpose of **phase three** is to anchor (connect) the new learning material in the students existing cognitive structure. This is performed through the execution of four activities —

(1) promoting integrative reconciliation,

(2) promoting active reception learning,

(3) eliciting a principle approach to subject matter, and

(4) clarification.

Reconciliation is important in this model: There are several ways to facilitate reconciliation of the new material with the existing cognitive structure. The teacher can: (1) remind students of the ideas (larger picture); (2) ask for a summary of the major attributes of the new learning material; (3) repeat precise definitions; (4) ask for differences between aspects of the material, and (5) ask students to describe how the learning material supports the concept or proposition that is being used as a subsumer.

Moreover, active learning can be promoted by : (1) asking questions to describe how the new material relates to a single aspect of their existing knowledge; (2) asking students for additional examples of the concepts or propositions in the learning material; (3) asking students to verbalize the essence of the material, using their own terminology and frame of reference; (4) asking students to examine the material from alternative points of view; and (5) relating material to contradictory material, experience or knowledge.

Finally, the teacher must translate the new material into a frame of reference that has personal meaning for the student.

5.3 : Social System

The social system of this model is highly structured. The teacher is in fact the initiator and controller of norms. But beyond the presentation of the organizer, the learning situation can become a less structured. The teacher and the students can be very interactive. The teacher retains the control of the intellectual structure. It is necessary because he relates the learning material from previous material. This system provides help students differentiate new material from previously learnt material.

5.4 : Principles of Reactions

The teacher or the instructional material is the controller in the situations. The teacher may point out the relationship between the organizer and the instructional material that is presented. The control is selected for the learner and the teacher should encourage discussion around the material.

The teacher‘s solicited or unsolicited responses to the learner‘s reactions will be guided by the purpose of clarifying the meaning of the new learning material, differentiating it from it and reconciling it with existing knowledge, making it personally relevant to the student.

5.5 : Support System

Well organized material is critical the critical support. The advance organizer depends on an integral relationship between the conceptual organizer and rest of the content. It may be that it works best as a paradigm around which to built instructional materials so that the time can be taken to ensure complete relevance of content and organizer. However, the model was designed for use in face to face teaching and can be if the time is given to prepare lectures or other types of material carefully, useful in daily teaching.

5.6 : Application

The model can be used for teaching the contents related to almost all the subjects of the school and university curriculum through its skilled presentation. It can help the teacher convey a large amount of information meaningfully within a time frame through expository methods of teaching like lecturing, demonstration, reading and exhibiting verbal contents. The all-round applicability of this model as suggested by Joyce and Weil (2003:276-77) can be summarized ac:

1) This model can be successfully used for structuring extended curriculum sequences or courses and to instruct the students systematically in the key ideas for ultimately gaining perspective on the entire curriculum area of a subject.
2) It can prove helpful in increasing the learner‘s grasp of factual information linked to and explained by the key ideas through the advance organizer and presentation of the learning material on the part of the teacher.
3) It can be quite helpful to the teachers as well as learners for teaching and learning the skills of meaningful reception learning through expository teaching.
4) It can help in explaining and making the students learn the art of critical thinking and cognitive reorganization through its mechanism of direct instruction in orderly thinking and in the notion of knowledge hierarchies.

5) The material presented through the application of this model in a deductive way can be further subjected to inductive concept attainment for reinforcing the material and also informally evaluating the student‘s acquisition of the material.

6) The use of the model may enable the students to learn from expository teaching like lectures, reading and other media used for presentation, besides being useful in developing their interest in inquiry and precise habits of thinking.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What is the special feature of advance organizer?

2. Is advance organizer model of teaching suitable to our classroom teaching? Justify.

Unit-6

Basic Teaching Model of Glaser

Basic Teaching Model was developed by Robert Glaser in 1962. It is termed as basic because if tries to explain the whole teaching process by dividing it into the four basic components or parts, namely, 1) Instructional Objectives, 2) Entering Behaviour, 3) Instructional procedures, 4) Performance assessment. All these four basic components of the teaching process interact and influence each other as explained in the diagram.

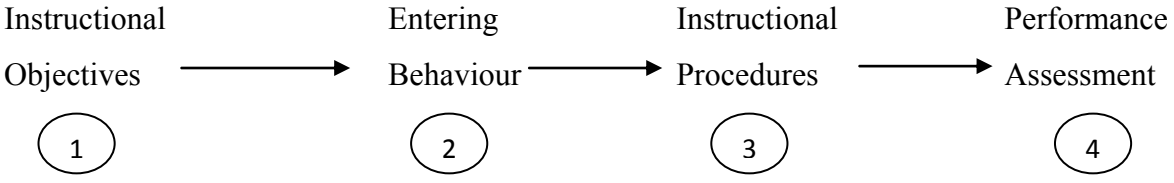


Fig. : Components of Teaching Process in Glaser‘s Basic Teaching Model.

1. **Instructional objectives :**

   Instructional Objectives indicate the stipulated goals that a student is expected to attain after the completion of a part of instruction. These are usually based on Bloom‘s Taxonomy of Objectives.

2. **Entering Behaviour :**

   Entering Behaviour implies the initial behaviour of the student before the beginning of instruction. The assessment of the entering behaviour is an important aspect of the instructional process.

3. **Instructional Procedures:**

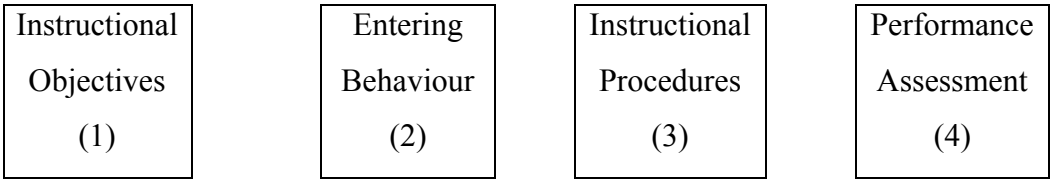
   Instructional Procedures represent the teaching methods, strategies and student-teacher interaction patterns involved in teaching. Instructional Procedures are guided by the nature of the instructional objectives and the entering behaviour.

4. **Performance Assessment:**

   Performance Assessment involves the extent to which the stipulated objectives have been fulfilled. It involves the use of suitable evaluation technique like tests, observation etc. It serves as a feedback device for each of the steps and elements of the teaching

process. As a matter of fact, all these four basic components of the teaching process interact and influence each other. One sets the base for the other by providing as a base or feedback for the successful operation of the teaching act.

By adding feedback loops we can get this Basic Teaching Model as:



Three feedback loops, for example, connect performance assessment with each of the earlier components of the model.

Description of Glaser's Basic Teaching Model:

Glaser's model may be described in terms of the fundamental elements as under:

6.1 : Focus

It attempts to pinpoint the process and major activities comprising the entire teaching-learning process. It also brings into light the sequence to be followed in the instructional process.

6.2 : Syntax

The flow of activities in this model is sequential. First of all the objectives to be followed are fixed in accordance with Bloom's Taxonomy. Then the potentiality of the learners in terms of their entry behaviour is assessed. Thereafter in the light of the entry behaviour, instructional work is carried out for the achievement of stipulated objectives. Performance assessment is the last phase.

6.3 : Principles of Reactions

Main Principles of Reactions are summarized below:

a) **Principle of Interdependence-** The student's response are to be understood and deal with in the light of the inter action and interdependence process and assessment.

b) **Principles of Active Involvement-** Its proper execution requires a lot of activity on the part of the teacher. At every stage the teacher is expected to develop proper understanding of the potential and difficulties of his students for achieving the objectives.

c) **Principles of Follow Up-**In case the results are not in accordance with the set objectives, gaps and deficiencies have to be found out and corrective measures taken.

6.4 : Social System

The success of this model depends upon the ability and competency of the teacher in terms of various skills like formulation of objectives, use of proper strategies, techniques of evaluation etc.

6.5 : Support System

The model for its success needs additional support in terms of (a) Availability of adequate pre-service and in-service facilities to teachers to acquire needed competencies and skills for the use of the model, (b) Availability of desirable teaching learning environment and situation for the use of suitable teaching strategies and (c) Availability of appropriate evaluation device for the assessment of entry and terminal behaviour of the learners.

6.6 : Application

Being quite systematic and structured, this model is applicable to almost all learning-teaching situations.

Glaser‘s model indicates that teaching includes a wide range of decision and practices and much of which requires little or no personal contact between the teacher and students. It implies a personal contact between the teacher and students. It implies a greater emphasis on the competency of the teacher than on his personality.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write down the main components of Glaser‘s Model of Teaching.
2. Mention application of Glaser‘s Model of Teaching in classroom teaching.

LET US SUM UP

Teaching will become successful if it follows some systemic activities. Models of teaching provide us directions on what ways we can move ourselves for imparting effective teaching. In this unit the fundamentals of models of teaching have been discussed first. Then, we have understood three different models of teaching. These understanding will help us becoming more effective teachers.

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Joyce, B. And M. Weil (1997): Models of Teaching, New Delhi, Prentice-Hall of India.
2. Passi, Singh, and Sansanwal (1991), Models of Teaching, New Delhi, NCERT.
3. Robert, L. Ebel and Devid, A Frisble (1991). Essentials of Educational Measurement. New Delhi, Prentice-Hall.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Discuss functions and elements of models of teaching.
2. Discuss any one models of teaching with its structures and applications.
3. Elaborate the classifications of models teaching.
4. Discuss critically Advance Organizer Model of Teaching.
5. Critically discuss Concept Attainment Model of Teaching. Can you apply it in a general classroom situation?

TWO-YEAR

POST GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMME

IN

EDUCATION

SEMESTER– III

EDC –08

Curriculum Development

Self Learning Material

DIRECTORATE OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

UNIVERSITY OF KALYANI

KALYANI – 741 235, WEST BENGAL

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Director's Message

Satisfying the varied needs of distance learners, overcoming the obstacle of distance and reaching the unreached students are the threefold functions catered by Open and Distance Learning (ODL) systems. The onus lies on writers, editors, production professionals and other personnel involved in the process to overcome the challenges inherent to curriculum design and production of relevant Self Learning Materials (SLMs). At the University of Kalyani a dedicated team under the able guidance of the Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor has invested its best efforts, professionally and in keeping with the demands of Post Graduate CBCS Programmes in Distance Mode to devise a self-sufficient curriculum for each course offered by the Directoate of Open and Distance Learning (DODL), University of Kalyani.

Development of printed SLMs for students admitted to the DODL within a limited time to cater to the academic requirements of the Course as per standards set by Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, India under Open and Distance Mode UGC Regulations, 2017 had been our endeavour. We are happy to have achieved our goal.

Utmost care and precision have been ensured in the development of the SLMs, making them useful to the learners, besides avoiding errors as far as practicable. Further suggestions from the stakeholders in this would be welcome.

During the production-process of the SLMs, the team continuously received positive stimulations and feedback from Professor (Dr.) Sankar Kumar Ghosh, Hon'ble Vice- Chancellor, University of Kalyani, who kindly accorded directions, encouragements and suggestions, offered constructive criticism to develop it within proper requirements. We gracefully, acknowledge his inspiration and guidance.

Sincere gratitude is due to the respective chairpersons as well as each and every member of PGBOS (DODL), University of Kalyani. Heartfelt thanks is also due to the Course Writers-faculty members at the DODL, subject-experts serving at University Post Graduate departments and also to the authors and academicians whose academic contributions have enriched the SLMs. We humbly acknowledge their valuable academic contributions. I would especially like to convey gratitude to all other University dignitaries and personnel involved either at the conceptual or operational level of the DODL of University of Kalyani.

Their persistent and co-ordinated efforts have resulted in the compilation of comprehensive, learner-friendly, flexible texts that meet the curriculum requirements of the Post Graduate Programme through Distance Mode.

All the Self Learning Materials are self writing and collected from e-book, journals and websites.

Director
Directorate of Open and Distance Learning
University of Kalyani

Syllabus

Full marks - 100

SEMESTER – III		
EDC – 8:CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT		
Block	**Contents**	**Study hour**
Block-1 **Concept of Curriculum**	**Unit - 1: Basic concepts of curriculum-I** 1.1.1 : Meaning, Nature, and functions 1.1.2 : Types and components	1 Hour
	Unit - 2: Basic concepts of curriculum-II 1.2.1: Curriculum Planning 1.2.2: Curriculum Design	1 Hour
Block-2 **Foundations of Curriculum**	**Unit - 1: Philosophical Foundations of Curriculum** 2.1.1:Philosophies and Curriculum 2.1.2: Some basic Curriculum Concern from philosophical stand points	1 Hour
	Unit – 2:Sociological Foundations of Curriculum 2.2.1: Sociology and Curriculum 2.2.2: Some main Sociological Issues in Shaping Curriculum	1 Hour
	Unit – 3: Psychological Foundations of Curriculum 2.3.1: Curriculum and Theories of Learning 2.3.2: Other Psychological Bearings on Curriculum Development	1 Hour
	Unit – 4: Technological foundations of Curriculum 2.4.1: Technology and Curriculum	
Block-3 **Curriculum Theories and models**	**Unit -1: Curriculum Theories** 3.1.1: Understanding Meaning of Curriculum Theory 3.1.2 : Functions of Curriculum Theory 3.1.3 : Curriculum Theories- Nature and Significance	1 Hour
	Unit -2: Classifying Curriculum Theories 3.2.1: Process Oriented Theories of Curriculum 3.2.2 : Structure Oriented Theories of Curriculum 3.2.3 : Value Oriented Theories of Curriculum 3.2.4 : Content Oriented Theories of Curriculum 3.2.5 : Theories of Curriculum Implementation 3.2.6 : Core Issues in Curriculum Theory 3.2.7 : Systems Approach in Curriculum	1 Hour
	Unit -3: Curriculum Models 3.3.1: What is a curriculum model ?	1 Hour
	Unit -4: Classifying Curriculum Models 3.4.1: Technical models of curriculum development 3.4.2: Non-technical models of curriculum development	1 Hour
Block-4 **Curriculum Studies**	**Unit -1: Basic concepts of Curriculum Studies** 4.1.1: Framework, Basic questions 4.1.2: Strategies and Critique	1 Hour
	Unit -2: National School Curriculum Framework-2005 by NCERT	1 Hour
	Unit-3: Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (NCTE)	1 Hour
	Unit-4: Curriculum Framework for Higher Education (UGC)	1 Hour
Block-5 **Curriculum Evaluation**	**Unit -1: Curriculum evaluation: stage and need.** 5.1.1: Concept and approaches – formative and summative 5.1.2: Perspectives of curriculum evaluation	1 Hour
	Unit -2: Approaches to Curriculum Evaluation and model 5.2.1: Stages of curriculum evaluation 5.2.2: Need of curriculum evaluation 5.2.3: Curriculum evaluation model	1 Hour

CONTENTS

Block – 1

Concept of Curriculum

CONTENT STRUCTURE :

INTRODUCTION

The organization of schooling and further education has long been associated with the idea of a curriculum. But what actually is curriculum, and how might it be conceptualized? This question is a matter of long - term research in the field of education. Commonly, we believe that the teaching-learning process is instrumental in the larger process of education. In order to carry it out, certain arrangements are created, providing a context within which teaching-learning can occur more meaningfully. School is such a context created wherein formal arrangements are made for the purpose. Within such context, each and every learner is exposed to a variety of experiences leading to some sort of learning – not only academic learning in the classroom but also that of outside classroom as well as socio cultural learning. All these learning experiences have crucial impact in a cumulative way on the development of a child. For a given stage of education and class, these learning experiences are consciously selected and organized. Further in a sequenced and scheduled programme of studies, these are provided to the students as a set of interconnected learning experiences. Technically, the sum total of _learning experiences‘ for a given class thus provided in the system of formal education is called _curriculum‘. In other words, the term curriculum came to be used to denote all experiences provided with the intention of aiding student development within and beyond the instructional situations in any formal educational setup.

Curriculum can be conceptualized from different angles. Our present concern is to consider its developmental point of view. In this academic session you will learn the basic skills of curriculum construction through gaining knowledge and understanding of the nature of _curriculum development‘ as the development process demands the ability to translate ideas into actual decisions. Side by side, decoding ideas into practice and decisiveness require proper _planning‘ and _designing‘ which are the two essential constituent in the process of curriculum development.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able

- To define curriculum
- To understand the modern nature of curriculum
- To understand the functions of modern curriculum
- To plan any curriculum
- To develop proficiency in designing any curriculum.

Block – 1

Unit – 1

Basic concepts of curriculum-I

1.1.1: MEANING, NATURE AND FUNCTIONS

DEFINING CURRICULUM

The idea of curriculum is hardly new - but the way we understand and theorize it has altered over the years. It has its origins in the running/chariot tracks of Greece. In Latin, curriculum was a racing chariot; currere was to run. It was, literally, a course. As an idea, curriculum stems from the Latin word for race course, referring to the course of deeds and experiences through which children grow and mature in becoming adults. In formal education, a curriculum is the set of courses, and their content, offered at a school or any educational organization. At this point curriculum should be differentiated from syllabus as it is a common mistake to presume both as synonyms. ―Syllabus" refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject, whereas ―curriculum" refers to the totality of content to be taught and aims to be realized within one school or educational system". Thus, a curriculum subsumes a syllabus.

John Kerr (quoted in Kelly 1983, 1999) defines curriculum as, ―All the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school". The key feature in this definition that ‗learning is planned and guided' is important here to consider because a curriculum developer has to specify in advance what he is seeking to achieve and how he is to go about it. These are the actual tasks of ‗curriculum planning and designing'.

Educators define curriculum in different ways, in part because they bring to that task different perceptions of what curriculum should be. The following are some of the more well-known definitions which provide some clarity to its understanding that you might consider.

- Curriculum is all experiences children have under the guidance of teachers (Campbell, 1930).
- By ―curriculum" we mean the planned experiences offered to the learner under the guidance of the school (D.K.Wheeler, 1967).
- Curriculum refers to the learning experiences of students, in so far as they are expressed or anticipated in educational goals and objectives, plans and designs for learning and the implementation of these plans and designs in school environments (Skibeck, 1984).

- Curriculum is a programme (the school) offers to its students. It consists of a ‗preplanned series of educational hurdles' and an entire range of experiences, a child has within the school (Eisner, 1985).

- The curriculum is the plans made for guiding learning in schools, usually represented in retrievable documents of several levels of generality, and the implementation of those plans in the classrooms, as experienced by the learners and as recorded by an observer; those experiences that take place in a learning environment that also influences what is learned (Glatthorn, 1987).

- Curriculum can, however, be defined broadly - as dealing with the experiences of the learner. This view considers almost anything in the school, even outside school (as long as it is planned) as part of the curriculum (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988).

- Curriculum can be viewed as the subject based experiences or the course of study (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1988).

- The curriculum is a goal or set of values, which are activated through a development process culminating in classroom experiences for students. The degree to which those experiences are a true representation of the envisioned goal or goals is a direct function of the effectiveness of the curriculum development efforts (J.Wiles & J.Bondi, 1989).

- In Indian context we should consider the following views :–

- ―Curriculum may be regarded as the sum total of all the deliberately planned set of educational experiences provided to the child by the school" (NCERT, Curriculum for the ten year school, 1975).

- What our Secondary Education commission emphatically explained about school curriculum is worth mentioning.

- ―It must be clearly understood that according to the best educational thought curriculum does mean only the academic subjects traditionally taught in schools, but it includes the totality of experiences that a pupil receives through the manifold activities that go on in the school, in the classroom, library, laboratory, workshop, playground and in the numerous informal contracts between teachers and pupils. In this sense, the whole life of the school becomes the curriculum which can touch the life of the students at all points and help in the evolution of balanced personality".

So far the expert views are concerned, *curriculum is defined as all the planned learning opportunities offered to learners by the educational institution and the experiences learners encounter when the curriculum is implemented*. This includes those activities that educators have devised for learners which are invariably represented in the form of a written document and the process whereby teachers make decisions to implement those activities given interaction with context variables such as learners, resources, teachers and the learning environment.

A curriculum consists of a) planned learning experiences; b) offered within an educational institution / programme; c) represented as a document; and d) includes experiences resulting from implementing that document. This conceptualisation of the term goes beyond the notion of simply preparing a planned document to be adopted later. When a curriculum document is implemented in an institution with an educational programme, interaction takes place between the document, learners and instructors such that modification occurs and a 'curriculum' emerges.

CHARACRERISATIONS OF CURRICULUM :

William Schubert (1986) refers to many different images or characterizations of curriculum. He prefers these terms to that of _definition' because —— they denote a broader conceptualization than the label for a thing". However, an image or characterization can also mean a way of perceiving or viewing the concept concerned and hence facilitating understanding. A selection of these character- izations includes:

- ***Curriculum as subject matter:*** this is **the most traditional image** of curriculum which depicts it as the combining of subject matter to form a body of content to be taught. Such content is the product of accumulated wisdom, particularly acquired through the traditional academic disciplines. As a result of this content, one can predetermine the curriculum for learners.

- ***Curriculum as experience:*** **a more recent image** sees curriculum as the set of experiences learners encounter in educational contexts. Most of these experiences have been purposively planned by means of the written curriculum but many more experiences are encountered by learners in educational contexts. Through experiencing the hidden curriculum learners acquire many forms of learning that were not planned yet which are usually highly significant.

  Experience is also seen from the perspective argued by John Dewey (1916), namely that in experiencing a curriculum one also reflects upon that experience and one consequently strives to monitor one's thoughts and actions in that curriculum context. In this characterization of curriculum, the teacher acts more as a facilitator to enhance the learner's personal growth.

- ***Curriculum as intention :*** **early efforts** to address curriculum planning saw educators make use of intentional strategies through the vehicles of aims, goals and objectives. This characterization of curriculum argues that a comprehensive planning of learning

experiences for students, predetermined before they commence the curriculum, is the best way to address the learner needs.

- ***Curriculum as cultural reproduction :*** **some experts view** that curriculum should reflect the culture of a society. The curriculum, particularly through the selection of learning experiences, provides a vehicle to pass on the salient knowledge and values used by one generation to the succeeding generation.

However, there is by no means consensus as to what knowledge and values are indeed worthwhile to be passed on from one generation to the next. Uncritical cul- tural reproduction has not occurred in our society and consequently this character- ization remains contentious.

In the process of conceptualising curriculum these chracterisations will help you to understand its nature.

FUNCTIONS OF CURRICULUM :

A school‘s / institution‘s curriculum consists of everything that promotes learners‘ intellectual, personal, social and physical development. As well as lessons and cocurricular activities, it includes approaches to teaching, learning and assessment, the quality of relationships within school /institution, and the values embodied in the way the school / institution operates.

A well-designed curriculum is built on a clear vision of what it is trying to achieve. It :

- has clear aims that reflect the national aims for education and learners‘ needs as individuals and citizens,
- promotes the intellectual, personal, social and physical development of all learners,
- establishes high expectations for all, extending horizons and raising aspirations,
- identifies outcomes relating to knowledge, skills, and personal attitudes and attributes,
- is underpinned by clear values.

At the same time a well-designed curriculum is organised to achieve its aims. Thus, **functions** of curriculum are nothing but helping to achive its aims through providing a coherent and relevant set of learning experiences, and by meeting the statutory requirements which include the dynamic interplay between content, pedagogy and assessment.

Consequently, it performs the following in-built system functions. It

- helps every learner to make progress, building on their experiences both within and outside of school
- provides for the full range of capabilities and aspirations
- provides opportunities for learners to experience the benefits of different learning approaches, including learning through subject disciplines, thematic approaches, areas of study of their own choice, and problem identification
- includes global, national, local and personal dimensions

- reflects and makes use of current technology
- provides proper feedback for evaluating the path of progress.

As a whole, a curriculum if systematically planned and well designed is capable to guide the future need of the society towards its fulfillment, and technically to direct what is to be taught and learned, and in what ways.

1.1.2: TYPES AND COMPONENTS

Types of curriculum :

Conceptualising the nature and meaning of curriculum will be incomplete if you do not get acquainted with a number of types of curriculum. Technically, curriculum is one but how it is implemented generates the concept of types. **Popularly,** curriculum types are as follows:

1. ***Overt, explicit or written curriculum*** is simply that which is written as part of formal instruction of the schooling experience. It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, films, and supportive teaching materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school. Thus, the overt curriculum is usually confined to those written understandings and directions formally designated and reviewed by administrators, curriculum directors and teachers, often collectively.
2. ***Societal curriculum*** : Cortes (1981) defines societal curricula as: ...[the] massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, churches organizations, occupations, mass, media and other socializing forces that —educat" all of us throughout our lives.
3. ***Hidden or covert curriculum*** : That which is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines. Longstreet and Shane (1993) offer a commonly accepted definition for this term....*the* —hidden curriculum," which refers to the kinds of learning children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators....
4. ***Null curriculum*** : That which we do not teach, thus giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society. Eisner offers some major points as he concludes his discussion of the null curriculum.
5. ***Phantom curriculum*** : The messages prevalent in and through exposure to media.
6. ***Concomitant curriculum*** : What is taught, or emphasized at home, or those experiences that are part of a family's experiences, or related experiences sanctioned by the family. (This type of curriculum may be received at religious organisation, in the context of religious expression, lessons on values, ethics or morals, molded behaviors, or social

experiences based on family's preferences.)

7. ***Rhetorical curriculum*** : Elements from the rhetorical curriculum are comprised from ideas offered by policymakers, school officials, administrators, or politicians. This curriculum may also come from those professionals involved in concept formation and content changes; or from those educational initiatives resulting from decisions based on national and state reports, public speeches, or from texts critiquing outdated educational practices. The rhetorical curriculum may also come from the publicized works offering updates in pedagogical knowledge.
8. ***Curriculum-in-use*** : The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the curriculum guides published by the authorized organisation. However, those "formal" elements are frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher.
9. ***Received curriculum*** : Those things that students actually take out of classroom; those concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered.

But the most common perceptions of curriculum, expanded substantially from the **types** suggested by **Glatthorn (1987),** may be described as:

- *The ideal or recommended curriculum :* What is proposed by scholars as a solution to meet a need and consequently perceived as the most appropriate curriculum for learners.
- *The entitlement curriculum :* What society believes learners should expect to be exposed to as part of their learning to become effective members of that society.
- *The intended or written curriculum :* What organizations develop for their learners in their educational systems and what should be taught by the teachers in that system. This is often referred to as the syllabus by such organizations and systems.
- *The available or supported curriculum :* That curriculum which can be taught in schools through the provision of appropriate resources, both human and material.
- *The implemented curriculum :* What is actually taught by teachers in their classrooms as they and their students interact with the intended and available curricula.
- *The achieved curriculum:* What students actually learnt as a result of their interaction with the implemented curriculum.
- The attained curriculum : The measurement of student learning (usually through a

testing process) which reveals those learnings acquired by students. Measurement is usually based upon the intended curriculum, particularly at systematic levels, though it may be based on the implemented curriculum at classroom level.

Whatever may be the type, the **essential features** common to curricula, however, are that all forms of curricula incorporate the following:

1. A formalized course of study designed for learners.
2. Conscious planning that attempts to determine learning outcomes.
3. Some form of structure to facilitate that learning

Components of curriculum :

Curriculum consists of the following **five** components:

1. **A framework of assumptions about the learner and the society :**

All curriculum organization begins with the assumptions concerning the learner and the society in which he or she lives. The first guiding construct to curriculum planner is the determination of the learner's ability, needs, interests, motivation and potential for learning certain academic as well as cultural content.

Society is the second guiding construct in selecting the options within curriculum components. The society in which the individual learner will be a functioning member points to ‗what is worth learning'. In an effective curriculum, these two constructs, individual and society are reconciled to the end reflecting the aims and objectives of national education.

2. Aims, goals and objectives :

Curriculum starts functioning once the assumptions are clearly stated within the agenda of aims, goals, and objectives, i.e. ‗what to be achieved'? Aims are general statements that provide direction or intent to educational action. Goals are statements of educational intention which are more specific than aims. Objectives are usually specific statements of educational intention which delineate either general or specific outcome. However, there is no standardization among the statements of aims and goals though a variety of ways has been suggested for presenting objectives of curriculum. Aims, goals and objectives change as sociocultural nature of the society and the nature of its members change.

3. **Selection of content with its scope and sequence :**

To fulfill the aims of curriculum, subject matter or content is selected and organized in tives

change as sociocultural nature of the society and the nature of its members change. a scientific manner. Choice of subject matter is made in a planned way with a view to follow its justified scope in terms of range and orderly presentation. Selection and organization of content follows aims and goals of general education applicable to all students or those of specialized education for a selected group of students.

4. Modes of transaction :

This component concerns with the instructional methodology and learning environment to be created. Preplanned curriculum transactional modes guide teachers‘ behaviour in the classroom and within the institution which in turn influences learners‘ learning outcomes. These transactional modes may be classified, direct or indirect. But what- ever may be their nature, they should be thought of very clearly because effectiveness of any curriculum depend significantly on these strategies.

5. Evaluation :

This component functions in a two-way process - obtaining information regarding how well the learning experiences have been transacted, and giving feedback on what aims and goals have been achieved as well as where these achievements fail. In this regard, it is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing information useful for making decisions and judgments about curricula.

Components of curriculum do not function separately. They are interrelated and their interrelationships transform the nature of curriculum as a process which runs as a continuous process. Effectiveness of this process depends on how scientifically and thoughtfully these components have been constructed. Thus, a curriculum is always preplanned; it is not a set of activities developed on the spot spontaneously.

These components are often called the _elements‘ of curriculum in different names like intent (aims, goals and objectives), content, learning activities and evaluation.

Though any curriculum consists of the above mentioned five components, curriculum has triangular relationship with educational objectives and evaluation. Every curriculum is intended to achieve certain educational objectives, and these educational objectives are in most of the cases transient in nature. Consequently, a curriculum cannot be static. A consideration of the relationship between curriculum and evaluation would confirm this. As we have seen, evaluation is an integral part of curriculum and it attempts to assess the effectiveness of a curriculum in terms of its achievement of educational objectives. If evaluation shows poor performance of the learners, other things

being normal, the curriculum is defective; and it indicates the need for improvement or modification of the curriculum. Thus objectives and evaluation determine the curriculum. As and when objectives change as in the context of evolution of new values, emergence of a new social order, and better understanding of psychological characteristics and needs of individuals, as well as when evaluation indicates a positive need, the curriculum changes.

But all this does not mean that the curriculum should be a handmaid of educational objectives and evaluation; on the other hand, it emphasises the possibilities for the curriculum to take the lead in the creation of new values of life, and new social order. Thus the curriculum is not only a servant, but also a master in a system of education.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Show the difference between -
   (a) intended and implemented curriculum.
   (b) null and received curriculum.
2. What is hidden curriculum?
3. Name the components of curriculum.
4. What is the significant role of _objectives' and _evaluation' in curriculum?

Block – 1

Unit – 2

Basic concepts of curriculum-II

1.2.1: CURRICULUM PLANNING

In order to understand the concept and nature of curriculum planning it will be better to start with a distinction between ―the curriculum" and ―curriculm planning" as made by Lawton in 1975. According to him, curricula are made up of those particular aspects of life, knowledge, attitudes, and values selected from the total culture of a society for transmission to future generations within the structure of educational systems. The ways in which educators make these selections and put them into practice is curriculum planning. Thus, curriculum and curriculum planning are pervasively re- lated.

Curriculum planning indicates that process whereby curriculum developres conceptualise the features of the curriculum they wish to construct. This involves a broad analysis of the curriculum intent and context (what they wish to achieve), coceptualising the curriculum's design (what it will look like), organising the sequencing of developmental tasks (how to construct the curriculum), and arranging for the process of implementation and evaluation. Thus curriculum planning is an integral part of the curriculum development process.

In some cases, perhaps where the curriculum task is small in scale, curriculum planning may be largely a mental activity. More commonly, the task of curriculum planning is extensively conceptualised, dicussed and written. From the basis of this planning, the curriculum development process continues with the construction of the curriculum, usually in the form of a document. Many models of curriculum development process have been created over past fifty years as a means to assist those involved with planning curricula.

Participants in the process :

Curriculum development involves ―a cast of thousands" as researchers perceive. This cast of thousands can be grouped into two major categories - participants in the planning process (e.g. clients, critics, professionals, legislative groups, courts) and resources for the planners (e.g. authors, publishers, testers, accreditors, media). Typically, "planners" make policy and determine the sustantive details of curriculum designs while ―resources" monitor the processes of planners, serve as quality controllers, and suggest alternative realities for consideration in curriculum planning.

In this respect, the major actors and influences shaping curriculum decisions are classified as internal and external forces. The internal and formal determinants of curricula are those forces that are legally responsible for curriculum policy making and planning, and whose involvement is chan- neled through some

regularised, structured arrangements. The external and informal forces exist outside governmental structures and the administrative buereaucracy. They influence curriculum planning through irregular patterns of pressure politics and powers of persuasion. Invariably, though, in the actual operations of curriculum planning the two categories of participants and influences overlap significantly.

> The dynamics of the curriculum development process are similar in most nations though there are variations in legal responsibilities of local, regional, or national governments regarding curriculum planning. Curriculum development is indeed a dynamic complex process. It must occur in a cooperative and collaborative context considering all the formal - informal, legal - extralegal, and internal - external determinants of curriculum policies and plans, if it is to be produced through viable and systematic planning.

Steps to follow:

Curriculum planning can be divided into 6 steps:

1. **Identification of the institution‘s mission and the needs of its stakeholders :**

   This is the crucial first step as it is important to understand the mission of the institution for which the curriculum is designed. For example, the mission of a Faculty of Education is to train teachers to deliver effective teaching services to society. Consequently, curriculum developers must know and understand the needs of curriculum stakeholders (i.e. students, faculty members, university administrators, professional bodies, government, etc.) that will determine the type of graduate profile the Faculty wants.

2. **Needs assessment of the learners :**

   This step is often neglected. Once the potential students are identified, their needs must be assessed, because curriculum developers must be aware of the learners‘ strengths and weaknesses. Therefore data on student characteristics are needed (e.g. entry level of competence, ability to meet the prerequisites of the programme, individual goals and priorities, personal background and reasons for enrolling, attitudes about discipline and assumptions about the programme).

3. **Establishment of the curriculum‘s goals and objectives :**

   This is an important step as goals and objectives determine the instructional philosophy and thus guide the selection of the most effective learning methods. Moreover, the learning objectives will also determine the design and selection of assessment instruments and procedures. As clear and well-written objectives are absolutely necessary to define the

focus of the curriculum, faculty members in charge of curriculum design must be formally trained in writing instructional objectives.

4. Selection of educational strategies :

The selection of educational strategies must be based on three main principles. First, the educational methods must be congruent with the learning objectives. Second, the use of multiple educational methods is preferable to a singular method, as the curriculum should respond to the challenges of the multitude of students‘ learning styles and varied educational objectives. Finally, the curriculum designer and implementer must verify the curriculum‘s feasibility in terms of material and human resources.

5. Implementation of the new curriculum :

Designing the curriculum is the most exciting and creative part of curriculum develop- ment. However, the ultimate goal is not to design the best and ideal curriculum, but to put it into practice successfully. The many conditions and requirements for successful execution include the promotion of faculty members‘ ownership of the process of cur- riculum implementation and the allocation of adequate resources. Unequivocal support from the highest academic authority must be secured before starting to put a new cur- riculum into operation. Following the first phase of implementation of the new programme, a formal assessment must be carried out in order to adjust the process and to establish a link between institutional goals, courses and curriculum.

6. Evaluation and feedback to improve the curriculum :

Although evaluation of the curriculum is the last step in this practical approach, it is not necessarily the final action. The evaluation data collected must serve as criteria for adjusting the curriculum to the goals of the programme or the mission of the Faculty. The most important message here is that a curriculum must be evaluated, corrected and go through repeated levels of innovation because it is not a static system. Feedback from teachers, tutors and students must continuously be taken into serious consideration so as to enhance the learning outcomes for the students.

From the perspective of curriculum planning, a curriculum itself is an academic plan. It is a total blueprint for actions where:

- the objectives, aims and outcome of the curriculum are clarified;
- the processes to achieve these are identified;
- the ways to measure whether success has been achieved; and
- systematic review and adjustment are also part of the plan.

1.2.2: CURRICULUM DESIGN

The concept of curriculum design is significant from the standpoint of a systematic development of curriculum. Curriculum development is the process, the syntactical structure, the interpersonal dynamics of decision making about instructional planning. By comparison, curriculum design is the product, the substantive entity, the end result of the decision-making processes. Curriculum development does not necessarily precede curriculum design or construction in a linear fashion. Instead, the two enterprises overlap and occur conjunctively.

Curriculum design is the organisational patteren or structure of a curriculum. It is determined by decisions made at two different levels of development; a broad level which involves basic value choices and a specific level which involves the technical planning and implementation of curricular elements.

At the broader level of decision making, curriculum design is influenced by the choice of the data source or sources which the curriculum developer chooses to emphasise. Three primary data sources historically have been used as bases for choices in making curricular decisions : organised subject matter, the students who are to experience the curriculum, and society. Although most scolars in curriculum advocate using a combination of all three data sources in order to insure a balanced curriculum, in practice one usually has a dominance over the other two. Even more often in practice, one data source is used to the exclusion of the other two. Which data source is chosen to be the primary or exclusive basis for making curricular decisions depends largely upon the values of the curriculum developer about what the curriculum ought to do for or contribute to the growth of students.

The pattern or structure of curriculum is also influenced at a more specific technical level when decisions are made in relation to the curricular elements. The curricular elements usually referred to in a discussion of a design are objectives, content, learning activities, and evaluation procedures. Some researchers also include learning materials and resources, time, space and environment, group- ing, and teaching strategies as curricular elements. These nine elements can be treated in different ways when developing curricula and through these different treatments, a variety of designs can be created. Thus, at this technical level of development, a specific curricuclum design is created by the ways in which the elements are treated and the interrelationships which occur among them.

A careful consideration of the elements of curricum during decision making of curriculum development results in a high degree of internal consistency. If the decisions made about each of the data sources and curricular elements are compatible, the curriculum will have internal consistency. When the curriculum posseses high internal consistency, it will have a greater potential for having the desired impact upon the students. If the data sources and curricular elements are not treated ina consistent manner and have no clearly defined relationships to each other, yhe design of the curricu- lum will be confused and the potential impact upon students will be lessened.

Curriculum design may be defined as the arrangements of the elements of a curriculum. The different parts (intention, content, learning experiences, evaluation) of any curriculum are known as curriculum elements and they are essential building blocks of any curriculum which may be arranged in different ways to produce different designs. Curriculum design is an example of the application of curriculum presage in practice. In the curriculum presage phase, developers are influenced by various forces and conceptions which help account for the different curriculum designs that emerge.

Curriculum design usually takes place as part of the curriculum planning process. That is, early in the conceptualisation of the curriculum, decisions are made about the nature and arrangement of the various curriculum elements. Usually, this is a deliberative activity, though inexperienced curriculum developers may be unaware of the decisions they are making. In the development of substantial curricula, by experienced curriculum developers, the task of curriculum design is often demanding and time consuming as developers work their way through the curriculum planning phase.

Design forces :

The two principal forces employed in the organisation of curricula are the dimensions of *horizontal* and *vertical* integration. *Horizontal organisation,* often referred to as scope or horizontal integration, is concerned with the arrangement of curriculum components at any one point in time. It asks, for example, what is the relationship between chemistry, biology, physics and geology in a junior high school secondary curriculum? How much of each is required and how are they interrelated? etc.

The second dimension is known as *vertical organisation* or sometimes as sequence or vertical integration. Its concern lies with the relationship between curriculum components over the entire duration of the curriculum‘s application. In a primary school curriculum, for example, emphasis may be placed upon literacy, numeracy, personal development and social growth in the first three years, while the later years may see the emergence and increasing emphasis of mathematics, language, science, social studies, and similar subjects. Vertical organisation asks what learnings should be included, how much is required over time and what should be the balance between different learnings over the duration of a course.

Curriculum Designs :

Most popular and well practiced curriculum designs are as follows -

1. Subject-centered design

Organized subject matter is the most commonly use data source for decisions to be taken about the curriculum design. It is used because it reflects humankind‘s collective wisdom and represents the cultural heritage of people. A study of the disciplines as an organized body of knowledge is thought to be essential to the continued progress of civilization. Also, such a body of knowledge is considered to a significant characteristic of an educated person.

In using subject matter as the major data source, a logical organisation of the content is emphasized. The selection and organisation of the content, however that may be defined, is a major task in developing the design. Curricula are planned in advance for the students so that a logically organized body of content can be taught to them efficiently and effectively. Learning, however, can become a mechanistic process which emphasises covering the desired content rather than developing understanding of it by the students. Unfortunately, this often happens in practice.

Four variations in this subject-centered curriculum design have been developed. They are **separate subjects, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and broad fields**. When the separate subjects are used, each one is treated as a discrete area of the curriculum. Thus, geography, history and economics become offerings in the social science curriculum; geology, biology, physics and chemistry are offered in the science curriculum and spelling, handwriting, and reading are offered at different times in the elementary school curriculum. This variation of design emphasizes the logical organisation of each subject and no deliberate attempt is made to interrelate them.

The multidisciplinary or correlated variations occur when several subject areas are coordinated for study, but are still taught as separate subjects. For example, in a multidisciplinary variation, the literature of a country would be taught in conjunction with its history and geography. Through this approach, it is hoped that students will experience a greater degree of unity in their knowledge.

A third variation is the interdisciplinary approach. In this approach, a topic or concept is selected to which several separate subjects are related. Each separate subject is brought to bear upon the concept as an aspect of study. For example, the concept of energy might be studied from a physical science, economic, and historical perspective. Each discipline is seen as contributing an important, separate, but

discrete part of the student‘s learning. It is thought that the comprehensive understanding of the concept can be gained only by studying the contributions of any discipline which relates to it. In this design the student has the opportunity to experience ever greater integration of humankind‘s store of knowledge.

The fourth variation in the subject area is the broad fields. In this one, the distinctions among the separate subjects are more blurred than in the previous three. For example, history, geography, economics, and sociology are combined in a social studies programme to help students understand their social world. No attempt is made to emphasise the separate contributions of each subject in its special field. It is hoped that this broad field design assists the student in achieving a high degree of integration of the separate subjects and through integration, the content becomes more functional. A commonly recognized limitation of this approach, however, is a more superficial encounter with content.

2. Learner-centered design

A different curriculum design is created when the dominant or exclusive data source for decision making is the student. In this approach, the needs, interests, abilities, and past experiences of the students are chosen as the basis for making decisions about the curricular elements. Students are consulted, observed, and studied for cues to selecting and organizing the direction or purposes of learning as well as the content, material, and activities. The subject areas become a means by which students pursue problems or topics derived from their interests. Although the curriculum cannot be preplanned in the logically organized way of the subject area design, there is advanced preparation by the teacher so that the necessary resources are available and the necessary arrangements are made to enable the students to become and remain actively involved in the learning process. The student is consulted whenever choices must be made. Problem solving and other processes are prime emphases, not a body of predetermined content. This design involves much cooperation among the students and the teacher and is a highly flexible, personalized one. It is valued because students learn to direct their own education, an essential ability for lifelong learning. Accordingly, it is often called the emerging, activity, or experience-based curriculum.

To achieve this design, a different way of utilizing the curricular elements must occur. The concept of predetermined objectives, either explicitly or implicitly stated, is rejected and the purposes of the student or group of students are used to direct the learning process. The purposes may develop out of a cooperative planning endeavour between the teacher and the student, however. There are no predetermined outcomes for the curriculum intended for all students.

Society is a third source which may be used as a dominant or exclusive basis for curriculum decision making. It produces a unique curriculum design which is valued as a way of understanding and improving society. Community schools often use this approach which rarely exists in Indian system of education. Social studies programme sometimes use society as a primary data source.

Although explicit objectives may be used, they do not play as major a role in this design as when subject areas are used as a basis for decision making. There usually is a definite focus for the learning process for all students but definite outcomes are not prescribed in advance.

3. Problem-centered design

These curriculum designs direct learners to focus their attention on, and attempt to resolve, problems of living that are both individual and social in nature. Generally a preplanned approach, this curriculum design seeks to provide learners with opportunities to resolve problems they are likely to encounter, or already are, in their life. Unlike the learner-centered designs, emphasis is placed on group welfare, group activities and the group resolution of problems. However, distinct emphasis is placed upon the concept of identifying, addressing and resolving multifarious problems. Through this process, it is argued, students will obtain meaningful learning and be able to play a more purposeful role in the society. This curriculum design appears to be most appropriate to the various life-skills curricula that are now emerging.

4. Core learning design

It is often in the literature referred to the core curriculum. The most essential characteristics of this approach are the common learnings which all students are expected to achieve and the administrative arrangements for larger blocks of time than are customarily found. The key issues in any core design of curriculum are: what should be included in the core? How large should the core be, i.e. what percentage of the total content within the written curriculum? What should be excluded from the core? Is a core required for all learners?

5. Humanistic design

This type of design emerges out of appreciation of the humanistic view of the person. This is, in part, a reaction against schooling based on the industrial, technological model as represented best in the separate subjects design. It is a search for new ways to conceptualize curriculum. Those who pursue this approach referred to as the reconceptualists.

It may be viewed as a type of learner-centered design. Similar to the experience-based curriculum, the humanistic design emphasises the meeting of individual needs in a conducive, supportive learning environment. This supportive environment is its additional factor besides all the features of the experience design. Alternatively, it may offer some subject structure as a guide to learners.

This design has come to light from the humanistic conception of curriculum which seeks to provide learners with intrinsically rewarding experiences for self-development, i.e. to enhance an individual‘s self-concept through a supportive learning experience. Alternative schools, particularly of the open variety, provide examples of the humanistic curriculum design in operation.

The curriculum developer in the humanistic design has some preconceived views based on the intents of humanistic psychology, and these valued ideas are integrated into a curriculum based upon the learner‘s needs. The intent of this design then is to deliberately provide a curriculum which purposively reflects those supportive features from humanistic psychology such as caring, support, enhanced self-concept and the like.

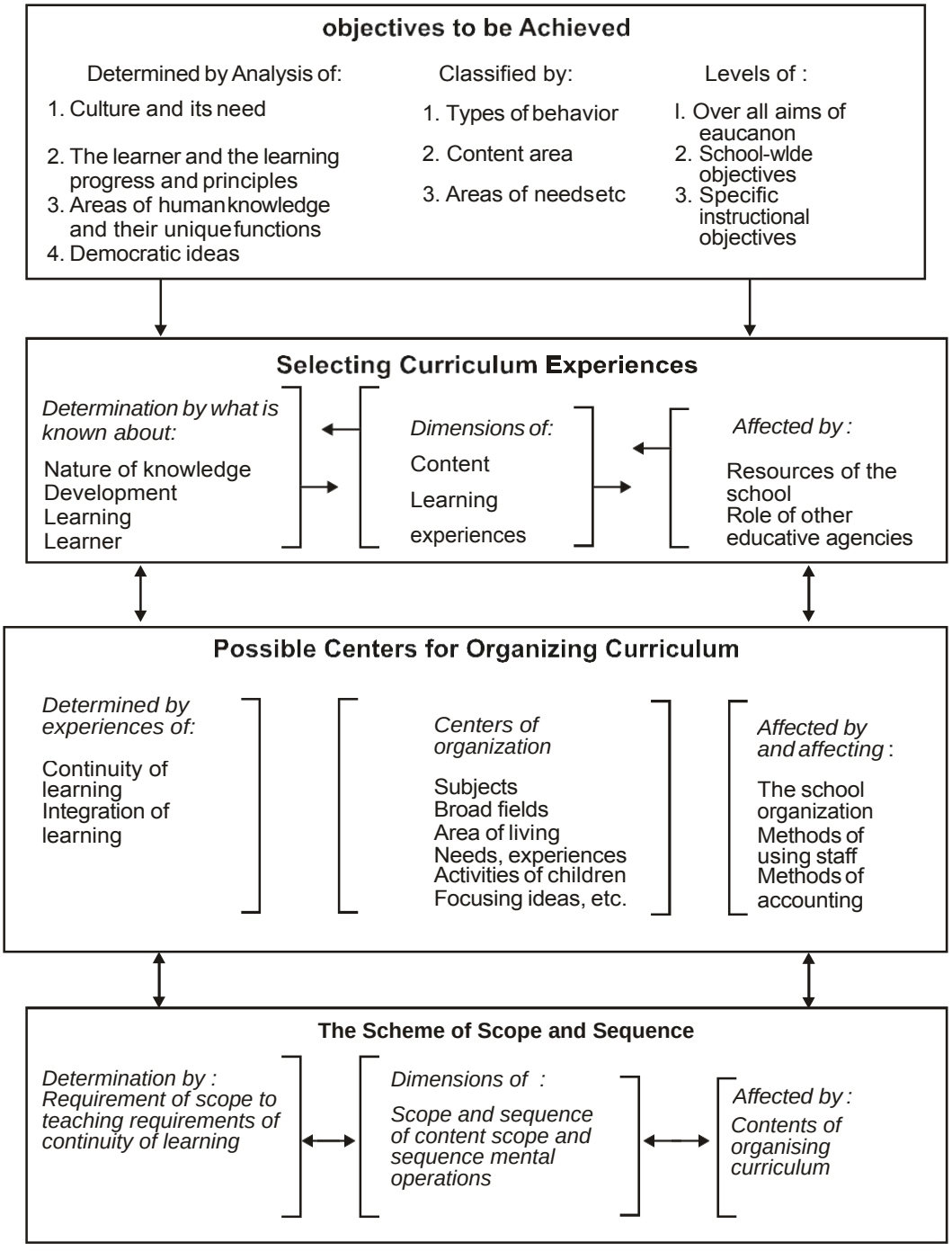
6. Essential characteristics of Curriculum Design :

Each and every design stated above has certain advantages as well as disadvantages from the perspective of curriculum development process. Therefore, the design selected must be the result of deliberate and enlightened decision making and should not occur as a result of omission and neglect. The design selected must match the intent or function of the curriculum. Once the decision has been decided upon, the curricular elements must be handled with considerable consistency.

The designs available for use in curriculum development must evolve as new demands are placed upon. Older patterns must be improved and new ones must be developed as knowledge, societies, and students change. Curriculum design must nit be perceived as, nor allowed to become, static and unchanging. Creativity and adaptability must be essential characteristics of existing and evolving patterns of curriculum design.

It is to be remembered that no single pattern of curriculum design is adequate for the entire curriculum of an educational organisation, especially school. Most institutions have goals toward which each of the designs could contribute in a unique way. It would be unnecessarily limiting to restrict the design of the total curriculum to only one. And yet, this is what actually occurs in practice. The challenge to curriculum developer is to be thoughtful and make deliberate decisions regarding how each curriculum design can be used to make the best contribution to the diverse aim of education.

A schematic model for curriculum design suggested by Hilda Taba is presented in the following figure.



SUMMING UP

Curriculum is an area of vital importance in the field of education. A curriculum means the total situation (or all situations) selected and organized by the institution, and made available to the teacher to operate, and to translate the ultimate aims and goals of education into reality. Our secondary education commission points out that a curriculum does not mean only the academic subjects traditionally taught in the school, but it includes the totality of experiences that a learner receives through manifold activities that go on in the school, in the classroom, library, laboratory, workshop, playgrounds, and in the numerous informal contacts between teachers and pupils.

Ultimate function of curriculum is to fulfill the predestined needs of the society through organized teaching-learning experiences with appropriate evaluation providing feedback.

Technically, curriculum is one but how it is implemented generates the concept of types. All are important to curriculum planners and developers. But, to professional teachers, Glatthorn‘s classification is the most important.

The curriculum, essentially, is a set of documents for implementation. In this sense curriculum is not a physical thing, but rather the interaction of teachers, students and knowledge. In other words, curriculum is what actually happens in the classroom and what people do to prepare and evaluate. This curriculum consists of five essential components starting with the ‗framework of assumptions‘ regarding the needs of the society as well as learners leading to ‗aims, goals and objectives‘ and ending in ‗evaluation‘ through selection, organisation and transaction of curricular contents and experiences.

Curriculum planning is the process whereby curriculum developers conceptualise and organize the features of the curriculum they wish to construct. This involves a broad analysis of the curriculum intent and context, conceptualising the curriculum‘s design, organizing the sequencing of developmental tasks (how to construct the curriculum) and arranging for the process of implementation and evaluation. But curriculum design, as a part of curriculum planning, is viewed as the process of conceptualising and arranging the elements of curriculum into a coherent pattern. Consequently, curriculum developer as a planner has to follow certain steps in order to construct a curriculum but what type of design he would like to follow depends on the nature of educational objectives of the society what the curriculum ultimately intends to achieve. However, it is practically not possible to develop and construct an uncontaminated curriculum following the characteristic features of a particular design.

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ASSIGNMENTS

a. Explain curriculum highlighting its modern nature.
b. Make characterizations of curriculum following Schubert.
c. Explain the ultimate and specific functions of curriculum.
d. Give your acquaintances with the different types of curriculum.
e. List and explain the components of curriculum.
f. Establish curriculum as a ‗process'.
g. What is curriculum planning? State the role of different participants in the process of planning?
h. Name and explain the different steps to be followed in the process of curriculum planning.
i. What do you mean by ‗curriculum design'? Explain, in this regard, the two principal forces of curriculum organisation.
j. Write notes on -
   (a) Subject-centered design**.**
   (b) Learner-centered design and Humanistic design.
   (c) Curriculum design and its essential features.
k. Make a comparative study among the different types of curriculum design.

Block – 2

Foundations of Curriculum

CONTENT STRUCTURE :

INTRODUCTION

It is not difficult to note that the broad functions of education in any society may be categorized into three headings — education as preservation and transmission of cultural heritage; education asan instrument for transferring culture and education (knowledge and techniques); and education as a means for individual development. Within each of the three phrases, there are variation, some significant enough to cause sharp conflicts regarding the nature of desirable curriculum. In the emphasis of individual development, for example, there are differences as to whether education should stress intellectual development exclusively or should also stress social and emotional development. And asto how much the socializing of the social role of education divide according to whether the major emphasis is on serving social needs and social change or on a planned reconstruction of society.

Similarly, what knowledge is of worth that will be injected in the curriculum can be answered in a single point. This worthiness of knowledge depends at least on the answer to the basic question that is embedded in the philosophical and sociological evaluation of that piece of knowledge. Secondly, what knowledge is feasible to attain within location of learning gives clues by the psycholigist. Over the years philosophy, anthropology, sociology, and psychology have experienced and also under gone changes by the impact of many waves of changes, consequently, education as derivatives of all thosechanges has strived to search for new address.

Some post-modern thinkers like Aronowitz, Giroux, and Mc laren have raised voiced against cultural imperialism in school curriculam. Aronowitz and Giroux have extensively treated the debateover education between conservatives, liberals and radicals in Education Under Siege (1991) and attempt to redefined curriculum by waging a ―cultural war" in the schools against liberal and leftistideas. In Border Crossings (Giroux, 1992) Giroux sees schools as active arenas of cultural politics rather than simply places where cultural domination and hegemony are reproduced. These signify some trend of ―deconstruction" in the traditional curriculum. An important aspect of today's curriculum is inclusion of the ordinary experiences of students as legitimate parts of the curriculum.

Thus, the issue in curriculum is not simply an argument for or against established canons of knowledge but one that remakes the meaning and use of canons of knowledge that may take different forms, such as tacit knowledge, official knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, curriculum knowledge and global knowledge.

Location and sources of knowledge and information are now solely neither the textbook nor the teacher. The virtual repository of web network has made available to all with the integration ofhigh technology with the curricular inputs. Thus, philosophy, sociology, psychology and technology both singly and jointly are now the foundations of curriculum.

In the Unit we shall understand the four foundations — Philosophical, Sociological, Psychological and Technological foundations of curriculum. But it shall be taken in cognizance that while developing a curriculum all the four foundations come neatly together.

6.1.2.2 : OBJECTIVES

You will be able to:-

- To study different foundations of curriculum.
- To describe how foundations of curriculum enable learners for curriculum development.
- To develop critical understanding about curriculum.

Block – 2

Unit – 1

Philosophical Foundations of Curriculum

2.1.1: PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION OF CURRICULUM

Introduction :

Structurally curriculum is based on four foundations namely philosophical, sociological, psychological and technological foundations. Here we are first concentrating our attention how different schools of philosophy may be sourced to develop curriculum. Philosophy is a continuous source of knowledge being implemented for knowledge itself and helping the way to be implemented. Therefore, in curriculum foundation epistemologically knowledge and its structural presentation are very much significant. It provides the guideline for its framework and also shifting its trends for fulfilling objectives of education and for the betterment of transactional phase of curriculum. surely, human knowledge stored in various schools of thought as expected to underpin various epestemological issues and axiological questions to be dealt in the theoretical foundations of curriculum. Not only these, the practical ramifications of these must have bearing in curriculum planning and development, and transaction. Curriculum planning is an understanding of the structure of knowledge and its logical categories. The central concern of curriculum, is the transmission of knowledge. What aspects of the vast fund of knowledge that mankind has accumulated is to be selected for transmission and on what criteria and how is the same to be organized? The central questions of curriculum planning, cannot be decided except on the basis of the stand we take in regard to the composition of knowledge and its distinct forms.

Idealism and the Curriculum

As to an idealist, the ideas i.e. essence is more important than the materialistic, i.e. changing state/order, non-permanent, at least a liberal curriculum is suggestive. The basic questions which we consider for inculcating philosophical application in curriculum may be mentioned below:

1. What knowledge aspect may assist pupils to think critically and creatively for mental development ?
2. Which may reflect vital subject-matter that has endured in nature ?
3. Which may emphasize learning acquired for development of inner potentiality ?
4. Which may reflect universal content in relating one human being to another involving human development ?
5. Which content is emphasize individual pupils moving away from being finite to
6. increasingly becoming infinite human beings through development of values ?

Existentialism and the Curriculum

Existentialism in curriculum development contributes the individualized pattern of instruction and trying to explain the natural world where existence precedes essence as this philosophical notion emphase on rugged individualism. It also strongly believes in freedom of each individual.

For applying the concepts of existentialism following instructions may be suggestive :

1. Pupils need to be guided to choose what to learn (objectives), as well as learning activities to achieve the desired ends. Learning centers may emphasize, in degrees, existentialist thinking. Here, pupils may choose the center and task sequentially to work on. Individualized reading might also harmonize well with existentialist thinking. The individual pupil may then sequentially choose which books to read.

2. These needs to be much pupil/teacher planning in the school/class setting. True input, not manipulation of the learner, needs to be in evidence. The involved pupils must, increasingly, be free to select their own destiny and value system. A teacher-determined curriculum would definitely not harmonize with existentialist thinking.

3. Learners need to study and analyze the human dilemma. Units of study in history and literature, in particular, can offer pupils valuable insight into situations where right and wrong solutions to problems were definitely in evidence. Individuals and groups in literature and history made decisions in which numerous alternative solutions were possible. Learners need to look at the outcomes of these solutions. Were the outcomes rational, irrational, or in between?

4. Pupils with teacher guidance need to notice absurd, ridiculous situations in life. How can moral decisions be made within the framework of these irrational settings? A major objective of the existentialist teacher is to have pupils accept the inconsistencies in society and still attempt to operate morally in the environment, choices and commitments by each pupil. Committed individuals, who have personal conscience, reflect the thinking of existentialists.

5. The teacher needs to stress continuously the importance of making personal choices and commitment.

6. Discovering self-responsibility is the cornerstone of such curriculum. (B) Experimentalism and the Curriculum Experimentalists believe in building up experience which according to them, represents ultimate reality, may not be stable for over. They also assert that knowledge is modifiable through continuous testing or verification. Experiments and reality are keenly involved in development of curriculum according to this type of philosophy. The basic contributing factors are mentioned below:

1. Problem solving objectives being highly significant;

2. Data gathering from a variety of resources to solve problems;

3. Developing hypotheses in answering the identified problems;

4. Testing and revising hypotheses, if evidence warrants;

5. Working effectively in committee settings; i.e. through group

cooperation and discussion.

6. Accepting the consequences of acts/deeds performed

7. Change should be continuously in evidence in the curriculum of life.

8. Contents must be linked to real experiences of life.

Realism and Curriculum

1. Pupils should experience, in particular, a quality science and mathematics curriculum. Precisem, measurably stated objectives can be emphasized in teaching learning situations. The content of science and mathematics is accurate and verifiable.
2. Other curriculum areas also need to receive adequate emphasis in the school or class setting. Accurate facts, concepts, and generalizations need to be emphasized which adhere to scientific methods in acquiring content. Opinions might receive relatively little emphasis in teaching and learning. Hypotheses need developing which can be tested.
3. Pupils should be guided to receive exact content as it truly is in the natural/social environment. Replicas of what exists in the environment should be experienced by learners.
4. Learners need to realize that much of what occurs in the natural environment, in particular, is relatively stable and not subject to continuous change. The natural environment, of course, changes in degrees, but changes occur slowly. Objective values which have stood the test of time may also become relevant for pupils to attain.

Discussion :

Depending upon the philosophy of education being emphasized, a selected set of consistent objectives may be chosen for pupils to achieve. Each philosophical school of thought has unique objectives for learners to acquire. Existentialists emphasize that the individual make moral choices and decisions in a relatively absurd environment. Idealists believe that universal ideas which have stood the test of time be achieved by learners, whereas experimentalists adhere to continual changes occurring in society in which problems need identification and solutions. Realists believe in a relatively stable natural/social environment which learners can know as it truly is.

Some Educational Philosophies and Curriculum

Besides the above mainstream philosophical foundations of curriculum we may now move to see curriculum foundations emanated from some educational philosophies. These educational views have influenced greatly curriculum of the earlier century and they are eqmually importance in contemporary educational curriculum all over the world. These foundations may come under five heads, namely :

1. Perennialism
2. Progressivism
3. Essentialism, and
4. Reconstructionism

1. Perennialism

It advocates the permanency of knowledge that has stood the test of time and the values that have moral and spiritual bases. The underlying idea is that education is constant, absolute and universal. Naturally the curriculum of the perennialist is subject centered. It draws heavily on defined disciplines or logically organized bodies of content, but emphasizes teaching/learning of languages, literature, sciences and arts. Teacher is viewed as an authority in his/her particular discipline and teaching is held as an art of imparting

information/knowledge and stimulating discussion. In such scheme of things, students are considered as immature as they lack the judgment required to determine what should be studied. There is usually only one common curriculum for all students with a little scope for elective subjects. Such views appeal to those educators who stress intellectual meritocracy. Their emphasis is on testing student, enforcing tougher academic standards, identifying and encouraging talented students.

2. Progressivism

This concept emerged as a protest against the perennialist thinking in education. It is considered as a contemporary reformist movement in educational, social and political affairs during the 20s and 30s decades of the last century, especially in USA. According to progressivist thought, the skills and tools of learning include problem solving methods and scientific enquiry. The curriculum is interdisciplinary in nature and the teacher is seen as a guide for students in their problem solving exercise. The progressive movement in education encompassed many different theories and practices but jointly they oppose the following traditions and practices : - the authoritarian teacher - excesssive dependence on textbook - static aims of factual data and learning by memorization and drills - attempts to isolate education from individual experiences and social reality. Historically, the major thrust of progressive education waned in the 1950s with the advent of ―essentialism"; however, contemporary progressivism is expressed in several movements including those for a socially relevant curriculum.

3. Essentialism

This philosophical thought is rooted in idealism and partly in realism, evolved mainly as a critique of progressive thought in education, However, it is not totally antiprogressivism. In essentialism learning should consist of mastering the subject matter that reflects currently available knowledge in various disciplines. Teachers play high directive role by disseminating information to students. According to this viewpoint, the institution (school/college/university) gets sidertracked, when at the expense of cognitive needs,it attempts to pay greater attention to the social and psychological problems of students. The most notable achievements of the essentialists have been the widespread implementation of competency — based programmes, establishment of grade-level achievement standards, and the movement to reemphasize academic subjects in schools/colleges. In many ways, the ideas of essentialism lie behind the attacks on the quality of education by the media and by local pressure groups and also to a good extent on distance education.

4. Reconstructionism

This is being discussed in the next sub-section.

Reconstructionism and Curriculum

The philosophy of Reconstructionism holds two premises :

(1) society is in need of constant reconstruction or change, and

(2) such social change involves both a reconstruction of education and the use of education in reconstructing society. Reconstructionist look education as the most effective and efficient instrument for making such changes in an intelligent, democratic and humane way though, it does not seek to make detailed epistemological or logical studies. Hence,it looks for some radical curriculum changes. Counts advocates that education must be used as a positive force for establishing new cultural patterns and eliminating social

evils. while Bramheld views reconstructionism as crisis philosophy, not only in terms or education, but of culture as well. Moreover according to him, Reconstructionism is a philosophy of values, ends and purposes and also it purports to overcome crisis in philosophy by means of education. Ivan Illich even goes further in De-schooling Society. Ultimately world community, brotherhood, and democracy are the three ideals that deconstructionists believe in and desire to implement in schools and in society. This stream of idea has also got further momemtum from the works of Giroux, McLaren, Friere, etc.

Reconstructionists are critical of most of the methods generally used in all levels of schooling and argued that these methods reinforce traditional values and attitudes underlying the status quo and resistance of change. The teacher becomes an unwitting agent of entrenched values and ideas as the ―hidden curriculum" underlines the educational process and students are shaped to fit preexisting models of living. Similarly, textbooks and teaching techniques and processes are guilty of subtle influences on learners. Reconstructionism want to see activism rather that the passivity the exists in traditional schooling underpinned by its curriculum. Therefore, education should be directed toward arousing interests in public activism. Bramheld recommends that as much as half of a student's time be spent outside the traditional school structure, consequently one of the ways or organizing curriculum is to modify the core plan/ core curriculum plan advocated by the pragmatists into what Bramheld calls ―wheel" curriculum.

According to Bramheld, the core may be viewed as the hub of the wheel, the central theme of school programme. The spokes represent related studies, such as discussiong groups, field experiences, content and skills studies, and vocational studies. The hub and the spokes support each other, while the rim of the wheel serves in a synthesizing and unifying capacity. While each school year would have its own "wheel", there would be continuity from year to year, with each "wheel" flowing into and strengthening the other. Although each year would be different, it would also inherit the problems and solutions from previous years and would move on to new syntheseses. He thinks that reconstructionist curriculum is both a _centripetal' and _centrifugal' force. It is centripetal because it draws the people of the community together in common studies adn centrifugal because it extends from the school into wider community. Thus, it has capacity to help bring about cultural transformation due to the dynamic relationship between school and society.

From another angle, Reconstructionist curriculum favors a ―world" curriculum with emphsis on truth, brotherhood and justice. It is opposed to narrow or parochial curriculum that deals only with local and community ideas and ideals. it views multicultural education and it must include the actual facts of historical and contemporary life. Reconstructionists want teacher be internationally oriented and humanitarian in their outlook.

Despite several criticisms hurdled against reconstructionists curriculum and education, it calls for action. Toffer [1974 : Learning for Tomorrow : The Role of Future Education], for example, the development of an image of a ―good" future world implies developing inquiring minds. A futurizing education implies that the learner will begin to sense and to accept both the constraints and advantages of freedom. Such future-oriented learning would decrease inequality in the ability of all persons to engage in effictive, receptive, and expressive communication in their many forms. The best futureoriented education could be based on a reversal of contemporary practice. Then from the above discussion it is apparent that reconstructionism condemns the traditional curriculum and addresses to a new direction to future curriculum. In fact some more advancement has already been withing the profile of curriculum of the 21st Century.

Social Reconstruction Ideology

Advancing the theses of Counts and Bramheld other modern authorised like Giroux, McLaren, Friere, etc have emphasized more strongly on education for social reconstruction in protest against Eurocentric conceptions of knowledge, culture and values which through hidden curriculum cunningly shape student beliefs and bahavior in such as way that they both as student and futre adults, will contribute to the continuation and worsening of existing problems. They advocate that education takes place in many locations, including the family, community and school. Hence, they want to influence how education takes place in all these locations and believe that it is the job of the educators to do so. They advocate not only for institutional change but also in conception of knowledge and curriculum. According to them knowledge has six characteristics :

1. Knowledge is not viewed as a purely intellectual quantity.

2. Knowledge is both cognitive and experiential in nature. Knowledge is not just —information about" but also —experience with" a subject. Knowledge is based both in people's experiences and in their ability to understand those experiences.

3. Knowledge is possessed by society, though knowledge is a personal attribute of the perceiver. Educators wish to recontruct society by reconstructing the social consensus of the masses — the summative total of the knowledge held by the many individuals who make up society.

4. Academic skills ate also of little use expect as they can be used as analytical tools for the purpose of reconstructing the knowledge base of individuals and their societies. 5. Knowledge as —interdisciplinary in nature" and questions —the fundamental categories of all disciplines" (Giroux, 1992, p. 10). It creates —new forms of knowledge through its emphasis on breaking down disciplinary boundaries and creating new spheres in which knowledge can be produced" (Giroux, 2005, p. 69). 6. There is the ethical and political dimensions of knowledge and its use by Hence, schools —must be seen as places where culture, power, and knowledge come together to produce... a vision of the future," a vision that determines what knowledge we consider to be true, ethical, emancipatory, and worthwhile (Giroux, 2006, pp. 4-5). The Social Reconstruction views of the sources of curriculum knowledge as shown below : Society Curriculum Developer Curriculur Knowledge Child Social Action Fig. 1 : Sources of Curriculum Knowledge Hence curriculum developers have different role to play. Curriculum knowledge has its origin in educator's subjective view of society so as to make them into change agents who swell the social consensus that will turn align society with educators' visions. Consequently objective information, such as that possessed by the academic disciplines, is if little use to these educators". Naturally, children are social agents as well as meaning makers. Four aspects of children's minds (meaning-making) can be distinguished as :

1. Children's minds have contents, called —meaning", that include such things as their knowledge, beliefs, facts, theories, affiliations, fears, and hopes.

2. The contents of children's minds are stored in a —meaning structure" that contains, among other things, the organization of meaning in children's minds and the functions governing the intake, output, and redistribution of their meanings.

3. Children have **perceptual filters and functions** that control the types if stimuli they perceive from the many sensations that impinge on them. These filters and functions control the manner in which children perceive reality.

4. Children's minds have **"interpretive functions"** that control how they give meaning to the sensations they perceive and thus how they interpret reality.

Children' perceive functions, interpretive functions, and meaning structures are important to Social Reconstructionists because they affect the manner in which children perceive, interpret, and organize reality. While creating or teaching curricula, educators should design and use instructional strategies to influence these structures and functions as well as children's meanings.

Social Reconstructionists view learning from the perspective of ***constructivism***. They regard learning as active assimilation of new experiences into learners' meaning structures in such as way as to force meaning structures to accommodate to the new experiences (McLaren & Giroux, 1997). This conception of learning has two components — first hinges on "meaning making" learning occurs when learners construct meaning out of their sensations; learning is a process of actively assimilating and accommodation experience in such a way that it makes sense to the learners. The second component of this view of learning depends on the concept of meaning structure : learning is based on what one already knows about the world, and it is meaningful only when it can be accommodated to one's overall conception of reality.

Teaching at one level is intent to reconstruct society. At another level the intent of teaching is to stimulate students to reconstruct themselves so that they can contrubute to the reconstruction of society.... Still at another level the intent of teaching is to stimulate students how to reconstruct society. Group discussion is a social means of educating a group of persons. It requires both social control, and social interactions. Hence language is viewed as the primary mediator of human perception, learning, knowing, feeling, and acting. The discussion method of teaching involves engaging a group of students in a conversation while the teacher elicits "from students the meaning that they have already stored up so that they may subject those meanings to a testing and verifying, recording and reclassifying, modifying and extending process" (Postman & Weingartnner, 1969). The content of discussion comes from those involved in the discussion.

They "believe that a discussion must start where participants are. As a result, they must either find a way to tap into the prior experiences and knowledge of those who will experience a curriculum or find a way to provide them with the experiences and knowledge the curriculum will build on. Anything said during the discussion as well as any input into the discussion from sources such as outside experts, books, movies, or the like must relate to the prior experiences and knowledge of participants if they are to benefit from them."

The teacher is a colleague several characteristics of good teaching are common to both the discussion and experience methods.

Both are group methods and make use of group pressures to teach students. Both methods depend on the relevance of their message in students' lives

In both methods, teachers find out what students know, draw it out of them, and help them reflect, analyze, and reconstruct their meanings in a value-laden context — where values shape much of what and how studends learn.

The reconstructionism and curriculum may get a cotemporary address in Postmodern Education : Politics, Culture and Social Criticism (Stanley Aronowitz and Henry Girux, 1991). They see a crisis in culture, and they propose an emancipatory postmodern education that answers for its choices. They look forward a radical approach to eduaction and the curriculum. They promote a curriculum that includes marginal knowledge and discourses of differences, particularly around gender, race, ethnic and class identities. They advocate an education that elevates these marginal voices to equitable or even superior standing with traditional canons. Traditional knowledge is not ignored, but when it is studied, the effort should be to examine the content — to "deconstruct" the "text" - to see how it shapes our notions of differences (gender, race, etc) and contributes to elevating some segments of society. Finally, the curriculum will be tool as well as a model for construction of reality of knowledge. It should sincerely devote to the culture of "constructivism".

2.1.2: Some basic Curriculum Concern from philosophical stand points.

Curriculum from philosophical perspectives is the philosophy of education that helps providing a critical outlook towards foundations of curriculum.

Curriculum and Educational Objectives

Whether stated explicitly, or implicitly, the goals of education constitute the reference points for determining the content and organization of curriculum. Now, "What are (or should be) the objectives of our national system of education?" is a question that has generated a good deal of educational discussion in our country. Before considering the different statements of the national objectives of education, it has to be noted that the aims of education in any society are influenced by various factors like the history and traditions of the society, social patterns, economic and political systems – and circumstances and also by purely philosophical considerations. The philosophical aspects influencing educational aims may be taken to refer to belief in certain universal and eternal values reflecting the higher aspirations of the human spirit like justice and honesty, ethical principles governing the concept of the good life and the summum bonum, the picture of the ideal society, belief in certain intrinsic values and so on. It is such broad philosophical considerations that give educational aims in any society their general character and contribute towards a general agreement among them. The UNESCO report Learning to Be notes that there exists a concensus in the world about the ultimate aims of education in view of their universal applicability. These aims are identified as: scientific humanism, development of reason, creativity, Spirit of Social responsibility, search for balance among the various

intellectual, ethical, emotional and physical components of personality (_the whole man‘) and positive perception of mankind‘s historic fate. Moreover, the Learning : Treasure within (Delor‘s Report, 1996) critically looks forward to the four pillars of today‘s education : Learning to know, Learning to do, Learning to Live Together, and Learning to Be.

In our own country various statements of educational aims have been made.

These give point and purpose to the educational enterprise, the general statement of aims like individual development, social progress, citizenship and so on should be translatable into specific curriculum objectives. They should commit their users to definite educational policies and programmes. For example, issues like the development of scientific attitude and commitment to moral and spiritual values, secularism, democracy, and equality of educational opportunity require a thorough examination in order to determine their precise implication to concrete curricular programmes. It is the task of philosophical analysis to do this. Philosophical exercise on such general educational aims would bring to surface instances of overlap and superfluity and also cases of mutual incompatibility or essential unworkability on other valid grounds, in the changing order of the day is the 21st Century.

Curriculum and Knowledge

The objectives of education sought to be realized through the curriculum are many. They are believed to constitute a triad corresponding to the familiar psychological analysis of the states of mind into cognitive (knowing) conative (doing) and effective (feeling). Analogously, it has been argued that the curriculum must comprise of :

(a) what man knows, i.e., his major modes of thinking;

(b) what man does and strive to do, i.e., all crafts and technology; and (c) what man feels, i.e., fine arts like poetry, music, etc. Mahatma Gandhi referred to this aspect as the education of the head, hand and heart. Curriculum objectives, it is suggested, should cater to all these aspects of the human being the complete human being.

Whatever be the number and variety of curricular objectives, there is no gainsaying the fact, however, that knowledge constitutes the most critical concern of curriculum.

The Structure of Knowledge and the Disciplines

Knowledge refers to the sum total of man‘s interactions with his environment and his interpretations of the same. Therefore knowledge is not a unified whole but is constitutive of different approaches to the understanding of life. The different approaches to the classification of knowledge suggest different aspects of the process of knowledge acquisition and hence their significance to the curriculum planner. These different classifications and categorizations have, however, been characterized differently by different philosophers as _disciplines,‘ _forms of knowledge‘, _realms of meaning‘ and so on. A discipline may be considered as an

organized body of knowledge having a logical structure. It is a network of concepts and generalizations which explain the relationships among a body of facts. Man learns by seeing relationships among different events and processes and by generalizing about them. He sees relationships among different facts and events with the aid of concepts and he conceptualizes by classifying. However, thinking does not stop at the point of making single concepts or single generalizations. Just as we relate different events to form concepts, we link concepts belonging to a class together and form conceptual networks of systems It is these conceptual networks that constitute our disciplines science, mathematics, history and so on.

A discipline has some characteristics. First, it has a domain, a field of phenomena with which it deals (subject matter). For example Physicists, Biologists, or Mathematicians deal with different aspects of reality although there may be some overlapping among the different disciplines as evidenced by the emergence of inter-disciplinary studies. Secondly, every discipline has its own method and mode of inquiry. The members of a discipline agree upon a set of rules by which to create knowledge and by which to validate it. The rules of one discipline cannot apply to the rules of the other. The rules of science, for example, cannot apply to mathematics. Thirdly, a discipline has a history. The effect of history or tradition on a discipline is to define in some degree its domain arid rules. Fourthly, a discipline has a language for communication of its own and also some unique explicit and implicit values too. Fifthly, intergration of knowledge from most available sources has been envisaged in our National Curriculum Framework—2005.

_Realms of Meaning‘ and _Forms of Knowledge‘

Apart from disciplinary conception, knowledge has been classified in terms of meanings and forms. According to Professor Philip Phenix, education ought to be concerned with engendering essential meanings and curriculum and should be planned with that end in view. He divides knowledge into six realms of meaning, which correspond to the disciplines as follows :

The Realms of Meaning	**The Disciplines**
1. Symbolics	Language, logic, mathematics, and symbols in art.
2. Empirics	Physical and social sciences.
3. Aesthetics	Literature, music, art
4. Synnoetics	Literature, philosophy, history,psychology, and theology.
5. Ethics and morality	Parts of philosophy and theology.
6. Synoptics	Philosophy, religion, and history.

Further, Professor Hirst differentiates knowledge into seven logically distinct domains or forms. These forms are distinguished from one another in three ways. First, within the domain, there are distinct types of concepts that characterize different types of knowledge. Second, these concepts occur within different networks, whose relationships determine what meaningful propositions can be made. Third, the domains can be distinguished by the different types of tests they involve for the truth or solidity of propositions. The seven forms of knowledge may be shown as :

1. Mathematics and formal logic
2. The physical sciences
3. The human sciences, including history
4. Moral understanding
5. The religious form of knowledge
6. Philosophy
7. Aesthetics.

Whatever be the actual classification of knowledge, the important point for curriculum-planning is that human knowledge, meaning, and understanding consists of a limited number of quite different kinds and that these are distinguished from one another by their content, subject matter and rules and concepts and methods of validation. A second implication is that education should be concerned both with learning about the differences between disciplines and the relations between them.

However, important principles for curriculum-planning can be derived from the above discussion: the principle of adequate coverage of the disciplines and the principle of achieving balance between the disciplines. A common curriculum for the nation‘s schools should give due representation to all the disciplines and also avoid excessive or narrow specialization in any one of them at the expense of the others. Knowledge is the central core of our culture, whatever may be the sub-cultural differences, and the task of education is to guarantee the basic minimum of understanding in all these knowledge areas.

Moreover, as education is a value laden term, it must have bearing on the philosophy which is acceptable to the Civil Society and what is endorsed by the Nation because education gets its aims from philosophy.

Block – 2

Unit – 2

Sociological Foundations of Curriculum

2.2.1: SOCIOLOGY AND CURRICULUM

Education, from sociological perspective, is a process of transmission of culture. Culture refers to the total way of life of a society, its knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, values, skills and behavior patterns—and not just to what is best or most important in that way of life, or to art, music or literature. Culture, to the sociologist, includes everything that is learned and manmade, Schools are formal institutions specially set up for the preservation and transmission of culture by the society. Schools seek to discharge this function through the curriculum, which is nothing but the sum total of learning experiences provided under its auspices. However, it is neither possible nor desirable to transmit the whole of culture to the successive generations through educational institutions. It is not possible because the schools do not have the required resources and time to do that in view of the vast amount of knowledge, values and skills involved. It is not desirable because the society does not want everything preserved and transmitted, but only those aspects of its culture, which it considers valuable and important. Certain ways of life, certain kinds of knowledge, attitudes, values and beliefs are evaluated and considered so important by the society that their preservation and transmission cannot be left to change or to informal modes. On the contrary, it has to be done systematically through professional teachers and in specially set up institutions, the schools. Some kind of a selection and processing of culture, is thus necessary to determine what aspects of culture should (and what aspects should not) be transmitted and in what form. It is these selected segments of culture then, that constitute the school-curriculum. Curriculum-planning is about the way these elements are selected and structured. "On what criteria is one to decide what is valuable and worthy of transmission in culture?" "How is one to decide on the priorities?" "And how is one to put them into practice?" are questions that are central to curriculum-planning.

Curriculum-planning a very complicated task. It is the hard fact that no society in the modern world, with the exception of simple, pre-industrial societies, can lay claim to an all-pervading homogeneous culture. On the contrary, the culture of most societies can be described as an intermixing of several different regional or ethnic sub-cultures, which fuse to some extent but, at the same time, also retain their distinctiveness and individuality. India presents an excellent example of this social phenomenon. It is a vast country inhabited by people belonging to diverse social stocks, cultures, languages, religions and customs. The Indian society is stratified not only on the basis of caste but also on economic class, educational achievement, occupation and sex. The force with which these loyalties draw people to different sub-cultures is great. The problem before

the country is how to forge a genuine national sentiment among all its people and bring about emotional and national integration through a national system of education without, in any way, diminishing its cultural variety and richness. In other-words, the task before national education is to promote unity in diversity. Cultural pluralism must be a credo.

It has been said earlier that a curriculam without its explicit and implicit cultural roots has no meaning and pedagogical significance. The two-way traffic in — between school and community is praxis, though the nature and quality of this communication varies form community to community. and also the nature, quality and priorities of changes of such relationship vary over time within a single community. This implies that a community or society has organic growth and it is in changing order what has been known as social change, coined by the sociologists. Sometimes new technology comes into forefront and produces heavy impact on the normal flow of a society.

Similarly, culture is conceived to reside in the repository of a group or a community or a society. Hilda Taba maintains that —Scientific understanding of culture and of the personality in culture should be part of the equipment of all those deal with curriculum development. There is an obvious need for a rapprochment between the disciplines studying the culture and those studying education, for the real issues that plague schools today are not exclusively rooted in education itself

— they spring from the dynamics of the human and social environment." Moreover, —An understanding of what that environment is, what it contains, by what dynamic it operates, and what problems and possibilities it holds should shed light on what education can and must do if is to play its legitimate role." Not only has this, social anthropology which deals with culture and personality, made a unique contribution to education. Kluckholm suggests, the interest of education and anthropology converge because both deal with humanity created techniques of living, with norms and values attached to these techniques, and with their transmission to younger generation. Most anthropologists agree that a degree of conformity to social norms is essential in any kind of social order if that to continue. But on the contrary this contrary this conformity may be bar to freedom of thinking, creativity, imitativeness or even those culture norms and values may be defind and control by some groups only. Such norms may be imposed in any mass cultural groups by various ways one of which may be curriculum. This danger has been analyzed and expressed by Prof. Apple in various languages.

Counts, Bramheld and Giroux, etc have been vocal against the Eurocentric conceptions of knowledge and culture which get entry through hidden curriculum of school. Faced with the crisis of society, they devise a vision of a new, better society and advocate that education should take place for social reconstruction. Hence, a new curriculum should think of knowledge which is characterized by many new defining points what have been discussed earlier. Finally, schools must be seen as places where culture, power, and knowledge come together to produce a vision of future that is supposed to determine what knowledge we consider to be true, ethical, emancipatory and worthwhile. That is there will remain the struggle over the production and creation of knowledge.

Therefore, the curriculum developers must understand that ‗struggle' and they must contest with the differing wings of cultural and also ideological conflicts so that the curriculum may ponder over issues and concern about — the school as countervailing socializing agent, education for values and feelings, autonomy, individuality and creativity, voice of the people/masses, the danger of ethnocentricity, importance pluralism, right to education for all, etc. It should be kept in mind that touching upon all those sociological issues and concern while developing a curriculum is not easy. Obviously necessary conditions are be integrated in the length and breadth of the curriculum. Educators need also to consider way which to integrate learning from socializing process with learning that occurs as a result of its curriculum without any confusion.

To keep abreast of the fast-moving social events and rapidly growing knowledge about society and culture, a new role needs to be created among those resposible for setting a pattern for the curriculum. This is the role of a team of interdisciplinary research group, taking cues and information from the neighboring disciplines.

The story of sociological foundations of curriculum, in brief, may ne delineated with the following headings —

1. Society and education — curriculum while reflecting contemporary social forces should also be able to respond to the dynamics of changes-local, national and global — and put emphasis on local and global knowledge praxis of the day.

2. Social change and the curriculum - must take cues from growth of technology and its impact on the learners in all corners of their lives, changing order of structure of family and other basic institutions, cultural diversity and cultural pluralism, etc.

3. Changing order of meaning of learning and its relationship with the community living — learning to live together, lifelong, learning, building social capital, empowerment, etc.

Two Examples of Social linage to Curriculum Development :

1. Curriculum as praxis

Curriculum as praxis is, in many respects, a development of the process model. Critical pedagogy goes beyond situating the learning experience within the experience of the learner : it is a process which takes the experiences of both the learner and the teacher and, through dialogue and negotiation, recognizes them both as problematic... [It] allows, indeed encourages, students and teachers together to confront the real problems of their existence and relationships... When students confront the real problems of their existence they will soon also be faced with their own oppression. (Grundy 1987: 105)....

In this approach the curriculum itself develops through the dynamic interaction of action and reflection. That is, the curriculum is not simply a set of plans to be implemented, but rather is constituted through an

active process in which planning, acting and evaluating are all reciprocally related and integratedinto the process‘ (Grundy 1987 : 115)

Curriculum in context

One criticism of the above model is that it does not place a strong enough emphasis upon context. This is a criticism that can also be laid at the door of the other approaches. In this respect Catherine Cornbleth (1990) sees curriculum as a particular type of process. Curriculum for her is what actually heppens in classrooms, that is, _an ongoing social process comprised of the interactions of students, teachers, knowledge and milieu‘ (1990 : 5). Cornbleth further contends that curriculum as practice cannot be understood adequately or changed substantially without attention to its setting or context. Curriculum is contextually shaped. She stresses on the social relationships of the school

- the nature of the teacher-student relationship, the organization of classes, streaming and so on. These elements are what are sometimes known as the hidden curriculum coined by Philip W. Jackson (1968) but it had been present as an acknowledged element in education for some time before. The learning associated with the _hidden curriculum‘ is most often treated in a negative way. It is learning that is smuggled in and serves the interests of the status quo. The emphasis on regimentation, on bells and time management, and on streaming are sometimes seen as preparing young people for the world of capitalist production. What we do need to recognize is that such _hidden‘ learning is not all negative and can be potentially liberating. _In so far as they enable students to develop socially valued knowledge and skills... or to form their own peer groups and subcultures, they may contribute to personal and collective autonomy and to possible critique and challange of existing norms and institutions‘ (Cornbleth 1990 : 50). What we also need to recognize is that by treating curriculum as a contextualized social process, the notion of hidden curriculum becomes rather redundant. If we need to stay in touch with milieu as we build curriculum then it is not hidden but becomes a central part of our processes.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain the need for sociological foundation of a curriculum.
2. A curriculum has cultural roots - Explain with suitable examples.

2.2.2 : Some main Sociological Issues in Shaping Curriculum

For understanding this theme more eleborately we shall learn about some other sociological issues in the next sub-section.

The Case for a Common Curriculum

This is a prime concern in India. Situation demands that national education and its curriculum be built on a common Indian culture. At the same time, it should also take account of the distinct cultural needs and demands of the different sections of the Indian society. This requirement; however, raises a number of questions : To what extent is it possible to identify a common Indian culture to serve as a basis for a national curriculum? What shall be it's cultural components? Should national curriculum emphasize the traditional cultural values or values of modernization? What aspects of traditional culture should be retained and what should be removed? To what extent should the different subcultures be represented in a common curriculum? How can the interests of the different linguistic and ethnic groups be compromised with a national educational system? and so on.

Criticism of the Common Curriculum

The idea of deriving a common curriculum from culture has come under severe criticism by some sociologists of education in recent times. Prof. G.H. Bantock, deriving inspiration from T.S. Eliot sees culture as falling into two-categories — high and low. The high culture has an essentially academic, literary tradition and the low culture has an essentially folk or non-literary tradition. Compulsory education based on a common culture curriculum has failed, according to Bantock, because we have attempted to force a literary culture down the throats of the masses whose tradition is basically an oral one. His own educational prescription for this situation is to have separate schools and curriculum for participants from high and low culture groups.

Such a criticism however derives from an assumption that culture can be divided into high and low and that it is possible to allocate human beings to these two rigid categories, a highly questionable assumption. Common culture-curriculum critics also fear thatm it would restrict the pupils, achievement-to some kind of lowest common denominator without providing sufficient opportunities for the bright and the talented and that in practice it is not possible to organize a common curriculum for a wide range of pupil-ability.

These criticism draw our attention to the fact that the-question in actual fact is not whether we should have a common curriculum but how to conceive of a curriculum that suits different individual needs and abilities, that will preserve the identities of different cultural groups, and at the same time promote a sense of unity among them. If the charge against the common curriculum is that it tends to force down on a large

section of the people‘s knowledge, which is predominantly academic and literary and which is of dubious value to them, then the criticism is not against the idea of a common curriculum as such, but against a particular type of common curriculum. We, thus, come back to the question: How is one to derive a curriculum that caters to the needs and interests of the different sections of the people while at the same time pursuing worthwhile knowledge, values and skills? We must go for common curriculum is the sense that its planning, organization and implementation should be grounded by equity, equality and human rights. In view of these constructivism in its socio-cultural dress has now been accepted in curriculum development.

Equality of Cultures

A different kind of criticism on the common curriculum takes the form that one subculture or culture is as good (or as bad) as any other. So, why try to force a common culture on all in a pluralistic society? This is an extreme form of cultural relativity whose educational consequences will be far- reaching. Certain schools have tried to transmit what they have assumed as ―culture-free" knowledge, languages, sciences, mathematics, arts and crafts, physical education and so on — which is believed to be needed by one and all for the all round development of one‘s personality. It is also accepted that those who found it difficult to respond to such curricular treatment, either because of poor home- background or other socio-economic reasons, should be given compensatory education to make up for their cultural disadvantages and deprivations.

It has also been taken as axiomatic that there were always some children in schools who were in a particular sense, culturally deprived. The argument that all cultures are equally good, that there is no high or low culture, and that the schools being middle-class institutions try to force down on the children the dominant middle class culture, makes the very concept of cultural deprivation meaningless except in the economic sense. Deprivation, it is now argued, can have meaning only as an economic notion and instead of taking a patronizing attitude by labeling working class children as culturally deprived, the schools should re-order their curriculum, taking into account the cultural richness and energy of that class of children, who are economically deprived.

But such a view poses a number of questions to the curriculum-planners. If the most important datum about any student is that relating to his present and likely future membership of a particular social class, what does it imply for the work of the schools? What would be adequate socio- philosophical reasons for schools transmitting different cultures to students from different social classes? What would be the cultural content of curriculum aimed at different social classes particularly in terms of notions like excellence or the best! As Shukla points out, it is problematic to provide school-college culture supportive of the hitherto underprivileged, or to promote in college the knowledge and skills at which they can be more adept. Even more problematic is the relation of such skills and knowledge to the economy or to the knowledge system as it obtains in society.

Social Class and Curriculum

That school curriculum represents class-free, non-controversial fund of knowledge that is good for all children that have come under the fold of the school has till recently been taken for granted. Early sociological research on educational opportunity certainly treated as unproblematic the concept of —what it is to be educated" or the nature of the education pupils failed at. Of late, however, school- curriculum has become the target of severe criticism in the context of the ideals of social justice and equalization of opportunity, the charge against it being that it is invariably conceived in narrow middle class terms and therefore acts against the interests of the children coming from impoverished lower socio-economic classes. Why should emphasis be placed on the assimilation of middle class values? Why should school-success be judged in terms of high scores in language or mathematics rather than in work or social service? And why should children who find it difficult to respond to such ‗education' be branded as ‗culturally deprived'? Radical thinkers like Ivan Illich, Everett Reimer and Paulo Freire have taken up cudgels against schools for their bias in favor of middle class and white collar attitudes and their denigration of the attitudes and values associated with the poor. The worst victims of compulsory schooling according to Illich are the poor. —Students, especially those who are poor are schooled to confuse process and substance." Reimer, commenting about the Latin American dropout children, says that although they failed to learn to read —they did learn, however, how unsuited they were to school, how poor their clothing was, how bad their manners were, how stupid they were in comparison with those' who went on to higher grades." Some national leaders of our country think that our schools are used to reside in an aristrocratic model and dignity of labour remains only in mental activity.

Social Learning

How the social class factors affect the school achievement unfavorably of children, especially of the unskilled working classes—have been brought out by many studies. The most well known of these is Basil Bernstein's work in social learning. Bernstein's main finding was that since a child learns his social structure through its language, spoken language powerfully conditions what is learned and how it is learned and so influences his future learning.

Naturally, middle class child, Bernstein points out, is capable of responding to, manipulating, and understanding a public language that is structured to mediate relatively explicitly individualized qualifications, as a result of his socio-cultural environment. Because of the different structuring of the lower working-class child's environment, he is limited to a public language only. This radically narrows the extent and type of his object relationships. Thus, the middle class child and the lower working-class child are oriented to different orders of learning as a result of the implications of their forms of language-use. A public language, Bernstein adds, symbolizes a tradition and a form of social relationship in which the individual is treated as an end and not as a means to a further end. The schools by simply substituting a formal language, which is not necessarily a logical, impersonal, emotionally eviscerated language, cut off the individual from his traditional

relationships and, perhaps, alienate him from them. And this is the reason, the critics charge, why working class children do not get ‗ahead in schools. By implication, it means that schools should adapt themselves to this different use of language with all its different implications of the kinds of learning it encourages. The schools are, so to say, faced with a political choice on language. If they maintain their present attitudes, they are acting against the working class.

Several authors on the subjects have reported how the value-orientation of our educational institutions acts against the interests of the poor and the underprivileged classes. According to Malavika Karlekar, the problem of education of the Scheduled Castes is essentially one of socialization in the dominant norms of an educational system based on learning by rote and cramming. According to J.P. Naik, the narrow interpretation of educational quality as achievement in cognitive and linguistic skills associated with the middle and upper classes is one of the main obstacles in the way of educational reform. This is really a big challange and issue in curriculum planning. The ecological validity of curricular knowledge is rarely articulation in our National Curriculum Framework.

The Sociology of Knowledge

Education is essentially concerned with the transmission of knowledge. Hitherto it was taken for granted that knowledge which the school sought to transmit through its curriculum — the sciences, arts, history, mathematics and such other disciplines — derived their validity from purely epistemological considerations and had nothing to do with social factors. However, during recent times, the whole question of knowledge and curriculum has received a thorough shake-up by a section of educational sociologists who have questioned the ‗neutrality' of school-knowledge and called attention to it's social dimensions. Deriving inspiration from the Marxian dictum: ―In each epoch the thoughts of the ruling class are the ruling thoughts: i.e., the class that is the ruling material power of society is at the same time its ruling intellectual power" hence a school curriculum, cannot have any absolute validity. On the other hand, knowledge can be viewed as ―socially constructed as sets of shared meanings" representative of the dominant power structure of society. Then knowing the world is not coming into possession of a set of truths about the world which is out there but a matter of coming to perceive the world in particular ways which are largely determined by one's interactions with a particular historical and social context.

What knowledge shall be transmitted through the curriculum and in what form are decided not on the basis of epistemological theories but on the basis of normative or value premises relating to the material conditions of existing social relations. And they are decided in such a way that education serves as a major factor in the production of certain kinds of knowledge, which in turn serve the particular interests of particular societies. Education is, thus, a political act first and foremost and curriculum content is a form of intellectual and political manipulation.

Prof. Apple points out that the structural arrangements—the basic ways institutions, people and modes of production, distribution and consumption are organized and controlled — dominate cultural life which includes schools, teaching and curricula. There is a dialectical relationship between the overt and covert knowledge" taught in schools, the principles of selection and organization of that knowledge and the criteria and modes of evaluation used to ‗measure success' in teaching. Schools create and recreate forms of consciousness that enable social control to be maintained without the necessity of dominant groups having to resort to overt mechanism of domination. Further sociologists like Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis have stressed the role of economic factors — mobility, selection, the reproduction of division of labor, etc — in educational institutions and argued that conscious economic manipulation by those in power is a determining element of school- curriculum. Young, Bernstein and others have argued that the structure of knowledge and symbol in our educational institutions is intimately related the principles of social and cultural control in society. Here lies the Centre-Periphery dialogue in curriculum planning and organization.

While these views on the social determinants of knowledge and school-curriculum are highly controversial, it cannot be denied that there are highly significant social considerations underlying such questions as: What counts as educational knowledge and why?; What changes should be made in school-curricula and why?; and how can curricula be planned so that pupils will have equal access to knowledge? The quality of solutions to these controversies is a continuous search for the curriculum experts.

The contribution of sociology of knowledge consists in having asked these questions boldly and brought to surface the issues of social class differences in access to knowledge, the validity of streaming and compensatory education and the distribution and stratification of knowledge (why should certain kinds of knowledge be given a higher prestige than other kinds?).

But Sociology of knowledge alone cannot decide curriculum issues. It simply cannot be that the only reasons for labeling knowledge as high status or low status are social; for there might be other good reasons for the division of knowledge. It cannot also be that subject disciplines ate merely social constructs. Actually, it is a problematic issue. If it is true that school subjects at present hinder the learning of some pupils, the solution may lie in the reorganization of the teaching of those subjects. It does not necessarily follow that subjects are always bad or that they do not exist. Also, to argue that all knowledge is socially constructed is simplistic. It ignores philosophical views of knowledge and reality other than phenomenology on which the sociology of knowledge is based. While it is true that social factors influence knowledge, it is not the case that they determine it, rather we must go to philosophy, psychology and technology to find the workable solutions of many kinds.

We, thus, see that there are various sociological considerations like cultural, economic and political that deeply influence school-curriculum — its conception, content and organization. To begin with,

curriculum is the device which a society uses to transmit what it considers as the worthwhile aspects of its culture — knowledge, values, beliefs, skills. In designing this device for application in its schools, a pluralistic society has to build it upon the elements that are common to the various subcultures that together make up the total culture of the society besides making adequate provision for the-preservation of the identities of the different subcultural groups. Curriculum should be so designed that it does not act unfair to the interests of the lower socio-economic classes. In the name of transmission of culture it should not act as a vehicle of domination of middle class values. Rather it should taken note of the social factors influencing knowledge especially relating to its distribution and stratification.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain with suitable examples, the sociological background of the hidden curriculum.
2. Explain : —There is a dialectical relationship between the overt and covert knowledge taught at schools."

Block – 2

Unit – 3

Psychological Foundations of Curriculum

PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATION OF CURRICULUM

We are discussing this area under two sub-sections.

2.3.1.: CURRICULUM AND THEORIES OF LEARNING

Introduction

Grounded by some fundamental assumptions about human behavior, Educational Psychology, an applied branch of psychology, is a strong pillar upon which curriculum is erected systematically. The main area of psychological movement in education is understanding learning and teaching and deepening our understanding of human potential to learn and also individual variations-both inter and intra. A curriculum without in-built in psychological principle, is a void and meaningless. There are several areas in which the psychological principles and theories come and help as the psychological foundation of education as well as of curriculum.

Hilda Taba in Curriculum Development : Theory and Practice puts : —Sound suggestions for curriculum development can be derived only from a sound psychology of learning. In setting issues of curriculum and methods one must take into account all that is known about the nature of man and the nature of the learning process. Historically, there has always been a relationship between education and knowledge of or assumptions about the nature of learning.” This relationship is not that education is borrowing knowledge about psychology of learning, the relationship is not uni-directional, about psychology of learning (say Educational Psychology) is also getting or sensing problems or anomalies in the actual practice of education in the learning sites and as a matter of instinctual curiosity as well as disciplinary responsibility psychology of learning is becoming both active and proactive in expanding its horizon of knowledge. That is the relationship is two-way communicative or complementary.

Further, issues relating to interrelationship among areas of development — cognitive, affective, moral, motor, and meta-cognitive — are also the concern for curriculum developers as the social — philosophical goal of education are distribution of equity and ensuring human rights to education for all. The concepts of readiness and pacing, developmental tasks, intelligence, stage of cognitive development, limitation in intellectual potential, other native potential, motivation, problems of heterogeneity in learners, dilemma of receptive and creative thinking, problem of underdevelopment, besides all aspects of learning are also some the multitude determining factors and issues for the curriculum developers and they take account of these as the basic materials for bulding curriculum superstructure. Moreover issues and concerns relating to instruction, instructional design and assessment of learning outcomes or even curriculum evaluation are also getting theoritical and practical supports for psychology.

Learning Theories and Curriculum

Knowledge about the learner and learning is relevant to making a host of curriculum decisions. Some of the very important decisions, according to Taba, are : selection and arrangements of content, the choice of the learning experiences by which this content is to be manipulated and by which the objectives not achievable through content alone can be attained, and plans for optimum conditions for learning.

These decisions cannot be made adequately without understanding a good deal about learners and learning process which is eventually not explained by an all-agreed definition. Learning is complex and there are many different kinds : mastering motor skills, memorizing information, learning feelings, concepts, and intellectual skills, such as generalizing, scientific inquiry and problem solving. Theorization about all kinds of learning in a super theory of learning is not achieved so far. Various theories of learning are also contesting each others. For example, behaviorist associationist theories which dominate the field, overlook ideational learning; field theories stress the learning of ideas and insight, while the dynamics of learning, such as motivational patterns, are the chief concerns of psychoanalytic theories. Further, learning occurs in a social setting and also through personal experiences. Consequently, learning is central in the educative process, it is difficult to determine just what it is, under what conditions it occurs, or how to manipulate the conditions, how to maximize it under school conditions. Moreover, psychological investigations are not generally concerned with the nature of learning as it occurs in school. Some argue that there is even a sign of rift between the science of learning and educational methods. The above phenomena present a baffling experiences and difficulties to the curriculum developers and hence they are to move toward a broader periphery of learning theories while panning curriculum.

All theories of learning rest on a concept of man and his capacities and their intricate natures as well as the interplaying operating variables assumed by a particular theoretician. Historically, the first concept of man produced a theory of learning often called the theory of mental discipline or faculty psychology. In this view, motivation does not matter and individual differences are irrelevant, learning connotes training of mind; special merit is found in such ‗hard' subject like mathematics and Latin and practice and drills are most important. Science of learning has advanced now a lot but many current critics of educational practices seem to make similar assumptions when they advocate toughness and hardness of study per se.

Now from training of mind to shaping or modifying behaviors of all kinds is the main issues of theories of learning and consequently the curriculum developer like to take cues form these modern theories. For the sake of convenience we may classify the whole family of learning theories into three categories.

1. Behaviorist theories which deal with various aspects of stimulus — response and reinforcement scheme.
2. Cognitivist theories which view the learner in relationship with the total environment, and

3. Phenomenology which emphasizes the affective domain of learning and also personal meaning making about the environmental inputs or happening.
4. Increasing interest in Constructivism and curriculum

1. Behaviorism and Curriculum

The behaviorist school is rooted in a corresponding philosophical speculation about the nature of learning. It has dominated particularly the first-half of the 20^{th} century psychology. After a few years of wilderness it has recently gained currency once again with the advent of individualized education. Essentially, here learning is considered as habit formation and teaching is regarded as arranging learning experiences in such as way as to promote desirable behavior. It also takes notes of retention and transfer of learning for economizing pupil learnig encounter.

Broadly, behaviorists advocate that —

- behaviour is likely to be influenced by the condition under which learning takes place.
- attitudes to and abilities of learning can change or improve over time through proper stimuli,
- learning experiences can be designed and controlled to create desires for learning,
- selective reinforcement is essential,
- rote learning and memorization of knowledge are unnecessary.

A curriculum, according to behaviorists should be based on the following concerns :

1. remediation, skills acquisition, considerations of basic or advanced learning
2. well defined, short-term and long-term objectives
3. appropriate instructional materials and media to suit the learner‘s abilities shaping behavior through prescribed tasks, phase by phase activities, close supervision of activities and positive reinforcement
5. diagnosing, assessing and reassessing the learner‘s needs, objectives, tasks and instruction with a view to improving the curriculum
6. curriculum planning, sequencing contents, writing materials, illustrating materials, etc are some aspects which are shaped and directed by this school of thinking.

We can see manifestation of these guidelines in theories, principles or trends related to —

- individualized education both in face-to-face and distance learning contexts
- instructional design and systematic design models
- teacher-training techniques such as simulation, microteaching competency performance based teacher education
- educational technology including programmed instruction.

2. Cognitivism and Curriculum

Cognitivism focuses on learning as change in cognitive structure, a hypothetical construct reasoned out by a community of psychologists, popularly known as cognitivists. Cognitive theory of learning refers to any theory of learning that postulates intervening variables of a cognitive nature in order to explain learning. Learning is considered as a growth-cognitive growth, essentially through the process of education. Educator‘s task is to facilitate pupil‘s cognitive growth. Consequently, curriculum aims at so. Most cognitivists believe that growth and development occur in progressive stages. Jean Piaget is a pioneer in this direction and his theorization about growth of intelligence in the Psychology of Intelligence (1950) has made significant change in curriculum development, especially in sciences. Bruner‘s formulation of concept attainment model has also a renowed venturre in employing strategies in concept attainment. Their works have given s much knowledge how to present learning when building learning materials as well as during instruction. Most curriculum specialists tend to draw greater adherence to cognitive than to behaviorism today. It might be because-cognitive approach leads to logical methods and interpreting lerarning, and cognitive approach is roted in the tradition of teaching based on the subject matter which is supposed to have embedded structure of knowledge and it sometimes may be explained with the aid of a map-cognitive map.

The curriculum specialists take note of encouraging pupils to ask questions and solve problems. Students should be encouraged to take up cognitive risk and seek for alternatives strategies to come to a solution. Classroom should be a place for discovering the truth by formulating hypotheses and testing them appropriately. This, cognitivism regards classroom a site for experimentation and naturally a place of greater freedom for exploration.

3. Phenomenology and Curriculum

Phenomenologists point out that that the way we look at ourselves is crucial for understanding our behaviors and that we respond to an organization or pattern of stimuli and not to an isolated one. That is like to understand the total, not a part of anything... It emphasizes learning must be explained in terms of the –wholeness” of the problem. It differs from cognitivism in this way that phenomenology stresses the affective and the

cognitivism gives emphasis on cognitive aspect. Because each individual has specific needs and interests related to his/her self-fulfillment and self-realization. This implies that in this case curriculum must be humanistic Here subjective experience is given importance in comparison to objectivity.Some writers tend to be cognition-oriented. However, one propose should be that behaviorist components are needed for planning and developing a sound curriculum. Further, humanistic components of teaching-learning must be incorporated into the curriculum.

4. Increasing Interest in Constructivist Curriculum

Constructivism is a theory abut the nature of knowledge. While there ate different interpretations of constructivism, their common denominator seems to be a belief that knowledge is created by people and influenced by their values and culture. It is more popular with its two views — cognitive view exemplifies by Piaget and the social view exemplified by Vygotsky. The former posits that people develop universal forms or strctures of knowledge that enable them to experience reality; knowledge is individually constructed and is based on the knower‘s intellectual development as one experiences reality during physical and social activity. Here the teacher‘s role as facilitator is to pose problems that challange childre‘s conception of reality. On the other hand, social constructivism posits that knowledge is co- constructed through social and cultural contexts, rendering reality non- objective. Knowledge, socially constructed as reality is created during physical and social activity. The teacher‘s role is to be a collaborator who participates with the children in constructing reality by engaging in open-ended inquiry that elicits and addresses student misconceptions.

Thus, constructivism is a theory of learning based on the principle that learners construct meaning from what they experience; thus, learning is an active, meaning-making process. Curriculum development from the constructivist point of view generally follows four tenets.

1. Human mind has the ability to represent through symbols; language is one of the major symbol systems having a primary relationship to thinking and learning; meaning is also created and expressed through other symbol systems;
2. Individual is the active constructor of meaning rather than passive recipient of knowledge;
3. Learning is complex process involving the interaction of past experience, personal intentions and new experience;
4. Social context is recognized as a crucial element in meaning making process.

Brooks and Brooks (1993) maintain that that there are principles of constructivist pedagogy which includes posing problem, structuring learning around the primary concepts, seeking and valuing children‘s point of view adapting curriculum to address student suppositions and assessing children‘s learning in the context of teaching.

Although constructivism seems to have made its strongest impact on science and mathematics curricula, leaders in other fields are attempting to embody in curriculum units the follwing principles :

- Units should be problem-focused, requiring the student to solve open-ended contextualized problems.
- Units should enable the students to have access to research and other knowledge in soving problems (generative knowledge).
- Learning strategies (such as the use of matrices and web diagrams) should be taught in the context of solving problems.
- The teacher should provide the necessary scaffolding of structure throughout units.
- Because learning is a social process, teachers should ensure that students spend at least part of their time in group formalism such as cooperative learning.
- Units should conclude by requiring the student to demonstrate learning in some authentic manner.

The recent brain research provides some physiological basis for much of constructivist vies of knowledge and the role of the knower in constructing that knowledge. Thus, we need radical change in the design and implementation of educational studies and curriculum. Such curriculum change would include at its core the recognition and celebration of multiple realities and multiple ways to create express and represent those realities.

To sum up, the above ideas about learning have influenced the shaping of curriculum. The curriculum organization, therefore, parallels the theories of learning. The real thing is that the curriculum developers have choices about selecting and integrating theory of learning. Possibly, they may not have open choice grounded by reasons and conscious decision of the psychological one, rather those decisions are some function of other sources and influences emerged from philosophy and sociology.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give one example each from your MA/MSc in Education Curriculum indicating
   (a) behaviorist and (b) cognitivist theories of learning content materials.

2.3.2: OTHER PSYCHOLOGICAL BEARINGS ON CURRICULUM DECELOPMENT

Human Development and Curriculum

Another issues are : How do children grow and develop? What are the characteristics manifested during the developmental process? Under what conditions do children develop in a particular way? These are very important questions for planning the content and process of learning involved in curriculum.

The idea that growth and development are gradual and continuous and that development stages occur in a fairly orderly sequence is now universally accepted. Another important idea is the interrelationship among areas of development — physical, social, emotional and mental. These interrelationships are many and the pattern shifts during growth. No individual develops evenly. The unevenness becomes a source of additional difficulties when cultural expectations assume an even development. This is a fact which is of great significance in curriculum planning.

The issue of sequential development has also given the concepts of readiness and pacing. Certain minimum levels of maturity are necessary before certain subjects can be taught efficiently;

effective teaching involves pacing teaching to child‘s maturity. This principle has greatly influenced the arrangement and presentation of curriculum content.

A curriculum gauged to fixed age-level norms of development based on the idea of a fixed sequence may be guilty of under development as well as over expectation. Individual variations in readiness and speed with which they master different tasks should be catered to in the curriculum. A strictly age patterned curriculum with its uniform requirements often fails to accommodate slow learners and late starters. The interrelatedness of the different aspects of development implies that there should be a broader base of diagnosis and assessment in order to determine what curriculum to offer and to whom. Curriculum-decisions are to be made not on discrete measurements and standards but on the relevant factors determining an individual‘s readiness to learn. The concept of development suggests that the child and the adolescent are in the process of becoming and so curriculum should aid this process of becoming instead of enforcing static norms of achievement and progress.

Another notion that is of significance to the curriculum planner is that of a developmental task. A developmental task is essentially a task of learning, which an individual must accomplish in relation to his culture to be a successful, productive and healthy person. The nature of developmental tasks varies according to culture. An important implication of this is that curriculum-planning needs to design use and control the conditions for learning as well as the content to be learned.

Cognitive Development

Development has several dimensions to it —physical, social, emotional, intellectual and so on. Of these, intellectual or mental development is of critical concern to the school, as development of knowledge and understanding constitutes the most important objective of school-curriculum.

The nature of intelligence and the factors influencing it‘s development have been a favorite area of research-interest among psychologists for quite some time and various theories have been formulated. One of the theories that has influenced curriculum to a great extent is that of the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget. Piaget distinguishes three stages in the intellectual development of the child.

Piaget has highlighted the fact that at each stage of its development, the child has a characteristic way of viewing the world and explaining it to himself. The significance of this to curriculum has been well brought out by Jerome Bruner who has declared that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest way to any child at any stage of development. The task of teaching a subject according to him is one of representing the structure of that subject in terms of the child‘s way of viewing things. It is a task of translation of the idea in the thought forms of children.

The implication of these findings are best seen in some of the modern-curriculum projects which have attempted to present the basic ideas of the different disciplines in the thought-forms of children and gradually deepen their understanding of them by enabling them to use them in progressively more complex forms. The spiral curriculum (Bruner) begins with the teaching of the various disciplines but with an intuitive grasp of ideas and use of them and revisits these basic ideas repeatedly as it develops, building upon them until the student has grasped the full formal apparatus that goes with them. The important lesson for curriculum-planning is that curriculum should be built around the great issues, principles and values that a society deems worthy of the continual concern of its members. It should have continuity and development. This issue is an open issue. Further development in cognitive science is putting more challanges to the curriculum planners.

Transfer of Learning

Formal education is based on the premise that whatever is taught and learnt in the school gets transferred over to life-situations and proves to be of functional value to the student. School-curricula must, therefore, lay stress on such content as will promise maximum transfer and develop a knowledge and understanding of matters, which lie beyond what is taught directly.

All theories of learning make assumptions about transfer but different views are held as to how transfer takes place. One view holds that the study of certain subjects assures a general and automatic transfer. It was believed, for example, that the study of Latin improved intelligence, that of mathematics, logical reasoning and so on. This view influenced curriculum-selection a great deal in the past and is still an influential force as can be seen by the advocacy of inclusion of this or that subject on the ground that the subject under question trained this or that power of the mind. According to the second view, transfer is not automatic but is possible only if there are identical elements in the content involved or in the process of training. The emphasis in curriculum, therefore, should be on the teaching of specific knowledge and skills and not on abstract subject matter and general understanding. A third view of transfer holds that transfer occurs not by means of specific identical elements but through generalization of the content or of the methods employed in the learning of that content. The last mentioned view of transfer is backed by the cognitive field theories of learning and constitutes a major influence on modern curriculum-practice. Modern curricula are organized on the principle

that understanding of general principles is the key to transfer of learning and that positive transfer depends both on how and what an individual learns. The result has been the throwing away from curriculum of meaningless, non-functional content and inclusion of such content as would best illustrate the nature and structure of the discipline studied. A staunch advocate of this type of curriculum-organization is Bruner. He declares that understanding of the fundamental principles and ideas is the main road to transfer of training.

We, thus, see that these are various psychological considerations that deeply influence curriculum planning and development. A knowledge of these considerations of which we have discussed only the major ones — the process of human development, the theories of learning and transfer of training
— is very essential for curriculum-planning and practice.

We can now add to the precision of our thinking about the psychological foundation of curriculum by placing in an appropriate perspective of paradigm shift; a few of the major concepts are discussed below.

First, let us consider the following simple relationships :

(1) Maturation × Nurture = Development

Although the equation is an oversimplification we may think of it as being a general one and applicable to all the types of development that occur in the human being. Maturation is used in the equation to represent innate sequences and patterns in which the design for change is assured by internal factors.

The nurture of the equation is intended to include not only physical and biological but all of the types of experience that nurture the maturing design. Development is the end product of a complex interaction between maturation and nurture to be considered for psychological foundations in curriculum.

When we consider the special role of the curriculum in nurture we are at the same time specifying that the development in which we have a special interest for the moment is school achievement. We may then substitute in the equation as follows:

(2) Maturation × Experience = Achievement

Actually in this case we would wish to consider only that part of the experience which becomes incorporated in the learner so as to produce achievement. For this purpose we might wish to substitute ‗responses' for experiences. This would be a more definite term since we learn our responses, not necessarily the gross experiences to which we are exposed.

At any particular point in time, of course, we are not dealing with sheer maturation as we plan experiences to produce achievement in the learner. He is already a complex of maturation and learning.

As an example, let us consider achievement in ability to read. If under deprived conditions, the experience is not supplied, we would write zero in the equation for large numbers of children. It then becomes:

(3) Maturation × Zero Reading Experience = Zero Achievement in Reading

The goal in curriculum planning is somehow to take into account the needs of the individual and of society so as to provide the experiences appropriate to the maturing individual so as to secure achievement.

The curriculum is commonly concerned with those experiences which all children should have in common plus a consideration of those experiences which are designed to produce differences. The process of teaching involves the understanding and management of the factors in the equations.

Let us turn first to a brief consideration of the nurture of the equation as a basis for curriculum planning.

(4) Deprivation and the curriculum

Deprivation is now commonly recognized as the greatest hazard to the developmental process of curriculum whether it is be of experience, or of transaction. The easiest things to discover and to appraise in the study of the curriculum are the areas of experience where presence or absence can be guaranteed. Thus one can easily establish the broad contrasts between the people who have or have not taking the positive output about curriculum and one can discern at least the immediate effects of a unit of study or of a particular course with and without involving curriculum.

The experiences that should be provided are the major concern in curriculum planning. In order to have a perspective on the experiences that children are to have in schools there must be some consideration of the objectives.

(5) The objectives of curriculum experiences

The objectives of curriculum experiences are commonly found by a study of the learner and society in actual practice these must commonly be translated by the specialists who are acquainted with the various fields of organized knowledge. For example, it is relatively easy to determine that one of the greatest health needs is the prevention of the common cold. One does not get far, however, in translating this individual and social need into a practical programme since secure knowledge on prevention is not available. Thus one must frequently rely on specialists to determine what is or is not possible in terms of the present state of our knowledge. Most curriculum experts will agree that one fundamental purpose of education is to assist in the learning of the cultural heritage. History, literature, science, mathematics, and government constitute vast reservoirs of potential experiences for understanding man and his institutions.

How to select, organize, and relate these and similar materials to the needs of the learner becomes one of the interesting and important tasks of the curriculum expert and the teacher.

When groups engage in curriculum planning they are likely either to state the objectives in very general terms or may go to the opposite extreme of stating them in highly specific terms. For example, one might say in general terms that the objective of elementary education at the‘ end of the primary period is to have the child understand his immediate environment. In very specific terms, however, one might have such an objective as: _To recognize and name the common animals and plants‘. Frequently the statement in general terms is so broad and inclusive as to seem almost axiomatic and hardly to require a statement, while the attempt to enumerate specific objectives results in such a bewildering number and variety as to confront the teacher with burdensome details.

The contemporary approach to the curriculum argues that we should start with a broadly trained teacher, working under some general guides as to purpose and direction, with substantial latitude for the attainment of the countless details. Practice currently varies all the way from a narrowly prescribed body of content which the teacher is expected to teach, to a highly professional teacher who plans with children and uses the human and natural resources of the community, and the prepared books and curriculum materials, to achieve both the broad design and the details of curriculum experience.

The development of the emergent pattern in a curriculum in a school is often assisted by study committees composed of teachers, parents and experts which help clarify both the problem of direction and process.

(6) The organization of curriculum experiences

Even after objectives have been agreed upon and the pertinent content decided upon there remains an interesting problem of how experiences are to be organized. Many innovations have been tried in an attempt to add meaning and transfer to school learnings. Organization of subjects determined by content is one of the simpler answers. Some type of fusion as in the combination of reading, spelling, and writing in a broad field such as language arts or communication arts has been another. Fusion and integration have been widely accepted at different levels levels both on a basis of broad fields and with unification about a particular unit or activity, e. g. transportation. The interest in a _core‘ curriculum at secondary levels reflects a search for the same values.

(7) Growth and the curriculum

Growth and education are closely related. The chief measure of growth for purposes of the organization of schools is chronological age. Thus schools,

from the nursery to the college, use the individual's age as a basic concept for classification when schools are built, classes organized, teachers employed, and curricula planned. Frequently such educational programmes are not outlined in detail, age by age, but are organized rather in terms of broad periods of development. Such planning recognizes the limitations of a strict age division, the approximate character of such classifications, and the need for consideration of characteristics of children over a broader band of time.

The development of knowledge concerning growth now demonstrates the crudity of the age criterion since the variation among children at a particular chronological age is far greater than the differences to be found between successive chronological ages. Age changes, correlated with maturity changes, have much significance for the methods of teaching, for inter-personal relationships, and for the social and emotional life of the child.

(8) Basic Human Needs and Curriculum

A curriculum is supposed to be need-centric or life — centric. In this context two aspects need special attention of the curriculum specialists. These are — self- actualization and developmental tasks.

Self-actualization refers to individual student's need for self-fulfillment in life by actualizing/achieving his/her own potential. A curriculum, therefore, should provide learning activities that allow students to identify themselves with those things they can do well. Learners are thus helped to find personal meaning in the learning experiences.

Developmental task refers to a task which arises in relation to a certain period in the life of an individual, success which leads to his/her happiness and to success in later task, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual and difficulties in subsequent task. This is implies a sequencing of learning materials and organizing them in such a manner that it will match to students progress in lower to higher order developmental tasks.

The story does not end here. Various aspects of psychology give ample data, ditections, strategies, assessment techniques, transactional modalities, etc in the matters of curriculum planning, development, organization of materials, implementation and evaluation, etc. Thus, psychology is a strong foundation of curriculum.

Block – 2

Unit – 4

Technological Foundations of curriculum

2.4.1: TECHNOLOGY AND CURRICULUM

Introduction

Technological foundation of curriculum development refers to what extent or in which way systematic thinking approach supports to the rational approach to curriculum planning, development implementation and evaluation. The most competent approach is said to be system approach. It begins by looking at how educational technology evolved from the _technology in education' model on which it _was originally based to the current _technology of education' model - a model that is founded on general systems theory developed by the engineers. It then introduces some of the basic concepts that underlie the systems approach, and presents a simple, highly practical model that can be used as the basis of virtually all course and curriculum development.

When system approach started to emerge as a recognized discipline during the 1940's and 1950's, educational technology was based on what is now described as the _technology in education' model. This model embraced all possible means by which information could be presented, and had two main aspects, namely hardware and software. The hardware side was concerned with the actual equipment - and the software side, was concerned with the various things that were used in conjunction with this equipment.

The _software phase', was used to the development of suitable learning materials, often based on the currently dominant theories of learning and perception.

Initially, this has borne distinctly engineering connotations, subsequently, it became much more associated with psychology and learning theory, as the main thrust changed to the development of suitable software for use with this equipment, for preparing edcationware and other curriculum materials and also assessment.

The principal role of educational technology is to help improve the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the teaching/learning process by implementing it through curriculum. Such an improvement can manifest itself in many ways, eg:

1. by increasing the quality of learning, or the degree of mastery;
2. by decreasing the time taken for learners to attain desired goals;

3. by increasing the efficiency of teachers in terms of numbers of learners taught, without reducing the quality of learning;
4. by reducing costs, without affecting quality;
5. by increasing the independence of learners, and the flexibility of educational provision.
6. by ensuring sequencing of contents and tasks, etc.

However, given agreed criteria by which an improvement in the efficiency or effectiveness of an educational system, situation or process can be gauged, decisions regarding the exact measures by which this can best be achieved can often be reached by applying a _technology of education' approach. Recommendations for improvement are thus based on a study of the particular system as a whole, together with knowledge of appropriate educational research findings and theories and models of learning. In many cases, ideas and practices drawn from such diverse fields as psychology, sociology, business management and systems analysis are combined with developments in more technical fields in curriculum. These aspects which are all part of the technology of education are sometimes referred to as the _intangible' aspects. In this case, the emphasis is on the techniques of teaching and learning rather than on audiovisual aids per se. Although the _intangible' aspects of educational technology are, by definition, less obvious than the _hardware' and _software' aspects, they are, nevertheless, just as important (indeed, most educational technologists and educational developers would say more important) when it comes to solving a particular problem.

A _technology of education' approach to educational technology thus involves a systematic, scientific approach to problems, together with the application of appropriate scientific research, both from _hard' sciences such as physics and electronics and from social sciences such as psychology and sociology. In applying a technology of education approach, changes are not made to a system for their own sake, but only for good educational reasons that are generally based on research findings.

Here it is important to note that the educational development or innovation has been systematically and scientifically planned and executed. It is this _systems approach' to educational technology which is at the heart of the technology of education.

The systems approach to educational technology

The systems approach to the design and analysis of curriculum and teaching/learning situations is the basis of the great majority of modern educational technology-related developments.

In general systems theory, a system is any collection of interrelated parts that together constitute a larger whole. These component parts, or elements of the system are intimately linked with one another, either directly or indirectly, and any change in one or more elements may affect the overall performance of the system, either beneficially or adversely. Similarly a curriculum is thought of system within a super system — community.

The processes of teaching and learning can be considered to be very complex systems indeed. The input to a given teaching/learning system consists of people, resources and information, and the output consists of people whose performance or ideas have improved in some desired way. Additionally, we are known that there are more than one models of curriculum. Barically in developing their models, the curriculum researchers have used systems approach in more convincing manner.

The various stages in the systems approach

Let us now take a more detailed look at the various elements of the basic system so that you may be able to understand system approach clearly. We are going to attend six aspects.

(a) Consider target population characteristics and topic area

The range of backgrounds, interests, knowledge, attitudes and skills of students coming on to the course will have a strong influence on course design. Pre-knowledge and any common misconceptions will have to be catered for in the design of the course (these may, for example, affect sequence, structure and support mechanisms).

The broad thrust of the course content will also have to be considered. Consideration will be given to the sort of people which the course is trying to develop. The subject area may have traditional aims and directions, but one may wish to consider the justification of these and/or preparation for future change.

(b) Estimate relevant existing skills and knowledge of learners

There may be minimum standards of entry to the course, but this will not always be so. For example, the increasing numbers of non-standard and mature student entrants to higher education will not necessarily have conventional paper qualifications, but may possess skills and qualities which will have an influence on course design. This may have implications for teaching methods, bridging courses, support systems etc. This is one form of diagnosis.

(c) Formulate objectives/learning outcomes

The roles of objectives and learning outcomes in a systems approach to instruction are to be known as prerequisite. The objectives and learning outcomes of the course or curriculum element will attempt to embrace the new skills, knowledge or attitudes which it is intended that the students will acquire. They may be formulated by the learners themselves, by employers, by teaching staff, by a validating, examining or professional body, or by some combination of these and other sources. This will indicate the curriculum goals.

(d) Select appropriate instructional methods

Having specified the objectives and learning outcomes (i.e, what we are trying to

achieve in the course), we should be in a better position to select appropriate teaching/learning methods through which these have a reasonable chance of being achieved. There are far more teaching methods available to choose from than most people realize. The process of attempting to match appropriate methods to given objectives and learning an outcome is normally done on the basis of a combination of research and experience. This will focus on curriculum transaction.

(e) Operate course or curriculum

The next element in the system is the actual implementation of the course.

This involves all the logistical arrangements associated with running the course, including overall structuring, pacing, implementing the chosen teaching strategies, using appropriate supportive media and materials, and ensuring that all aspects of the course run as smoothly as possible.

(f) Assess and evaluate

The combined result of the preceding stages is that students are involved in a learning experience that is planned to develop their knowledge, skills and attitudes, taking into account the individual needs and experience of the learners. Just how effective the pre-planning and subsequent operation has been, can be measured by studying student performance in continuing and/or post-course assessments. These assessments should be closely related to the specified course objectives and learning outcomes. Poorly-achieved objectives or learning outcomes should lead the course designers to examine the entire system in order to identify places where improvements might be made. This could involve a change in the objectives/learning outcomes, a revised assessment of students‘ pre-knowledge, a critical review of the instructional methods used, an examination of the course structure and organization, a consideration of the assessment methods used, or a combination of some or all of these. These deliberations, together with feedback on the course from staff, students, employers, etc, can be used in an evaluation of the entire concept of the course, which should, in turn, form the basis of an on-going cyclical course development process.

Using the systems approach in practice

The systems approach to course and curriculum design is no more than an attempt to use a process of logical development and on-going monitoring and evaluation in order to allow continuous evaluation of the course or curriculum to take place.

The approach is useful in mapping out the broad flow of factors to be considered and developed, diagrams.

In implementing the systems approach, it is important to appreciate that, while the decisions

taken at each stage are always affected by earlier decisions, they may themselves necessitate some of these earlier decisions being changed. It is also important to realize that the stages shown are not the only ones possible, and that, once taken, a decision can always be reconsidered. The approach should thus be dynamic and iterative, always allowing for second thoughts and the refinement of ideas.

We have learnt that curriculum foundations are the components that influence and control the content and organization of the curriculum (Zais, 1976, p. 101). They are based upon values one has developed pertaining to knowledge, society, learning, and the individual. Foundations tend to influence the philosophies of those who are developing the curriculum, and these philosophies are, in turn, reflected in the curriculum. Such components as (1) definition of the programme area, (2) rationale for the study of the program area, (3) content source, (4) content structure, (5) programme aim, and (6) programme goals are included in the curriculum foundations. As implied in the above discussion, curriculum foundations are used to establish a basis for further undertakings in curriculum development which are impossible without application of the curriculum workers.

Systematic human thinking mainly aided by system approach has stimulated greatly curriculum developers and teachers. These have been reflected in advancement of curriculum design since Tyler‘s efforts. Some common examples are : producing textbooks, teachers handbooks, lesson planning, programme learning materials - print as well as web-based, models of teaching, instructional designs, media selection and use, machine - aided learning, and assessment, etc.

As an example we may look at Madeline Hunter‘s (1994) behavioral model for in-service teacher education, known as ―design of effective lessons”.

1. *Anticipatory set*. The teacher gets students‘ attention and may also gather diagnostic data.
2. *Objective and Purpose*. The teacher states what students will learn and how it will be useful.
3. *Input*. The teacher provides opportunities for students to aquire new information necessary for students to achieve the objective. This requires prior task analysis of the learning objectives and also experiences.
4. *Modeling*. The teacher provides opportunities for students to see what they are supposed to learn.
5. *Checking for understanding*. The teacher ascertains that students understand what they are supposed to do and have the prerequisite skills for doing it.
6. *Guided practice*. Students practice their new knowledge under the direct supervision of the teacher. Mistakes are corrected.
7. *Independent practice*. After the teacher reasonably confident that the students will not makes serious errors, the teacher assigns independent practice exercises.

The above family of activities is supported by three principles form behavioral perspective - (a)

a curriculum consist of a set of ‗terminal objectives'; (b) the purpose of instruction is to change behavior, and (c) both content, thaught and method used are means to the terminal objectives. The three principles taken together constitute what Sockett (1976) terms the model of ―rational curriculum planning by behavioral objectives."

A cognitive approach to objectives focuses on internal thought processes and cognitive structures, rather than on performance. Therefore, the proponents of cognitive perspective believe that objectives should refer to changes in students that are not directly observable. These internal changes are described using devices like schematic diagrams depicting interrelationships of acquired concepts, called ―concept maps" or ―schematic networks"; flowcharts of cognitive processes and lists of cognitive operations or concepts.

From tha above discussion we may say, for example, of two medels - ―conceptual change approach ―to teaching and ―cognitive apprenticeship ―in which students participate in disciplined and productive work, just as youth once served as apprentices to master craftsman. This model (Resnick and Klopter, 1989) places three requirements on the curriculum and teaching :

1. ―Real" tasks like challenging and engaging problems to solve
2. ―Contextualized practice" rather exercises on component skills ―lifted out od context in which they are used"
3. Sufficient ―opportunity to observe other doing the kind of work they are expected to do".

The principle that will govern the techniques is — a cognitively based curriculum focuses on its attention on helping students to think more efficetively and to make sense of the real world. Curriculum development efforts are aimed at encouraging.

Block – 3

Curriculum Theories and Models

CONTENT STRUCTURE :

INTRODUCTION

While curriculum theory is usually esteemed by scholars in the field as an important component of curriculum studies, it seems to be held in low regard by most practitioners, who often dismiss it as completely unrelated to their day-to-day work. Melding theory and the reality of school curriculum together is an important step in the educational planning process. Not all curriculum theories translate smoothly into real-world practice. Educators have found it difficult to use theoretical approaches to make continual analyses, re-evaluations, and revisions of curriculum in light of such fields as informational technology and the sociology of knowledge. It is a daunting task to undertake the complexity of curriculum design given

race, class, economic conditions, and cultural diversity— not to mention the continual changes evolving with technological advances in education. It is therefore essential to develop a fundamental understanding of curriculum theory by providing the tools necessary when analyzing curriculum proposals, illuminating practice, and guiding reform With this end in view this Unit will provide you some tools, principles, ideas, and reflections about Curriculum Theories, Curriculum Models and importance of Systems Approach in curriculum work.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to :

1. get your acquaintance with the issues related to building up of a theory of curriculum;
2. discuss various theories of curriculum ;
3. develop insights into the criteria and merits of curriculum theories ;
4. analyze the necessity of the systems approach in the field of curriculum design and its classroom implementation ;
5. understand meaning and nature of curriculum models
6. distinguish between technical/scientific and non-technical/non-scientific curriculum models
7. discuss critically various technical/scientific as well as non-technical/ non-scientific curriculum models; and
8. Distinguish between curriculum theories and curriculum models

Block – 3

Unit – 1

Curriculum Theories

3.1.1: CURRICULUM THEORIES

Curriculum may be conceived of a set of tools that is used by practitioners in different ways. A component of the foundational knowledge that is important in curriculum work involves understanding those tools and their use. The tools, as they are through of and employed, acquire more specialized meaning modified by the particular work of the discipline. . In curriculum work, it is important to remember that tool use occurs in a curriculum frame of reference, a curriculum perspective. The tool set in curriculum work includes theory, models, and critiques. In the next sections we shall learn more about some important aspects of curriculum theories.

UNDERSTANDING MEANING OF CURRICULUM THEORY

Theory in curriculum work has a muddled history. Curriculum theory originated in the early 20th century primarily among progressive educational scholars as a formal way to present ideas and arguments to improve schools through curriculum. These presentations reflected some kind of systematic human thinking laden with some kinds of values and contexts of many educational practitioners and other individuals and, of course, they produced proposals in a written format that usually detailed the purposes for the curriculum and the contents to be included. From those early beginnings to the present, curriculum theory development has primarily been the province of university academics, particularly those who positioned in the USA. For instance ,among many others George Beauchamp‘s Curriculum Theory (1961) and Mauritz Johnson‘s article ―Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory‖ (1967) are two examples of writings about curriculum theory that try to give it form by definition and substance by describing its features and use. Subsequently, Decker Walker has provided a useful definition which may be presented here.

Magnet

A curriculum theory is a coherent and systematic body of ideas used to give meaning to curriculum phenomena and problems to guide people in deciding on appropriate, justifiable actions. (1990, p. 133) Besides, those important works and a definition, Hewitt (2006) maintains that ―there appears to have been little consistent effort to gradually bridge between the curriculum theorizing of the early educational progressives and the contemporary context, the exception being William Pinar‘s book (2004) What is Curriculum Theory? Part of the problem was finding other ways than definitions to describe curriculum theory that acknowledged the nature of its use as it developed.‖ Decker Walker noted that Curriculum theory is descriptive in form and it presents us with, a basic set of carefully expressed ideas intended to illuminate phenomena and problems or guide practice and he contends that curriculum theory is a set of propositions,

observations, facts, beliefs, policies, or procedures proposed or followed as a basis for curriculum action. He has also provided useful thinking about that by articulating a set of criteria for curriculum theory, which are Validity, Serviceability, Power and Morality. These criteria can be used by professionals to make judgments about theory and its use in practice. They bridge between the ―form‖ of theory, its format for presentation, to matters about what constitutes theory, its ―substance.‖ Theory Form and Substance It is not so much difficult to you to believe that curriculum matters are often cast in theoretical terms, and curriculum theory has its own particular nature. Definitely, much of the theoretical conversation has been about improving schooling (to be understood as the process of learning) and education rather than about theory as a tool to understand curriculum, schooling, and other educational matters. Hence, theory making in curriculum is descriptive, involving a particular format, or form, that addresses the manner of presentation within which is a discussion of the theory itself. The form of presentation in curriculum evolved as a written set of ideas (grounded upon rationale and context) openly advocated and scientifically defensible. The term scientific in this discussion implies three different aspects: (a) a carefully constructed scholarly and philosophical discourse, (b) presentation of a thoroughly articulated set of logically consistent ideas or propositions, and (c) supporting arguments that were vigorous and pragmatic. Considering the appropriateness of theory, form was essentially a pro forma judgment similar to knowing the parts that constitute a book and looking to see if they are all there. Similarly, when considering a second aspect of theory, the matter of substance, the object and intent of theory, other characteristics of curriculum theory apply. In a curriculum theory, the articulation of purpose should address the links between knowledge and practice. These links are introduced through some connections what are called the commonplaces in education: the student, or learner; the content, or what is to be learned; the context in which curriculum is offered; and the enabling agents present, such as the teacher. As one prime purpose for curriculum theory is to guide practice, a theory must address those commonplaces, says. Hewitt (2006) Second aspect in curriculum theorizing is to present a plan of curriculum, what the curriculum should look like, a reference to the proposed scope and sequence. This plan, according to Vallance (1999, p.58), is termed as building of conceptual map, an important issue in the systems of curriculum. The use of theory among early pioneers in curriculum suggested scope and sequence of content but lacked details. For instance. Franklin Bobbitt‘s The Curriculum (1918) represents ways of doing things, methods, a process approach to purposes for schools rather than the organization of a particular curriculum and its content. However, John Dewey, in his The Child and the Curriculum (1902), provided a vision of and details for determining and building a curriculum, something he later went on to implement in his famous Laboratory School at the University of Chicago. A third condition of theory is to have a logical explanation which involves a series of criteria to apply: (i). the theory must hold together; it must be logically consistent; (ii) the particulars must be factually correct in light of current knowledge‘ (iii) the theory must also be justified on the merits of the argument put forth for it; (iv) it should also back up or be linked to some aspect of actual practice; and (v) the theory should have a quality of probability; it appears to be practical and doable. A logical explanation plus the other qualities would suggest a rational fit of theory into practice, a hallmark of good theory in early curriculum thinking. However, Hewitt, comments, today, having logical fit

does not by itself satisfy the claim for a theory of curriculum.

A fourth consideration in curriculum theory building what Decker Walker (1990, pp. 138–139) calls the power of a theory, indicating the prospect that a theory allows prediction and control, permitting efficient and effective action with curriculum in given situations. Hence, the theory should have strength as well as potential to identify indicators of and suggest possible effects the theory might produce, allowing the deduction of possible consequences from acting on or implementing the theory.

Magnet

Proposing and/or formulating ―acurriculum theory is one thing; but substantiating it as theory is quite another. If it does not address the suggested framework elements—power, logical explanation, a plan, considering the commonplaces, and adherence to a formal style of presentation—then its acceptance as a theory is problematic. This is not to argue whether a proposed theory is good or bad but to establish some criteria for use in judging. Whether it should be considered as a curriculum theory in the first place. The difficulty is sorting out theory from proposals about making theory from those that are about theorizing itself, or from other tools like the critique. If a purported curriculum theory addresses most of or all the criteria, then it should be acceptable as a curriculum theory. Ultimately, the true test, the worth of a theory, will come in its use, whether it successfully guides practice, helps to solve problems, or leads to furthering new knowledge in curriculum work." (Hewitt, 2006, pp.135-6) Let Us Check Our Progress 1. Explain _form' and _substance' in context of curriculum theory. 2. What do you mean by _conceptual map' in curriculum theory perspective?

3.1.2: FUNCTIONS OF CURRICULUM THEORY

Most philosophers of science argue that theory has only three legitimate purposes: to describe, to explain, and to predict. A review of curricular theory, however, suggests that many of those theories serve two additional functions. Some theorists, like Michael Apple, seem most concerned with providing educators with a critical perspective on the society and its schools. While Apple and others who share his viewpoint are concerned with describing and explaining curricular phenomena, their stance is an openly critical one. Some theorists, such as Ralph Tyler, seem most concerned with guiding practice. While Tyler and others whom he has influenced attempt to describe and explain, the primary intent of their work is to help educators make more reasoned choices. Educational experiences are selected based on their likelihood of attaining the educational goals. After educational experiences are selected, they are organized in a logical manner, hoping to obtain the maximum cumulative effect. The curriculum is then improved and refined by a process of evaluation. According to Tyler, curriculum development should be viewed as a cycle: The quality and impact of curricula functions are to be monitored by carefully observing the outcomes, and data from these observations are to be used to fine-tune the curricula (Burks, 1998).

The extent to which a particular theory is able to discharge its functions effectively seems to be influenced by the complexity and maturity of that theory. Here Faix's (1964) classification of the stages of theory development seems useful.

1. Basic theory, Stage 1, is an early speculative stage, in which a theory has not yet been correlated with empirical data. Basic theory sets up untested hypotheses, involves few variables, and employs concepts that are not systematically refined and classified. Basic theory provides only descriptive explanations and directions for more meaningful theory.

2. Middle-range theory, Stage 2, includes hypotheses that have been empirically tested. An effort has been made to eliminate unlikely variables and relations by the use of models and testing. Experimental laws and generalizations result, and theory can be used to illuminate, predict, and control events. Goodlad's (1979) delineation of what he calls a –conceptual system" for guiding inquiry and practice is a good example of a middle-range theory.
3. General theory, Stage 3, is a general theoretical system or an inclusive conceptual scheme for explaining an entire universe of inquiry. General theory attempts to integrate the substantive knowledge produced from middle-range theories. Beauchamp's articulation of a comprehensive theory of curriculum might be seen as an attempt to present a general theory, although some would criticize the shallowness of its empirical foundation (Beauchamp, 1981).

In brief, we may encapsulate our ideas about curriculum theory and we may conclude that curriculum theorys functions may be classified as: knowledge making, policy making, planning, development, management, assessment, evaluation, research and school reform and implementation.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. List down main functions of curriculum theory.
2. Explain variation in functions of curriculum theories in various stages of development of curriculum theories.

3.1.3 : CURRICULUM THEORIES–NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

A curriculum may be defined as a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning. A curriculum

is a cultural artifact. Any curriculum owes its origin to human needs or interests that are expressed in a demand for educational change. These needs and interests may derive from any number of spheres including ideological, political, intellectual, economic, etc. Generally speaking, curriculum is not sucessfully developed and installed until political preserve is strong enough to overcome the forces of tradition, inertia and vested interest that work against change in educational institution.

Because educational institutions and structures are human creations embedded in societal contexts, the processes of curriculum change rarely conform to the models of rational and efficient techniques often found in curriculum text books. While the curriculum field is deeply divided over many issues, particularly those theoretical issues having to do with the nature of learning and schooling and the relationship between the schools and society.

For building up curriculum theories, we are to depend on various other relevant disciplines like, *History, Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology* and also the contemporary political thoughts and economic theories— .Let us now delve into the different discipline areas.

Goodson (1988) maintains that curriculum history has a role in contributing towards theory building. An assessment of the contibution of the study of curriculum history towards theory building may be approached from the following different angles :

(a) Historical studies can illuminate contemporary curricular reality focusing on the relevance of curricular theory. Historical studies may have specific contribution to make in testing out range, convenience and appropriateness of social theories and models related to the fields of curriculum.

(b) Historical studies can trace curriculum development and change over time. The recurrence of events may help in the formulation of explanatory frameworks specially these are dealing with the interrelation of structure and action.

(c) Historical studies can elucidate an understanding of the internal processes concerning curriculum definition, development and change.

Like History, *Philosophy* has the influences in building curriculum theories. Streumer (1990) draws a line between curriculum concepts and ideas of education and training. Whereas the latter are similar to what Orustein and Hunkins refer to as _Philosophies of education'. Curriculum concepts are defined as the rationale upon which curricula are built. In a curriculum concept, the first rough outline of an idea about any specific area of education, say adult education or training, is encoun- tered. These orientations guide decision making concerning objectives, centent and instructional strategy. Since theory can serve a heuristic function, the formulation of an explicit theory of any stage of education often considered as the first activity in the curriculum development process. The next step is recognition of a curriculum approach, which guides decisions regarding learning needs assessment, the specification of objectives, the formationof design specifications and the production, implementation and evaluation of curriculum materials. This sequence does not negate the possibility that curriculum designers only become aware of the role of theory in a particular stage of education at a later phase in the development process. This may result in an adjustment of the original perspective.

Apart from providing legitimacy for a curriculum by justifying the choices that are made dur- ing the development process, theories also serve an innovative function.

Philosophers of education have also been drawn into debates about who should determine the aims and content of school education. White (1990) has supported political control of the broad framework given liberal-democratic constraints on content. Principles underlying the roles of fami- lies and of government in determining what should be taught.

The shift of emphasis in philosophical work on the curriculum has mirrored wider changes of direction in academic philosophy. The fact that ethics rather than epistemology (the theory of knowl- edge) has in the 1990s, become the main discipline in this field reflects the efflorescence in norma- tive ethics since the 1970s. It has meant that these studying the aims of education have had a rich source of material available to them which did not previously exist. One aspect of this change in direction concerns the place of the development of reason in education. In Hirsts scheme (1974), as in Peters' (1966), the main weight was on different types of theoretical reasoning, with the growing prominence of aims that help students to make sense of their lives as autonomous, altruistic and politically sensitive persons, practical reason has become more central. This has brought with it continued demands for objectives in areas of theoretical reasoning but the priority now lies with the practical. In this, as in other ways, work on the philosophy of the curriculum has been influenced by the resurgence of Aristotelian ethics that occurred in 1980s.

In fact philosophers have helped to shape national, local and school policies, round the world, both by criticism of prevailing assumptions and theories and by normative recommendations. They have also contributed signally to work in all the major areas of the curriculum by writing books and articles on various items of education.

A common aim of theorists is to unify a variety of phenomena and consider them as a series of occurrences which may be susceptible to explanation through a theoretical common denominator. Theorists differ from each other, however, in terms of how they unify these phenomena : that is in the way they define, describe, explain, hypothesize and predict occurrences. This kind of difference represents a mathodological divergence. Curriculum theories can be examined from a *Substantive—structural point of view*. This approach leads to grouping theories according to their subject matter. Thus numerous conceptions of what a curriculum theory should consider are available. If the list given here is followed carefully, the readers may form an idea about the broad decisions of the theories of curriculum. This is of course is a synoptic description.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain _form' and _substance' in context of curriculum theory.
2. What do you mean by _conceptual map' in curriculum theory perspective?

Block – 3

Unit – 2

Classifications and other aspects of curriculum theories

3.2.1: CLASSIFYING CURRICULUM THEORIES

Over the past one hundred years numerous attempts have been made to classify curriculum theories in terms of maturity and complexity as well as attempts at categorization.

For example, a tripartite classification has been proposed by Pinar: In his formulation, all curriculum theorists can be classified as **traditionalists, conceptual empiricists**, or **reconceptualists**.

Traditionalists, according to Pinar, are those such as Ralph Tyler who are concerned with the most efficient means of transmitting a fixed body of knowledge in order to impart the cultural heritage and keep the existing society functioning (Pinar, 1978). For example, Hirsch (1995), in his What Your Fifth Grader Needs to Know: Fundamentals of Good Fifth-Grade Education, reveals his commitment to the concept of basic knowledge and cultural literacy in school curriculums and he founded the core knowledge series to promote excellence and fairness in early education.

Conceptual empiricists, most importantly Robert Gagne, are those who derive their research methodologies from the physical sciences in attempting to produce generalizations that will enable educators to control and predict what happens in schools.

The **reconceptualists** (a label Gagne applies to his own work) emphasize subjectivity, existential experience, and the art of interpretation in order to reveal the class conflict and the unequal power relationships existing in the larger society.

Presently, Glatthorn (2005) divide curriculum theories into the following four categories, based upon their domains of inquiry. **Structure-oriented theories** are concerned primarily with analyzing the components of the curriculum and their interrelationships. Structure-oriented theories tend to be descriptive and explanatory in intent. **Value-oriented theories** are concerned primarily with analyzing the values and assumptions of curriculum makers and their products. Value-oriented theories tend to be critical in nature. **Content-oriented theories** are concerned primarily with determining the content of the curriculum. Content-oriented theories tend to be prescriptive in nature. **Process-oriented theories** are concerned primarily with describing how curricula are developed or recommending how they should be developed. Some process-oriented theories are descriptive in nature; others are more prescriptive.

We shall study all the four theory systems in the following sub-sections of this Unit of the Module.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain the terms ‗traditionalists, conceptual empiricists, and reconeptualists, in classification scheme of curriculum theories.

Let us now make some specific views on curriculum theories. It is held that disciplinary knowledge is a major reference resource for theoretical enquiry into curriculum.

Beauchamp (1968) considered a curriculum first as a document describing content, aims and learning situation : second as a curriculum system which deals with the context of human action and curriculum decisions, and third, as an area of activity.

A curriculum theory, as defined by *Beauchawp* is a set of related statements that gives meaning to a school‘s curriculum by pointing out the relationships among its elements and by directing its development, its use and its evaluation.

Other authors have conceived curriculum theory as a set of norms and rules. The theory provides a rationale for reasoning about curricular decisions and learning (*Frey, 1971,* 1980, *Künzh,* 1975, 1983, *Reid,* 1978, *Robinson* 1971). These rules of interactions are to be elaborated at various levels and stages of the curriculum process. *Patterns of interaction constitute a core element of curriculum theory. Lundgren (1972)* defined curriculum theory in terms of a systematic link between curriculum and instruction, relevance of content in connection with methods of learning. *Instuctional process research is taken as an important resource for curriculum theory.*

John Dewey in his study The Child and the Curriculum (1902) formulated basic fundamental ideas for curriculum theory and fundamental resources like learner, society, organised subject matter.

Tyler (1971) referred to the importance of the following elements in building up a curriculum theory— educational purposes, learning experiences selection procedure, organisation of learning experiences, evaluation of learning experiences.

Schwab (1978) criticized exaggerated hopes invested in theory in general and differentiated between arts of the practical, arts of the quasi practical and the arts of the eclectic. Results of practical operations are decisions or proposals for actions. They do not meet the criteria of truth or validity whereas theory persues validity beyond a practical situation or application context.

Another approach to curriculum theory is a consideration of *Process and Product* (Hameyer, 1978) A ‗*Process*‘ refers to a series of interactions during instruction or curriculum process whereas ‗*product'* refers to

a document or medium. According to Frey (Hameyer et al. 1983), curriculum theory addresses issues related to product and process, including evaluation and legitimation.

Let us now understand classification scheme of curriculum theories one by one.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give your own comments on the basic nature of curriculum theories.

3.2.1: PROCESS ORIENTED THEORIES OF CURRICULUM

This conceptualise the curriculum as a process of reflective interaction and development. A curriculum process, in its broadest sense, is considered to be a multi-level cycle of mutual learning and sustained improvement which occurs stepwise and cooperatively. Process theories therefore accen- tuate the role of interaction as a constituent of curriculum design. A curriculum document is one particular but important aspect of the curriculum process which encompasses adaptive changes on individual, social and institutional levels. Adaptation in this context.

Another expert *Rassekh* (1987) mentioned that the process theory involves comprehending innovation. Communicating it, valuing its pedagogical quality and relevance alongwith adaptability to local conditions.

Hameyer (1978) explored the factors of social innovation development on the basis of 42 school experiments in Austria, Suitzerland and the Federal Republic of Germany focussing on interviews from 42 school improvement projects. A follow up study investigated the process of lasting curricu- lum renewal in elementary science teaching. This comparative study was called *IMPACT* __Imple- menting Activity based learning in Elementary Science teaching.‘‘

Some of the core questions in this domain of curriculum theorizing are as follows : How can conditions for creating and improving learning situations be identified ?

Which configuration of context characteristics can be used or restructured so that curriculum improvements will be more likely to occur ?

Under what circumstances are adaptation and communicative requirements favoured ?

By what patterns of action do people interact, communicate, comprehend, learn, come to an understanding and decide within a curriculum system ?

Which standard of deliberative understanding and interaction are appropriate in new of a theory Social action and change ?

All these questions that have been mentioned here amply testify the relevance and significance of the factors contributing to the changes in processes and assumptions in respect of building satis- factory theory

of curriculum. However, we will have to consider other theories that have been re- ferred to by other curriculum experts.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the main issues of process-oriented curriculum theories.
2. What do you mean by _curriculum process'?

3.2.2 : STRUCTURE ORIENTED CURRICULUM THEORIES

Such curriculum theories deal with two basic issues :

(a) how to select and justify worthwhile educational knowledge and

(b) how to organise educational knowledge within the framework of a curriculum.

A core task of a structural curriculum theory is to identify and transfrom knowledge that is considered educationally meaningful into a subject matter proposal or into learning activities aspart of the curriculum. One group of such theorists draws upon principles of education from the field of educational philosophy, anthropological sciences, sociology and history of education. The majority of such approaches differencitiate among three levels of competency to be acquired—

(a) subject and interdisciplinary knowledge

(b) human /social learning demands

(c) development of personality.

Such principles serve as a guide for selection of educational aims, contents and learning activities to be persued.

Some educational philosophers structure the body of educational knowledge in accordance with the functions of the school (viz economic technical functions, religious functions and socio-political functions)

Another group of structural theorists conceptualises life situations, areas of human activities and a praxeology of human actions. This group is very optimistic in meeting the challenges of life and living in the modern world through a rational curriculum building theory. Their ideas have influenced the later concepts of *life - long education* or *recurrent education.*

Robinsonha's situational theory has also influenced the building kindergarten and pre-school edu curriculum in Germany. This situation oriented approach was tried out in case of Mathematics

teaching, Geography teaching etc. having the influences on the ability to perform real life tasks.

Probably the best known sub-group of curriculum theory deals with an idea called the ‗structures of disciplines''. ‗Some of them represent scientific knowledge as realms of meaning.'' Bruner (1960) restructured scientific knowledge for educational purposes by means of unifying ideas and basic concept. *Conceptual, logical and methodological features of knowledge* are taken as being the *core of curriculum theory.*

Epistemological curriculum theory differentiates four kinds of knowledge use : replicative, asso- ciative, applicative and interpretative. Broudy (1976) specified that associative use of knowledge refers to retreval of images, concepts, and words that for some reason or cause seem from experi- ence to be relevant to the issue at hand. The phenomenon known as richness of experience is largely a function of the scope of the conceptual store within the imagination and its availability.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What is structure of discipline?
2. What is the main focus of structure-oriented curriculum theories?

3.2.3 : VALUE-ORIENTED THEORIES

Value-oriented curriculum theorists seem to be primarily engaged in what might be termed ―educational consciousness-raising," attempting to sensitize educators to the values issues that lie at the hearts of both the hidden and the stated curricula. Their intent is primarily a critical one; thus they sometimes have been identified as ―critical theorists." Since many have argued the need for reconceptualizing the field of curriculum, they often are labeled as reconceptualists.

The value-oriented theorists tend to examine the following issues:

1. In what ways do the schools replicate the power differentials in the larger society?
2. What is the nature of a truly liberated individual, and how does schooling inhibit such liberation?
3. How do schools consciously or unwittingly mold children and youth to fit into societal roles predetermined by race and class?

4. As curriculum leaders determine what constitutes legitimate knowledge, how do such decisions reflect their class biases and serve to inhibit the full development of children and youth?

5. In what ways does the schools' treatment of controversial issues tend to minimize and conceal the conflicts endemic to the society?

In examining these issues, most value-oriented theorists draw eclectically from several inquiry methodologies, such as psychoanalysis, philosophical inquiry, historical analysis, and political theory.

The Major Value-Oriented Theorists**:**

Since many critical theorists seem to focus on the person, and many others on the sociopolitical milieu, it seems appropriate to select for examination one person-oriented theorist (James Macdonald) and one milieu-oriented theorist (Michael Apple).

James Macdonald

Basic to all his work is his view of the human condition. Central to that human condition is a search for transcendence, the struggle of the individual to actualize the whole self. Much influenced by the writings of Carl Jung, Macdonald (1974) used almost mystical metaphors in —A Transcendental Developmental Ideology of Education" to set this journey toward transcendence as the primary concern of all humans. Although Macdonald has been criticized for being too mystical and vague, the cumulative effect of his work has been to challenge curriculum leaders to rethink their basic assumptions and to reconceptualize their fie*ld.*

Michael Apple

Michael Apple is a critical theorist who seems to be concerned primarily with the relationship between the society and the school. Central to Apple's critique of the society and its schools is his use of the concept of **hegemony.**

One crucial way in which this cultural hegemony influences educators is in their perception of science. In this telling critique of what might be termed —educational pseudoscientism," Apple (1975) notes that almost all educators rely upon a narrow and strict view of science, one that values only rationality and empirical data in the service of predictability and control and that ignores the close relationship between science and art, science and myth.

3.2.4 : CONTENT-ORIENTED THEORIES OF CURRICULUM

Content-oriented theorists are concerned primarily with specifying the major sources that should influence the selection and organization of the curriculum content. For the most part, these theories can be classified in terms of the theorists' views as to which source should predominate : *child- centered theories, knowledge-centered theories,* or *society-centered theories*.

Child-Centered Curricula :

Those who espouse child-centered curricula assert that the child is the beginning point, the determiner, and the shaper of the curriculum. Although the developing child will at some point acquire knowledge of subject matter, the disciplines are seen as only one type of learning. While the child develops in and is influenced by a social environment, the needs of the society are not considered paramount; that society will best be served by the kind of mature and autonomous individual that child-centered curricula attempt to develop. Truly, Francis Parker expressed it in 1894, —The centre of all movement in education is the child."

During the past three decades, three major child-centered curriculum movements have occurred which are termed as: affective education, open education, and developmental education.

Knowledge-Centered Curricula :

Those curriculum theorists who advocate a knowledge-centered approach argue that the disciplines or bodies of knowledge should be the primary determiners of what is taught. While they acknowledge that child-development research should affect decisions about placement, they give greater attention to the structure of the disciplines or the nature of knowledge, even in matters of sequence. While they admit that the child lives and grows in a social world, they see the society as playing only a very minor role in developing curricula. In general, curricula based upon a knowledge- centered approach might be divided into two groups:

(a) —structures of- the-disciplines" curricula and

(b) —ways-of-knowing" curricula.

(a) Structures of the Disciplines

Two major attempts have been made to reform the curriculum so that it places greater emphasis upon the subjects. During the period from 1890 to 1910, the concern of curriculum leaders was to standardize the school curriculum and to bring it into closer alignment with college requirements. During the period from 1958 to 1970, the curriculum-reform movement emphasized the updating of curriculum content by emphasizing the structures of the disciplines.

(b) Ways of Knowing

This approach to the curriculum is of rather recent origin It. as Eisner (1985) notes, grows out of several emerging research lines: cognitive science, human creativity, brain functioning, and conceptions of intelligence and knowledge. In fact it is a mixed approach. Vallance (1985) sees this interest in ways of knowing as producing a radically different ―curriculm map" is a quite distinct from the traditional disciplines. This approach gives emphasis upon knowledge and knowing which seem to warrant placing it in the broader category of knowledge-centered approaches. Briefly, this view argues that there are multiple ways of knowing, not just one or two. Further, these multiple ways of knowing should be given greater attention in the school's curriculum.

Society-Centered Curricula :

Several curriculum theorists agree that the social order should be the starting point and the primary determiner of the curriculum. They differ sharply among themselves, however, about the stance the schools should take toward the existing social order; accordingly, they can best be understood by categorizing them on the basis of this factor: (a) the conformists, (b) the reformers, (c) the futurists, and (d) the radicals.

(a) The Conformists

The conformists assume that the existing order is a good one—the best of all possible worlds. They believe that while problems obviously exist in that social order, those problems are of lesser consequence and can be handled by mature adults. Accordingly, the essential task of the curriculum is to indoctrinate the young: help them understand the history of this society, teach them to value it, and educate them to function successfully in it. Curriculum workers with a conformist intent begin curriculum development by identifying the needs of the existing society and its institutions; curriculum objectives are derived from those needs. The teacher is usually expected to serve as an advocate for the free-enterprise system, helping students understands why it is so much better than competing systems. Curricula with a conformist thrust have been advocated in almost every period of curriculum history.

(b) The Reformers

The reformers see the society as essentially sound in its democratic structure, but want to affect major reforms in the social order. The major vehicle is the curriculum. Therefore, courses should be developed that will sensitize students to emerging social issues and give students the intellectual tools they need to solve social problems. Thus, curriculum theorists should begin the task of curriculum development by identifying social problems like racism, sexism, and environmental pollution and these contents become the center of classroom activity. The teacher is expected to play an active role in

identifying the problems, in ―raising the consciousness" of the young, and in helping students take actions to bring about the needed reforms.

The reformers seem most vocal during times of social unrest. During the 1930s, for example, Counts (1932) challenged the schools to take a more active role in achieving his vision of a more liberal society.

(c) The Futurists

Rather than being attuned to the present problems of the society, futurists look to the coming age. They analyze present developments, extrapolate from available data, and posit alternative scenarios. They highlight the choices people have in shaping this coming age and encourage the schools to give students the tools to create a better future for them. Putting in other words, they might be described as reformers intent on solving the problems of the year, say .2020 or 2030. In their view, the school curricula should have such a futurist orientation, focusing on the developments likely to occur and involving students in thinking about the choices they have and the consequences of the choices they make. Many factors will promote this change. The most important are :

- New management models from business will be applied to the educational system.
- Parents and students will promote change in the system.
- Private companies will play a larger role in the education process.
- Technology will influence the education landscape.

(d) The Radicals

Those who regard the society as critically flawed advocate curricula that would expose those flaws and empower the young to effect radical changes. Typically, reasoning from a neo-Marxist perspective, they believe the problems of the age are only symptoms of the pervasive structural inequities inherent in a technological capitalistic system. As a consequence, they want to reach the masses by revolutionizing education by ―deschooling" the educational process.

One of the leading exponents of such an approach is Paul Freire (1970), the Brazilian educator whose Pedagogy of the Oppressed made a significant impact on radical educators in this country. Freire views, the goal of education is conscientization, a process of enlightening the masses about the inequities inherent in their sociocultural reality and giving them the tools to make radical changes in that social order that restricts their freedom. He makes They learn to read in order to become aware of the dehumanizing aspects of their lives, but they are helped to understand that learning to read will not guarantee them the jobs they need.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State basic issues in content oriented curriculum theories.
2. Distinguish between child-centered and knowledge centered curriculum theories.

3.2.5 : THEORIES OF CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation theories address the conditions under which curriculum change will be more likely to happen, to be differentiated in view of the teacher and be sustained at both the individual and the institutional levels. A guiding question here is : *Who works* with a new curriculum in *what way* so that patterns of instruction and learning are improved ? It is evident that such inquiries are closely interconnected with evaluation theory and methods to certify impeding and supporting factors of curriculum renewal. Fullan (1982) proposed incorporating the issue of continuation into theory- building.

3.2.6 : CORE ISSUES IN CURRICULUM THEORY

It is claimed that a curriculum theory with predictive power is virtually nonexistent. Walker (1976) formulated his view on curriculum research in terms of examining what is needed. Curriculum Research, according to Walker must ‗‗create new curricular possibilities if it and public education are to survive. Comprehension is a good first step toward improvement.'' But it is not enough. With these remarks in mind, curriculum theory and its methodological quality have not made substantial progress in the 1980s and 1990s. Most theories did not integrate the theroretical knowledge so far available, nor did they integrate insights from related academic fields. Yet there has been at least some significant advancement in a particular area.

Process oriented Curriculum theories have been further elaborated and applied in empirical studies. They have enriched the conceptual understanding of conditions under which curriculum renewal is more likely to be sustained in institutional settings overtime spans longer than a year. Additionally, there is a school of Curriculum Theorising that stresses the need to improve understanding of the conditions of mutual learning among adults involved in curriculum innovation efforts– be they teachers, administrators, principals, policy makers, parents or others.

Core issues of curriculum construction and theory emerged from empirical research as well as from conceptualizing theories, from curriculum development and from applying hermeneutic methods. Conceptual and analytical contributions emerged from the analysis of the students, preconceptions and thoughts in natural science courses as well as from investigating the curriculum process in quality of learning settings in vocational training. In all these approaches, combined forms of empirical, histographical, reflective and conceptual methods have been applied.

The discussions, we have held so far, would help us in drawing a conclusion regarding the nature and significance of the curriculum theories.

There is no denying the fact that every theory has its basis on the conceptual framework. The soundness of any theory would be justified if it has a well thought out conceptual foundation. Then comes the question of formulation of the aims and objectives of building a curriculum. Here of course we would have to consider many sources from which aims and objectives are to be drawn out. We must take into our consideration that a rationally conceived curriculum must be the resultant of the two forces—the needs of the children for whom the curriculum has to be transacted and the require- ments of the society which the curriculum has to serve. In this regard various branches of studies and emerging issues would have to be given due considerations. A theory then will have to be built up keeping in mind its implementation or practicability in the operative course. In case of a curriculum, it has to be implemented satisfactorily. Obviously, there is the question of actual transaction of it with the help of adoption of proper methodology and techniques of facile instruction. In this case also lot of advancements have taken place during the last century. All these have made the efforts of the cur- riculum builders mere difficult. The improved and scientific techniques of instructions have made the implementation part of curriculum more technology oriented, stratified and effective process ridden. All these demand that theories would have to be tenable and justified if only it can stand the test of the multivarious ramifications of methodological dimensions. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that a theory would be quite tenable and justitfied, fruitful and satistactory only when it would have its efficacious implementation with all the technicalities being followed with meticulous care.

3.2.7 : SYSTEMS APPROACH INCURRICULUM

A system is an entity which consists of interrelated and interdependent components and works towards the attainment of certain functions.

If we analyse the definition given here, we get *certain characteristics* of a system. These are—

1. A system has certain functions to perform.
2. A system has many parts/components each of these may have a different function to perform but all of these together contribute to the function or functions of the system.
3. The component parts of a system are interrelated and interdependent.

We all know that there are various systems working in our human body like– Digestive system Circulatory system Respiratory system Excretory system, etc, etc.

These systems have various subsystems too. Various organs of our body make the whole system work through such sub-systems. Likewise, in our society there are various sub-systems which help the social system work efficiently.

So a system does not work in vacuum or in isolation.

We, in our field, are more concerned with the Education system (though it is a sub-system of the social system). This system has various aspects and components viz students, teachers, curriculum/syllabus, teaching methods, media, school cnvironment, classroom conditions, evaluation techniques and procedures.

In the present day education, this approach i.e. systems approach has become somewhat very popular.

Every system has to perform certain specific functions aiming at achieving specified goals/ objectives. The systems approach helps both the teacher and the students to achieve terminal objectives in the most effective way. There is a flow of information from the environment to the system. It is upto the system to accept or reject this information and to make appropriate changes in itself if necessary.

There are three main characteristies of a system. They are:

a) A system has certain functions to perform.

b) A system has many components each of these may have a different function to perform but all of these together contribute to the functions of the system .

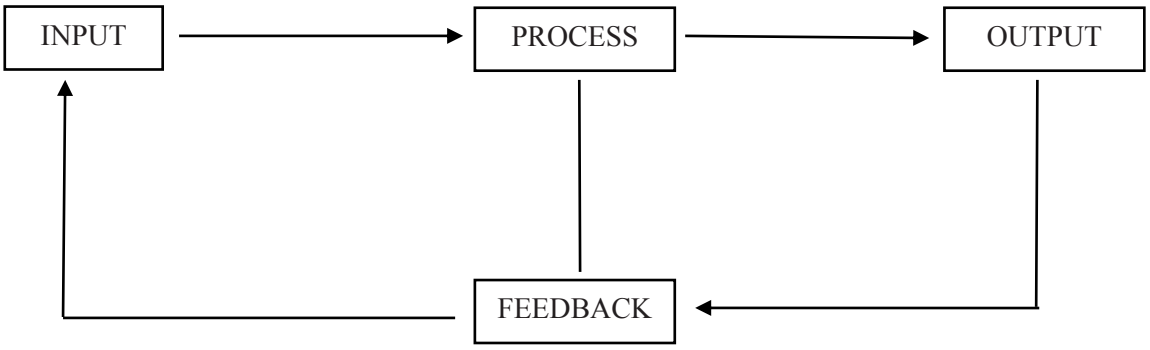
c) The components of a system are interrelated and interdependent.

We have already referred to the Human body with various systems and the coordinating activities of each subsystem to make the original system work effectively and without any difficulty.

INPUT-PROCESS-OUTPUT MODEL OF A SYSTEM

The system that we are concerned with includes various aspects and parts of the educational process viz students, teachers, curriculum, syllabus, teaching methods and media, classroom environment or school environment and finally evaluation procedures. The systems approach helps both the teacher and the students to achieve terminal objectives in the most effective manner.

When a system works with specific functions it goes towards the achievement of a goal. When the task is successfully done to get the desired results this is termed as output. To get the expected output, input has to put in adequately and then the process has to be implemented adequately, satisfactority and fruitfully to get the expected output.



FEEDBACK BASED MODEL OF A SYSTEM

In case of the achievement of the terminal objective (output) if there lies any gap that has to be identified readily and must be made known to the concerned people to give a renewed thought over the entire cycle.

In educational system, the planned input (learning material) and process (learning strategies) are organised to cater to the needs of the students. The learning material is sequenced in such a way that it leads the students to achieve the disired standard of output ic the terminal performance. Monitoring the system through feedback help improve, revise and evaluate each component of the system.

The input - Process - output model of a system also opens up another dimension of the systems approach. It is a way of looking at things, processes or problems. The systems approach helps solve the problems methodically, and systematically. So it is now considered that in case of solving the educational problems with more effectiveness and efficiency systems approach can be used with benefit. Systems approach can also be looked upon as a mode of thinking that emphasizes problem identification and resolution of the problems arising. It makes the individual ready to determine the nature of the problem precisely, consider the available alternatives and to decide upon the most effective alternative (keeping in view the performance criteria) to solve the problem quite squarely and finally achieve the goal.

Systems approach can be basically considered as a process of problem solving ; so it can be applied to many areas in the field of education e.g.. instruction, management of educational institutions curriculum transaction, research and the like. We now take the opportunity of examining the efficacy of this *particular approach in the field of instruction.*

Systems approach is an approach of solving many obnoxious problems that creep up in the field of education very often, in an efficient and scientific manner. The systems approach has another advantage of employing cost-effective methods as an whenever needed very badly. This approach again provides a framework of all the factors that influence the solution of educational problem or the achievement of educational objectives. In the teaching-learning process, this approach takes into

consideration all available learning resources content, learning experience, methods and media to realise the set of learning objectives formulated. Thus the systems approach focuses on the student's performances.

Certain stages are followed for using this approach in the instruction system.

(a) Specifying the output

(b) Preparation of the evaluation procedures

(c) Identifying input specification

(d) Designing the process alternatives

(e) Selection of the best alternatives

(f) Planning the learning experiences

(g) Tryout

(h) Revision and implementation of the system.

In the process of *specifying the output,* we can take the implementation of the new Curriculum of Grade XI the broad and specific objectives of the curriculum become the stated expected output. These may have been expressed in terms of Domainwise development like Cognitive Affective and Psycho-motor

After the fixation of the domainwise objectives, the entry behavioural components of the learners will have to be taken into account. The specific instructional objectives are to be stated in terms of observable and measurable terminal behaviours. Actually speaking these terminal behaviours are considered to be the specified output after going through the whole instructional system. These output specifications help design the instructional system of course implementation of Grade XI.

Then the whole process of system development is geared up to achieve these objectives. In fact specification of output literary mean *Specification of the expected terminal behaviours.*

If all the steps mentioned earlier, can be followed with meticulous care, the systems approach would prove to be a very useful approach of doing good to the learners and it would also bring an overall improvement in the system of instruction.

Apart from this, the entry behaviour of the learners will also to be specified in clear terms. That is the pre-requisite knowledge has to be specified alongwith the necessary skills and attitudes.

After this the process designers (obviously here the teachers, instructor and other personnel) will have to be very particular in respect of choosing the variety of teaching-learning methods. All their effects should be directed towards the achievement of the expected outcome. The basic design if you keep in mind

it would not be very difficult for the readers to get them acquainted with the application of the systems approach in the field of curriculum development.

In case of its application to the field of curriculum, some more time would have to be allowed for testing the efficacy of this design or this approach since the results of the implementation of the curriculum is a longdrawn process.

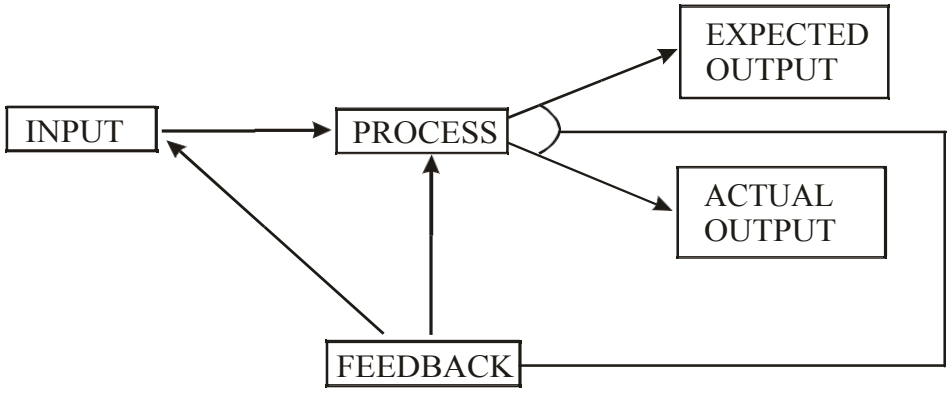
In regard to the judgement of the effectiveness of the systems approach several other proce- dures are to be followed keeping in view the determinants of the curriculum.

The planning and organisation of learning experiences with reference to instructional objectives should be considered as essential in the curriculum process. These learning experiences for the Greade XI as mentioned should also be in relation to the principles of validity, comprehensiveness, continuity, multiple learning, relevance and learners participation. The learning experiences should be interesting so that they may arouse curiosity and create interest in the learners. Appropriateness of media, keeping in view the suitability of age level, grade level, maturity level and to the unit taught.

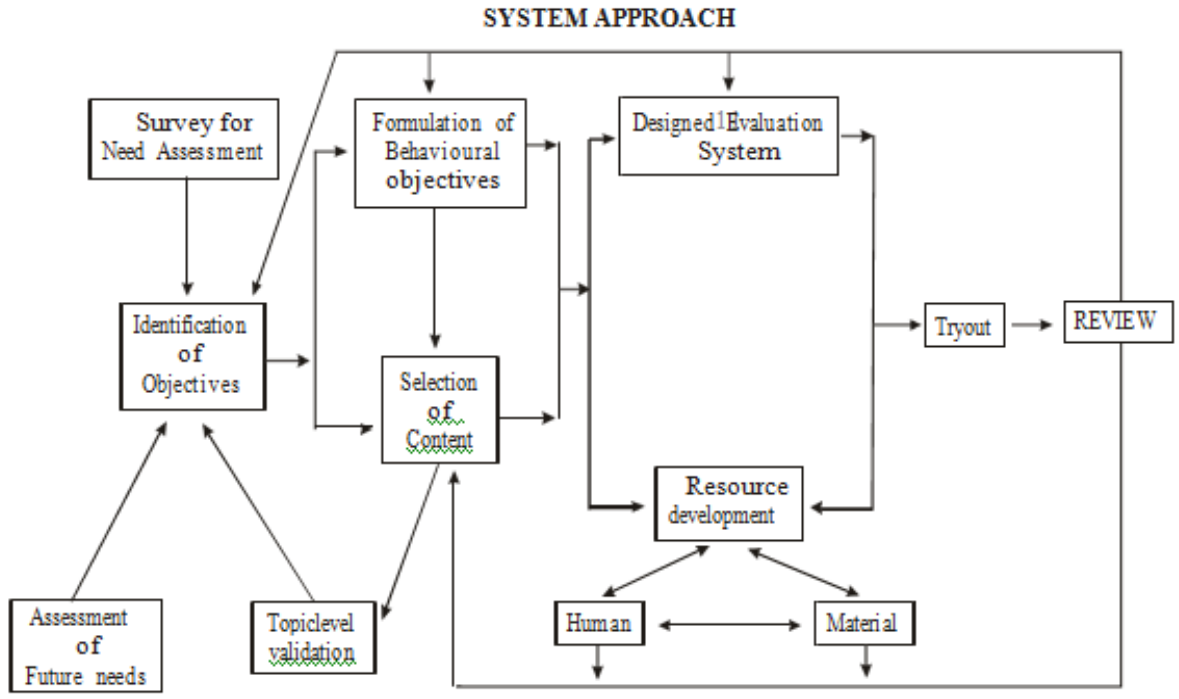
The process designers should also be very careful in matters of selecting the best alternative for the efficient deployment of their efforts. The following criteria may be considered :

(a) Nature of the subject taught
(b) Availabity of resources
(c) Size of the class
(d) Human Resources (Potentialities of the Learners)

In fact there is a very important influence of system of feedback in this approach. Let us take this diagram for consideration.



There may be a deviation from the expected output to the actual output. The planner designer will have to give serious thought over this disparity. It may be in respect of quantity and also in the quality. The review should be done with much care. The future success of the entire system would depend on this therefore the whole system has to be examined.



The readers are advised to go through this diagram carefully. It would help them understand the underly- ing concepts of systems approach.

The teacher's role can be visualised as a systemist or a system designer and not just as an _input'. It is then quite evident that the success of the entire systems approach does not merely depend on the organisation but on the wholistic systematic organisation of it.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give two reasons explaining importance of system approach in curriculum development.

Block – 3

Unit - 3

CURRICULUM MODELS

In this Section we are going to learn and also to understand various curriculum models which are effective tools for curriculum planning and design

3.3.1: WHAT IS A CURRICULUM MODEL?

The term _Model' in general refers to representations of objects, settings, or processes. Model building is an important mind (intellectual) works in disciplines because models function as forms of knowledge that represent what something should be like. When individuals are confronted into a complex relations (both structural and /or functional) they subsume the characteristics of something into a pattern and attempt to build a model .Models can take many forms: a physical object, a generic formula for application, or a set of criteria for prediction. Model airplanes, cars, etc and such come to mind in referring to simple physical objects. Besides the physical objects, we can also build models of some conceptual entities. You have already been acquainted with and also understood model of intellect (J.P.Guilford) in comprehending nature of intelligence Similarly, models in —cur riculum'' may be there in understanding curriculum and they vary from detail about the scope and sequence of what is to be taught to those that lead you through a process for thinking about a curricu- lum" (Hewitt, 2006, p.135).. Curriculum models have particular sets of general features. In fact curriculum models may be several kinds.

Curriculum models are usually descriptive, explaining a process, or prescriptive, a set of proce- dures or a sequence of steps about how to do something. Secondly, models in curriculum are also practical; they represent specifics of practice and arise from and are proved by use. For instance, the Tyler Rationale is an example.

Thirdly, curriculum models can be replicated; they can be transported to and used in different settings or under different circumstances.

Fourthly, curriculum models can also serve constructive rather than predictive uses because the curriculum is a construction resulting from development activities based on a particular model, but its use or impact can't be predicted based on that model.

. A fifth quality, the model's utility, represents a confluence of a model's practicality, replica- tion, and constructive and descriptive character. Models in curriculum work serve a certain purpose; they are useful in creating curriculum.

Finally and sixthly, curriculum models are not exclusive in their use. Although each separate model

may describe a process or procedure, they are often interchangeable, depending on how they relate to or fit the qualities of the contemplated curriculum action. The models of Walker and Freire, for examples , describe the elements of a deliberation process, i.e., they do not follow a road map or set of steps (algorithm) rather, the models of Ralph Tyler and Hilda Taba present a set of procedures, a series of steps for doing curriculum work. Within Walker's or Freire's processes, it would seem feasible to insert or use a set of procedures, Tyler's or Taba's, for instance, without compromising the intent of the model as long as the decision to use the set of procedures emerged within the deliberative process. Hence, curriculum models are not exclusive.

If we were to survey the curriculum literature, we would find that curriculum models accommo- date different purposes and uses. There are some models for thinking about curriculum matters in a preliminary way, conceptualizing something, like —getting the picture" before formulating plans for action. Some others are guides us for doing particular types of curriculum work, such as reaching a consensus on the goals or purposes a curriculum should serve. There are also curriculum models for solving particular curriculum tasks, like curriculum development. A few serve as a specific plan of curriculum, for example, a model K–12 science curriculum. Further, some others combine aspects of several models and serve multiple curriculum purposes.

Magnet

In general, we note that **curriculum models** have the following **common characteristics** : they are descriptive, they apply to specific aspects of curricular practice, they are utilitarian, they address most of the commonplaces, they arise from practice, and they are proven in use.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain the term _curriculum model'.
2. State the importance of curriculum models in curriculum planning.

Unit - 4

CLASSIFYING CURRICULUM MODELS

Most models can be classified as either Technical/Scientific or non-Technical/Non-Scientific models.

The educators who believe in the subject matter design usually advocate for the technical/ scientific approach to curriculum design. Those who favour a learner- centred design frequently advocate for the non-technical/non-scientific approach.

The technical/scientific model enables us to understand curriculum from macro or broad view and to see it as a complex unity of parts organised to serve a common function viz the education of individuals. Advocates of Technical/scientific models believe that it is possible to systematically outline the procedures that will facilitate the creation of curricula. According to Posner (1995) cur- riculum decisions are considered technical if they appear to be value-free, appropriate for an expert with specialised knowledge to make an objective manner. He adds ‗‗In reality no curriculum design can be completely technical, completely value-free, since it inevitably concerns an intervention in people‘s lives.‘‘

Some of the popular technical/scientific curriculum models are :

1. The Tyler Model
2. The Taba Model
3. The Saylor and Alexander Model
4. The Miller and Seller Model.

3.4.1: TECHNICAL/SCIENTIFIC MODELS OF CURRICULUM

Taba Model :

Hida Taba, a devoted worker in the field of curriculum studies, maintains that the users of the curriculum should design the curriculum for its effective implementation. She opined that the teachers should create teaching learning materials for their learners by adopting an inductive approach starting with specifics and building up general design as opposed to the traditional deductive approach. She suggested the following seven steps in her grass-root model of curriculum development.

The steps are—

(i) Diagnosis of needs

(ii) Formulation of objectives

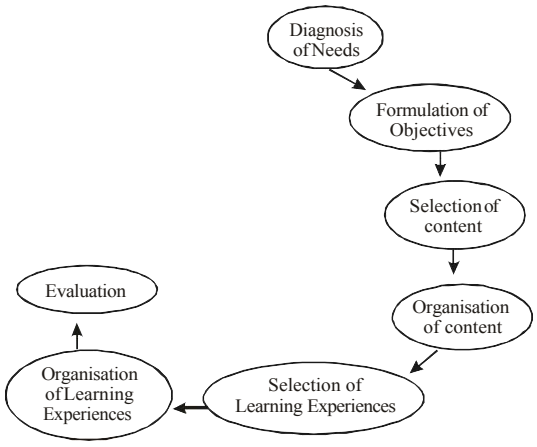
(iii) Selection of contents

(iv) Organisation of content

(v) Selection of learning experiences

(vi) Organisation of learning experiences

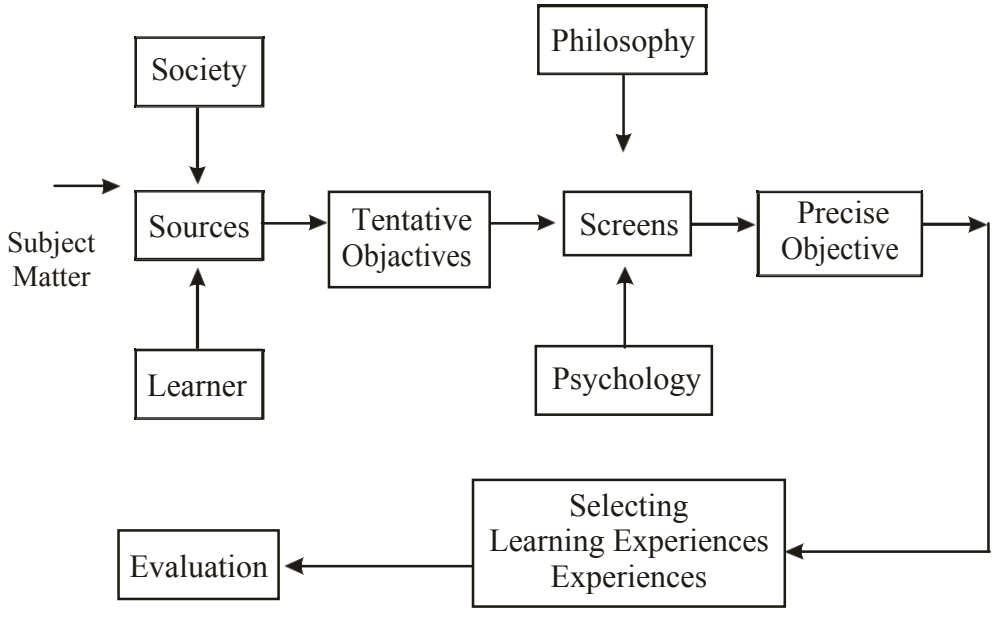
(vii) Evaluation.



Tyler's Model :

This model has many merits. It has also been criticized by many curriculum experts for its concept of participatory democracy and of highly technical nature. It gives too much emphasis on teacher expertise and whole hearted devotion to the activities to make the curriculum an effective one.

Tyler's Curriculum Development Model



In Tyler‘s model, emphasis is given on gathering information from the different sources—Society, Learners and Subject matter. Tentative objectives are identified and then objectives are stated in precise forms. learning experiences are to be selected to achieve these objectives. Evaluation helps to provide feedback to measure the extent to which the objectives have been attained.

Tyler has four basic components of curriculum. A reference to these principles is furnished here. He mentioned that those involved in curriculum inquiry must try to define the :

(a) Purposes of the school

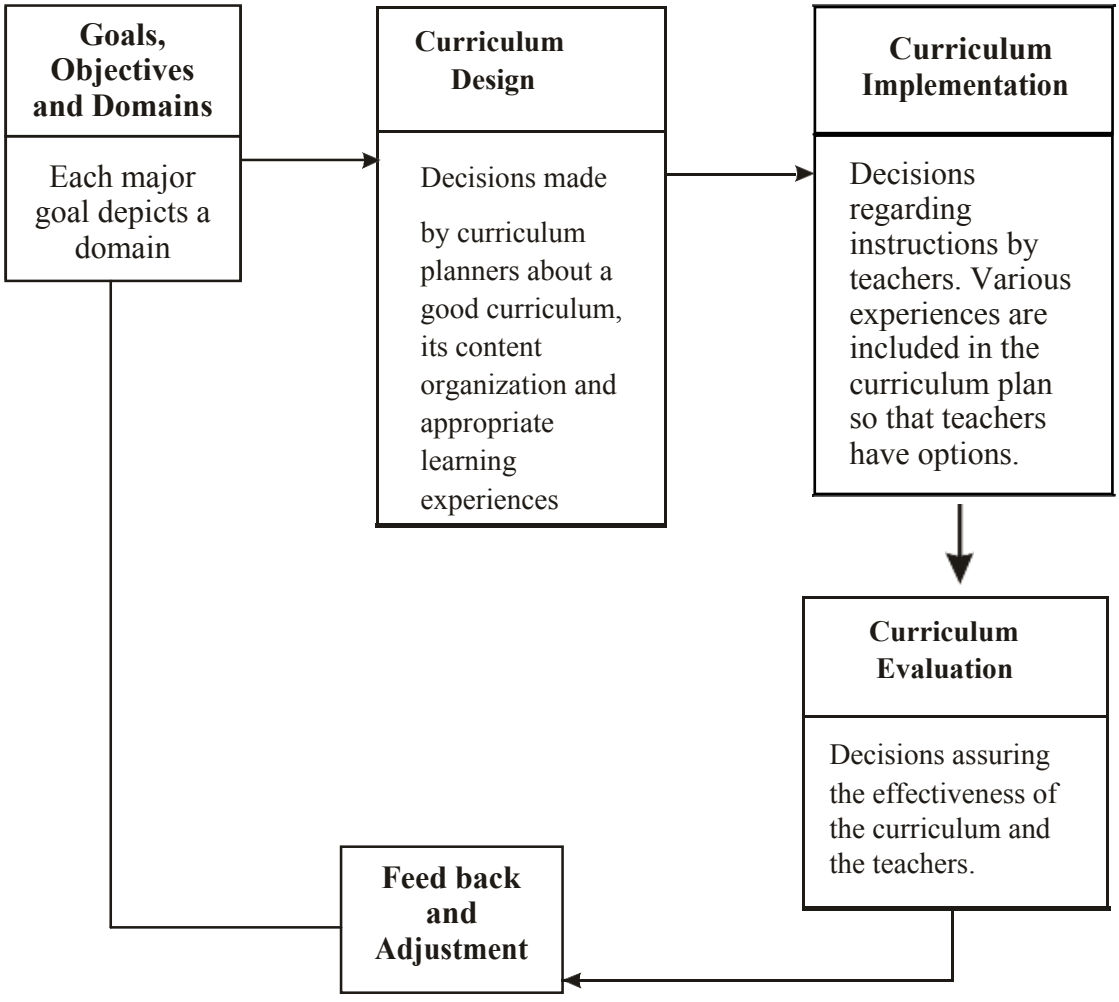
(b) Educational experiences related to these purposes

(c) Organisation of these experiences

(d) Evaluation in terms of attainment of these purposes.

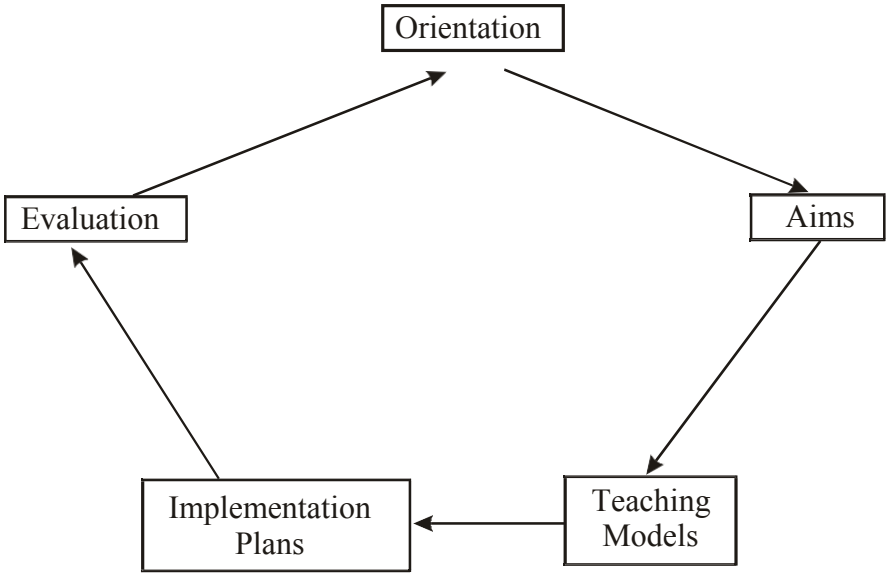
Saylor and Alexander‘s Model :

Saylor and Alexander‘s Model



In Saylor and Alexander‘s model, each major goal and objective is stated in such a manner as that each depicts a domain. The curriculum planner takes decisions about the content organisation and tentative learning experiences in designing the curriculum. Then curriculum is implemented. Teach- ers take decisions with a view to achieving the objectives. Then evaluation of curriculum is done in respect of the effectiveness of curriculum and that of teachers. Finally feedback is provided for adjustment.

Miller and Seller‘s Model :



This model is a generalised one. Three important positions have been suggested here which may serve as the basic orientation of the development of a curriculum. They are —

Transmission Position Transaction Position Transformation Position

Let us explain one by one.

A curriculum should transmit skills, facts values to the learners. So the *transmission position* is to be considered first. Then comes the question of actual *transaction* process which can be treated as dialogic process (which may also be termed as pedagogic interaction process) between the learners and the teachers. Personal changes and the social attitudes can be influenced through curriculum. It is fostered through *transformation position.*

Goodlad‘s Model

In this model the educational aims are drawn from the analysis of the values of the existing culture. The educational aims are then translated into educational objectives stated in behaviour terms. These objectives suggest the learning of opportunities, which could involve study of particular courses or readings. From these

general objectives and learning opportunities educational planners deduce specific educational objectives, which in turn help in organising specific learning opportunities for identifiable students or for a student.

Hunkins' Model

The Hunkins' model allows those working with the model to continually adjust their decision- making about curricular actions, depending on the situation. The model ensures that one's philosophi- cal orientation should guide ones curriculum planning activities. The curriculum maintenance stage includes various means of managing curriculum systems that are necessary for the continuation of the programme.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State in what ways Tyler's model and Taba's model do differ.
2. Indicate in what ways Saylor and Alexander's and Miller and Seller's model differ.

3.4.2: NON-TECHNICAL/NON-SCIENTIFIC MODEL

The proponents of this model of curriculum development stress on the students perceptions of their needs and preferences. This is in contrast to the technical approach which relies more heavily on the view of experts and demands of subject matter for determining student's needs.

There are three important models in this category. They are—

(a) **The open classroom model :** It is based on the Activity Curriculum in which the activities are often treated as ends in themselves. This model suggests that the students learn by doing and by actively participating in learning activities and not by passively listening to the teachers. This model places great faith in students and encourages students autonomy. In this model, the students take up the major responsibility for their learning. The curriculum according to this model should be based on the students' interests, needs and optitudes. The learning experiences should facilitate student autonomy and freedom.

(b) **Wienstien and Fantini's Model :** According to this model, the teachers can generate new content and techniques to assess the relevance of the existing curriculum, content and techniques. Thus, the teachers can give new shape to the curriculum. The existing curriculum is reviewed to suit the requirements of the students. Thus the student is at the centre of the process of curriculum development.

The first step in the curriculum development activity is to identify the target group. The student concerns determine the contents, its organisation and teaching procedures to be employed

Contents could be gathered from various sources :

- Experiences of growing persons
- Student‘s feelings about his or her own experiences—one‘s feelings about one‘s friends, sports and games etc.
- Students‘ knowledge of his/her own social environment.

The contents determine the skills to be developed in the students. After the content has been selected the teaching procedures are identified. The teaching procedures should essentially be related to the learning styles of the students.

Roger‘s Model :

Though not a curriculum specialist, he has developed a model for changing behaviour which can be used for curriculum development. Rogers emphasizes human experiences rather than content or learning activities.

Roger‘s model in used for explosing group experiences, whereby people examine themselves and others in a group. The participants of the group communicate honestly with each orther and explore each other‘s feelings. Hence this model is called the interpersonal relations model.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain the main issues in the non-technical models of curriculum.

3.4.3 : GENERAL DISCUSSION ON CURRICULUM PLANNING MODELS

The important question of how one plans a curriculum is composed of three different questions.

(a) Procedural
(b) Descriptive
(c) Conceptual

Procedural question may be put like this—What steps should one follow in planning a curriculum ?

Descriptive questions runs like this—How do people actually plan curricula ?

Conceptual question would be—What are the elements of curriculum planning and how do they relate to one another conceptually ?

Until the 1970s, these three questions dominated disconvers on curriculum planning. Another issue also sprang up in this case. The technical production Perspective. The dominant perspective of curriculum

planning has been based on the assumption that planners should decide on the methods and materials of instruction after deciding on the learning outcomes they wish to achieve. This assumption lies at they heart of the ‗Technical production perspective''. This perspective is best represented in the work of ‗Tyler'' whose rationate for curriculum planning has been a major influence on curriculum thought. It has been interpreted by most educators as an answer to the procedural question.

In Tyler's model four questions have been answered in the following manner : Formulation of objectives. (Sources + Screens) Educational experiences to be provided Effective organisation of the educational experiences. Objective evaluation instruments (Tests, work samples, questionnaires and records)

The Tyler Rationale and in particular the four questions has dominated thoughts on curriculum planning through various models.

Curriculum planning models that uncritically accept these assumptions are based on what has been termed a ‗technical production' perspective. The technical production perspective (T.P.P.) has served as a basis for variety of models intended to guide curriculum thought.

Taba's work represent the most detailed elaboration of the Tyler rationale. Like Tyler she (Hilda Taba) accepted explicity the assumption that curriculum planning is a technical/scientific rather than a political matter. She argues for a ‗Systematic' objective, scientific, research-oriented approach to curriculum development.

Just as Taba elaborated the Tyler rationale into a detailed procedural model, Goodlad and Johnson have used Tyler's work as a point of departure for each of their conceptual models.

The major contribution of Goodlad and his other colleagues in describing three levels of curriculum planning viz the instructional level, the institutional level, the administrative level.

These notion of levels contributed significantly to curriculum planning models by providing a technical production perspective.

Johnsons conceptual model stipulated a definition of curriculum as a structured series of intended learning outcomes ‗and carefully distinguished between often confused concepts like ‗curriculum'' and ‗instruction''. According to Johnson (1967) Curriculum describes what is to be tearned, whereas instruction is the process by which it is taught to the students. He argues that curriculum itself is not a process, but curriculum development is. This process consists of selecting and structuring the ‗intended learning outcomes''—from the available and teachable culture-i.e. the ‗source'' of the curriculum—in order to produce students with certain intended characteristics as expressed in ‗educational goals''. However, in his subsequent modification of the cartien model included the process component consiting of more than one cognitive tasks. Johnson's 1977 ‗PIE' (Planning, Implementation, Evaluation) model provided a necessary elaboration of his earlier work. Although highly complex, it can be reduced to the basic claim that ‗rational' planning involves a planning an implementation and an evaluation aspects.

The basic ‗PIE' model when applied to curriculum and instruction results in five elements : goal setting

curriculum selection
curriculum structuring

instructional planning and
technical evaluation.

Let us have a comparative description of Johnson Tyler and Taba models :

Elements	Questions	Steps
Johnson (1977)	Tyler (1949)	Taba (1962)
Goal Setting purposes	What educational	Diagnosing needs
Curriculum Selection	—	Formulating Specific Objectives Selecting contacts
Curriculum Structuring balance and sequence	—	Organising contact checking
Instructional Planning	What educational experiences? How to organise educational experiences How to determine	Selecting learning experiences organising learning experiences Determining
Technical Evaluation	Whether purposes are attained ?	what and how to evaluate.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give your own reflections on curriculum planning models.
2. State the points you like to highlight when you are asked to plan a curriculum for a specific course.

LET US SUM UP

In this Unit we have been able to deepen our ideas on three main aspects of Curriculum. It is not difficult to recall that these are Curriculum Theories, Systems Approach in curriculum development and Curriculum Models. In fact the three areas of knowledge pertain to the common ground which has facilitated us in understanding deeply both theoretical and practical realms of curriculum development, design, planning, implementation and assessment.

We have observed that for understanding the theoretical issues in curriculum, there is no single theory; rather multiple theories have been emerged from multiple realities of curriculum perceived by different curriculum theorists who differ in their philosophical, epistemological, axiological sociological, etc mind sets. Therefore, theorizing curriculum is a dynamic cognitive adventure for the curriculum workers in a common attempt to explain education in more and more contextual term.

Along this endeavor the modern tool of thinking- systems approach – has been integrated in curriculum work and obviously such attempt has helped building differing curriculum models. Hence, we have got a lot of reflections after studying several technical and non-technical curriculum models.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. Why do we need a theory of Curriculum? Explain, with suitable examples or illustrations.
2. Classify curriculum theories and explain the reasons behind this classification schema.
3. Discuss process oriented theories of curriculum. and indicate their strengths and weaknesses.
4. Discuss structure oriented theories of curriculum and analyze their merits and demerits.
5. Critically discuss value-oriented and content-oriented theories of curriculum.
6. Write a critique on the core issues in Curriculum Theories
7. Analyze the utility of Systems Approach in curriculum design and development.
8. What is meant by a Curriculum Model? State the common features of curriculum models?
9. Why is curriculum model necessary in curriculum studies? Distinguish between technical and non-technical curriculum models.
10. Discuss any one technical curriculum model which has attracted attention of many curriculum workers.
11. Judge the relative merits of Tyler‘s and Taba‘s curriculum models.
12. Show your acquaintance with some important non-technical curriculum models.

Block – 4

Curriculum Studies

CONTENT STRUCTURE :

INTRODUCTION

In the earlier Units of this Module (No.3) we have learnt many aspects of Curriculum. We are now in this Unit 5 going to make our learning about Curriculum more mature. In this Unit we shall learn studying a curriculum document developed by curriculum workers for certain goal realization as envisaged by those persons. Our real life experience is that some authorities, certainly some examining bodies at local or national level produce curriculum and this is implemented in the classroom. When the curriculum document is developed at national level, it generally likes to ascertain in it some general statements, propositions and broad frame under which the curriculum proper is developed in details. We may loosely called it curriculum framework. In this Unit we shall study some of the curriculum frameworks which are important in Indian perspective. By studying we shall mean not only getting ourselves acquaintance with the what are written there but also making analysis, criticisms, etc for developing our own insights about how to develop a curriculum.

OBJECTIVES

1. To understand the basic concept of some common elements of a curriculum framework.
2. To analyse various curriculum frameworks of NCERT, NCTE and U.G.C. to develop ideas and competency of curriculum framing and polices among learners.

Block – 4

Unit – 1

Basic concepts of Curriculum Studies Introduction

4.1.1. : CURRICULUM STUDIES

Curriculum has been defined in numerous ways. The first set of curriculum workers build a framework or model or a mini-theory with the application of curriculum knowledge and data. We know that ―A curriculum theory is a coherent and systematic body of ideas used to give meaning to curriculum phenomena and problems to guide people in directing ob appropriate, justifiable actions". (Walker, 1909). Curriculum theory, so also a curriculum framework being descriptive in form encompasses a basic set of carefully articulated ideas intended to illuminate phenomena and problems or guide practice. Secondly, from the perspective of curriculum model some other features of a curriculum may appear as curriculum models are usually descriptive, explaining a process or prescriptive, a set of procedures or a sequence of steps about how to do something. Curriculum models accommodate different purposes and uses. There are models for thinking about curriculum matters in a particular way. Others are guides for doing particular types of curriculum work, such as reaching a consensus on the goals or purposes a curriculum should serve.

Historically, Franklin Bobbit's The Curriculum (1918, 1924) which proclaimed strongly that the focus of curriculum was the school and schooling and the professionals must do curriculum work accordingly and scientifically. Does the curriculum address the life at the community ? Is to be a basic curriculum question while analyzing any curriculum model, theory or framework. Tyler's Rationale model begins with four basic curriculum questions which are most useful in any curriculum study exercise. His questions are:

(a) What educational purposes should the schools seek to attain?

(b) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?

(c) How can these education experiences be effectively organized?

(d) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

The first question directs you to the goals that schooling and the curriculum should serve and the second question deals with the scope of the curriculum, what should be included to meet those goals. The third question asks how the content would be organized, a sequence matter. The last question, how will we know if we achieve the intended, refers to the need for evaluation. Answers to these four questions with regard to a developed curriculum framework may help one to judge that curriculum document or curriculum phenomena.

We know that subsequently Tyler‘s rationale model was further refined by Hilda Taba who refined Tyler‘s curriculum model for practical use by teachers. In her Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice (1962), she articulated curriculum development process for general use by teachers and others at the classroom level. According to her curriculum process conceptualization while studying or analyzing a curriculum one may seeks answers if the curriculum workers have undergone the following actions with regard to the curriculum under study. These actions are: Diagnose needs Formulate objectives, Organize objectives, Select experiences, Organize experiences, and Evaluate According to Johnson curriculum itself is not a process, but curriculum development is. This model has four major elements: goal setting, curriculum selection and structuring, instructional planning, and technical evaluation.

Hence, a curriculum worker during curriculum studies must analyze to what extent these four elements are appropriately and systematically sequenced, organized and integrated and for which as four broader curriculum questions pertaining to each of the four elements. Curriculum studies is a field that addresses distinct and important issues related to education. Specific questions related to curriculum studies include the following: What should be taught in schools? Curriculum inquirers also investigate the relationship between curriculum theory and educational practice and the relationship between school programs and the contours of the society and culture in which schools are located..

What is Curriculum Studies ?

Curriculum analysis or studies is necessary by virtue of its centrality to two important tasks performed by tecahers and adminstrtaors : curriculum selection and curriculum adaptation. When selcting or adapting a curriculum for use in a particular classroom, school or school systems, it is important to determine whether or not it is appropriate for the situation. This determination is not limited to an analysis of such matters as the reading difficulty, the quality and accurcay of content, and the amount of additiional training reqyied for implementaion. This scanning also requires the ability to determine the extent to which the assumptions underlying the curriculum are valid for the particualr class remaining in the existing school set ups. These ammumptions consist of tacit belifs about the central purpose of education, about the intended audience (students, teachersparents, etc) and the way the people learn, about the tecahers and the best ways to teach, about the subaject matter and how it shpuld be organized , and about the community and what it values; or about to whatextent it will be feasible in the school seting for all types of leraners of differing ability, choce and cultural tools of learning. Posner things that an understanding of these sort of these sorts of belifes is at the heart of reflective eclecism. Uncovering these sorts of beliefs requires probing beneath the surface of the document of the curriculum frammework, reading between lines and making infernces on the basis of scattered evidence and reflection. Thus curriculum studies or analysis is more like a detective work or intellective discourse than clerical work. Once you leran how to do a through and complete analytic study of a curriculum framework or the whole of the curriculum work, you will have internalized a basic sense of the

enterprise and even some of the staeps. Curriculum studies may be looked as one kind of content analysis of the curriculum documents and therefore, you wil have to put into actions and steps required in content analysis as a kind of methodology of research. Finally, with these sorts of activities, thinking, orientations, techniques , etc when you will be able to internalised , you will be an active team member of a curriculum group.

Curriculum Studies/Analysis Questions

On the basis of the above mentioned discussion we may now think of a tool that may be useful for a novice student who intents to perform curriculum studies . This tool or inventory has ben devised by George J. Posner in context of curriculum analysis. However, it wiil be equally useful here :

1. How is the curriculum /curriculum frammework documented?

- On what documents and other resources will you base your study and analysis ?
- What limitations in document do you find?

2. What situation resulted in the development of the curriculum?

- To which social, political, economic, or educational problems was the curriculum attempting to respond?
- What planning elements dominated the curriculum development process?
- What theory, or model is the pillar of development of the curriculum?

3. What perspectives do the curriculum represent ?

4. What are the purposes and content of the curriculum?

- At what level does the curriculum express its pot pose?
- What educational goals , educational aims and educational objectives are emphasized and what are their relative priorities ?
- What learning objectives are included and emphasisezed in the curriculum?
- What is the main nature of content organization in the curriculum?
- What are the primary ways in which the curriculum represents the subject matters in the students?

5. What assumptions underlie the curriculum approach to purpose or content?

- What conceptions of learning , objectives, curriculum and teaching underlie the materials you are analysing?

- What aspects of a hidden curriculum are likely to accompany the conceptions and perspectives underlying the curriculum?

6. How is the curriculum organized?

- What organizational principles are employed?
- What prevision is made for micro-level vertical /or horizontal

organization?

7. What assumptions underlie the curriculum organization?

- What epistemological assumptions underlie the curriculum‘s organization?
- What psychological assumptions underlie the curriculum‘s organization?
- What other assumptions underlie the curriculum‘s organization?
- What assumptions underlie modifications of curriculum with respect to textbooks, media use, learning climate and teacher training ?

8. How shall the curriculum be implemented?

- What are the temporal, physical, organizational and political –legal requirements of the curriculum?
- What are the probable costs and benefits associated with the curriculum change/renewal?
- To what extent will the curriculum be consistent with and appropriate for the teachers‘ attitudes, beliefs and competencies?
- What values are embedded in the curriculum , and how well are these values likely to be suited to the curriculum?

9. What is your judgment about the curriculum?

- What are its strengths and weaknesses ?
- Of what dangers would you want tobe careful if you implement it?
- Of what changes would you want to be looked forward?

4.1.2 : COMMON ELEMENTS OF A CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

A curriculum framework refers to a broad map of a curriculum which presents the curriculum work in precise way but does not generally explicitly the all ramifications of the learning tasks to be operated when it will be implemented in the real world of classroom. Every curriculum framework is expected to exhibit some essential elements in the framework documentation.

1. Introduction: Current context

It provides a rationale of the curriculum framework.

2. Educational policy :

It provides a conceptual support of the Governments policy on education, inclusion of ICT, meeting the challenges of global trends, development of skills, improving the universal literacy and to create a productive knowledge society.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write in your own words the meaning of Curriculum Studies
2. Construct three important questions used in Curriculum Studies

3. Learning Objectives :

Describes what students should know and be able to do when they complete their curricula. Outcomes should be expressed in arrange of domains, including knowledge, understanding. Skills, and competencies, values and attitudes.

4. Structure of the education system:

Describes the school system within which the curriculum framework is to be applied: Number of schooling including compulsory schooling. Stages of schooling and their durations Number of weeks in the school years and hours or teaching periods in the school week.

5. Structures of Curriculum Content, Learning areas and subjects :

Describes the organization of content within the framework and the extent to which schools and students can make choices. The pattern of subjects or learning areas to be studied in each stage or cycle such as core, elective and optional subjects. A brief description of each subject or learning areas outlining the rational for inclusion in the curriculum and the contribution to the achievement of learning outcomes.

6. Standards of Resources required for implementation :

Teacher‘s qualifications, Teaching load. Students-involvement and activities Materials-textbooks, computers, other equipment, facilities in classroom.

7. Teaching Methodology :

Description in the range of teaching approaches that might be employed in the implementation of the framework.

8. Assessing Student Achievement :

Describing the importance of assessing the extent to which students achieve the outcomes of each subject, and recommends types of assessment strategies such as written, oral, performance, and practical or dissertations.

Unit – 2

NATIONAL CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK-2005 BY NCERT

4.2.1 : NATIONAL CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK-2005 BY NCERT

Epilogue

National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, December, 2005 National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 is the official document formulated by a National Steering Committee with the advice of the Ministry of Human Resource Development under the administrative fold of NCERT. It is essentially a revised and renewal scheme for curriculum work after the publication of the National Curriculum for School Education -2000 worked out by NCERT. It envisages relooking the 2000 framework mainly in the light of the report, Learning Without Burden (1993) and the spirit expressed in Civilization and Progress written by Rabindranath Tagore. In the context of these development and decision, a national Steering Committee, chaired by Prof. Yash Pal, eminent educationist and 21 national Focus Groups was set up with area specific need analysis for planning and developing this national enterprise. This curriculum work has also takes reflective stimulations from other relevant documents on education, such as NPE, 1986 and POAs. Effectively, the hidden forces that have contributed in framing the NCF-2995 are ‗creative spirit' and ‗generous joy' of Tagore and reducing curriculum load of Prof. Yash Pal. Further, contemporary knowledge about the constructivism and also active participation in learning with full freedom and choice of the learners have also been the pointers to change in the school curriculum. Necessarily , the NCF has decided to take up five guiding principles that explicitly express that the learner is at the heart of the learning encounter and the real learning connects school and life in the real world and hence the learner is the constructor of knowledge , not a merely memory worker. The NCF-2005 has been documented and organized in five chapters, each focusing on each of the five broader dimensions of school education. It is actually an attempt at reviewing and renewal process. In fine, from the light of curriculum planning and design or renewal this document is an official venture with special emphasis to the principal directives envisioned in our Constitution. However, it has envisioned a cultural upliftment in the spirit of pluralism keeping in mind the socio-cultural diversity of India in one hand and the pushes and pulls of globalization on the other hand.

General Introduction to the Curriculum Framework

National Curriculum Framework -2005 is a national document describing the suggestive ways and means for future school education in India formulated by a team of experts through their curriculum development/reform/renewal work after a series of dialogue, discussion, workshop and mind work. As a national document this Curriculum Framework has been presented in five chapters. This document attempts

to provide a framework or model within which, it expects, teachers and schools can choose and plan learning experiences that they think children should have keeping in mind the cultural, sociological, human developmental, technological, etc demands of the modern civil society with flux of changes emerging rapidly. It has been conceptualized as a structure that articulates required experiences. This framework envisages addressing four basic curricular questions as used in Tyler‘s Rationale Model of curriculum planning. There are:

(a) What educational purposes should the schools seek to achieve?

(b) What educational experiences can be provided that is likely to achieve these purposes?

(c) How can these educational experiences be meaningfully organized?

(d) How do we ensure that these educational purposes are indeed being accomplished?

This image summarizes the steps of the Tyler Model.

From Ornstein and Hunkins 1998

The first implies the objectives to be attained and these should be derived form systematic studies of the learners, from studies of contemporary life in society and from analyses of the subject matter by specialists. Second, planners need to determine what educational experiences can be provided that is likely to attain these purposes. Third, the planners must find ways to effectively organize these educational experiences. The planners attempt to provide experiences that have a cumulative effect on students. Fourth, the planners need to determine whether the educational purposes are being attained (Posner, 1995). For studying this national curriculum framework these four basic questions will be the analyst‘s navigational tool. Then the planners have explicitly state the Guiding Principles of the National Curriculum Framework-2005 in the following statements. We need to plan and pay attention to systemic matters that will enable us to implement many of the good ideas that have already been articulated in the past. Paramount among these are :

- connecting knowledge to life outside the school,
- ensuring that learning is shifted away from rote methods,
- enriching the curriculum to provide for overall development of children rather than remain textbook centric,
- making examinations more flexible and integrated with classroom life and,
- nurturing an identity soaked in caring concerns within the democratic polity of the country.

In the present context there are new developments and concerns to which our curriculum must respond. The foremost among these is the importance of including and retaining all children in school, through a programme which reaffirms the value of each child and enables all children to experience dignity and the

confidence to learn. Curriculum design must reflect the commitment to Universal Elementary Education (UEE), not only in representing cultural diversity, but also by ensuring that children from different social and economic backgrounds with variation in physical, psychological and intellectual characteristics are able to learn and achieve success in school. In this context, disadvantages in education arising from inequalities of gender, caste, language, culture, religion or disabilities need to be addressed directly, not only through policies and schemes but also through the design and selection of learning tasks and pedagogic practices, right from the period of early childhood. UEE makes us aware of the need to broaden the scope of curriculum to include in it the rich inheritance of different traditions of knowledge, work and crafts. Some of these traditions today face a serious threat from market forces and commoditisation of knowledge in the context of the globalization of the economy. [p.6] The above statements reflect a new educational panorama, the curriculum planners are going to draw in cognizance of shifts in contemporary sociology of knowledge to be addressed and attained by the learners. This may be evinced if we look the broad content headings of this national document.

Of these five chapters, Chapter-2 bears a special significance as it expresses a paradigm shift : ***from reception learning to construction of learning***.

The National Curriculum Framework-2005 at a Glance

Chapter 1 : Perspective

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Retrospect

1.3 National Curriculum Framework

1.4 Guiding Principles

1.5 Quality Dimension

1.6 Social Context of Education

1.7 Aims of Education

Chapter 2 : Learning and Knowledge

2.1 Primacy of the Active Learner

2.2 Learners in Context

2.3 Development and Learning

2.4 Implications for Curriculum and Practice

2.4.1 : Teaching for Construction of Knowledge

2.4.2 : The Value of Interactions

2.4.3 : Designing Learning Experiences

2.4.4 : Approaches to Planning

Chapter 5 : Systemic Reforms

5.1 Concern for Quality

5.1.1 : Academic Planning and Monitoring for Quality

5.2 Teacher Education for Curriculum Renewal

5.2.1 : Present Concerns in Teacher Education

5.2.2 : Vision for Teacher Education

5.2.3 : Major Shifts in Teacher Education Programme

5.2.4 : In-Service Education and Training of Teachers

5.2.4 : In-Service Education and Training of Teachers

5.2.5 : Initiatives and Strategies for In-Service Education

5.3 Examination Reforms

5.3.1 : Paper Setting, Examining and Reporting

5.3.3 : Board Examinations at Other Levels

5.3.4 : Entrance Examinations

5.4 Work-centered Education

5.4.1 : Vocational Education and Training

5.5 Innovation in Ideas and Practices

5.5.1 : Plurality of Textbooks

5.5.2 : Encouraging Innovations

5.5.3 : The Use of Technology

5.6 New Partnerships

5.6.1 : Role of NGOs, Civil Society Groups, and Teacher Organisations

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write down the guiding principles of the Curriculum Framework-2005
2. Do you think that the five chapters of the National Curriculum Framework

ANALYSIS OF THE FRAMEWORK

Chapter-1

Perspective

Why?

The National Curriculum Framework-2005 has analyzed critically the then scenarios of school education in this country, presumably has taken cognizance of data from various sources, and also the heart of the National Curriculum Framework-2000 which uttered voice against centre of gravity of school learning – memory work, examination centric and excessive information load when information is misinterpreted as knowledge. The review of National Curriculum Framework, 2000 was initiated specifically to address the problem of curriculum load on children as evinced in the Yashpal (1993) Committee Report-Learning Without Burden. The general observations are that the flabby textbooks and the syllabi they cover symbolise a systemic failure to address children in a child-centred manner. The Learning Without Burden recommended a major change in the design of syllabi and textbooks, and also a change in the social ethos, which places stress on children to become aggressively competitive and exhibit precocity. harnessing the child‘s creative nature, the report recommended a fundamental change in the matter of organising the school curriculum, and also in the system of examination which force children to memorize information and to reproduce it. Thus school knowledge of being young delinks from everyday experience. With the prime aim at reforming school curriculum the 2005 Framework takes notes of the following. Further, there is a deep disquiet about several aspects of our educational practice: (a) the school system is characterized by an inflexibility which makes it resistant to change; (b) learning has become an isolated activity which does not encourage children to link knowledge with their lives in any organic or vital way; (c) schools promote a regime of thought which discourages creative thinking and insights; (d) what is presented and transmitted in the name of learning in schools bypasses vital dimensions of the human capacity to create new knowledge; (e) the ―future‖ of the child has taken centre-stage to the near exclusion of the child‘s “present”, which is detrimental to the wellbeing of the child as well as the society and the nation.[p.1] To sum up in the school education system reside in : Inflexible, resistant to change □ □ Learning is isolated activity, not link to life and organic growth □ □ Encourages regime of thought, discourages creative thinking and insights □ □ So called learning presented and transmitted bypasses human capacity to create knowledge □ □ Future ofthe child has taken central stage, excluding the present. The basic concerns of education—to enable children to make sense of life and develop their potential, to define and pursue a purpose and recognise the right of others to do the same—stand uncontested and valid even today…. we need to reaffirm our commitment to the concept of equality, within the landscape of cultural and socioeconomic diversity from which children enter into the portals of the school. Individual aspirations in a competitive economy tend to reduce education

to becoming an instrument of material success. The perception, which places the individual in exclusively competitive relationships, puts unreasonable stress on children, and thus distorts values. It also makes learning from each other a matter of little consequence. Education must be able to promote values which foster peace, humaneness and tolerance in a multi-cultural society. [p.1] The planners have critically observed the ground reality of school education and envisage reforming the system as per contemporary calls for qualitative improvement with a balanced distribution of equity, equality, and opportunity for access, retention and success. They clearly state : —Today, our country engages nearly 55 lakh teachers spread over around 10 lakh schools to educate about 2025 lakh children. While 82 per cent of habitations have a primary school within a radius of one kilometre, there is an upper primary school within 3 kilometers for 75 per cent of habitations. At least 50 per cent of our children who appear at the school leaving examinations passout of the secondary school system. Despite these trends, 37 per cent people of India lack literacy skills, about 53 per cent children drop out at elementary stage and over 75 per cent of our rural schools are multigrade" [p.2] Very meticulously —this document seeks to enable teachers and administrators and other agencies involved in the design of syllabi and textbooks and examination reform make rational choices and decisions." …" By contextualising the challenges involved in curriculum renewal in contemporary social reality, this document draws attention to certain specific problems which demand an imaginative response" in the manners such as devolution of decision-making to teachers and elected local level bodies, while it also identifies new areas for attention such as the need for plurality of textbooks and urgent improvement in the examination system.

Context / Retrospect

The planners of this document have made an intellectual journey in several sources of knowledge that might contribute to framing this national curriculum. These are Mahatma Gandhi's call for awakening the nation's conscience to injustice, violence and inequality entrenched in the social order explicitly spelled out in his Nai Talim for complete social transformation through nations' education system before independence. The National Commissions — the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) and Education Commission (1964-66) both the two Commissions elaborated on the themes emerging out of Mahatma Gandhi's educational philosophy in the changed socio-political context with a focus on national development. The Indian Constitution and its amendment in 1976 (to include education in the Concurrent List), the National Education Policy of 1968 and the Curriculum Framework designed by NCERT in 1975 and also later on 1988 the 1986 National Policy on Education for building a national system of education as the socio-politico-cultural forces and factors have been taken care of by the planners. The 1988's exercise of NCERT —aimed at making school education comparable across the country in qualitative terms and also makes it a means to ensure national integration without compromising on the country's pluralistic character…. However, the articulation of this framework through courses of studies and textbooks in a rapidly-changing

developmental context resulted in an increase in _curricular load' and made learning at school a source of stress for young minds and bodies during their formative years of childhood and adolescence."

National Curriculum Framework : What Planners Say

Despite the review of the Curriculum Framework in 2000, the vexed issues of curriculum load and the tyranny of examinations remained unresolved. The current review exercise takes into cognizance both positive and negative developments in the field and attempts to address the future requirements of school education at the turn of the century. In this endeavor several inter-related dimensions are kept in mind, namely, the aims of education, the social milieu of children, the nature of knowledge in its broader sense, the nature of human development and the process of human learning.

The planners have weighed some conflict of emphasizes given by two earlier national documents, namely NPE 1986 and POA (Programme of Action) 1992. The intention articulated in the NPE, 1986 was to evolve a national system of education capable of responding to India's diversity of geographical and cultural milieus while ensuring a common core of values along with academic components. —The PoA envisaged a child-centred approach to promote universal enrolment and universal retention of children up to 14 years of age and substantial improvement in the quality of education in the school" (PoA page 77). Further, the PoA elaborated on this vision of NPE by emphasizing relevance, flexibility and quality as characteristics of the National Curriculum Framework.

The National System of Education, then reasonably will be based on a national curricular framework with a common core along with other components that are flexible. Necessarily, the common core will include the history of India's cultural heritage, the constitutional obligations and other content essential to nurture national identity. Moreover all these elements must cut across subject areas and will be designed to promote values such as India's common cultural heritage, egalitarianism, democracy and secularism, equality of sexes, protection of environment, removal of social barriers, observance of small family norm and inculcation of scientific temper. All educational programmes will be carried on in strict conformity with secular values and for inculcation in children the spirit of peace and understanding between nations, treating the whole world as one family. The curriculum will be able to distribution of equitable opportunities, personal dignity, drawing fully out one's potential, especially through the implementation of the core curriculum.

Guiding Principles–stated earlier

For this purpose, the concept of critical pedagogy has to be practiced in all dimensions of school education, including teacher education. It is here that, for instance, productive work can become an effective pedagogic medium for (a) connecting classroom knowledge to the life experiences of the children; (b) allowing the children from marginalized sections, having knowledge and skills related to work, to gain a definite edge and respect among their peers from the privileged sections; and (c) facilitating a growing appreciation of the

cumulative human experience, knowledge and theories by building rationally upon the contextual experiences." Living in harmony within oneself and with one's natural and social environment is a basic human need. Building a culture of peace is an incontestable goal of education. Education to be meaningful should empower individuals to choose peace as a way of life and enable them to become managers rather than passive spectators of conflict.

Quality Dimension : Centrality of Renewal

Quality is the first and the last mantra of the national curriculum framework. The late J.P. Naik had described equality, quality and quantity as the _elusive triangle' of Indian education. Moreover, UNESCO's recently published global monitoring report discusses systemic standards as the appropriate context of the quality debate. Physical resources by themselves cannot be regarded as an indicator of quality; yet, the extreme and chronic shortage of physical resources, including basic infrastructural amenities, in schools run by the state or local bodies does present a serious quality constraint. The availability of qualified and motivated teachers who perceive teaching as a career option applies to all sectors of schools as a necessary precondition for quality. Suggestions for the dilutions of standards in teacher recruitment, training and service conditions articulated in the NPE and, before it, by the Chattopadhyaya Commission (1984) arouse anxiety and commented that no system of education can rise above the quality of its teachers, and the quality of teachers greatly depends on the means deployed for selection, procedures used for training, and the strategies adopted for ensuring accountability.

The quality dimension also needs to be examined from the point of view of the experiences designed for the child in terms of knowledge and skills. Assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the child's own nature shape the school ethos and the approaches used by those who prepare the syllabi and textbooks, and by teachers.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Mention how the guiding principles of the National Curriculum Framework- 2005 have been matched with the NEP, and POAs.
2. State reasons for discarding the National Curriculum Framework-2000.

No subject in the school curriculum can stay aloof from these larger concerns, and therefore, the selection of knowledge proposed to be included in each subject area requires careful examination in terms of socio-economic and cultural conditions and goals. **The greatest national challenge for education is to strengthen our participatory democracy and the values enshrined in the Constitution**. **Meeting this challenge implies that we make quality and social justice the central theme of curricular reform.** Citizenship training has been an important aspect of formal education.

A clear orientation towards values associated with peace and harmonious co-existence is called for.
Quality in education includes a concern for quality of life in all its dimensions.

The Social Context of Curriculum Renewal

The education system does not function in isolation from the society. Hierarchies of caste, economic status and gender relations, cultural diversity as well as uneven development that characterise Indian society, also deeply influence access to education and participation of children in schools. In urban locations and many villages, the school system itself is stratified and provides children with strikingly different educational experiences. Schools range from the high cost _public' (private) schools, to which the urban elite send their children, to the ostensibly _free' poorly functioning local body run primary schools where children from hitherto educationally deprived communities predominate.

A striking recent feature is the growth of multigrade schools in rural areas, based on exclusion in education and undermine the constitutional value of equality of opportunity and social justice. If _free' education is understood as _removal of constraints' to education, then we must realise the importance of other sectors of the state's social policy for supporting and facilitating the achievement of UEE.

Globalisation and the spread of market relations in every sphere of society have important implications for education. On the one hand, we are witnessing the increasing commercialisation of education, and on the other, inadequate public funding for education and the official thrust towards _alternative' schools indicate a shifting of responsibility for education from the state to families and communities. We need to be vigilant about the pressures to commoditifying schools and the application of market related concepts to schools and school quality. **The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments and the institutionalised statutory space they** provide for local communities to participate in decision-making in education for their children are important developments. However, parental aspirations for education are belied by endemic poverty and unequal social relations, and by lack of adequate provision of schooling of equitable quality. The expectations and aspirations of the poor for education cannot be set aside as being outside the frame of curricular concerns.

The social context of education in India thus presents a number of challenges which must be addressed by the curriculum framework, both in its design as well as its implementation.

Envisioned Aims of Education in the New Curriculum

The aims of education serve as broad guidelines to align educational processes to chosen ideals and accepted principles. Aims of education simultaneously reflect the current needs and aspirations of a society as well as

lasting values, immediate concerns of a community as well as broad human ideals. An aim must provide foresight. The school, classroom, and related learning sites are spaces where the core of educational activity takes place. These must become spaces where learners have experiences that help them achieve the desired curricular objectives. An understanding of learners, educational aims, the nature of knowledge, and the nature of the school as a social space, can help us arrive at principles to guide classroom practices.

The guiding principles discussed earlier, provide the landscape of social values within which we locate our educational aims. values of equality, justice, freedom, concern for others' well-being, secularism, respect for human dignity and rights. Education should aim to build a commitment to these values which are based on reason and understanding. The **curriculum, therefore, should provide adequate experience and space for dialogue and discourse in the school to build such a commitment in children.**

Sensitivity to others' well-being and feelings, together with knowledge and understanding of the world, should form the basis of a rational commitment to values. Learning to learn and the willingness to unlearn and relearn are important as means of responding to new situations in a flexible and creative manner. The curriculum needs to emphasise the processes of constructing knowledge.

Choices in life and ability to participate in democratic processes depend on the ability to contribute to society in various ways. This is why education must develop the ability to work, participate in economic processes and social change. This necessitates the integration of work with education. We must ensure that work-related experiences are sufficient and broad-based in terms of skills and attitudes, an understanding of socio-economic processes, and help inculcate a mental frame to work with others in a spirit of cooperation. Work alone can create a social temper. Appreciation of beauty and art forms is an integral part of human life. Education must provide the means and opportunities to enhance the child's creative expression and the capacity of aesthetic appreciation. Education for aesthetic appreciation and creativity is more important today when aesthetic gullibility allows for opinion and taste to be manufactured and manipulated by market forces. The effort should be to enable the learner to appreciate beauty in its several forms.

The stated aims are mission statements in generalized format. These have not been translated into objectives to be achieved in most explicit manner. Thus the curriculum framework although declared that it is following Tyler's rationale model but it has been lacking technicality.

Chapter - 2

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write down the principal aims of the National Curriculum Framework- 2005
2. State explicitly how _Quality' has been defined in the above stated Curriculum Framework?
3. What are the envisaged social forces what have been stated in the above Curriculum Framework?

Learning and Knowledge – Curriculum
Renewal‗s Pedagogical Base

The **Chapter-II** establishes the need to recognise the child as a natural learner, and knowledge as the outcome of the child‘s own activity both within and beyond the classroom. Childhood is a period of growth and change, involving developing ones physical and mental capacities to the fullest. It involves being socialised into adult society, into acquiring and creating knowledge of the world and oneself in relation to others in order to understand, to act, and to transform

➲Learning is at the heart of the curriculum in action

The formal processes of learning that school makes possible can open up new possibilities in of understanding and relating to the world. The curriculum framework advocates for child-centeredpedagogy. ***„Child-centered" pedagogy means giving primacy to children"s experiences, their voices, and their active participation.*** This kind of pedagogy requires us to plan learning in keeping with children‘s psychological development and interests. The learning plans therefore must respond to physical, cultural and social preferences within the wide diversity of characteristics and needs. Our school pedagogic practices, learning tasks, and the texts we create for learners, tend to focus on the socialization of children and on the ‗receptive‘ features of children‘s learning. Learning is active and social in its character. Children‘s voices and experiences do not find expression in the classroom— often in our existing classroom. Hence the children will learn only in an atmosphere where they feel they are valued. Our schools still do not convey this to all children. The association of learning with fear, discipline and stress, rather than enjoyment and satisfaction is detrimental to learning.

The framework has pointed out the Common sources of physical discomfort which include —
long walks for young children to reach school.

Heavy school bags; time-tables that do not give young children enough breaks to stretch, move and play, and deprives older children of play/sports time, and encourage girls to opt out.

The curriculum must have a holistic approach to learning and development that is able to give them active participation in learning.

➲Development and Learning

The precondition for all development is healthy physical growth of all children. Simple adaptation of playgrounds, equipments and rules can make activities and games accessible to all children in the school. Physical development supports mental and cognitive development, especially in young children. Alongside is the development of theories that children have about the natural and social worlds, including themselves.

As children‘s metacognitive capabilities develop, they become more aware of their own beliefs and capable of regulating their own learning. Further as active learners:

- All children are naturally motivated to learn and are capable of learning.
- Making meaning and developing the capacity for abstract thinking, reflection and work are the most important aspects of learning.
- Children learn in a variety of ways - through experience, making and doing things, experimentation, reading, discussion, asking, listening,thinking and reflecting, and expressing oneself in speech, movement or writing- both individually and with others. They require opportunities of all of these kinds of their development.
- Teaching something before the child is cognitively ready takes away from learning it at a later stage. Children may ‗remember‘ many facts but they may not understand them or be able to relate them in the world around them.
- Learning takes place both within school and outside school. Learning is enriched if the two areas interact with each other. Art and work provide opportunities for holistic learning that is rich in tacit and aesthetic components. Such experiences are essential for linguistically known things, especially in moral and ethical matters, to be learnt through direct experience, and integrated into life.
- Learning must be paced so that it allows learners to engage with concepts and deepen understanding, rather than remembering only to forget after examination....
- Learning can take place with or without mediation. In this case the latter, the social context and interactions, especially with those who are capable, provide avenues for learners to work at cognitive levels above others. (NCF-2005, pp.15-16).

➲Teaching for Construction of Knowledge

In constructivist perspective learning is a process of construction of knowledge. A child constructs her/his knowledge while engaged in the process of learning. Quite often children have an idea arising from their everyday active engagement and learning various concepts, skills and positions through the process. Very often teachers, in government as well as private schools, insist that all children must give identical answers to questions. We must indeed, contemplate why we only ask children to give answers to questions.

Constructivist Learning Situation Process involves basically two elements - **Interpretation construction and Multiple interpretation.**

In this context, teacher is a facilitator who encourages learners to reflect, analyse and interpret in the process of knowledge construction.

Much of our school learning is still individual based (although not individualised!). The teacher is seen

as transmitting ‗knowledge' which is usually confused with information to children, and organising experiences in order to help children learn. Learning in the company of others is a process of interacting with each other and also through the learning task on hand. This kind of learning gets enriched when schools enroll children from different socio-economic backgrounds.

There are ways in which group learning can be assessed and evaluated. Schools could also consider giving mixed age groups of children projects to do together. In such mixed groups there is much that children can learn from each other such as team work and social values. Group learning tasks, taking responsibility, and contributing to a task on hand are all important facets of not only acquiring knowledge but also in learning of crafts and arts.

➲Designing Learning Experiences

The quality of the learning task influences its learnability and its value for the learner. Learners accept being controlled and learn to want to control. answer, we need to allow learners to spend time on deeper meaningful learning. Learning tasks are to be designed to ensure that children will be encouraged to seek out knowledge from **sites other than the textbook.**

This framework misses to spell out clearly the criteria for selecting learning experiences and their length and breadth as usually found in technical approach to curriculum development and design. In this aspect the framework seems non-technical.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. ―Learning is at the heart of the curriculum in action ― Explain from the point of view of the NCF-2005.
2. What do you mean by ‗constructivism?

➲Approaches to Planning

Learning must be focused on activity. The learning experiences should be organized as:

- Observing something happen
- Participating in an exercise involving body and mind such as planning a role around a theme and presenting it,
- Talking about and reflecting on something the child has experience,
- Making something, say, a system of gear wheel or trying out an experiment in a lift
- After the experience, the teacher could organize a discussion, an exercise involving, writing, drawing and display, etc.

➲Knowledge and Understanding : Basic Capabilities of Learners

The curriculum needs to provide experiences that build the knowledge-base through a progressive

introduction to the capabilities of thinking rationally, to understand the world through the disciplines, aesthetic appreciation, and sensitivity to others, to work and to participate in economic processes. This section discusses the nature and forms of knowledge and understanding as necessary for making informed curricular choices and approaches to content.

Knowledge can be conceived as experience organised, through language, into patterns of thought (or structures of concepts), thus creating meaning, which in turn helps understand the world we live in. It can also be conceived of as patterns of activity, or physical dexterity with thought, contributing to acting in the world, creating and making of things. Human beings, over time, have evolved both a wealth of ***bodies of knowledge*** which includes a repertoire of ***ways of thinking, of feeling and of doing things*** and constructing more knowledge. It suggests that in the curriculum, there must be as much focus on the process of learning, on how learners engage with and reconstruct knowledge, as on the content of what is learnt.

Education would concern itself with maintaining and transmitting this store-house of human knowledge. educational aims. The range of human capabilities is very wide, and through education.

Children‘s basic capabilities are those that form the broad basis for the development of understanding, values and skills. Three basic capabilities of the learners have been prioritized by the NCF-2005:

a. Development of language for a child is synonymous with development of understanding and identity and also the capability to relate with others. Not only verbal languages with scripts, but also languages without scripts, sign languages, scripts such as Braille and performing arts provide the bases for making meaning and expression.

b. Forming and sustaining relationships with the social world, with the natural world, and with one‘s self, with emotional richness, sensitivity and values.

c. Capabilities for work and action, involves the coordination of bodily movement with thought and volition; drawing on skill and understanding and directing to achieve some purpose or create something. substantial part of the school curriculum

➲ Forms of Understanding

Knowledge can be categorized based on distinct kinds of concepts and meanings involved and processes of validation and justification. *Mathematics*has its own distinctive concepts, such as prime number, square root, fraction, integral and function. The validation procedures of mathematics are never empirical, never based on observation of the world or on experiment, but are demonstrations, internal to the system specified by the appropriate set of axioms and definitions.

Scientific inquiry involves observation and experimentation to validate predictions made by theory (hypotheses), which may be aided by instruments and controls. *Social Sciences*and *Humanities* have their own concepts, for example community, modernization, culture, identity, and polity. Social Sciences aim at developing a generalized and critical understanding of human beings and human groups in society. The Social Sciences concern themselves with description, explanation and prediction in the social world. With regard to the process of knowledge formation, Science and Social Sciences are First, the Social Sciences study human behavior which is governed by ‗reasons‘, while the nature is governed by ‗cause-effect‘. Second, findings of Social Sciences often raise issues of ethics and desirability while natural phenomena can

be understood, raising ethical questions only when they enter into the domain of human action.

*Art and aesthetics*use quite familiar words, such as rhythm, harmony, expression Art productions cannot be judged against reality or for ‗truth'. *Ethics*is concerned with all human values, and with the rules, principles, and standards.

In relation to action and choice, therefore, ethics must be conceded primacy over each of the forms of understanding. Furthermore, such reasons will be reasons for anyone; reason, equality and personal autonomy are therefore very intimately connected concepts.

*Philosophy*involves a concern on the one hand, with analytical clarification, evaluation and synthetic coordination of the aforementioned forms of understanding.

The basic capabilities, the knowledge of practice and the forms of understanding are the core ways in which human experience has been elaborated in the course of history. Imagination and critical thinking are linked in obvious ways with the development of understanding and reason, and so are the emotions.

Thus, the curriculum planners have reflected on cognitive constructivism, social constructivism, learning in situ, moral reasoning, metacogntive elaboration of one's thought processes, problem- posing learning, collaborative learning, etc and imagined to bring the appropriate exercise by the teachers in classroom learning.

➲Children's Knowledge and Local Knowledge

Next the NCF-2005 goes on to a vital issue in modern curriculum development practice which stands for connection between everyday experience with text-based knowledge**.** It puts this issue as (p.30):

―The child's community and local environment form the primary context in which learning takes place, and in which knowledge acquires its significance. It is in interaction with the environment that the child constructs knowledge-derives meaning. Although this area has generally been neglected both in conceptualisation of textbooks, and in pedagogic practices. Hence in this document, we emphasise the significance of contextualising education: of situating learning in child's context, and of making a porous boundary between the school and its natural and social environment. This is not only because the local environment and the child's own experiences is the best ‗entry point' into the study of disciplines of knowledge, but more so because *knowledge is to connect with the world.* It is not a means to an end, but both means and end. This does not require us to reduce knowledge to the functional and immediately relevant but to realise its dynamism by connecting with the world through it.

Unless learners can locate their individual standpoints in relation to the contexts represented in textbooks and relate this knowledge to their experiences of society, knowledge is reduced to the level of mere information. If we want to examine how learning relates to future visions of community life, it is crucial to encourage reflection on *what it means to know something***,** and how to use whatwe have learnt. The learner must be recognised as a proactive participant in his or her own learning.

Day after day children bring to school their experiences of the world around—the trees that they have climbed, the fruits they have eaten, the birds they have admired."

➲School Knowledge and the Community

Children need to find expression and representation of the plurality of peoples and community is

oversimplified, labeled, or judged. study and generate portrayals of the local social groups as a part of their social science studies. Local oral history could also be connected with regional history and national history. But the social context also calls for a much greater critical awareness and critical engagement on the part of curriculum developers and teachers. Community-based identities of gender, caste, class and religion are primary identities but they can also be oppressive and reaffirm social inequalities and hierarchies.

School knowledge can also provide a lens through which children can develop a critical understanding of their social reality. knowledge and experiences in the school curriculum. The school must then berepaired to engage with communities to listen to their concerns, and to persuade them to see the educational value of such decisions. If we are to ensure participation of children of all groups in our secular education, we will have to discuss our curricular choices with others who are legitimate stakeholders in education.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain _local knowledge‘ with examples.
2. How school knowledge and community knowledge have been linked in the NCF-2005. - Explain.

Chapter 3

Curricular Areas, School Stages and Assessment

The NCF-2005 in this Chapter has reflected upon the changing order of knowledge and observed that this dynamic nature of knowledge production and application have not clearly addressed in school practices . It puts: —It‘s important that each curricular area is revisited in depth, so that specific points of entry can be identified to the context of emerging social needs. In this respect, the status androle of the arts and health and physical education deserve special attention in view of the peculiar orbit of the _extra-curricular‘ to which they were relegated almost a century ago. Aesthetic sensibility and experience being the prime sites of the growing child‘s creativity, we must bring the arts squarely into the domain of the curricular, infusing them in all areas of learning while giving them in an identity of their own at relevant stages. Work, peace, and health and physical education have a similar case. All three have a fundamental significance for economic, social and personal development. Schools have a major role to play in ensuring that children are socialized into a culture of self-reliance, resourcesfullness, peace -oriented values and health.” (p.35)

To sum up , the NCF-2005 has embraced eight areas of studies , such as Language,Mathematics,Science, Social Sciences, Art Education, Health and Physical Education, Work and Education, and Education for Peace.

The area -wise renewal directions may be presented in the following order.

◎Language

- Language skills- speech and listening, reading and writing -cut across school subjects and

disciplines.

- A renewed effort for implementation three - language formula, emphasizing the recognition of children‘s home language or mother language (including tribal language if needed) as the best method of instruction.
- English needs to find its place along with other Indian languages.
- The multilingual character of Indian society should be seen as a resource for the enrichment of school life.

◎Mathematics

- Mathematization (ability to think logically, formulate and handle abstraction) rather than _knowledge‘ of mathematics (formal and mechanical procedures) is the main goal of teaching mathematics.

◎Science

- Content, process, and language of science teaching mustbe commensurate with the learner‘s age — range and cognitive reach.
- Science teaching should engae the learners in acquring methods and processes that will nurture their curiosity and creativity , particularly in relation to the environment.
- Science teaching should be placed in the wider context of children‘s environment to equip them with the requisite knowledge and skills to enter the world of work.
- Awareness ofenvironemntal concern must permeate the entire school curriculum.

◎Social Studies

- Social science content need to focus on conceptual understanding rather thsn lining up facts to be memorized for examination, and should equip children with the ability to think independently and reflect critcally on social issues.
- Interdisciplinary approaches promoting key national concerns such as gender, justice, human rights, and sensitivity to marginalized groupsand minorities.
- Civics should be recast as a political scince , and the significance of historyas a shaping influence on the children‘s conception of the past and civic identity should be recognized.

◎Work

- School curricula from the pre-primary stage to the senior secondary stage need to be reconstructed to realize the pedagogic potential of work as a pedagogic medium in knowledge acquisition, developing values and multiple skill formation.

◎Art

- Arts (folk and classical forms like music and dance, visual arts, theater, etc) and heritage crafts

should be recognized as integral components of the school curriculum.

- The art should comprise a subject at every stage of school curriculum.

◎Peace

- Peace-oriented values should be promoted in all subjects throughout theschool years with the help of relevant activities.
- Peace education should form a component of teacher education.

® *Health and Physical Education*

- Health and physical education are necessary for the overall development of learners.

® *Habitat and Learning*

- Environmental education may be best pursued by infusing the issues and concerns of the environment into the teaching of different disciplines at all levels.

In **Chapter-3** *special emphasis has been given in the area of teaching-learning of Social Sciences keeping in view the pluralistic nature of Indian society. Hence, two important deliberation of NCF- 2005 in relation to Social Sciences are being presented separately. Here the framework very loosely speaks for different subject matter integration but it does not state to what extent the inclusion of different aspects of integration of learning experiences would follow vertical, horizontal or spiral or wheel approach. Or in which way it will maintain continuity in organization of educational experiences.*

➲ The Proposed Epistemological Frame

Based on the above considerations of popular perceptions, and the issues to be addressed in the study of the social sciences the national focus group on teaching of social sciences proposes that the following points be treated as basic for the revised syllabi. As pointed out by the Kothari Commission, the social science curriculum hitherto emphasized developmental issues. An epistemological shift suggested, so as accommodating the multiple ways of imagining the Indian nation. At the same time, Indian history should not be taught in isolation, and there should be reference to developments in other parts of the world. Political Science treats civil society as the sphere that produces sensitive, interrogative, deliberative, and transformative citizens. Gender concerns need to be addressed in terms of making the perspectives of women integral to the discussion of any historical event and contemporary concerns. This requires an epistemic shift from the patriarchal preconceptions which inform much of the social studies at present.

The concerns related to health of children and also those related to social aspects of changes and developments occurring in them during adolescence like changing children are introduced to universal values, in a manner appropriate for their age. Reference to day-to-day issues, e.g. the problem of getting water, can be discussed so that young students become aware of issues related to human dignity and rights.

➲ Planning the Curriculum

For the primary grades, the natural and the social environment will be explained as integral parts of languages and mathematics. The language used should be gender-sensitive. Teaching methods should be in a participative and discussion-oriented mode.

For Classes III to V, the subject Environment Studies (EVS) will be introduced. Children will also begin to be sensitized to social issues like poverty, child labour, illiteracy, caste and class inequalities in rural and urban areas. The content should reflect day-to-day experiences of children and their life- worlds.

At the upper primary stage, Social Studies will be added-drawing its content from history, geography, political science. History will take into account developments in different parts of India, with sections on events or developments in other parts of the world. Geography can help develop a balanced perspective related to issues concerning environment, resources and development at different levels, from local to global. In Political Science, the student will be introduced to formation and functioning of governments at local, state, and central levels and the democratic processes of participation. At the secondary stage, Social Sciences comprise history, geography, sociology, political science, and economics. The focus will be on Contemporary India and the learner will be initiated into a deeper understanding of the social and economic challenges facing the nation. In keeping with the epistemic shift proposed, these will be discussed form multiple perspectives, including those of the adivasi, dalit and disenfranchised populations. possible to the children‘s everyday lives. In History, India‘s freedom movement, and other aspects of its modern history can be studied, as well as significant developments in other parts of the world. History should help them discover processes of change and continuity in their world and to compare ways in which power and control were, and are exercised. Geography should be taught keeping in mind the need to inculcate in the child a critical appreciation for conservation and environmental concerns along with developmental issues. In Political Science, the focus should be on discussing the philosophical foundations that underlie the value-framework of the Indian Constitution, i.e. in-depth discussion of equality, liberty, justice, fraternity, dignity, plurality, and freedom from exploitation. The higher secondary stage is important as it offers a choice ofsubjects to the students. For some students, this stage may be the end of their formal education, leading to the world of work and employment; for others, the foundation for higher education.

They may choose either specialised academic courses or job-oriented vocational courses. A range of courses from social sciences and commerce may be offered and students may exercise their choice. Subjects need not be grouped into separate ‗streams‘, and students should have the freedom to opt for subjects or courses according to their need, interest, and aptitude. The social sciences will include disciplines like political science, geography, history, economics, sociology and psychology. Commerce may include business studies and accountancy.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Justify the inclusion principle for incorporating different learning experiences in NCF-2005.
2. Write down , in brief, the epistemological framework conceived of in NCF-2005

Chapter 4

Main menu are School and Classroom Environment

➲ **Main Areas renewal**

1. Availability of minimum infrastructure and material facilities , and support for planning a flexible daily routine , are critical for improved teacher performance .
2. A school culture that nurtures children‘s identities as ‗learners‘ enhances the potential and interests of each child.
3. Specific activities ensuring participation of all children.
4. The value of self-disciplining among learners through democratice functioning is as relevant as ever,
5. Participation of communitymembers in sharing knowledge and experience in a subject area helps in forging a partnership between school and community.
6. Reconceptualization of learning process in terms of (a) textbooks focused on elaboration of concepts, activities, problems and exercises encouraging reflective thinking and group work, (b) supplementary books, workbooks, etc based on fresh thinking and new perspectives, (c) multimedia and ICT as sources fortwo-way interaction rather than one-way reception, and (d) school library as an intellectual space for teachers, leraners and members of the community to deepen their knowledge and connect with the wider world.
7. Decentralized planning of school calander anddaily schedule and autonomy for teacher professionalism practice are basic creating a learning environment.

Chapter-5

Presents Systemic Reforms of the existing curriculum.

➲ **Main areas of reform**

1. Quality concern, a key feature of systematic systematic reform, implies the syystem‘s capacity to reform itself by enhancing in ability to remedy its own weakness and to develop new capabilities.
2. It is desirable to evolve a common school system for schooling of all sections and types of learners in the spirit of inclusion.
3. A broad framework for planning upwards, beginning with schools for identifying focus areas and subsequent consolidation at the cluster and block levels, could form a decentralized planning strategy at the district level.
4. Meaningful academic planning has to be done in a participatory manner by headmasters and

teachers.

5. Monitoring quality must be seen as a process of sustaining interaction with individual schools in terms of teaching-learning process.

6. Teacher education programme need to be reformed and strengthened so that the teacher can be an (a) encouraging, supportive and humane facilitator in teaching-learning situations to enable learners to discover their talents, to realise their physical and intellectual potentialities to the fullest, to develop character and desirable social and human- values to function as responsible citizens; and (b) active members of a group of persons who make conscious efforts for curricular renewal so that it is relevant to changing social needs and the personal needs of learners.

7. The NCF 2005 states : –Reformulated teacher education programmes that place thrust on the active involvement of learners to the process of knowledge construction, shared context of learning, teacher as a facilitator of knowledge construction, multidisciplinary nature of knowledge of teacher education, integration theory and practice dimensions, and management with issues and concerns of contemporary Indian society from a critical perspective."

8. Centrality of flangauge proficiency in teacher education and an integrated model of teacher education for strengtheningprofessionalization of teachers assume significance.

9. In-service teacher education needs to become a catalyst for change in school practice.

10. The Panchayati Raj system should be strengthened by evolving a mechanism to regulate the functioning of parallel bodies at the village level so that democratic participation in development can be realised.

11. Reducing stress and enhancing success in examinations necessitate : (a) a shift away from content-based testing to problem solving skills and understanding, (b) a shift towards shorter examinations, (c) an examination with flexible time limit, and (d) setting up a single nodal agency for coordinating the design and conduct of entire examinations.

12. Institutionalization of work centered education as an integrated part of the curriculum from the preprimary to the +2 stage is expected.

13. Vocational Education and Training (VET) needs to be conceived and implemented in a mission mode, involving the establishment of separate VET centers.

14. Availability of multiple textbooks to widen teacher‘s choice and provide for diversity in

children‘s needs and interests.

15. Sharing of teaching experiences and diverse classroom practices to generate anew ideas that facilitate innovation and experimentation.

Development of syllabi, textbooks and teaching-learningresources could be carried out in a decentraized and participatory manner involvingteachers, experts from universities, NGOs and teachers‘ organization.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Mention curriculum sites and learning resources to be used in creating learning environments while transacting NCF-2005.
2. State three reforms are needed for realization of the aims of the NCF- 2005.

Unit – 3

Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (NCTE)

4.3.1 : CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK FOR QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION

Introduction

Reforms in school education and teacher education are inseparable. These two dimensions of total education systems are interrelated and interdependent. However, during the last sixty years since independence, efforts in reform in teacher education have been articulated in the following six dimensions :

1. Conceptual consideration
2. Curriculum framework
3. Modes of transaction
4. Practice component
5. Evaluation component
6. Innovative efforts.

Another new dimension in teacher education since 1986 National Education Policy and POA, 1992 is continuous life long learning for all teachers in the country.

The systematic effort in curriculum framework for teachers was first initiated in 1978 by the National Council for Teacher Education as a non-statutory body located in the in the Teacher Education Department of NCERT. This body again formulated new curriculum framework for teacher education in 1988. Among others besides this body, the National Commission on Teachers -1 (1983-1985), the Curriculum Center in Education sponsored by the University Grants Commission (1983-85) were also early key players. On the policy level, National Policy on Education, 1968,1985, 1992 and the Draft Policy on Education, 1979 and the Eight Five Year Plan are the main initiators of renewal of teacher education curriculum in this country. Side by side, teacher education programmes initiated in institutions like Jamia Millia Islamia, Gujarat Vidyapith, Visva Bharati, Gandhigram, Lok Bharti, Kashi Vidyapith, etc attempted to inject new look and innovative dimensions. These programmes varied widely but each of them attempted to close gap between knowledge and prcatice, instituion and school classroom, etc.

The Curriculum Framework : 1978 [tttled as *Teacher Education Curriculum - a Framework* (1978)] gave main thrust on three aspects : pedagogic theory, working with community, and content- cum-mehodology and practice teaching, including practical work. It defined and formulated objectives of teacher education separately for different stages of education so as to facilitate organization of curriculum transaction modes and use of appropriate techniques for evaluating student teachers‘ learning outcomes and professional performance under training. The framework has an explicit skill- based, _task-oriented‘

approach. However, the *Policy Perspective in Teacher Education : Critique and Documentation* published by NCTE (1998) has marked this framework to adopt a ***"deductive approach"*** towards designing the curriculum and its transaction (p.61).

The Curriculum Framework : 1988 *has been titled as National Curriculum for Elementary and Secondary Education - a Framework* brought out by the NCERT in 1988. It was a renewal venture after NPE ,1986 This was rather a more systematic venture supported by efforts of two working groups - Revitalization and Modernisation of Pre-service Teacher Education and In-service Teacher Education. Framework -1988 laid stress on a few principles, one such may be articulated in the statement : —Teacher education programmes for the different levels should share a common design with a built-in provision for horizontal and vertical mobility to break the isolation from stage to stage".

Three major components suggested by Framework-1988 were :

- Foundation courses
- Stage relevant specialization
- Field work or practicum emphasizing application of theory in classroom teaching and other practical activities.

This document is a different one ; it has followed an ***"eclectic approach"*** due to multiplicity of theoretical perspectives of teacher education. This means teacher education draws inputs form different disciplines like psychology, sociology, history, communication science, and philosophy, all cognate to education. The above stated NCATE published *„Critique"* very clearly maintains —Framework (1988) considers it possible to evolve an effective curriculum and its transaction modes, in several innovative approaches and practices, based on teacher educators' own experience and reflection , are clearly formulated and given a fair trial." (p.61) From the point of view of historical development of teacher education this framework deserves merit but this document has not been given life to survive as the national responsibility was entrusted to National Council for Teacher Education which culminated in an Act of Parliament in 1993. But much of its ideas have been accepted in the development of later documents on teacher education curriculum.

Curriculum Development Centre in Education : Framework is the product of UGC initiated Curriculum Development Centre established in the Department of Education, Kerala University in 1990. It highlights knowledge base component of teacher education on disciplines cognate to education. The Framework includes three major components, namely, *theory, practice and internship.* One special feature of this Framework is in the curricular organization of _optional subjects' Two optional groups have to be studied, each of these optional groups embrace *methods of teaching and pedagogical analysis.* This curriculum work considers that pedagogy seems to have some generalised theoretical knowledge and corresponding know-how which cuts across the teaching of specific subjects at any stage of education. Secondly, the pedagogical components mentioned above serve as a basis for the formulation of pedagogy in a subject - specific manner. Whatsoever be the meaning and use of pedagogy, this curriculum framework has

attempted to look teaching from science - end, that is instructional science which has been assumed to be a rich knowledge - base for capacity building of teachers. Further, the Curriculum Development Centre in Education Framework (1990) has emphasized restructuring the existing programme of teacher education in terms of its substance and duration on the basis of reflections by expert committee, which is more pedagogic in nature andorientation. This document has experienced a similar fate as was experienced by the 1988 Framework.

➲ **Curriculum Framedwork for Quality Teacher Education : 1998[NCTE]**

Then came the age of the National Council for Teacher Education Act 1993. NCTE Act provides for the establishment of a National Council for Teacher Educatin with a view to achieving planned and coordinated development and control of teacher education system throughout the country.

Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education : 1998[NCTE] is the first published national document on teacher education. Its hideen agenda is competecy-based and commitment oriented teachers in the country for the 21st century. It is the cummulative and interactive outcomes of all earlier ventures on teacher education in this country. This framework has been formulated on the basis of outcomes emerged in the several national seminars, workshops and discussions .

NCTE came as a statutory body by the Act of Parliament in 1995. Consequently , NCTE began the process of nation-wide consultations to evolve a strategy todevelop a new curriculum framework on teacher education. After several consultations, a discussion document was developed and published in September 1996. The discussion document was an outcome of a strategy which envisaged intensive national level consultations with institutions of teacher education, eminent teacher educators, teachers and educationists. The foremost consideration in preparing the document was to take into cognizance the diversity in the then teacher education systems at that time and to prepare a curriculum document that would be useful to all types of teacher education programmes. The national obligation of the document was the national theme and aim of reorganization and restructuring teacher education in India in the 21st. Century.

➲ **Structure of the Curriculum Framedwork for Quality Teacher Education : 1998**

This framework has been presented in Eight Chapters . A summary of the contents of this document may be helpful to observe and analyse what kinds of curricular work has been there in.

◎**Chapter - One**

CONTEXT AND CONCERNS

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Scenario of teacher education

1.3 Constitutional goals

1.4 Teacher education and problems of the nation

4.3 Distance education

◎ **Chapter - Five**

PREPARATION FOR TEACHERS FOR STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Objectives

5.3 Curriculum framework

5.4 Teachers for the gifted

◎ **Chapter - Six**

EDUCATION OF TEACHERS FOR PGYSICAL EDUCATION

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Physical education as an integral part of teacher education

6.3 Teachers for physical education at the elementary stage

6.4 Teachers of physical education at the secondary stage (B.P. Ed)

6.5 Teacher educators for physical education

◎**Chapter - Seven**

EDUCATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Existing system

7.3 Rationale and objectives

7.4 Evolving models of pre-service education of teacher educators

7.5 Curriculum framework

7.6 Strengthening the programmes

7.7 Thrust in in-service and continuing education

◎ **Chapter - Eight**

MANAGING THE SYSTEM

➲ **Annaysis of the Curriculum Framedwork for Quality Teacher Education : 1998**

With regard to Context and Concerns [Chpter-1] the curriculum framework has made analysis of some vital points upon which is has been erected and articulated step by step. These, according to curriculum development methodology, are not solid, rather conceptually deduced from earlier documents. Specifically, these are set as, for example, constitutional goals, contemporary scenario of teacher education, problems, both external and internal, and some critical concerns. Among many other factors and forces influencing teacher education, the curriculum workers considered the following critical concerns. These have been put as :

- gradual change -over from conventional programmes of teacher education to integrated courses to ensure greater professionalism ;

- increased duration of teacher education programmes to accommidate proper assimilation *(not integration*?) of emerging professional inputs;
- stage-specific theoretical and practicalcomponents, transactional strategies and evaluation;
- plans and programmes of teacher education to respond to the expected role performance of the teacher;
- flexible and pragmatic approach to plans and programmmes...;
- proper planning and orientation of education of teacher education [p.17]

Two important aspects of the curriculum workers are evolving a culture - *specific pedagogy and inseparability of pre-service and in-service teacher education.* The first has implication with respect to multi-cultural nature of Indian learners in one side and entrance of Vygotsky's social constructivism in educational discourse after late nineties of the last century, especially with the UNESCO concept of Education For All. The second issue is an important concern after NEP, 1986 which has advocated for continuous professional development of teachers in the light of capacity building of human resources development; keeping in mind the fast changing order of knowledge in information age.

Another issue in the curriculum framework may be related to competency and commitment of teachers as a professional group with unique characteristics of its own. The framework document puts : ―NCTEhas analysied the existing curriculum of teacher education from the point of view of competency areas. It has emerged that to enhance the quality of school education, equal emphasis needs to be given to competencies, commitment and willingness to perform." (p.19). In this aspect the earlier documents of NCTE have explicitly presented the R.H. Dave model of teacher education. Ten competency areas are contextual, conceptual, content, transactional, competency related to other educational activities, developing teaching-learning materials, evaluation, management, working with parents, with community and with other agencies. The six commitment areas are commitment to the learner, commitment to the society, commitment to the profession, commitment to attaining excellence for professional actions and commitment to basic values. Not only these, five performance areas have been identified, such as classroom performance, school level performance, performance in the out-of school activities, parents related performance and community related performance.

Thus, the curriculum framework has attempted to design a kind of teacher education curriculum what has formulated a three-dimensional grid and the whole of the curriculum phenomena must embrace all cells. Then the curriculum workers have tried to make a technical production of a teacher education curriculum.

With regard to pre-service (Chapter-2) teacher education curriculum framework document has developed a Teacher Profile on the basis of the Dave model pointed out earlier in this discussion. In the ―Teacher Profile' a teacher has been considered as an actor to act as a change agent for modernisation and development rightly engined by head, heart, hand, reflection and initiative. Next, it has developed ―General

Objectives' which have spelled out and articulated in numerous angles the constitutional goals but finally the ideas of capacity building and professionalism have been touched upon nicely. Subsequently, the framework has pondered over the _in-side' of the curriculum and has chalked out a boundary of it in a way of formulating.

Characteristics of Curriculum Framework as :

The perceived characteristics of the envisaged curriculum framework , would suggest that it :

- reflects the Indian heritage, acts as an instrument in the realisation of national goals and fulfills aspirations of the people;
- respond to the latest developments in the field of education ;
- establishes integration of theory and practice of education;
- provides multiple educational experience to teachers;
- enables teachers to experiment with new ideas;
- ensures inseparability of pre-service and in-service education of teachers;
- sets achievable goals for various stages of teachers education ;and
- provides for use of communication technology.

The whole framework has looked forward the total curriculum proper in separate presentations as given below.

1. Pre-service Teacher Education - Early Childhood Stage, Elementary Stage, Primary Stage, Secondary Stage, Senior Secondary Stage (Academic), Senior Secondary (Vocational). [pp 26-78]
2. In-service Teacher Education-Different Models [pp.79-91]
3. Teacher Preparation for Alternative Systems of Education -Non-formal, Adult, and Distance Education [pp.92-100]
4. Preparation for Teachers for Students with Special Needs including Gifted [pp.101-108]
5. Education of Teacher for Physical Education- Elementary Stage, Secondary Stage and Post - Graduate Course (M.P.Ed.) pp. 109-118]
6. Education for Teacher Educators - Pre-service with variety of courses like M.Ed. (Primary), M.Ed. (Elementary), M.Ed. (Secondary and Senior Secondary),M.Ed. (Special Eeducation), M.Ed. (Distance Education), M.Ed. (Physical Education), and In-service and Continuing Education. [pp.119-132]

Curriculum Framework for each component, with some exceptions, includes framework of subjects or areas to be studied and also rationales behind inclusion of those areas of studies. For example, curriulum framework for Teacher Education for Secondary Stage includes :

1. *Theory*
2. *Optional Courses,*
3. *Teaching including Pedagogical analysis of two school teaching subjects*
4. *Practical Work* including Internship and school experience, Field work, Community - based activities, Work education, Sessional/Practical work, Physical education , Aesthetic development programmes and activities and Action research.

Up to this the curriculum framework has tilted towards a liberal view of teacher education. It goes to begin with the emerging issues and concerns in education in India - a big picture or the mega component of teachers professional life and activities. This tendency is actually observed in earlier frameworks and we generally possess those ideas. But one important thing to point out that NCTE being an official monitor of Indian teacher education panorama, has given some vital direction that the *"theory"*component should be limited to 40% of the programme space (30% for Early Childhood Stage). The curriculum team asserts that" theoretical component is essential for understanding the learner, the community and the society (not understanding the identity or self as teacher), the internal and external forces impinging upon the school and the internal and external variables operating upon the learner. The inclusion of Courses on - Health and Physical Education,Education of Children with Special Needs has been made for accommodating this point of view in the Framework."[pp. 37-38]. The framework has thought of narrowing the gap between theory and practice and suggested action research in the curricular load.

This framework has gone to highlight some important points relating to ***Transacting the Curriculum*** for each of the stage-specific sub-frameworks. It has generally voiced for using ―interactive, participative and activity -oriented approach" invariably more at the earlier stage of education and suggested ―Interactive teaching, co-operative teaching - learning, self-discovery approaches" for secondary stage and eventually advocated to briar more linkage to lecture method. The theoretical components of the curriculum needs to be transacted by lecture-discussion, self-study approach, seminar, media supported teaching, tutorial and through practical activities in both in-side and out-side of the institutions.

Practice Teaching has been given 20% weightage in the total programme. It is generally said that the weakest area of Indian teacher education. This framework has attempted to bring in some additional input in the practice teaching component . In this framework, pedagogical analysis of school subjects (20% weightage) has been thought of as an essential component of practice teaching. This is looked as curriculum knowledge and competency of a teacher in making. It is the sign of integration of subject knowledge and how to instruct. By way of pedagogical analysis, a student teacher, the framework conceives, becomes conversant with the objectives (in behavioral terms) of teaching a unit /topic, the entry behavior of pupils, classroom management (including time and media) and evaluation strategies need to be employed. In this way it will be helpful to discriminate between an effective teacher form one who is not so. Thus, in total 40% of total curricular load has been suggested in the area of instructional activities.

Practicum or practical activities have been another important area of the curriculum. The framework suggests to give 20% weightage on this component. The activities include school experiences, work education, school community integrative activities, action research projects and other educational activities -

all directed towards development of the personality and professionalism of student teachers. These activities need to spreaded and set all through the teacher education programme. This implies that the framework envisages to expand learning zone of student - teacher, not confined within the training institution.

In the matter of ***Evaluation*** the framework suggests both formative and summative approaches, both survey and diagnostic, both criterion-referenced and norm-referenced testing, and also both testing and non-testing modalities of evaluation. Finally, it suggests use of comprehensive and continuous evaluation .

The framework puts : ―Efforts need to be directed towards developing in the teacher trainee certain competencies and skills which would be helpful in the shaping of the teacher for an effective role to play. It is essentially directed towards capacity building which may embrace, among other competencies , managerial skills, organizational efficiency, leadership skills, democratic attitudes, innovative and creative abilities, etc." [p.55]. The framework envisages that work education and value education need to be another curriculum dimensions.

In order to make this story short, it is satisfying that the Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (1998, NCTE) has gone in most essential components of the total teacher education system including pre-service and in-service; general education and other forms of education and even has touched upon education for the teacher educators. This seems a most comprehensive curriculum framework on teacher education ever formulated in India.

Keeing in mind the regional and university - level variations, this framework has suggested two general types of teacher education courses; General and Integrataed It has also suggested eligibility criteria for each type of course. The following Table may be helpful to understand the point.

General Course [p.77]

Level	**Eligibility**	**Duration**
Pre-promary	10+2	2 years
Primary	10+2	2 years
Elementary	Graduate	2 years
Secondary	Gradiaute (pass)	2 years
Senior Secondary	Graduate with fisr degree in education	2 years
M.Ed (General)	Graduate with first degree in education	1 year
M.Ed. (Tecaher Education)	Post Graduate with first degree in education	1 year

Integrated Course [p.77]

Level	Eligibility	Duration
Pre-primary	10	4 years
Primary	10	4 years
Elementary	10	4 years
Secondary	10+2	4/5 years

Regarding duration of the courses, especially for teacher at secondary and above levels, has been witnessed some variations too. Subsequently, for teachers of secondary and/or senior secondary stage one-year duration has been accepted. Taking into cognizance of several curricular components the total days of about 200 have been suggested.

This Curriculum Framework has got official momentum as NCTE is the key national monitor of teacher education in this country.

➲ **Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education -2004**

Consequent to the development of National Curriculum Framework for School Education -2000 national debate emerged on various aspects of school education. Some of its related issues also came up for discussion in the Parliament and a debate in the Supreme Court of India. In its landmark judgment delivered on 12th. September, 2002, the Hon'ble Supreme Court endorsed the approach of the NCERT.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the innovative ideas pointed out in the National Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education -1998.
2. To what extent has the above mentioned curriculum framework been successful in injecting in it the conception of life long teacher education ?
   Give reasons.
3. Identify some weakenesses of the above mentioned curriculum framework.

The NCERT, then ,developed detailed syllabi and new curricular materials for all the stages of schooling. As a result NCERT designed and developed this curriculum framework. Now it has been inoerative after the development of the National Curriculum Framework-2005.

Meanwhile NCTE in collaboration with other bodies concerned has attempted to formulate another draft curriculum framework for teacher education, has circulated in for wide criticisms and suggestions but the final curriculum is yet to come.

NCTE Draft Curriculum: Salient Features

The _framework' of the teacher education curriculum has accepted _flexibility' and _integration' as its base points for much of the further discussion in the document. Flexibility is referred to as: (i) mobility of

entry and exit of a teacher-trainee at different stages of teacher-preparation and also mobility from one discipline to the other; (ii) flexibility for relevance — to develop ‗teacher education modules' catering to the needs of the states and the local communities within, each State; and (iii) flexibility with regard to the continuity between pre-service and in-service education of the teacher. The envisaged teacher education curriculum is expected to bring about integration and interdisciplinary among theory courses and this integrated knowledge would pave the way to bring about the required changes in the teaching skills or methodology and in the attitudes in the areas of work-experience, health, physical and recreational education, and social service.

The national goals of education are achieved through the cumulative efforts of teachers at all stages— from the pre-primary to the college. This implies a teacher education curriculum model which would run similar for the different stages with common components, though providing for certain modifications as per the needs of a given stage. In the broader sense, the teacher education curriculum would comprise (i) **Pedagogical Theory**, (ii) **Working with the Community**, and (iii**) Content-cum-Methodology of Teaching School Subjects and Practice Teaching**. The draft curriculum proposes weightage to different components as follows: Pedagogical Theory: 20 per cent; working with the Community: 20 per cent: and Content-cum-Methodology and Practice. Teaching including Related Practical Work: 60 per cent. This is for pre-primary, primary, and secondary teacher education stages. In the case of higher secondary and college stages, the suggested weightages are 30 per cent, 20 per cent and 50 per cent respectively, giving slightly greater weightage to pedagogical inputs. The guidelines for the implementation of the proposed curriculum are also provided in the draft.

For developing pedagogical courses, separate and special consideration may be given to the local needs and conditions. The courses would generally draw their contents from different natural and social sciences which could provide the trainee with fundamental knowledge and understanding of our social structure and its evolution through ages, national goals, human nature, physical, mental, emotional and social growth and development of the children from neonate to adult age, learning, memory, attitudes, human relations, etc. The draft curriculum suggests a core course ―Teacher Education in Emerging Indian society" at all stages of teacher education. This is intended to developan understanding of (teacher's) obligations to the nation in general and to the community in particular. It also suggests another core course ―Core Training Programme", which emphasizes common techniques of teaching at all stages of teacher education and is intended to develop essential skills in the trainees. In addition, if suggests special courses to be designed in accordance with the special needs at each stage.

While the pedagogical theory has to clearly reflect our national ideology and the problems and issues faced by our society, it is further necessary that the intending teachers should be thoroughly familiarized with their complex socio-economic environment through actual work situations in society. The rationale for introducing ―Working with the Community" in the teacher education programme is two-fold. Firstly, theoretical knowledge based on the pedagogical courses needs to be reinforced and validated by means of actual life situations in community. Secondly, that only through practical training based on participation in community work, could a trainee develop his insight into his sensitivity to and attitude towards common social problems. The draft curriculum further assumes that work situations be ‗so exploited as to derive the maximum benefits for the new areas of work- experience, moral-education, art-education, health, physical

and recreational education, vocationalisation and environmental studies‘.

The organization of ―Content-cum-Methodology and Practice Teaching Including Related Practical Work” envisages that the entire teacher education curriculum should become task-oriented. This programme is to be organized, based oh the following comprehensive skills: (i) intellectual skills related to content and methods, (ii) psycho-motor skills for teaching, and (iii) skills conducive to good human relations for maintaining social climate in the classroom. Evidently, the first essential in this regard seems to be integrating different subjects by way of developing the disciplinary units. This will not only help acquisition of skills referred to but will do so in less time and simultaneously make teaching more meaningful.

The method-courses are generally criticized for lack of both proper content as well as appropriate techniques. However, the method aspect of the existing teacher education programme does not pose serious problems in providing general guidelines for its effective reorganization. The task-oriented teacher education approach envisages a considerable reduction in the theory portions of the method courses. The NCTE document refers to them as training programmes rather than courses. It envisages‘ package programmes‘ both in respect of core training programme as well as special training programme. This would mean that skills in respect of both the Core Training Programme and the

Special Training Programme will have to be identified as a starting point. It is to be noted that core skills are those which are expected of every teacher in the teaching profession, regardless of the academic background and the areas of specialization. Specific skills, on the other hand, are those which are concerned with teaching different subjects. The second important task after identifying the skills is to develop the envisaged training programme package. This is essentially concerned with evolving modalities for materialising the skills aimed at.

It is to be noted that since practice-teaching is considered an integral part of teacher-education, the training programme packages in question also include practice-teaching as an integral part of the packages. The Core Training Programme may thus be organized in the beginning of the teacher education programme, simultaneously with instruction in pedagogical subjects. The ―package‘ may include description and demonstration of particular skills followed by practice of same skills by each trainee under stimulated conditions. The trainee‘s practice-session will be based on mini-lesson plans on each of the course-skills, in the light of the feedback, the trainees will replan their lessons aimed again at strengthening the core skills. After acquiring core skills the special skills, (a« per package) pertaining to two of the school subjects, have to be inculcated. It is to be borne in mind that integration of content, theory for methodology, and practice should permeate the entire web of activities.

Special training programme is also concerned with experience and Socially Useful Productive Work. Since work experience (SUPW) has been included in the school-curriculum, it is logical to have it as an integral part of teacher-education. The NCTE ―Framework‘ recommends four or five areas of work experience out of which each trainee may opt for any two. Organization of work experience/SUPW is intended to develop skills of organization among the trainees in school situation and to develop proper attitudes and skills for taking up such a work. It is to be noted that no special teacher-educator is to be appointed specifically for work-experience. In fact, all members of the teacher training institutions have to be involved in such a task. In imparting this training, the theoretical knowledge has to be integrated with

practical work. The NCTE document envisages preparation of lesson-plans for developing the necessary knowledge and skill, demonstration of methodology by the teacher educator and practice by the trainees under stimulated or real conditions.

Again, the Special Training Programme is also concerned with health, physical education and recreational facilities. Like in work experience/SUPW, the knowledge and skills in this area too are essentially intended to enable pupil-teachers to organize activities in schools. Related practical workrefers to concrete meaningful work in respect of theory and methodology of subjects of specialization including evaluation. This may include preparation and use of instructional aids, constructing and using achievement-tests, administering, scoring and interpreting standardized tests. Each institution may draw a list of such activities as may be suited to the requirements of the community and needs of trainees with reference to their subjects of specialization.

Strategies and Emphases in Improving Teacher Education Curriculum

While the NCTE framework on teacher education curriculum could serve as a guide for this purpose, it may not be right to think of it as the last word in teacher-education. Even while the universities and teacher training institutions are preparing to consider implementation of the document, objections have been raised by certain quarters on the proposed reform. The NCTE framework is, thus, only a guideline for consideration by the training institutions. It may, however, be noted that any idea of bringing about a change in the curriculum gives place to a volley of questions. What sort of a theoretical orientation do the trainees need? How should the practice-teaching and other practical work be organized? How should the new structure be implemented? These are some of the accompanying questions that emerge.

It is believed that the theoretical aspects that should go into the curriculum can be broadly classified into core subjects and special subjects. The former would include those which every teacher- trainee should necessarily know and study. These are those which are considered to be highly essential so as to ensure mastery over the teaching process. The cultural aspects of the community .in „which the teacher works and the related social, geographical and other aspects also influence the teaching process to a certain extent. Hence the core subjects could be considered to contain the knowledge of the cultural and social aspects of a given community.

The content and methodology courses in teacher-education should be integrated. This is not an easy task, however. The NCTE document has strongly recommended that the new curricula of teaching various subjects should be thoroughly integrated and the NCERT has provided guidelines for developing such an integrated curriculum.

The integrated _content-cum-methodology‘ curriculum would not only help reduce the domination of theory-courses _in teacher-education but also strengthen the practical skills necessary in the art and science of teaching. However, the purpose will be defeated if the content selected did not correspond to the content relevant at school stage or if content and methodology figured separately in the course-structure.

In the integrated structure, content should become part and parcel of the teaching process. At the same time, it should be a new content which needs to be taught to the student-teachers as a part of the teacher education curriculum so that it may help him to understand the teaching of each subject better and make him

fully conversant with the major concepts of the subject matter he is supposed to handle when he goes to the school as a teacher. This would mean identifying the essential content for the intending teacher, which may be both remedial in nature and desirable for his enrichment, A thorough content-analysis of the textual materials will be required so as to identify the specific concepts to be fully understood by the trainees. This would mean that the type and quantum of content to be learnt would vary from trainee to trainee. It makes the task complicated but the challenge has to be met. Not only that, the content so identified has to be further integrated with methodology. In the context of this type of content, objectives will have to be framed at various levels of learning, suitable lesson-plans prepared (to be executed in micro and live situations), and evaluation-devices including tests such as unit-tests (based on a variety of objective type items‘ constructed and utilized.

Assessment and Teacher Education Curriculum

Taking a Gestalt view of all that is said about teacher education curriculum, certain things show up as supplementary to make it operate effectively. As a teacher is to be groomed day in and day out of the training programme, it becomes necessary that each act of the trainee has to be monitored by the teacher-educator. This monitoring serves two purposes, one of guidance and feedback, and the other of evaluation. The best type of assessment in the teacher training programme could thus be seen as the internal assessment. It is in fact to be a process-oriented assessment rather than a final product-oriented assessment. But it should be kept in mind that the monitoring of the trainee‘s work should have its primary objective to help the trainee learn and improve in his work, rather than to assign some marks or grade. The whole training programme should be geared and modeled to fit into the system of internal assessment.

Summing up, a curriculum howsoever reformed, can never be final in its form. It is a continuous process of thinking, modifying and evaluating. New ideas do emerge as a result of thinking, discussion and experimentation. This seems to be the way for finding solutions to oft stated maladies associated with the teacher education curriculum.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the main renewal approach envisaged in the Draft NCTE Teacher Education Curriculum.

Unit - 4

Curriculum framework for higher education (UGC)

4.4.1 : U.G.C. CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

Some critical issues in the aspect are :

1. For promoting ICTin curriculum framework UGCwill be providing inputs for use of ICT in the higher education domain for development of technical standards.
2. To ensure latest technologies available for faculty, staff and students of higher education (example - mobility, wireless, e-learning and collaboration). This type of collaboration Center is planned to be operated by June, 2005.
3. UGCsuggested to deploy wireless infrastructure in Universities and Colleges.
4. UGC with a collaborative practice achieving to foster the spirit of research and development in mutually agreed areas (for example Materials Science, VLSI design) and share best practices to create a higher adoption rate. IT will share such best known methods through special forums which may be planned once every quarter or at a mutually agreed frequency.
5. Expose key faculty from universities as well as the UGC Academic Staff Colleges to participate in the Curriculum Development Workshops so that faculty can go back and change curriculum in their respective universities.
6. UGC will work in conjunction with others to come out with a framework for use of ICT in the higher education domain and in development of data and technical standards.
7. UGC will assist to setup the Innovation Center and will reference it to key stakeholders in the Universities and Colleges to utilize this platform effectively.
8. UGC will assist to deliver fifty wireless pilots in Universities and Colleges effectively. UGC will also work towards improved network resources within the Higher Education system and collaborate systematically plan for such deployments on a larger scale.
9. UGC will assist in conducting the Best Known Methods sessions on a regular basis and invite identified Universities and Colleges to these forums.
10. UGC will effectively inform key stakeholders within Higher Education system of special programs on hardware, connectivity, software and training offerings.
11. UGC will subscribe to Technology @ Intel journals, free of cost, and provide UGC Infonet as the mechanism to deliver it to the faculty and student community across India.
12. UGC will identify key faculty for participation in Intel Curriculum Development Workshops

and inform the participants with regular updates or mailers.

13. UGC will monitor the efficacy of IT effectiveness and deployment and work with Intel to enhance the reach and scale out through periodic updates.

14. UGC will form a core team for each of the identified project.

PRODUCTIVE AND OUTCOME - BASED APPROACHES

According to the U.G.C. curriculum frame work it is highlighted that education will be gradually productive in nature and outcome based.

These approaches are certainly not new to any institutions. It is unthinkable that teaching staff have never considered the intended outcomes to be achieved by students before designing the curriculum or assessment methods of any given programme. Outcome-based approaches therefore not about creating an alternative‘ scheme but they build on and make the existing system better.

A number of challenges can be anticipated in the early stages of implementation, and experience in other jurisdictions shows that there are likely debates on the merits of implementing outcomebased approaches, and the best strategies for adoption. The institutions and the UGC need to involve stakeholders early and often. We need to discuss with the teaching staff, students, employers and the general public - with the merits of outcome-based approaches thrashed out in open dialogue.

UGC‘s Motives

The goal is simple and straightforward - improvement and enhancement in student learning and teaching quality.

An outcome-based approach to student learning is a student-centered approach. Placing the emphasis on learning outcomes helps institutions focus their education effort on what that effort is meant to achieve, and itself leads to better teaching and learning. It facilitates institutions‘ academic planning by placing students‘ interest at the forefront. This is particularly relevant when all institutions are planning major changes in their curricula .Clear understanding and articulation of what it is intended that students should achieve, facilitates the design of an effective curriculum and appropriate assessments to measure achievement, and to plan the learning process for individual students.

The better prepared institutions have curriculum development processes that are totally or partially outcomes based; constructive alignment of: teaching and learning processes and assessments, with outcomes; elaborate student and staff feedback systems; an understanding that outcomes assessment is not about examinations; strategies based on evidence; and benchmarking against self-selected peers outside the institution. There is also an important recognition that this is not a paper exercise - documentation is important, but it is vital to anchor the process in real student and teacher work. We still have a long way to

go, but we have a good foundation.

Most importantly, all institutions accept the need for broad-based, participatory, and consensus building processes in curriculum. Institutions concur that members of staff should be involved early and often for this to be a success. There needs to be extensive buy-in across the faculties, and involvement in the planning stages.

Building consensus and rapport is certainly essential. Another element is to reflect on the existing curriculum and identify what has already been done. It is surprised to find that a platform has already been quietly built up. Also, it is inherently easier to implement outcome-based approaches in certain academic disciplines, such as professional programmes. Outcome-based approaches may be difficult to comprehend in the abstract. That is why we need early victories to spark more success, and visible results so that others will follow. We should therefore be open to using an experimental approach, involving the use of pilot programmes.

In fact UGC does not have any clearly articulated curriculum framework, as Universities are responsible for this task. But it gives suggestions from time to time to the Universities regarding general policy and principles to be adopted.

It will be amply clear from the above that the action/initiatives taken by the NECRT and UGC in the fields of school and higher education sectors have been in pursuance of and within the parameters of the National Policy on Education with a view to bringing about quality upgradation and meeting emerging challenges.

LET US SUM UP

We have learnt already various aspects of curriculum studies in the Unit . To put these in order, we have been acquainted with some basic elements of curriculum studies what curriculum workers usually performed for analysing the explicit as well as implicitthoughts, rationales, underpinning and reflection lying in the curriculum document . Or what were the questions that have made the curriculum workers to put efforts in developing a curriculum or for renewal of an existing curriculum so that it becomes more mature and effective in realising the new aims evolved from new demands and changes in the curriculum perspectives. Moreover , we have been made known the general elements of a curriculum framework as a matter of technical skills building . Gradually , we have made a big cognitive journey curriculum studies to three curriculum framework developed and produced by NCERT, NCTE and UGC , the three national key players of our national system of school education, teacher education and higher education (non-technical) respectively. We have noted that each of the above three curriculum frameworks demonstrate collaborative or team work under the leadership of the national key players . Each curriculum framework has been guided by the general aims of education pertained to each of the three systems of education . Each of these efforts are basically for curriculum renewal. Finally, each one is envisaged to realise the spirit of national system of education.

From the technical perspectives of curriculum studies , it seems that each framework has attempted to

set goals but at times the curricular thinking seems not adequate for realising the goals. At some instances the application of system approach to curriculum framework building seems piecemeal . The signs of the official demands- and -supply and keeping a balalnce in between them has been discernible.

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. NCERT(2005) : National Curriculum Framework -2005 . New Delhi : NCERT
2. NCTE(1998) : Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education . New Delhi : NCTE
3. NCTE (1998) : Policy Perspectives in f Teacher Education : Critique and Documentation . New Delhi : NCTE
4. Posner ,GJ. (1995). Analyzing the Curriculum . New York: McGraw-Hill
5. Web-sites : NCERT, NCTE and UGC

ASSIGNMENTS

- Prepare an explanatory note on Curriculum Studies
- Discuss the common elements of a curriculum framework with suitable examples
- Critically discuss the salient features of National Curriculum Framework - 2005 for school education .
- State the fundamental questions that have been taken in developing the National Curriculum Framework-2005 and show how those questions have been answered by the curriculum workers of that framework
- Discuss various aspects of ‗Learning and Knowledge' as reflected in the National Curriculum Framework-2005
- Discuss the main areas of learning experiences that have been envisaged in the National Curriculum Framework-2005.
- Show your acquaintance with the ‗systematic reforms' advocated in the National Curriculum Framework . Do you think that those reforms are feasible? give your comments.
- Discuss the salient features of NCTE Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education.
- Critically analyze how far the NCTE Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education is feasible to harness a system of lifelong education for all teachers.
- Discuss the salient features of UGC Curriculum Framework.

Block – 5

Unit – 1

Curriculum Evaluation :Stage and need

INTRODUCTION

Curriculum evaluation, at the provincial level, involves making judgments about the effectiveness of provincially authorized curricula. It involves gathering information (the assessment phase) and making judgments or decisions based on the information collected (the evaluation phase), to determine how well the curriculum is performing. The principal reason for curriculum evaluation is to plan improvements to the curriculum. Such improvements might involve changes to the curriculum document and/or the provision of resources or in service to teachers. It is intended that curriculum evaluation be a shared, collaborative effort involving-all of the major education programme.

This Unit will give us some knowledge about these issues.

OBJECTIVES

After completion of studying this Unit you will be able to

- Understand concept and approaches of evaluating curriculum.
- Study different models of curriculum evaluation.
- Develop understanding about curriculum evaluation

5.1.1 : UNDERSTANDING CURRICULUM EVALUATION

Curruculum evaluation is preformed for judging the effectiveness of a given curriculum. Curriculum evaluation is a systematic and hence technical decision-making process for various purposes. According to Sanders ―Curriculum evaluation refers to the process of studying the merit of some aspects, or the whole of a curriculum. Depending on the way in which the term curriculum is defined, the focus or objects of curriculum evaluation could include curriculum and/or student needs, curriculum design, instuctional processes. Materials used in instruction, objectives for student outcomes, student progress through the curriculum, teacher effectiveness, the learning environment, curriculum policy, resource allotment, and the outcomes of instruction."

Thus, curriculum evaluation is a process for informing some ones who are concerned with the different aspects of curriculum for taking future decision about the worth or effectiveness of the curriculum. Posner, therefore, maintains, ―Evaluation for the purpose of informing decisions about a curriculum is aptly termed ‗curriculum evaluation'." He also states that as the definition of curriculum varies the meaning of the term curriculum evaluation also varies. If curriculum refers to a document such as a content outline, scope, and sequence, or syllabus, then curriculum evaluation might mean a judgment regarding the value or worth of

such a document. Is the document complete, internally consistent, well written and important directions are clearly articulated without any ambiguity? Does the document represent a curriculum that has sufficient depth and breadth and is well organized, regorous, and up to date? How can it be improved?

If curriculum, on the other hand, refers to the experiences of the student, then curriculum evaluation might mean a judgment about the value of the educational experiences afforded to the students. Are the experiences educational, challenging, and engaging? Are the experiences appropriate, wholesome, and safe for children of this particular age? Are students of different backgrounds treated equitably? How can the educational experiences be improved?

Further, for a definition of curriculum as learning objectives, curriculum evaluation might refer to the actual outcomes of educational process. For instance, what concepts, and skills do students learn in a particular course? How do the outcomes of this curriculum compare with those of a different curriculum, perhaps this one's predecessor? How well this times by an evaluator hired by the na- tional/state/university funding agents the project. The recommendations thus derived would help in future funding of the project.

These are only two approaches of curriculum evaluation. We shall learn them more details later on. Curriculum evaluation employs different methods. The methods may be use of questionnaires, interviews with teachers, content analyses of the materials. Comparisons of achievement test data for groups using different curricula, follow-up interviews of the passed out students and the case studies of classrooms, etc. Methods may also be norm-and criterion-referenced test data, clinical interviews, and professional coferences to identify strengths, weaknesses, problems, and concerns, each of these deliver enormous data for decision making.

Information Sources

Curriculum evaluation is a systematic process. The first step of curriculum evaluation is to identify any evaluation data (e.g., test scores), suggestions (e.g., questions) or instruments (e.g., scales) which would generally serve as the starting point. Some of these may be searched from research literature. If one can find any data, suggestions, or instruments specially associated with the curriculum, he/she must try to determine the purposes and roles that evaluation information is intended to serve.

In searching for evaluation suggestions and instruments one must look beyond the obvious sources, such as end-of-unit and end-of year tests. Besides tests, observation checklists, criteria for evaluating reports, and projects are occasionally used. Home work assignments, student projects, writing assignments, class work contained in the curriculum materials can serve evaluation as well as instruction functions. Student's opinions, and parent‘s suggestions, or even employers and other stakeholder‘s suggestions also serve as valuable information sources.

Relevant questions may be : What are the kinds of things you want to evaluate regarding the curriculum? How would you know if the curriculum were a success? What is supposed to occur in classroom, labs, or the fields when the curriculum is fully implemented and taught? Searching for the answers to these questions leads us to understand two concepts regarding curriculum evaluation (A) Outcomes-Based Evaluation and (B) Intrinsic Evaluation.

A. Outcomes-Based Evaluation

A curriculum has many aspects. When evaluation focuses on outcomes, it is called outcomes- based curriculum evaluation. This is sometimes called ―bottom-line ―or―payoff‟ (Scriven). Generally most evaluations focus on only those outcomes that reflect the curriculum‟s goals, and objectives, which are called the ―narrow‟ sense of outcomes-based evaluation. The typical question is: How well did the curriculum achieve what it intended to achieve? However, outcomes-based evaluation taken in broad sense evaluation look beyond the official curriculum‟s goals and objectives, and it provides information on both main effects and side effects of the curriculum (Posner and Rudnitsky, 1994). ―Main effects‟ are the major outcomes intended by the curriculum; while ―side effects‟ are the by-products produced inadvertently by the curriculum. Side effects include biases or distortions produced, by an overemphasis on one content orientation, principle of organization, teaching method or evaluation approach.

Further, curriculum has both long-term and short-term outcomes. Short term outcomes include what students remember and can do during and immediately after taking a course, teacher satisfaction with a curriculum, and community support for a curriculum, among others. Long-term outcomes include, among other things, what students remember and can do with their knowledge well after the details of the course are forgotten, student attitude towards the subject matter, and general support for the school generated by the curriculum. Curricula that produce impressive short-term test score results but leave little residue are not worth the substantial resources needed to implement them. The fact is that long-term results are difficult to determine in a timely manner, nevertheless data on long term outcomes are important to consider.

B. Intrinsic Evaluation

The term‟ intrinsic evaluation‟ is coined by Scriven (1967). He first introduced the term to characterize an approach to the evaluation of curriculum proposals and materials which focuses on their intrinsic nature, rather than their effects. He distinguishes between ―payoff‟ and ―intrinsic‟ evaluations .He uses a useful analogy: ―If you want to evaluate a tool, say an axe, you might study the design of the bit, the weight distribution, the steel alloy used, the grade of the hickory in the handle, etc; or you might just study the kind and speed of the cuts it makes in the hands of a good axman‟ This analogy reflects a conception of a curriculum as an instrument with features such as goals, content and teacher ―training requirements that are distinct from the curriculum‟s effects on students teachers and the community.

Stake (1967) made a similar kind of distinction between outcome evaluation data and other kinds of data he called ―antecedents‟ and ―transactions‟. Data related to the characteristics of students and teachers, state mandates, community expectations and available resources are antecedents. Data on antecedents are particularly useful in determining whether certain claims made by the curriculum are empirically supported. For instance, a curriculum may claim that it is appropriate for students with a broad range of abilities. Evaluating such a claim requires data on student ability or aptitude levels, i.e., data on an antecedent, in addition to comparative outcomes data on student achievement.

Whenever a student interacts with a teacher, coach, mentor, other students, instructional materials, etc ―transaction‟ occurs. Classroom discussion, individual conferences, homework problems and class work are also four of many examples of transaction. Data on transactions are particularly important in curriculum evaluation to explain why certain outcomes did or did not occur. Time allocated to various classroom activities , type and number of questions asked and answered, and the extent to which students were engaged in the activities might be data relevant to determining whether the curriculum was ever even implemented as intended. This sort of determination would be necessary in both formative and summative evaluations.

Data on transactions also give the evaluator information on the way the curriculum has functioned, the variety of ways, it has been implemented, and the possible pitfalls a teacher might face in using it. Some relevant questions: What are the potential problems are rough spots in its operation? What aspects have been crucial for its success? How has the curriculum been implemented? What have been tradeoffs?

Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation

Different evaluation criteria embrace different evaluation questions and methods. For example, whether students remember the major events in educational development in India after 1986 is quite a different question than whether students can interpret current events in context of SSA in West Bengal. Likewise methods for answering questions are very different. By identifying the evaluation questions and methods of each perspective on curriculum, we learn more about each perspective for use in curriculum analysis.

We may think of five perspectives for curriculum evaluation. These are: Traditional, Experiential, Behavioral, Structure of Discipline and Cognitive.

Traditional

A traditional curriculum, you know, emphasizes on recall of facts, mastery of basic skills, and inculcation of traditional values. The major evaluation questions, therefore, seek to measure whether the students have acquired the information, mastered the basic skills, and internalized the accepted values. Methods for answering the questions comprise comparison of standardized tests scores, answers given in classroom recitation, neatness and promptness in completing assignments, and ability and willingness to follow the teacher‘s directions. Evaluation is aimed at determining whether the accepted facts, skills, and values have been effectively transmitted

Experiential

The central purpose of experiential education, as said by Alkin (1942), is the continuing development of students through educative experiences. Evaluation questions seek to measure the broad range of both short- and long-term effects of experiential programmes on students. Besides, experiential educators are interested in the intrinsic quality of experiences students have. Methods used to evaluate experiential curricula and students in experiential programmes are found to vary widely. For example, the Eight -Year Study (Alkin, 1942) paved a new way for evaluation by providing a wide range of outcome measures embracing measures of both cognitive and affective outcomes as well as measures of personality traits. Further, Experience-based career education (EBCE) is probably the most comprehensive evaluated programme which was developed and field tested at the end of the seventies of the last century. Obviously, experiential curricula require both outcomes -based (effectiveness of programme) and intrinsic evaluation (quality of experience) approaches.

Behavioral

A behavioral curriculum considers performance of skills to be for bottom line. The major evaluation question is whether students have acquired the behaviors that the curriculum targeted. The method that objectively and quantitatively assesses behaviors is appropriate, including paper-pencil tests, observational checklists, and practical examinations. Criterion-referenced measures of student performance are preferred.

Structure of Discipline

A disciplinary perspective emphasizes the structure of academic disciplines. Evaluation seeks to measure the knowledge students acquire, the nature of inquiry in which students engage, and the conceptual structure of the content taught. Questions include whether students gain insight into the conceptual structure of the discipline and whether students engage in real inquiry. Methods include giving students problems to solve, data to interpret, and experiments to design. Congruence of the curriculum with the real inquiry in the discipline is the bottom line.

Cognitive

A cognitive perspective emphasizes students‘ understanding of basic concepts and development of thinking skills. Evaluation questions seek to measure whether students acquire basic concepts meaningfully and learn to solve non-routine problems. Methods include clinical interviews, analysis of student problem-solving efforts, including analysis of mistakes, and concept-mapping exercises. Determining what and how the individual thinks and understands is the ultimate aim of evaluation from a cognitive perspective.

5.1.2 : GENERAL STAGES OF CURRICULUM EVALUATION

There are of late various models or framework for curriculum evaluation .In fact each model instead of focusing on curriculum in its totality, selects some aspects of it and plans evaluation of that aspect. This feature is natural to happen as the researches on curriculum are outputs of different curriculum movements. However, from the perspective of the science and techniques of evaluation, we may include specific steps of curriculum evaluation as an essential step of curriculum development, implementation and also for future modifications is needed. We are now learning the essential steps.

Stages of Curriculum Evaluation

Stage	Evaluation Process
1. Goal specification	* To identify the desired changes which are prepared to be brought about the level of achievement of behavior patterns, cultural values, social forces, etc.
2. Planning	* To assess the feasibility of these in the programmes. * To examine the adequacy of objectives, contents and teaching-learning strategies and their sequencing, and of their reading and referene materials.
3. Validation	* To examine the appropriateness of the validation procedures adopted. * To assess the adequacy of the steps taken to collect evidence through observation, judgment and through ascertaining the views of the expert bodies, the fellow teachers and the students. * To examine if the information collected through these procedures is valid or not. * By selecting the sample, collecting evidence about the programme under various conditions and such as linking it with other classrooms or institutions.
4. Field Testing	* Techniques involved in its implementation. * Finding out reasons for changes in efficiency.
5. Regular Monitoring	* Suggesting remedies if needed.

The above stated five stages when executed in a single curriculum evaluation project by a team of evaluators, our evaluation leads to judge the effectiveness of a given curriculum as whole. But in practice, we very often go on to single aspects of the curriculum and consider any one of the five stages as appropriate for our task at hand. For, example, we can evaluate one aspect of the textbook such as its quality of illustrations, clarity of explanation, readability, sequencing of learning experiences or even adequacy of exercises. Therefore, before undertaking such an activity each of the components has to be looked into its own purposes.

5.1.2 : NEED FOR CURRICULUM EVALUATION

The needs for curriculum evaluation may be best understood if we ask curricular questions and seek their answers clearly. The questions may be linked to the following aspects.

1. Improving the existing curriculum and programme
2. Examining the impact of the programme developed a curriculum development process.
3. Reorganizing the existing programme
4. Overall validation of the programme
5. Collecting evidence for self-evaluation by the teacher.

Who Should Evaluate Curriculum

There is no single appropriate person or group who should be assigned the responsibility of curriculum evaluation. Responsibility depends upon (a) the purposes to be served by curriculum evaluation, (b) the availability of professional curriculum evaluators, (c) the credibility of an individual or group to those who are to be served by a curriculum evaluation, (d) consideration of conflict of interest for the curriculum evaluator, and (e) the placement of the curriculum evaluator within or outside the educational system. Curriculum evaluation should be responsive to the context of the curriculum evaluation.

If the purpose to be served by a curriculum evaluation is summative (i.e., a report to the public, a basis for determining curriculum policy, or a basis for decision to discontinue a major part of the curriculum, or make major revision in the curriculum), the curriculum evaluator is best selected from candidates who are independent of, and unaffected by, the object of the evaluation. The persons
involved are an external individual or a group.

On the other hand, if the purpose to be served by a curriculum evaluation is formative (i.e., to guide curriculum development, to identify weaknesses or needs in the curriculum or in students, to monitor curriculum processes so that adjustment can be guided), the curriculum evaluator is best selected from candidates who are close to the object of the evaluation and knowledgeable about the context in which it exists. This is often an individual or group that is internal to the educational system in which the evaluation is being done.

Payne (1974) suggests the following areas in which the curriculum evaluator should be competent.

1. Selecting information needs from programme planning for evaluation.
2. Developing a plan for evaluating a specified curriculum
3. Locating, reading and integrating relevant research, measurement, and evaluation literature.
4. Specifying evaluation objectives and database requirements in appropriate form(s).
5. Critically evaluating a given evaluation design or study.
6. Relating theoretical evaluation model and real-life experiences.
7. Relating input, transaction and outcome variables.
   Demonstrating appropriate interpersonal relationship skills in working with evaluation team and programme.
8. Differentiating advantages and disadvantages of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies.
9. Conducting systems, functions and task analysis.
10. Designing an effective measurement-management process.
11. Compiling a master evaluation system from several systems.
12. Describing evaluation design and analysis requirements for data processing.
13. Specifying the criteria for selection or development of evaluation instruments.
14. Applying appropriate data gathering procedures.
15. Applying appropriate data-analysis procedures.
16. Making a cost-benefit analysis of a given curriculum.
17. Using evaluation information to make decisions about curriculum.
18. Designing a programme planning budgeting system.
19. Administering the activities of an evaluation unit.
    Designing a system of data presentation that describes format, responsibilities, procedures, recipients and schedule.
20. Redesigning and refining evaluation methods when appropriate.

Over and above the above list may be supplemented with the following suggestions given by Sanders (1979)

(a) Describing the objects of evaluation- knowing what is being evaluated, what its limits are, what its important characteristics are, and being able to communicate the essence of objects to others.

(b) Describing the context of evaluation- knowing what factors surrounding the evaluation are salient in the effect that have or can have on the object and on the evaluation.

(c) Conceptualizing appropriate purposes for the evaluation -being able to state purposes clearly as a way of giving direction to the evaluation.

(d) Determining the value or merit in the object of the evaluation- being able to identify and justify criteria that will be used to prepare judgment or value statements about the object of the evaluation and then systematically applying those criteria.

(e) Maintaining ethical standards - demonstrating knowledge of proper professional behaviors.

Moreover a curriculum evaluator should have creditability .And also there shall be no conflict of interest on the part of the evaluator.

However, there are several sources where meaningful information can be collected regarding a given school curriculum. Major sources are: students, teachers, subject experts, curriculum experts, policy makers, community, drop-out sample, unemployers and entrepreneurs.

Importance of Curriculum Evaluation

The question is: Why do we need curriculum evaluation? The answer may be formulated in the following manner.

- To develop new curriculum
- To review a curriculum under implementation
- To remove ‗dead wood' and update an existing curriculum.
- To find out the effectiveness of a curriculum
- To field test curriculum under process of development.

Organization of Curriculum Evaluation

Organizing for evaluation of curriculum can be either internal or external .Generally the organization for internal curriculum evaluation may be carried out either on a centralized organizational basis or on a decentralized organizational basis. The centralized form would require the formation of an evaluation unit or office or evaluation within the system that would serve curriculum evaluation requirements. While a decentralized for may be:

(i) Individuals within the system. Persons with evaluation and curriculum experts exist within the system and may be given reduced workloads so that they may take on evaluation responsibility. (ii) Ad hoc groups within the system, (iii) existing permanent groups within the system. and (iii) new continuing groups within the system.

The organizations for external curriculum evaluation may include

(i) Individuals outside the system
(j) Existing groups or agencies outside the system
(k) A consortium of educational institutions.

Limitations of Curriculum Evaluation

Curriculum evaluation is a complex process. It depends on the cooperation of individuals within the learning environment and others within the given learning environment but is concerned with effectiveness of a curriculum for any reason .Without their cooperation in designing and implementing the evaluation, there can be little likelihood of success.

Curriculum evaluations could be limited by the, complexity of measuring or describing certain behaviors or events. For example, classroom process and instructional experiences have different meanings for different students.

Curriculum decisions are often based on factors or information that is not a part of a curriculum evaluation study and the utility of curriculum evaluation is questioned. Curriculum evaluator must be aware that they are one part of the decision-making process and that their roles in decisionmaking are limited.

Criteria for evaluation curricula or specific aspects of a curriculum depend on rationales and expectations. Rationales and expectations depend on theories. The multiplicity of curriculum theories, expectations and rationales that exist create problems for the curriculum evaluator. The evaluator needs to select certain criteria on which to base the evaluation, while at the same time receiving different signals from legitimate recipients of the evaluation‘s findings.

Curriculum Validation

The question of validating curriculum involves considerations of whether the educational programme provides what is stated intent indicates .It relates quite directly to conception of validity (construct, context, content , external , internal) as treated in evaluation and research design literatures. Smith, et al (1957) identifies four procedures for curriculum developers to use in making such decisions: (a) judgment, (b) experimentation, (c) analysis, and (d) consensus. The validation questions must include epistemological and axiological dimensions. For example, those writers suggest the following criteria for selection of curricular content: (a) significance to an organized body of knowledge; (b) connectivity of use or the ―tests of survival”; (c) utility; (d) interest of learners; and (e) contribution to the growth and development of democratic society.

Unit – 2

Approach to Curriculum Evaluation and Model

5.2.1: APPROACHES TO CURRICULUMEVALUATION

Formative and Summative Approaches

Conceptually in assessment phase of curriculum evaluation, information will be gathered from students, teachers, and administrators. The information obtained from educators will indicate the degree to which the curriculum is being implemented, the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum, and the problems encountered in teaching it. The information from students will indicate how well they are achieving the intended objectives and will provide indications about their attitudes toward the area of study. Student information will be gathered through the use of a variety of strategies.

Honer,MSeriven(1967)coinedthetermsofsummativeandevaluativeevaluationincotextof Curriculum evaluation.

Summative Approach to Curriculum Evaluation

According to A.J. Nikto (1983), ―Summative evaluation describes judgments about the merits of an already completed programme, procedure or product.”

Summative evaluations comes at the end of a curriulum, it is designed to determine the extent to which the objectives of a curriculum has been achieved and is used primarily for assigning course status for the intended learning outcomes.

In the views of Ebel, R.L. and Frisbie (1986), ―Summative evaluation is conducted at the end of an instructional segment to determine if learning is sufficiently complete to warrant moving the learner to the next segment of instruction.”

The definition is concerned with the learning outcome related to the transactional phase of the curriculum.

Curriculum evaluation in summative approach can provide evidence that the programme is satisfactory and should be continued for next year‘s students or that student learning and learning altitudes are so negative that a new programme is needed.

Curriculum Evaluation in summative approach is done at the conclusion of the course and measures the extent to which students have attained the desired outcomes through the on going processes and other activities provided in the curriculum and stated in curriculum objectives.

A perusal of the above discussion how that the summative evaluation has the following chief elements :

1. There should be some strategies before summative evaluation.
2. The summative curriculum evaluation should be based on for the attainment of some objectives, selected for curriculum evaluation.
3. Summative evaluation is done at the end or completion of a particular course whose duration may vary from a semester to whole year.
4. Summative evaluation should check whether there has been any error or not. If the answer is yes, then what is the quantity and quality of the learning in relation to pre determined objectives.
5. Summative learning provides feedback to the classroom teacher for the success or failure of the course or and of the student.

Chief Characteristics of Summative Evaluation in Curriculum Context:

1. It lends to the use of well-defined evaluation designs.
2. It focuses on analysis.
3. It provides descriptive analysis.
4. It tends to stress local effects.
5. It is unobtrusive and non-reactive as far as possible.
6. It is concerned with broad range of issues.
7. Its instruments should be reliable and valid.

Formative Approach to Curriculum Evaluation

In the words of A.J. Nitko, (1983) "Formative evaluation is concerned with judgments made during the design and or development of a programme which are directed towards modifying, forming or otherwise improving the programme before it is completed."

Following are the implications of the above definitions for the classroom teacher:

1. Formative evaluation is done during an instructional-programme.
2. The instructional programme should aim at the attainment of certain objectives during the implementation of the programme also.
3. Formative evaluation is done to monitor learning and modifying the programme if needed before its completion.
4. Formative evaluation is for current students.

Characteristics of Formative Evaluation in Curriculum Context :

1. It relatively focuses on molecular analysis.
2. It is cause seeking and for immediate feedback.
3. It is interested in the broader experiences of the programs users.
4. Its design is exploratory and flexible.
5. It tends to ignore the local effects of a particular programme.
6. It seeks to identify influential variables.
7. It requires analysis of curriculum material for mapping hierarchical structure of the learning tasks and actual teaching of the course for a certain period.

Differences between Summative and Formative Evaluation

In the beginning these terms applied for the evaluation of curricular work only. M. Scriven explains the difference between these terms as follows in his book Evaluation Thesaurus (1980), —Formative evaluation is conducted during the development or improvement of a program or product (or person). It is an evaluation conducted for in-house staff and normally remains in-house but it may be done by an internal or external evaluator (preferably) a combination. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is conducted after completion of a programme (or a course of study) and for the benefit of some external audience or decision maker (e.g. funding agency or future possible users) though it may be done by an internal or an external evaluator or by a combination."

Gloria, Hitchok and others (1986) state the difference between the summative and formative evaluation in these words, —It is fairly straight forward to produce an _ideal' type of either a summative or a formative profile. It is far more difficult to combine the two into one unified system. The underlying philosophies of the two appear difficult to reconcile'.

These are, in brief the main differences between these two approaches to evaluation is curriculum context :

1. They differ in purpose, nature and timing,
2. Summative evaluation is the terminal assessment of performance at the end of instruction on the basis of a curriculum but formative evaluation in the assessment made during the instructional phase that curriculum field testing to inform the teacher about progress in learning and what more is to be done.
3. The summative evaluation limits the use of profiles and record of achievement and other data but they are regularly usd informative evaluation.

4. The main consideration in summative evaluation is the determination of the extent to which the examinee has mastered the knowledge and skills associated with a course.
   On the other hand, the main consideration in formative evaluation is to reveal the processes by which the examinee achieved these outcomes.
   In brief it may be shown as :

Characteristics	Formative	Summative
Purpose	To monitor progress of Curriculum by getting feed-back.	To analysis final status of curriculum.
Content focus	Detailed Narrow scope	General
Methods	Regular, assignments Observations	Broad Scope Tests Projects
Frequency	Regular	Weekly, quarterly etc.

Alkin (1974) pointed out that a formative evaluation study uses a great variety of instruments which are either locally developed or standardized, it relies on observation and informal data collection devices, mostly locally chosen. In contrast, summative evaluation studies tend to use well defined evaluation designs, as unobtrusive and non-reactive as possible, they are comparative and concerned with a broad range of issues, for example, implications, politics, costs, competing options. The instruments used in summative evaluation are publicly accepted, reliable and valid instruments, reflecting concerns of the sponsor and of the decision maker.

Scriven adheres to the view that there are no basic logical and methodological differences between formative and summative evaluation. Both are intended to examine the worth of a particular entity. Only timing, the audience requesting it, and the way its results are used can indicate whether a study is formative or summative. Moreover, the same study may be .viewed by one client as formative and by another one as summative.

In sum we may present these two approaches to curriculum evaluation as :

1. Formative evaluation

a. Takes place at specified points during the development and pilot testing phases of curriculum building in order to identify and correct problems before the curriculum is put into full operation.
b. Can be used during actual operation to fine tune the curriculum.
c. Norman Grunlund advocates looking for and assessing unintended effects.

2. Summative evaluation

a. Follows full implementation and focuses on overall effectiveness.

b. May take place at designated end points throughout the curricular design such as at the end of the pilot testing stage and the end of the implementation stage.

Several countries promote formative assessment as a fundamental approach to education reform. The OECD has studied the use of formative assessment in eight educational systems; Australia (Queensland), Canada, Denmark, England, Finland, Italy, New Zealand and Scotland. The study has also brought together reviews covering English, French and German language research literature. This Policy Brief looks at the results of that study, including policy principles to address barriers to formative assessment and encourage its wider use.

Benefits of Formative Assessment

Formative assessment has been shown to be highly effective in raising the level of student attainment, increasing equity of student outcomes, and improving students‘ ability to learn.

Major Barriers to Wider Use of Formative Assessment

While formative approaches to teaching and assessment often resonate with practitioners and policy makers, there are barriers to wider practice. They include:

- Perceived tensions between formative assessments and highly visible summative tests to hold schools accountable for student achievement (teachers often teach to these summative tests and examinations).
- A lack of coherence between assessments and evaluations at the policy, school and classroom levels.
- Fears that formative assessment is too resource-intensive and time- consuming to be practical.

Description of the technique of Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation seeks to strengthen or improve a programme or intervention by examining, amongst other things, the delivery of the programme, the quality of its implementation and the organizational context, personnel, structures and procedures. As a change oriented evaluation approach, it is especially attuned to assessing in an ongoing way, any discrepancies between the expected direction and outputs of the programme and what is happening in reality, to analyzing strengths and weak- nesses, to uncovering obstacles, barriers or unexpected opportunities, and to

generating understandings about how the programme could be implemented better. Formative evaluation is responsive to the dynamic context of a programme.

Formative evaluation pays special attention to the delivery and intervention system, but not exclusively. In formative evaluation, the evaluates also has to analyze the intervention logic, the outcomes, the results and impacts.

Formative evaluation activities include the collection and analysis of data over the lifecycle of the programme and timely feedback of evaluation findings to programme actors to inform ongoing decisionmaking and action (i.e. it is a form of operational intelligence), ft requires an effective data collection strategy, often incorporating reutilized monitoring data alongside more tailored evalua- tion activities. Feedback is primarily designed to fine-tune the implementation of the programme although it may also contribute to policy-making at the margins through piecemeal adaptation.

Evaluators conducting a formative evaluation ask many different kinds of questions and use a variety of methods to address them. Questions are commonly open-ended and exploratory, aimed at uncovering the processes by which the programme takes shape, establishing what has changed from the original design and why, or assessing soft organizational factors such as the extent of _buy in‘ by practitioner staff to the programme‘s goals and intended outcomes. Formative evaluation questions also investigate the relationship between inputs and outcomes, which can involve the formulation and measurement of early or short-term outcome measures. These often have a process flavor and serve as interim markers of more tangible longer term outcomes.

Formative evaluation tends itself most readily to a case study approach, using a qualitative mode of inquiry. Methods which might be used include stakeholder analysis, concept mapping, focus groups, nominal group techniques, observational techniques and input-output analysis. Formative evaluation‘s concern with the efficiency and effectiveness of project management can be addressed through management-oriented methods like flow charting, PERT/CRM (Programme Evaluation and Review Technique and Critical Path Method) and project scheduling.

Formative evaluation may be planned and managed in a variety of ways. Newer conceptions of formative evaluation (for example! the mutual catalytic model of formative evaluation outlined by Chacon- Moscoso et al, 2002)1 emphasize a more inclusive approach to the involvement of stake-holders, and as well seek to elicit their participation as collaborators in the evaluation process rather than simply as providers of information.

Formative evaluation involves many different tasks :

- identification of evaluation goals, planning data collection,
- contributing to methodological choices,
- making value judgments and
- generating evaluation findings.

Formative evaluations that are inclusionary and participative, involving local programme actors as active contributors and participants in the evaluation process.

Formative evaluation can also have important catalytic effects, mobilizing staff around a course of action, and engaging management thinking about future options. Patton introduced the idea of _process use' to describe the utility to stakeholders of being involved in the planning and implementation of an evaluation, irrespective of findings and recommendations that occur. The developmental and capacity building benefits accrue to staff as a side effect of a participative, formative evaluation.

Although formative evaluation is commonly contrasted with summative evaluation, the distinction is not always helpful or apposite. The process of formative evaluation may be an important component in summative evaluation; formative evaluation can produce early outcome measures which serve as interim markers to programme effects; and by tracking changes and linkages between inputs, outputs and outcomes it can help to identify causal mechanisms that can inform summative assessment. In some programme contexts, a more fruitful approach would be to see both types of evaluation as part of the same exercise.

■ The main steps involved

Step 1. A first step is gaining the commitment of key stakeholders and programme actors at all levels to a formative evaluation as a collective teaming and change-oriented process.

Step 2. Building evaluation into programme design so that it is perceived as an essential tool for managing the programme and helping it to adapt to local conditions within a dynamic environment.

Step 3. Creating an evaluation infrastructure to support formative evaluation as a learning, change-oriented, developmental activity. This includes working with programme staff on ongoing basis to:

- create a culture that supports risk-taking, reduces fear of failure, and values lessons learned from mistakes
- establish channels of communication that support the dissemination of information and allow organizational members to learn from one another in ways that contribute to new insights and shared understandings
- create new opportunities for shared learning and knowledge creation
- modify systems and structures that inhibit organisational learning

Step 4. A fourth step entails finding out about the decision-making cycle, the different stakeholder groups and their respective information needs and interests. These might

include policy makers and programme makers at central level, local site programme managers, and operational staff.

Step 5. Formative evaluation involves an ongoing cycle of data gathering and analysis. The choice of methods will be determined largely by the questions being addressed and the methodological preferences of different stakeholders.

■ Strengths and limitations

Formative evaluation provides a rich picture of a programme as ft unfolds. It is a source of valuable learning not just prospectively for the programme but for future programmes as well.

Formative evaluation is highly complementary to summative evaluation and Is essential for trying to understand why a programme succeeds or fails, and what complex factors are at work.

To be effective and achieve its purpose of programme improvement, formative evaluation requires strong support from the top as well as bottom-up support.

Formative evaluation can serve an important developmental or capacity-building purpose, for the organization as a whole and for individual members, where it is seen as a form of organizational learning.

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Indicate strengths of formative evaluation.
2. Distinguish between formative and summative approaches to curriculum evaluation (Give only three points)

5.2.2 : CURRICULUM EVALUATION MODEL : INTRODUCTION

The term model may be defined in numerous ways. We are using this term as a framework or taskstobeperformedinthematterofaspectsofacurriculum.Infactcurriculumevaluationprocess connotes flexible as the very term curriculum can be defined form various perspectives. Therefore, over the years curriculum researchers have looked forward curriculum evaluation models in orderto put their respective ideas in different but somewhat systematic frameworks. One framework has given main focus of curriculum evaluation to a particular aspect of curriculum but a second frame- work has given main focus on another aspect of curriculum. For example, some writers have used curriculum process evaluation. In this way we may generate a broader model of curriculum evaluation.

We shall learn numerous models of curriculum evaluation. However at the outset we are going some

basic acquaintance with the models described by Alkin. He has broadly divided curriculum evaluation modelsd into two heads — Curriculum product Model and Programme Model.

Curriculum Product Evaluation

Thisevaluationfocusesonproductssuchascourseofstudy,syllabi,textbooks,andsoon.One type of curriculum product evaluation employs specified external criteria. In this sense, curriculum evaluation is an examination of the adequacy of a curriculum product based on desire characteristics describing appropriateness. The work of Tyler and his associates offers an example of curriculum product evaluation employing explanations to the content selection, sequence, and presentation, evidence provided by the developers/publishers as the effectiveness of the curriculum materials, specification of instructional objectives on which the material is based, etc.

McNeil,etaltakeconsiderationoffivegeneralprinciplesforevaluatingthequalityofinstruc- tional material used as classroom reading matter; these are consistency with reading approach, ad- equacy of objectives, instructional content, instructional methodology, and validation.

Another kind of curriculum product evaluation goes to evaluate the actual impact of the cur- riculum on students. That is curriculum prodcut evaluation is an examination or validation of the impact of a newly developed product.

Curriculum Programme Evaluation

This refers to evaluation of curriculum programmes in operation. Thus, the term curriculum programme evaluation refers to the complex set of interactions between a given instructional programme and its setting. Here the task is looking at how a particular curriculum works within its instructionalsetting.Thetheoriesassociatedwithcurriculumprogrammeevaluationmaybedifferentiated into at least four heads: (a) measurement outcome oriented, (b) research or methodology oriented, (c) values oriented, and (d) decision or user oriented.

Since the curriculum evaluation model of Tyler‘s Goal Attainment Model, numerous models have come up. We may classify them into the following categories.

Goal Attainment Models associated with Ralph Tyler. Judgment Models which emphasizes intrinsic criteria

Decision-Making models which overlap with the other there model.....

In brief, the Tyler‘s goal attainment models seek to derive value judgments on the worth of a programme on the basis of an assessment of how students on the programme were fairing. The judgment models emphasizing intrinsic criteria seek to infer the quality of curriculum by engaging in accrediation procedures include examine the quality of the inputs and processes such as the qualification of the staff implementing the curricula (Ahman and Glock). On the other hand, the judgment models which emphasize extrinsic criteria derive their conclusions in the quality of a curriculum from the results of impact studies whereby assessment is made of the anteedents, transaction and outcome of the curriculum being evaluated (Stake, 1967). The decision—facilitation models overlap with the other three above evaluation models in that they employes criteria in judging curricula quality adopted by the other models but with more explicit emphasis on formative evaluation criteria. Stufflebeam has elaborated the decision — facilitation model in to an evaluation system known as CIPP model which will be discussed latter on.

Qualitative Curriculum Evaluation Model

Qualitative curriculum evaluation, also known as _evaluation criticism, cannot be defined by a fixed set of procedures, nor by a specific set of data. It is not an effort to develop universal, invariant, or even unambiguous konwledge and valuations about educational situations. Qualitative curriculum evaluation aims at expanding reflective human understanding of specific educational situations and their social context. To do qualitative curriculum evaluation, evaluators immerse themselves in educational situations, not only to discover their tangible characteristics, but also to discern personally their salient but intangible qualities. Each evaluator derive meanings and valuations, including tendencies to action, which he or she shares with others in order to provide multiple perspectives on each situation under inverstigation. Hence, qualitative curriculum evaluation may be defined as reflective effort to develop the fullest possible range of knowledge about their contexts in order to enlarge understanding and to promote moral action. To fulfill these aims qualiative curriculum evaluation treats curriculum in the fullest possible way, as the experience of the students. In general it encourages reflection by using naturalistic methodology. Ultimately, qualitative curriculum evaluation model is not merely a way of assesing the curriculum, but also a means of increasing the quality of the education experience of all those who engage in it. The quality of the education experience of all those who engage in it.

In the next Section we shall study different models of curriculum evaluation in more elaborately

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write a suitable definition of Model of Curriculum Evaluation.
2. Write down a few feature of curriculum product evaluation model.
3. What is new in Qualitative Curriculum Evaluation Model ?

5.2.3: TYPES OF CURRICULUMEVALUATION MODEL

(A) The Eight-Year Study Model

This model includes the following seven main tasks to perform evaluation

1. Establish broad goals or objectives
2. Classify objectives (preferably with ―Blom‘s Taxonomy)
3. Define objectives in behavioral terms
4. Find situations in which achievement of objectives can be shown.
5. Develop or select measurement techniques
6. Collect student performance data, and
7. Compare data with behaviorally stated objectives.

(B) The Tyler-Newton Metfessel-William Michael Model

This may be shown, in brief, in the following steps

1. Involve everyone who is directly or indirectly affected.

2. Develop goals and specific objectives and arrange them in hierarchical order.
3. Translate goals and objectives into curriculum content and experiences.
4. Select or create evaluation instruments to assess achievement of the objectives
5. Conduct periodic observations
6. Analyze, data, Interpret data and Make decisions

(C) Michael Provus's Discrepancy Evaluation Model

This model is described as :

1. Four components are as follows :
   a. Determining program standards.
   b. Determining program performance.
   c. Comparing standards with performance.
   d. Determining whether discrepancies exist between standards and performance.
2. Five stages at which program performance is compared to program standards involve :
   a. Design vs. Design Criteria determination
      (i) Internal soundness — congruence with philosophical stance, adequacy of resources, etc.
      (i) External soundness — comparison with similar programs.
      (ii) Identification and resolution of initial problems.
   b. Installation vs. Installation Criteria determination
      (i) Is the program operating as intended?
      (ii) Are all the parts (people, equipment, etc., in place?
   c. Processes vs. Process Adjustment questions
      (i) Are communication lines functioning as intended?
      (ii) Are planned activities functioning as intended?
   d. Product vs. Product Assessment tasks performance
      (i) Evaluation of entire program in terms of original goals.
      (ii) Effects on all affected.
   e. Cost vs. Benefit.

(D) Robert Stake's Congruence-Contingency Model (1969) — also known as the Countenance Model is specified as :

1. Data needs to be collected on the basis of:
   a. Antecedents - conditions existing before the treatment begins
      (i) Student attitudes, achievement levels, attendance, etc.

(ii) Teacher attitudes, years of experience, etc.

b. Transactions - The interactions among students, teachers, materials, and environment, the teaching-learning process.

c. Outcomes - The consequences of the program - cognitive, affective, personal, community-wide, immediate, and long-term.

2. Evaluate data on the basis of what was intended and what was actually observed.

3. The main proposition is to find that outcomes were contingent upon the antecedents and the transactions. The greater the congruence between the intended and the observed outcomes, the better.

(E) Daniel Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) Model (1971)

This model is being narrated briefly below. The objectives are w.r.t. :

1. Context Evaluation
   a. —Its purpose is to provide a rationale for the determination of objectives.
   b. Unmet needs are identified, reasons are unmet hypothesized, and the curriculum environment defined (who, what, when, where, why).

2. Input Evaluation
   - The purpose is to —provide information for determining how to utilize resources to achieve project objectives. "
   - Analysis of goals and objectives.
   - Analysis of resources and experiences to be used to meet goals.
   - Comparison with alternative programs and strategies.

3. Process Evaluation
   a. Three main objectives are :
      1. to detect or predict defects in the procedural design or its implementation during the implementation stage,
      2. provide information for programmed decisions, and
      3. to maintain a record of the procedure as it occurs."

4. Product Evaluation
   a. Formative and summative data needed
   b. Rational interpretations needed on the basis of the recorded context, input, and process information.

[This model will be again discussed in details]

(F) Stufflebeam's Macro (Total) Evaluation Model

This is an extended version of CIPP model. The steps are :

1. Expansion of C1PP model
   a. Planning decisions made after context evaluation
   b. Structuring decisions made after input evaluation
   c. Implementation decisions made after process evaluation
   d. Recycling decisions made after product evaluation
2. Four kinds of change to be evaluated
   a. Neomobilistic change - Large change, low information
   b. Incremental change - a series of small changes based on low information.
   c. Homeostatic change - small change based on much information.
   d. Metamorphic change - great change based on much information.

(G) Elliot Eisner's Connoisseurship Evaluation

This is shown as :

1. Focuses on Model (1985) is on the process itself,
   a. What took place?
   b. Who participated?
   c. What did they think of the experience?
2. Follows the model of criticism and evaluation of art.
3. Requires upon —referential adequacy" and —structural corroboration" instead of scientific validity,
   a. Referential adequacy means that critical observations and interpretations must be empirically grounded (must be able to be replicated by independent observers).
   b. Structural corroboration means that there must be continuous inquiry about whether the various parts of the criticism fit together as a consistent whole.
4. The criticism should communicate to some public, what is going on in the school.

(H) Robert Stake's Responsive Evaluation Model (1975)

This is shown as :

1. As the Eisner Connoisseurship Model, the Responsive Evaluation model focuses on describing activities and processes rather than on test scores and outcomes. It seeks to —tell the story of the program."

2. A formal evaluation plan consisting of ten steps is implemented. The ten steps are :
    a. Negotiate a framework for evaluation with the sponsors,
    b. Elicit topics, issues and/or questions of concern from the sponsors.
    c. Formulate questions for guiding the evaluation.
    d. Identify the scope and activities of the curriculum— the needs of clients and personnel.
    e. Observe, interview, prepare logs and case studies.
    f. Pare down information, identify the major issues or questions,
    g. Present initial findings in a tentative report.
    h. Analyze reactions and investigate predominate concerns more fully.
    i. Look for conflicting evidence that would invalidate findings and corroborating evi- dence that would support findings,
    j. Report the results.

(I) Practices of Evaluation Model

A. Six common evaluation phase‘s are

1. Focusing on the Curricular Phenomena to be Evaluated .
    a. What are the objectives of the evaluation effort?
    b. Who and what will be evaluated? By whom? When?
    c. What instruments and criteria will be used?
2. Collecting the information
    a. How will confidentiality be protected?
    b. Periodic collection of information important to see change over time.
3. Organizing the information - Coding, storing, and retrieving
4. Analyzing the information - Utilizing appropriate analysis techniques
5. Reporting the information - Report and interpret information either formally (written report) or informally (discussions)
6. Recycling the information - Using the information to continually improve the curriculum.

B. All phases should be planned during the development process.

(J) Scriven‘s goal-free model (1970s)

- Introduced the term _formative‘ and _summative‘
- Broaden perspective of evaluation
- Evaluator should not know the educational program‘s goals in order not to be influenced by them

- Evaluator therefore totally independent
- Evaluator free to look at processes and procedures, outcomes and unanticipated effects
- Methodology, the field is open to the hunter but he did have a _lethal' checklist of criteria for judging any aspect of the curriculum.

(K) Stenhouse's research model (1970s)

- Evaluation as part of curriculum development.
- Continuous cycle of formative evaluation and curriculum improvement at school level.
- Relationship between curriculum developer and evaluator is central.
- Curriculum developer offer solutions
- Evaluator is the practical man who temper enthusiasm with judgment
- The developer is the investigator; teacher
  - ♦ Autonomous professional self-development through self-study
  - ♦ Study of others and testing ideas

(L) Tyler's objectives model

- Tyler's principle deals with evaluating the effectiveness of planning and actions.
- Curriculum should be evaluated in relation to its pre-specified set of objectives.
- Requires an objectives-based curriculum model t.
- Evaluation measures fit between student performance and objective.
- Methodology will depend of the evaluator's definition of _measurement'

5.2.4 : DETAILS OF CIPP MODEL

The framework (in check list pattern) is presented below :

- **Context**
  - ♦ Planning decisions
- What needs are to be addressed
- Defining objectives for the program
- **Input**
  - ♦ Structuring decisions
- What resources are available
- What alternative strategies should be considered
- What plan has the best potential
- **Process**
  - ♦ Implementing decisions.
- How well is the plan being implemented
- What are the barriers
- What revision are needed

- **Product**
    - ♦ Recycling decisions
- What result are obtained
- Were need reduced
- What should be done with the program
    - **Context evaluation**
        - ♦ Most basic kind of evaluation
        - ♦ Objective
    - To define the context
    - Identify population
    - Assess needs
    - Diagnose problem
        - ♦ Method : system analysis, survey, document review, hearing, interview, tests, Delphi (Wiseman technique).
        - ♦ Relation to decision-making.
    - Decide on setting
    - Goals and objectives
    - Planning
    - Providing basis for judging outcomes
        - ♦ Provides rationales for determining objectives
        - ♦ Uses experiential and conceptual analysis, theory, authoritative opinion to judge basic problems which must be solved.
    - Input evaluation
        - ♦ Objective
    - Identify and assess system capabilities
    - Alternative strategies
    - Implementation design
    - Budget
    - Method : resources analysis, feasibility analysis, literature research, exemplary program visits and pilot projects
    - Decision
- Selecting sources
- Structuring activities
- Basis for judging implementation Process evaluation
    - Objective
- Identify/predict defects in design or implementation and record and judge procedural activities

- Method: monitoring, describing process, interacting, observing
    - Decision:
- For implementing and refining program design and procedures
- Process control
- Information to use in interpreting outcomes
    - Provides periodic feedback to those responsible for implementation
    - Maintain a record of procedures as they occur Product evaluation
    - Objective
- Describe and judge the outcome
- Relate them to objectives
- Interpret worth
    - Method: operationally measuring criteria, collecting stakeholder judgment
    - Decision
- To continue
    - Terminate
    - Modify
    - Refocus
    - And present record of effects
        - Purpose to measure and interpret attainment at end of project cycle.
        - Operationally measures objectives and compare to predetermined standards
        - Interpret outcomes using context, input and process information.
    - Steps in CIPP model
        - Focus the evaluation
        - Collect information
        - Organize information
        - Analyze information
        - Report information
        - Administration of the evaluation report

CIPP model of curriculum development is a process of developing the curriculum.

- CIPP model of curriculum evaluation is the process to see the effectiveness of the developed and implemented curriculum.

The CIPP Evaluation Model is a comprehensive framework for guiding evaluations of programs, projects, personnel, products, institutions, arid systems. This checklist, patterned after the CIPP Model, is focused on program evaluations, particularly those aimed at effecting long-term, sustainable improvements. The checklist especially reflects the eight-year evaluation (1994-2002), conducted by the Western Michigan University Evaluation Center. It is generally consistent with a wide range of program evaluations conducted by the Evaluation Center in such areas as science and mathematics education, rural education, educational research and development, achievement testing, state systems of educational accountability, school improvement, professional development schools, transition to work, training and personnel development,

welfare reform, nonprofit organization services, community development, community-based youth programs, community foundations, and technology.

The model‘s core concepts are denoted by the acronym CIPP, which stands for evaluations of an entity‘s context, inputs, processes, and products. Context evaluations assess needs, problems, assets, and opportunities to help decision makers define goals and priorities and help the broader group of users judge goals, priorities, and outcomes. Input evaluations assess alternative approaches, competing action plans, staffing plans, and budgets for their feasibility and potential cost-effectiveness to meet targeted needs and achieve goals. Decision makers use input evaluations in choosing among competing plans, writing funding proposals, allocating resources, assigning staff, scheduling work, and ultimately in helping others judge an effort‘s plans and budget.(I see input evaluation as the most neglected, yet critically important type of evaluation.) Process evaluation Assess the implementation of plans to help staff carry out activities and later help the broad group of users judge program performance and interpret outcomes. Product evaluations identify and assess outcomes

- intended and unintended, short term and long term - both to help a staff keep an enterprise focused on achieving important outcomes and ultimately to help the broader group of users gauge the effort‘s success in meaning targeted needs.

In the formative case - where evaluation helps guide an effort - context, input, process, and product evalutions respectively ask, What needs to be done? How should it be done? Is it being done? Is it succeeding? The evaluator submits interim reports addressing these questions to keep stakeholders informed about findings, help guide decision making, and strengthen staff work.

In finalizing a summative report, the evaluator refers to the store of context, input, process, and product information and obtains additionally needed information. The evaluator uses this information to address the following retrospective questions: Were important needs addressed? Was the effort guided by a defensible plan and budget? Was the service design executed competently and modified as needed? Did the effort succeed?

In summing up long-term evaluations, the product evaluation (Did it succeed?) component may be divided into assessments of impact, effectiveness, sustainability, and transportability. These product evaluation subparts ask, Were the right beneficiaries reached? Were their targeted needs met? Were the gains for beneficiaries sustained? Did the processes that produced the gains prove transportable and adaptable for effective use elsewhere?

Consistent with its improvement focus, the CIPP Model places priority on guiding the planning and implementation of development efforts. The model‘s intent is thus to supply evaluation users— such as policy boards, government officials, foundation presidents and staff members, project staffs, school administrators, curriculum developers, city planners, military leaders, curriculum specialists, teachers, and counselors—-with timely, valid information of use in identifying an appropriate area for development; formulating sound goals, activity plans, and budgets; successfully carrying out work plans; periodically deciding whether and, if so, how to repeat or expand an effort; and meeting a funder‘s accountability requirements.

The CIPP Model also provides for conducting retrospective, summative evaluations to serve a broad

range of stakeholders. Potential consumers need summative reports to help assess the quality, cost, utility, and competitiveness of products and services they might acquire and use.

Table 1 summarizes uses of the CIPP Model for both formative and summative evaluations.

EVALUATION ROLES	Context	Input	Process	Product
Formative Evaluation: Prospective application of CIPP information to assist decision making and quality assurance	Guidance for identifying needed interventions and choosing and ranking goals (based on assessing needs, problems, assets, and opportunities).	Guidance for Choosing a Program or Other strategy (based on assessing alternative strategies and resources allocation plans) Followed by examination of the work plan.	Guidance for implementing the work plan (based on monitoring and judging activities and periodic evaluative feedback).	Guidance for continuing, modifying, adopting, or terminating the effort (based on assessing outcomes and side effects).
Summative Evaluation: Retrospective use of CIPP Information to sum up the program‘s merit, worth, probity, and significance	Comparison of goals and priorities to asses needs, problems, assets, and opportunities.	Comparison of the program‘s strategy, design, and budget to those of critical competitors and to the targeted needs of beneficiaries.	Full description of the actual process and record of costs. Comparison of the designed and actual processes and costs.	Comparison of outcomes and side effects to targeted needs and, as feasible, to result of competitive programs. Interpretation of results against the effort‘s assessed context, inputs, and processes.

Disclaimer

This self-learning material is based on collections from different books, journals and web-sources.

TWO YEAR

POST GRADUATE DEGREE PROGRAMME

IN

EDUCATION

SEMESTER – III

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY - 2

SELF LEARNING MATERIAL

DIRECTORATE OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING
UNIVERSITY OF KALYANI
KALYANI – 741 235
WEST BENGAL

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Director's Message

Satisfying the varied needs of distance learners, overcoming the obstacle of distance and reaching the unreached students are the threefold functions catered by Open and Distance Learning (ODL) systems. The onus lies on writers, editors, production professionals and other personnel involved in the process to overcome the challenges inherent to curriculum design and production of relevant Self Learning Materials (SLMs). At the University of Kalyani a dedicated team under the able guidance of the Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor has invested its best efforts, professionally and in keeping with the demands of Post Graduate CBCS Programmes in Distance Mode to devise a self-sufficient curriculum for each course offered by the Directoate of Open and Distance Learning (DODL), University of Kalyani.

Development of printed SLMs for students admitted to the DODL within a limited time to cater to the academic requirements of the Course as per standards set by Distance Education Bureau of the University Grants Commission, New Delhi, India under Open and Distance Mode UGC Regulations, 2017 had been our endeavour. We are happy to have achieved our goal.

Utmost care and precision have been ensured in the development of the SLMs, making them useful to the learners, besides avoiding errors as far as practicable. Further suggestions from the stakeholders in this would be welcome.

During the production-process of the SLMs, the team continuously received positive stimulations and feedback from Professor (Dr.) Sankar Kumar Ghosh, Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, University of Kalyani, who kindly accorded directions, encouragements and suggestions, offered constructive criticism to develop it within proper requirements. We gracefully, acknowledge his inspiration and guidance.

Sincere gratitude is due to the respective chairpersons as well as each and every member of PGBOS (DODL), University of Kalyani. Heartfelt thanks is also due to the Course Writers-faculty members at the DODL, subject-experts serving at University Post Graduate departments and also to the authors and academicians whose academic contributions have

enriched the SLMs. We humbly acknowledge their valuable academic contributions. I would especially like to convey gratitude to all other University dignitaries and personnel involved either at the conceptual or operational level of the DODL of University of Kalyani.

Their persistent and co-ordinated efforts have resulted in the compilation of comprehensive, learner-friendly, flexible texts that meet the curriculum requirements of the Post Graduate Programme through Distance Mode.

All the Self Learning Materials are self writing and collected from e-book, journals and websites.

Director
Directorate of Open and Distance Learning
University of Kalyani

SYLLABUS

(Full Marks-100)

SEMESTER - III

EDC - 09 : EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY – 2

Block	Contents	Study hour
Block-1 Education and Social Change	**Unit – 1 : Basic concepts of Social Change** 1.1.1 : Meaning and Definition of Social Change 1.1.2 : Factors Affecting Social Change 1.1.3 :Education as an Instrument of Social Change	1 Hour
	Unit – 2 : Theories of Social Change 1.2.1: Marxian Theory of Social Change 1.2.2: Pritirim Sorokin's Theory of Social Change	1 Hour
	Unit – 3 : Constraints of Social Change 1.3.1**:** various constraints of Social Change	
Block-2 Education and Social Stratification	**Unit - 1: Education and Social Stratification** 2.1.1:Meaning, nature and determinations of Social Stratification 2.1.2: Role of education in Social Stratification	1 Hour
	Unit – 2 : Education and Social Mobility 2.2.1: Meaning, sources, Dimensions and factors of Social Mobility 2.2.2: Role of education in Social Mobility	1 Hour
	Unit – 3 : Equity and Equality of Educational Opportunity 3.3.1: Meaning and Concept of Equity 3.3.2: Concept of Equality of Educational Opportunities	1 Hour
Block-3 Education and Values	**Unit – 1 : 3.1 : Basic Concepts of Values** 3.1.1: Meaning and Nature of Values: Subjective or Objective 3.1.2: Classification of Values	1 Hour
	3.2 : Value education 3.2.1: Concept of Value Education 3.2.2: Inculcation of Effective Values 3.2.3: Traditional Indian Thoughts on Value Education	1 Hour
Block-4 Education in Relation to Economic Growth, Urbanization, Industrialization,	**Unit – 1 : Education and Economic Growth.** 4.1.1: Dimensions of Growth 4.1.2: Studies on Educational Investment 4.1.3: Third World Countries 4.1.4: Investment in Education and Economic Growth	1 Hour
	Unit – 2 : Urbanization 4.2.1 : Concepts and Meaning 4.2.2 : Historical Perspective 4.2.3 : Characteristics of Urban Community in contrast with Rural life.	1 Hour

Block	Contents	Study hour
Modernization, Westernization and Sanskritization	4.2.4 : Significant contrasting characteristics between Urban and Rural community. 4.2.5 : Effects of Urbanization in Indian life. 4.2.6 : Net Result of Urbanization in India.	
	Unit – 3 : Industrialization 4.3.1 : Introduction 4.3.2 : Concept 4.3.3 : Characteristics 4.3.4 : Effects of Industrialization 4.3.5 : Industrialization in India	1 Hour
	Unit – 4 : Modernization 4.4.1 : Introduction 4.4.2 : Concept 4.4.3 : Modernization in India	1 Hour
	Unit – 5 : Westernization 4.5.1 : Meaning of Westernization 4.5.2 : Misconception 4.5.3 : Contribution of Westernization 4.5.4 : Westernization and Education in India	1 Hour
	Unit – 6 : Sanskritization 4.6.1 : Introduction 4.6.2 : Empirical Study 4.6.3 : Sanskritization in Different parts in India 4.6.4 : Factors conducive to Sanskritization **4.6.5** : Educational and Social significance	1 Hour
Block-5 **Education and Some Social Determinants**	**Unit – 1 : Some Social Determinants of Education** 5.1.1: Democracy and Education 5.1.2: Education and Politics 5.1.3: Education and Religion 5.1.4: Education and National Integration 5.4.5: Education and Globalization	1 Hour
Block-6 **Education and Leadership**	**Unit – 1 : Leadership : Roles, Dynamics, Types, Styles and Characteristics** 6.1.1: Role of Leadership 6.1.2: Locus of Leadership 6.1.3: Dynamics of Leadership 6.1.4: Leader Type and Style 6.1.5: Characteristics of Leadership	1 Hour

CONTENTS

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY - 2

Block I

Education and Social Change

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Man is a social being. He lives in a society. Society is consisted of men. Man is the basic unit of the society. Change is the law of nature. Change is the law of life because man is a dynamic being. So, change is inevitable in every sphere of human life, in all living being, in all physical atmosphere, and flora and fauna. A Greek Philosopher Hereclitus said, ‗‗every thing is in flux at every moment.'' Therefore, social change is unavoidable. With the passing of time society also undergoes changes. This change has occurred due to various factors. Different social scientists explained this in different ways. Education influences social changes and social change also changes the educational system. So the present Unit of this Module includes all of these aspects of social change. The main focus of this Unit is the meaning and definition, factors, theories and constraints of social change. Among the various theories and views the emphasis is placed on Marxian theory of social change and Sorokin's view on socialchange.

OBJECTIVES

After go through of this Unit you will be able to —

(i) explain the term ‗‗socialchange'.

(ii) analyse the factors affecting socialchange.

(iii) assesstheroleofeducationasaninstrumentofsocialchange.

(iv) criticallyanalysetheMarxiantheoryofsocialchangeanditsimpactoneducation.

(v) analysecriticallytheSorokin'sviewsonsocialchange.

(vi) discuss critically the constraints of social change inIndia.

Block I

UNIT – 1

Basic concepts of Social Change

1.1.1 : MEANING AND DEFINITION OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Meaning

Social change refers to the changes in the structural, functional, relational, normative, etc. aspects of society. Man is the basic unit of those changes in society. Man is a dynamic being. Hence, Society can hardly remain static. It undergoes constant change. Social change can be observed in every society. When human behaviour is in the process of modification, we can say that social change is occuring. What ever apparent and alteration in the mutual behaviour between individuals takes place is a sign of social change. Thus, social change is the change in the structure and function of human society. Social change is the change in the ideals, attitudes and values of an individual which affects social attribute and social structure. No society in the world can escape those changes. Social change is the change in social relationship that includes social process, patterns and social interaction. So social change is a change in the matrix of social relationship. However, in each and every sort of variation, modification or change in an individuals behaviour in society can not be called social change. Social changes refers to a variation or change fairly lasting or significant. It should also set a trend and reveal in the social relationship, social behaviour values or action of a good number of a people in the society.Social

changes effect a wide range of individual experience and functional aspect of society. Social change is a distinct thing from cultural or civilizational change. Social change, according to the sociologists, stands for changes in socialrelationship.

Definition

To make the concept of social change more clear, let us concentrate on the following definitions:

(i) ‗‗Social change is a term used to describe variation in or modification of any aspects of socialprocesses,socialinteractionsorsocialorganizations‘‘.—SirJones

(ii) ‗‗By social change is meant only such alterations as occur in social organisation that is the structure and functions of society.‘‘—Kingsley Davis

(iii) ‗‗When we speak social change, we simply assured that there is some changes in social behaviour and insocialstructure.‘‘—Kuppurswami

(iv) ‗‗Social change implies a change in social structure that is the size of society, the composition orbalanceofitspartsorthetypeofitsorganisation.‘‘—MorrisGinsberg

(v) Johnson covers five kinds of changes under social change—

  (a) Change in socialvalues,

  (b) Institutionalchange,

  (c) Change inpersonnel,

  (d) Changeinabilitiesorattitudeofpersonnel,

  (e) Change in distribution of possession and rewards.

(vi) Social change, precisely speaking, ‗‗indicates only changes in social organization, i.e. the structureandfunctionofasociety.‘‘—MereerandCarr

Changes in the society are caused. No such change can come from ‗nothing'. In the eyes of the sociologists there are some kind of ―order in change itself". Basically, three types of changes are — invention, rhythmic (up-down) and cyclical. Each, mode has, of course, special characteristic patterns ofchange.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What is social change?

1.1.2 : FACTORS AFFECTING SOCIAL CHANGE

Social changes are caused by several factors. Some writers considered diffusion to be the main factors of social change while some other writers considered invention in a similar capacity. Actually, both diffusion and invention have a role in social change. Roughly, the main factors of social change are—

- Biologicalfactor
- Technologicalfactor
- Culturalfactor
- Politicalfactor
- Economicfactor
- Psychologicalfactor
- Physical factor / Environmental /Geographical
- Environmentalfactor
- Factors, other than theabove

These factors are being discussed, however in a jumble fashion.

Economic Factor : Social change is determined by economic factors. Like poverty, the green revolution, industrialization, growth of commercial activities, famine etc. certainly bring about a lot of social change in behaviour, relationship, spending patterns, structure and functions of institution and outlook of theworld.

Biological Factor : Social change is related to biological process. The human biological process includes the factors that determine the number, the composition, the situation and the heredity quality of the successive generations. The human element in society is always changing. Every life is a different distribution of qualities and potentialities. No new generation is an exact replica of the old. Eachgeneration is a new beginning. The changes in population both in numbers and composition are causing a number of changes in social life. The biological quality of population influences the social customs, beliefs, attitude, interest, relation, value system, family size, social relationship (including sex relation), social behaviour, etc.; and the changes in biological process bring about new changes on the social level. The sudden growth and decline in population witnessed to a great social transformation. The growth of population has many negative impacts; these are high birthrate, high death rate, larger number of children, larger number of old people, larger number of widows and widowers, of male female rates, large number of disaster people, large number of rural people, high

rate of infant mortality, short span of age. All these negative impacts affect the quality of human life and consequently, affect the social structure and social institutions adversely. The growth of population has given birth to a great variety of social problems — child labour, unemployment, wars, competition, poverty, criminality, moral degradation and backwardness. The growth of population is also related to the level of physical health, vitality of the people and standard of living. With the decrease of the family size, the relation between children and parents and husband and wife, the mode of upbringing of children, the position of mother in the house and the degree of economic self sufficiency of the family, have all been changing. Thus, it is evident that the biological quality of population is causing a number of changes in social life also.

Geographical or Physical or Environmental Factors : These are related to nature. These factors bring changes in human society. Huntington asserted that an alteration in the climate is the sole cause of evolution and revolution of civilization and culture. It can not be denied that floods, earthquakes, excessive rain falling, brought changes in character of the climate. It has significant effect upon social relationship and these are modified by such natural occurrences. Earthquakes, volcanic eruption, flood, draught, and fire may render people homeless and turn them into refugees, forced to change their whole style of living by migrating to other places and some consequents in the styles of lives of the affected persons.

Political Factor : Political factor also causes social change. Like the French Revolution (1789), the Bolshevik Revolution (1917), the Chinese Revolution (1911 and 1949), the First and Second World Wars (1914 and 1939), Rise of Nazi and Facist Dictatorship, Bangladesh Crisis (1971) and Partition of India (1947) — all have brought about several changes in the respective societies and people of these countries.

Technological Factors : Technology affects society greatly and the technological factor has immense influence in social change. According to Devis, science is that part of the cultural heritage which represents a systematic knowledge of nature, and technology is that part which contains application of this knowledge. Technological inventions and discoveries have caused several far-reaching social change in the life of the people. Television, refrigerator, car, aeroplane, printing press, radio, telephone, telegraph, computer, electricity, new house hold gadgets, etc. have completely changed our styles of living, modes of thinking, some institutions and customs, social relations and even morals. Ogburn says, ‗‗Technology changes society by changing our environments to which, we in turn, adapt. This change is usually in the material environment and the adjustment we make to the changes often modifies customs and social institution.'' Even institution, like family and marriage have not remained immune to the effect of the technological development. The form of society is undergoing change as a result of various technological invention and discoveries. The explicit effects of technological advance are labour organization, division of labour, specialization, high speed of life, increase in production, changes in the means of communication. In short, modern technology has changed our family life, social life, economic life, religious life, political life and policies. It has led to the disintegration of joint family, the employment of women, liberation of women, reduce the size of the family, love-marriage, inter-caste and inter-religion marriage, increases the number of divorce, globalization, birth of capitalism, higher standard of living or unemployment, Trade Union Movement, rise of middle class, growth of individualism, problems of houses and slum, decline of community life, emotional instability and economic insecurity, suffering from mental stress and strain, decline of religious fundamentalism, democratic government, growth of idea of world state, secular state, enlarged state activity, etc. So, in the modern age technological factors are the pre-dominant causes of social changes. Technology has also changed our educational processes andproducts.

Psychological Factors : Most sociologists regard psychological factors as an important element in social change. The causes of social change is the psychology of man himself. Man by its nature, is the lover of change. He has always tried to discover things in every sphere of his life. And he is

always anxious for novel experience. As a result of this tendency, the most accepting tradition, customs, etc. of every human society, perpetually undergoes change. This does not mean that man likes always the new, to be superior to the old, or he is always attending to what is new and unique. He also preserves what is golden in olden. The form of social relationship is constantly changing in the process of interaction between these two tendencies. New customs and method which replace the old traditional custom, are being formed. Old tradition are respected but time demands change and adoption to the changing condition. Change is the law of life. When changes do not occur at the appropriate time, revolution takes place, wars are faught, epidemics spread and changes are violentlyintroduced.

Cultural Factors : One of the important factor of social change is cultural factor. Changes in the culture are accompanied by social change. Culture gives speed and direction to social change and determines the limit beyond which social change occurs. In this connection Dawson and Gettys rightly remark, ‗culture tends to give direction and momentum to social change to set limits beyond which social change may not go.'' The society and culture are so closely interrelated that all cultural changes involve social change. There is an intimate connection between our beliefs and our institution, our valuations and our social relationships. Culture is not static. It is always in flux. It itself is a force of directing social change. A culture gives directions to social behaviour. New ideologies causes significant changes in the modes of group life. It was social philosophy of Marxism that brought into a new economic social and political order in Russia. In India, Gandhism has influenced to an extend the economic and socialorder.

According to some thinkers religion is the prime initiator of social change. Max Weber in his ‗Sœiology of Religion' pointed out that there is a direct relation between the practical ethics of a community and the character of its economic system. He found out a close relation between certain form of protestantism and early capitalism. Hinduism and Buddhism had a great influence on Indian social institution. Our religious beliefs determine the structure of our institutions. No institution can endure an instant longer than it is maintained by the contemporary beliefs and attitudes of social beings. Social systems are, directly or indirectly, the creations of cultural values and any change in valuation on the part of social groups makes its effect felt upon social institutions. Thus, there is a relation between cultural change and socialchange.

Other Factors : In addition to the above mentioned factors, another factor of social change is the appearance of new opinions and thoughts. For example, changes in the attitudes towards dowry, caste system, female education, etc. have resulted in wide spread social variations and modifications. In fact, a majority of the social revolutions has taken place as a result of the evolution of new ways of thinking. In the some way, social changes are introduced by the advent of great thinkers as Gandhi and Karl Marx, etc. In fine, you may also enlarge the discussion by adding many more new factors of socialchange.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the factors of social change.

1.1.3 : EDUCATION AS AN INSTRUMENT OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Education is said to be an important instrument of social change. Education is a social process. It satisfies the needs of the society and propagates such ideas which promote changes in all fields of life. In the light of social change, we are discussing below the concern of education.

(1) **Assistance in adopting social change :** Whenever some social change occurs, it results in changes in the pattern of doing some work. This change is easily adopted by some people while others find it very difficult to adjust themselves to this change. It is the aim ofeducation to make all good changes easily accessible to every person. In India a large majority of people found it difficult to reconcile themselves to the changes that occurred in the institutions of family and marriage, but the educated minority soon realised the advantages of these changes. Later on, as education spreads to other sections of society, the importance and value of these changes come to be recognized more universally. For this reason, it is now generally accepted that before bringing about any change in society, it is necessary to create a receptive temper of mind among the people. Otherwise, there is invariably some resistance tochange.

(2) **Overcoming resistance to change :** Certain factors make it easy for some social innovation, to be adopted and accepted, but on the other hand, certain factors create resistance to acceptance. The best way of overcoming such resistance is education. Through education, the importance of social change is convincingly explained to the people so that they are purged of their prejudices and blind faith, and thus, enabled and also strengthened to accept some thing new that would addvalue to theirlives.

(3) **Analysis of change :** Society does not progress with any and every change, and neither does the individual. Progress occurs only when the change leads the society tomore desirable social values. And for this, analysis and criticism of social change is essential. Only the educated individual can make valid criticisms and offer constructive suggestions, because it is education which invests the individual with the capacity to his intelligence, to distinguish between right and wrong and to establish certain ideals. Education determines the values which act as a criterion for the analysis of social change. Through this analysis and criticism, undesirable social changes are prevented and desirable social changes are encouraged. In every society, this is achieved only through the efforts of rational and educatedpeople.

(4) **Emergence of new changes :** Since the educated class is constantly engaged in an analysis of contemporary society, it also makes frequent suggestions for improvement. It is on the basis of such suggestions that social reform movements are set into motion. The flood of social reform movements that was witnessed at the turn of the century was due to modern education. Educated people made a study of western societies and their institutions, compared both with our own, and agitated public opinion towards the abolition of many social evils, such as child marriage, objections to widow re-marriage, unequal rights of women, the custom of women committing sati, etc. Only through education could the importance of such changes be made apparent to the people. It was through education alone the public opinion could be changed in favour of these changes. Hence, it is the educated class in every society which hinitiates, guides and controls movements for social reform.

(5) **Leadership in social change :** If social change is to be directed. properly, it is necessary to have able leadership, well acquainted with the complexity of the problem, such leaders can be created only through education. For this reason, social welfare workers must first be educated before they are unleashed on society. On the one hand, it teaches them to distinguish between the good and the bad. Education in India must be able to create appropriate leadership at every level if social changes conducive to democracy are to be introduced.

(6) **Educating the people of social change :** Only a properly organized system of education can generate in the people of a society the ability to adopt some social change. As a result of education, individuals learn to analyse their customs and traditions, to criticise them and to cooperate in movements for social reform. The educational system has played a major role

in bringing about revolutionary social changes in England, France, America and Russia, for example.

(7) **Advances in sphere of knowledge :** New researches and inventions all depend upon education, because only the educated individual can search for new things in every sphere. Only such people can help in the progress of non-material culture. Fresh discoveries in the sphere of knowledge provide the right basis for criticism of society. Then the need for change becomes apparent. Thus, education contributes to social change by bringing changes in knowledge.

In conclusion, we may recollect what Challenge of Education — a policy perspective (1985) very emphatically addressed to role of education in causing deliberate changes in our Indian society. —Inthe history of mankind, education has formed a continuum and a basis for development of human society. Through development of attitudes, values, capabilities both of knowledge and skills, education provides strength and resilience to people to respond to changing situations and enables them to cause and contribute to societal development." Education has been recognized as the tool for ushering in changes in an orderly manner. Education can also gives us models of deliberate social change. Of late many learner-centred literacy projects, such as JnanVigyan Manch (Bihar), Ernakulam Total Literacy Programme (Kerala), Total Literacy Campaign (Tamil Nadu), Shiksha Karmi Project (Rajasthan), etc. have brought changes in lives of hundreds of people in improving their quality of life when they became functionally literates. In today's world, education is looked to play a transformative role in building social skills, cognitive skills, emotional coping skills, health related skills, etc. UNICEF Report (1999) estimates that (i) a ten percentage point increase in girls' primary enrolment can decrease infant mortality by 4.1 deaths per 1000 and a similar rise in girls' secondary enrolment by another 5.6 deaths per 1000; and (ii) an extra year of schooling for an additional 1,000 girls in Pakistan, for example, would ultimately prevent roughly 60 infant deaths. Obviously, you may add more data to demonstrate how education can bring about desirable changes in different aspects of our civil society.

Education to be a real catalyst to social change must value freedom, encourage the acquisition of knowledge in a variety of fields, foster creativity, etc. It must safeguard learners' right to education and foster a spirit of constructivism to initiate and sustain expansion of human stock of knowledge what now Indian Knowledge Commission a spires for.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Asses the role of education in bringing social change

Block-1

UNIT – 2

Theories of Social Change

1.2.1 : THEORIES OF SOCIALCHANGE

Ever since the works of Comte, sociologists have been analyzing social data and attempting to build the phenomena in human societies in some theoretical frameworks for examining the social processes, structures and relationships, ultimately to predict movements in society which is in a continuous flux of change. This journey is generally underpinned by systematic and scientific, both qualitative and quantitative, approaches to searching truth. As phenomena in society are complex in nature and character, not a single theory can not be built in his area of knowledge rather a variety of theories can explain those taking cues from the basic assumptions upon which the theoreticians like to formulate their respective theory. Consequently, in modern sociology we have been offered by different theories of social change.

Some social change is almost always occurring, but many different theories have attempted to explain significant social changes in history. These theories include (but are not limited to): (1) the idea of decline or degeneration, or, in religious terms, the fall from an original state of grace, connected with *theology*; (2) the idea of cyclical change, a pattern of subsequent and recurring phases of growth and decline, and the *social cycles*; (3) the idea of continuous *socialprogress*; (4) Marx's *historical materialism*; (5) *Evolutionary* theories (how one social form evolves into another), including *social Darwinism*; and (6) Theories of*sociology*.

It is claimed that a primary agent of social change is technological advancement, such that the wide adoption of a new technology leads to imbalance in the economic relationship between economic agents. This, in turn leads to changes in the social balance of power, therefore leading to social change. Some experts also refute all these deterministic theories, rather advocate anti-deterministic theories of social change.

The study of social change covers a wide area to which students of sociology are interested. In this Unit we are going to discuss only two such theories of social change which are held utmost important in relation to study of sociological foundations of education.

1.2.1.1 : MARXIAN THEORY OF SOCIALCHANGE

Marx's Views

Among the theories of social change the deterministic theory is the most popular. This theory is a widely accepted theory of social change by the contemporary sociologists. By deterministic theories we mean here any doctrines that regard human behaviour and changes in human behaviour as primarily to be explained by environmental, external or material condition. According to this theory, there are certain forces, social or natural or both, which bring about social change. It was Karl Marx who hold that economic factors or material condition of life are determining factor of social change. His theory of social change is known as the theory of economic determinism. Marx explained social change on the basis of economic and technological interpretation of the society. The structure of the society, Marx believes, is an economic creation and its changes are essentially the sequel of economic changes. The stage of technological development determines the mode of production and the relationship and institutions that constitute the economic system. Marx writes, "The mode of production of material life constitutes the social, political and intellectual life process

in general.‘‘ Economic or material condition is the chief determinant of social order. Economic situation is the foundation of the whole social order. With the change of the economic foundation, the entire super structure of society is more or less rapidly transformed. It gives distinctive character to the whole of the Marxist system of thought.

Karl Marx was deeply impressed by the German philosopher Hegel‘s meta-physical idealism who dominated the entire intellectual horizon of his day. Most important for the Marxist ideology was the adoption and adaptation of ‗dialectic‘ from Hegel by Marx. Hegal was an idealist who asserted the primacy of ‗mind‘ the absolute idea where as Marx was a ‗materialist‘ who asserted the primacy of matter. ‗‗To Marx,‘‘ explains Larson, ‗‗matter is not a product of mind; on the contrary mind is simply the most advanced product of matter.‘‘

The use of dialectic in the analysis of society and history became a major characteristics of Marxism. Stalin explains, that ―Marx‘s philosophical materialism", ―held the world is by its very nature material, that the multi-fold phenomena of the world constitute different forms of matter in motion".

Marx believed that the motivating factor in human existence was not ideas about religion and society but a materialistic realism having to do survival. Marx stressed the primacy of the economic principle in the evolution of ideologies, philosophical system, politics and religion. The central thesis of Marx is: ―It is not the unfolding of ideas that explains the historical development of society as Hegel and Comte, would have been argued, but the development of the social structure in response to changing material conditions that explains the emergence of new ideas."

According to Marx, ideas belong to the realism of the super structure and are determined by the economic infrastructure. According to Hegel, evolution proceeds according to a system of three stages - thesis, anti-thesis, and synthesis. Spirit or reason is the main force of the historical process. For Hegel‘s spirit as determinant of change. Marx substitute the ‗‗material condition‘‘ that is economic factor. His materialism is the counterpart of Hegel‘s idealism.

History, for Hegel and Marx and for most European intellectuals, was the focus of their theories of human existence. For, Marx human history was the record of human struggle among men and human efforts to dominate and control the environment, physical and social also. As Freud was dominated by the sexual metaphor in his analysis of all form of mental illness, Marx was dominated by the economic metaphor in his attempt to understand and control all forms of human activity in competition, co-operation and revolution. Economics was paramount in the Marxian theory of social change. Marx wrote, ‗‗the political, legal, philosophical, literary, and artistic development rest on the economic.‘‘ Marx and Engels emphasized the primacy of economics in human relationship and the centrality of the economic dimension in political structures. The economic system of production and distribution, or the means and relation of production in the Marxian sense, constitute the basic structure of society on which are built all other social institutions, particularly the state and legal system. In the social production which men carry on they enter into definite relations that are indispensable and independent of their will; these relations of production correspond to a definite stage of development of their material powers of production. The sum total of these relations of producing constitutes the economic structure of society, the real foundation on which rise legal and political superstructures and to which correspond definite form of social consciousness. The mode of production in material life determines the general character of the social, political and spiritual process of life. It is not the consciousness of men that determines their existence buton the contrary, their social existence determines there consciousness.

The changing of society was the fundamental focus of Marx‘s intellectual works. According to Marx: Man is not only ‗Homosapien‘, but also homofaber. Men make their own history. ‗‗Marx says, men begin to distinguish themselves from animals as soon as they begin to produce their means of subsistence… In production their means of subsistence what men indirectly produce their actual life

(material life). The material life of man is the base of the society and super structure is built on then.‘‘ Marx also says also, man can create society and can bring about changes in the society.

Marx held that human society passes through various stages. Each with its own well defined organisational system. Every stage contains the seeds of its own decay. Each successive stage came into existence as a result of conflict with the one preceding it. Change from one stage to another is due to changes in the economic factors, namely the method of production and distribution. The __material forces of production‘‘ are subject to change, and thus, rift arises between the underlying economic factors and economic relationship built up on them. A changes in the material conditions of life brings changes in all social institution, such as state, religion and family. It alters the primary socio-economic relationships. To put in his own words, __Legal relations as well as forms of state could neither be understood by themselves, nor explained by the so-called general progress of human mind, but they are rooted in material condition of life The mode of production in material life determines the general character of the social, political and spiritual process of life. Thus, the economic factor is a primary one in society for all social phases of life, are dependent upon it and are almost entirely determined by it. According to Engels, a close associate of Marx, __the ultimate causes of all social changes and political revolution are to be sought not in the mind of men, in their increasing insight into the eternal truth and justice, but in the changes in the mode of production and exchange.‘‘ Marx identified four stages of human history on the basis of modes of production; primitive communism, ancient slave production, feudalism and capitalism. The relationship which men have with one another varies with the mode of production. Primitive communism signified communal ownership whereas ancient mode of production characterised by slavery, the feudal mode of production by serfism, and the capitalist system by the bourgeois exploitation of wage earners. Each of these stage, except, communism, constituted a distinct mode of man's exploitation by man and his struggle for freedom.

According to Marx, social change occurs as a sequel to class struggle. The seeds of class struggle which generates change, are found in the economic infrastructure of the society. At the dawn of human history man used to live in a state of communism. The contradiction or conflict of interest among classes did not exist. Both the forces of production and products of labour were communally owned. As such class distinction did not exist. With the emergence of private ownership of the forces of production, however, the fundamental contradictions or class distinction were appeared. Through the ownership of the forces of production, a minority is able to control, command and enjoy the fruits of the labour of the majority. It means, whenever the forces of production undergo a change, there is a corresponding change in the relations of production also. A new class emerges as dominant and such to control and determines the super structure in terms of interest of the group, law literature philosophy, etc. are all created accordingly. A conflict between dominate (have‘s) and dominated (have not) naturally ensues. The society as a whole, thus, undergoes a change. Marx seeks to explains, __allsocial changes in terms of the contradiction which are found in the economic infrastructure of the society.‘‘

The modern capitalist system has been moving towards its doom because the condition it produced and forces it unleased, make its disintegration inevitable. Marx puts, __the weapons with which the bourgeouisic felled feudalism to the ground, are now turned against the bourgeouisic itself. But not only has the bourgeoisic forged the weapons that bring death to itself, it has called into existence the men who are to wield those weapons — the modern working class, the proletariat.‘‘ Marx believed that the process of dialectical materialism in which men struggle for survival in competition would come to end when working people of the world came to be sufficiently strong and politically conscious that capitalism would be finally overthrown and socialism would be installed. This fifth and final state constitutes a classless society with no private property and no distinctions between controllers and controlled. War and rebellion would vanish. Thus a social revolution attends the birth of each new stage of society according to Marx.

The new social order will not reach its fullest development at once but will go through two stages. In the first stage, there will be a social dictatorship of the proletariat and destroy the structure of capitalist society. In the second, there will be real communism, during which there shall be no state, no class, no conflict and no exploitations. And perhaps the most conscious thing in the whole Marxist theory is that at this stage the lever of change that has operated through all past history, now cease to function. With the abolition of classes and of class struggle we enter the realm of liberty, in which material forces no longer control mankind in which, instead, human beings become "the master of themselves." Marx visualized a society in which the social order will have reached a state of perfection. In that society nobody owns anything but everybody owns everything and each individual contributes according to his ability and receives according to his need.

Limitation

Marxian theory of social change has been criticised from various points of view —

(i) Few deny that economic factors influence social conditions of life but Marx hold that economic factors are the only activating forces in human history. There are other causes obviously also at work.

(ii) There is no scientific proof that human society is going through the stages visualized by Marx. His claim that man is destined to attain an ideal stage of existence is little more than visionary.

(iii) An inadequate psychology is perhaps the fatal weakness of all determinism. Marx asserted that human beings respond to the changes initiated in the productive system — how initiated he does not tell us, for he speaks as though the changing technique of production explained itself and were a first cause — in a simple determinate manner. He ignores the complexities of habituation on the one hand, and of revolution on the other. He simplifies the attitudes that gather around institution; the solidarities and loyalties of family, occupation, and nation are wholly subjected to those of economic class.

(iv) The assumption of Marxism that the establishment of classless society would bring to an end the exploitation of man is too simple to be accepted. As MacIver and Page pointed out : "the power over man has deeper roots than economic advantage and it can be at least as formidable and as by tyrannical under a socialist economy as under any other kind of regime."

(v) The Marxist theist that politics and culture of a particular epoch are explained by the fact that they sub-serve the interest of the economically dominant class in that epoch is also open to several objections. All human actions can not always be explained in terms of economic motivation. Religious pursuits, for example, can not be explained in economics terms. A consideration of the motives that inspire art culture, music, painting, and sometimes even politics of a country, will show that human nature is too complex to be explained simply in term of economic motives.

Conclusion

Finally, we may say that it is undeniable that the economic factors exert a very important influence on politics and social philosophy of a given society. But to regard the economic system as the sole determinant of legal codes, political and cultural systems, is evidently wrong. There are other aspects of human life, besides economic, which are equally significant.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. State the main features of Marxian theory of social change.

1.2.1.2 : PITIRIM SOROKIN : THEORY OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Introduction

Russia was able to make a significant contribution to the development of a new science of society in the person of Pitirim Sorokin (1889-1968). Sorokin's major sociological concern centered around the process of social organisation, disorganisation, and re-organisation, within a panoramic view of history that stresses periodic fluctuations as the core component or characteristics of social change. His primary sociological pre-supposition was that of a supra-organic, super individual, sociocultural reality. This pre- supposition runs throughout his analysis of socio cultures systems. The understanding of Sorokin's theory of social and cultured change is understanding a system, specially cultural system. According to Sorokin, ‗a cultural system is born in a process which he calls mental integration''. He states that cultural systems are influenced in their basic natures by the beliefs about reality which they embody. He identified three basic premises about the nature of reality which have alternately shaped the cultural system of the world. These three reality premises he coined as the Ideational, Sensate and Idealistic (or integral) ‗cultural mentalities'' or ‗cultural super-systems.'' And, he pointed out, history suggests that the pattern or cycle of rise and fall of each super system is in this specific order -- the sensate followed by the counter poising ideational followed by the synthesis of the idealistic. And these categories form the foundation for his theory of socialchange.

Correspondingly, he believed, there are three irreducible forms of truth: sensory, spiritual and rational. Having been persuaded by his survey of world history that all the varieties of cultural constellations that have appeared on the human scene can be effectively encompassed as subvarieties of the three major *cultural* mentalities, Sorokin proceeds to explain why all major social change must be recurrent. As cultural systems reach the zenith of their full flowering, they ―become less and less capable of serving as an instrument of adaptation, as an experience for real satisfaction of the needs of its bearers, and as foundation for their social and cultural life." At this point, he says, a cultural system, by driving to the limits the premises that gave it birth, exceeds the mark, distorts the portion of truth it once embodied through one-sided exaggeration and prepares its own demise, thereby giving birth to a new cultural system. This dialectic, which bears strong resemblances to the Hegelian, is at the heart of Sorokin's principle of *limits* and purports to explain the rhythmic periodicity of all socio- cultural phenomena. For Sorokin, just as for Hegel, change implies the rise of a new life at the same time as it imparts dissolution.

The Content of Cultural Change

Sorokin's theories on the content of cultural change focus around the Ideational, Sensate and Idealistic super systems. He sees these super-systems or ‗cultural mentalities'' as the archetypes of culture, differentiated by their fundamental beliefs about the nature of reality. He also argues that the history of cultural change as the on going rise and decline of these three systems.

Ideational Culture

Ideational culture is built on the belief that reality is super sensory, non-material, and unchanging. True value and true reality consist in a super-sensory, super-rational God. Reality here is felt to be disclosed only through a view that transcends the world of the sensor and achieves a transcendent vision of the eternal as in Platonic idealism, thus, people in this culture generally accept the truth of faith believing that behind sense impressions lies another, deeper reality. In this way Sorokins attempts to step sintoa non-material concept of culture.

Ideal culture is characterised by the following :

(1) Realityisperceivedasnon-sensateandnon-material,everlastingbeing;

(2) The needs and ends aremainly spiritual;

(3) Theextentoftheirsatisfactionisthelargest,andthelevel,highest;

(4) The method of their fulfillment or realization is self-imposed minimization or elimination of mostofthephysicalneeds,andtothegreatestpossibleextent.

Sorokin divides the ideational culture into two sub-types : the aesthetic ideational which involves a radical rejection of the sensate world, and the active ideational which involves an attempt to transform the sensate world in the right of spiritualalues.

The art of ideational culture is heavily symbolic, as it embraces the views:–

Theology becomes the ‗‗queen of the sciences'' and religion dominates other attempts to understand the world. Ethical standards are derived from absolute values and constitute a fixed system.

Sensate Culture

The sensate culture is the opposite of the ideational in its major premises. The reality, affirmed by sensate culture, is perceived by the senses. In this system true reality and true value is sensory. The reality and value are perceived by our sense organs. There is no other reality and no value. The sensate reality is thought of as a becoming, process, change, flux, evolution, progress, transformation. It is based on the belief that reality is directly accessible through the human senses; thus people in this culture ascribe ultimate validity to their senses. The needs and ends of sensate culture are primarily physical (including fame and power) and maximum satisfaction is sought of those needs. The methods by which these needs are sought involve them an imputation of the environment– including other people.

Sensate art tends either to reproduce reality precisely as it is perceived or to stimulate the sense. Sensate culture is marked by a strong interest in science–particularly in applied science or–technology – and is usually a period of great creativity and productivity in the technological realism. Sensate language is precise, descriptive, technical. The ethics of this culture tend to be pragmatic and relativistic as absolute standards of truth, beauty, and goodness recede before more practical norms which can be empirically tested. Religion insensate culture tends to decline in importance and stagnate.

Idealistic Culture

Sorokin describes it as a synthesis of ideational and sensate cultures. It is built on the belief that reality is an ‗‗infinite manifold'' both sensory and super-sensory, material and spiritual, eternal and changing. It is also partly super-rational. Its needs and ends are a synthesis of both spiritual and material goals, and they are sought through the transformation of both the self and the environment. Sorokin suggests that while ideational culture emphasizes the ‗‗truth of faith'' and sensate culture the ‗‗truth of the senses,'' Idealistic culture is dominated by the ‗‗truth of reason''.Sorokin referstothisthird major culture mentality and states that it is based up on a synthesis of all three of these truths. Sorokin seems to see the Idealistic – Integral super-system as the basis for a particularly satisfying culture marked by great creativity in the fine arts and in fields such as philosophy which combines spiritual and theoretical reflection with empiricalobservation.

Sorokin asserts that none of these super-systems is based on a wholly true or fully adequate reality principle. Each contains some truth which provides the basis for the development of a satisfying culture, and some error, which ‗leads its human bearers away from the reality, gives them knowledge instead of real knowledge, and hinders their adaptation and the satisfaction of their physiological, social and cultural needs.'' (Social and Cultural Dynamics, Vol, IV, pp 742-743, Sorokin). This internal inadequacy of cultural systems is, according to Sorokin, the (immanent) reason for their alternative rise and decline, the underlying basis of the patterns of cultural change in history. For as a system ascends, it builds not only on its truth but on its error as well, and the aspects of a culture built on error finally becomes its downfall.

For Sorokin, these super systems and change process were not mere theoretical constructs; they were actual, historical occurrences. Greek culture from the twelfth to the fifth century B.C. is regarded as ideational while that from the fifth through the fourth century B.C., which included the Golden Age of Athens, was idealistic. From the later part of the fourth century B.C. to the fourth century A.D. during which the Roman Empire emerged and flourished, sensate culture hold sway. The subsequent two centuries of mixed culture were followed by a long period of ideational culture. The period from the end of the twelfth century to the early fourteen which was the age of Gothic Cathedrals, of Dante, and of St. Thomas Aquinas, was idealistic. Since the end of the fourteenth century, sensate culture has been in the ascendancy, reaching the climax in mid-twentieth century. In this way Sorokin testified his rhythmic theory ofsocio-cultural change.

Sorokin's theory of socio-cultural phenomena involves three fundamental principles which constitutes the corner stone of his theory of social and cultural change. This is being discussed now.

The Principle of Cyclical Change

Sorokin rejected the unilinear view of socio-cultural phenomena which claims that history never repeats itself and that no two cultural objects are ever the same, Sorokin argued that the socio-cultural phenomena are always recurrent and that the process of social change is essentially cyclical. He writes: the great symphony of social life is ‗scored' for a countless, number of separate processes, each proceeding in a wavelike manner and recurring in space, in time, in both space and time, periodically or non-periodically, after long and short intervals. Briefly, or for an extensive time, in the same or in several social systems, a process moves in a certain quantitative or spatial direction, or in all these directions, reaches its ‗point of saturation,'' and then often reverses its movements.

Sorokin argued that the general trend of social change is that of a linear advance upto a certain point of which time either a reversal of cultural advance or the setting in of cultural stagnation occurs. In the case of the cultural reversal, the cultural movement is toward still another point of cultural advancement facing on ceaga in the inevitability of reversal.

The Principle of Immanent Change

The theory of immanent change is an essential part of Sorokin's overall theory of cultural dynamics. According to this theory, the basic cause of change in a socio-cultural system lies within that system itself, but change may be influenced by the milieu in which it takes place, just as it, in turn, influences that milieu. Change is a constant process in a living system. The system itself bears the seeds of its own change and thus molds its own ‗life career'' or ‗destiny''. The role of the environment (which is itself composed primarily of other immantly changing systems) ‗consists essentially in retardation or acceleration; facilitation or hindrance, reinforcement or weakening of the realization of the immanent potentialities of the system''. The environment can crush a system or stop its development, but it cannot change the nature of its immanent potentialities. He leads us to think : change is the fundamental nature of reality.

The Principle of Limit

There are definite limits to the possible variations that socio-cultural phenomena can assume, ‗processes go on for some time without any appreciable change in their direction, but sooner or later the trend reaches its limit, and then the process turns aside into a new path.'' Too much sensate freedom and too much ideational restraint will have the opposite effect. ‗When immobility persists too long, social systems generate forces working for differentiation.'' Moreover, there are limited possibilities for the variation of systems. The momentum of change varies with the under pinning force soft he milieu.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Name the various cultural systems forwarded by Sorokin.
2. What is ‗Idealistic' culture?
3. State the main features of ‗Sensate culture'

Block - 1

UNIT – 3

Constraints of Social Change

1.3.1 : CONSTRAINTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

There are various constraints which hamper in bringing changes in society. Let us now discuss some of the important constraintshere.

Caste

Castism is very common feature of Indian Society and Culture. Though caste is peculiarly Indian in origin and development still traces of caste were found in ancient Egypt, Japan, Rome, Burma etc. Caste is closely connected with Hindu philosophy and religion, marriage and family, morals and manners, food and dress habits, occupation and hobbies, etc. It is a deep rooted and long lasting social institution of India. India is a classic all and of caste having more than 2800 castes and sub-castes. According to C.H. Cooley — "when a class is somewhat strictly hereditary we may call it a caste". Caste is a closed social stratum. It may be viewed as a set of value, beliefs and practices.

The caste system creates an unhealthy atmosphere to bring about changes in society. It is a great obstacle in achieving justice, social progress and the establishment of a democratic society. For example, the Brahmins always have been made much efforts to be dominant in society making deprived to other caste in all the levels of social, political, educational and legal rights. Some many years the lower caste like sudras and vaishyas were being denied from all the facilities. So successful changes could not be possible amongthem.

The values of caste system (hierarchy, hereditary, specialization or fixed occupation, endogamy, repulsion, etc.) were a great barrier in changing Indian Society. It opposed the idea of open opportunity, free competition increasing specialization and individual mobility associated with a dynamic industrial economy and society. Hence, as MacIver says, "the caste fixes the role of a man in society. It regulates even the routine activities of this member."

There are many conservative attitudes and orthodoxies in caste system which hinder violently in social changes. Besides, the caste system is responsible for a number of other problems. Child marriage, denial of widow re-marriage, dowry, untouchables, restriction on food habbit, occupational choice, social interaction and social relationship, intercaste marriage, social and religious participation, monopoly of education and teaching in higher caste, low status of women, legal, educational, political privileges of certain caste etc. are some examples. Thus caste system his restrained social change.

Class

Class is an important constraint of social change. A class may mean any category or type within which individuals or units fall. A social class in any portion of a commodity marks off from the rest by social status. As Mac Iver says "whenever social intercourse is limited by the considerations of "higher" and "lower" there social class exists. A system or structure of social classes involves first, a hierarchy of status groups, second, the recognition of the superior-inferior stratification and finally some degree of permanancy of the structure (Cf. T. H. Marshall, Social Class, Sociological Review 1934, An American Journal ofSociology).

Status and position are the basic criteria of social class. Jinsberg has stated in his book "Sociology" — —asocial class is one or two or more group of individuals who are ranked by members of the

community in socially superior or inferior positions." In terms of standards of living and income social class is divided into three sub-classes as upper class, middle class and lower class. This class system makes the society close ended rather than open ended. It tends to restrict interaction so that there is more interaction within strata than between strata. In fact, the interactions among three classes are very low and many graves are prevailing among these classes.

The people in certain class feel superior or inferior themselves and make the limit to cross their boundaries. That is why, it is strongly said that class tremendously hampers to bring changes in society. Because social change always demands wide relation and interactions among the people. But social class system limits this interactions.

Ethnocentrism

An ethnic group is generally conceived to be one whose members share a distinctive social- cultural tradition, maintained within group from generation to generation either as part of a more complex society or in isolation. This mode of social differentiation has its own distinguishing characteristics. The cultural uniqueness and racial purity are the key element of an ethnic group. Ethnocentrism is related to the principles of cultural relativism. Ethnocentrism believes in the superiority of one's culture. People of an ethnic group looked upon those who belonged to another cultural group as 'barbarvin'. An ethnic group has a tendency to evaluate other cultures in terms of their own. Ethnocentrism also prevents persons in accepting things or innovations from other cultures. It is so deeply ingrained in the minds of Indians that even they are sensitive to the philosophy of cultural relativism, they easily fall victim to evaluating others in terms of their own views. The pride and dignity too prevent people from accepting things suggested by others. They think that they are so matured and learned that others suggestion need to bediscarded.

Language

The question of social change is closely linked with language. India is a multilingual country. It creates language-based region. The people speaking in one language are not ready to understand to the people speaking in other languages. It makes a great communication gap. The people speaking in traditional and native language have been opposing to the use of other classical and foreign languages. The people in South India, specially in Tamil Nadu (Chennai) have been protesting Hindi, as a national language. Many Indian also opposed to use of English. The language creates conservative outlook among the people which acts as a barrier to social change.

Religion

Religion is a very ancient institution. It is as old as mankind. According to Ogburn, —Religion is an attitude towards super human powers." T. B. Bottomore has stated in his book Sociology — —religion originated in the fear and anxiety." In many times religion greatly hinders social change because it is not ready to change and accept any change. An religion is based on certain unproved and unexperimented beliefs and assumptions. People in certain religion are not ready to come out from such formulations. That is why,

W. G. Sumner and A. G. Kellore in their book the Science and Society, stated that — —It is very difficult to find any type of religion which has welcomed free enquiry as it is easy to cite eminent enquirers who have been executed or persecuted by religiousauthorities."

It is also true that religious institutions tend to become conservative by defending their own position against any movement that threatened or seem to threatened their life and value they are built. Religion is usually related with such brutal phenomena like superstition, animism, orthodoxes, false magic, etc. which violently disturb to bring about socialchange.

Religion is opposes science and interferes with its development by every means possible. Religion has

always tried to suppress the doctrines of Darwin (Organic Evolution). William Herbey‘s Blood Circulation Theory, Galilio‘s Theory of Planatory System, Copernican Theory of Solar System, G. Bruno‘s Sun-centred Universe, Theory of Huxley and others. Galilio‘s (mid 17th century) was imprisioned for his planatory system by the pope in Church. Bruno was flamed in fire and killed by the people in Church. The theory of organic evolution was seriously opposed by protestant and catholic Church. Widow marriage, eradication of child marriage and satidah in Hindu religion had to meet with religion opposition. Simantaniously, women education and abolition of purdah system, accepting vaccine and method of family planning, etc. are now being opposed in Islamic society. Religion also support evil practices such as sucide. Slavery, untouchability, human and animal sacrificed, etc. which hamper social change. So T.F.O. Den remarks that — ―Religion inhibits, protests and impedes social changes. It greatly hampers the adaptation of society to changed condition.” If opposed free thinking, rovelty and advancement of humanprogress.

Regionalism

The emotional differences among the people belonging to different regions is standing as the opposition of social changes. All the efforts for bringing changes cannot be fulfiled due to this narrow regional feelings, conflict in tolerance and narrow will among the people belonging to various regions. This feelings always protests intercommunal marriage, interstate marriage, interstate relationship and social-cultural condition. It makes gaps, such as personal gap, regional or community gap. Such regionalism always disturbs socialchange.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. List down main constraints of social change in India.

LET US SUM UP

Social change is the change in organisation of the society. The organisation of the society means structural and functional aspects of the social institutions. Social change is the change in established patterns of social relations or change in structures and sub-systems operating in society. Social change may be partial or total. No social system ever changes in toto. Social change is always or mostly partial. It is caused of several factors. There are biological factor, physical factor, economic factor, technological factor, political factor, cultural factor, psychological factors etc. Education is an powerful instrument of social change. It helps in many ways to bring social change. Both education and social change are influenced by each others. There are different views on social change. In this Unit stress has given on Marxian theory of social change and Sorokin views on social change. Marx analysed social change on the basis of economic system or production system. He stressed on material condition or economic condition of life. According to him, economy is the base and the super structure of whole society is built up on it. He say, social change is the change of production system, particularly change of production forces and production relationships. Society is changed with changing of production system. On the other hand, Sorokin stressed on socio-cultural aspects. He mentioned three types of cultural system Ideational. Sensate and Idealistic culture on the basis of nature of reality. He pointed out that the pattern or cycle of rise and fall of each cultural system is in specific order — the sensate followed by ideational, followed by the synthesis of the idealistic. And these categories of form the foundation for his theory of social change. Finally, in this unit pay attention on some constraints of social change. These are caste, class, religion, regionalism, language, ethnocityetc.

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ASSIGNMENTS

(1) Analyse the meaning of socialchange.

(2) Explain several factors of social change and cite suitable examples.

(3) Analyse critically the Marxian theoryof socialchange. State its impaction education.

(4) Analyse the Sorokin‘s views on socialchange.

(5) Asses the role of education in socialchange.

(6) Discuss the constraints of socialchange.

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY - 2

Block - 2

Education and Social Stratification

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

In Unit-1 of this blockwe have got some learning about social change and its educational interpretation. We, in this Unit-2, are going to have further ideas on human society which, sociologists think, to have either natural or man-made divides according to various important parameters like male and female, rural and urban, poor and rich, lower-caste and higher caste, etc. Here we categorize people according to some attributes of them. Not only this, we are also ranking people with some degree of permanence. The process by which individuals and groups are ranked in a more or less enduring hierarchy of status is called stratification. Such stratification also connotes ranking of superordination and subordination among people. Consequent of such ranking gives rise to social class, each having some perceived prestige as well as power. The social stratification is also linked with two other social concepts — social inequality and the degree of opportunity. Opportunity means chances for changing and improving one's social status, power and prestige. It is also related with social mobility — a trend of an individual to shift from one status (generally lower) rank to another, usually in positive sense. This tendency is more visible and encouraging in a democratic society like ours where social equity in all dimensions of life is highly regarded by some social instrumentlike Constitution.

Sociologists have observed this rank fixing tendency in our society, though inevitable, to beget inequality in quality of life as opportunities become of lesser degree for the low ranked individuals in our contemporary society. Therefore, ensuring equity and equal opportunity to all individuals has been the responsibility in a truly democratic society. The forward movement of persons in the social stratification scale is said to be possible through various measures in the entire societal process of which education is held as the mosteffective transformative process.

In fact, India pledges to ensure such social transformation in her directive principles of state policies in four dimensions — Justice, Liberty, Equality and Fraternity. Part III of the Constitution confers certain fundamental rights on the citizens and others what have been honoured in the National Policies on Education (1968 and1986).

OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, you will be able to :—

(i) understand the concept of social stratification andmobility,

(ii) examine the role of education in social stratification andmobility,

(iii) identifythevariousfactorsofsocialstratificationandmobility, understand the concept and needs of equality of educationalopportunity.

Block - 2

Unit – 1

Education and Social Stratification

4.2.2 : EDUCATION AND SOCIALSTRATIFICATION

The term ―social stratification" denotes to the division (differentiation) of a population into strata, one on top of another, on the basis of possession of certain characteristics, like in born qualities, material possessions and performances, which the society regards as more desirable or less desirable layers. Society becomes a hierarchy, that is a society which is organized in successive grades layers. The consequence of the layering process in a society is the creation of structural forms - social classes. These develop different degrees of rigidity, ranging from open forms where movement up and down the social scale is relatively free to closed forms or castes where social position is fixed for life by birth and social heritage. Where a society is composed of social classes, the social structure looks like a truncated pyramid. At the base of the structure lies the lowest social class and above it other social classesarrangedinahierarchyofrankanddistinction.Thusstratificationthusinvolvestwophenomena : (1) differentiation of individuals or groups whereby some individuals or group come to rank higher than others, and (2) the ranking of individuals according to some basis of valuation or prestige. Such differentiation of persons within a society is natural.

To quote Sorokin, ―Unstratifiedociety, with a real equality of its members, is a myth which has never been realized in the history of mankind".

Without division of its social functions a society can hardly exist for long. Gradation of functions results, for example, in the exercise of power and control of the husbands and fathers over their wives and children even in the simplest societies. These gradations multiply as societies grow more complex. In the simpler communities we may not find any class strata apart from the distinction between members of the groups and strangers, distinction based on age, sex and kinship. But even in the primitive world chieftainship, individual prowess, and clan or family property introduce an incipient stratification.

So, social stratification is a generalized aspect of society and approaches to its study inevitably become a part of larger theoretical constructs. The main approaches to the study of social stratification are coined as Marxian, Weberian, functional, social-psychological and structuralist. Each of these approaches refers to a specific view point by which structures and processes of social stratification are viewed and patterns of hierarchic social relations are as curtained and valued.

Social stratification is a generalized aspect of a society and approaches to its study inevitably become a part of larger the ethical constructs. Un stratified society, with a real equality of its members, is a myth which has never been realized in the history of mankind

DIFINITION

Let us now attempt to define social stratification. In the words of Young and Mark, ―Inmost societies people classify one another into categories and rank these categories the higher to lower". This process of defining such category is known as ―SocialStratification". The categories themselves are called strata. The people who belong to each stratum constitute a social class. Morris Ginsberg defines social classes ―asportions of the community, or collection of individuals, standing to each

other in the relation of equality, and marked off from other portions by accepted or sanctioned standards of inferiority and superiority". The society in which division into social class exists is known as stratified society. In this context Talcott Parsons writes, ―Socialstratification is regarded here as the differential ranking of the human individuals who compose a given social system and their treatment as superior and inferior to one another in certain socially important respects".

According to Gisbert ―Socialstratification is the division of society in permanent groups and categories linked with each other by the relationship of superiority and sub-ordination'.

MacIver and Page defines social stratification somehow in a different way. They opine that, ―Asystem or structure of social classes involves, first a hierarchy of status-groups, second the recognition ofsuperior-inferiorstratificationandfinally,somedegreeofpermanencyofstructure:itisthesenseof

status, sustained by economic, political, ecclesiastical power and by the distinctive modes of life and cultural expressions corresponding to them that draws class apart from class, give cohesion to each class and stratifiesa whole society".

Ordering or patterning of social relations would, therefore, involve the value-system, the power-structure, the role of ascriptive and achievement aspect, the patterns of conformity and deviance; and reward and punishment attached withthem.

A comprehensive understanding of pattern of social stratification may be possible when an attempt is made to delineate and analyse the various process and principles of stratification with reference to their reciprocal adjustment and compatibility patterns in all their ramification.

2.1.1 : MEANING OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Social inequality is the basis of social stratification. And all societies, more or less encourage social inequality by stratifying their members. Some sociologists contend that stratification and its resulting inequalities are a necessary, functional requirement of all societies. The society has some highly important functions which are to be performed by its members. It wants that the most capable persons should undertake these functions. It, therefore, distributes these functions among its most efficient members. But there are many other functions which are of lower order. Those who perform lower functions; those of labourers or the servants, are placed low in social order, while those performing the higher functions are placed high in the order. Thus, the society stratifies itself along the lines of its standard of social functions. Which are high and which are low functions are decided by its own evaluative criteria based on valuesystem.

There may be given three types of social characteristics used in stratification systems, considering the fullest spectrum of societies. These are:

1. such biologically grounded factors as : age, sex, race and kinship;
2. class characteristics such as occupation, wealth, and power; and
3. any number of idiosyncratic characteristics such as talented personality.

However in any society the stratification may not be based on only any one of these criteria but two or more social characteristics may be mixed together.

Above stratification is described as learning to inequality or as a divisive force in the society.

Social stratification implies three features – (i) a hierarchy of status group (ii) the recognition of the superior-inferior stratification and (iii) some degree of performance of the structure.

But this is only part of the picture. Stratification also serves as a cohesive social force. If it would have simply remained divisive, all societies were doomed to destruction. Riesman believes that the cohesive

element in stratification derives primarily from the social values upon which it depends. The society has certain core-beliefs. The stratification is due to the extension of these core beliefs. Thus, the society's belief system finds an expression in the stratification process. Since the belief system is an unifying force the society becomes more cohesive through the stratification practiced by it. However, there are people in the society who may not subscribe to the divisions in the society. They feel discontent and this discontent can be organized into a force of social change. It may, therefore, be asserted that stratification can mean both divisiveness and cohesion.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. List down main constraints of social change in India Give a suitable definition of social stratification.
2. Whydoesasociety'sbeliefsystemfindanexpressioninitsstratificationprocess?

2.1.2 : CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

The characteristics of social stratification are given below : —

The *first characteristic* is that it is social in nature. The social aspect of stratification may be explained with reference to the following. (i) Although stratification is social to emphasise the obvious that one is not talking about biologically caused inequalities. (ii) The distribution of rewards is governed exclusively by social norms or conventions which may prevail in a society. (iii) The term _social' implies the continuity of these norms effected mainly by socialisation. The division of society into hierarchical status groups is not simply a one-generation affair; it continues from generation to generation. This can be explained, in part, by the processes of socialisation in terms of which every child is indoctrinated with the values of the class and such values become, in course of time, a part and parcel of his personality structure, (iv) Stratification is dynamic in nature, mainly due to dynamic social forces. Since socialisation is not always perfect and since conformity is not uniform, and further since the values which the society upholds do not remain the same over time, the structure and nature of stratification prevalent in a society always undergo changes. (v) As social stratification is closely connected with other social institutions, it is affected by and at the same time, has effects upon such matters as marriage, religion, education, economic structure, political system, etc.

The *second characteristic* of social stratification is its antiquity. There was no society in the past in which social stratification, in some form or other, was not found, not excluding the small wandering bands that characterised society in the earliest days of man. —In such primitive conditions, both age and sex in combination with physical strength must have been important criteria of stratification".

The *third characteristic* of social stratification is its ubiquity. Social stratification is not only an antiquated institution. It is also very much in existence amongst us even today in all parts of the world. Various forms of protest movements against existing inequality that hamper the peace and tranquality of all societies around the globe confirm the existence of stratification, including even socialist countries and non-literate societies of today. Some form of socially structured and sanctioned inequality of power, property, and prestige is a universal phenomenon. The *fourth characteristic* of social stratification is its social concomitants which may be expressed in terms of (i) life chances and (ii) life styles.

Kingsley Davis, Wilbert Moore, Talcott Parsons and B. Barber being the most prominent figures among them - have argued that social stratification is indispensable to any complex society because if performs some vital functions in it.

2.1.3 : DETERMINANTS OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Social stratification may be based upon a variety of interpenetrating principles : free and unfree; caste, estate, or class; occupation; administrative hierarchy or income level.

(i) **Free and Unfree :** The population of a society may be divided into thefree men, the slaves and serfs. In certain communities the slaves do not enjoy rights, for any practical purpose. He comes from various sources: war, slave-captures, purchase, birth, or seizure for debt. The slave is practically at the disposal of his master, his master's property. He can always be bought and sold.

A serf is less unfree than the slave. In the Middle Ages in Europe serfs usually possessed some plot of land which they might cultivate for themselves, but they were bound to pay their production to their immediate landlord and also pay additional dues under certain circumstances.

(ii) **Class, Caste and Estate :** Ginsberg says social classes —may be described as portions of the community, or collections of individuals, standing to each other in the relation of equality, and marked off from other portions by accepted standards of inferiority and superiority". Subjective attitude and objective behavior are essential. As T.H. Marshall observes, —Theessence of social class is the way a man is treated by his fellows (and, reciprocally, the way he treats them), not the qualities nor the possession which cause the treatment". Systems of stratification of this kind may be —open" or "closed". In open societies individuals can move from one class or status level to another, but in "closed" there is no provision of movement from one class or strata to another. The Indian caste system provides a classic example. A —caste" system is one in which an individual's rank and its accompanying rights and obligations is a scribed on the basis of birth into a particular group.

The —estate" system of medieval Europe provides another system of stratification. The feudal estates were, in the first place, legally defined. Each estate had a _status', that is, each had a legal complex of rights and duties.

Secondly, the feudal estates represented a broad division of labour and, thirdly, were political groups. Pre-revolutionary Russia, for instance, was an —estate" society in which the clergy, the nobility, merchants, burghers, and peasants were separated into social strata that depended on birth, and was controlled by law. The ruling elite including higher bureaucracy, high military men, high clergy, and wealthy and ednobility center edabouttheimperial courtofCzar.

(iii) **Occupations and Income :** Occupation is an aspect of economic systems which often influences social class structures. Talcott Parsons opined that —the main criteria of class status are to be found in the occupational achievements of men".

The distribution of income, both cash - and real income, among individuals of families, in all capitalist countries takes the form of a gradient, with a relatively small group at the top receiving huge amounts and, at the other extreme, a somewhat larger but still a small number of persons in the —negative income" bracket.

Thus the societies stratify themselves by occupation and income distribution (which gives economic power) has been generally accepted.

(iv) **Administrative Hierarchy :** Finally, there is the system of stratification based on the administrative position. Variations in rank in the services, variation in responsibility in industrial management, and the graded hierarchy of the Church are obvious examples. Badges of rank and special clothes frequently differentiate administrative status, and, in the civil services grades are distinguished by the shape of chair up on which the officials its and size of the desk at which he writes.

All the factors mentioned above are strong determinants of social stratification. But all the hierarchies as we find in modern societies — income level, occupational prestige, official position and social class - are interrelated. Broadly speaking, members of the upper classes in the social scale will be found in the upper sectors of the other hierarchies; conversely, those who achieve high position in the occupational income, or official grades improve their social position and that of their children. It should, however, be borne in mind that the four methods of grading do not include exactly the same persons in their upper, middle and lower strata. A man may have a high social position but a medium-ranged income.

2.1.4 : ROLE OF EDUCATION IN SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Society stratifies itself along the line of standard of social functions. Here it serves as a decisive force. But this is not the whole picture. Stratification serves as a cohesive force also. Stratification is the extension of some core-beliefs which are unifying force. So society become more cohesive through stratification. Education inters into our country into the picture as stratification acts more as a divisive force than the cohesive one. It is through education that the problem of stratification is now being sought to be solved. Through the intervention in the following fields education can try to control social stratification and lead the society in a desired way.

(i) **Economic Development :** Education develops society economically. It provides various types of vocational training to children to uplift themselves and bring about economic progress and prosperity of society to which they belong. Without education, a society remains economically backward and poor. An economic development through education can control social stratification to someextent.

(ii) **Social Reform :** Education brings about social changes and social reform in a continuous manner. It achieves identification and adjustment with the present social state of affairs and develops intelligence, insight and capability to remove social evil. It brings about the desirable changes and reform in the social structure for the good of individual and for the welfare of the society. Moreover, it creates social mobility in the society and lessen thestratification.

(iii) **Socialization :** Education socializes educates. In school, a child comes into contact with other children and comes to know about and interacts with their ideas, ideals, cultural values and patterns of behaviour. Thus he / she develops himself/herself socially and culturally. So, socialization helps to remove stratification in educational agencies and in other fields of a society.

(iv) **Social Control :** Education exposes evil customs and harmful traditions of society. It creates public opinion against social evils. It succeeds in eliminating them from society for the good of the individuals and that of whole society. Thus education is essential for social control and no reformation is possible without social control. Properly controlled society may be free from evil effects ofsocial stratification.

(v) **Awakening of social feeling :** An individual is closely related to a society. He achieves his development in and through society promoting the good of other fellow beings. Without society an individual can‘t exist. So, development of social awareness, social feelings and attitudes are very essential. Education inculcates social attitudes, ideas and values together with a spirit of service and sacrifice for the cause of others. Varieties of educational programems, processes, activities, experiences and active participation in them makes the individual social-minded and service oriented.

It is through education that the problem of stratification is now beings ought to be solved.

(vi) Political Development : Through education, an individual is able to gain knowledge about various political ideologies operating in the world. After a comparative study one may acquire a balanced outlook. Education spreads political awakening in the people developing civic sense of their rights and duties for the promotion of their own good and good of society which in fluencies social stratification.

(vii) Preservation of Social Heritage : Through preservation of social heritage, education can reduce volume of inequality in the society. As inequality is the fundamental basis of stratification preservation of social heritage helps to maintains stratification already prevails in any society.

(viii) Social Mobility : Moreover, education promotes growth and removes backwardness of a country. The process of social mobility operates very little in the already developed countries whose advanced technology has achieved at saturation point. But social mobility has unlimited possibilities in underdeveloped and developing countries like India. The more will be the social mobility the less will be the social stratification.

Conclusion

Each and every social system has some merits as well as demerits. No one is free from ills and evils. This is also true for social stratification. It has both some advantages and disadvantages in different specific field. So, we should take the good side of social stratification and try to eradicate the ill-fat edresultsth rough the most effective and significant instrument-education.

Block - 2

Unit – 2

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL MOBILITY

2.2 : EDUCATION AND SOCIAL MOBILITY

The social stratification is a characteristic of all societies. We have also seen that classes and individuals area rated high or low on the basis of socio economic status possessed by them. Any change in the value scale or any change in the characteristics results in a change in the position of different classes. Thus different occupations are held in different degrees of esteem in different societies or within the society at different times. Suppose, if a person becomes a minister from an ordinary shopkeeper, his status is also enhanced. On the other hand, if the minister loses his job and comes to his old shop, the status enjoyed by him as a minister is lost. Thus it is seen that people in society continue to move up and down the status scale. This movement is called social mobility. Mobility is to be distinguished from migration, which is a movement in geographical space.

Therefore basic question concerning stratification is - how much opportunity is there to move from one position to another in society? The study of such movement is the study of social mobility.

By —soial mobility" sociologists mean movement of persons or groups up or down the rank ingorder of a socialst ratification systemi.e.changeinsocialstatus.

2.2.1 : DEFINITIONS

(i) —Bysocial mobility is meant any transition of an individual from one position to another in a constellation of social group andstrata".

(ii) —Socialmobility is any change in social position, such as occupational changes where persons move up or down the occupational scale, or election to office whereby a follower becomes aleader,oraleapfromaloweconomicclasstoahighone,orviceversa".

(iii) According to P.A. Sorokin, —Socialmobility is either horizontal orvertical.

An alteration in status upwards or downwards is considered as indicative of Vertical Mobility. Horizontal mobility is a movement from one status to another when there is no difference between the ranks of the two statuses, for example a person who is a farm labourer when becomes an industrial labourer has only moved horizontally. A son of a mason when goes to the school, graduates and gets a high profile job, has moved upward in status. This movement is vertical because this mobility is from the status position into which he wasborn.

(I) Horizontal Mobility

Sorokin has differentiated between the following forms of horizontal social mobility

- Inter-group mobility in race, sex and agegroups
- Occupationalmobility
- Inter-religionsmobility
- Politicalmobility

- Family and kinshipmobility
- Territorialmobility
- Internationalmobility

(II) Vertical Mobility

Sorokin has discussed the following forms of vertical mobility –

- Ascendingmobility
- Descendingmobility

2.2.2 : SOURCES OF MOBILITY

Social mobility may arise through changes in social structure brought about by industrialisation, modernisation or urbanisation. It may be fostered by struggles for collective gains through such organisations as labour unions, and by political reforms or revolution.

For example, before 1917, Russia was an estate society, with its relatively rigid division into strata like the clergy, the hereditary nobility, urban bourgeoisie and workers, and peasants. The October

Revolution destroyed this system, and there was considerable mobility, both upward and downward, as the nobility and bourgeoisie were deprived of their properties, wealth and power and the working class becametherulingclassofRussia).

Modernisation usually produces more openness and mobility in any system of stratification. As a country industrialises, increasing demands are made for educated, skilled labour force. The initial process of industrialisation is charactrised by the conversion of the

A socialist system needs economic development more than a capitalist out. Therefore, one of the immediate aims of the leaders of the socialist state was to reach the level of more advanced capitalist countries in industrialization, urbanization, development of communications and mass education. All these processes imply an increase in social mobility in socialist countries as well as elsewhere.

poor peasants into the urban proletariat, and the emergence of a middle class to guide and administer the process. Education and training plays a pivotal roles for advancement, and not traditional status only. The process continues in developedcountries.

Urbanisation also contributes to the degree of mobility. In the anonymity of city, achieved status counts more than ascribed status. Furthermore, urban economy provides greater opportunities for shifting from lower-class and working class occupations to middle-class occupations.

According to Peter Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan, family stability can affect occupational success and hence mobility. In broken families the children and their father often do not do as well as their peers from more stable families. The size of family is also an important limiting factor. The more siblings, the less chance one has for occupational success, probably because parents of smaller families are able to provide education for theirchildren.

Mobility may also be fostered by struggles for collective gains through such organisation as labouar unions, and by political reforms orrevolution.

2.2.3 : DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL MOBILITY

According to Lipset and Zitterberg the following are the areas of social mobility.

(i) Occupational Ranking : Occupation is a common ground of social mobility. It may be noted that occupations which have similar social and economic foundations, they are called an occupational class. It is a matter of experience that each occupational class has its distinct characteristics, social prestige and status. But, different occupations has different ideals, values, feelings and habits of persons engaged in a particular occupations. Thus, persons engaged in comparatively less prestigious occupations strive to move towards occupations comprising greater prestige and social distinction.

(ii) Social Class : It is comparatively easier for an individual to shift from one occupation to another, but it is quite impossible for any one to shift from one social class to another. In this connection, it is essential to note that people of elite sections of society do not associate with persons of inferior social status. Hence, the social status and social class of a person can only be ascertained by social status and prestige group of his friends andcompanions.

(iii) Consumption Ranking: According to Lipset and Zitterberg, there is difference between occupational status and economic status. Business status is ranked according to income whereas economic status is ascertained according to expenditure. Because expenditure is directly related to styles and habits of living, therefore, people having he same or similar living styles and habits of life are known as same consumer‘s group of society. Generally, it is seen that life of persons of the same occupation have different modes of social life.

(iv) Power Raking : Role relationship of the individuals with reference to the society determines their power ranking.

Thus, persons of the same power impact forma power group. These power groups are independent.

2.2.4 : FACTORS OF SOCIAL MOBILITY

The factors of social mobility is given below -

(i) Education : Those persons who receive more and more education achieve higher social status.Thisgivesanimpetustothegrowthofsocialmobilityinanormalway.

(ii) Aspirational Level : The more ambitious the people in a society the more social mobility grows.

(iii) Opportunity Structure : Opportunity received by a person powerfully influences the process of social mobility. More the opportunity more will be the chances of social mobility.

(iv) Demographic Structure : Birth rate and migration of village folk towns and cities are closely connected to social mobility. After independence revolutionary progress has occurred in India in the field of industry as well as agriculture. More and more people are migrating to cities and industrial centres from villages to take jobs in factories and mills. This increases socialmobility.

(v) Economic Success : Each individual irrespective to his group strives more and more to earn more and more money in order to achieve higher status and social prestige. Their economicsuccessinfluencetheirsocialmobilityfromonegrouptoanothergroup.

(vi) Occupational Improvement : Some occupations are associated with great social status and prestige in comparison with others. In our country occupational improvement is increasingday-by-dayand,therefore,thechancesofsocialmobilityisincreasing.

(vii) Administration : Democratic administration promotes social mobility in greater degree. In a democratic society greater opportunities are provided for social mobility in comparison with other types of administrativesocieties.

(viii) Automation level : In a society, some people are ambitious by nature and some are inspired and encouraged to achieve higher positions of status which promotes social mobility. The more ambitious the people in a society are, the moresocial mobility grows.

2.2.5 : ROLE OF EDUCATION IN SOCIAL MOBILITY

- Education abolishes social rigidity, removes discrimination based on birth and destroys rigid stratification.
- Education is helping to develop ability and capacity in the individual togain higher statuses, prestige and promotes effective social mobility.
- Education is capable to promote the growth and remove the backwardness of a country. It cancontributetothesocialawakeningamongpeople.
- Education creates a divide between the educated and uneducatedpeople. This division makesa society unequal. According to Krishna Kumar, education reproduces elites by circumventing the opportunities to education and subsequently to the positions of high status andpower.
- Where more useful and productive work in the education, the more is social mobility because only capable children will go up whereas the incapable and mentally retarded will go down. Education will achieve both these processes and attain a balance between the two kinds of mobility - upward anddownward.
- Education may bring changes in the norms and value-patterns. It can create a climate for hardwork.

Through education there should provisions to prepared all the individuals for vocations and create a confidence in earning one‘s ownliving.

A so Education promotes growth and removes backwardness of a country. It has unlimited possibilities in under-developed and developing countries like India. The more will be the social mobility the less will be the social stratification.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Mention threes ources of social mobility.
2. Relate social mobility and social stratification?

Block - 2

Unit – 3

EQUITY AND EQULITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

2.3.1 : CONCEPT OF EQUITY

In a large democratic nation like India where social and economic disparities are a matter of deep concern, access to higher education must necessarily be linked to equity. There is a need to provide special opportunities to the traditionally underprivileged sections of society. These include women, the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, other backward classes, the handicapped and the people of socially backward area. Expansion in educational facilities are initially utilized by the advanced areas and advantaged sections of the society and as a consequence interregional/inter-group disparities tend to get accentuated in the first phase of development unless deliberate intervention in favour of the deprived is resortedto.

Human resources development strategy calls for maturation and optimal utilization of all segments of population. Education acts as an important instrument for all round development of human resources in the country. So, eradication of illiteracy and growth with equality is now considered to be one of the objectives of planning in many of the developing countries. It may be noted that there is in the context of the developing countries, no contradiction between the demands for equity and growth. Equity without growth is astagnantces spool,where in only misery, ignorance, obstantism and superstition can be equitably distributed. Growth without equity leads to the accentuation of structural disequilibrium and, chronic persistence of low purchasing power of the mass of the toiling people constrains growth itself. The social concerns for the two can be handled together sustaining and sustainedby each other.

It was in this context that equalization of educational opportunities was recognized as one of the major goals of Indian educational policy. The National Policy Resolution, 1968, calls for strenuous efforts to correct regional imbalances and minimize inter-group disparities in the educational sphere. The National Policy on Education (1986) lays special emphasis on the removal of disparities and equalization of educational opportunity by attending to the specific needs of those who have been denied equality so far.

There is a considerable confusion regarding the meaning of the two terms - equality and equity. Equity to mean social justice, or fairness, it refers to a subjective and ethical judgement. Equality refers to the pattern of distribution of something such as income or education. It is more objective and a descriptive term and can be measured. But equity, or fairness, of a situation of inequality can beevaluated only by appealing to valuejudgement.

While the concept of equality in general and equality of opportunity in education is particular. The concept of equality of opportunity in education started with provision for ‗equal access'. Later on ‗equal input' we considered necessary for equalizing educational opportunities. Today, alongwith equal access and equal input, ‗equal output' is considered a necessary criteria. The last one calls for measures of protective discrimination in favour of the disadvantaged sections of the society. Equity in education can also be achieved by pursuing the policy of protective discrimination in favour of the disadvantaged section of the society. In this sense, today equality and equity in education have the same meaning and most of the developing countries of the world have these as major goals of education policy.

All men are created equal-this is the refrainin the declarations of all ideologues past and present. But the factisthatin equalities are in herentin then a tureofhuman beings.

After independence of 1947, India also committed itself to achieve an egalitarian social order where equality in general and equality of opportunity in particular were taken as important elements of State Policy. Further, under Article 46 of the Directive Principles of state policy, the State was directed ―to promote with special care the education and economic interests of the weaker sections of the society, and in particular of SC, ST and girls".

Planned efforts have been made since independence to achieve growth of all parts of the country and all the groups of population. Special allocation for the backward areas and incentive and facilities for different groups of disadvantaged are all part of the strategy to achieve a more equitable distribution of opportunities.

2.3.2 : CONCEPT OF EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

The concept of opportunity is meant giving equal chance to every citizen for the development of his or her capacity or ability and nothing should be permitted to obstruct one's path of development. This is our constitutionalrights.

But one of the stark realities of human society is inequality or what the sociologists call social stratification. In India inequality of educational opportunities is a reality that has existing for generations.

In the traditional caste system, education was the prerogative of the upper caste. Before independence, the British Policy accentuated the inequality of educational opportunities imposed by the traditional castesystem.

Equality of opportunities in respect of education gains significance not only in mitigating the "evil" aspects of the caste system, but also in promoting social mobility both within and outside the framework of caste.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. M Distinguish _equity' from_equality'.
2. Explain _equality of opportunityto education?

2.3.3 : IMPORTANCE OF EQUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

India is a democratic country. We have accepted democracy as an integral part of our social and political life. The Education Commission (196466) has observed - one of the important social objectives of education is to equalize opportunity, enabling the backward or underprivileged classes and individuals to use education as an instrument for the upliftment of their condition. Every society that values social justice and is anxious to improve the lot of the common man and cultivate all available talent must ensure progressive equality of opportunity to all section of the society. This is the only way for the building up of an egalitarian and human society by which the exploitation of the week will be minimized. This observation of Kothari Commission indicates the importance of equalization of educational opportunities - given below:—

(i) to promote socialjustice,

(ii) toensuretheenrichmentofdemocraticvalue,

(iii) essentialforsocialandeconomicdevelopmentofourcountry,

(iv) tominimizetheeducationalgapbetweentheprivilegedandtheunderprivileged,

(v) tocultivateallavailabletalentsinvariousfields,

(vi) for development of human resources and to meet the manpower needs ofour country,

(vii) to create useful and productivecitizens,

(viii) for proper functioning of the democratic orderand

(ix) for the establishment of an egalitarian society.

The opportunities for education are neither equal nor open to all. There exists a hierarchy of educational institutions with respect to the standard and quality of education imparted by them to the students. This types of disparities should be minimized.

2.3.4 : REASONS OF INEQUALITY IN RESPECT OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

In India there are some reasons which create inequality of educational opportunities. These reasons are:

(i) At present our education system has not been nationalized. In our educational system, both public and private agencies are at work in the area of education. Therefore, the main obstacle in the way of equality of educational opportunity is the absence of a natural system of education.

(ii) There are regional imbalances in educational opportunities in different states, districts and blocks. There are some areas where facilities for higher education are not available. Even there are areas having no facility for elementary education. In some areas primary schools exist, but they are incomplete. So, in these areas boys and girls do not get equal opportunity for education.

(iii) Another reason for educational inequality is the wide disparity between the education of boys and girls at all stages and in all sectors of education.

(iv) Gross inequalities arise from differences in home environments. A child from a rural household or an urban slum area having non-literate parents does not get the same opportunity which a child from an upper class family.

(v) Difference in educational standards of schools and colleges are another reasons for inequality of educational opportunity. Students of rural area are provided with inferior and ill-equipped schools and colleges where the educational standard is not upto the mark. But students of urban areas get opportunity to receive education in good schools and colleges. These differences in the standard of educational institution ultimately cause inequality in the standard of students.

(vi) In our country children from poor families fail to attend educational institutions where education is expensive. But children from affluent families get all facilities which they need text book; work books, dress and everything which poor children do not get. So poverty of parents is a major reason of inequality of educational opportunities.

In the sphere of education disparity also exists between the advantaged community or the upper class and the disadvantaged community or the lower class. Educational expansion and other educational measures are found mostly in advantaged communities and are meant for upper class children. The disadvantaged groups, particularly the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes are deprived of all developmental programmes. Even some cases such children do not have the opportunities for minimum education even elementary education.

Block - 2

Unit – 4

STEPS TO BE TAKEN FOR EQUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

2.4 : STEPS TO BE TAKEN FOR EQUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

Equalization of educational opportunities has been one of the major objectives of the successive five year plans. Considerable works in this respect has been done through the programme of expansion of educational facilities at different levels of education. This works/measures may be specific to the stages of education and some measures may be based on the needs and positions of disadvantaged groups or backward sections, disable children, etc.

(i) We must provide compulsory elementary education to all the children of the country on the basis of constitutional provisions. Democracy, socialism, secularism, justice and equality are to be cultivated through the provision of equalization of educational opportunity for establishing an egalitarian society.

(ii) In order to equalise educational opportunity admission to educational institutions has been made available to all irrespective of caste and religion.

(iii) In order to equalize educational opportunity at primary stage requires provision of free, compulsoryanduniversaleducationforallchildrenwithoutanydiscrimination.

(iv) As individual differences among boys and girls are more prominent at the secondary stage than at any other stage. Thus at the secondary stage diversified curricula should be introduced to career to the needs, interests and abilities of students.

(v) At higher education and professional education emphasis should be placed on individual capacity or merit and maintenance of quality and standard.

(vi) Another important steps to equalize educational opportunity necessitate adoption of a common school system both at the primary and secondary stages. The criteria of common school system are given below:

(a) open to all children without any discrimination,

(b) admission will be based on merit,

(c) no tuition fee will be charged,

(d) must maintained equate facilities and reasonably good standards,

(e) fulfil the needs and aspirations of the middle and lower classes.

(vii) There should be only one agency in the country to spread and control education. No private agency should be permitted to function in the field of education. Uniform educational facilities can only be provided in a national system of education.

(viii) The regional imbalances in respect of educational opportunities should be abolished in the long run and minimized at present. The district should be the units of educational planning to reduce the gap which exists in different districts. Even the disparity in respect of educational facilities in urban and rural schools should be minimizd sufficient number of school should be set up in rural areas with a same educational standard like schools of urbanarea.

(ix) In order to ensure equality of educational opportunity special treatment as being made for S.C., S.T. and other Backward Communities in relation to reservation of seats, provision of different types of scholarships to ensure equality in education.

(x) Steps have been taken for the education and training of blind, deaf, orthopedically handicapped and educable sub-normal children by the government and voluntary organizations.

(xi) It is necessary to give proper attention to the education of girls at all stages. It is needless to point out the importance of girls' education for purpose of ensuring national development, social justice and healthy family life.

(xii) The programme of scholarships has received considerable emphasis in recent years. Scholarships should liberally be distributed to the poor but talented students.

(xiii) Distance learning and correspondence courses can go long way in equalizing educational opportunities. They can make education cheap and can be good substitutes for regular courses.

(xiv) Education should be place in the concurrent list to equalize educational opportunity. This is necessary to meet the extra-expenses to be incurred for equalization of educational opportunity.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Indicate at least three barriers to equality to educational opportunity to all in our society.

2.4.1 : NATIONAL POLICY ON EDUCATION, 1968

(i) The Government while declaring the National Policy on Education has specially laid down that strenuous efforts should be made to equalize educational opportunities.

(ii) Regional imbalances in the provision of educational facilities should be corrected and good educational facilities should be provided in rural and other backward areas.

(iii) To promote social cohesion and national integration, the common school system as recommended by the Education Commission should be adopted. Efforts should be made to improve the standard of education in general schools. All special schools like Public schools should be required to admit students on the basis of merit and also to provide a prescribed proportion of free studentship to prevent segregation of social classes.

(iv) The education of girls should receive emphasis, not only on grounds of social justice, but also because it accelerates social transformation.

(v) More intensive efforts are needed to develop education among the backward classes and especially among the tribal people.

(vi) Educational position for the physically and mentally handicapped children should be expanded and attempts should be made to develop integrated programmes enabling the handicapped children to study in regular schools.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain in brief what measures have been incorporated in our National Policy on Education, 1986 for ensuring educational opportunities for the disadvantaged groups of children.

2.4.1 : NATIONAL POLICY ON EDUCATION, 1986

(i) The National Policy of Education (1986) calls for providing equality of educational opportunitiestoallnotonlyintermsofaccessbutalsointheconditionsforsuccess.
(ii) Special attention will be given to participation of women in general, vocational, technical and professional education.
(iii) Special emphasis will be given on the education of SC and ST children at all stages and all levels, in all areas and dimensions.
(iv) For education of SC and ST children incentives should be given to them at all stages of education.
(v) Adequate facilities should be provided in unserved - rural, hilly, remote and inaccessible areas.
(vi) Minority communities should be allowed to set up and administer their own educational institutions.
(vii) Education of handicapped children should receive due attention. Wherever feasible, the education of children with motor handicaps and other mild handicaps will be common with that of others. Special schools with hostel facilities should be provided at district headquarters for the severely handicapped children. The objective should be to integrate the physically and mentally handicapped with the general community as equal partners, to prepare them for normal growth and to enable them to face life with courage and confidence.

LET US SUM UP

The social stratification is a generalized aspect of society and involves two phenomena - differentiation of individuals or groups whereby some individuals or group come to rank higher than others and the ranking of individuals according to some basis of valuation. Social inequality is the basis of social stratification and all societies, more or less encourage social inequality by stratifying their members. Stratification may be based upon a variety of interpenetrating principles - free and unfree; caste, estate or class; occupation, administrative hierarchy or income level. On the one hand, stratification acts as a divisive force and on the other hand acts a cohesive one.

The second section of this Unit was discussed on social mobility i.e. any change in social position. It may be horizontal or vertical. Social mobility may arise through changes in social structure brought about by industrialization, modernization or urbanization. It may be fostered by struggles for collective gains through labour unions and by political reforms or revolution. Education can abolishes social rigidity and gives an impetus to the growth of social mobility in a normal way.

The third section of this Unit attempts to about equity and equality of educational opportunity.

Equity to mean social justice or fairness, it refers to a subjective and ethical judgment. In India in equality of educational opportunities is a reality that has existing for generations. The Education Commission (1964-66) has observed - one of the important social objectives of education is to equalize opportunity. This is the only way for the building up of an egalitarian and human society by which the exploration of the week will be minimized. National Policy on Education (1968, 1986) calls for providing equality of educational opportunities to all not only in terms of access but also in the conditions for success.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. What is social stratification ? Describe the role of education in social stratification and socialmobility.
2. What do you mean by social mobility ? Describe different factors affecting socialmobility.
3. What is inequality ? Discuss the causes of inequality in respect of educational opportunity. What measures should be taken for equalization of educationalopportunity.
4. Discuss various provisions have been incorporated in our National Policy onEducation, 1968 and 1986 for ensuring equality to educational opportunities to all children and adults. Doyouthink,allthoseprovisionsaresufficient?Giveyourowncomment.
5. Indicate evils of inquality in educational opportunities. What steps would you take for safeguarding equality of educational opportunities for the socio-culturally and educationally disadvantaged groups of oursociety.
6. Write note on:—
   (a) Educational and SocialMobility
   (b) Equity andEducation.

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY-2

Block - 3

Education and Values

CONSTRAINTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

In Previous Paper we have been acquainted with some national values enshrined in the Indian Constitution. Obviously, that discussion has been limited to the philosophical perspective of value oriented to unfathom the general directions of the quality of life of the citizen to be envisaged through the mechanism of the Indian Policy and which will ultimately provide the general aims of Indian education. In fact a discourse of value has another perspective — sociological. In this Unit we are going to understand value from this latter perspective. Here we shall also like to understand the term ‗value' more elaborately and finally to gain a comprehensive knowledge about value education from the Indianlenses.

At the outset let us have a mind set on the concept of value from socio-cultural orientations. Values are most generally some normative behaviors. As normative in nature they set some limitations for behaviors. The norms are also set backed by group pressures, though they imply some personal choice of the individual concerned. Such norms are said to be set for integration of behaviors which are obligatory in nature too. Both values and norms are expected to internalize by the group members in the process of learning termed as ‗socialization'; therefore, they differ from group to group, or culture to culture. Values are vital to any society because they serve as criteria for selection of action which are regarded as most valuable. These internalized set of action can be learned through various learning processes including formal and informal, experiential or systematic, deliberate or non-deliberate. In the contemporary technology oriented society people's learning about value internalization through the informal institutional learning points seems insufficient and

consequently, every modern society formulates curriculum and sets up programmes for inculcation of some basic values. For example, ***Learning to Care — Education for the Twenty-first Century*** (UNESCO, 1990) identifiessomevalues forpromotion of _Learning to Live Together‘ suchas :

Caring for —

- oneself
- one‘s family, friends andpeers
- otherpeople
- social, economic and ecological welfare of one‘s society andnation
- humanrights
- other species
- livability of the earthand
- truth, knowledge andlearning.

OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit you will be able to —

(i) understand meaning and nature ofvalues,

(ii) write down reasons for importance of values ineducation,

(iii) make a discussion on the concept of ValueEducation,understand the ways in which some basic values can be inculcated among school children, and

(iv) make survey on traditional Indian thoughts on value education as contents of today‘s value education

Block – 3

Unit - 1

Basic Concepts of Values

3.1.1 : CONCEPT OF VALUES

Values refer to *objects* that human beings consider desirable and worthy of pursuit in their thoughts, feelings and actions. These objects may be several types-material or abstract qualities and states of mind and heart like peace, honesty, punctuality, truthfulness, happiness, justice, fraternity, etc. In any case, they function as ideals and standards that govern human activities invarious dimensions

— individual, social, professional, religious, political, ethical, moral and spiritual. Values as standards of actions and feelings vary from culture to culture or time to time within a particular cultural group.

Supply of a ready-made definition of value can give us its meaning. A distinction between a factual fact and value judgement may be helpful in understanding the answer to the question : What is a value? ―Thesunset is red", for example, is a statement of fact (which can be checked as true or false) whereas ―Thesunset is beautiful" is a judgement of value to which the attributes of true or false simply do not apply.

Values also refer to what are desired, liked or preferred. When men desire money, power, authority, etc. these become their values. But some objects become also disvalues when men do not desire some objects like, pain, suffering, punishment, poverty, etc.

However, not all the things men do in fact desire are desirable. For instance, if a student desires to score high grades out of copying from others examination response, this can be a treated as a value as such action contradicts with a higher value like honesty, conformity to rules, etc. Thus we require human quality of critical self-examination in order to attain higher objective values in life. Hence, values need objectivity above one's liking or preference. Ultimately, value is that which has worth in itself without reference to any personal end. It is universal in this sense, such as happiness, knowledge, beauty, peace, etc. Accordingly, such position is the discourse of moral philosophy. This can be exemplified by the quotation : — ―Anything that helps us to behave properly towards others is a moral value. Anything that takes us out of oneself, and inspires us to sacrifice for the good of others or for a great cause is of spiritual value."(Committee on Religious and Moral Instruction, 1959).

In fine, though there is problem in conception of value, it is an intrinsic truth. It is the essential norm. Value is the measure of all other good things in life. In recent years, the conception of value has enlarged so much that everything good and useful has been included in its scope. For example, scientific temper, environmental protection, equality to educational opportunities to all, human rights to education, etc.

For example, in our Constitution four fundamental constitutional values have spelled out, such as; **Justice**–social, economic and political; **Liberty**–of thought expression, beliefs, faith and worship; **Equality –** of status, and of opportunity, and to promote among them all; **Fraternity** – assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity of Nation. If we go further we see all the above four constitutional values have permeated to the six Fundamental Rights like : Right to Equality, Right to Freedom, Right against Exploitation, Right to Freedom of Religion Cultural and educational rights, and Right to Constitutional Remedies. Moreover, our Directive Principles of State Policy has also been formulated from the same root Constitutional values. Moreover, we shall observe our National Curriculum Framework for School Education has been guided from all these values.

Value consciousness refers to awareness of values in their actual implication. It is however difficult. The first factor which governs value consciousness is a degree of sensitiveness. Secondly, reason and rationality serve as preconditions to value consciousness. Free-will of the individual helps value-appreciation.

Going to one extreme end, it is said by some thinkers that value is an ultimate ontological category. The world is essentially what the value–consciousness demands. The world of value is a kingdom of ends. On the other extreme end Jean Paul Sartre thinks that man must commit himself to values freely chosen. Such type of controversies remains in conceptualization of absolute value. However, it is rather profitable to us to con not evalue within the ambi to four national tradition and Indian culture.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Mention at least three characteristic so values.
2. In what ways values can direct human activities? Explain with suitable examples.

3.1.2 : NATURE OF VALUES : SUBJECTIVE OR OBJECTIVE

By nature of values may be subjective and objective. Values are sometimes individual based and sometimes social environment influences the quality and the value of our object. Some educationists believe that values depend upon individual ideas and experiences. Educational values are internal and subjective. On the other hand, values are objective where social environment assigns any value to an object. There is nothing absolute or permanent about them nor do they have any objective existence apart from the subjective likes, dislikes and perceptions of the valuing agent. It is not only good and what is desirable. Societies differ too in their customs, mores, folkways and in their conceptions of the good life and the good person. Sociology of education rightly emphasizes the point that the development of the human personality which is the most important purpose of education should be thought of in terms of the norms and ideals of the particular society. In this sense, values are subjective and relative to the agent, time and place.

According to the pragmatists values are instruments to serve the ends of life. Man is essentially a biological and social being. His concern about the present, the here-and-now, rather than the distant past or the uncertain future. In the process of living he interacts with the world. He does thing to the world and undergoes the consequences. This field of transaction between man and his environment includes sense perceptions, social relations, problem situations. The aim of living is therefore the even- en-during process of perfecting, maturing and refining. In such a world, there are no absolute or eternal values. All values are relative to particular situations and times. What is good today may not be good tomorrow. A good act, an ethical act, is measured by the result in yields. Like _truth', _good' also is _what works'. But what works is not what works for me or you but what works for all. A human act produces wider and wider effects as the products of this act flow into the community. The ultimate test of _good' is therefore its public consequences.

Men are the constructors of their values just as they are the constructors of their truth. They test their value claims in experience and so accept them as temporary and tentative. Since values are to be found in the context of experience, men will have to find out what they ought to want in this self same relativistic circumstances of ordinary experiencing. Man's valuing is a constant creation of and accommodation to the changing moral environment about him. Such a public sharing of values is best fostered in the free and per missive atmosphere of democracy.

While the subject tivistic theory of values, on the face of it, appeals to common sense as sound, there exist serious difficulties in accepting it totally. It may be true, for example, that we do not take individual preferences for certain things seriously and we respect the existence of differences. But equally true is that there arise situations when individual differences in value preferences threaten into serious conflicts. Only they do we realize that there may be some higher standard or norm by which subjective differences can be evaluated in terms of better and worse. The theory that all values are relative may be quite plausible. But there is also the fact that in important matters men do not act on this theory and it is this fact that spurs the search for an objective basis for value.

According to the objectivists, there are certain values which are basic and grounded in the very nature of the universe. They transcend the phenomenal world, the world of ordinary sense experience. Beyond this world of the senses there is a more permanent order of reality. The moral order belongs to this realm. Because there is such a moral order we have justification in judging some things right and other wrong, some things good and others evil. Similarly, because there is an aesthetic order, some things are beautiful, others ugly and because there is an order of truth, some things are true and other false. The true, the good and the beautiful are our eternal values. Values are not created by man nor are they just private inner experiences. They are pre-existent and have as real an existence as any of the so called laws of nature. They are independent of desire and antedate and arouse desire. Reality is not indifferent or neutral to values. Man perceives and experiences values because he has an innate spiritual capacity to comprehend values. Man is an essentially valuing organism and can perceive the predetermined pattern of reality. The objective (an idealist) position on the status of value is best exemplified in the story of Harishchandra. Truthfulness of Harishchandra was not just an instrument to realize the utilitarian ideal of the largest good of the largest number. It is not that one should be truthful because the happiness of the individual and the social group ultimately rested on people speaking the truth. On the other hand, to be truthful always and under all circumstances is a value in its own right and self-justifying. After all, men have lived and dies for their country, for love, for fame. Should they not live and died for truth as well ?

The subjectivity-objectivity dispute in ethics is an age-old one and persists to this day. This dispute should be seen in proper light especially in the modern context of the emergence of global perceptions and consensus on issues affecting the entire mankind like environment, peace, social justice, human rights and so on. In context of contemporary crises, it is better to be objectivist and useful for inculcating some universal values for maintaining our own social orders.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. How do you classify nature of values ?

3.1.3 : CLASSIFICATION OF VALUES

Values may be classified as :

1. **Moral Values**

   Moral values are related to some code of life accepted by the society. It‘s a regulatory mechanism for controlling individual and so also the society. But it has to remember that moral values cannot be developed automatically. It has to be acquired. Education is the most dominating medium through which morality can be attained. Some realistic points to be considered to develop the moral values among learners—

   1) Development of honesty

   2) Development of tolerance & nonviolence.

3) Development of proper physical habits.

4) Positive mental attitude to be developed in classroom situations.

5) Teaching should be imparted like a way so that students can develop self control & self confidence.

6) Learners are to provide a democratic set up to encourage their democratic values & flexibility towards the life & society.

2. **Aesthetic Values**

Aesthetic values are based on senses towards beauty of realm and its surroundings. Aesthetic is the study of values in the realm of beauty. Aesthetic values are those which give people happiness and pleasure. Some philosophers opine that aesthetic values are confined to the artistic excellence. Even then it is difficult to assess because they are likely to be subjective and personal. A particular work of art may evoke different opinions from different people. It is because there is no such universal standard or criterion to validate aesthetic values. We must accept that an artist has certain creative and innovative powers. They are to be appreciated generally even though critics judge the creation of artist from their own standardjudgement.

3. **SocialValues**

Social values are product of the social structure and its processes. A society is evaluated according to its values. A learner cannot develop social values in home conditions. It must be generated in social condition. As school and other institutions are the miniature form of the society, different social values can be developed through institutional culture.

Man is a social being. He lives in a family of the society. Now joint family system has broken down. In turn, small size families are rising up. As a result, certain social values and virtues are now degenerating and diminishing. The weakening of social values in the younger generation have created many social conflict in western countries and is creating now in India. So, the sociologists now think to balance knowledge and skill which science and technology bring with values and insight.

Rapid deterioration of standard of social values has brought tension to one and all. Human conduct, behaviour, duties and responsibilities are judged in comparison with certain ideals, models and norms of the society. The social values are set by the society or community. These social values are love to mankind, feeling of brotherhood, honesty, sincerity, punctually, helping attitude to others, work for general benefit, love to parents, co-operation, etc. Education, thus, must endeavour to include the above social values in children to help him lead a healthy social and civic life.

Schools is a preparatory stage for including social values in children. Dignity of labour is cultivated when students do manual work in the school. NSS, NCC, Boy scout, Girl Guide, Red Cross, etc. fan the flame of patriotism and nationalism. Further, educational activities gave the way for the feeling of one world-one family leading to world peace.

4. **Spiritual Values**

Moral values effect the relationship between man and man. Spiritual values effect the individual in his relation with himself. Man does not live by bread alone. He needs inner peace and happiness. Not material things but spiritual values can provide him real solace and perennial pleasure inlife.

The greatest tragedy is that our students getting education in schools and colleges are losing

their higher ideals of life, and they-are living in a spiritual vacuum. The irony is that we Indians are blindly adhering the path of the western materialism forgetting our real heritage of spiritual wealth. When the western world is looking towards India for spiritual leadership and guidance it is not desirable for independent Indian to sit idle without taking leadership in disseminating spiritual values to the west. Time is ripe. India must take the leadership to set in the spiritual world.

Absence of spiritual values has caused damages to man beyond repair. Lack of spiritual values has resulted in confusion, disaster, destruction, exploitation, aggression, selfishness, and hatred. According to Betrand Russel, the choice before us is either annihilation or coexistence through cultivation in men ethical and spiritual values.

Education has to humanity. For this, spiritual values are to be imparted at every level from home to community, from the common school to the university if we at all need to see a better world tomorrow.`

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. How do you classify values?

Block – 3

Unit - 2

VALUE EDUCATION

3.2.1 : CONCEPT OF VALUE EDUCATION

Although all education by definition is a kind of value education, deliberate thrust on value development in education has become necessary in view of the crisis in values which the society is passing through.

Value education refers to a programme of planned educational action aimed at the development of value and character of the learner.

Value education involves development of awareness of a sensitivity to moral and aesthetic phenomena, education of the emotions and training of will and character. It is concerned with the total person.

The development of values is influenced by complex network of environment facts home, peer group, community, them idea and the general ethics and aesthetics of the society and also by the person who wish to develop them.

It is true that ultimately value education should result in the transformation of the individual‘s personality based on the internalization of values and their realization in life.

One of the major aims of education is transmission of knowledge and curriculum seeks to achieve this through instruction and teaching of the different subjects. The teaching of a subject basically aims at the development knowledge and understanding pertaining to the particular aspect of reality under consideration.

But knowledge as a value involves conceptual thinking, understanding of principles, laws and generalization, development of insights and critical and reflective thinking.

Value education is a programme of planned educational intervention with a view to develop values in the learners. Any such practical action should be based upon sound theoretical understanding of the Philosophical, Sociological & Psychological aspects bearing on the general issue of value education intended to be transmitted.

The entire process of value education is a highly complex process that involves a wide range of variety of concepts.

These are :

1. **Awareness.**
2. **Understanding.**
3. **Appreciation.**
4. **Sensitivity.**
5. **Willingness.**
6. **Commitment to Action.**
7. **Problem solving Ability.**
8. **Enlightenment.**

Value education is therefore is programmed method of teaching-learning process for the attainment of those qualities. Actually value education means to develop a insight through which we can realize or internalize the education.

The National Policy on Education 1986 and the National Curriculum Framework for Elementary and Secondary Education have referred to following concepts as the components of Value Education.

1. **Our Cultural Heritage.**
2. **The Democratic way of Life.**
3. **Scientific Equality.**
4. **Scientific Temper.**
5. **Secularism.**
6. **Our Environment.**
7. **Gender Equality.**
8. **Social Cohesion.**
9. **National Unity.**
10. **Populations.**
11. **Quality of life**

The purpose of the intellectual analysis of these values is to raise the consciousness and the betterment of Quality of life and society.

Sometimes values is reflected through the national interest of any country. Like in a democratic country, democratic rights and responsibilities are the value. The Declaration of Human Rights of United Nations has listed down the following values of import :

1. **Liberty**
2. **Equality**
3. **Property**
4. **Well being**
5. **Peace**
6. **Tolerane.**
7. **Reason.**

In education system to develop these values we should have a democratic set up so that there should be a balance between rights and responsibilities as being prescribed inour constitution. Let us elaborate our ideas more details :

Value as judgements

Mostly we use the concept of Value as Judgements. Judgement is the internal potentiality reflected through decision making termed as value. It represents the Quality of human life. In every sphere of life we are guided by Judgements. Right Judgements can give us proper way of life. When we are going to do anything we thought about the matter, try to visualize its logical side and then we execute. But what happens actually our mentality some cases have had a gap and do not apply the right judgement that is why devaluation results. Education is the instrument which can socialize the human beings and their internal structure of self to develop values.

Value as Moral Internalization

According to Davaid G. Perry and Lewis C. Perry ―To achieve internationalization of society's values by their children, most parents, teachers and other socializing agents agree that a first step involves including children to comply behaviouraly with these values."

Most of the family tries to inculcate values by applying external control. ―The most parents do what they can to prevent their children from telling lies, breaking promises, disobeying prohibitions, sealing and engaging in other negative behaviors and they try to get their children to practice positive behaviors such as sharing with a friend in need, showing concern for others, complying with requests for mature behavior and delay inggratification.

Value Education as a process

Seshadri in his Book Value Education : A Conceptual Framework pointed out value education as aprocess.Itinvolves―aprocessofworkingonone'soutlooks,beliefsandperceptionswithaviewtodevelop capacities of reflective thinking and independent judgement on issues that are of critical concern to oneself and to humanity".

Now the question what is the rationale of descrambling value as a system. We consider value as a process when it concerns about the individual but we think about values which is related to society must be the values of a Social System. So value is the output of human quality in an educational atmosphere blended with the society. Therefore, value is the by-product of a socialsystem.

Besides the above following concepts are also important to explain value education. Each of these sees values from different angles.

Hedonistic views

The value of thing is due to the fact the timing has power to satisfy our wants.

Perfection view

Anything has value if it relates to the perfection of life.

Utility

Anything which has utility is valuable theory.

Order Theory

Anything which is helpful in organizing society is called value.

Experimental Theory

Values are experiments in present and past as well.

Existence Theory

Value is helpful in existence.

Part and Whole Theory

Values are left sometimes partly & sometimes wholly.

Objective and Sub. Theory

Values are defined by individuals & by circumstances.

Emotive Theory

Emotions can determine value.

Reference

From all the above perspective you will be able to expand your own fund of knowledge about value Education.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Briefly point out different comcepts on value education.

3.2.2 : INCULCATION OF EFFECTIVE VALUES

To supplement the work in classrooms, a school can implement many useful value education at various levels. The character explores such practices.

1. Developing codes of conduct forclasses

Classroom codes of conduct can improve student's discipline and promote school culture conductive to children's moral growth. Developing a code of conduct follows the procedure given below.

Teacher should discuss with the students the need of having a code of conduct for the class, and get their consent.

Teacher should group the class and request each group to prepare the code, according to their ownneeds.Itshouldbeabletoguidestudents'behaviourintheclassroomandschools.

When the groups have completed their drafts they present them to the class. Following each presentation a short discussion is held to get feedback in order to improve them. Appoint a committee to prepare the final draft from the drafts submitted by the groups. Once they have prepared it the teacher can refine it through editing. The code should be simple and brief.

Let the committee present the draft and get the consent of the class. Display the code of conduct in the classroom. Once a week, say, Friday the teacher should conduct a progress review of the conduct in the class.

2. Developing a school discipline guide

School discipline guide is a policy like document that recommends standard conduct for the students in school. It is a detailed research paper like document that proposes standard conducts in various conflicting situations arising in school. A team of teachers, appointed by the principal, develops the document. They do a close study of the factors leading to problem behaviour. They interview teachers, monitors students and parents and study the past school records of the disciplinary actions. They look into the causes, trends, backgrounds, and situations leading to the problem behaviour of students and also to positive behaviour. Then the team analyses and recommends action at various levels of the school. The document brings into the responsibilities of all levels of the school community, beginning with the class teacher developing and maintaining discipline in school. It recommends actions to parents as well. More importantly, it gives clear guidance to students on right behavior situations, e.g. What to do when a teacher is absent in a period ? What to do when you find something valuable within the schoolyard ? How to behave in the playground ? Code of conduct developed from the guide could be exhibited in appropriate places such as the school corridor, science lab, playground etc. The recommendations and standards given in the document legitimize good conduct. Based on the guide, the principals assigns duties and responsibilities to

class teachers, subject teachers, divisional heads deputy principal, management committee and parents. However the guide should be positive and user- friendly in its approach. Mostly it is a visionary guide from which codes of conduct could be drawn at all levels. In the preparation of the guide all levels of the school community should participate so that all of them feel responsible an dream in faithful to it.

3. Practices for developing self-esteem

Value education stresses the need of improving children's self-esteem in school. The school has to find many creative strategies and practices at all the levels for it. In the attempt the school canimplement various methods of identifying students' potentials and promoting them further through various methods of rewarding, encouraging, guiding and facilitating. For instance : Selecting the best students, weekly, termly and annually (The school announces the areas of selection, e.g. academic performance, special talents in art, drama, music, leadership, problem-solving, helping behaviour). This can take interesting forms such as selecting the school scientist, engineer, mathematician, artist, actor, orators, etc. Selections can be done through exhibitions, competitions, classroom evaluations and soon.

Awarding badges, certificates and prizes. Arranging special occasions for display of talents. Recognition in the morning assembly.

4. Using special activities and exercise for developing peaceful competencies

One of the indicators of the school practicing. Value Education is the constant use of active and participative learning methods in lessons. There is a wide range of learning activities available to teachers to suit all age levels of students. These activities may be used for expanding consciousness/experience inner peace. Releasing stress of boredom, monotony and learning. Improving critical thinking and problem-solving capacities, improving social skills such as in communication, and assertive behavior / socializing students, one some suggested activities.

5. Moral instruction for the day

Activities may be : Starting the day with a moral or spiritual thought provides inspiration. This can be done at the school level in the morning assembly by giving a short talk on a topic related to character building. Both the teachers and students can deliver such talks. Alternatives such as listening to recorded songs and short talks; reading from literature could be used for change. Simple practice at the classroom level : Start the day by putting up a motto on the wall in front of the class. Discuss briefly the message in it. This daily activity could be assigned to students as well.

6. School / Classroom Wallpaper

Wallpaper in a class or school, is useful in many ways. It can provide currently improvement news and other information to students. They can improve their skill in creative writing, by contributing essay as, short stories and articles to it. The paper could be produced in many different and interesting ways such as on themes, on subject based and so on. As a policy, the paper can take peace as the central concept. An appointed committee can work as the editor's board.

7. Diplaying peace mottos

Having peace mottos displayed in the school plant, classrooms, corridors, and garden acclimatize children to peace attitudes and values. Gradually they begin to appreciate such life guiding moral sayings. They may remembers such saying throughout their lives. The school

hall can be given names of values, e.g. Hall of compassion, Hall of Joy. Constant exposure to value thoughts helps internalize such values.

8. Value day/week

The school can organize value days or weeks with a view to raising awareness on value Select a current significant theme and draw a programme for the day or week. Themes on environment, social justice, inner peace, non-violence, human rights and problems of globalization will be useful to students. Seminars, lectures, discussions, art exhibitions, debates and drama can be organized under the selected theme. Such a programme should have a community peace-building activity so that it has a practical value.

9. Appointing class mediators

Class mediator is a student who is appointed to resolve conflicts in the class. Conflicts are referred to him or he will mediate when necessary in the conflicts arising in the class. This makes them understand that students in the class bear the responsibility to resolve their conflicts. At the same time students appointed as mediators will improve skills in conflict resolution. In mixed schools a class may have two peacemakers, a girl and a boy. The selections should be made by the consensus of the whole class. By rotating the position monthly or quarterly more students get the opportunity to practice conflict resolution. However on the appointment, they need to be given a basic training in it. Awarding a special badge is necessary for the formal recognition of the position.

However the peacemaker should be a friend of a class rather than a formal leader.

10. Appointing a Value Development Committee

For development of values the school could form a committee, which can draw, organize and run value programmes for the whole school. For instance, they can organize the value week for the school. This is a good means of handling over the responsibility of peace work to the students themselves.

11. The Morning Assembly

Morning assembly provides a good stage for developing values and Morning Assembly provides a good stage for developing values and attitudes in the school community. Given below are some ideas to enrich it. Presenting a day‘ space thought [by students or teachers].

- Reading a portion from world literature that appeal stonoble thought.
- Listening to a peace song.
- Presentation of world news of the week.
- A drama with a moral lesson.
- A short mediation session.
- A guest speech.
- A recorded radio programme/or a programme produced by students.
- A session of devotional songs.
- Presentation of life stories of great men and women.

12. School link programmes

Children need a lot of a socializing experiences. School linking programmes provide opportunities for them to meet, build friendships, share and get together with other school

students. These programmes can be organized at school level, grade level, interest group level, and student club level. On such occasions children can organize various educational, cultural, environmental, sand community development activities.

3.2.3 : TRADITIONAL INDIAN THOUGHTS ON VALUE EDUCATION

Value of education should be based on classical heritage of Indian philosophy. With the passage of time Philosophy of our country have been made prominent, though diversification of itself sourced form philosophical heritage of our country. The aim of Indian Philosophy is not the disinterested pursuit of truth and resolution of doubt (samasya) but to serve as practical aid (prayoyana) to show the right way of living. Different classical Indian philosophical thoughts and practices on value education are mentioned below:

1. The essence of Indian heritage, indeed of any heritage is that the ‗past mingus unconsciously into the present, and is carried on to the future'. The basis of Indian Philosophy is general is religious beliefs, whether of the eastor of the west.
2. Sri Aurobindo suggests that—

All studies sciences or mathematics, philosophy, history or art – bring us nearer to the knowledge of the truth concealed behind appearances.

They gradually give us a new perception of the why of things. They lead us to the discovery of the principle of all principles, the law of all laws.

Therefore, Indian philosophy of education highlighted knowledge for developing values on a realistic mode and it is possible through perception of significant epistemological component common to all Indian schools of Philosophy.

3. Another great characteristics of Indian Philosophy of education is the concept of synthesis. ConsciouslydifferentdiverseelementsarebeingsynthesizedinIndiantradition.

Educational Values in Upanishadas

1. The Upanishadic philosophy of education aimed at arousing spiritual vision of human beings for living an active wordly life but all for attaining saturation. For this purpose it also aimed at developing character, truthfulness and proficiency in several wordly subject for livelihood.
2. Education was a pen for all castes, creeds and women irrespective for their socio-economic status.
3. Gurukulas was substantially aided by the Kings and landlords but they had no control on the educational policy and on the gurukulas.
4. Education was free at all stages.
5. The Curriculum mainly consisted of two parts, paravidya subjects related to spiritual development & apara vidya – subjects like the veda, the puranas, grammer, social customs, mathematics, production, ethics, logic, geography, military science, astronomy, music, aesthetics, architecture &science.
6. The teacher-pupil relationship was extremely cordial and the teacher behaved like a father.
7. The practice of acquiring knowledge was immensely emphasized. According to C. Seshadri rightly pointed out:—

—Theneed for an objective assessment of our philosophical tradition becomes all the more necessary under these circumstances but this must be followed by a knowledge appreciation & firm adoption of those elements & features that are good & beautiful, relevant & useful in them oder in context.

Rhythm of unity which has been reflected through our constructional aspect on the basis of which our development is to be explained.

N.C.E.R.T. has presented a clear picture about the developmental issue & philosophy of Indian education about the matter as presented below :

1. The doctrine of nishkama karma (self less action) combined with the concept of purushartha provides an ideological concept essential for a modernising society adopting the concept of democratic socialism.
2. The oneness of all human beings and the spirit of tolerance manifested through the cultural history of India, are again basic to the practice of secularism and democracy.
3. Pursuit of truth, and practice of non-violence are the other positive traits of the Indian mind that need particular emphasis in the context of natural development.
4. Aims of education, it is obvious, are no more than over expansions of our value system & desire to realize them individually as well as collectively through the social institution of education.
5. Education is a process of initiating the learner to the good life. It is a process of transmission of something that we consider as good and desirable for the learner to acquire both for his own and society's good.

Traditionally Indian Education system is value oriented education itself is the basic source of inculcating values as the objective of education is to upgrade the quality of life. Total education system in modern tradition is value centric. Education is important for attaining perfection. But how this perfections can be expressed. According to Swami Vivekananda this only be possible by develop inner potentiality of human being. So what is the goal of education?

—Arise awake and stop not till the goal is reached".

Arise means arise of oneself by developing self confidence and understanding through education. Awake means to apply the sense of realization for betterment of the society. Therefore emancipation of self is not only the ultimate value but also the betterment of the society is valued in Indian Tradition a supported by the following expression : —Atmono Moksharthng JagatdhitayaCha".

So better the human resources and the societal values are regarded as ultimate truth in Indian Tradition.

Values are multilateral in Indian Tradition through different philosophical thoughts and its practices describing below :

1. Religious Tradition :

Vivekananda observed that the traditional values on Indian aspect is essentially guided by religion. He tried to find out the commonness of Indian society and he considered the term of Indian Traditional thought is religion. The main aim of religion is self realization and development of self confidence. He believed that science of religion have greater strength than those of physics or chemistry, because physics or chemistry has no internal mandate to vouch for its truth, which religion has.

2. Pragmatic Outlook:

On philosophical perspective ancient Indian thought stressed the constant application of knowledge for the development of self and society. The most significant was given to the formation of moral character. It was emphasized because the Aryans had realized that fundamental to the concept of growth in any walk of life was the need to have a sound integrated personality with a moral outlook.

3. Moksha is the Ultimate Reality :

The Upanishadic philosophy of education aimed at arousing the spiritual vision of human beings for living an active worldly life but all the attaining saturation or Moksha. For this purpose, it also aimed at developing character, truthfulness and proficiency in several worldly subjects for livelihood. Ignorance is non-discrimination of the eternal and then on-eternal.

Knowledge is discrimination between them. Avidya is knowledge of distinction, plurality and individuality. Vidya is the cause of liberation from bondage.

4. Synthesis of Values:

India is a multicultural nation. Different casts, religious are being grown and developed here from ancient time. It's country where different flows of values and synthesized to explore itself. Actions (Karma), Concentration of mind (Yoga), Devotion (Bhakti) and Knowledge (Jnana) are synthesized in Indian values of life.

5. Quality of Life:

Discipline of body and mind and practice of yoga purify the mind and mike it fit for acquiring knowledge of the Atman. Sense control, mind control, withdrawal of senses from their objects, endurance of physical hardships and trance due to meditation are pre-requisites for the initiative realization of the Atman within the individual self. The eight fold yoga consisting of yama, niyama, pastime of body breath control (Pranayama), withdrawl of the sense-organs from their objects (Pratyahara), fixation of the mind of parts of the body (dharna), meditation (dhyana) and trance (samadhi) are prescribed. There are ten yamas : Non-injury (ashimsa), truthfulness (satya), Non-stealing (asatya), sex restraint (brahmacharya), compassion (day), Sincerity (arjava), forgiveness (Ksama), firmness in the knowledge, temperance in eating and cleanliness (Sauca) of body and mind. Therefore different values related to quality of life are being exercised in Indian tradition & culture.

Moreover, the traditions of Buddhists, Jainism, Islamic, Sufism, Bhakti-cult, etc. have been a diverse sources of value education. These may be bundled up at least in three formats-Reverence for All Life, Unity of All Life and Being, and Tolerance, each of which has been the fountations of various values in Indian cultural mosaic. For example the first envelopes many virtue of life in the expressions like — "All beings long for happiness, therefore, extend compassion to all" (Buddha); "Religion is in compassion and not in killing" (Koran); Ahimsa is the greatest virtue (Jainism); etc. — all these bear special meaning and justification to other values like social justice, democracy, environmental conservation, secularism, peace, etc. The second one has its implication in values like national integration, international understanding and fraternity, etc; while the third one has special meaning and importance in "unity in diversity", live and let live, etc. Further, S.B. Chavan Committee Report submitted to the Indian Parliament in 1999 has identified five universal values linking five dimensions of personality — intellectual, physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual correlating to five major objectives of education, namely knowledge, skill, balance, vision and identity. The important component should also be education about religion. All these have been translated into the general aims of Education.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Write down five imported values which are important to be inculcated in our school students?
2. Identifyandlistfivenationalvalueswhichconformtoournationalculturalheritages.

LET US SUMUP

The process of education is the process of realization of the goals and ideas inculcated through value education. Actually it is the education system through which values and culture are realized. In India there are two movements of natural philosophy and its practice in education. One is realization of philosophical truths from Indian schools of philosophy and secondly application of philosophical concepts on education through values. _Atmona moksharthang Jagatdhitayacha' is nothing but synthesis of values within individuality & society. It is the values of our country through which expression of self end the society. Purified and modified by means of value education.

SUGGESTEDREADINGS

1. Value education :N.C.E.R.T.
2. Education & The Aim of Human Life : Pavitra, Sri Aurobindo I.C.E.–1996.
3. Third Survey of Education : N.C.E.R.T.
4. History of Indian Philosophy : Jodunath Sinha.
5. Outlines of Indian Philosophy : M. Hirriyana.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Discuss briefly Indian Traditional thoughts on Value Education.
2. Elucidate the different concept of values in education.
3. Elaborate critically nature and classification of values and its applications on education.
4. Explain different ways through which various values can be inculcated through education.
5. Prepare a note expressing your own views on need for value education.
6. Reflect on the issue of Value Education as a separate subject of School Curriculum.

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY-2

Block - 4

EDUCATION IN RELATION TO ECONOMIC GROWTH, URBANIZATION, INDUSTRIALIZATION, MODERNIZATION, WESTERNIZATION AND SANSKRITIZATION

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

Education had, all along, a role to perform in economic growth – be it at the primitive, medieval or, modern age. At the primitive stage parental source of education and vocation had been in vogue which changed with changing conditions of economic systems at the medieval period. During the modern period, capitalistic system of production needed a new type of science and technological education. This type of education contributed a lot to the modern development, of economy, especially, in the direction of urbanized industrialization, and scientifically directed modernization. In terms of Marx economic system passed through four stages of transformation – primitive communism, slave-society, feudalism and capitalist system. Every form of economic system was more of less influenced by its educational system since, education led economic growth. Urbanization, of any sort did not exist at the primitive stage. It was necessitated in other forms of economic systems. In the slave system, during the Greek days, urbanization was in existence in many of the countries of the world. Feudalism gave rise to a special class, that is, the ―LandLords". Organized urbanization, therefore, became imperative. So, township and urban concentrations were mostly needed for the lords and their associates. A new type of education system arose for elitization of this newly developed class.

Industrialization developed in the later historical period, when industrial cities and towns and urbanized organizations were required for industrial growth. Industrial Revolution and industrialization proceeded simultaneously. It gave way to new types of production, distribution, labour force and financial organization. Industrial township and harbours sprang up for this fast changing conditions in the new type of industrial system and its management. New types of merchantile plans and progammes, and worldwide trade expansion emerged; commercial and colonial expansion grew up at a rapid rate; and varities of communication net-work, for developing trade market, became a natural consequence. So, industrialization ushered urban development with long strides. The mode of industrial urbanization was the consequence of modern industrialization and competitive economy. Science, technology and industrial management disciplines were of utmost necessities along with general and liberal education. The forward march of social and economic progress was stimulated with the emergence of concept which was characterized by the name of ―Modernization". It intended to have overall progress of the national states, and mankind as a whole. Higher studies and researches in various fields of socio-economic requirements were the challenging issues of modernization.

While at the same time, it assigned importance, with short-term priority, to the state, the rural community and the school for immediate socio-economic and cultural transformation in terms of the requirements of modern fast changing societies over the world. When overall progress had been the

attempt of modernization, it might not be supposed that Westernization was a substitution for modernization or of industrialization. It was just acquiring western style of life and western mode of adaptation by Indians. In terms of Prof. Srinibash, ―Westernization …. refers to changes introduced into Indian society during British rule which continue in some cases with added momentum, in independent India."

With the acquirement of Western ideas in production, science and technology, some advantages of economic transformation were achieved during British India. Some Indians westernized themselves with European and English ways of life to some extent. Even, villagers could adopt the life style of the then ruler and might continue, even, in these days. But these should not be confused with modernization which promised to have all round socio-economic transformation. However, the western system of education brought about innumerable changes in Indian educational and socio-economic context. Western pattern of school, college and university education became an acceptable way of thinking and rethinking in Indian educational field and these gave rise to western education in India.

In relation to social changes in Indian life, apart from industrial-urbanization and modernization, a new concept was coined by Prof. Srinibas which gave a new idea of cultural change in Indian history. It might not have any remarkable economic impact, but its effect on social and cultural transformation in the context of lower castes were of great significance.

In this Unit we are going to learn more about all the above conceptualizations.

OBJECTIVES

After careful reading with comprehension of this unit, you will be able to :

- Understandhowfareconomicgrowthisrelatedtoeducationin Indiancontext.
- Analyse the type of educational privileges consequent upon urbanization; and the meaning and role of urbanization in social transformation.
- Explain the relationship between Industrialization and technical and science education leading to economic development in India.
- Identify the nature and characteristics of Indian education in the context of western culture and education that were adopted during the British rule in India.
- Understand how far westernization could change socio-cultural and economic life in India; and understand its consequences to social transformation.

  Beacquaintedwiththeroleofsanskritizationinchangingascribedstatusin Indiansociety.

Block - 4

Unit – 1

Education and Economic Growth

4.1 : EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

Education is conceived as a means to end which is progress. It is a new conscious effort on the part of many states to make education a vital force and an integral part of social and economic development. It is for this reason, educational planning has been recognized in this broader frame, embracing both the internal affairs of education and its external relationships to the rest of economy and society. Traditionally, educational investment was conceived as unprofitable. This view is now changed. Educational planning and development have recently become a demanding and challenging subject for scholarly exploration and research. It has been observed by International Economic Association (1964) that virtually all nations today – "regardless of their age and stage of development, or type of social system – are preoccupied with economic growth and social improvement, not only for themselves but in many cases, for others as well." Prof. Theodore W. Schultz, the eminent economist was invited in India when Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was the premier of India. It was perhaps before launching the second Five Year Plan in this country. The observations of Prof. T. W. Schultz was remarkable. He remarked, "I think primary schools are more important than steel plants" for economic development of India. In some other situation he raised the question in a simple language." What is the value of schooling? The answers were obviously in favour of educational investment in schooling. This investment is moral, "it refines tastes, and gives people real satisfaction". It is vocational, develops skills, increases earnings, and is an investment in man. The value of schooling is based upon the proposition that "schooling affects well-being favourably." Schooling gives immediate benefit for having better cultural environment. When the benefits of schooling directs to future, it has the attributes of an investment. As a future investment it can affect either future consumption or future earnings. Some economists asserts that schooling in an investment in skills and knowledge that enhance and directs future earnings and, therefore, it is like an investment in producer goods. If everything is measured in terms of economic growth, education is accountable to the greatest extent.

4.1.1 : DIMENSIONS OF GROWTH

It is William J Platt who maintains, "The dimensions of the growth include not only increase in Gross National Product (GNP), but an equitable distribution of income, a high level of employment, a viable balance of payments, a meeting of national and international security obligations, an expanded assistance program to developing nations, and perhaps most importantly an opportunity for the individual citizen to widen his cultural and economic choices." This widened path of these choices is a path to "assure individual accomplishment and dignity which a democracy requires …". All these good things come easier with a high (GNP) than with allow one, easier with growth than stagnation.

4.1.2 : STUDIES ON EDUCATIONAL INVESTMENT

A number of economic studies on Educational Investment suggests that educational investment assures more and prosperous returns than other investments. Becker (1950) found that education pays an (11%) per cent return on investment. "This exceeds rates of return on physical wealth, it is further testimony to the attractiveness to the individual and to the community of creating more

effective human capital…". W. J. Platt (1963) also suggests the importance of economic and social contribution of education. The deliberate use of a massive education program by communist China, and even erstwhile Soviet Union, indicates that they have fully realized the need for prodigal investment in education.

4.1.3 : THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

The Third World countries, especially, India and Africa, therefore, strive to spend a better percentage of national income devoted to education, it has now been realized by many countries that under-investment in education is the real limitation on further economic growth.

It is note worthy to mention that the Indian Education Commission (1964-66), specifically mentioned that the objects of this Commission is to recognize education in terms of economic growth. It, therefore, enlightens the report as ―Education for Economic Development". In its own language, ―The destiny of India is now being shaped in her class-rooms." It is now believed that development of human resources is more important than material resources. A lot of programmes are, therefore, directed toward human resource development and greater investment in education has been facilitated by both the public and private sectors. The Open and Distance learning facilities in higher education, and also in school education widen the scope of investment, so as to raise better income opportunity irrespective of private or public investment in it. Innumerable private schools and colleges, vocational or a vocational are in operation. In many cases high fees are realized, still then, education is now being consumed by the society with the hope of betterment in future life of citizens, since it is the only way to fulfill social and economic growth and progress of mankind as a whole. It is the perfect way to income generation for the state, and also for the individual.

The development of the new subject, ―Economics of Education" takes a challenge to widen the scope of educational investment in a wider scale. Education is a means to attain economic growth.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What was the traditional view of investment in education?

4.1.4 : INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC GROWTH : A BROAD PERSPECTIVE

Does investment in education necessarily enhance economic growth? There are compelling reasons that it should, but the empirical evidence does not always support this conclusion.

The Rationale for a Postive Education–Economic Growth Relationship.

Individuals are willing to take more years of schooling partly because they can earn more and get better jobs, on average, with more schooling. For many, more schooling can also be a source of social mobility. Similarly, nation-states and regions are interested in raising the average level of schooling in their population, in part, because they think that doing so will improve productivity, raise the quality of jobs in the economy, and increase economic growth.

The relationship between education and economic growth in some of the early work on the economics education is that an improved labor force has an increased capacity to produce. Because better-educated workers are more literate and numerate, they should be easier to train. It should be easier for them to learn more complex tasks. In addition, they should have better work habits, particularly awareness of time and dependability. But exactly how education increases productivity, how

important it is, and in what ways it is important are questions that have no definite answers. A shortage of educated people, for example, may limit growth, but it is unclear what *kind* of education contributes most to growth – general schooling, technical formal training, or on-the-job training– and what *level* of education contributes most to growth–primary, secondary, or higher education. Hence, the stated relationship is rather on-linear.

One of the clues in support of the conclusion that education does contribute to growth is that countries with higher levels of economic growth have labor forces with higher levels of formal schooling. Beyond such a *macroeconomic approach* to the relation between education and economic growth, the new growth theories asset that developing nations have a better chance of catching up with more advanced economies when they have a stock of labor with the necessary skills to develop new technologies themselves or to adopt and use foreign technology. In such models, more education in the labor force increases output in two ways (a) education adds skills to labor, increasing the capacity of labor to produce more output; and (b) it increases the worker‘s capacity to innovate (learn new ways of using existing technology and creating new technology) in ways that increase his or her own productivity and the productivity of other workers.

The first (a) of these emphasizes the human capital aspect of education (that is, that education improves the quality of labor as a factor or production and permits technological development); the second (b) places human capital at the core of economic growth and asserts that the externalities generated by human capital are the source of self-sustaining economic growth—that human capital not only produces higher productivity form or educated workers but foremost other labor as well.

This model also sees innovation and learning-by-doing as *endogenous* to the production process, with the increases in productivity being a self generating process inside firms and economies (Lucas 1988; Romer 1990). Such learning-by-doing and innovation as part of the work process are facilitated in firms and societies that foster greater participation and decision making by workers, since those are the firms and societies in which more educated workers will have the greatest opportunities to express their creative capacity.

The frequent observation that individuals with more education have higher earnings is another indication that education contributes to growth. The education-higher earnings connection reflects a *microeconomic approach* to the relation between education and economic growth. Greater earnings for the more educated represent higher productivity—hence, an increase in educated labor in the economy is associated with increased economic output and higher growth rates. There are instances where higher earnings for the more educated may merely represent a political reward that elites give their members— a payoff for being part of the dominant social class. But it is difficult to sustain an economic system for very long if those who actually produce more are not rewarded for their higher productivity, and if those who simply have political power get all the rewards. One of the reasons that socialist systems in Eastern Europe were unable to sustain economic growth was almost certainly due in part to an unwillingness to reward individuals economically on the basis of their productivity and, instead, to reward the politically powerful with economic privilege.

Mixed Empirical Findings. There are then compelling reasons to believe that education increases productivity and brings about other economic and social attributes that contribute positively to economic growth. The problem is that the empirical evidence demonstrating the education–economic growth relationship shows mixed results, and often rejects the hypothesis that investment in human capital promotes economic growth.

Three types of empirical studies in the literature concern the role of education in production. The first two are micoeconomic in nature. They study the relation between education and individual income on the one hand, and education and productivity on the other. Although the results of these studies vary, they essentially show that there exists a positive relation between an individual‘s level of

education, his or her productivity, and his or her earnings (see, among others, Psacharopoulos 1973, 1993; Carnoy 1972, 1995). The third type of empirical analysis seeks to estimate the impact of investment in education on economic growth using econometric techniques. However, it is that attempt to estimate the macroeconomic relation between investment in education and output that produces major contradictions.

The macroeconomic analyses of growth appeared at the end of the 1980s, within a convergence framework. Barro (1990) was the first to show that, for a given level of wealth, the economic growth rate was positively related to the initial level of human capital of a country, whereas for a given level of human capital, the growth rate was negatively related to the initial level of education. Azariadis and Drazen (1990) assume that economic growth is not a linear process; rather, it goes through successive stages in which the stock of physical and human capital enables a country to reach a given growth level. Their results show that the initial literacy rate plays a different role in predicting growth rates at different levels of development. Literacy is correlated with the variations of growth in the least advanced countries, but it does not seem to be related to most developed countries‘ growth. Mankiw, Romer, and Weil (1992) assume that the level of saving, demographic growth, and investment in human capital determine a country‘s stationary state. They also find that these different stationary states seem to explain the persistence of development disparities.

Block - 4

Unit – 2

URBANIZATION

4.2.1 : CONCEPTS ANDMEANING

The term Urbanization is a dynamic concept, whereas, the urbanism is a static one. In terms of Louis Wirth (1938), by ―Urbanism we use to identify the phenomenon of city residence; urbanization we use to identify the distinctive way of life typically associated with city residence:" Again, Professor Bergel maintains, ―Urbanization should be considered as a process and urbanism as a condition or set of circumstances." The process of urbanization is changing and developing. New techniques and sciences are used for ―transforming rural into urban areas". It is an ever growing process, and it has a tremendous effect on socio-economic composition of population. There is social mobility as rural people migrate from villages to urban cities and towns as urbanization lures people to rush toward urban community. It is perhaps, in terms of Minoo Masani, ―city air makes people free." Urban life, it is supposed, provides with new hope and opportunity for better life and earning security. It is for this reason urbanization develops new social attitude and social institutions for organizing new type of community living.

4.2.2 : HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The process of urbanization is as old as the history of human civilization and authoritative politics. With the advent of organized political activities of the ruler, urbanization was imperative. Kings and monarchs did not lead their life in villages. They organized strong buildings, administrative and communication-net-work, and created towns and cities for their political purposes. Administration of the country needed urban life. The soldiers, administrators, judiciary, bureaucrats and plenipotentiary had to live very nearer to the royal palaces. Urbanization was, therefore, an urgent necessity. It became a place where people concentrated; and such concentration was needed by the ruler for his convenience and security. This ongoing process of urbanization led to the development of capital cities almost all over the globe, urbanization was, thus, the preconditions of organized political life. Many of the villages were transformed into towns and cities for the sake of political and administrative purposes. Therefore, urbanization was a historical necessity : conquest and power concentration required such urbanization.

Secondly, the advancement of trade and commerce necessitated urbanization. People from different parts of the country settled just around the vicinity of trade and commercial centers for business purposes or, for getting job opportunities. The marketing centres extended and business communities established secured establishment for extension of their economic organizations. As trade developed occupations became differentiated and new system of production and distribution replaced domestic craft and home made products. A new type of division of labour and specialization appeared in economic activities. Thus, arose organizations specifically suited to perform one or other economic functions. It is in this way trade centres needed productive ventures, factory, the corporation, the bank, the transport system, the postal system and other service sectors like health care centres, educational institutions, centre for amusement and entertainment and such other complex economic organizations. Thus, urbanization developed through courses of various economic functions and activities.

It is observed in an article on ―Communication Civilization and Education" published by Siksha Samiksha (1989) that in ancient days cities and towns mainly developed beside the rivers that could facilitate definite route for plying of boats. Naturally, first civilization dawned beside the Nile Valley, in Africa. In India the relics of such civilization can be found on the Indo - gangetic Valley. A community generally arises at the terminal of transportation, where topographical condition combine with economic and commercial advantages so as to create a settlement; and these settlements ultimately gave rise to urban community life. Chakraborty (1989). also studied that in European countries cities sprang up near harbour and highways. In the United States of America, the rail road functions became predominant sites of community expansion. Today, airports are exerting a similar influence. Township is ever extending in Calcutta, Mumbai, Chennai and other areas around the airport and these have been routes for international aviation. All these transportation facilities give rise to urbanization. The colonial settlements, in different parts of the world were also responsible for developing urban life.

Many of the urbanized Municipalities developed around the holy places or temples of renounce. Pilgrims develop new community centres. People thronged there for providing business activities, residential accommodation and other priestly services to the pilgrimers. Such urbanized localities are well developed in Banaras, Madurai, Rameswaram, Calcutta, Goa, Kashmir Valley and in various parts of Gangetic regions. It is evident, therefore, that urbanization is not new concept; its origin can be traced long before the Industrial Revolution. It is a fact that industries ushered urbanization, but urbanization observes Chakraborty (1989), came to exist long before the incoming of industrialization. Had there been no industrialization, urbanization would exist and extended to fulfill the various socio-economic, political and cultural necessities of life. It has a separate identity and characteristics of its own.

4.2.3 : CHARACTERISTICS OF URBAN COMMUNITY IN CONTRAST WITH RURA LLIFE

The origin of human civilization can be traced within the village community. It was agricultural civilization. Economic activities were mainly concerned with agricultural pursuits. This agrarian economy still survives and continues in different forms and constitute the rural life. They live within nature; and this dependence on nature makes people conscious of religion, superstition and traditional beliegs which make them tradition bound and conservative. However, urbanization tends to change this traditional life, by means of family relations, inter communications, diffusion, modernization, mass-media interaction, and common school curricular programmes and common job opportunities along with commercial activities of modern time.

4.2.4 : SIGNIFICANT CONTRASTING CHARACTERISTICS BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL COMMUNITY

(1) The contrasting characteristics can be revealed in the cultural aspects. The housing condition, food habits, occupational pursuits and economic activities are not of same nature in urban and rural life. Agriculture, animal rearing woodcutting, fishing, hunting, bee-keeping, sericulture, horticulture, grafting, smithy, clay-modeling, handicrafts weaving and manual activities are the pre-eminent occupational pursuits of life in rural community. They are primarily unskilled or semi-skilled in their occupational activities. It is mainly because they are non-literate or semi-literate without having any specialization in vocational education. In sharp contrast to these the urban life flourish on specialization. The heterogeneous group of urban life specializes in education, technology, (now-a-days) computer education, industrial training, law, medicine, nursing, architecture, Engineering, hotel management, commercial management, shipping aerobatics and many other vocational courses. In fine, educational opportunities make them worthy to face competition in different situations of life. It is a fact that city-life is highly

competitive in nature. So, the role of urban dweller in social life is not deeply fixed. In sharp contrast to this rural life is conspicuously unspecialized. Most of them are unfit to face the challenge of life.

(2) The community sentiment is greater in rural life than that in urban community. There are greater personal relations and we-feeling in rural or village life; but urban people mostly lead personal life. So, self dependence is greatly needed in urban society. They require secondary group and have individualistic attitude, whereas, the rural community has a special type of primary-group affinity. Face to face contact is inevitable.

(3) Spatialsegregationisleastfoundinvillagelifeascontrastedtourbancharacteristics.

(4) The number of group memberships, and per capita income is generally very low in rural population as compared to city population.

(5) The village people lead a life of simplicity and frugality in contrast to city dwellers since, social mobility is least. Social mobility both vertical and horizontal, is greater in urban life. The urban life is characterized by multiplicity of social and economic contacts. Earning prospects are greater and saving incentives are stimulated by nuclear family size.

(6) The characteristics of social control are also noticeable. It is said, that in rural community, social control is exercised with a maximum of command by the elders and minimum of formality. Group moves, values and family customs are more important in affairs of control. "We" is the common expression for family life. In urban community secondary group relationship characterizes secondary group control. It is a great relief to women as they can think of their own affairs by themselves. They are not under the control of neighbourhood or family customs. Naturally, education of children are within the grip of the mother. She can take steps for proper education and vocation of her ward.

(7) In the urban life many of the social and economic activities of the family are replaced by new ways of modern techniques. They are to think and work a new for adaptation to new situation. Naturally, they should be more pragmatic and dynamic as against naturalistic and ritualistic mode of life led by rural community. The urban society live in a somewhat "artificial, man-made world". They are the products of "Complex social forces".

4.2.5 : EFFECTS OF URBANIZATION IN INDIAN LIFE

More recently the noticeable effects of urbanization are the increasingly rapid diffusions of urban ways to Indian rural community resulting in some changes in social life. On the other hand, industrial cities and towns are attracting more and more rural youth in factories and workshops which in turn, are increasing the density of urban population and slum population. This, in turn, creates centres for ill health, social delinquents, drug addiction and many of the social vices. Densely populated urban dwellings are safer places for these deviant groups.

Side by side with growth of metropolitan cities like Delhi, Kanpur, Lucknow, Bombay (Mumbai), Calcutta (Kolkata), Jamshedpur, Madras (Chennai) Bangalore, Hyderabad etc., urban life is attracting the energetic, dynamic and ambitious elements of all caste and religious groups which, actually, has shaken the great foundations of Hindu caste society.

In Economic progress urbanization developed infrastructure for human comfort and productive economic ventures. Road, electricity, planned housing, underground drainage, transport and communication systems are available in all cities and towns. Markets, offices, banks, post offices, hospitals, recreational and hobby centres are at hand to facilitate different types of services. The police stations, judicial courts and administrative office provide and maintain law, order and security to

citizens whenever needed, but with some limitations. Career information and different types of career advancement programme, and educational courses, attract ambitions and prospective young generation. This type of modern educational facilities are in abundance in urban places. It is for this reason the urbanized people can avail of better job and lucrativesalary.

Again, the business men, industrialists, professional men, bankers, promoters, artists and literary personalities come out of these metropolitan environment. Books and libraries, colleges and universities, new-press and different research centres are located in cities. Political leaders, executives and officials of higher ranks also settle themselves in selective areas of the city. It is for this reason, bewildering varieties of dignified, powerful, resourceful, wealthy and rich persons reside in city mansions.

Side by side with these well-off dignitaries, lots of penuries reside in unbecoming slums; pavement dwellers are in abundance. In the city of greater Calcutta (Kolkata) as many as 3 lakhs people are footpath dwellers. They are not only homeless, but also penniless; some are ill-fed, some half-fed and some are dependent parasites. They beg, they wander and search for waste-materials from the garbages. Insecurity is the price of their life. These pavement dwellers have no identity of settled-cottage or address of their own. However, some occasions permit them to get the situation of casual labour. The rickshaw pullers, auto drivers and boot-polish makers are in abundance. They pass-their night either on their own pretty carriage or on the pavement under big hotels. When the auction market of fish and vegetables etc., opens after closure of the night they become busy in their habituated activities. Such is the nature of contrasting ways of life in cities and urban settlement. There are contrasts in livelihood, contrasts in occupation, income, life-conditions – food, dress, dwelling andculture.

The educational contrasts are mostly remarkable. The facilities of education in cities and towns are in abundance. Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai, Bangalore, Delhi and other metropolitan cities in India provide varieties of programmes for science, technology, medicine, pharmaceutics, computer science, and general courses including legal and various professional advancement programmes. However, fate is defeated for the poors. Again, schooling facilities are of bewildering varieties – both residential and non-residential. Many of these are privately managed and others depend on governmental or semi-governmental resources. These close relationships between education and urbanization in spite of all the divergence paves the way towards modernization and enshrines the devoted learners for building up a prosperous nation.

4.2.6 : NET RESULT OF URBANIZATION IN INDIA

The net result of urbanization in India, at present, reveals the following :

(1) During 1951, the percentage of urban population in India was 19.90% of the total population. It rose upto 25.72% during 1991 which is expected to grow around 30% in 2011. According to census report 1991, ―abotu 217 million people in India lived in 3609 urban centres of varying sizes". In order to be considered urbanized, at least 75% of the people of the locality must have to depend on non-agricultural occupation; and density of population per one square kilometer should be more than (1000) one thousand. It is for this reason urban areas are not growing at a rapid rate.

(2) According to Hans Nagpal, there is a close relationship and dependence between the urban and rural life. They are not altogether separated. The fast means of communication-net-work and transport system minimizes the distance between urban and rural people. The old urbanized areas, are almost traditional. No remarkable changes in the ways of life are identified.(Dube)

(3) The ethnic population residing in urban areas are not altogether separated from their language –

religion and cultural life. They enjoy urban ways, but follow many of traditional customs; (Prof. Ram Ahuja).

(4) The caste and communal feeling has greatly been minimized through the experience of secondary group life in urban areas; and this resulted in toleration and secular ways of life in cities and towns. (Prof. Dube and Jogendra Singh).

(5) M. S. Gorey has observed in his studies on ‗family life and urbanization', that there are a little changes in family life in India. But it is also revealed that rural family bond stillmaintains the feeling of we – ness and primary group belongingness. But the role of father dominated family has become weak (R. P. Desai).

(6) In terms of census 1991 it is observed that 25.10% of rural women are literate, whereas the urban female attained about 54% literacy. The divorce and re-marriage is much greater in urban women as compared to rural women.

(7) Urban life in India has developed a class-system in terms of economic status. According to the studies of Dube, the so called elite and rich urban people are ―Indians" who enjoy all sorts of privileges of city or urban life. They are limited in number, but the majority of urban people are, ―Bharatiya", in the sense, that their socio-economic conditions are not recognizable. Ill health, mal-nutrition, uncongenial environment, poverty, unemployment, criminality, drug-addiction, female abuse by lure of money, and begging are the prevailing conditions in several areas of urban India. Different types of social abuses have concentrated in urban belts of the country. The imbalances, observes, Prof. Dube, between urban ways of life and urban development is a great concern to most of the social thinkers. Some lead a solitary life in urban areas, while their families reside in the parental joint families in villages. These are termed by sociologists as subsistence urbanization.

In the final analysis, it is remarkable to note that most of the urbanizations in India, are unplanned, without having scientific infrastructure. Dissociative urban people are mostly guided by self interest and they are not eager to perform their social responsibilities. Pleasure and enjoyment have become the objectives of life. Proper education and cultural modernization suffers from lack of initiative and progressive attitudes. It is, therefore, an urgent necessity to motivate people to learn and change the pattern of urban life in a desired direction, so that common people, being in urban areas, may overcome the major crisis of the present time.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Whaturbanization
2. Discuss some of historical perspective ofurbanization
3. Mentionsomeofsignificantcontrastingcharacteristicsbetweenurbanandruralcommunity.
4. Summarize the results of urbanization inIndia.

Block – 4

Unit – 3

INDUSTRIALIZATION

4.3.1 : INTRODUCTION

Industrial Capitalism was the beloved child of Industrial Revolution; and Industrialization itself was its foster child. Historians recognize the period between 1500 A.D. to 1750 A.D. as the phase of merchantile capitalism and this period terminated into Industrial Revolution after 1750. It was rather an industrial movement. Some historians characterized it in the name of ―Industrial Evolution," since it was a long, and slow process of change beginning obscurely. The resultant came out to be Industrial Capitalism. Industrialization was a movement to this form of capitalism. It is a continiuos process though its momentum varies from places to place and time to time.

4.3.2 : CONCEPT

Industrialization was a long, stable and continuous process of industrial activities that first started in European countries and afterwards in other countries of the world. The European and American countries took long strides in scientific and technological system of production of goods and commodities. It organized and developed machine based giant industries which could manufacture voluminous production in a short period, resulting in huge stock of production; that necessitated quick disposal of goods by means of quick transportation in different parts of commercial bases. Its mass production and distance delivery mechanisms have spilled-over to educational system too.

4.3.3 : CHARACTERISTICS

Industrialization developed in two forms. The earlier one, and the modern industrialism. Sociologically speaking the former industrialism was concerned with simple transformative economics led by non-specialized semi-literate peoples, while the latter industrialism was an expression of the civilized period of modern history. The characteristics of this period can be identified with–

(a) Replacement of craft guilds subordinated to spiritual, political and culturalpursuits.

(b) A far-reaching changes in the economic and technologic systems started in England during thelaterpartofthe*18thcentury which diffused in other European countries*.

(c) Use of mechanical power to work machines was remarkable. These were water, wheel, steam power and electrical power and the most modern advanced power and energy mechanism. The power loom, the steam engine and the blast furnace, accelerated the dimensions of all types of production.

(d) Multiplicityofmillsandfactoriesgaverisetohugeproductionandneweconomicorder.

(e) Industrial complexes were developed around the giant factories replacing the house made production.

(f) Faster means of land, water and air lines came to exist. New routes of land and sea were developed. Railways and steel ships began to be utilized for carrying goods to distant places of commercial centres.

(g) Intensification of trade was a necessary condition along with general expansion of industry.

(h) Production and distribution of producers‘ and consumers‘ good established a new record that was incredible to human history. And public health care got a new meaning.

(i) The operations of monopolies, and even, duopolies, concentrated wealth and riches to a few numbers of fortunate personalities. On the other hand joint-stock companies, banking and insurance companies extended facilities to various sectors of people.

(j) However, private relations between the employers and employees became more precarious resulting in two opposite classes – the exploitor and the exploited.

(k) Industrial urbanization developed in bewildering varities; and population from different rural corners thronged around the vicinity of industrial belts; and that gave rise to tremendous pressure on the density of urban population resulting in greater mobility and complexity in socio-economic system. The semi-stagnant economy of many countries achieved an unprecedentedmomentum.

(l) The overwhelming industrialization expanded, and got entry to every British and European colonies of Afro-Asian, and in several parts of South American countries.

4.3.4 : EFFECTS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

Industrialization has innumerable virtues accompanied with several accountable vices.

(m) It has provided with massive production of goods, the costs of which are within the reach of millions of people, and these can be hand within massive market facilities and extensive advertising devices and complex system of transportation. High-degree of low-cost production has been able to stimulate standard of living to millions ofpeople.

(n) On the other side, it has increased economic interdependence of different qualities of population within and between nations. The crazy nationalistic competition for foreign markets gaverisetoconflictsandcombatsamongstnationswithpossibilityoftotalwar.

(o) The significant secondary effects are to be searched in the ever growing nature of huge metropolis and increasing urbanization. The consequences are two sided. In the first place migration of many people from city centres to other residential suburbs; and the other is the diffusion of urban ways of life to village communities.

(p) Industrialization gave way to specialization of functions resulting in greater complexity of division of labour; and this, in a way gave rise to thousands of occupational patterns causing interdependence among the various elements of society. In fact, it has made way for a flexible classification scheme of occupations and professions in the community.

The very fact is that the bond of primary group association with much of its morality emphasizing virtues of loyalty and sympathy, seem to be unexpected in secondary group relations which are developed in industrial group association. So, changes are explicit in social relations. Family relations are also replaced by reciprocity of secondary nature. Primary attachment and bond of love is at low ebb. The values of social life, perhaps, are decaying. People may have lost some of the basic traditional values of sympathy, fellow-feeling and sharing of mutual pains and pleasures of primary group life. Governmental security measures are expected at various stages of social and economic life.

Roucek and Warren (1963) observes, ―There has been an increasing shift in emphasis from a concern with theology, religious commandments, and the world to come, to an emphasis upon secular, ethical and ideological norms, and the importance of this world.” Naturally, labour forces are organized by trade unions, professional norms are directed by political ideologies, social status is determined by

capital-power, and human efficiencies are judged by productive capacity. Profit is the major object that matters capitalistic industrialization; and industrial labour unions are the best bargainers in wage policy and security of life. The State stands as a mediator between the two, that is, organizer and the labour union. As a result, the working hours for labours have been reduced to eight hours a day, women labour has been humanly treated; health, recreational and educational provisions for children are given weightage; accident benefits and bonus facilities, and human conception in work are assured. These are some of the major outcomes of socialistic movements that started in the 18th and the 19th century and continued throughout the 20th century as indicators for social security schemes for smoothening civil life.

4.3.5 : INDUSTRIALIZATION IN INDIA

From the very beginning of independence, India has resorted to industrialization through her Five Year Plans. The long dominance of England over Indian polity and economy made her some what stagnant in industrial development. But the second and third Five Year Plan intended to develop heavy industries leading to the growth of infra-structure and industrial belts in different parts of India. Naturally, gigantic industrial centres have grown in states like West Bengal, Jharkhand, Bihar, Orissa, Chennai, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and in several parts of India without exception to U.P., Punjab or Karnataka. However, ―the industrial composition of Indian work-force is overwhelmingly dominated by primary sectors. The occupational structure of female workers was more primary sector oriented than that of the male workers. 36.7% of male workers and 20.6% of female workers are engaged in industrial ventures and allied occupations. Various occupations are classified into industrial categories. The United Nations Organization recommends the following nine fold industrial classification:

(i) Agriculture, forestry, fishing;

(ii) Mining and Quarrying;

(iii) Manufacturing industries;

(iv) Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services;

(v) Construction

(vi) Commerce;

(vii) Transport, Storage and Communication;

(viii) Services; and

(ix) Not classified elsewhere.

The industrial categories of occupations are indicated in the census Report of India; and it has 12 categories of occupations. Several Five Year Plans led to industrial growth in India. In spite of having industrial development in India, the over whelming majority still depends on primary sector. The secondary sectors has been growing slowly but steadily.

After the fifties of the last century, industrial development was remarkable; and it proceeds in a planned way. However, this has replaced many of the handicrafts and domestic industries. Industrialization and urbanization maintain a parallel line of development, resulting in varieties of consumable and capital goods. And these raised the standard of living and comforts of life not only in urban sectors but also in rural regions too.

Naturally, the need for better and varieties of educational organization are now being increased. The quality of Education began to be improved; and the quantitative growth of vocational and avocational

institutions in different industrialized areas are also remarkable. In the educational field Teacher training institutions developed in several parts of the country, industrial workers, inIndia, are trainedup in mechanical and technological operations of factories and industries. Industrialization led to the growth of apprenticeship training; science education, technology and engineering courses are modernized. Industrial management required Management discipline. Medical science and bio-science needed Bio- technology.

Again pollution control necessitated environmental education. Ship building, aeronautic science, jute technology, textile engineers courses come to exist in educational field. Atomic research get priority; military education has been reshaped; agricultural education and research need Agricultural Universities.

Finally, elementary education and secondary education are improving in qualitative and quantitative terms. Finally higher secondary education becomes multipurpose. From social point of view, family life has been fragmented, social disorganization appears, caste-division loses rigidity, trade union steps in politics, ethnic population are engaged in industrial production; and women employment is stimulated, where privileges of free movement of women are granted, and they are now participating in political affairs. In this way piecemeal needs-based non-formal adult education is now advancing to stand firmly on the platform of Life Long Educational for All in the Civil Society.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. MentionsomeofthecharacteristicsofIndustrialization.
2. What were majoreffects of industrialization?
3. AnalysetheimpactofindustrializationinIndia.

Block – 4

Unit – 4

MODERNIZATION

4.4.1 : INTRODUCTION

Modernization is mostly concerned with that type of social transformation which directs attention toward all round social progress with the support of education, science and technology. The advancement of science, technology, professional and vocational education in consonance with general and mass-educational programmes lead to advancement in various facets of socio-economic life. The developed Western countries take recourse to educational strategies for achieving this type of social transformation. In addition to these progress in democratic ways of life, and also, in socio-cultural and moral qualities are intended to be achieved through the process of modernization. The strategies for modernization in third world countries pay attention in two directions. One is economic modernization where the modernization processes are concerned with ―Ideal Typical Index.‖ The second one follows two approaches like ―Diffusionist Approach‖ and ―Psychological Approach‖. All these attempts are resorted to for arriving at over all progress in socio-economic and socio-cultural life of a nation and her people.

4.4.2 : CONCEPTS

Prof. Wilbert E. More advances his concepts of modernization in a dynamic way. To hin ―Modernization is a total transformation of a traditional or, pre-modern society into the types of technology and associated social organization that characterize the ‗advanced' economically prosperous and relatively stable nations of the Western World.‖ ―Ideal Typical Index‖ is a road to be followed by developing countries to this direction. Heal so proclaims that modernization is undoubtedly an approach leading to economic development, but this is not the ―be all and end all‖ of modernization processes. There are possibilities to few short term and immediate situations which are accorded to the state or the rural community and even to the school so as to achieve social Mobilization. In terms of Karl Deutsch modernization is a process of social Mobilization so as to acquire dynamic ways of life directing towards urbanization, mechanization, non-agricultural vocation with greater emphasis to service sectors and massive production of consumable and luxurious commodities. All these lead to growth in per capita income, literacy rate mass-communication system and desired changes in residential accommodations and the like. However, these concepts of modernization faces innumerable resistances for its implementation, especially, in a developing country like India. Modernization, in a true sense, is the over all progress of the nation and its primary unit that is, the individual and the family. It is continuous process of social and economic growth for betterment of family life, community, society, and the national life as a whole. It paves the way to acquire rational attitude and moral values and creativity required for innovations and researches. Only economic progress, in terms of material and technological development is not the selected attribute of modernization. For arriving at this end education is a major weapon for having balance development for social transformation.

4.4.3 : MODERNIZATION IN INDIA

Modernization processes started in Indian society during the 19th century; and Raja Rammohan Roy was the path finder to this socio-economic and cultural transformation. Education, and newly developed academic institutions performed a great role for modernizing. The landed aristocracy, of the then society even thought of socio-economic modernization by initiating academic centres. The

Asiatic Society, to this end, was the first mile stone. During 1818, Hindu college came to exist; Medical college was set up in 1835; and Roorkie Engineering College was established during the middle half of the 19th century (1846). Three universities got prominence in 1857 in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and these performed educational roles consistent with London University model. To set a contact with these cities railway lines were developed (1853). All these factors jointly endeavored in the modernization processes of greater part of the 19th Century. These academic centres organized courses not only in social sciences, arts, fine arts and literary subjects, but also took steps for introducing modern science, technology and productive agricultural science. Along with teaching faculties there were research programmes for discovery of new knowledge. It is note worthy that the scope of higher education was open to all deserving students of the country irrespective of caste, sex or religion belongingness. No discrimination was made for admitting rich or poor deserving candidates.

However, the British India adopted a Down-ward Filtration Theory; but the flow of education could not permeate to people for economic reasons, due to the existence of limited numbers of Higher Academic centres. Villagers, especially of low income groups, could not avail of themselves the privileges of being modernized. And this realities prevailed during the colonial rule inIndia.

The processes of modernization and social transformation goat a momentum just after Independence. In the pre-independence stage modernization prospects were very limited. The progress of industrial factory production started after the implementation of the Five Year Planning. Heavy engineers power plants and thermal plants accelerated the process of industrialization in different parts of India. Irrigation projects were launched for agricultural development. Agricultural research projects were organized for massive agricultural products. Atomic Research got priority and attention was directed to achieve scientific progress. Network of communication and transportation systems along the sea route, land and air lines developed. Telecommunication network came to exist in a massive scale, and educational explosion started with varieties of programmes providing mass-scale educational opportunities. Along with conventional system of school, college and university education, the unconventional approaches started in the field of education in India. Forma terial prosperity and employment generation and raising the standard of living the entire productive sector has now been modernized. The Planning Commission in India takes steps toward economic modernization. Application of modern science and technology, for production of the essential commodities, consumer goods, medicine, luxury goods, chemical products, fertilizers, agricultural tools and instruments are now manufactured in huge scales so as to modernize living conditions of people. Political and cultural modernization are intended to be achieved through legislation and constitutionalways.

The modernizing processes are slow but steady in the existing conditions of modern India. Future will be speak the impact of such modernization.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the approaches to modernization in the Third World Countries?
2. Explain the meaning of modernization.
3. Discuss the nature of modernization in Indian Society.

Block – 4

Unit – 5

WESTERNIZATION

Westernization is a process of social transformation in India, that had been initiated from the socio-economic and cultural pattern of British people. By the process of westernization some of the oriental people were inclined to adapt themselves in western life style and culture. This included adaptation of western language, dresses, habits, manners and customs, along with their value system and cultural pattern. The Britishers ruled over India for two hundred years or so. It is for this reason, many of the urbanized Indian people changed their traditional ways of life and oriented themselves to western life style. It was realized that adaptation to European life style would be conducive to their social and economic advantages; and in several cases Indians were motivated to learn and practice European culture. It was believed that better social position and status might be achieved by virtue of westernization.

4.5.1 : MEANING OF WESTERNIZATION

Prof. Srinibas maintains that westernization is an ongoing process of social change in India through acquirement of western pattern of culture and mode of life. In his own word, ―Westernization refer to changes introduced into Indian society during British rule and which continue, in some cases with added momentum, in independent India.‖ He further maintains, ―Thechanges brought about in Indian society and culture as a result of over 150 years of British rule, and the term subsumes changes occurring at different levels – technology, institutions, ideology, values‖, characterize Westernization. It is an inclusive many-layered and complex concept. The concept pervades in different ranges of western method of experimental modern science, and also with the modern historiography.

4..5.2 : MISCONCEPTION

Westernization should not be confused with some other apparently identical concepts like urbanization, industrialization or modernization.

(a) Urbanization was an ongoing continuous process of settlement for convenience of political administration, economic activities including trade and commerce, and such other localized advantages of easy means of transportation or, communication and the like. It prevailed long before the advent of British rule in India. So, urbanization was not the exclusive contribution of westernization. It simply modified some of the urban sectors for the sake of certain advantages. Prof. Srinivas, maintains, ―a caution must be uttered against equating westernization with urbanization. Even in a country such as India, rural areas which are more Westernized in their style of life than many urban groups.‖

(b) Similarly, highly ―urbanized areas are highly industrialized areas‖. Industrialization started with the commencement of industrial revolution in Europe. Afterwards, it spreaded in other countries, irrespective of Europe, America or India. Industrialization became a world wide affair, whilewesternizationbecameanacceptablewaysoflifetonon-westerncountries.

(c) Again, Srinivas maintains, ―Westernization, unlike ‗modernization', is ethically neutral. Its use does not carry the implication that it is good or bad, whereas modernization is normally used in the sense that it is good.‖

(d) Westernization, as it is understood, represents a specific model of western material and non-

material cultural pattern of life. It has its own identity. It is the process of in roads of the Western Cultural inputs in to the Eastern (India, China, etc.) life and living.

4.5.3 : CONTRIBUTIONS OF WESTERNIZATION

Westernization has contributed a lot for achieving socio-cultural changes in Indian life, especially, in those areas which are nearer to urbanized and industrialized locations; and this has been achieved through greater interactions with western culture. M. N. Srinivas in his – social change in Modern India, maintains, ―Inthe analysis of social and cultural change in India the British model of westernization is obviously the most important one, though since 1947 the American and Russian models have become increasingly relevant."

In the British model of westernization science and modern technology had been developed by the British rulers in Indian soil; directly to serve their interests which indirectly became useful to people in general. Well organized communication system through, along with postal and telegraphic advantages physical distance could be minimized. Electricity gave way to industrial growth. Medical technology saved lives of innumerable people. Road bridge and building construction developed in the western model; steel and cement industry accelerated the process of industrial modernization. Printing press took steps for mass awareness and massive production of printed books. New technology was, even, introduced in mining, marine engineering and military services. Every facet of technological development directly or indirectly were designed by the influence of western science and technology.

Again, the western system of law, judiciary, administration and control came to exist. A new system of western polity and diplomatic procedures came in vogue. Complex social organizations and controlled mechanism had been followed by western economic advantage.

Institutions developed in accordance with the Western model. Banking, insurance, joint stock companies took the leadership of the money market.

Network of administrative and financial regulations and procedures were distributed all over the districts and sub-divisional levels of the country.

In the context of values and ideology western model influenced to a great extent, especially, in the public sector. Routine job, discipline and punctuality followed western values. Rights and duties were scheduled; punish mentandre ward were recorded in the service book of the workers. Liberal ismand individualism had been regulated by strict norms and rules of conduct; manners and etiquette were governed by western customs.

Apart from these, A to Z of Education has changed / are changing in our land by the advent of Westernization.

4.5.4 : WESTERNIZATION AND EDUCATION IN INDIA

Sincerely speaking, Indian Education of modern days has emerged and developed, thanks to the contributions, from westernization. It opened the doors to secular education; and developed routine bounded day schools for Indian society where English became the medium of instruction. The traditional indigenous schools were being gradually replaced by English schools. There were scheduled hours for school activities. The concept of teacher-training for professional growth came to be an accepted principle. Schools for boys and girls were identical; and in course of time the concept of co-educational school, also, came to exist. State aid to education was accepted; Directorate of Education was an innovation for controlling school activities of different regions of the country; provisions for school inspection and supervision were thought of; identical pattern of curriculum and

evaluation system prevailed in different provinces of British India; and diversified curriculum was also, conceived. Universities conducted examinations for awarding Matriculation, Intermediate, Degree and post graduate certificates. Provisions were facilitated for Doctoral Degree. So, a good number of universities came to exist in India after 1857 to facilitate studies and Research. Innumerable colleges for a vocational, vocational educational, along with science, Technology, Medicine and Agriculture and Veterinary sciences witnessed the contributions of westernization. All facets of Technological Education in various branches of knowledge were not unrepresented. You may add many more of such transformation waves in our education.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What do you understand by westernization?
2. What is the relationship between urbanization and westernization?
3. Relate some contributions of westernization in social transformation.
4. To what extent westernization is responsible for modern Indian educational system?

Block – 4

Unit – 6

SANSKRITIZATION

4.6.1 : INTRODUCTION

Sanskritization is a concept which was explained by M. N. Srinivas in his ‗Religion and Society among the Coorgs of Southern india',(1952). This has a less significance in educational context, but it is principally important to cultural changein Indian history and sociology.

Concept :

According to Prof. Srinivas, ―Sanskritization is the process by which a "low" Hindu caste, or tribal or other group, changes, customs, ritual, ideology and way of life in the direction of a high, and frequently, twice – born caste." … ―Generally,such changes are followed by a claim toa higher positioninthecastehierarchythanclaimantcastebythelocalcommunity."

4.6.2 : EMPIRICALSTUDY

Prof. M. N. Srinivas in his investigation among the Coorgs of South India found that Coorgs followed the ways of life that were befitting for the Brahmins and Kshatriyas. It is because such conversion into higher social position could become an identity of social rank and prestige. Traditionally Indian society recognized the Brahmins and Kshatriyas as the highest form of social dignity. The caste division in India assigned ascribed status in society by virtue of birth. The ‗Sudras' were no more allowed to have education in the schools organized by the Brahmins. They were at the lowest ladder of ascribed stratification. They were physically strong to perform hard labour and educationally and cultural disadvantaged in social intercourse with higher caste-groups of Hindus. It is for this reason lower castes in India had a tendency to imitate the life style or ways of life led by Kshatriyas or Brahmins. Even they followed the ritualistic performances, mode of worship, and educational, and cultural practices of the Higher caste groups especially of Brahmins; and got mentally prepared to achieve the status of Brahmins. To arrive at this end they began to change their surnames caste status from ‗sudras' to ‗kshatriyas' first. This was kshatraization; and after a lapse of several years they claimed to be kshatriyas. The second step was followed by Brahmanization and that could be achieved by acquiring Brahmanic virtues of ritualistic activities and learning ―Mantras" and Brahamonic practices of worship accompanied by educational and cultural processes. They performed Janiyas with the help of Brahmin priests of renounce, of distant places. This was how sudras, in different parts of India could achieve the status of Brahmins. They claimed to be Brahmins of highest position and dignity; and propagated their social position to the society in which they were established. Even they became vegetarians and renounced liquor and wore sacred thread and worshipped idols of gods and goddesses like all other Brahmins. To quote Srinivas, ―Emphasized unduly the Brahminical model of sanskritization and ignored other models – Kshatriya Vaishya, and sudra. Even the Brahminical model was derived from the Kannada, Tamil and Telugu Brahmins, and not from Brahmin caste in other regions". However, this claim for a manufactured Brahmin was not accepted by many of the people of the region. So, they had to struggle hard to retain their claim as Brahmin. It is evident, therefore, that the economically dominant group could fight against the other weaker sections who had no sufficient number or economic and social dominance in the locality. In terms of Prof. Srinivas, ―Thedominant caste set the model for majority of people living in rural are as including, occasionally, Brahmins."

4.6.3 : SANSKRITIZATION IN DIFFERENT PARTS IN INDIA

―Thesadgope", maintains Prof. Srinivas, were ―dominant caste" in different parts of Bengal. Similarly, the _Patidar' and _Rajput' in Gujrat; _Maratha' in Maharashtra; Kamma and Peddi in Andhra; Okkaliga and Lingayat in Mysore; Vella, Goundar, Padaiyachic, and Kallar in Madras; and finally, Nayar, Syria … in Kerala." It is also note worthy that the wealthy and landed Jatts did engage weaker sections of Brahmins in various laborious jobs. The landed aristocrats in variousplaces of Gujrat, Maratha, Andhra or Mysore were the dominant landed property holders. They subordinated Brahmins, both socially and economically by virtue ofsanskritization.

4.6.4 : FACTORS CONDUCTIVE TO SANSKRITIZATION

A good number of socio-cultural factors were helpful for the process of sanskritization. The first was economic advantage, mainly possession of vast land resource, the second was the centres of pilgrimage. Centres of pilgrimage and monasteries were also sources of sanskritization and the third was publicity and propaganda, by virtue of which the claim for the manufactured Brahmins could be propagated and established. Their status could be recognized through marriage with original Brahmins.

4.6.5 : EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE

Sanskritization is a continuous process of social transformation, according to Srinivas. However, L. SS. O. _Malley does not accept then view in its totality since, India is vast country with different language, culture, heritage and social customs. Still then, sanskritization was in operation in several parts of India. The caste ladder and its stratification were determined by the virtue of ―Karma". If one is inclined to follow the higher order of Hindu philosophy and spiritual life through continuous practices and _karma' one's social position is apprized. Education is the main spring that determines the life of a Brahmin. Wisdom, devotion and the knowledge of _Vedas', the _Vedanta', _Mantra', Jangya, along with renunciation of worldly pleasures and adopting to six lawful occupations of Brahmins should be the essence of the life of a Brahmin. The Lawful occupations are ―studying the veda, teaching, sacrificing for himself, sacrificing for others, giving alms, and accepting gifts."

It is evident, therefore, a Brahmin must study; a Brahmin must teach; and a Brahmin must sacrifice for others. When the sanskritized Brahmins these rules in life educational opportunities and educational environment are sure to develop. Simply wearing of a _Sacred Thread' is not theonly virtueof a Brahmin.So ―Karma' leads to Brahminization. Dominance is not the only factor. The Sanskritized tribal people of santal Parganas, and the ―Oraons" of Chhotanagpur, according to Andre Bete, the eminent Anthropologist separated themselves from their tribal groups and they used to follow the life of a Brahmin – by studying, by organizing schools for learners, by accepting gifts from the society for educational purposes and providing educational opportunities to the community. They did not touch liquor, and non-vegetarian food; and adopted priestly life and dedicated for humanity and proved that social stratification in India is not so much rigid, as claimed by foreign writers. _Karma' and virtues of life are the true foundation of caste division.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What is the meaning of the term _Sanskritization'?
2. What are the empirical evidences of Sanskritization?
3. How did sanskritization affect Indian castesystem?

LET US SUM UP

Every modern State facilitates education for its future citizens for achieving individual development and social prosperity. —Theworth of the state is judged by the worth of the individuals composing it." Worthy individuals develop worthy nation. It is for this reason, educational investments are resorted to for developing worthy creative, skillful educated and productive intelligentsia. They contribute to national economy. Conclusively, education generates nationl and economic growth.

The second point of our discussion is urbanization. It came to exist in every society when organized monarchy or ruling authority developed. It grew as a capital city or a business centre or even a holy place where transport facility was easier. The rural or urban life were not of same nature. Urban people became dynamic, skilled and economically advanced; however, the rural life was slothful; because educational facilities were not well developed. The urban people could get better facilities of education and employment.

The third line of social transformation came through industrialization that commenced as a result of Industrial Revolution in England. It was a long process by means of which different countries of the world became industrialized and adopted capitalistic system of production and distribution. Education was accordingly renewed and science and technological education had been stressed at par with industrial growth. Modernization paved the way toward progress. This progress refers to overall development of economy, culture, education, morality and ethics so that man can lead a good life within the national state and also an individual of the international community. Modernization seeks to achieve total progress of mankind as a whole. It is therefore, concerned with well-being of modern states, and the tools to arrive at this end, are – application of advanced science technology, research and education and cultural interaction with national and international ways of life. Westernization primarily changed to a great extent the socio-economic and cultural life of non-European countries where Britisher established their economic and political dominance. In India westernization greatly changed social and economic life by organizing new system of industrialized economy and educational modernization. English language, culture and education and higher studies and research changed Indian people to considerable extent. Finally, sanskritization, some way or other extended privileges to lower castes to change their ascribed status position to higher level through Brahminization.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. Discuss the role of Education in Economic Growth.
2. How does Urbanization change social relations?
3. Describe the significance of Industrialization in Modern Indian Society.
4. What would be the nature of education in the context Industrialization?
5. What is the need for modernization? How can modernization affect Indian Economy and Cultural life?
6. Discuss the role of Westernization in development of Indian Education?
7. Relate the significance of Sanskritization in education context.
8. Critically analyse the various processes of social transformation which have brought about significant changes in our education system.

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY-2

Block - 5

Education and Some Social Determinants

CONTENT STRUCTURE:

INTRODUCTION

Democracy and education are closely inter related. Education cannot be fulfilled without the application of democratic principles. Democracy an inherent demand of human, may be originated from the educational set up. As well democracy is a philosophy for the nation and individual too. But it demands to create an environment where democracy and education influence each other.

A democratic ideology – describes ―the state belongs to the people and belief that the state belongs to the people and should serve the interests of all citizens – begins to become an accepted part of life".

The word democracy is sourced from Greek words demos and kratien. Demons means the people and the latter suggests administration which is resonated by Abraham's Lincon's words – ―democracy as a government of the people, by the people and for the people".

OBJECTIVES

You will be able ―

- To understand different concepts regarding politics, democracy, religion, natural integration and globalization in social contexts.
- To correlate different social aspects stated above and their relation in respect to education.
- To visualize different principles on globalization.
- Tobeacquaintedwithdifferentsocialdeterminantsandtheirinfluenceoneducation.

Block - 5

Unit – 1

SOME SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF EDUCATION

5.1.1 : DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

The main characteristics of democracy are given below;

1. —Democracy is not a way of governing whether by majority or otherwise but primarily a way of determining who shall govern and broadly to whatends."
2. Democracy assumes all individuals the right to freedom. Individual is an end and the state is a means indemocracy.
3. Power of democracy isdecentralized.
4. It ensures equality and liberty of humanbeing.
5. Assumes fundamental rights : the right to speak, criticize associate, properly worship and also right to disagree withothers.
6. In Indian democratic set-up multiple political parties are playing democratic role for running administration.
7. Democratic qualities like Tolerance, Truthfulness & Nonviolence to be developed.
8. The structure of Govt. is complex and complicated. Govt. is elected through people participants in the voting process.
9. Democracy is a way of life that reflects the individuality more than being a form of government.
10. It is based on principle of liberty, equality, fraternity, justice, sharing responsibility and cooperation.
11. In democracy the mass of the population possesses the right to share in the exercise of sovereign power.

In democracy people are playing supreme authority. The Govt. is only their elected representatives. Therefore all concerned administrations at any positions are accountable. Educational processes, then, need to look for in calcating in the students the democratic way of life.

5.1.1.1 : DEMOCRATIC PRINCIPLES AS APPLIED TO EDUCATION

1. Liberty / Freedom in Education

Pestalozzi, one of the early educationists conceived the aim of education as freedom from dependence and achievement of self-reliance. On the role of education in the life of human beings, Pestalozzi states —Thus and only thus docs the man, whom in God's wide work nobody helps, can help learn to help himself". That is why, self-help is the best that education can render to the individual. Pestalozzi has also observed that man should be made free and provided with stimuli in education for developing his self-reliance. He stales that —Education through freedom is emphasized in a democracy and the child is to be educated in an atmosphere of freedom. Democratic principles of liberty, equality, responsibility, justice and cooperation should find full realization in education to make it effective and meaningful".

In educational institutions, freedom is considered as an antithesis of discipline. Thus, there is often a confusion between discipline and order. Curbing of freedom might bring visible order, but that does not necessarily imply good discipline. Discipline in an educational institution is closely related to the behaviour of both teachers and pupils, their motives and their understanding of each other. The foundations of disciplined behaviour, orderliness and good conduct in students is to be laid down through education, so that they can achieve the best of themselves in future, and understand the value of freedom as well as essential social controls.

Through education students realise that they can achieve freedom only when they follow the dictates of conscience. Freedom then takes the form of self-discipline which is essential for democratic living. The students needs be given adequate academic freedom. They should be made free from external influence that prevents them from seeing and saying the truth. They must also develop courage and competence to investigate the truth with the help of education. Education should also encourage them to utilize their freedom to perform their duties and fulfill their responsibilities with conviction and sincerity.

2. Equality in Education

One of the basics of democracy is equality to opportunities to all. All human beings are born with a potential to achieve excellence in one field or the other. They grow and develop with experiences which vary from person to person. Rousseau has rightly pointed out that due to varied circumstances and privileges, children show differences in their performance and achievement. It is, therefore, imperative to provide adequate facilities to children to develop their abilities to the optimum. Equality of educational opportunity is essential to achieve this purpose. In spite of individual differences, importance of environment cannot he under-estimated as an important factor for educationalgrowth.

Hence, emphasis is laid on quantitative equality of education irrespective of caste, creed, colour, social status or financial condition of individuals. The Education Commission. 1964-C6, have rightly observed. ―One of the important social objectives of education is to equalise opportunity enabling the backward or under-privileged classes and individuals to use education as a lever for the improvement of their condition. Every society that values social justice and is anxious to improve the lot of the common man and cultivate all available talent, must ensure progressive equality of opportunity to all sections of the population.” Indian Constitutions also advocates such spirit.

3. Fraternity in Education

Universal brotherhood being an important tenet of democracy, its place in education is of fundamental significance. Students, teachers, parents and even non-teaching staff should be bonded with love, sympathy, understanding and fellow-feeling. In administration and organization of projects as well as co-curricular activities, this spirit of fraternity should prevail for ensuring cooperation and rapport. This can also lead to success of education in general and development of students‘ personality in particular. The “we” morale and the nationalistic spirit have to be developed in future citizens of the country through education.

4. Justice in Education

As a corollary to the above characteristics of democracy, it is essential that justice should be ensured in education. Equalization of educational opportunity, liberty and fraternity are basic to justice. In order to train the students in citizenship, it is necessary that the ideal of social and economic justice is inculcated in them. Also, special measures need to be taken by educational institutions to make up for the deficiencies and for removing the economic, social

and cultural barriers disabilities so that injustice that has been persisting over centuries can be done away with and justice denied to the deprived can be restored. Use of unfair practices of any kind by the teachers or by is should be dealt with an iron hand, if justice is to become endemic to education.

5. Sharing Responsibility in Education

Education is a joint responsibility of all concerned — students, teachers, parents, supervisors and so on. Every group has to share responsibility in the total process of education in their own way and according to their own capacity. In a democracy, every member of society has his/her own duties and responsibilities. In the eyes of the law and constitution everybody is equal, and everybody has his/her own voice and views to be expressed. All points of view have their relevance in education, and all individuals should make their contribution for educational development. School administration and organization of Co-curricular activities are required to move towards such end.

6. Cooperation in Education

As a corollary to the above, democracy as well as education is a cooperative enterprise. All members of society are active participants. Cooperation as a principle of democracy has to be utilized in education in all its aspects — starting from planning to execution, from teaching to evaluation, from administration to supervision. Students need to be trained through various programmes and projects, how to plan and work with others, how to promote team spirit and how to acquire (lie skills required for group activities. Thus, education will provide students with citizenship training for which cooperation is a basic pre-requisite and without which, neither education nor democracy can be a success.

5.1.1.2 : EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

Democracy has always found education as its greatest support and constant company. Without education, democracy has limited relevance and effectiveness, and without democracy education loses its meaning. Democracy and education bear a reciprocal relation and one cannot thrive without the other.

Democracy believes in giving freedom to the people. But if they are not educated, then their freedom may lead to anarchy and indiscipline. Economic self-sufficiency is also necessary for democratic education. Mathur (1966) has laid down inter alia the following two pre-conditions for success of education for democracy.

1. There should be economic betterment of the people. Democracy cannot be established if the basic needs of the people remain unfulfilled. The people may be prepared to forego their political freedom, if this freedom does not help to solve their problem of bread and butter.
2. The second pre-condition is the formation of an educated electorate. Democracy can function properly only when the people are educated and are conscious of their rights and duties. Education provides people with the capacity for better judgement regarding right and wrong, just and unjust. Otherwise, a small group will assume the control over government of the state and begin to exploit themasses.

The basic aims of education for democracy are development of (i) a balanced and harmonious human personality, (ii) building of character (moral and ethical development) and (iii) training for an efficient and productive existence in a society or culture. It is imperative, therefore, that programmes and practices of educational institutions should be formulated in such a way that the objectives of education in a democratic society can be properly realized.

(i) Development of a well-integrated and harmonious personality of .an individual is essential in a democracy. The Association for Education in Citizenship (1947), has mentioned that each student should be given a full chance to develop himself as an individual personality so that he might be able to enjoy life through the exercise of his capacities and should be alive to the realities and possibilities of the world around him. He should know how to play his part as an active member of his community. He should be equipped adequately to contribute to society through his occupation. He should also know how to be in effective communication with his fellow-men by articulation and creative activities.

(ii) Character building involves moral and ethical development of individuals. This means inculcation of human values such as honesty, sincerity, commitment and integrity. These are essential qualities for members of a democracy, and education has to develop these in individuals.

(iii) Since the students of today are the citizens of tomorrow, they need to be trained in citizenship for an efficient and productive existence in a democratic society or culture. This involves making judgements on complicated personal, economic, social and political issues and also contributing to society by way of work. To be effective, a democratic citizen should have the understanding and the intellectual integrity to sift truth from falsehood, and must develop a scientific attitude to think objectively and base his conclusions on tested grounds. He should also have an open mind responsive to new ideas and not confined within the prison walls of outmoded customs, traditions and beliefs. The development of the capacity for productive work is also an essential requirement of education for democracy.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. What are the principles of democracy?
2. How do you apply democratic principles in classroom?

5.1.2 : EDUCATION AND POLITICS

Introduction

An inhabitant of a country encounters with politics. —Politics is one of the unavoidable facts of human existence.” Politics is basically an ancient and universal experience. The content of political analysis have evolved over thousands of years before throughout the world. Political analysis have inherited its journey from ancient Greeks, Romans and the Indians. In earlier days of centuries before under the leadership of Socrates, Pluto and Aristotle political analysis achieve dan extra ordinary degree.

Whatever the form of Government they try to hold upon educational activities and programmes. In India Education is a joint venture of central and state. Both central & state Govt. they make policy, curriculum framework, funding, accreditations, and other important activities directly or indirectly. Some educationists and social thinkers do not like any sort of control by state over education. On the other hand some social thinkers considered that state has every right to control over education. Modern progressive educationist avoid both the extreme view rather to balance between the individuals and the state for the development of education. Presently growing privatization gradually changes the controlling of the Government over educational enterprises. Educational sectors more and more become autonomous. Governments are indirect controller and policies and decisions are coming

from both the public & private sector. But still state tries to influence and control the educational processes and programmes to achieve maximum public welfare.

In a democratic set-up political parties are involved for practicing democracy. According to Ian Robertson —Pol‡tical parties are collectives of people organized for the specific purpose of joining Legitimate Control of government."

Essentials of Political Parties

1. On the basis of ideology a group of people to constitute a political party, must be organized for a political purpose.
2. Thepoliticalpartiescanunitepeoplebytheirpolicies&strategicalgrounds.
3. At training of political power is one of them a in target of politics.
4. For attaining political power the parties should use peaceful and legitimate means.
5. It is very much urgent for a political party to make it clear of its main principles in public to the electorate for executing their plans, programmes and the course of action which they are going to be implement.

National Integration and Interest are the fundamental aspects of which potical parties are used to work to share the national goals and objectives.

Main functions

- The basic task of political parties are propagating their ideals, policies andprogrammes.
- Political parties are participating in elections for contesting and they have an effort to gain the majority.
- Every political party strengthens its organization by holding regular meeting, rallies, training camps, orientation courses for the works etc.
- Increment of membership is one of the main target of political parties.
- There are different ways to encourage electorate through speeches, programmes and other ways.
- Politicalpartiesalsoprovidingpoliticalawareness&educationtothevoters.

There are two major political systems in the present worldwide politics mentioned below:

(i) The Democratic Political System.

(ii) The Totalitarian political system.

Basic characteristics of Democracy:

(i) Human liberty and equality are the key factors of democracy. It assures the fundamental rights of the people and protect their life.

(ii) Decentralizationofpoweristheanotherrootthroughwhichdemocracyisrecognized.

(iii) In a democratic structure the Government has to function in a responsible way as because opposition parties are also play an important role for making decisions they have placed their clear opinion about any matter and after a thoughtful discussions decisions are taken.

(iv) Due weightage is given to the expertisation of different fields to communicate in a better way for peoples participation on democracy.

(v) The political parties play a vital role in exercising democracy. The common people get the political and democratic awareness from the political parties.

(vi) Democracy strengthen nationalism as also internationalism is also highly appreciated in democracy.

(vii) Democracy believes in flexibility. It avoids force or violence, rather it follow peaceful coexistence, non violence, co-operation another human qualities.

(viii) Democracy supports consent, criticism, debates and discussions during making policy, decisions, amendments and other purposes.

(ix) In democracy one government can replace another Government by election through applying their voting right in a peaceful manner.

Main characteristics of Totalitarianism :

- Dictatorships are regimes of ―strong men who get thing done". It glorifies the state. The state is the end and the individual is means.
- In totalitarianism power is centralized and monopolized.
- There is no clear distinction among the state, society and government.
- Democratic rights are not guaranteed. Responsibility, duty, discipline and sacrifice are given high priority.
- It's a single party system and all other political parties are banned.
- It's based on unquestioned obedience.
- Fundamental rights are not assured. Sometimes all rights are abolished.
- Policy and decisions are taken by the government without any discussion.
- It is a less costly government and administration.
- Change of government takes place through revolutions &bloodshed.
- It is no more a way of life but rather a form of government.
- In totalitarian system ―All within the state, none outside the state, and none against the state."
- Totalitarian system based on fear and force. Suppress opposition by adopting violence and administrative force is a common practice in this system.

Education and Politics

❑ *Education as a Right*

In 1948, Declaration of human rights including right to education, article 26(1) proclaimed ―Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be at last, in the elementary and fundamental stages compulsory."

In India also constitutionally article no. 18 includes education as a fundamental right. So it is the right of every child to get education and it is the responsibility of the state to impart compulsory & free education at the elementary stage for every child.

Education for all has now been regarded as a challenge in 21st century. But the reality is rather difficult to reach the goal. Following requests are mentionable:

(i) Provision of primary school education to all children of (6-14) age group with an emphasis on the girl child.

(ii) Retention of children in school through improving teaching-learning process thus reducing rate of drop-outs.

(iii) Improving the Quality of Education.

(iv) Ensuring participation of 2-6 years children in early childhood for careand educations.

❑ *Democratization of Education*

Following points are mentionable to elaborate the following concepts of democrating education by Bereday (1963)……

(i) A national commitment to develop education to the largest possible segment of the country.

(ii) A full mobilization of manpower to support and participate in education.

(iii) A realistic inventory and commitment of resources.

(iv) Determination that educational requirements promote the balance between increasing social needs and rising personnal aspirations.

Secularism and Education

In the light of politics secularism is very important aspect in Indian context. It aims to develop democratic, progressive and modern state. The well being of all the citizens of the country is the ultimate targets of secular education.

Thus secular values are sought to be transmitted effectively in the present Indian educational system.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Distinguish democracy &dictatorship.
2. Relate politics with education.

5.1.3 : EDUCATION AND RELIGION

Definition

1. Durkheim in his book The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life defines religion as a —unified system of beliefs and practices relative to sacred things, that is to say, things set apart and forbidden."
2. James G. Frazer, in his The Golden Bough considered religion a belief in —powers superior to manwhicharebelievedtodirectandcontrolthecourseofnatureandofhumanlife."
3. Edward Sapir, an American anthropologist, says that —theessence of religion consists in man's never-ceasing attempt to discover a road to spiritual serenity across the perplexities and dangers of daily life".
4. MacIver and Page have defined, —Religion as we understand the term, implies a relationship not merely between man and man but also between man and some higher power."
5. According to Ogburn, —Religion is an attitude towards super human powers."
6. Max Muller defines religion as —amental faculty or disposition which enables man to apprehend the infinite".

7. Thomas F.O _Dea, a functional theorist, defines religion as —the manipulation of non-empirical or supra-empirical means for non-empirical or supra-empirical ends". He further adds, –Religion offers what is felt to be a way of entering into a relationship with the supra-empirical aspects of reality, be they conceived as God, gods, or otherwise".

Basic Components of Religion :

(i) Belief in Supernatural Forces : Religion is a matter of belief. It is a belief in supernatural or superhuman forces. Some people believe in several kinds of forces and accordingly worship them all. They are called polytheists. Some others believe in only one force, or the God or the Almighty. They are called monotheists.

(ii) Man's Adjustment with the Supernatural Forces : Man believes that he is at the mercy of the supernatural forces. He expresses his subordination to them by means of prayers, hymns, and other acts. Worship is the essence of religion. He is, hence, engaged in endless endeavour to adjust himself with the divinity or the supernatural. His adjustment is one sided.

(iii) Acts, Defined as Righteous and Sinful or Sacred and the Profane : Religion considers some acts as righteous and sacred and encourages such acts. It regards some other acts as sinful and profane and denounces such acts. Behaving in accordance with the religious code or standards is righteous; going against them is sinful. The good or the righteous acts are believed to bring man good results, while the sinful acts result in disaster. As Durkheim says, a distinction between the sacred and the profane is made in all the societies.

(iv) Some Methods of Salvation : Every religion has its own explanation regarding salvation. It is regarded as ultimate aim of a devotee. The Buddhists called it Nirvana. The Hindus termed Mukti or Moksha-release from the chain of birth and death.

RELIGION AS A SYSTEM OF BELIEF AND RITUAL

Religion is a matter of belief. The next discussion will give more of this theme.

Religion as a System of Belief

All religious organizations depend upon beliefs, knowledge, and training to exercise influence upon their members. Religious belief is the cognitive aspect of religion. It tries to explain the nature and origin of sacred things. It assumes that the sacred things do exist. It tells us what this world is like, what kind of creatures inhabit it, and what their past history and present interests are. It gives us information about the universe, creation, life and death, future of the world and such other deep but subtle matters. This is the information that belief gives about the super empirical world. It also tells us how the world is related to the one we actually live in. –It is belief based on faith rather than upon evidence.

Religion as a System of Ritual

Religious ritual is the practical side of religion. As M. Douglas in his Purity and Danger, 1966, says ritual refers to symbolic actions concerning the sacred, Kingsley Davis says that ritual is behaviour with reference to super empirical entities and sacred objects. Like the belief itself, it hasa sacred character.–It expresses in internal attitude symbolic of the unseen powers."

Ritual is a means to remind the individual of the holy world. It strengthens and supports his faith in this world. It helps him to give expression to his religious sentiments and emotions. This brings him emotional ecstasy.

Durkheim. He said that –The function of religious rituals is to affirm the moral superiority of the society over its individual members and thus to maintain the solidarity of the society". –The god of the clan can be nothing but the clan itself."

Religion as a social system can be understood only if both belief and ritual are understood. The early thinkers gave more importance to the intellectual aspects of religion and ignored the ritual aspect.

The Functional Theory :

Modern sociologists have been making scientific efforts to understand and explain the non-scientific social phenomenon that consist of beliefs and practices. In their attempts to do so, they have laid the foundations of some social theories of religion. The functional theory of religion (sociological theory) has been developed by thinkers such as-William Robertson Smith, Emile Durkheim, B. R. Radcliffe-Brown, B. Malinowski, Max Weber, Talcott Parsons, and their followers. The basic assumption of the functionalist approach to religion is that religion is universally found because it has a vital function in maintaining the social system as a whole. The main social requirement that religion is deemed to fulfill has been –the necessity of ideological and sentimental cohesion, or solidarity".

How does religion serve to achieve social solidarity? Kingsley Davis, says that religion does this in two ways : Firstly, –Religion is a part of society. It is common to the group; its beliefs and practices are acquired by each individual as a member of the group. The worship of gods is a public matter supported by the community and performed for communal purposes".

Secondly, the –common beliefs through common ritual seems to enhance the individual's devotion to group ends. It strengthens his determination to observe the group norms and to rise above purely private interests. It reinforces his identification with his fellows".

W. Robertson Smith concluded that –ancient religions consisted primarily of institutions and practices —, that is, of rites and ceremonies, and that myths, that is, beliefs and creeds, were an outgrowth of these". In fact, Smith's ideas later contributed to the formulation of the sociological theory of religion.

Emile Durkheim, was the first sociologist to apply the functional approach to religion in a systematic way who concluded that when people worship religion, they are really worshipping nothing more than their own society : –divinity is merely society transformed and symbolically conceived".

What happens, Durkheim argued, is that the members of the clan gather periodically. They participate in some group functions with emotional excitement and feel great ecstasy and elation of a kind which they would never feel alone.

The unity and solidarity of the community is further increased by the rituals that are enacted on religious occasions. These rituals also have the capacity of bringing people together and reaffirming the values and beliefs of the group. They also help to transmit the cultural heritage from one generation to the next. The rituals maintain taboos and prohibitions and those who violate them are punished.

According to Durkheim, much of the social disorder in modern times is due to the fact that people no longer believe deeply in religion and that they have found no satisfying substitute for that. Lacking commitment to a shared belief system, people tend to pursue their private interests without regard for their fellows.

The Theory of the Aleatory Element

Sumner and Keller have stated that the ever present element of chance or what they call —The aleatory element" has been the main factor for the rise of religion. According to them, the primitive man is very much perturbed about the problem of bad luck. He is always concerned with the question of avoiding the misfortunes and securing good luck. Hence, Sumner and Keller have argued that human beings at all times attempted to devise means of insuring themselves against misfortune. They thus stressed the fact that —religion arose in response to a definite need-adjustment to the supernatural or imaginary environment" which has the capacity of causing fortunes or misfortunes.

STRUCTURAL ASPECTS OF RELIGION

Religion as a social institution has two aspects; structural and functional. The structure of religion includes theologies, creeds, practices, rituals, sects and symbols.

1. **Theologies and Creeds :** Theology is the systematic explanation which religious leaders work out to show man's relation to his God and to the Universe. Almost all religions have their bodies of ideas, beliefs, doctrines, dogmas, articles of faith, ideals and ideologies. These things are systematized and rationalised in the form of theologies and creeds.

2. **Ceremony and Ritual :** Ceremony or ritual is a standardised and accepted action directed towards some specific end. Ritual refers to —symbolic actions concerning the sacred." These bring emotional unity among people and secure for them some kind of security. These rituals are relatively simple in some religions but complex and elaborate in some others.

3. **Symbolism :** —Throughout religion symbolism is important. Symbols are substitutes for or representation of objects or situations. They may be verbal or tangible. A religious symbol enables an individual to identify himself with his fellow-beings. It thus promotes a sense of social solidarity.

4. **Religious Codes :** _Religious Code' refers to a body of rules prescribed by a particular religion for its followers to observe and follow. The code prescribes desirable conduct and prescribes undesirable behaviour. The desirable behaviour brings rewards while the undesirable one brings punishment to the individual. In religious terminology there is a close connection between one's behaviour and the probability of one' sattaining.

5. **Sects :** A sect is a body of believers with similar religious attitudes and interests. The group of believers may hold a common body of beliefs, values and objectives. Certain persons, often only a few in the beginning, begin to disagree about more or less important points in the main ceremonials land doctrine of the parent organisation. In course of time, they may go out of the organised Church, or they may be expelled by the Church itself. Similarly, Buddhism has Mahayanism and Hinayanism, Jainism has the Svetambaras and the Digambaras, Islam has the Surnis and the Shias; Hinduism has the sects like Shaivites, the Vaishnavites and the Shaktheyas on the one hand; and David, Advaita and the Vishishtadvaila on the other.

6. **Festivals :** Every religion has its own festivals. A religious festival is a kind of social get-together where in people observe some rituals collectively.

7. **Sacred Literature :** The theological explanation of a religion when it takes the written form becomes the sacred literature.

   The Vedas, or _Srutis'. Upanishads or _Smritis', Bhagavad Gita and the Epic are the sacred scriptures of Hinduism. _Bible' is the main religious authority on Christianity, _Quran' on Islam etc.

8. **Myth :** Myth refers to "an ancient traditional story of Gods or heroes, especially, the one offering an explanation of some fact or phenomenon" — (Chamber's Dictionary}. It has been said that myth "is primitive philosophy, the simplest presentational form of thought, a series of attempts to understand the world, to explain life and death, fate and nature, gods and cults"— (E. Bethe).

   Myth is also a complex kind of human assertion. It is a dramatic assertion, not simply a rational statement. It expresses man's solidarity with his world, and reasserts that solidarity in the face of human doubt.

9. **Mysticism :** "Mysticism' refers to the habit or tendency of religious thought and feeling of those who seek direct communion with God or the divine. In mysticism, religious life for some people becomes "transformed into a purely personal and inward experience". Hence, a "Mystic' is one who seeks or attains direct relationship with the God in elevated religious feeling or ecstacy. He seeks to rise above all forms of the world-both those of the natural and societal environment and those of formalised cult as well. The mystic response is found in all the world religions; in Christianity, Buddhism, Hinduism, Judaism and even in Islam.

FUNCTIONS OF RELIGION

The universal existence of religion shows that religion has a great survival value. "The universality of religion is not based upon the forms of belief and practice, but upon the social functions which religion universally fulfils". These functions are of great individual as well as social significance.

1. **Religion Provides Religious Experience :** This is the basic function of religion. Prayer, worship and meditation are the summary of religious experience. This religious experience ennobles the human desires, ideals and values. It facilitates the development of personality, sociability and creativeness.

2. **Religion Provides Peace of Mind :** Religion provides for the individual the most desired peace of mind. At every crisis, personal or collective, religion is called in for consolation and peace of mind. It promotes goodness and helps the development of character. In a world full of uncertainties, indefiniteness, dangers, insecurities and unhappiness, the need for safety and security is really great.

3. **Religion Promotes Social Solidarity Unity and Identity :** Religion upholds and validates the traditional ways of the life. More than that it unites people. It is known that a common faith., common value-judgements, common sentiments, common worship are significant factors in unifying people. Davis points out, "Religion gives the individual a sense of identity with the distant past and the limitless future." Thomas F. O "Dea says, "In periods of rapid social change and large-scale social mobility, the contribution of religion to identify may become greatly enhanced." A.W. Green has pointed out religion is "the supremely integrating and unifying force in human society."

4. **Religion Conserves the Value of Life :** Religion is an effective means of preserving the values of life. Religion defines and redefines the values. Moral, spiritual and social values are greatly supported by religion. It exercises a tremendous influence over the younger ones and their behaviour.

5. **Religion as an Agent Social Control :** Religion is one of the forms of informal means of social control. It regulates the activities of people in its own way. It prescribes rules of conduct for people to follow. Thus, reunion as a great disciplinary value.

6. **Priestly Function of Religion :** By performing its priestly function religion contributes to

the stability and order of the society. Religion offers a kind of relationship with the beyond through different kinds of worship and beliefs.

7. **Religion Promotes Welfare :** Religion renders service to the people and promotes their welfare. It appeals to the people to be sympathetic, merciful and co-operative. It rouses in them the spirit of mutual help and co-operation. It awakens the philanthropic attitude of the people. It reinforces the sense of belonging to the group.

8. **Religion Provides Recreation :** Religion promotes recreation through religious lectures, Kirtanas, dramas, dance, music, bhajanas, puranas, harikathas, fairs, festivials, musical concerts, art exhibitions and soon.

9. Religion Explains Individual Suffering and Helpsto Integrate Personality

10. **ReligionEnhancesSelf-importance:**Religionexpandstheselftoinfiniteproportions.

Conclusion

It is true, that the rapid developments in the field of civilisation, in physical and biological sciences, have affected the functions, of religion to a great extent. Some of the age old religious beliefs have been exploded by the scientific investigations. Science has often shaken the religious faith. The growing secular and the rationalist attitude has posed a challenge, a serious question—Can the society rely on the acceptance of certain ethical and moral priniciples without believing in the existence of a spiritual or superempirical world?—Still, it is understandable that the institution of religion is so deep- rooted and longlasting that it will continue to function in the near future withstanding the dangers of changes and the ravages of time.

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Morality is one of the fundamental social institutions. Religion and morality are usually recognised as among the most effective guides of human behaviour. Both formulate rules of conduct in society. Each is having its own code of conduct as such. Religious ideas are embodied in the religious code and the moral ideas are embodied in moral code. Both act as powerful means of social control.

Strictly speaking, morality deals with the rules of conduct. It prescribes good behaviour and prohibits undesirable one. Moral values are an important element in our normative pattern. Moral values are the most dynamic, creative and important driving force behind human actions and endeavours. Such concepts as—justice, honesty, fairness, righteousness, conscientiousness, disinterestedness, prudence, incorruptibility, freedom, mercy, etc., are purely moral concepts because they represent the moral values.

Moral principles, ideas and notions are crystallised in the form of an institution called ‗morality'. Morality has been a vital factor in ail the societies of the world, including the uncivilised, in affecting and controlling the social behaviour of man. Moral rules which prescribe the wrong, are the very basis of our collective life.

RELIGION AND SCIENCE

Is religion compatible with science ? Our answer to this question depends upon the kind of religion that we have in our mind. If religion is construed as nothing but belief in superhuman force or power, it remains incompatible with science. If, on the other hand, it is understood as a kind of ―ethical philosophy", serving the cause of humanity, then the two are compatible. According to H.E. Barnes, fundamentalist religion and modem science are always conflicting, but no conflict exists between modern science and the latest trend in religion called ―humanism".

It should be noted that religion in its real sense is not conflicting with science. It is only the dogma or theology or the distorted version of religion, that conflicts with science. Champions of humanism, like H.E. Barnes and others who have tried to give a new interpretation to religion have said that religion should be based –upon the service of man rather than the worship of God". Humanism, a new trend in religion, represents such kind of service-oriented religion, .Maclver and Page, Barnes, Albert Einstein, Gandhiji and many others have strongly supported humanism.

RELIGION AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

"Recently religion in the Western world has tended to place less emphasis on dogma and more on social values. It has also tried to reconcile its doctrines with scientific knowledge."

– Samuel Koenig

A more radical group is represented by the Humanists. They have rejected all connections with conventional Christianity. To quote Barnes they have attempted to construct a religion based entirely, —upon the service of man rather than the worship of God."

John H. Dietrich, one of the chief exponents of Humanism points out that –Humanism believes in the supreme worth of human life and that man must therefore be treated as an end, not as a means to some other end..,..Humanism is the effort to enrich human experience by means of human inquiry.....

It has no blind faith in the perfectibility of man, but it believes that his present condition can be immeasurably improved..... Humanism accepts the responsibility for the conditions of human life and relies entirely upon human effort for their improvement. The humanist makes no attempt to shove the responsibilityforthemiserableconditionsofhumanlifeontosomeGodorsomecosmicorder.Hefullyrealises that the situation is in our own hands, and that practically all the evils of the world have been brought up by men by themselves".

As Barnes has pointed out religion adapted to our changed conditions of life is worth preserving arid it must seek to organise the masses and guide their activities for the benefit of society rather than for the purpose of pleasing the God. It is doubtful whether an institution which has been devoted to the supernatural can be changed into one dedicated to furthering the welfare and happiness of mankind here on earth. It is highly questionable, wrote Barnes, that a religion with a mass appeal can exist without elements of mystery and fear dominating. It is equally doubtful whether a religion exists without dogma and ritual.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Give a short view about moraleducation?
2. Indicate the importance of education in building generic moral values among the students.

5.1.4 : EDUCATION AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION

Development of Natural Integration

National Integration Committee (India) headed by K.L. Shrimali, explained the significances of education and commented that it is very urgent to develop a national consciousness in our people, We will have to plan our education system in like manner. Education should be planned as to encourage the emotional integration of common people. Education is the very essential instrument through which it has to be done as it is remarkably pointed out by Dr. S. RadhaKrishnan—National

Integration cannot be built by brick and mortar by chisel &hammer. It has tom grow silently in the hearts & minds of the people. It is only through education. It‘s a slow process but steady and permanent process”.

National Integration aims at unifying the sentiments of people for the bettermost and development of Nation expressed through the words of Humayun Kabir —Nationhood does not depend on race or language or religions or geography, singly or collectively though they all help but on the feeling of belonging to one nation”.

For the enrichment of National Integration following suggestions are recommended by the Emotional Integration Committee.

- *Reorientation of Curriculum*

National Integration is made possible through education framing of curriculum on the basis of National Consciousness in the best way as reflected in the following suggestions:

1. At the primary stage, emphasis should be given on nationalistic stories, songs, poems, rhymes, etc.
2. At the Secondary stage special attention should be given to the study of natural literature, social studies and religious guidance and extra curriculum activities.

   At the university level communications should be made among various universities at the National Level. The curricula should be enriched by various social sciences, languages, literature, culture and arts.

Encouragement to Extra-curricular activities

Besides imparting formal knowledge to the students the teachers must provide them with the opportunity to take part in such extra-curricular activities which are important from the standpoint of emotional integration. Besides, such programmes, must also represent the entire nation. Such programmes help in the development of _we‘ feeling, a feeling of unity and sympathy. One example of such programmes is the Inter University cultural festivals, in which teachers and students participate from all parts of the country.

Improvement of Textbooks

It is desirable that textbooks on various subjects, and especially on history, should be amended and improved. They should be designed to encourage a sense of emotional unity with people living in other parts of the country. This will also help to check die growth of communal feelings. But it should also be remembered that such amendments should not be made at the cost of truth because such violence to truth is not necessary.

Improvement concerning language and script

In this connection the Committee on Emotional Integration made the following recommendations:

1. The use of the Roman script should be permitted to increase knowledge of Hindi in certain areas.
2. International numerals should be used in every part of the country.
3. ArrangementsshouldbemadetoteachtheDevanagariscriptwhereitisnotknown.
4. Hindi textbooks should also be provided in the regional scripts. Dictionaries using both Hindi and the regional languages should also be prepared.
5. At the university level, study of Hindi and English literatures should be encouraged so that integration is encouraged and divisive forces checked.
6. Therightsoftheminoritiesshouldbeprotectedinformulatingalanguagepolicy.

In addition to the above list of suggestion, the Committee for Emotional Integration also made certain other suggestions. In schools the daily programme should be started after a community prayer and a ten minute talk, either by the principal or by some respected person, on some subject which may encourage emotional integration. Another way of encouraging emotional integration is to organize a mass meeting of the school once a year and asking the students to take an oath to increase emotional integration. Besides, all subjects and activities likely to lower awareness of differences should be encouraged. In this manner it is possible to create a climate in which all people feel that they are members of one nation. On the negative side, all efforts must be made to destroy all elements which tend to obstruct the growth of emotional integration.

Suggestions for Improving Emotional Integration

Apart from the suggestions outlines above, education can be used in the following suggested ways for improving emotional integration in the country:

- ***Development of an all-India language***

  The first condition for increasing emotional integration in the country is that an All-India language should be evolved. Hindi is the only language capable of performing this role. Hence, it is desirable that knowledge of this language be made compulsory for every citizen. Government should extend every facility for developing Hindi literature, and the development of regionallanguages.

- ***Programmes for increasing National Unity***

  Many kinds of programmes can be devised for increasing national unity. For example, the cinema can be used to spread the feeling of national unity. Radio and television can also be used equally effectively. All-India competitions and meetings can be organized in various parts of the country to increase national unity. Such programmes help people living in different parts of the country to meet residents of other parts and learn their ideas and understand them. Travel facilities should be made more common and delegations and tours encouraged. During the last few years special trains made up of farmers of different areas, students and members of Parliament toured the entire country. This helped the cause of national integration. Otherprogrammes similar to these can be organized.

- ***Development of inter-cultural understanding***

  In all the programmes outlined above, inter-cultural understanding will be promoted. This helps people to achieve liberality of attitudes to other cultures, an essential pre-condition of national unity in a country in which there are many cultures.

- ***Efforts by teachers***

  Success of most of these programmes for increasing national unity depends upon teachers. Hence, it is desirable that national consciousness should first be stirred in the students. For this, teachers from various parts of the country should be encouraged to meet each other. This can be done through the All-India Teachers organization. The Government can make a positive contribution in this direction by organizing lectures from time to time and distributing literature of thiskind.

- ***Government efforts***

  Governmental efforts is essential for bringing success to all the projects outlined above, because without official blessing, there is little that education can achieve. This cannot be doubted because there are many agencies which are working against the development of emotional

integration. One of the first steps in this direction is control over destructive political parties. In every part of the country laws should be enacted to prevent any individual from giving expression to linguism, communalism, regionalism, casteism, untouchability, etc. This should be followed up by a strict application of these laws.

It is evident from the foregoing description of the measures for increasing emotional integration that these measures must be both positive and negative. Adoption of all these measures would be a positive step. The negative step of destroying all obstacles in the way of emotional integration is no less important. For this, teachers, administrators and guardians will have to work collectively. Then along the country will witness solid national integration in spite of religious pluralism.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. How National Integration can be promoted education?

5.1.5 : EDUCATION AND GLOBALIZATION

Perhaps the most concise definition suggests that Globalization is ‗a social process in which – the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people are becoming increasingly aware that they are recededing'(Malcolm Waters, Globalization,1995).

The present Globalization process is characterized by 6 major developments:

1. Rapid growth in international financial transaction.
2. First growth in trade, especially among Multi-National Corporations(MNCs).
3. Surge in foreign direct investment, largely by contributed by Multi-National Corporations (MNCs).
4. The emergence of global markets.
5. The diffusion of technologies and ideas through rapid expansion of a Globalization and communication system, and
6. The evolution of worldwide system softransport and communication.

What is Globalization ?

The following definitions represent currently influential views of Globalization:

1. ―Theinexorable integration of markets, nation, states, and technologies to a degree never witnessed before – in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations and nation, states to reach around the world farther, faster, deeper, and cheaper than ever before …… the spread of free-market capitalism to virtually every country in the world" ; (T. L. Friedman, The Lexus and the Olive Tree, 1999).
2. ―Thecompression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a hole …… concrete global interdependence and consciousness of the global whole in the twentieth century";(R.Robertson,Globalization, 1992).
3. A social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding" ;(M. Waters, Globalization, 1995).

4. The historical transformation constituted by the sum of particular forms and instances of making or being made global

   (i) by the active dissemination of practices, values, technology and other human products throughout the globe.

   (ii) When the practices and so on an exercise an increasing influence over people's lives. Integration on the basis of a project pursuing —market rule on a global scale" (P. Mcmichael, Development and social change, 2000).

5. As experienced from below, the dominant form of Globalization means of historical transformation: in the economy, of livelihoods and models of existence; in politics, a loss in the degree of control exercised locally …… and in culture, a devaluation of a collectivities

   Achievement …… Globalization is emerging as a political response to the expansion of market power …… It is a domain of knowledge" (T. H. Mittelman, The Globalization Syndrome, 2000).

In the year 1960s this came to be used to mean —belonging to the world or world wide". In the Oxford Dictionary, Marshall Mcluhan (1962) used the term —theglobal village" capturing a properly of modern culture like the possibility of global communication and suggested that the instant reception of far-off lights and voices changed the concept and content of culture. The spotlight of his idea focussed on the worldwide network of communication as a key organ of transforming —local life of equal significances to the impact of capitalist markets". The exact period of the globalization process is a matter of controversy. The concept of Globalization dates back on the voyage of discovery in the 15th century. Immanuel Wallerstein (1974) states that the capitalist economic foundation was laid in the 16th century. Wallerstein (1974) analyses his —World System theory" interms of the power play which the center or core extends and links to periphery i.e. extension of power form Metropolis to Satellite. It recalls the Metropolies – Satellite link model developed by A. Gunder Frank.

Evolutionary Consequences of Globalization Driving Forces of Globalization.

- ***Economical Shifts***

  The ability of an economy to complete depends on the character of its education system. The national tendency of capitalism is expressed in this information age as in the need to business, large and small, to complete in regional and global markets.

- ***Technological Shifts***

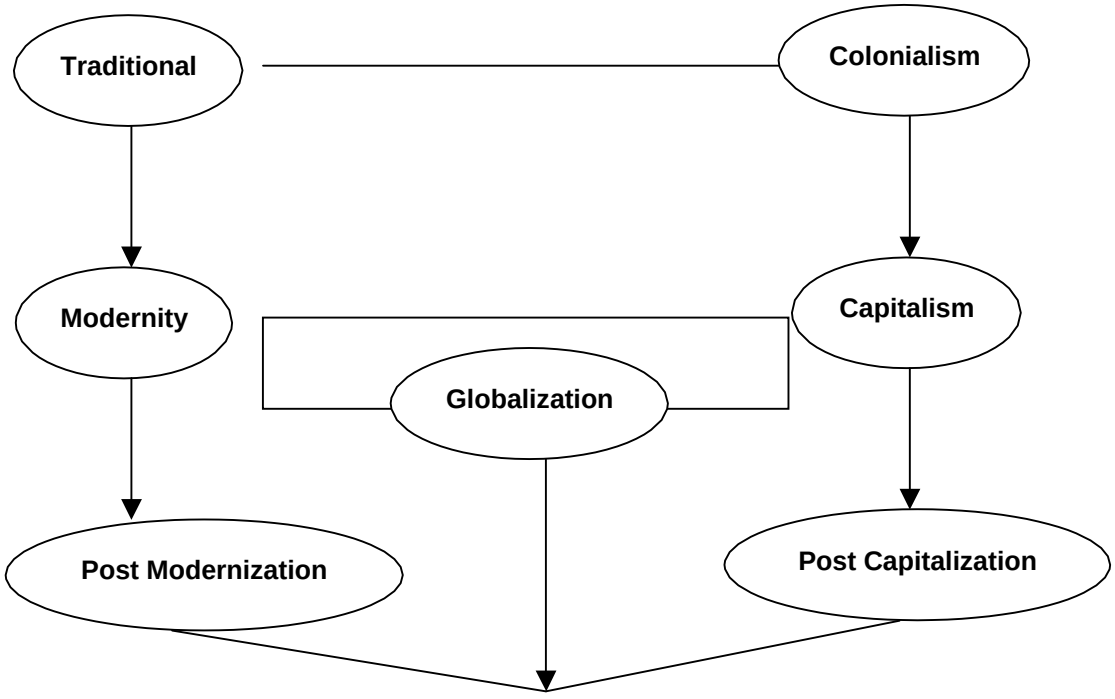
  The move towards post industrial economics and the informatics revolution greatly facilitates Globalization in every domain from the economics to the cyber crime.

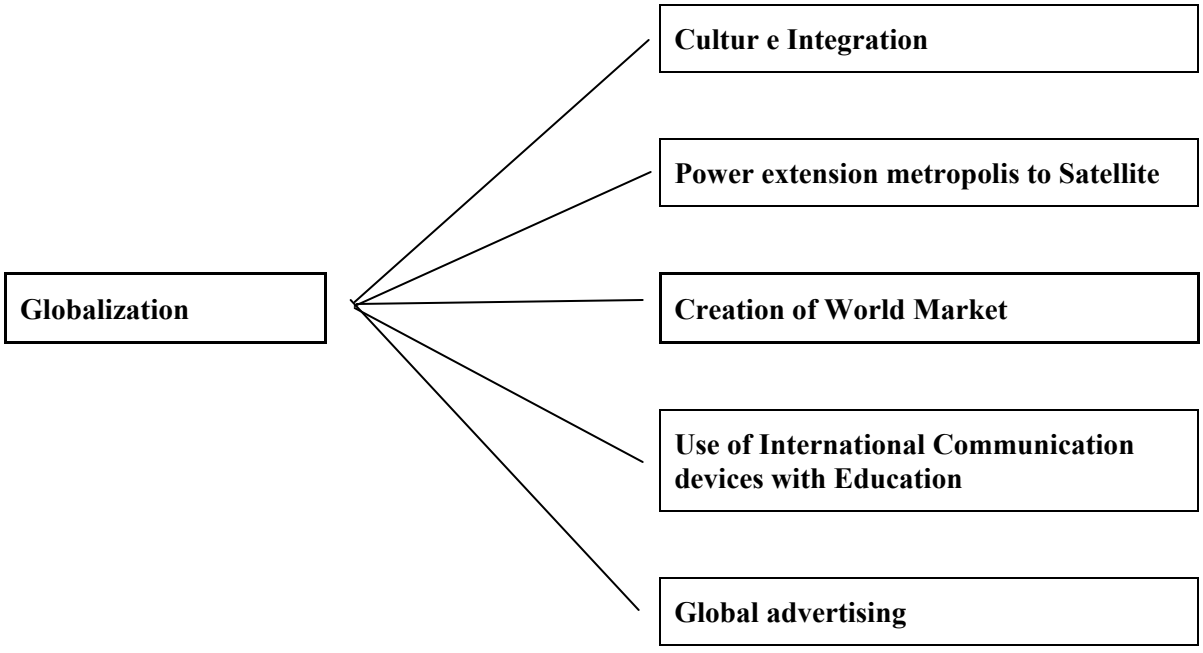
- ***Political Shifts***

  The last two decades have witnessed a dramatic shift away from state intervention to the market as the emphasis upon deregulation, privatization and economic liberalization continue to make economics and societies more open to the world.

- ***Cultural Shifts***

  Fuelled by the above developments an awareness has grown among national cities and many citizens groups or social movements (such as the global environment movement represented by for example, Green peace) that the fate of nations and communities is increasingly bound up with the dynamics of the global economy and the global environment.





❖ ***Economical Shifts***

Through the wider use of computers and technology curriculums and faculties can be shared by schools and colleges across the country. The different websites offer ideas for teachers for building world music into their teaching.

❖ ***Impact of Globalization on Education***

Giddens (1990) identifies a variety of processors of Globalization (cultural, technological, political) as the four ‗institutional dimensions of modernity' ; capital accumulation, surveillance, military power and industrialism. As McGraw summarizes it, Giddens' argument is that:

Each of these dimensions embodies a distinctive globalization imperative, nurtured by quite different institutional forces and constituencies …….Globalization is therefore understood as a complex, discontinuous and contingent process, which is driven by a number of distinct but interesting logics.

Amarta Sen (2000) states that, Globalization is an intensification of the process of human interaction involving travel, trade, migration and dissemination of knowledge that have shaped the progress of the world over millenia. Picco, views that present-day Globalization may well have to be seen in a larger historical perspective. The spread of Buddhism from Benaras, Christianity from Jerusalem and Islam from Mecca are historic cases inpoint.

Frank J. Lechner and John Boli (2001) states that, after world war II, the infrastructure for communication and transportation improved dramatically, connecting groups, institutions and countries in new ways. More people can travel, or migrate, more easily to distant parts of the globe; satellite broad casts bring world events to an increasingly global audience ; the Internet begins to knit together world-spanning interest groups of educated users. Suchlinksare theraw Material of Globalization.

They are molded into new organizational forms as regional institutions o globast or new ones take shape on the world stage. Increasing international trade and investment bring model for organizing nation states ; numerous international organizations take on new responsibilities in addresing issues of common concern. These institutions, in turn, are crystallizing into a comprehensive world society. The world is becoming a single place, in which different institutions functions as parts of one system and distant people share a common understanding of living together on one planet. This world society has a culture ; it instills in many people a budding consciousness of living in a world society. To links and institutions we therefore add culture and consciousness. Globalization is the process that fitfully brings these elements of worldsociety together.

John Tomilson (1999), puts it : ―Globalization lies at the heart of modern culture; culturalpractices lie at the heart of Globalization". The American Sociologist George Ritzer (1993) coined the term, ―McDonaldization" to describe the wide-ranging process by which the principles of the fast-food restaurant are coming to dominate more and more sectors of American Society as well as the rest of the world.

The prominent American political theorist Benjamin R. Barber(1996) also enters the normative realm when he warns is readers against cultural imperialism of what he calls ―Mcworld" a soulless consumer capitalism that is rapidly transforming the world's diver's population into a blandly uniform market. For Barber, McWorld, is a product of a Superficial American popular commercial interests : ―Its template is American, its form style…….. Music, video, theater, books, and theme parks are all constructed as image exports, creating a common taste around common logos, advertising slogans, stars, songs brand names, jingles and trademarks".

Corporate provision of education will seem increasingly appealing as traditional schools are deprived of funds. The corporate model stresses rewarding winners and letting losers adjust. ―In the 1990s U.S. companies cut costs, jettisoned marginal efforts, bolstered internal cooperation and formed strategic alliances. Hold on to your hats- universities are set to do the same". This was how Robert

Buderi, writing last year in Technology Review, began –From the Ivory Towerto theBottom Line (2004)".

It is time to recognize that the true tutors of our children are not school teachers or university professors but filmmakers, advertising executives and pop culture purveyors. Disney does more than Duke, Spielberg outweighs Stanford, MTV trumps MIT. (Benjamin R. Barber quoted by Giroux 2000; 15) As George Monbiot (2001 : 331) put it, there are many ways of making money from formal education, _but the most widespread is the use of the school as an advertising medium'. The attraction is obvious- schools represent a captive market. Through the use of teaching packs, sponsored videos, advertisement on school computer screen savers and the like, large companies are able to bring their brand directly into the classroom. In so doing they are looking to gain a certain legitimacy (after all the use of their materials etc. has been _approved' by the school) as well as the raising general brand awareness. Schools also have the distinct advantage for corporate of organizing their students along key demographics such as age and supposed academic ability – so it is possible to target advertising and marketing. The shortfall of funding for key aspects of schooling such as computing, sport and recreational and eating facilities:

fast-food, a thleticgearandcomputingcompanieshavesteppedin.However ..... they carry with them an educational agenda of their own. As with all branding projects, it is never enough to tag the school with a few logos. Having gained a foothold, the brand managers are now doing what they have done in music, sports and journalism outside the schools : trying to overwhelm their host, to grab the spotlight. They are fighting for their brands to become not the add-on but the subject of education, not an elective but the curriculum. (Klein2001:89)

THE MAIN THEME

The discussion will center around the following sub-themes:

(i) The concept and ramifications of Globalizations.

(ii) Globalization and Education.

(iii) Impact of Globalization:

(a) Reforms within the educational system.

(b) The fallout of Globalization.

(iv) Globalization and India.

Impacts of Globalization on Education:

(i) Unequal Environment of Higher Education

(ii) Dominance of top tier Universities

(iii) Role of English as an International Language

(iv) Financial Aid and "Centre" Status

(v) Brain Drain

(vi) Impact of brain Drain

(vii) Pull Push Factors

(viii) Purchasing of Dubious Degree

(ix) Commodification of Higher Education

(x) Growth of Distance Education

(xi) Growth of Adult Education

(xii) Quality Decline of Teaching due to Heavy Pressure

(xiii) Impacts of Globalization on Technological Inequality Four Modes of GATS relevant in Education Service:

Mode1 : Cross border delivery: delivery of education services via internet (distance education, tele-education, education testing services).

Mode2 : Consumption abroad: movement of students from one country to another for higher education (foreign students in US universities).

Mode3 : Commercial presence : establishment of local branch campuses or subsidiaries by foreign universities in other countries, courses offering by domestic private colleges leading to degrees at foreign universities, twinning arrangements, franchising.

Mode4 : Movement of natural persons : temporary movement of teachers, lecturers, and education personnel to provide education services overseas. The main subsector sunder the GAT S in the area of education are:

1. Primary education.
2. Secondary education.
3. Higher education.
4. Post secondary technical and vocational, university degree orequivalent.
5. Adult education.
6. Other education services.

India‘s import Interests in Education Service:

Mode1: Prospects for distance education and degrees from foreign academic institutions.

Mode2 : Indian students studying in foreign universities(US, UK, Australia) Over 40,000 thousands studying in US courses (This is more likely to be 75,000 added per year). Several thousands in Europe.

Mode3 : Foreign institutions entering India through twinning and franchise arrangements Indian students getting foreign degrees, doing profeissonal courses at local branch campuses of foreign institutions in India.

Mode4 : Foreign faculty and scholars teaching in India. India‘s Export interests in Education Service:

Mode1 : Prospects for tele-education in management and executive training. Experience with distance learning, use of new technologies(IGNOU).

Education process outsourcing with remote tutoring from India (along the lines of efforts by Career Launcher, Educomp Datamatics etc.)

Mode2 : Students from developing countries studying in Indian engineering and medical colleges. Around 5,500 students from neighbouring developing countries (2001). Exchange programmes and twinning arrangements.

Mode3 : Setting up of overseas campuses, franchising by Indian institutions. MAHE, BITS, Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages. Over 100 CBSE schools abroad, catering to diaspora

Mode4 : Indian teachers, lecturers teaching abroad in Middle East, Africa, researchers / scholars on visiting arrangements abroad. Some 10,000 secondary school teachers overseas. Recruitment of Indian teachers in Maths, Science, English.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Mention how Globalization can influence all education?

LET US SUMUP

Education in relation to democracy, politics, religion, National Integration and globalization has been highlighted in this unit. India is constitutionally a democratic country where politics and its practice are sources for achieving the well being of a nation. Moreover, human rights and responsibilities are satisfiedinademocraticsetup.Educationisthekeypointformaintainingandunderstandingdemocracy.
Similarly religion is also a sociological concept demanding development of quality of life blended with the social well being. In practice religion in country sometimes it becomes philosophical, sometimes rituals, also it helps to integrate our country through secularism, one of the constitutional responsibility in our country in present day. Lastly, we are going through the concept of globalization that helps to integrate the economic forces and as also to control the external forces as a member of the world community.

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ASSIGNMENTS

1. Discuss different democratic principles and its impact on education.
2. Explain how politics is a significant social determinant for controlling nation and its education system.
3. Elucidate secular education policy in India.
4. Explain National Integration is possible only through education.
5. Discuss critically how factors of globalization and education system is interrelated.

EDC – 09

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY-2

Block - 6

Education and Leadership

CONTENT STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

At the outset let us know the meaning of leadership.

We use the term ―leadership" very often in our daily conversation and hence once might assume that it has a common meaning. However, leadership is used in a variety of ways. According to Roland S.Barth, ―Leadership is making what you believe in ... happen." George R. Terry defines leadership as the ―activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives" and Harold Koontz and Cyril O Donnell states that leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal". Hence, most definition of leadership involves three components-influence, group and goal and so leadership is the process in which an individual influences other group members towards the attainment of agroup goal.

OBJECTIVES

After completion of this Unit you will be able to :

(i) understand role of leadership in education.

(ii) develop thorough conceptualization about dynamics of leadership.

(iii) Develop you own understand in gonlocus of leadership.

(iv) Acquainted with leadership types and styles in context of education.

(v) discuss on characteristics of educational leader.

(vi) critically understand role of an educational leader in our contemporary society.

Block - 6

Unit – 1

Leadership: Roles, Dynamics, Types, Styles and Characteristics

6.1.1 : ROLE OF LEADERSHIP

After defining the meaning of leadership let us now learn about the roles of Leadership. We all know that each agency is comprised of a structured social system in which various position are established. Depending on this position or status given to a person and other characteristics each position of an individual results in a role, where certain expectations are held for the individual holding the post. In this way, whether written or not there are certain behaviour expectation form the leader as well as the followers.

The role expectation from the leader are as follows :–

1. **Training Initiative :** A leader is expected to take initiatives to moves a group towards a goal. To reach the goal new innovations are made and with the help of these innovations, new outputs or techniques that effects the output are introduced into the social system.

2. **A preferred outcome :** A leader has a distant vision of what their organization should be and would be and what should be his contribution and role for that. This is the preferred outcome that a leader has and is expected to have in order to impale or force him or her to take initiative to move the group.

3. **Administering :** A leader is expected to maintain the organization in good enough shape.

   So that it can continue to function well. for the sound functioning of an organization its leaderisexpectedtobothinnovatenewtechniquesandadministereffectively.

4. **Taking risk :** The element of risk is inevitable in leadership and a leader is expected to assume much of it. A leader is expected to apply proper skills make sound judgements and decisions, have the correct imagination. He should have the ability to cope up with organisation pressure and should have an infallible sense of time management and all these include immense risk in it, as failing in any one of those may prove disastrous for the whole organisation

5. **Stress :** It is doubtless that whenever there is risk for the leader of the group the outcome is stress and the way in which one endures stress has an effect on ones characteristic manner of behaviour. The leader is expected to be able to sustain the stress and maintain a normal behaviour.

6. **Style :** In any social system in which one accepts a leadership role an individual is expected to be ―authentic‖ and exhibit relatively consistent behaviour pattern.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Indicate at least three roles of a leader.

OCUS OF LEADERSHIP

You have already learnt that leadership is a process comprised of actions of leading and of administration then leadership occurs where the essentials of leading and administrating are present and dose not occur where some of these lessen toils are missing. But the locus of leadership is not confined to essentials of leading and administrating only. Motivation and reduction of uncertainty along with leader persuasiveness and language mastery are also extremely imp for leadership to occur.

Essentials for Leading :

1. **Status :** An individual must enjoy a particular status in a group if one is to influence other group members. That status is usually given to an individual because he or she has a personal influence and means for achieving the goal and the group submits to his influence because he has the authority of position.
2. **Structure :** Groups or social system functions through structure and this is the second essential for leading. In a group status cannot exist without some kind of structure. In a group some individual become leaders and other become the follower giving structure to thegroupandwhenthisstructureworkunitedlytowardsagoalproductionresults.
3. **Social exchange :** The process in which all group engages is a form of social exchange. Social exchange is the third essential for leading, as no one can bring about any change unless he or she can contribute something to the group and get something in return. Leadership is a phenomenon growing out of the dynamics of social system and cannot occur outside such system.
4. **Flexibility :** If the structure is so rigid that no changes can be made, or the process of social exchange is so ritualized that no deviations are possible the leadership process cannot occur,becauseleadershipdemandinnovationsandchange.So,atleastadegreeofflexibilityis required for leading and for the leader too otherwise he will he unable to run a dynamic organization.

The second vital part of the leadership process is found in the action of administrating. The essentials for administrating are as follows:-

- **Basis for Authority or Power**

  Maintaining the organization requires maintaining qualified personal and resources and coordinating then sufficiently to provide learning opportunities. Either set of action requires recognition by all social member, so that few among them must have the unquestioned right to make some decisions or take some actions that affect all. This is recognition of authority of power. Authority and power then is an essential wherever administration is to occur. Authority is always recognized. Either openly or tacitly. Thus, it is a relationship between persons not an attribute ofone.

  1. Power always involves the capabilities of one individual impose sanction in another power oftenaccompaniespositionalauthorityandthusflowsdownwardinorganization.
  2. **Positional Authority :** Positional authority is an essential for administering and it flows downward from the top through all levels of an organization. It always exists where there is a hierarchy of positions.
  3. **Personal Authority :** The right of an individual to make decisions or to take actions that affect others and is recognised as authentic by subordinates is called personal authority. Personal authority flows upward from followers an acknowledged leader giving him a particular status within the group. Thus, personal authority is a must for administering as well as leading too.

4. **Limits :** A final essential for administering is that the action takes or decision made by the administrator should by confined within certain limits.

   Among the limits are those imposed on the individual himself by the group. The second set of limits for the administrator has done with goals and objectives. If the aims of the administrator are not in accord with those of the group, then-

   - ❖ One or the other must be able to dominate
   - ❖ There must be a compromise, or
   - ❖ They must agree on new aims that please both

   Third set of limits are institutional limits. Under this there are limits imposed by the society on all agencies. Almost all agencies found operating under boards of control, and each board sets still more restrictive limits through its adoption of modification of policies.

- ❑ **Motivation**

  Motivation is an essential part of leadership. The leadership process occurs whenever people are motivated through having their uncertainties reduced. The leader, at times, needs to motivate his group by communicating with then and providing them information that can reduce their uncertainties, and thus can stir the lethargic person of static organization towards its goal.

- ❑ **Predisposition**

  An individuals‘ predisposition or his inclination to a particular attitude are important to what he perceives and is particularly true to social or personal perception. What a man does, why he does it and what he thinks or feels at the time of doing it is related and a knowledge of this is very important for the leader to administer well.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain _locus of leadereship‘.

6.1.2 : THE DYNAMICS OF LEADERSHIP

Now let us ask our self the question whether leadership is a destination or a journey ? And the answer is that Leadership is much more than a destination-it‘s a journey, and to be successful in this journey one need know the right equipment, the right direction and the right guide. That is the place where leadership dynamics plays its role. Leadership dynamics helps us with the right tools and components to make our leadership journey a success. In this chapter we will consider social system function, the action of leading, the action of administering and some of the effects of perception on leader behaviour.

- ❑ **Social System Interaction**

  Every social system consists of individual bound together by some unity of purpose and interdependence. Each puts something into the system and each gets something in return.

(1) Inputs

Input of an educational social system may be considered as expectation and need dispositions.

(a) ***Expectations :*** Expectations are held by every member - the leader, his peers, his super ordinates and his subordinates. Every member expect that in return for time and effort that he given he will have a job, periodic pay raises, fringe benefits, promotions, approval, recognition praise, improved work condition, tools or other resources, freedom to perform tasks in his own way, and security. In addition to expectations held by social system member, inputs to the social system include expectations of society at large, of groups outside the particular system and of individuals who are not system members.

(b) ***Need dispositions :*** The conditioned responses of individual within the system are added inputs to the system. Again, every individual whether leader, peer, superordinate or subordinate has unique need dispositions. He behaves as he does because he expects certain reactions to that behaviour. The need dispositions of those who constitute the system‘s core elements are considered as system inputs.

(2) Process

The basic process of social system is social exchange in which individuals gives such things as time,talentandcommitmentonchangeofattitude,belieforactioninexchangeforexpectedsatisfiesof the need levels at which they are functioning.

Regardless of who leads, these observable behaviour always occur :

- Goals leader is either given responsibility. (through appointment, elution, ownership or default) assumes it in the absence of a designated leader, or seizes it from the designated leader.
- Means of achieving the goals are agreed upon.
- Limits of the leader‘s authority are set, either overtly or covertly, unless he has unlimited power.

In the exchange process, each individual is trying to influence other in order that he may aim satisfaction of his needs. He influences most who communicates best and communication is thus vital total. The social system process, overall, must utilize the people in the system to convert the inputs to outputs.

(3) Outputs

The outputs resulting form the interaction process in a successful educational agency are the provision of learning opportunities, organization, maintenance need satisfaction of individual, and innovation.

(a) ***Production :*** For learning opportunities to be produced, emphasis must be placed on learner contend goals and on the mean by which learners can achieve those goals. In all too many school, colleges, teachers preparation agencies and training programme, the emphasis has been on instruction goal and behaviour.

(b) ***Organization Maintenance :*** If an organization is to continue in operation and carry out the function for which it was established, learning, coordination group solidarity and feedback all are essential. Individual must learn about goals about the tasks at hand, how to word together and how to improve social system functioning. Group solidarity requires a supportive leader follower relationship, high level interaction skilland feedback.

(c) ***Need Satisfaction :*** Satisfaction for individuals needs are necessary for organisational continuance.

(d) **Innovation :** Change may be either an output or a byproduct of a social system. Deliberate innovationforpurposeofincreasingthecapabilityofthesystemmaybeundertaken.

(4) Feedback

Feedback is essential to any system that must continue over long period of time. Outputs can bechangedonlythroughgettingfeedbackthatresultsinchangedinputsorprocess.

Fig : 1 Illustrates the types of actions that constitute the leadership process and the goals of each. A discussion of ―who does what, with which to whom" follows.

	Action	**Goals**
The leadership	**LEADING** *Assisting performance Identifying Individuals' Need* *Identifying* *Organization goals* *Revising goals Decision making*	*1 Satisfying Needs* *2 Innovating*
	ADMINISTERING *Problem solving Decision -Making* *Programming* *Coordinating Resolving conflicts* *Appraising*	*3 Providing Learning Opportunities* *4Maintaining the organization*

Fig-1 : *The Leadership Process in Education*

❑ **Leading**

There are actions which principles, headmasters, superintendents, directors, co-ordinators, supervisors, chairpersons, deans, presidents and others in position of headship in education agencies must take if they are to be recognized as leading. The action of leading are considered here according to the two major organizational goals which they are intended to achieve.

(1) Satisfying Needs

As has been said earlier, teachers, instruction and other education staff members join particular groups because of what they expert the groups to do for them. Their goals and needs must be identification and their performance assisted.

(a) ***Identifying individuals' needs :*** If individual needs are to be met even particularly, it is necessary that their leader be concerned about identifying each individual's personal goals.

Action such as the following can help:

Discuss with each individual his or her needs, wants and problems Observe carefully for symptoms of satisfaction of dissatisfaction. Communicate all levels solicit over feedback. Identify and utilize the expertise and Ideas of each person. Identify any and all indicators of what each person expects from the group.

(b) ***Assisting performance :*** The performance of individual staff members is of concern to the educational leader. How well one performs depend on the interplay of need dispositions and the role expectations that present him or her with opportunities or constraints. Some action that a leader can take to maximize that interplay include:

- Showingtheindividualhowhisorhergoalscanbeachievedthroughgroupgoals.
- Ensuring that expectations are known and understood. Determining work relationship that satisfy or restate.
- Finding out how people think they are being treated.
- Learning what the job is doing to the persons self esteem.
- Applying the likely effects of proposed innovation to the specific individual and making certain that he or she understand them.
- Reducinguncertaintiesregardingacceptabilityofperformancebygivingconstructionfeedback.

Recognizing signs of frustration. and materials necessary to task performance utilizing abilities of each person. Providing the rewards an individual expects.

(2) Innovating

The action which educational leaders can take to help others are

- Listen to others‘ ideas
- Borrow from other organization those idea that fit.
- Combine others‘ ideas in new ways
- Solicit feedback regarding problems.
- Specify what where when and how much deviation there.
- Identify strategic problem.
- Determine what the problem is not.
- Develop as many alternative courses of action as possible.
- Classify must and want objectives according to importance.
- Score each possible alternative against objections.
- Consider possible adverse consequences of the best alternative.
- Plan to control the effect to a decision before they bring new problems.
- Invent programmes to implement decisions.

The actions of a leader help innovation to develop through the progressive stages of possibility, probability, inevitability, imminence and existence. Some further kinds of specific action related to innovation pertain to identification of organization goals, goal revision, and the making of critical decisions.

(a) ***Identifying organizational goals :*** The goals of an organization constitute planning premises but to help staff member understand them, a principal or department head can perform action such as:

- ❖ Discussing what the group is trying to accomplish.
- ❖ Diagnosing present organization needs.
- ❖ Forecasting future needs and conditions which are likely to bear upon them.
- ❖ Agreeing on action to betaken.
- ❖ Involving others in these matters.

(b) ***Revising Goals :*** Goal revision, of substitution of new goals for old, is a form of innovation. New goals may develop from individuals within the system, from a group within the system, from social of political forces outside, or from the leader‘s imagination. The leader always has a expected outcome that he is advocating-something that he hopes will result, but might not occur if he does not intervene.

DECISION-MAKING

Decision making is also an important part of innovation and the use of groups of various size and differing composition in the making of those decisions are important to and organization.

Some of the specific action of leading that can expedite the making of critical decisions include :

- ❖ Involvingpeopleinthosecriticaldecisionsthatwillaffectthem.(notinalldecisions)
- ❖ Establishing objectives.
- ❖ Utilizing any special information that group members possess.
- ❖ Structuringagroupoftheproperpeopleandsizetomaketheneededdecision.
- ❖ Identifyingthepoliticalandeconomicforcesthatmaybeoperativeinthesituation.
- ❖ Determining the must be given to political and economics forces.
- ❖ Giving the group an explicit charge, detailing time and other constraints, establishing limits on discretion, and stating when, by whom, and how the decision will be implemented.

Decision-making is also a major part of the action of :

ADMINISTERING

An administrator is a person who puts into effect the policies and rules of an organized group.

Once a group is organized even the temporary leader becomes an administrator.

PROVIDING LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

Of course, almost all education make hundreds of decisions in their daily lives, and many a decision relates to a deviation from some preset standard of performance. As long as the actions of learners and the persons who help then occur within the limits of the shared expectation of group members, on one in the group will perceive problems, and everyone can get on with the provision of learning opportunities. When problems do occur, they must be solved.

PROBLEM-SOLVING

When a problem occurs, an individual is often able to deal with it by adapting his or her usual routine to it of by following established patterns of behavior. When this kind of coping is not adequate, an administrator often helps individuals to solve problems and sometimes he or she must solve the problems with which others are unable to cope. So as the problems concern keeping the group functioning or keeping the organization running funning efficiently, the decisions made are largely of the type Selznick (1975) labeled ―routine‖; however, when the problems involve the capacity of the organization to produce, the decisions to be made become ―critical‖

DECISION-MAKING

Only after a problem is thorough understood can the administrator judiciously select from among possible alternatives which section constitute decision-making. There is a great doesn't misunderstanding about this matter, and the fantastic hardware available through technology has led some writers to make overly enthusiastic predictions about machine-made decisions. Some advocates of computer programming and operations research have indicated that all one needs to do is not put all the available data pertinent to a problem into a computer and let it sort out ―best‖ answer. Unfortunately, problem solution is not that easy, as often- times the administrator does not possess and can not acquire about information necessary for a wise decision.

PROGRAMMING

If a decision that has been made is to have effects, someone must take some further action regarding it. Upon analysis they may be seen to include:

1. planning the work to be done to achieve goals.

(a) Determining the tasks that must be done.

(b) Organizing the tasks into meaningful patterns.

(c) Apportioning tasks among people.

(d) Fixing responsibility for task accomplishment.

2. Selecting and organizing personnel.

(a) Setting standard for personnel who are to participate.

(b) Recruiting qualified people for the task.

(c) Selection the most able people from among recruits.

(d) Organizing those selected for efficient task performance.

3. Assigning and orienting personnel.

(a) Assigning positions.

(b) Explaining role demands and interpersonal relations.

(c) Clarifying expectations as to results and responsibility.

(d) Clarifying channels of communication.

4. Arranging for housing, equipment, and supplies. If called for.

(a) Establishing physical layout and relationship.

(b) Instructing personnel personal of equipment.

(c) Explaining procedures.

5. Arranging budget, it necessary.

(a) Assuring that financing is based on the job to be done.

(b) Arranging an efficient of expenditures.

(c) Assuringasourceofincomesufficienttoallowtheexpenditurethatisplanned.

(d) Accounting for the funds appropriated to the purpose.

MAINTAINING THE ORGANIZATION

To maintain the organization, the administrator, must engage in action of coordinating, utilizing conflict, and appraising.

COORDINATING

The coordinating portion of the —administrative process" appears to include these actions :

1. Reviewing goals.

(a) Determining what the job is that is to be done.

(b) Checking who is to perform the task.

(c) Adapting the behavior of individuals to the group plan.

2. Getting people and any required facilities together.

(a) assuring that people are properly located in facilities containing the necessary equipment, whether of these were previously programmed or not (Feedback).

(b) Learning from people, through feedback, things they require, in addition to or in exchange for those originally programmed, to get their jobs done.

(c) Securing the necessary things.

(d) Assuring delivery of the things to the proper people at the proper time.

3. Setting standards of performance.

(a) Establishing standards.

(b) Assuring that standards are understood.

(c) Assuring that individual responsibilities for achieving standards are understood.

4. Product specification.

(a) Specifying quality - establishing performance criteria for learners, to learners, tolerances, materials, sequence of operations, etc.

(b) Specifying schedules - quantities and times.

(c) Specifying unit costs that are allowable.

Social ailments often are manifested in conflicts. While some conflict is required for growth, and learning to resolve conflict seems important to personality development, conflict can interfere with or impede efforts to integrate the activities of an organization. Maintaining the organization must include obviating, removing, or resolving those conflicts which could endanger organizational continuance.

UTILIZING CONFLICTS

Before conflict can be constructively dealt with, there must first be a diagnosis that conflict exists. Knowledge about the following variables was suggested by Deutsch (1956) as essential to understanding any conflict between any tow parties at most conflict levels :

- The characteristic of the parties in conflict
- Their prior relationship to one another
- Then a ture of the issue giving rise to the conflict
- The social environment in which the conflict occurs
- The interested audiences to the conflict.
- The strategy and tactics employed the in conflict.

The consequences of the conflict to each of the participants and to other interested parties. Conflicts can be resolved only by : (1) domination of one party over the other (2) compromise, of (3) integration, as was stated by Follett (1926). It should be noted that strategies (1) and (2) are competitive (3) is cooperative. Obviously, in the domination strategy, the dominator —wins" and his and his opponent —loses," while in the compromise strategy both parties to the conflict win‘-out both also —lose".

The administrator should know what collective behaviour is and why it exists, as it often symptomizes another type of conflict, resolution of which is essential to organization maintenance.

COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOUR

According to Merrill (1969), Collective behaviour is the behaviour of associated individuals under circumstances for which their own prior habits do not adequately prepare them. It is marked by the emotions of affection, of fear, of rage, or of hatred, and is not to be taken light. Collective behaviour of a crowd represent conflict at the highest level, and the —crowd" which exhibits it is not to be confused with a —group". Crowd collective behaviour often results in the abandonment of ordinary controls of ordinary controls for limited periods, and usually should be dealt with by the duly constituted authority of the society rather than by an individual. An —action crowd" can be truly ominous, as was learned in many campus and high school confrontations in the late 1960s. Because collective behaviour is both the cause and the effect of social change, the administrator must be peppered to experience it for centuries, demagogues and chauvinists collective behavior, usually for political of religious ends. But in the 1930s industry began to experience it and in the late 1960s collective behaviour concentrated also in the education and political arenas. Some administrators have constructively channeled collective bhaviour by helping the crowd to fix on the desirability of super ordinate goals. One of the best strategies for coping with conflict to any nature.

The value of the administrative process may be determined by Appraisal :

Appraising the process of estimating value of has been done is essential to the overall administrative process, and it, too, can be broken into a series of smaller actions, which include :

1. Identifying evidence.

(a) Selecting criteria (objective) for determining goal achievement.

(b) Determining what constitutes observable evidence that the selected criteria are or are not being met.

2. Recording evidence.

(a) Determining who will record evidence.

(b) Determining the from of the records required.

(c) Providing the necessary record forms.

(d) Instructing there cords.

(e) Determining who will review evidence.

3. Interpreting evidence.

(a) Reviewing the recorded evidence.

(b) Deciding whether the recorded evidence provides the desired information.

(c) Selecting and ordering facts of significance.

(d) Presenting evidence to the appropriate decision-makes.

4. —Qualitycontrol"

(a) Determining whether each individual is meeting his responsibilities in terms of the group plan and goals.

(b) Determining whether overall result are meeting pre-set standards.

(c) Making adjustments as necessary to assure that standard are met.

Actions included in the administrative process are seen in may ways depending on one's perception.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Explain decision-making role of aleader.

6.1.4 : LEADER TYPE ANDSTYLE

i) IEADER TYPE

Leader type refers to the status that a leader enjoys relative to the other members of on organization. We now discuss mainly three types of leaders. Namely.

(1) Status leader

(2) Emergent leader

(3) Charismatic leader

1. Status leader

A company director, a superintendent of schools, the own of a store, a classroom teacher, a chief of police, a factory owner, a union representative, and a goal leader are all status leaders even though there are obtained by radically differing

means. Most status leaders exercised leadership in authoritarian manner.

2. Emergent leader

Within established social system, leaders usually emerge for one of four reasons (1) there is no designated leader (2) the designated leader is not doing what group member expect him or her to do. (3) an individual knows more about the matter at hand or can do more to help the group then can any other group member, and (4) the person has a preferred outcome that is so impelling that he or she is willing to use what even means are available, including force if necessary, to bring it about. Of all the imperatives of modern educational leadership, probable the most significant is that which is related to emergent leaders, for it is through awareness and utilization the concept of emergent leader that status leaders have been able not only to maintain the organisation but actually to infuse the enterprise the imagination, vitality, and creativeness necessary for survival. The concept itself has grown out of the domestic practice of making the greatest use of the skills and talents of subordinate members at all levels within the organization.

3. Charismatic leader

The charismatic leader is an exceptional individual who seems to have a unique personal power that makes him or her capable of securing the allegiance of large number of people. Charisma involves mass psychology rather then group dynamics, and is based on a hypnotic effect on followers. Supernatural qualities often are inputted to the leaders by his followers and reinforced by his claim to an indisputable mission which others must rely on him toaccomplish.

In other words, leader type refers to the status that a leader enjoys relative to the other member of an organization.A status leader is designated to occupy a superordinate position on an unlimited tenure basis. An emergent leader is one who takes over the leading function in an established social system either (1) in the absence of a designated leader (2) because the designated leader is not doing his job (3) because the emerger knows more of can do more for the group than can the designated leader of (4) because his preferred outcome is overwhelmingly compelling. Either a status leader or an emergent leader may reach a position of eminence because of being selected by others through birthright, appointment, election or default. Either also may be self selected simply through setting out to accrue followers to causes, ideas, or goals and some individuals may use force ownership is another form of self selection and may result in the formation of a new social system. Appointment by others is the manner is which most educational leaders are selected.

Charisma involves more than popular appeals and either a status leader or an emergent leader may exhibit it. The charismatic leader is extraordinarily persuasive, he arouses deep emotions in followers, and he espouses a cause.

ii) Leader Styles

From Mahatma Gandhi to Jack Welch and Martin Luther King to Rudolph Giuliani, there are as many leadership styles as there are leader. Fortunately, business people and psychologists have developed useful, shorthand ways of describing the main leadership styles that can help aspiring leaders to understand and adapt their own styles and leadership impact.

Whether you are managing a team at work, captaining your sports team of leading a major corporation, you leadership style is crucial to your success. Consciously, or subconsciously, you will no doubt use some of the leadership styles featured, at least some of the time. Understanding these leadership styles and their impact can help you develop and adapt your own leadership style and so help you become a more effective leader.

Leadership styles are as follows :

- ❖ Autocratic leadership
- ❖ Bureaucratic leadership
- ❖ Charismatic leadership
- ❖ Democratic leadership of participate leadership
- ❖ Laissez-faire leadership
- ❖ People-oriented leadership of relations–oriented leadership
- ❖ Servant leadership
- ❖ Task-oriented leadership
- ❖ Transactional leadership
- ❖ Transformational leadership
- ❖ Autocratic leadership

AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Autocratic leadership is and extreme form of transactional leadership, where leader has absolute over his or her employees. Team members have little opportunity for making suggestions, even if these would be in the team or organization‘s interest.

Most people tend to resent being treated like this. Because of this, autocratic leadership usually leads to high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover. For some routine and unskilled jobs, the style canremaineffectivewheretheadvantagesofcontroloutweighthedisadvantages.

BUREAUCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Bureaucratic leaders work ―bythe book", ensuring that their staff follow procedures exactly. This is a very appropriate for work involving serious safety risks.

(such as working with machinery, with toxic substances or at heights) of where Large sums of money are involved (such as cash-handling)

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

A Charismatic leadership style can appear similar to a transformational leadership style, in that leader injects huge doses of enthusiasm into his or her team, and is very energetic in driving others forward. However, a charismatic leader tends to believe more in him or herself than in ether team. This can create a risk that a project, or even a entire organization, might collapse if the leader were to leave : In the eyes of their followers, success is tied up with the presence of the charismatic leader. As such, charismatic leadership carries great responsibility, and needs long-term commitment from the leader.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Although a democratic leader will make the final decision, he or she invites other members of the team to contribute to the decision-making process. This not only increases job satisfaction by involving employees of team members in what's going on, but it also helps to develop people's skills. Employees and team members feel in control of their own destiny, such as the promotion they desire, and so are motivated to work hard by more than just a financial reward.

As participation takes time, this approach can lead to things happening more slowly, but often the end result is better. The approach can be most suitable where team suitable where team working is essential,andqualityismoreimportantthanspeedtomarketorproductivity.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP

This French phrase means —leave it be" and is used to describe a leader who leaves his or her colleagues to get on with their work. It can be effective if the leader monitors what is being achieved and communicates this back to his or her team regularly. Most often, laissez-faire leadership works for teams in which the individuals are very experience and skilled self-starters. Unfortunately, it can also refer to situations where managers are not exerting sufficient control.

PEOPLE-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP OR RELATIONS-LEADERSHIP

The style of leadership is the opposite of task-oriented leadership The leader is totally focused on organizing, supporting and developing the people in the leader's team. A participative style, it tends to lead to good teamwork and creative collaboration.

In practice, most leaders use both task-oriented and people-oriented styles of leadership.

SERVANT LEADERSHIP

This term, coined by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, describes a leader who is often not formally recognized as such. When someone, at level within an organization, leads simply by virtue of meeting the needs of his or her team, he or she is described as a —servant leader"

In may ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership, as the whole team tends to be involved indecision-making.

Supporters of the servant leadership model suggest it is an important way ahead in a world where values are increasingly important, in which servant leaders achieve power on the basis of their values and ideals. Other believe that in competitive leadership situations, people practicing servant leadership will often find themselves left behind by leaders using other leadership styles.

TASK-ORIENTED LEADERSHIP

A highly task-oriented leader focuses only on getting job done, and can be quite autocratic. He or she will actively define the work and the roles required, put structures in place, plan, organise and monitor. However, as task-oriented leaders spare little thought for the well-being of their teams, this approach can suffer many of the flaws of autocratic leadership, with difficulties in motivating and retaining staff. Task-oriented leaders can use the Blake-Mouton Managerial Gird to help them identify specific areas for development that will help them involve people more.

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

This style of leadership starts with the idea that team members agree to obey their leader totally when they take on a job: —transation" is (usually) that the organization pays the team members in return

for their effort and compliance. You have a right —punish" the team members if their work doesn't meet the pre-determined standard.

Team members can do little to improve their job satisfaction under transactional leadership. The leader could give team members some control of their income/reward be using incentives that encourage even higher standards of greater productivity. Alternatively a transactional leader could practice —management by exception," whereby rather than rewarding better work, he or she would take corrective action if the required standards were not met.

Transactional leadership is really just a way of managing rather a true leadership style as the focus is on short-term tasks. It has serious limitations for knowledge-based or creative work, but remains a common style in many organizations.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

A person with this leadership style is a true leader who inspires his of her team constantly with a shared vision of the future. Transformation leaders are highly visible, and spend a lot of time communicating. They don't necessarily lead from the front, as they tend to delegate responsibility amongst their team. While their enthusiasm is often infectious, they generally need to be supported by —details people".

In many organization, both transactional and transformational leadership are needed. The transactional leaders (or managers) ensure that routine work is done reliably, while the transformational leaders look after initiatives that add value.

The transformational leadership style is the dominant style taught in the —How to Lead : Discover the Leader within you" leadership program, although we do recommend that other styles are brought as the situations demands:

USING THE RIGHT STYLE — SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

While the Transformation Leadership approach is often highly effective, there is no one —right" way to lead or manage that suits all situations. To choose the most effective approach for you, you must consider:

(a) The skill levels and experience of you team.

(b) The work involved (routine or new and creative).

(c) The organizational environment (stable or radically changing, conservative or adventurous).

YOU OWN PREFERRED OR NATURAL STYLE

A good leader will find him or herself switching instinctively between styles according to the people and work they are dealing with. This is often referred to as —situational leadership". For example, the manager of a small factory trains new machine operatives using a buraeaucratic style to ensure operatives know the procedures that achieve the right standards of product quality and workplace safety. The same manager may adopt may adopt a more participate style of leadership when working on production line improvement with his or her team of supervisors.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Distinguish between Leader type and Leaderstyle.

iii) CHARACTERISTICS OFLEADERSHIP

Many people are interested in answering the question ―whatmakes a great leader? ―whatwould you answer to that question? Some characteristic of leader are given below:

(1) Proactive

The exceptional leader is always thinking three steps ahead. Working to master his/her own environment with the goal of avoiding problems before arise.

(2) Flexible / Adaptable

How do you handle yourself in unexpected or uncomfortable situations? An effective leader will adapt to new surroundings and situations, doing his/her best to adjust.

(3) A Good Communicator

As a leader, one must listen.... A lot! You must be willing to work to understand the needs and desires of others. A leader good asks many questions, considers all options, and leads in the right direction.

(4) Quiet confidence

Be sure of yourself with humble intentions.

(5) Enthusiastic

Excitement is contagious. When a leader is motivated and excited about the cause people will be more inclined to follow.

(6) Open-Minded

Work to consider all options when making decisions. A strong leader will evaluate the input from all interested parties and work for the betterment of the whole.

(7) Resourceful

Utilize the resources available to you. If you don‘t know the answer to something find out by asking questions. A leader must create access to information.

(8) Rewarding

An exceptional leader will recognize the efforts of and reinforce those actions. We all enjoy being recognized for our actions!

(9) Well Educated

Knowledge is power. Work to be well educated on community procedures, organizational norms,
etc.Further,yourknowledgeofissueandinformationwillonlyincreaseyoursuccessinleadingothers.

(10) Open to Change

A leader will take into account all points of view and will be willing to change a policy, program, cultural tradition that is out-date, or no longer beneficial to the group as a whole.

(11) Interested in Feedback

How do people feel about your leadership skill set? How can you improve ? These are important questions that a leader needs to constantly ask the chapter. View feedback as a gift to improve.

(12) Evaluative

Evaluation of events and programs is essential for an organization/ group to improve and progress.

An exceptional will constantly evaluate and change programs and policies that are not working.

(13) Organized

Are you prepared for meetings, presentations, events and confident that people around you are prepared and organize as well?

(14) Consistent

Confidence and respect cannot be attained without you leadership being consistent. People must have confidence that their opinions and thoughts will be heard and taken into consideration.

(15) Delegator

An exceptional leader realizes that he/she cannot accomplish everything on his own. A leader will know the talents and interested of people around him/her, thus delegation tasks accordingly.

(16) Initiative

A leader should work to be the motivator. An initiator. He/she must be a key element in the planning and implementing new ideas, programs, policies, etc.

(17) Sound Mental Health

A leader will more likely be successful if he of she is in a sound state of mental health. Mental health includes the prevention of mental and emotional disorders the detection, tenement, and ehabilitator of the mentally the mentally ill and the promotion of mental well bring.

(18) Proper Management of Time

The educational leader is likely to be successful only if he or she can learn to manage time. The leader must be an organizer and have an a arenens of the importance of time if she or he is to be successful.

Question :

Let Us Check Our Progress

1. Indicateatleastthreeimportantcharacteristicsofaneducationalleader.

LET US SUM UP

The dynamics of leadership occur only in interaction among the members of a social system inputs to the system include the expectations of individuals with the system, individuals, individuals outside the system and certain groups, also outside the system. Inputs also include the need-dispositions of system members. In the process of social exchange, communication effects the exchange of such resources as time, relent, commitment, and effort for certain rewards or satisfaction. The outputs of the system are need-satisfactions, the provision of learning opportunities, organization maintenance, and, some times, innovation. Feedback is essential to knowing the presence and extent of each of the outputs, and often results in further innovation. In the process each individual uses whatever resources he or she has, one or more individuals perform actions of leading, one of more the actions of administering, and one the actions of following.

In leading, the responsible individual has specific behavioural objectives which, if performed at least adequately, are expected to lead to the goals of staying of satisfying individuals' needs and innovating. Innovating requires attention to bringing general change, but also to identifying organization goals, revising goals, and making critical decisions.

Administering consists of the actions of problem-solving, decision-marking, and programming, all aimed at providing learning opportunities. Maintenance of the organization is achieved through the action of coordinating, resolving conflicts, and appraising.

Perception is vital to the dynamics of leadership in as much as everyone has a perceptual screen through he or she filters all sensory stimuli. The screen is particularly important in social perception, or perception of other people. Leaders need to be concerned about jobs that become so routine so routine or are performed in such ritual fashion so as to deprive the performers of vital array of stimuli. It is only through feedback regarding others' precessions that a leader can know if she or he is succeeding.

SUGGESTEDREADINGS

1. F.E. Fiedler (1967) Theory of Leadership effectiveness, New York, McGrewHill.
2. A. Zaleznik (1966) The human dilemmas of leadership, New York, Harper & Row.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. What is Leadership? Discuss the qualities of a Leader.
2. WhatdoyoumeanbystyleofLeadership.DescribevariousLeadershipstyles.
3. Discuss the role of the Leader in Educational Institution.
4. What is the quality of a leader? Describe the different types fo Leadership. How do you inculcate these qualities in secondary school education?