**1**

**The Education of Muslim Students in Quebec**

**Author :**Marie Mc Andrew

**Affiliation :** University de Montréal

**Keywords :** Muslim students,

Education in Canada,

Religious diversity

**Introduction:**

Everywhere in the world and especially in Western immigration societies, the extent to which educational institutions should adapt to diversity is highly debated. Normative positions range from a rather uncritical multiculturalism, fostering a tight relationship between student’s origin and the services they received to a strict republican model where schools are expected to “liberate” students from their family and community attachments. But, in most instances, decision-makers, teachers and community organisations are looking for a more nuanced approach that reflects a compromise between two important values in democratic societies: a respect for the variety of points of view and values that students bring to school and the fostering of common civic values that insure the protection of individual rights and equality. Due to the current international context and local specificities, the Muslim population has often been at the forefront of some of the controversies regarding the right balance in this regard. The Quebec case can be interesting to study for many reasons. First, as opposed to many European contexts, the Muslim population there enjoys a relatively high economic status and a fair degree of linguistic integration. At the cross-road of North American, British and French influences, Quebec has also tried to develop its own model of diversity management, stressing intercultural relations and critical acceptance of diversity. Many public and private bodies have thus been pretty active in formulating concrete guidelines that can help stakeholders in their common search for negotiated solutions when religious or cultural values come into conflict. Recent developments seem to indicate, however, mixed results in this area. Public debate has revealed a high level of concerns about the adaptation to diversity, often intertwined with stereotypical views, while observations of the actual functioning of institutions point to a much more positive situation in terms of mutual adaptation.

In my presentation, I will first give an overview of the socio-demographic characteristics of the Muslim community in Canada and in Quebec, and of its educational experiences in Quebec schools. I will then analyse in more depth three important controversies that have targeted the Muslim community in the last twenty five years, respectively regarding the teaching of Arabic at the end of the 80’s, the wearing of the Muslim veil in the mid-90’s and the wider reasonable accommodation crisis, in 2006-2008. In contrast, in the third part, based on a major survey of Quebec schools, I will give examples of the relatively smooth adaptation to diversity and specifically to Muslim student’s needs, which is happening largely in isolation from the conflictual public debate.

**An example of current controversies:** The reasonable accommodation crisis The reasonable accommodation crisis, which raged from May 2006 to May 2008, can be understood as a Quebec rite of passage within a post-modern multicultural world. However, it was also strongly influenced by the fact that Quebec society had just completed the process of secularization of its educational institutions when it started being confronted with claims for a better recognition of religious rights from minority groups. On the one hand, many Quebecers still resent the religious dominance of the Catholic Church which lasted until the 1960’s and they often have a negative relationship with the presence of religion in the public sphere. On the other hand, minority claims have awoken nostalgia among some segments of the Quebec population, longing for the strong essentialist identity of the pre-1960’s area, which closely linked language, culture and religious beliefs. The controversy in Quebec must also be situated in the wider international and national context, where the balancing of religious freedom with other important rights in a democratic and pluralist society, such as gender equity or the protection of freedom of thought, is on the agenda. The main trigger was a non-Muslim issue: the Supreme Court ruling in May 2006 which allowed the wearing of a kirpan under strict guidelines and regulation, by a Sikh student in one of the main immigrant-receiving School Boards in Quebec. The ruling elicited many negative reactions, although the press treatment was rather balanced. The open lines and the reader’s letters revealed, on the one hand, an enormous level of dissatisfaction that was just waiting to be exploited by either politicians or the media, and on the other hand, an element which is in a direct line with the topic of this presentation, some confusion between Sikhism and Islam among many Quebecers. Comments such as “If Sikh’s are not happy, they should go back to the Sikh country” or, “If I was living in their country I would have to wear a veil”, showed that many people did not know that Sikhism is a minority religion within the largest multicultural secular democracy in the World, India, nor that women’s status in that religion is somewhat distinct from the popular stereotypes of the situation prevailing in Islam.

From the fall of 2006 onwards, two phases can be distinguished. The first one, which lasted until March 2007, was characterized by a witch hunt by the media which brought to the forefront, in a highly distorted manner, at least 35 “unreasonable” cases of adaptation to diversity and the politicization of the issue by a third party, the Action démocratique du Québec, which gained momentum through that process. Most of the cases debated in newspaper headlines and in Quebec households, dealt with the Jewish or Muslim communities. Many elements of the Muslim stereotype that had emerged in the 1990’s were recreated and even intensified in the public discourse. Concerns were focused mainly on the oppression of women and the non-democratic character of Muslim institutions, although security issues were also evoked Educational issues were much less often at the forefront of the debate. Many newspapers even reported that a rather smooth adaptation was happening in many Montreal schools and the only controversial issue that they could identify was the case of a Muslim student who had been exempted to learn to play the flute, a case that actually dated back to 2001. The adaptation of francophone universities received more attention with issues such as allowing rooms for Muslims to pray or places for where they could wash their feet, probably because the impact of diversity in these institutions of higher education is a more recent phenomenon. The second phase of the controversy started with the creation in March 2007 of the Consultation Commission on Accommodation Practises Related to Cultural Differences, established by the Prime Minister, just before the Quebec elections in an attempt to put the issue on the backburner during the campaign (as most media analysts argue). The interest raised by the commission was overwhelming; it received 900 briefs, the testimony of 240 ordinary citizens and held 31 days of public hearings. Moreover, it received primetime daily coverage during the public hearing many educational issues that could have an impact on the Muslim community were debated such as the wearing of the hidjab and in some instances the niqab, various exemptions from the curriculum, especially in physical education as well as leaves of absence for religious reasons. Although cases regarding students were discussed, the main issue concerned the accommodation of religious needs of Muslim teachers, a trend that shows that the teaching force of Quebec, that used to be homogenous, is slowly transforming, especially with the arrival of many well-educated francophone immigrants from North Africa. There was a rather clear division between the partisans of tolerance and pluralism, who advocated that adaptation was contributing to the integration of students and families, and its opponents who either opposed religious recognition on philosophical grounds or considered it susceptible to jeopardize the democratic achievements of Quebec society in the area of equal rights for all citizens.

In its final report, published in May 2008, the commissioners took a clear stance in favour of the pluralist position both in society and in schools and acknowledged the extent to which the Muslim community had been unduly negatively portrayed in many of the controversies. They also reiterated the open secularism model which recognizes the legitimacy of religious accommodation, but put a stronger stress than the classical multicultural model on the role of public common values in the resolution of conflicts, especially with regards to equality between men and women. On issues linked to education, their assessments and recommendations were highly influenced by the November 2007 report of the Advisory Committee on Integration and Reasonable Accommodation in the Schools, which will be described in the next section. Their specific contribution concerned the religious freedom of teachers, especially that of expressing it through clothes or symbols. Although the commissioners acknowledged the legitimacy to limit religious expression among some categories of civil servants, they did not consider that it was the case for teachers. The commissioners argued that the neutrality of teachers when interacting with students on religious or contentious issues was crucial, but considered that this was a universal challenge for all teachers, whether or not they manifested their religious beliefs or atheism in a visible manner, for example through clothing.

**2**

**Implementation of Right To Education Act: Voice, Agency and Challenges in the Field.**

**Author:** Nitika Bose

**Affiliation:** Shyama Prasad Mukherji College

**Keywords:**Poverty, Schooling for Upward Mobility,

Everyday negotiations.

**Introduction :**

Inclusion of children with socio-economic disadvantages in the mainstream classrooms has become the focus of research in the last decade. Policy documents are now stressing on ending the class divide in society through schooling providing better opportunities for children from the marginalized sections in schools run by private bodies which provide a range of enriching experiences to children through their curricula. Active family involvement has long been considered to be an important factor related to better outcomes in the education of young children from the marginalized sections. Access to full time education is now mandated by RTE Act (2009) for admitting 25% of children from marginalized communities of Economically Weaker Sections in private schools through legal means. The study shows how reservations of seats for socio-economically deprived groups in private schools has provided a ray of hope for millions of parents belonging to socio-economically weaker sections who now feel that they can end the existing class divide as their children would now be exposed to the opportunities which were restricted to children belonging to richer families.

The study was visualized in two phases: the first phase involved collecting information related to socio-economic profiles of the families living in Mandawali situated in the east zone of MCD Delhi. In the second phase of the study, 20 mothers having children at the school going age group were interviewed through informal conversations. The informal nature of interactions that took place within the communities helped the researcher gain insights into the everyday lives of the members. They often discussed matters related to finances, lack of civic amenities, fears related to communal tension, problems related to schooling of their children and aspirations for the future. Interviews were coded and themes were identified informing about the dilemmas faced by mothers in their day to day lives related to their children’s schooling. The data gathered through interviews formed the basis of analysis. Interviews were conducted in Hindi and have been translated into English for the purpose of this paper. To maintain confidentiality, the names of the interviewees have not been revealed.

The study shows that in the wake of heightened aspirations many struggles emerge on a day to day basis due to lack of economic, cultural and academic resources which impede complete inclusion within private schools. Women spoke for hours about how getting admission into private schools had been so difficult remembering the countless days they stood in lines for forms praying each day for getting entry into a good school as they believed that the cycle of poverty which engulfed them could only come to termination through this. However women felt that inability to sustain the same would not only mean being inefficient parents but restrict them to a life of poverty and marginalization which they now desired to overcome. Women spoke about how their freshly gained confidence was constantly being jolted due to lack of means causing fear and anxiety over what is to come next. Mothers within the neighborhood tried their best to help each other during times of such crisis. An informal economy functioned wherein women in the neighborhood supported each other to pay salaries for tuition teachers, buy return presents on birthdays, and arrange for fancy lunch items, stationary, clothes and accessories to enable their children to fit in within the elite culture of the private school. Thinking about the ever increasing sums of borrowed money mothers complained about health issues such as depression and mental trauma. Women pointed how some of their friends had turned foes as their children got admission in some of the most prestigious private schools. Therefore a relationship of avoidance manifested among certain families within the neighborhood based on the kinds of private schools their children attended. Also learning English remained the main concern within families wherein women spoke about how they suffered a lack of confidence in all walks of life due to not knowing good English. Knowing English becomes a source of immense pride for children and families view this as a talent which needs to be displayed to others. Hence childhoods were judge in accordance to parameters set by standards that accrues to standards of the middle classes on day to day basis. All mothers envisioned a future where their children would take up respectable jobs and hold important positions in society. Along with aspirations for improving their current status through their children’s schooling, they also desired a society free of inequalities based on income and wealth. Women stated that they dreamt of a society where hard work and merit determines ones position and worth in society. Respect should be bestowed to people who are resilient to adverse conditions and try hard despite adversities. They sated that the objective of schools should be to teach values of equality and brotherhood and children should be taught not to judge people based on the clothes they wore or the cars they possessed. The mothers appreciated reservations for economically weaker sections in private schools as a welcome step in this direction and wished for more benefits such as financial and academic support for better inclusion.

The study revealed many challenges faced by mothers in their everyday life related to their children’s schooling. On the one hand private school admission gave mothers a sense of pride and achievement and brought in hope to break the shackles of poverty, on the other hand day to day challenges related to finances became a source of anxiety and stress. Reeling under the pressure of wanting the best for their children and their families made them seek mutual help and cooperation on a regular basis. However they felt some schools facilitated better quality education than the others and such differences needs to be addressed to reduce social inequalities and foster social change. Field data in the study informs about the changing class dynamics within neighborhoods wherein working class mothers unite making each other’s aspirations for upward mobility through children’s schooling a success through mutual help and cooperation. On other occasions the study reveals how class consciousness fragments due to limited opportunities for upward mobility wherein mother’s aspirations of wanting the best for their own child/ children increases class divide among socio-economically deprived communities within the neighborhood. In dealing with a small sample, the present research does not endeavour to arrive at generalisations. The research aims to draw attention to everyday challenges and negotiations that poor parents encounter related to their children’s schooling thus opening dimensions for further research in the field enabling more meaningful social inclusion within schools.

**3**

**Tracing out Development of Education system for Kumar A case-study of Selbhara village**

**Author:** Tushar Goel

**Organization :** Christel House India

**Keywords**: Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Group

Formal Schooling

Processes

History

Events

Government

Non-governmental agencies

**Introduction**

India is one of the emerging economies of the world that continues to be predominantly rural in nature. The economic growth has taken place rapidly in past decade which had helped only certain sections of society in their upliftment. There are various growth theorists which had stated that there are several mechanisms which show education influences economic growth both in short and long run. Education has been considered as an instrument for economic and social development. (Schulz, 1988; Tilak, 2003)

In Indian Constitution under Article 45, providing elementary education for children of age up to 14 years had been made necessary for universalization of elementary education. Since then, there have been several schemes, programmes run by government to provide basic education through different programmes such as District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), SSA (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan) and now RTE coming into being. Still situation is very different in tribal areas where enrolment of children in schools is an issue which needs to be looked after seriously. (Jindal, 2015). Scheduled tribes (STs) are indigenous having their own distinctive culture, geographically isolated from other parts and particularly belonging from low group in socio-economic conditions. It has been a long time since they had not been part of the mainstream world and have been devoid of general development process being followed in other parts of country primarily due to their habitation in deep forests and hilly tracts. In scheduled tribes, there are some backward tribal communities who either have declining or stagnant population, low-level of literacy, traditional level of agricultural techniques or are also economically backward; such tribal communities have been termed as Particularly Vulnerable tribal groups (PVTGs). Kamar, (PVTG), had been one of the most endangered tribes in Chhattisgarh focusing majorly on hunting, bamboo products for their livelihood. There is no such emphasis on the education among them. Therefore, I want to look through the changes happened in the education sphere among the lives of the Kamars and also about their perception about education has changed or not in all these years. This paper tries to explain the processes followed both at governmental and non-governmental level for involving Kamar in the concept of formal schooling in Southern part of Dhamtari district of Chhattisgarh.

**Rationale**

The basic rationale to do such a study was to understand the development of education system in the remote areas for various tribal people. Also, to understand better about the role played by the government and the community to undergo the changes in education system. An impression still persists among the Kamars that schools spoil the child and this generates a needless fear in the hearts of children and their parents. Much has yet to be done to improve the school and the school teachers. The school must really become an attractive place where play, literary education and vocational training can be happily blended together (Dube, 1951)

**Methodology**

For the study, both types of techniques i.e. quantitative as well as qualitative techniques were being used to explore the outcome. The study was based on both primary data and secondary data sources. The secondary data sources were accessed from Census data for different years and also from DISE data for each academic year as per the requirement of numerical data needed for the study. For the qualitative element of the research, a village completely belonging to the Kamar community was selected and extensive field visits were made to dig out the information about the development of education system in their village. The choice of the village was based on the prior information about the availability and knowledge of that area. For the study, snow-ball sampling technique was being used due to the circumstances as Kamar people are very shy in talking with the stranger, therefore this technique was being used for the benefit of the study. The various interviews of elderly people, children, parents, teachers, CACs and other education functionaries were being carried out in semi-structured or unstructured manner in order to get the subjective responses depending upon the circumstances. The questions asked were open ended and based on their shared responses; qualitative analysis was performed as per the research questions.

**About Kamars**

Kamars live in the present Dhamtari and Gariaband districts of Chhattisgarh and the Navapada, Sambalpur and Kalahandi districts of Orissa. They were declared as a Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Group (PVTGs) in Sixth Five Year plan by the Government of India (M. Mitra, 2002). There is confusion in their origin and also about their aboriginal location. They are not an offshoot of the Gonds and claim to be autochthonous of katpar- Purapdi hill range of Central India. (Russell and Hiralal 1995) Mythologically also, there are differences in their origin as the Kamars were earlier known as Gauntias or master of land. Kamars of erstwhile Raipur district were alone and were not same as those of Chhotanagpur who are Lohars due to which they have come to be known by different names in different places. In Orissa, Kamars are known as „Paharia‟ which is not categorized as a Scheduled Tribe because of the interpretation of their traditional work as a Lohar (or blacksmith) leading to their exclusion in Orissa from the Scheduled Tribes list. It has been observed that Kamars generally settle away from the other tribal groups and form their own caste/clan based village. They speak their own language known as Kamari which has influences of Halbi and Chhattisgarhi. They believe in the gods and goddesses of the Gonds and most of their rituals, customs and religious beliefs are similar to those of the Gonds. (Hiralal and Russell 1995) The lack of food and resources lead them to move away from one place to another place making them a nomadic tribe in earlier periods and returning back to their own homeland after sometime. Basketry is also an important aspect for their economy. In 1982, Kamar Development Agency was established and in 1986, Gariaband was under the Kamar Development Agency. At present Dhamtari and Gariaband districts are under the Kamar Development Agency. It has been established for the overall development of the Kamars. Special programmes have been framed by the Agency according to the directives ofthe Government which provide extra facilities over and above the facilities received by the scheduled tribes in the area. These special programmes regarding agriculture irrigation, education, health, drinking water, animal husbandry, social and economic upliftment etc. have been undertaken by the Agency.

**Summary**

The education scenario among the Kamars is very worse as compared to the other tribes living in that part of the region. Even the other tribes consider them as criminal tribes and do not interact that much with these people. Due to economic issues also, they are not able to receive adequate education, also they don‟t want to move anywhere from their villages/paras/tolas therefore children don‟t go to school often. After the establishment of primary schools in each village, the condition has changed little bit but that is not enough. As if now, there are several drop-outs after class 5th and class 8th which needs to be addressed. The study was being done in one of such villages belonging entirely to the Kamar tribe in Selbahara village in Nagri Block of District Dhamtari. I have tried to trace out the education history of the Kamars in this particular village with the help of narratives of the people and also taking into account of the data being accessed through Schools, DISE and other such places. Using entry point of variation in enrolment in the school, tried to build the narratives of inclusion and exclusion in formal schools for this particular tribe relating it to the physical access, cultural barriers and other such practices which includes/excludes them in the process of education.

**References**

1. *Dube, S. (1951). The Kamar. New Delhi: Oxford Publishing Press.*
2. *Jindal, A. (2015, October 10). Access to Education in Tribal Areas. Economic andPolitical Weekly, 41, 24-25.*
3. *M. Mitra, P. K. (2002). Growth Patterns of the Kamars- A Primitive tribe of Chhattisgarh, India. Collegium Anthropologicum, 485-499.*
4. *Russell, R.V. And Rai Bahadur Hiralal. (1995). “Gond Tribes.” The Tribe and castes of the central provinces of India. Report of Kamar development Agency. Gariaband, Raipur M.P.*
5. *Schultz, T.W. (1988) On Investing in Specialised Human Capital to Attain Increasing Returns, in G. Ranis and T.P. Schultz (eds.) the State of Development Economics: Progress and Perspectives. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, pp. 339-52.*
6. *Tilak, J.B.G. (2003) Higher Education and Development, in the Handbook on Educational Research in the Asia Pacific Region (eds. J.P. Kleeves & Ryo Watanabe) Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 809-26*

**4**

**EXPLORING THE MATRIX OF PRIVATIZATION, GLOBALIZATION AND URBAN MIDDLE-CLASS LIVING THROUGH ‘PLAYSCHOOLS’**

**Author**: Rituraj

**Affiliation**: PhD Research Scholar Centre for the Study of Social Systems

Jawaharlal Nehru University

**keywords**: Early Childhood

Education

New Middle-class

Playschool

Institutionalized care

**Introduction :**

Schooling is an inescapable reality of our times. It constitutes one’s major childhood memories. In current times if one has to do research on schooling then one has to very carefully pick up the ‘field’ of enquiry. To ask about schooling one can begin with the question: when does schooling starts? Certainly if we compare the starting age of schooling; our grand-parents might have started when they were of age 6/7 with Class I. But if I would recall my first contact with schooling, it began at the age of 4 with nursery. Now, it is no more the nurseries or kindergartens where children first learn about school. The picture has already been altered. It is yet another institution that precedes nurseries often termed as

‘playschool/preschool’. To locate the beginning of one’s schooling; the time when the very first contact with school is faced one cannot afford to ignore ‘playschools (also termed as pre-schools)’.

Playschools could be understood as a new kind of ‘educational and care’ settings for children aged between eighteen months to three years (and occasionally four years) old. Often these institutions also run full-time day-care centres for young kids. Playschools are classified under Early Childhood Care and Education sector that provides toddlers the care and informal education in the early years of their childhood. But not retaining the ‘informal’ character, these institutions or say educational and care settings are now increasingly becoming more like a ‘formal’ school. With a strict set of disciplinary rules, the time-bound prescribed curriculum, proper uniform for their pupils and strict time-table which marks division of time into various sections for specific activities; these act as more of kind of

‘formal’ schools’. The downward expansion of formalised education and dropping of age of schooling has been easily adapted by our society. Playschools often claim to provide the

‘right’ environment for children. This gradual change in educational practises brought itself with it many questions about the changes occurring in our society, the changing aspirations viz a viz with education and life. It makes one to ponder that how our educational aspirations are changing? What is making parents to increasingly rely on outside institution say playschool for their child’s early socialisation? Are these playschools providing a different set of knowledge to children, which is not possible at home? What is the need for a child as young as two years old to be associated with a formal institution? Could the pressing need for sending a young child to ‘playschool’ be related with the changes brought in our society over the period of time with globalization and privatization?

The changing society of ours in inducing changes in education whereas this ‘privatized’ education is in turn bringing a different set of aspirations that we imbibe. Our times are marked with immense possibilities of globalization are indeed surpassing the barriers of time and space, establishing meta-connections between countries. But it also has led to the exchange of anxieties and miseries. Modern living and highly individualised society where people are busy in satisfying their individual needs taking care of their individual rights are left with no time or energy for others (even their family/kin members), is absorbing us. Earlier the kin based communities that used to extend support to people are now in globalized worlds are actively replaced by new institutionalized quick-fixes for example playschools for younger children, old-age homes for elderly people, therapeutic care services to patients with depression etc. Our fast changing society has not been given the time to think or to reflect rather we are made to join the race of being a ‘global citizen’. In this race, we are made to shed our cultural markers, the identities we might have gained form our community our mother-tongue as soon as possible. We are in a hurry to learn the ‘exotic’ language, mannerisms in order to be absorbed by the ‘global culture’ that promises us a successful life.

Since it is this knowledge or say the ability to carry certain (elitist) global traits which are rewarded by our education system. Partly it could be this understanding that is making playschools more popular and parents more agreed upon that in order for their children to survive in competitive education system and making them a ‘global citizen’ they need early training and thereby playschools are being looked for.

The current paper intends to explore the themes on early childhood, education, urban middle class living and popularity of playschools in urban centres. During LPG era, playschools gained popularity that led to its unprecedented growth; a concern registered in ECCE (2013) policy. Unregulated growth of private sector and popularity of playschools amongst urban middle classes made the phenomenon of playschools worth studying. The work broadly could be classified under sociology of education that attempts to uncover the matrix of shifting educational practices amongst urban residents. Preferences made by parents for children’s education during early childhood years, changing lifestyle, parental aspirations and family life in a city on the other hand increasing privatization of education are key areas to be dealt in the paper. Major themes of the research include:

**Locating the playschools in current discourses on education**: Since primarily playschoolsfunctions as an educational institution that cater to children aged between two years to four years old. Popularly known as pre-nurseries, these playschools prepare children for further educational race. Given the educational role it is important to locate the desirability of playschools in terms of educational (and developmental) goals it defines for children. It is found that often these educational (and developmental) goals are picked up from developmental psychological theories. These seldom appreciate or considers socio-cultural context of a child during growing up years. Universal stages that strictly follow age and developmental tasks correlation are referred by preschools. Reliance on these universal stages further pressurizes kids to ‘grow’ as per the set pattern. If a child gets delayed in the set process he/she is labelled as ‘slow’ or ‘a problem child’. Earlier childhood years used to be relatively playful. But this scenario is changing fast nowadays. Now right from the age of 02 years old a child is expected to recite poems in English, speak aloud counting, perform in front of strangers. And not conforming to these may make a child labelled as a ‘slow child’.

In order to explore more about changing ideals of childhood, various roles and tasks a young child is supposed to accomplish in modern society it is necessary to explore urban middle class living.

**Urban middleclass living**: This theme tries to capture the nature of life, newer forms offamilies say dual-earner, single parent families etc., nature of employment, new ideals of motherhood, parenting, childhood in current globalised setting. Multiple factors like changing urban landscape, hardly available playgrounds, diminishing trust in neighbourhood, aspirations for good life, education and career are observed as possible reasons behind the normalised presence of playschools and day-care in cities.

**Engagement with field:**In order to understand the dynamics of corporate sector enteringinto early childhood education, the urban living and different peculiarities related with it including educational preferences by parents, it is necessary to talk to parents, teachers which required a field engagement. In the name of ‘care’ playschools are more or less like a bureaucratic care chains that run only on the logic of profit. The profit logic is such where a calculated care is provided to a child depending on his/her parents’ ability to pay the fee.

Many playschools have different set of programmes say premium and ordinary wherepremium group has additional fee for the additional no. of activities and facilities provided to children than children in ordinary group (fee range). Playschools as the name suggests gives an impression that these must be providing conducive environment for children to play with other kids of similar age. But the ground reality points something else where ‘play’ and ‘activity’ are just an outside show and children are mostly under the supervision of teachers or any other adult; hardly get opportunity to ‘free-play’. These learning centres acts as training ground for children which further help them gain admission in so called ‘good’ schools and thereby retaining their chances of healthy survival in longstanding competitive educational market. The three themes together help us understand the changing societal needs which in turn points towards the changes brought up by globalization and privatization. The emerging new middle class is using various strategic possibilities to gain and to retain their status quo. Private players in education market whereby serving a group of people have drastically made education exclusive right from the early years of schooling.

To accomplish the necessary reading and to gain a sound understanding of these complex and overlapping issues of globalization, privatization, urban middleclass living and changes practices and aspirations eclectic approach was followed in order to generate data. James andProut’s ‘new sociology of childhood’ was used as the entry point to look at the problem. Also referring to the researches from psychology, education psychology the study has tried to decode the meanings of childhood, education and urban living through various lenses. Initially various playschools and day care centres in the Delhi region were visited to get the sense of field. The needed data was generated through months of engagement with a playschool by deploying ethnographic method, participant observation techniques supplemented by discussions with parents, teachers and other staff members (at the playschool).In the last section paper would discuss the voices of parents and teachers; what they have to say about the dependence on institutional care for their young child. The paper would also talk about possible solutions and alternatives in order to minimize the dependence on institutional care systems. These are privately owned organizations; run by the agenda of profit making compromises children’s care; no matter how much is the fee is being extracted. Increasing government’s accountability to open and maintain quality day-cares and crèches; so that ‘all’ children could get the ‘quality’ care. Also, strengthening ICDS and anganbaris; provision for parental leaves and children’s allowances are some possible alternatives will be discussed.

**5**

**Aspirations or fictions? - Role of family and school in subject choices and aspirations**

**Author** : Indumathi S

**Affiliation :** Azim Premji University

**Keywords**: Aspirations

Families

Social context

Subject choices

Science aspirati

Bangalore

**Introduction:**

Education is perceived as a means for social mobility. Vincent and Menon (2011) indicate prevailing competition in education and labour markets resulting in strategising around education by the families as education is understood as the crucial importance to life chances.   
The political economy of the place and the jobs places certain demands on the people and their lives. With globalisation and neo-liberal market, there is vibrant discourse on mobility as the market is expanding and new avenues of employment opening up. The private schools are perceived as offering better quality of education by parents and poor quality of learning offered by government schools might disadvantage their wards is another perception (Manjrekar, 2003) which has resulted in high movement of students to private schools in semi-urban and urban localities. Education is a family decision in India (Mukhopadhyay, 1994; Chopra, 2005; Vincent & Menon, 2011). In these family choices, gender is an important factor with usually girls bearing the brunt of inadequate resources for education. The boys are prioritised over girls in educational choices and opportunities in many families. Chopra (2005) reveals that various factors of the family like income, occupational status, structure of the family, gender, birth order and number of siblings influence this decision.   
  
**Methodology:**   
Given the context, this study focuses on experiences of students- particularly girls in science classrooms, aspirations and their choices and tries to explore the intersectionalities of gender, class, occupational status of families and schooling. In this paper, I discuss only (a part of the study) on aspirations and choices of the students. This paper uses the idea termed as ‘impossible fictions’ by Walkerdine and Bourdieu’s theory on social mobility.   
Ethnographic approach was taken to study the school and the participants for 6 months. It involved classroom observations, discussions and interviews with students, teachers and parents. Initial observations were made of all subjects from class six to ten. Later, classes eight and nine formed the focus of the study. Science classrooms were observed in particular to understand the experiences in classroom and whether and how such experiences informs the subject choices later. In-depth discussions were held with 38 students (both girls and boys) of classes 8 and 9 as they tend to form affinities towards subjects. Teachers of the classes and two parents were also interviewed. The data on the socio-economic details of students was also collected. Discussion with students about their liking for science, their choice after class 10, ambition in life, reasons to choose certain careers etc. was held. 

The study was done in a private English medium school recognized by the Karnataka state government in Bangalore, India. The socio-economic context of Bangalore and job markets is also important, as this seem to reflect in the responses of students on aspirations which I have discussed in detail in the following sections. The IT industries and other similar service sectors in Bangalore, both constructs and reproduces certain assumptions and hopes regarding upward mobility and choice of subjects.   
  
The students of this school belong to lower-middle class and middle class families.Most of the mothers work in garment industries in the neighbourhood. They work as helpers or tailors, fathers working in garment industries are tailors or supervisors. Many fathers are into skilled work like weaving, carpentry and plumbing. Some fathers also run real estate business or as traders in fruit market. When fathers are in comfortable jobs and sustained incomes, mothers tend to stay at home. Nambissan (2010), describes work in garment factories, home based tailoring etc. as unorganized or informal economy which is characterised by insecurity of employment, low wages, and the absence of labour laws and social protection. This has bearing on the expenditure on education and health and their aspirations or dreams for their wards.   
  
**Findings and Discussion:**   
This section discusses the students’ aspirations and affinity towards subjects and careers. The aspirations as described by students are analysed in the context of gender, class and structure of families.   
  
More than 75%- both girls and boys indicated that they would pursue science careers. However, the aspirations are gendered and there are differences in what they choose as science careers and the way it is articulated. Most girls mentioned software engineering as a choice whereas boys mentioned electrical and mechanical engineering. While mentioning about this aspiration, most of them referred to their relatives or family members as an example and assurance from them that they will be successful or future will be promising which means that there is possibility of upward mobility. There is rapid expansion of the industry leading to employment and openings in huge numbers. There is also a perception of good pay immediately after engineering for the youth (Upadhya, 2007) which could be a reason for attraction towards IT jobs. It also provide a status and power in the society.   
  
The ambitions and choices seem to have linkages to their achievement or performance in examination. All the high achieving boys and girls have science aspirations. The positive attitude towards science is linked to performance in examination. Also academic competence, merit, hard work and high standards are the markers of scientists and the work in science (Subramanian, 2007), which she is critical of. The students whose scores are poor do not like science and also find it difficult.   
  
Though there is a general preference of science, there seem to be some variations in what students of middle class and lower middle class say about their aspirations and their access to certain resources.   
One of the boy (Anand-class 9) from the middle class background said,   
I want to become music director, but I will study engineering… I can tell others that I am music director and also have engineering degree…   
Similarly, Aatreya- class 8, whose parents are comparatively affluent as the father is employed in State Bank of India and his mother is a Jailor. He is deeply interested in Science, but wants to become an IAS officer. In both these examples, mobility does not seem to be a concern, but power and positions are articulated as reasons for pursuing certain dreams. Whereas three boys from lower middle-class background were not sure of their dreams or wanted to get into army. They also mentioned commerce as the choice of the subject after class 10.   
  
In the single female headed families, girls seem to have high science aspirations. They also perform well. There are four to five families where these girls or boys are the youngest and are given lot of encouragement and hope by their elder brothers or sisters to pursue science careers. Harma (2011), indicates that total no. of children in the house is an important factor and the family decides to spend on and educate a child.   
 **Aspirations or impossible fictions?**   
The term ‘impossible fictions’ is coined by Walkerdine (2003) in the context of aspirations and dreams. She calls it ‘impossible fictions’, as it might not be possible to achieve them but constantly held up as possible. Talking a similar view, I also argue that these aspirations could be fictions considering the complex interactions of schooling, gender, class and market in the current scenario.   
  
When I mentioned about student’s ambitions and hopes, the biology teacher was doubtful and said that she herself had big dreams but could not pursue the same due to various reasons. The Headmistress of the school also was not sure of students’ aspirations. Both these teachers somehow weighed down the aspirations of students and constantly referred to parents’ financial background during the discussions. The biology teacher also expressed that science after class 10 becomes expensive.   
  
According to the headmistress, among the pass outs from the previous batches- none of the students have gone ahead to pursue medicine after 12th and about five or six students have started engineering. One-fourth of the students have gone ahead to pursue science degrees. It has been the girls who have been toppers so far and these girls are pursuing science in Pre University (PU) or degree. Most of the boys tend to choose commerce degrees or diploma according to her.   
  
Kumar(1985), mentions of ‘sponsored mobility’ and describes those elite and exclusive schools accessed by upper and middle class that prepares students for elite higher education institutions and jobs as sponsoring mobility. The English teacher also mentioned that this school cannot do much or support students when I mentioned about high aspirations of few students. This school is not one of those which would be able to sponsor mobility according to the teacher and hence she suggested that it would be better in the context of a girl-Sana to move to another good school, as she aspires to become a scientist at NASA. This is also obvious from the fact that the PU and degree colleges, the students have entered are Kripanidhi, Sadhguru, and ACTS College etc. These are colleges in and around Electronic city and Sarjapur road. Most of these are newly started colleges and do not have reputation as some of the well-known and reputed and elite colleges in Bangalore. 

Using the ideas of Bourdieu on cultural capital (1984), the question I raise is whether the acquired institutionalized capital can help transform the embodied state of capital. The transformation of habitus might occur but the question is, would this be possible in a generation? Given the social and economic capital of these parents, along with poor educational qualifications, it might be a bigger struggle for upward mobility. Many families hold insecure jobs and are contractual which would have bearing on educational expenses. The linguistic capital that these students acquire through rote-learning might not be sufficient and also may not be the kind required to access global jobs like IT (Gilbertson, 2014). It is the middle class, educated and advantaged who are employed and dominate the IT sector (Upadhya, 2007; Radhakrishnan, 2011). Also I am not generalizing this with all my respondents, as capital, gender, caste, class and market interact in complex ways and the outcomes are unpredictable and a longitudinal study understanding students’ choice and pathways might be useful.   
  
**References:**   
*Bordieu, P. (1984). Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgement of Taste. London: Routledge   
  
Chanana, K. (2007). Globalisation, higher education and gender: Changing subject choices of Indian women students, Economic and Political Weekly. 42. pp. 590-598.   
  
Chopra, R. (2005). Sisters and brothers: Schooling, family and migration, in Radhika Chopra and Patricia Jeffery (eds.): Educational regimes in contemporary India, New Delhi: Sage. pp.299- 315.   
  
Gilbertson, A. (2014). ‘Mugging up’ versus ‘exposure’: international schools and social mobility in Hyderabad, India, Ethnography and Education, 9(2) : pp. 210-223, DOI:10.1080/17457823.2013.878512   
  
Härmä, J. (2011). Low cost private schooling in India: Is it pro poor and equitable? International Journal of Educational Development. 31: pp. 350–356.   
  
Kumar, K. (1985).Reproduction or Change? Education and Elites in India, Economic and Political Weekly. 20. Pp. 1280- 1284.   
  
Manjrekar, N. (2003). Contemporary Challenges to Women’s Education: towards an elusive goal, Economic and Political Weekly, 38(4): pp. 4577-4582.   
  
Mukhopadhyay, C. (1994). Family Structure and Indian Women’s Participation in Science and Engineering, in C. Mukhopadhyay and S.Seymour (eds.): Women, Education, and Family Structure in India, Colorado: Westview Press, pp. 1-33.   
  
Nambissan, G. (2010). The global economic crisis, poverty and education: a perspective from India, Journal of Education Policy, 25 (6): pp. 729 — 737   
  
Radhakrishnan, S. (2011). Appropriately Indian: Gender and Culture in a New Transnational Class.Durham: Duke University Press.   
  
Subramanian, J. (2007). Perceiving and Producing Merit: Doing Science in India, Indian Journal of Gender Studies,14 (2): pp. 259- 284.   
  
Vincent, C. & Menon, R. (2011).The Educational Strategies of the Middle Classes in England and India in Lall, M. and Nambissam, G. (eds.): Education & Social Justice in the Era of Globalisation, New Delhi: Routledge, pp. 56 – 80.   
  
Upadhya, C. (1997). Social and Cultural Strategies of Class Formation in Coastal AndhraPradesh, Contributions to Indian Sociology, 31 (2): pp. 169–193. doi:10.1177/006996697031002001.   
  
Walkerdine, V. (2003). Reclassifying Upward Mobility: Femininity and the neo-liberal subject, Gender and Education, 15 (3): pp.237-248, DOI: 10.1080/09540250303864   
  
\_\_\_\_\_\_. (2011). Neoliberalism, working-class subjects and higher education, Contemporary Social Science: Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences, 6 (2): pp.255-271*

**6**

**A REFLECTIVE INQUIRY TO STUDY THE POLICY REFORMS RELATED TO EXAMINATION: A TELANGANA PERSPECTIVE**

**Author**: Dr.R.V.Anuradha

**Affiliation:** Life Member of CESI (No CESI/LM/325)

Assistant Professor

Department of Education

English and Foreign Languages University

HYDERABAD, ANDHRA PRADESH, INDIA

**keywords**: Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation

Summative Assessment

Formative Assessment

**Abstract:**

To trace the trajectory of the systemic policy reforms and innovations in the context of education there requires a focused attempt so as to highlight the crucial moments in the history of educational development and progress. In the perspective of the pedagogical reforms, the element of teaching/learning process has undergone a series of change. The examination reforms in India earnestly attempt to question and re-direct the sense of accountability on behalf of the policy makers and implementers who run the education system. In the policy document of 1986 and 1992, there are several highlights in the context of reorientation of the content and the process of education. Part VIII of the National Policy for Education section 8.23 mentions the importance of the evaluation process and examination reforms. It talks about assessment of performance as an integral part of the teaching/learning process. The major objectives are to re-cast the examination system so as to ensure a valid and a reliable measure in the student development and to improve the entire teaching/learning process.

And it is in this context that the concept of Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) has led to an epoch making decision in the long run examination reforms in India. CCE as a process of evaluation focuses on a holistic development of the learner. Unlike the former examination system where the learner was assessed at the end of a term, CCE emphasizes assessment as an integral part of teaching/learning process. The regular assessment not just includes scholastic

achievement but also the co-scholastic achievement of a student. The Central Board of Secondary Education, mentions CCE as an effective scheme which envisages improvement of the teaching/learning process and also to diagnose the learning gaps by providing corrective measures at the right time. The paradigm shift from examination to effective pedagogy is one of the important aspects of CCE. The following are the stated objectives of CCE.

It will reduce the stress and anxiety that is often built up in an examination system.

It will result in the higher level of learning due to timely diagnosis of learning gaps, and the remedial interventions.

It will help the learners to develop holistically in terms of all the three domains of personality.

It will enable the learners to appreciate the love for learning compared to the need for learning.

The National Policy on Education (1986) mentioned the need for internal assessment; where for the first time the term Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation was used as a basis to improve the teaching/ learning in functional terms. However its implementation in a larger context was initiated by CBSE in 2009. By the year 2012-13, CCE system has been mandatorily been implemented in many state run schools.

The SCERT in Telangana government took an active initiative to implement CCE in the government run schools. Through the initiatives of the Rajiv Vidya Mission, the Telangana state has been able to implement CCE by significantly modifying the textbooks in CCE format.

The present study is an attempt by the researcher to understand the perception of the teachers on CCE approach and also to understand the current practices and the difficulties faced by the teachers in CCE approach in Telangana State schools.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

* To understand the perception of the teachers on CCE system in the Telangana state schools.
* To understand the current practices and the difficulties faced by the teachers in CCE system in Telangana State schools.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

* Is CCE in a real time classroom environment able to achieve its objectives?
* What are the challenges faced by the teachers while implementing CCE?

The target population for the present study was secondary school teachers from Hyderabad. The sample consisted of 40 teachers from two government schools and two private schools respectively.

**Research Tools**

In the absence of a standardized tool for the present study a self constructed questionnaire was used by the researcher. The questionnaire administered to the teachers was in three sections which consisted closed-form questions.

In addition to the questionnaire, the researcher also conducted a semi-structured interview comprising of questions on the focus areas of CCE approach.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 21.0) was used to analyze the data.

**Research Findings**

The study confirmed that there is a gap in the prescribed objectives of CCE and its implementation in the real time classroom environment

Though there is a visible difference in the performance of students after the introduction of CCE, yet at the same time teachers also feel that students carry clear lack of interest in studies with the introduction of policies like ‘no detention’.

Teachers do agree to a certain extent that there is a shift from the summative to formative assessment, yet in reality they do not see much difference in between what they call formative assessment and summative.

As CCE means a process of continuous learning and assessment, it is the responsibility of the teachers to conduct a regular pattern of assessment so as to identify the learning gaps and to provide remedial measures to the students. However what happens in reality is that many a time, teachers see formative assessments as mere tests which would be counted as one of the marks so as to fit in the entire formula of CCE.

**Recommendations**

The scheme of CCE should not be an imposed system. Rather teachers should feel from within what the true ideology and the philosophy of CCE really propounds.

As suggested by one of the teachers from the government school, CCE is not meant for the learners alone; it equally means for the teachers and their continuous development.

***There should be regular appraisal programmes for the teachers.***

There should be regular workshops on better teaching/learning approaches and it should be for all the subjects.

While, designing the textbooks in the CCE model, there is huge gap as identified by the teachers both from the private and the government schools. This gap has to be filled by involving the teachers in designing the textbooks.

**Conclusion**

CCE is all about holistic development of a learner. However there is a need for introspection in real terms so as to ensure how far our teachers are trained in implementing CCE so that they will be able to provide the best of their potential too, and be the real potter and be able to mould the wet clay as a complete human. The reforms in the field of education are a continuous process. More studies and researcher need to be conducted in this area on CCE. Though CCE as a concept has widely spread like a wild fire, its true implications can only be channelized if it is effectively implemented.

**7**

**Role of Private Sector in Secondary Education**

**Author:** Manju Narula

**Affiliation:**National University of Educational Planning & Administration

**Keywords** : Secondary Education

Madhya Pradesh

Private Schools

Performance

**Introduction**

At the school level there are two types of providers of education: government and private. Private schools are partly funded by the government (aided) or entirely self-funded (un-aided). Government schools are established, funded and managed by the government. Private providers of education often step in when the government has limited resources to provide universal access to education. Some researchers are of the view that certain private providers of education dilute the quality of education due to a lack of regulatory oversight. On the other hand, some consider private involvement to be necessary to enhance investment and quality, as a result of increased competition, in secondary education there is a need to examine, “Role of Private Sector in Secondary Education”. In this context, we present an analysis of the role of the private sector in providing secondary education in India with reference to Madhya Pradesh. The paper highlights key issues with regard to private secondary education.

**8**

**Combating Child Labour Through Educational Schemes: A Study of Two Marginal Villages of West Bengal**

**Author:** Anima Mali

**Affiliation:** Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai

**Keywords**: education

Gender

Schemes

**Introduction :**

Education has been considered the most important determinants of economic development. The economic benefits of education derive not just from increases in cognitive skills, but to a far greater extent from the increase in non-cognitive abilities as reflected by changes in a person’s ideas, perceptions and attitudes. Education increases economic output and raises productivity levels. It is instrumental in earnings and reducing poverty.   
The term labour is multifaceted. The concept of labour is different in western ‘developed’ countries and in the developing or under-developed third world countries. In the later, the concept of labour is closely associated with ‘poverty’. Child participation in the labour force is a characteristic of these countries. Child labour is an exploitative practice, refers to the employment of children in any work depriving them of the joy of childhood, interference with their ability to attend regular school, thus hampering their physical and mental growth.   
Between boys and girls UNICEF finds girls are more likely to be out of school, thus engaging in either domestic chores or other labour work. Educating girls tend to be a lower priority in the rural areas, due to the limited resource of the parents.   
The main objective is to go deep into the problems to identify the factors which would explain the phenomenon.   
With the emergence of rural studies by various researchers in India, it is important to emphasize the actual picture rather than armed-chair studies. With this urge, Kumrakhali and Dhuri village of Basanti block in South 24 Parganas of West Bengal have been selected for the primary survey. These two villages are the important part of Sundarban basins, considered as the world ‘heritage’. The area is near about 84 kilometres from the metro city of Kolkata. Kumrakhali village is mostly dominated by Scheduled Castes population and Dhuri village is largely Muslim populated. The people of these villages are deprived of all facilities like health, proper infrastructure, sanitation etc. Majority of students are the first generation learner. Both the villages are considered as high girl child trafficking prone area. Kumrakhali village has lack of transport facilities whereas the condition of Dhuri village is little better as it is well connected by proper constructed roads with Kolkata (Kolkata-Basanti high way).

One Upper Primary school in Kumrakhali (Kedarnath Vidyapith) and another school in Dhuri village (Janapriya Nagar Janapriya Vidyalaya with a KGBV hostel) have been selected for the primary field survey.   
Scholarly studies show that West Bengal is a poor performer in terms of educational achievements. Secondary data show that the enrolment and actual class attendance did not coincide with each other. Due to lack of infrastructural facilities in school, low level of family income, household atmosphere, household responsibilities, family migration from one city to another, supply of girl child labour as domestic help in the metro cities, child trafficking and early marriages (10-16 years) of most of the girls’ quit their study on the mid-way of schooling.   
Apart from secondary sources of data, the researcher, through continuous staying in the field area for more than one year, collected the data by interacting with students, parents and villagers, observed classrooms, collected feedback from teachers, attended awareness programmes of Kanyashree Prakalpa, visited police station and other administrative officials (S.I.S, B.D.O, S.D.O etc.)   
It was observed that women and girls are involved with catching small prawn seeds from the river; some are also associated with zari work for extra income.   
It is also found that Labour is an integral part of migration. Migration has an impact on education. There are two types of migration which have an impact on children’s educational participation. Through the family migration children are forced to migrate with their parents discontinuing their existing participation in education. Children who are left-behind by migrant parents are coming under vulnerable situation which leads them towards drop out from schools and turn into child labour. Seasonal migration also has a key impact on schooling of children. Mostly girls schooling is ignored by families of both migrated and non-migrated families. Marriages seem to be the only solution to parents.   
Communal tension is also traceable which hamper educational participation.   
Combating child labour through educational policies is one of the aims of the government of India.

**Three schemes will be the main focus of this paper.**   
1**. Mid-Day-Meal:** In 2003, National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NPNSPE) is an initiative to improve the health of the children and increase of attendance in school at the elementary level. This is an integral part of Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (2002). It was observed enrolment has increased and MDM is one of the factors for which parents send their children including girls to the school.

2. **Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya:** Since 2007, this area has KGBV scheme which has reduced the dropout rate to some extent. This is a residential programme where students are staying within a campus adjacent to an Upper Primary school. Progress of health issue has noticeable. Through this residential scheme, the problem of distance and other social insecurities have been resolved partially. The demand of KGBV is increasing.

3. **Kanyashree Prakalpa:** Newly implemented (2013) scheme, Kanyashree is initiated by the state government of West Bengal with the aim of reducing the rate of early marriage of girl child. This is a direct cash transfer scheme for class VIII to XII. Popularity is increasing and UNICEF has also recognized this scheme as a model of progress.

This study indicates that due to the implementation of above mentioned educational schemes, a rise in the actual participation and awareness for girls’ education is traceable.

**9**

**'CONSTRUCTED DESTINIES' IN THE MARGINSREVELATIONS THROUGH CHILDREN'S NARRATIVES**

**Author**: Rashmi Kumari

**Affiliation**: Ambedkar University Delhi

**Keywords:**Childhood in the Margins

Education

Work and Changing Aspirations of children

Gender

Ideal Global Universal vs multiple childhoods

State on childhood

Prescribed and imbibed identities and destinies

Construction of Childhood

Power

**ABSTRACT :**

This paper looks at the construction of childhood in India and its perpetuation through media ,policies and families. It attempts unfolds nature of children and childhood as social construction at three interlinked surfaces- i) Structural (impact of primary sources of socialization on children) ; ii) Discursive (representation of childhood in media (commercials)); iii) Situated (children as social actors).

The analysis of these surfaces has been drawn from ten days fieldwork with children of age group 10-14 years residing and working in the slums of South Delhi. The study on which this paper is based is located in the qualitative paradigm and involved the use of the qualitative tools mostly used in sociological fieldwork– that is, observations, conversations and group discussions. However, since the work was with children, and it deals with the subjective notions, ideas, aspirations and experiences of a particular set of informants therefore elements of drawing, letter / experience writing, storytelling, participant observations and dialogue were conducted so that children’s narratives could come up from different modes. These activities focused on drawing out children’s perceptions and notions about their life and State through their experiences. Apart from this in order to draw State's implicit and explicit perspective on childhood some policies (RtE 2009, Child Labor Act 2010 , UN Conventions of Child Rights) were thoroughly reviewed.

The paper uses theoretical framework of Aries (1962) to make sense of the dichotomy of adult and child relationship where he says that "childhood" is a social construction , constructed by the adults of the society. Futhermore, Balgopalan (2008) , Huberman (2013), O'Kane (2003) Sarangpani (1997), and Sharma(2013) has worked with the working children from the margins and analysed the existence of 'multiple childhoods'. Their works focus on the diversity of the 'category' called childhood and settings from they emerge. Whereas ,Kumar(2006) and Nieuwenhueys, (1998*)* claims the universal acceptance of childhood as a protected and

privileged period of life is embedding the narratives of 'development' and welfare state. Their

works becomes a platform to interlink the 'development ' and 'childhood' and to understand how the 'image of an ideal child' affects the existence of multiple childhoods.

Moreover, this paper also draws and perceive from the theoretical perspectives of Das(2004) and Foucault (1977) in order to explore the state policies and adult-child contrariety. They asserts that the protective exclusion of children is seen as a constant operation which acts as a monopoly of the adults/power for the legitimate enforcement of the social order. Here, the relationship of children with the state and adults is much beyond the concept of margins and centre but it is exertion of disciplinary power in the name of sovereignty . Through their framework a child is seen as a bio-political body whose production is in the control of supreme power whereas childhood is visualized as a marginalized space between bodies, law and discipline.

Furthermore, this paper discuss the aspirations of the children (beneficiaries) in the margins in the context of education, development and State (benevolent). It brings focus on the daily struggles, dilemmas and challenges the children of a particular community faces in order to survive in society created by the "adults".

The paper strives to bring out the analysis into two parts. Part one deals with the conception of childhood in state policies in India and tries to perceive it from the framework of development - welfare perspective of the government . It tries to critically examine the "image of a child" which is being constructed by some national policies (Right to Education). This examination is supported by the perspectives from the narratives of the children with whom I have worked in the field. The second part of this paper portrays how children visualize their own childhood and aspirations through and engagement with their conceptions views on work , education, state and family.

Through review of literature, I have come to a point that childhood is a social construction which takes place at three overlapping surfaces. The paper unpacks these surfaces through children's voices captured through experiences/ anecdotes. This paper attempts to present the experiences into three segments. The first segment is concerned with the children's engagement with adult - child dichotomy that they experience in everyday life . The second section tries to map children's ideas and perception about "work" they perform and links these with the significance of education in their lives, the aspirations and family conditions. The third segment would discuss about how the girlhood is constructed and how their aspirations and lives are differently shaped than their counter parts (boys - of similar as well as different age groups) from the same community and the core of the society.

Furthermore, in order to understand and examine the 'official' as well as social construction of the children in India, the paper focus on how childhood is conceived in relation to the development, marginalization and deprivation. The intention of this paper is to locate "

prescribed " as well as "imbibed" destinies of children, whom the legal and social instruments aims to protect.

**Therefore, this paper pursues and struggles with the key questions like-**

1. . How is the childhood conceptualized in government policies mainly- Right to Education 2009, Child Labor Act and Conventions of Child Rights?
2. How "beneficiaries" perceive/visualize state (the benefactor) and its development framework?
3. How do experiences with adults, work and education shape their future aspirations?
4. How the children are socially and politico-economically locate in the society ?
5. In spite of the existence of multiple childhoods, what kind of image of ideal child is being created/ perpetuated?
6. How media is influencing children and constructing the notion of "ideal/worth" childhood?

This paper not only tries to analyze the above questions but it also acts as an evidence of the everyday conflicts from which the informants has go through. These conflicts are not linearly shaped but seem as overlapping and tangled webs of experiences related to the binaries of caste, class, gender, identity, aspirations, expectations, capital, work, education, development,welfare and power. Therefore, this paper envisage and diagnose the social reality of the child living in the margins of the developing state vis- a vis the image of "ideal / global child" or "universal childhood".

**Author's bio-brief**

Rashmi Kumari is a practitioner in the field of education. She has done B.El.Ed (2013) from Gargi College, Delhi University followed by M.A in Education (2015) from Ambedkar University Delhi. She has published a book review in Indian Journal of Teacher Education (2015) and is currently, pursuing M.A in Sociology from IGNOU and working as an educator in renowned private school of Delhi.

**10**

**PASSIVE MACHINES OR ACTIVE COLLABORATORS: THE PLIGHT OF TEACHERS**

**Author:** Mamta Saha

**Affilation:** Sanskriti School

**Keywords** :Teacher-motivation

Teacher-Alienation

Fulfillment

**Introduction :**

“If classrooms are to become communities of active enquiring learners, the teachers who provide the leadership and guidance in such classrooms must themselves have professional development opportunities that are also enquiry-oriented and collaborative. This means, first, that they should be encouraged to become researchers in their own classrooms, carrying out inquiries about student learning and the conditions and practices which most effectively support it. And, secondly, there must be institutional conditions which enable them to share the results of their inquiries with their colleagues in an ongoing attempt to create a better curriculum guided by collaboratively determined goals.” (Wells, 1989, p. 15)

This seems to be **Weber’s ideal type** of teaching which can be used to draw a comparative picture of the contemporary dimensions in school education.

An “ideal type” is a logically consistent **model** of social phenomena that highlights its most significant characteristics. Being a conceptual tool designed to help analysis, it is not meant to be an exact reproduction of the reality.

In this context I would like to introduce the divide between public and private schooling in India. There is a wide gap in the quality of education that either of them provides. The former is a state enterprise and is very expensive considering the results it reaps compared to the latter which at the same cost provides better learning. But an important thing to remember is that the overall quality does not vary greatly between private and public schools.

An important element that runs across the system is the position of the teacher in school education. “Contemporary education practice in India tends to view the teacher as an ‘implementing agency’ of larger interests: national interest as defined by the State; a channel of reproduction of the officially approved curriculum often via rote learning. The teacher is seen as an empty repository which will be moulded nd filled by an ‘enlightened’ and highly ‘competent’ teacher education system.” (Teacher Empowerment: The Education Entitlement–Social Transformation Traverse-Poonam Batra)

Teachers in private schools work in better conditions, with better infrastructure and

“are accountable to the manager (who can fire them), and, through him or her, to the parents(who can withdraw their children)” whereas in “government school the chain of accountability is much weaker, as teachers have a permanent job with salaries and promotions unrelated to performance”.

What does this tell us about the relation between the kind of school and teacher motivation? It definitely doesn’t leave us with clear cause-effect relation. The private school system being market driven tries to ensure state of the art infrastructure for both students and teachers; is able to at-least reach close to realising academic goals given the quality of students it receives but are not at par their colleagues in government schools in terms of their emoluments and benefits. The government school, on the other hand, gets all the benefits

and emoluments as per their service guidelines but work in very difficult conditions in terms of the school infrastructure, quality of students and compulsory involvement in non-academic tasks such as Election and Census duties.

Teaching as a vocation needs the teacher to be a critical, thinking and reflective individual who is in the profession for not just the sustenance but because s/he is passionate about the same. Teaching has the capacity to bring about profound social and personal transformation and has an immense role to play in nation-building. One has to be truly passionate to be able to bring about these changes. This needs teachers to be motivated and this motivation comes from both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors involve the personal drive and interest for a certain vocation which one takes up and strives to excel at. Extrinsic factors involve working conditions, emoluments and benefits, rewards and acknowledgement to name a few.

Here, I would like to introduce one probable analogy-is the teacher comparable to the labour working in a Taylorist set-up of an assembly line factory? Assuming that the teacher is low on motivation, a variety of factors can be attributed to this- lack of autonomy, lack of space and time for self-reflection and research. This seems very similar to the process of alienation that labour undergoes in the factory where the labour is absolutely devalued and hence absolutely replaceable.

The outcome of alienation was a revolution wherein a class in itself became a class for itself. Can we expect a revolution wherein teachers would attempt to choose and realise an identity for themselves in a highly centralising atmosphere?

The **first objective** of this paper is to find out whether teachers in private schools are satisfied with the extrinsic factors that motivate them to keep doing better in their professions. If yes, what are these factors that keeps them looking forward to the next day’s work and if not, what is it that they feel is lacking?

In private schools is it teacher motivation and involvement that leads to learning and good results or parent involvement and enough resources at home in the form of best of the reading material, an ambience for learning and studying, opportunity to join the best of coaching institutes, that create for good results and learning or is it a combination of both? The **second objective** of this paper is to find out, given a good learning environment and best of resources, if the teacher is at all a change maker; is the teacher as a seat of knowledge completely redundant in what s/he does?

The **third objective** of this study is to find out the extent of teacher agency to bring about a change in their identity and position in this vocation.

My contention is that teaching, though a profession is a very personal enterprise. What I mean is that apart from the systemic norms and regulations which are universally applicable to all actors in a particular system, the very act of teaching in a classroom is a very personal experience. Every teacher has a unique relation with his/her pupils and designs his/her classes keeping this in mind. There is nothing universal about the actual act of teaching in a classroom. This also ensures a far better quality of interaction and knowledge exchange.

But, lack of intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation lead to making this profession a very mechanical enterprise which is neither rich in content imparted nor with regard to personal fulfilment.

**Methodology**

Data for this study will be collected by conducting unstructured in-depth interviews with approximately 20 teachers of private schools in South Delhi. The interviews will be recorded verbatim and transcribed for analysis.

**11**

**Is diploma disease at its zenith? Reflections on diploma disease in Indian context**

**Author**: Vijitha Rajan

**Affiliation:**Central Institute of Education, Delhi University

**Keywords:** Diploma Disease

Modernization and Education

Educated Unemployment

**Introduction:**

Ronald Dore in his book, “The Diploma Disease. Education, Qualification and

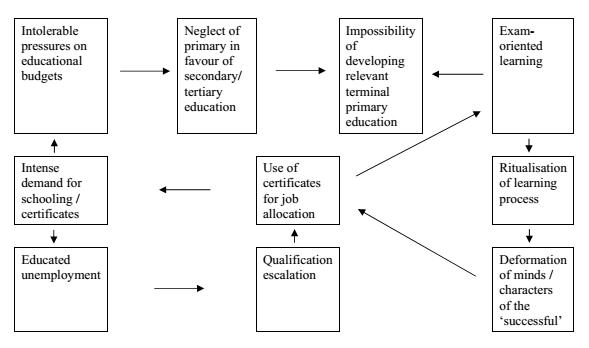
Development” (1976), explained how ‘much of schooling’ has become ‘qualification earning’ and ‘anti-educational’. Schooling has become ritualistic, tedious, boring and destructive of curiosity and imagination. This was a long run impact of the shift in emphasis of physical capital to human capital in the second half of nineteenth century. Developing countries were furious to catch up in the modernization race in which developed countries were far ahead. Meeting the demands of modern expertise became the key concern of developing countries and the advice bank of developed countries had in plenty to offer.

Schools and universities played in the race, the role of ‘immigration service’ to modern sector. This correspondence between qualification and modern sector job had reached even the primary school, such that the entire pyramid of schooling became addicted to

‘diploma disease’. The disease resulted in qualification escalation and educational inflation.

The more certificates you have, the more are you valued in the modern sector. Excess of educated unemployed has decreased the value of certificate. Paradoxically, the more the disease became severe, the demand for schooling facilities and pressure on government increased.

Dore summarizes his arguments as depicted in the figure below:



There is something more to the diploma disease that Dore explores in his book. According to Dore, the later the point in the world history that a country starts on a modernization drive,



the more widely jobs depend on qualifications



the faster the rate of qualification inflation/faster the growth of school enrollments/slower the rate of modern sector jobs



the more schooling equals exam taking

Dore demonstrates his arguments by analyzing the rise and spread of diploma disease in four different countries that started modernization drive in different points of history: Britain, Japan, Sri Lanka and Kenya. He shows that certificates counted for more in Sri

Lanka in 1950’s than Japan in 1910’s and more for Kenya in 1960’s than for Sri Lanka in 1950’s. This was primarily due to the need of late developer to catch up fast by importing knowledge and skills in formal educational packages. Government played a lead role in this process partly due to the democratic and moral duty of state to provide education. Schools operate on the meritocratic ideal of equality of opportunity are the only channels of modern sector jobs and thus of social mobility. The increasing dualism between modern and traditional sector accelerated the whole process.

One can see similar anxieties echoing in ‘The overeducated American’ (1972) by Richard Freeman, ‘The Credential society: an historical sociology of education and stratification’ (1979) by Randal Collins, ‘Education and Jobs: The Great Training

Robbery’(1970) by  [Ivar Berg](https://www.google.co.in/search?tbo=p&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Ivar+Berg%22) and  [Sherry Gorelick.](https://www.google.co.in/search?tbo=p&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Sherry+Gorelick%22) How valid are the arguments for Dore’s ‘diploma disease’? What is the relevance of Dore’s arguments in contemporary society? How much is it applicable in Indian context? These questions takes me back to a more fundamental question that Murray Milner raised in his book, ‘The illusion of inequality’ way back in 1972. Can we build a more equal and just society by expanding opportunities for education?.

The discourse of diploma disease has bought in a negative connotation for increasing access to education through the term ‘overeducation’ (which I find quite bizarre). In a more philosophical and fundamental sense, what could be defined as ‘overeducation’? If an educated person is unemployed, does that make her overeducated? Even if one technically calls it overeducation, is overeducation the root cause of diploma disease and educated unemployment? Is it because the quality of our schools has so deteriorated to the extent that it

has become meaningless? Is it because there is a mismatch between the so called workforce our schools and colleges supply and what market demands? Or is it because our job market has started stagnating?

Another critical question to pose is why this diploma disease more severe in developing countries than developed countries? Is it only because their accelerated drive towards modernization? How are the developing economies placed in relationship to the developed economies? The social and economic framework within which the problems of unemployment, over-education, and underutilization of educated manpower take place in underdeveloped countries is conditioned by the structural relations of dependence of their economies to the economies of the developed countries ( Irizarry, 1980). As he rightly points out,

“… the pattern of industrialization in the dependent economy,with relatively scarce employment opportunities in industry and agriculture and

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| with | an | excessively developed | services sector - where the modern |
| types | of | jobs that ensure social | mobility are concentrated but which are |

still few in relation to the educated labor force - presses the young to scramble for higher educational credentials to improve their chances of getting these jobs. This results in an extended prolongation of schooling that is not warranted by the average skill requirements of the occupational structure” (p.349)

The decisions of the state on education are further influenced by the global market demands. Madan (2012) discusses how the accountability framework proposed by the World Bank compels education towards a technical rational approach. The philosophy of education propagated by such organizations is more leaned towards a human capital view of education. The global surveillance and control has made curriculum and the lives of teachers more mechanized. The belief in ‘Diploma disease’ that a "good education" will resolve the economic problems faced by developing countries (Lee & Ninnes, 1995) is also part of a global agenda. Education has in fact perpetuated inequalities in many countries. Thus one cannot ignore the political economy of education in understanding the issue of diploma disease.

While these are important questions to be reflected upon, what is even more appalling is the way in which this leads the state to employ anti-educational decisions. Does the

problem of certificate devaluation, qualification escalation and unemployment mean that the country should not invest in education? Or should it lead to the neo-liberal agenda of privatization and making education costly? How does one handle the debate of efficiency-equity trade off in this neo-liberal discourse? How do reducing educational subsidies impact people’ aspirations for social mobility and reproduction of inequality?

These problems arise not just due to diploma disease, but due to more fundamental issue of conceptualizing education primarily as a means of economic production. The human capital view of education considers it as an investment that can reap benefits, as good as or even better than that of physical capital. Amartya Sen in his capability argues how education plays a key role in the notion of development as ‘freedom’. Education develops capabilities rather than the narrowly constructed ideal of economic production. Education for transformation and knowledge is undermined by letting it vulnerable to the neoliberal agenda.

In this paper I would like to reflect upon some of these questions that the idea of

‘diploma disease’ compels us pose. I would also try to reflect on the relevance of ‘diploma disease’ in current Indian context and its implications for how education is conceptualised and operationalised.

**References**

Berg, I. (1970). Education for Jobs; The Great Training Robbery.

Collins, R. (1979). *The credential society: An historical sociology of education andstratification* (pp. 131-131). New York: Academic Press.

Dore, R. (1976). The Diploma Disease. Education, Qualification and Development. Freeman, R. (1976). The overeducated American.

Irizarry, R. L. (1980). Overeducation and unemployment in the third world: The paradoxes of dependent industrialization. *Comparative Education Review*, 338-352.

Lee, Y., & Ninnes, P. (1995). A Multilevel Global and Cultural Critique of the" Diploma Disease". *Comparative Education Review*, 39(2), 169-177.

Madan, A. (2012). Making Schools Work. *Journal of Educational Planning andAdministration*, 26(4), 591-602.

Milner, M. (1972). *The illusion of equality: the effect of education on opportunity, inequality,*

*and social conflict*. Jossey-Bass

**12**

**Cawnpore Agriculture College and Institutionalization of Agriculture Education in Colonial India**

**Author:**Prakrati Bhargava

**Affiliation:** Central University of Himachal Pradesh

**Keywords** : Agricultural education

Cawnpore Agricultural College

Agricultural development in colonial India

**Introduction :**

The development of science and technology in the west in Nineteenth Century not merely shaped the economic, political and social life of mankind, but also created an environment whereby new forms of knowledge production came into centre stage for the development of society. Knowledge, whether in the realm of science or society came out from the confines of religious seminaries and aristocracy to the laboratories, universities, industry and the like, which gradually open up new opportunities for common masses. Science was not only producing new technologies on which modern industries were erected, but the conventional form of production like agriculture were also transformed resulting into drastic changes in agricultural practices, marked by shift from subsistence production to cash cropping, from organic manure to synthetic fertilizer, from mass selection to plant breeding, which unfolds the story of human victory over nature. The scientific development of agriculture and new agricultural practices felt the need for disseminating this knowledge, which paved the way for institutionalization of agricultural education. This became more significant when it took place under the subjugation of colonial empire, which had little knowledge of agriculture, practiced in their respective colonies, and whose prime concern was maximization of profit through agriculture.   
  
Science influences the society unconsciously and indirectly through the technical changes it brings about and directly and consciously through the forces of its ideas. The acceptance of the ideas of science carries with it an implicit criticism of present state of man and opens the possibility of indefinite improvement. Thus the most important influence of science according to Bernal is inexorable influence on production methods. The advent of industrialization in Europe demanded huge quantities of commercial crops like cotton, indigo, jute, sugarcane and the like, thus it became pre-requisite to produce these products in bulk for uninterrupted supply of raw material for the modern industries.   
  
The infusion of material importance of plants established as a distinct science referred as Economic Botany. By the turn of the eighteenth century Economic Botany had emerged as official science for colonial empire for collecting and classifying world’s plant and growing them in favourable environment for economic benefit. Mass culture, pedigree culture and then plant breeding through hybridization developed better variety of plant crop in specific ecological zone. Consequently by the mid nineteenth century experimental farm had emerged as field for carrying out new experiments. Thus Botanical gardens were endowed with experiment farm for studying specific crops at a time through various disciplines i.e. plant genetics, physiology, pathology, entomology, chemistry and soil science.   
  
However, the taxonomy of plants would not lead to a great advantage until and unless the ecology and physiology of plant is determined. Therefore, by the mid nineteenth century it was on the chemical side rather than on the biological and mechanical side, where science made most effective contribution to agriculture. The pneumatic revolution in chemistry beginning with Priestley and culminating to Lavoisier, had explained the energy dynamics of living organisms. However, this could not bring any breakthrough in agriculture production. Meanwhile, by the first half of the nineteenth century Von Liebig‘s classical investigation conducted at the request of British Association and compiled in his report “Chemistry and its Application to Agriculture and Physiology” explained the division of living tissue and classification of foods into carbohydrate, fats and albuminoids (protein), this resulted into the application of chemistry for agricultural production. The revelation of constitution of bio-molecules of plants helped in understanding the composition of plant nutrients which can be artificially substituted in the soil for agricultural production. John Lower (1814-1900) a gentleman of scientific taste turned his estate at Rothamsted, England into first agricultural research laboratory where he experimented with nitrate, phosphorous and potash from various sources as substitute from farmyard manure and even erect factories to produce them. These scientific efforts crystallized into fertilizer industry by the late nineteenth century.   
  
Thus it was universally accepted that the application of science has the potential to improve the agricultural condition of any country. Back in British India, farming was construed as an enterprise and agriculture as a subject defined by input-output accounting. Expert used research stations, statistics and scientific techniques with claim to universal validity to forge hegemony. Ludden identifies that codification of agricultural knowledge for European plantation enterprise resulted into agriculture power/knowledge relationship. The state no longer simply told European about farming in India, it became expert in Indian Agriculture and in doing so defined the style and substance of modern agricultural expertise.   
  
The triple engagement between science, cash cropping and agriculture education become harbinger for modernization and commercialization of agriculture in western world. Agriculture education became apostle for disseminating new knowledge developed in experimental farm and research station among farmers. Contrastingly, no uniform model for agriculture education was developed in western world i.e. France had developed a very elaborate system of the agricultural education; starting from primary to the higher level, in Britain Agricultural education was under private hands until the turn of the nineteenth century and in the United States a unique model of agricultural education in the form of Land Grant Universities was adopted. Reflecting on the complex nature of agricultural education that emerged in the second half of the nineteenth century in Europe and America, it became more complex and arbitrary to organize agricultural education under the colonial rule in India. Moreover, the question of imparting agriculture education was not merely shaped by colonialism but an internal dynamics of agricultural education and colonizers experience of native’s agricultural practices and various forms of resources that could be invested. An analysis of internal tensions within the ruling classes in a colonial context and treating metropolis and colony as a single analytical field throws light on the fluid nature of relationship between colonizers and colonized.   
  
The study is based on the development of agriculture education in South Asia by closely examining the events which took place in the establishment of Cawnpore Agricultural College, Kanpur (Cawnpore), United Provinces, India in the early twentieth century. The fertile region of Ganga-Yamuna Doab proved to be the most promising region with regard to cash cropping and revenue administration in Northern India. In the fertile region of Doab, Kanpur is located, where Ganga and Yamuna forms the north and south boundaries of the city. Proximity to Oudh and Allahabad, transport and communication through waterways and Grant Trunk Road made Kanpur the idea locale for East India Company Army troops in 1778 to establish their army camp, and thus by the turn of the 18th century Kanpur became the largest cantonment in Northern India. The district was extensively engaged in the trade and commerce of cash crops i.e. cotton, indigo, opium etc. from the early decades of the nineteenth century and subsequently started cultivating the same. The intensive agricultural involvement of company and the crown after 1857, crystallized into the establishment of Cawnpore Experimental Farm in 1874. Subsequently the extensive revenue administration throughout the province demanded the training of revenue officials. Thus an Agricultural School was established in the district in 1893 for training revenue officials and imparting agricultural instruction. Meanwhile, British India underwent most dreadful famine and unsatisfactory condition of agricultural production in the turn of the 19th century; this forced the colonial government to relook its economic policies. Science was perceived as panacea for all social and economic problems in agriculture and Viceroy Curzon move a head in 1905 to establish Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa and in the provinces agricultural colleges were either upgraded or established in Nagpur, Coimbatore, Kanpur, Lyallpur, Poona. Cawnpore Agricultural School was accordingly upgraded to Cawnpore Agricultural College. Under this backdrop the paper seeks to put forth following question: What were the factors that led to the organization of Agriculture education in Kanpur? What was the epistemological and pedagogical nature of agricultural education in this college? What was the impact of agricultural college on the improvement of provincial agriculture?   
  
  
The present paper is divided into three sections under which the emergence of this college, followed by the nature and characteristic agriculture education instituted by colonial government, by taking into consideration major shifts that took place in this college with the passage of time, and the last section will analyze the significance and contribution of this college in the field of agricultural development in the province. The researcher has explored the proceedings of Agriculture Department of the imperial and provincial government, monographs by the officials of the Agriculture Department, Gazetteers and Reports of various conferences organized by Board of Agriculture. A narrative should be built from varied events that develop around the institutionalization of Agriculture education with the establishment of Cawnpore Agricultural College. A substantial secondary literature has been explored in the realm of science, technology and society, economic history and imperialism and colonialism in India to understand the underpinning reality of colonial policies with regard to agricultural education.

13

**Choice of schooling and incidence of dropouts: An explorative study in India and educationally vulnerable states.**

**Name:**Moumita Ghosh

**Affiliation:** Department of Economics, University of Calcutta

**Keywords**: Child dropouts,Adolescent dropouts,

Choice of school,

Demand side factors of schooling decisions

**Abstracts** :

Education is an essential parameter in explaining the economic and social well-being of an individual, which is directly allied to the nation’s human capital formation. Benefits of education not only accrue to individuals but also to the society as a whole. Hence, investment in education is essential at macro, as well as micro level. Various public policies are adapted at national and state level to increase the status of educational attainment in the country. Though, such strategies have achieved success to some extent, the phenomenon of discontinuing education or dropping out from school has remained a serious concern for the policy makers. Merely getting enrolled in the school and not completing education up to a particular threshold level do not help in achieving the desired returns from the investment in education. Hence, it is imperative to identify the reasons behind drop outs, especially for the children and the adolescents, pertaining to different age groups and hence different educational levels. Both demand and supply side factors contribute in elucidating the never enrolled or drop out behaviour. Demand side factors include household and individual level, parental and socioeconomic characteristics that influence the level of educational attainment whereas supply side aspects take into account school related factors like access to nearest school, school infrastructure, availability of teachers, quality of teaching etc. However, choice of school itself is determined on household level characteristics and hence a joint estimation method is necessary to identify the reasons behind such drop out behaviours.

Objective of the study: Given this backdrop, the present paper explores the NSSO 71st Education round data to capture the incidence of child and adolescent drop outs across the Indian states concentrating mainly on the demand side factors. Child dropout (CD) is defined as drop out from school between the ages of 5 to 12 years, pertaining to children attending primary or upper primary schools. This period serves as the foundational stage for a child’s educational accomplishment and drop out at this level deprives a child from the elementary educational attainment. On the other hand, Adolescent dropout (AD) is defined as drop out from school between the ages of 13 to 18 years pertaining to attending secondary or higher secondary schools. This stage of education equips a person with primary skills so that he/she could have access to wide range of opportunities while exploring the job market shapes both physical and mental development for adolescents. Hence, discontinuing education at this stage could have far reaching effect on economic, psychological and health conditions of an individual.

The prime objectives of the study is hence to investigate the extent of child and adolescent dropouts for India and across the vulnerable states based on household characteristics and choice of school behind child and adolescent dropouts.

Data source and methodology: Data exploration and econometric modelling are used to bring out the drop out behaviour of an individual. Based on the descriptive analysis, it is observed that West Bengal has the highest share of male CD (13.74%) and Gujarat has the highest share of female CD (16.02%). Gujarat also recorded the highest share of CD considering male and female together (12.78%). Similarly, male AD is highest in Orissa (28.66%) and female AD is highest in Karnataka (30.66%). Karnataka also has the highest share of AD considering male and female together (28.77%). Hence, it is crucial to provide detailed exploration of the dropout condition of these vulnerable states. To recognise the reasons behind child drop out and adolescent drop out, bi-variate probit model is used. Bi-variate regression is commonly used in health economics to estimate the eﬀect of a treatment on a binary health outcome. In the context of the present study, literature suggests two types of determinants of Child dropout (CD) and Adolescent dropout (AD): Household & Individual characteristics and school level factors. Within the first set, location, economic and social status, educational standard of household head, main occupation of the household, student’s gender etc. are considered. Within the second set, the access to primary/upper primary or secondary schools and the ownership of the school last attended or currently attending (public/ private) are considered. The last one itself depends on a set of household and parental factors. To handle the jointly distributed error terms, a bi-variate probit model is considered while jointly estimating two equations.

School type = f (household and individual characteristics)…………… (1)

CD or AD = f (household and individual characteristics)……………... (2)

The first dependent variable choice of institution has two categories: 0 as private schools and 1 as government schools. The second dependent variable status of CD/AD again has two categories: 0 as not a CD/AD and 1 as CD/AD. Marginal effects are calculated by keeping other variables fixed at their respective means.

Results:

1. For the nation as a whole, the study posits that 8.56% of students drop out at the age group of 5 to 12 years and termed as CD whereas 21.93% of students drop out at the adolescent age group, i.e. from 13 to 18 years. The descriptive statistics at the national level depicts that share of CD and AD is higher for female than male counterparts. The bi-variate probit regression shows that female are more likely to get enrolled in government schools and probability of CD and AD is higher for females as compared to males. Separate regression analysis for the state West Bengal, however, shows that gender is not a significant factor in explaining CD though it is significant in determining AD.

2. Regression results also posit that at national level, while students in rural areas are more likely to go to government schools, CD or AD are more likely to occur in urban areas.

3. Muslims have highest share of CD and AD among religion groups for India as a whole. While looking at the vulnerable states, it could be seen that share of CD and AD is highest for Hindu religious group in Gujarat and Orissa. Regression results find that Muslims are more likely to enrol in government schools and are prone to both CD and AD compared to Hindus.

4. Schedule tribes constitute the highest share of CD among social caste groups whereas, AD is the highest for Schedule caste. Regression shows that ethnic caste though has come significant in determining choice of school, CD and AD for all India sample; but it is not significant in determining AD across the vulnerable states though it continues to determine the choice of school.

5. Share of CD is the highest for the poorest class and share of AD is the highest for the lower middle class for India as a whole. Same condition prevails across the vulnerable states except Gujarat where share of AD is the highest for upper middle class. The regression results show that as Monthly Per Capita Expenditure which is the proxy variable for income, increases, students are more likely to enrol in private schools and the possibility of CD or AD drops.

6. Occupational type of the household plays an important role in understanding drop out problem. Share of CD is highest if the household is involved in casual labour in agriculture and share of AD is highest if it is casual labour in non-agriculture. Thus being casual labour as main occupation of the household plays a detrimental role in educational attainment of an individual. This point could be backed by the regression results also. Household’s occupation type self-employed in non-agriculture or regular salaried have negative association with AD in the states Gujarat and West Bengal.

7. Access to upper primary schools in case of CD and to secondary schools for AD indicated a positive association with CD or AD when the distance from the nearest upper primary or secondary school is especially more than 2 kms. But the result is not always significant for all sample groups and across vulnerable states, thus explaining the fact that physical access to school does not always reduce drop outs at various levels.

8. Education of the household head (especially secondary level and above) has a strong impact on educational achievement of the individual belonging to that family. As the educational level of the household head increases, the student is less likely to go to government schools and the chances of CD and AD falls.

9. Reasons of CD and AD as reported by the households show that economic activities for male and domestic chores for female are the major reasons for dropping out from schools. West Bengal reflects an alarming situation of 30.5% of the girls are dropping out from school at adolescent stage due to marriage.

10. To capture the reasons behind different behaviour with respect to dropouts among the Muslims, separate regression equations are estimated only for them. However, the determining factors emerge to be grossly similar to the Hindu sample and all India sample. Keeping all possible variables in control (poverty, education of household head, distance to nearest secondary and primary schools) in the all India regression, religion turns out to be a significant factor in choice of educational status, thus hinting towards a specific social gradient to educational choice in India. There might be some differences in expected returns from education among various social and religious group.

Hence, it could be concluded that generalising the drop out behaviour and just increasing availability to school would not be the appropriate way to address the drop out problem. Interaction of various dynamics should be decomposed and judged to capture the factual nature of the drop out behaviour.

**14**

**Analyzing educational experiences of communities living close to the Deonar dumping ground from a transformative science education perspective**

**Name**: Himanshu Srivastava,Tuba Khan,Aswathy Raveendran

**Affiliation:**Homi Bhabha Centre for Science Education

**Keywords:** science education,

transformative education,

social justice,

critical scientific literacy

**Abstracts :**

The M(East) ward in Mumbai is a refuge for several thousand families migrating to the city from northern states in the country. The infrastructural facilities in the area reflect how neglected the ward is. The Human Development Index of the ward is 0.05 and it is the lowest of all the wards in the city. A survey report prepared by the M-ward project of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences claims that the ward is “an extreme example of skewed development in the metropolis, with virtually all indicators showing an urgent need for action that is multidimensional, comprehensive and strategic to serve its burgeoning population” (TISS, 2015).

One of the largest dumping sites, commonly known as Deonar dumping ground, is situated in this ward. Every day, thousands of trucks deposit half the garbage that the city produces here and most of it is picked by waste-pickers (mostly, women and young children), and sold back to the recycling industry.

The area close to the dumping ground is a densely populated area with several families dependent on waste for their livelihoods. Poor hygienic conditions, lack of nutrition, lack of access to hospitals, contaminated water and polluted air characterize the area. As a consequence, the health of the community is heavily compromised. The average age of a person living in this ward is a mere 39.4 years (MCGM, 2009). It's perhaps not a coincidence that the area is mostly inhabited by Muslims and Dalits, who bear the brunt of social and political marginalization at multiple levels in this country.

After interacting with this community for about a year, the questions we ponder upon in this paper are the following: 1) From a social justice perspective, what kind of science education do we envisage for the adolescents (14-16 years old) of the community? 2) What kind of educational experience do adolescents get as part of their formal science education?

We examine these questions in the context of two topics - waste and health, that are covered in class 9 science textbook of Maharashtra state board. To answer the second question, we observed classes of four science teachers when they taught the relevant chapters. These teachers were subsequently interviewed to elicit their understanding of the subject matter, and their value commitments. The two chapters were also analyzed critically.

Transformative Education for the M(East) Ward

Paulo Freire argues that education should be seen as a tool for social transformation, emancipation and humanization of people (Freire, 1972). These ideas resonate in the writings of a few Indian reformers like Ambedkar and Phule who advocate for social justice and equity in education especially for the downtrodden. In the context of this discussion, we wonder what could transformative education mean for a socially and politically marginalized community living close to the Deonar dumping ground.

The way we envisage it, transformation of the community could be seen as the reclamation of dignity by the community, where they start perceiving themselves as equal to the rest of the society. They are able to realize their true potential and exercise their ‘freedom’ (Sen, 2003). Their constitutional rights are assured and they get access to basic amenities. Transformative education, therefore, needs to empower students and prepare them to achieve these goals.

The goals of transformative education are also being pursued by a small section of the science education community which believes that science education cannot limit its role to teaching the 'products' and 'processes' of science, and argues that it is not enough to prepare students to cope with the demands of the changing world. Students also need to learn to question the logic of the existing system and work toward changing the world into a more equal and just space (Hodson, 2011). These scholars advocate for inculcating 'Critical Scientific Literacy' (CSL). They argue for politicizing the curriculum around the ideology of social reconstruction. The underlying objective is that students develop a systemic perspective, commit themselves to the issues of social and environmental justice, and take appropriate socio-political action (Dos Santos, 2009; Hodson, 2003).

One way by which CSL can be implemented is by engaging students with locally relevant issues as they provide a meaningful context closer to the lived experiences of the community and render possibilities of action. With reference to the M(East) ward, the dumping ground and the problems that arise because of it, afford a useful context for inculcating CSL.

The concept of waste is intrinsically linked to the technoscientific model of development, profit-oriented economy, and the resultant consumption patterns in society. Inadequate waste management can have serious impact on people’s health who live close to a dumping site, or work directly with waste. Besides, in the Indian context, the issue of waste management is more complicated as people's caste identity plays a crucial role in determining who will engage in sanitation work in society. The actual handling of filthy, toxic and dirtiest form of waste is imposed on Dalits even today.

In a pedagogical context, unraveling the idea of waste to the students could start from analyzing the life cycle of materials to discussions on scientific understanding of materials and their recycling; testing of water and air; common diseases and their connection with hygiene and malnutrition; and the sociology and political economy of waste.

From a CSL perspective, we analyze the nature of educational experience of students belonging to this community - whether the socio-political dimensions related to waste and health are explored while teaching these topics, whether students' experiences, questions and concerns get any space in classroom discussions, and whether students are encouraged to critically reflect on their living conditions.

To understand the nature of classroom discourse, as mentioned, we carried out classroom observations of four teachers. Their classes were audio/video recorded depending on the nature of the permission in their respective schools. We also took detailed notes when the classes were being conducted.

We have employed the Bernsteinian framework to analyze classroom discourse (Bernstein, 1971). In our analysis, we find that there is a 'strong' boundary between the textbook knowledge and the community-based experiential knowledge and the students are not encouraged to share their experiences related to the dumping ground or the health problems that their families were facing. Teachers’ pedagogical practices reflect a complete disregard of the lived reality of the community.

The textbook seems to address the concerns of only a typical middle class urban child. The chapter on waste management adopts a managerial approach and remains silent on the socio-political dimensions related to the topic. We observe that very obvious links between waste management and health are ignored and the two topics are presented in an insulated manner which is a characteristic of 'strong classification' (Bernstein, 1971). In the paper, we will present examples from our fieldwork to illustrate these tendencies.

Finally, we argue that working with the urban poor who live near dumping sites and who experience the worst kind of marginalization, can enlighten the research community about the deep interconnections of waste, development, environment, and health and hygiene. For communities that live close to these sites, the experience of waste is unique as it is a part of their lived reality as opposed to that of the middle class whose engagement with waste begins and ends with dropping trash in designated bins. Analyzing the situation from the standpoint of these communities, one can get deeper insights, and perhaps a stronger model of CSL will emerge that could help chart the way toward social transformation.

Based on the preliminary analysis of the data, we feel that by not including concerns and questions of these students, by deliberately silencing their voices in the textbooks and classrooms, the current educational experience is not playing an empowering role for the students. Taking this work forward, we aim to design an alternative educational experience in line with the goals of critical scientific literacy with the help of a few organizations and trade unions who are keen on this kind of politicization of education.

***References***

*Bernstein, B. (1971). On the classification and framing of educational knowledge. In Young, M. F. (Ed.), Knowledge and control (pp. 47-69). London: McMillan.*

*Dos Santos, W. L. (2009). Scientific literacy: A Freirean perspective as a radical view of humanistic science education. Science Education, 93(2), 361-382.*

*Freire, P. (1972). Pedagogy of the Oppressed: Transl. by Myra Bergman Ramos. Herder and Herder.*

*Hodson, D. (2003). Time for action: Science education for an alternative future. International Journal of Science Education, 25(6), 645-670.*

*Hodson, D. (2011). Looking to the Future. Springer Science & Business Media.*

*Maharashtra State Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education (MSBSHSE). (2010). Science and Technology: Standard IX. Pune.*

*Municipal Corporation of Greater Mumbai (MCGM). (2009). Mumbai: Human Development Report 2009. New Delhi: India. Oxford University Press.*

*Sen, A. (2003). Development as capability expansion. Readings in human development, 3-16.*

*Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS). (2015). Social Economic Conditions and Vulnerabilities: A report of the baseline survey of M(East) ward, Mumbai. Mumbai: India.*

**15**

**School Violence as a Concern of Present Education System**

**Author:** Shweta Shandilya **,** Deepa Mehta

**Affiliation:** Postdoctoral Fellow, School of Education and Training,

.Maulana Azad National Urdu University

, Hyderabad -32

**Keywords:** Violence is present in our school system.

school personnel are main perpetrators of Physical and psychological Violence.

sexual violence should also be main concern of school as students have experienced sexual harassment in school periphery.

**Introduction :**

Providing a congenial and healthy school environment is one of the primary goals that any society of the world is trying to achieve. Therefore, all positive efforts are being done to provide a healthy and peaceful school experience to all students irrespective of their gender, caste, creed, religion etc. Violence in any form within the school should be treated with utmost priority as it is the biggest threat for the mental health of prospective citizens. Therefore, it is needed to investigate and explore if violence in any form and of any nature exists within our school premises. In such conceptual base, present study explores the nature and status of violence under physical, psychological and sexual dimensions which are prevalent in higher secondary schools.

The main perpetrators of all these three kinds of school violent behavior were also identified along with places and prominent time frames of violence occurrence. These physical, psychological, and sexual school violent behavior were also studied with respect to personal and demographic variables (gender, grade, stream of study, board of school, funding agency of school, category, habitat, type of family, number of siblings, monthly income of family, father’s occupation, mother’s occupation, father’s education, mother’s education) of higher secondary students.

Present study was conducted by descriptive survey method using quantitative approach. Sample was selected by random cluster sampling technique and 1172 students were made available overall. Data was collected from these 1172 higher secondary students. Out of these 1172 respondents, 1155 respondents had filled the tool appropriately, thus the final sample of the study was 1155. Self constructed inventory named ‘School Violence Inventory’ was used to assess the status and nature of school violence prominent at higher secondary stage. The reliability and validity of the tool was also established which was found to be sufficiently high. Data was analyzed by applying descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistical techniques were applied for finding out the percentage occurrence of different kinds of physical, psychological and sexual violence which are taking place in school. Main perpetrator, prominent place and time frame were also identified by percentage analysis. Inferential statistics was used to assessing significant difference among higher secondary

students in their experiences of physical, psychological and sexual violence with respect to the personal and demographic variables. Parametric inferential technique was applied because the data followed NPC. ANOVA followed by t test (wherever needed) was applied for studying significant difference among groups.

The findings of the study suggest that in case of physical violence (Item no. 3-12), 0.5 to 6.4 % students have experienced this kind of violence many times whereas 0.5 to 1.8 % students have experienced it sometimes and 8.2 to 39.7% students have experienced it occasionally. With respect to psychological violence (Item no. 13-21), 6.3-9.2% students were the victim of this kind of violence many times whereas 1.0-2.5% students experienced this type of violence sometimes and 6.8-37.7% students said that they have experienced this occasionally in school. In case of sexual violence (Item no. 22-31), 0.4-5.5% students have reported that they have gone through different kinds of sexual violence many times. 0.3-1.4 % students have said that they have experienced it sometimes whereas 3.2 -22.3 % students have said that it happened with them occasionally. Prominent physical violent behavior were found to be pushing or puling most in their schools followed by sticking, slapping and hair pulling whereas embarrassment due to being shouted was most prominent psychological violence experienced by students and in case of sexual violence, offensive remarks for appearance, body and dressing were most prominent violent behavior reported by victim group.

School personnel especially teachers were to be the main perpetrators of physical and psychological violence and significant others who are not related to school are the main perpetrators of sexual violence.

The way for the school was found to be most prominent place for violence occurrence followed by classroom itself where students fall victim of violence by teachers and classmates.

The time after school when students return to their home from school was found to be the most suitable time for perpetrator to impose violence on victim followed by class time.

No significant difference was found in experience of physical, psychological, and sexual violence among higher secondary students with respect to their gender, grade, category, monthly income of family, number of siblings and father’s occupation but these experiences were differed with their stream of study, habitat, mother’s occupation, family type, father’s education and mother’s education.

The finding yielded the conclusion that an average number of students have experienced physical and psychological school violence whereas about 30% students have experienced

sexual violence. This is an alarming situation. The main concern appeared in this study that teachers are the main perpetrators of physical and psychological violence for which immediate action is needed. Students are also need to be protected on the way to their schools because the findings of the study suggest that they face harassment in the school premise, particularly going to or returning from school. Classroom was also found a prominent place for violent behavior.

To sum up, the present study was an attempt to highlight the threatening situation of our higher secondary schools that needs sensible immediate action. The present study explored the nature and status of violent behavior prominent in school premises. The findings of the study can be proved helpful in the proper remediation of violent acts prevalent in schools. The study also highlighted the issue that only teachers are not responsible for the welfare of students. Parents as well as society will have to come forward to curb this evil. As average numbers of students have stated that they face sexual harassment in their home by their relatives or on the way to school by co passers. These both situations are out of control of school system. In this regard, it becomes the responsibility of family, society and police to protect the victim and take the strict action against the perpetrator. The findings of the study also suggested the role of parental occupation, education, habitat of students for violence. These issues should also be looked upon for making of violence free society where everyone will feel safe and prosper to the fullest. In this, way the present work is a small attempt to highlight the alarming condition of higher secondary schools which is a high concern of society.

**16**

**Educational Negotiation in the Economics Curriculum of the**

**School Education**

**Author :** Jaya Singh

**Affiliation :** NCERT

**Keywords** : Educational Negotiation

Economics Curriculum

Teacher

**Introduction :**

Economics is a popular subject among the learners at higher secondary stage. The relevance and popularity of the subject rest with the fact that one can see the application of fundamental principles in everyday lives. Newspaper headlines often include discussion on topics like price rise, economic growth and stock exchange. The Subject, thus, is sought by three streams of learners, i.e humanities, science and commerce. The demand for the subject arose for its effectiveness in translating complex real world situations into simple models. It also suggests measures to solve the problems faced by the individuals or the nations.

The paper will include author’s experience while engaging in the empirical research conducted in the field of economics curriculum. As per the recommendation of NCF 2005, economics has been introduced to the learners since class VI in the textbook entitled ‘Social and Political life’. There are two books in economics for the learners at the secondary stage. At the higher secondary stage, there are four books in economics i.e Statistics for Economics, Indian Economics, Introductory microeconomics and Introductory Macroeconomics. Economic education had to respond to the debates like raising the standard of the content. It was also discussed whether there should be use of mathematics while explaining the content. *There is struggle amongrecontextualisers for ownership of construction of the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of pedagogic discourse by ideological screening of new knowledge.*

Curriculum negotiation regarding the introduction of the subject has been evident from the discussion of the economist like Lord Robins and Education philosopher Hirst. Lord Robins in his presidential address in the London school of Economics held that economics is the subject for the adults. The children would find difficult to understandthe subject. He believed that subject included the functioning of real world and was difficult to comprehend its assumption by children.

Education philosopher such as Hirst argued for inclusion of economics in the school curriculum as he *believed that the subject had concepts, adistinct logical structure arising from a unique conceptual framework within which experience can be understood in its own distinct methodology, which made it unique among other social sciences*. As such, the subject impartedthe quality of capacity building for reasoning and logical expression of ideas.In addition to these there are other skills like creative imagination, a sense of judgement, critical thinking, ability to express oneself among the learners. Other economist, therefore, justified its inclusion in the school subject on the pretension of imbibing the habits of good citizenship.

The author used her field study experiences undertaken in a school called Central Tibetan School Administration (CTSA) . Education at the primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary stage is managed through a centralised administration. The school is managed by the Tibetan authorities but abide by the rules and regulation laid down by the Government of India. The author also visited several schools in the various districts of Haryana. The author undertook interviews of the teachers while teaching from the economic syllabus in schools. The research was conducted in the mid of the session of the school. The main modes of the data collection were classroom observation, interview and document collection. Classroom observation revealed all that mediates between the learners and the teachers and make sensible contribution to the text of the curriculum.

The author used qualitative research for it was convenient for the researcher to collect information by transcending his own perspective and being familiar with the object of study. Here the negotiation focussed on the four important aspects like

1. Initial access into the school
2. Individual economic Teachers
3. Other teacher participating in the economics classroom
4. Analysis of document (syllabus, scheme, textbook, activities conducted in the classroom and the practices linked with the assessment.

At the time of the stay the school requested a copy of letter from the host institution. There was access negotiation and the author had the meet principles before entering the classroom. On their permission, the author could talk with practising school teachers and the students of the particular class. Interview and discussion with the student revealed that the staff was informed about my visit to the school. They were asked to maintain discipline in the classroom and school. The author was frequently inquired about the purpose of the visit to the school.

Educational negotiation was evident for the classrooms were frequently used for community purposes. On Sunday public examinations were conducted in the school and teachers were paid for the invigilation duties. There was also incidence of teachers making use of classrooms for their personal gatherings. The author very often found herself helpless particularly with respect for research ethics and teacher’s perspective for subject. The teacher frequently made use of the keys for transacting the curriculum in the classroom. The notes were dictated and the students were expected to reproduce the same in the examinations.

Teacher concerns were with the practicalities of the economics curriculum for their promotions depended upon the results of the board examination. They frequently questioned the philosophical or theoretical ideals laid down in the curriculum. Here again the educational negotiation was evident from the classroom observation and the interviews with the teachers. First negotiation was evident in the areas of teaching and the second, reaching out to aspects of teaching practise.

The author noticed that the teachers lacked in proper training to address the theoretical concerns of the basic principles of the subject. Educational negotiation was evident in the discussion whether the subject to be taught through positive or normative analysis. The positive analysis helped in predicting the demand or supply in the economy. The normative analysis explained the economic ills like poverty, food security and unemployment. There were also negotiations whether to follow deductive or inductive methods for explaining the content in the classroom. The teacher no doubt appreciated descriptive nature of the subject. The use of mathematics while teaching learning of the subject was appreciated more by the learners. The textbook used basic mathematics which the learners learnt till the secondary stage. The use of mathematics led to formalism of the subject and assisted in the analysis of the content.

Educational negotiation was also noticed among the teachers mode of teaching and the learners preferred the mode that attempt to narrow the gap , creating a more effective classroom. Greater emphasis was laid on the teacher’s attitude towards the transaction of the content and the effect that was evident on the student’s understanding of the subject.

The study focussed on the process rather than the learning outcome as observed in the classroom. The author had to face twin problems of being an observant participant and collection of data to understand the negotiation with the implementation of economics curriculum. The new economics curriculum was based on the guidelines prescribed in the National curriculum framework (NCF). The author reviewed the various policy documents to find the place of economics in the school curriculum. The syllabus prescribed by the different boards were analysed and core topics were identified. The author will endeavour to present a balance picture of the implementation of economics curriculum. The study will be based on both the primary and secondary

data. The information gathered will help in analysing the educational negation by the agent of teachers.

**17**

**CLASSROOM AUTHORITY AND AGENCY OF THE TEACHER:A FIELDWORK REFLECTION**

**Author:** Bishnu Pratap Mishra

**Affilation**: doctoral student at Department of Sociology, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi – 221005, UP, India.

**Keywords** : Classroom Authority

Agency

Teacher

Punishment

**Introduction :**

This is a reflective paper based on an ethnographic fieldwork at a school in the Alwar district, Rajasthan. The school is run by an NGO which is dedicated in the field of education and based in the Jaipur, Rajasthan. Unlike any other public or private school in India, this one is designed as a community – participation school in which communities from where the students come to the school are equal stakeholder. The communities have great say in decision making processes of the school. The school organization apart from its emphasis on the constructivist method of pedagogy gives much scope and access to students and parents in the decision making process. At the same time, most of the economic burden is handled by the Organization which manages funds to run this school. This fieldwork is part of doctoral work being carried by the researcher at a university. The Researcher has done school ethnography and attended the school for the continuous six months for the data collection purpose. The ethnographic fieldwork started in the September 2014 and ended in the February 2015. In this period, the Researcher did classroom observation, did interview with teachers and other stakeholders and visited many communities from where the students come to the school and talked with the parents of the students.

A successful pedagogic endeavor hinges on the classroom relationship between teacher and students. It is shaped by consistent negotiations between teacher and students on the matter of curriculum, classroom control, and pedagogic authority. This notion of classroom control and pedagogic authority is derived from the idea of classroom authority. Willard Waller characterized the school as ‘despotism in a state of perilous equilibrium’. For him, schools are instruments of mass education in which students are antagonistic to constraints imposed on their spontaneous natures and a course of study that is largely unrelated to their own personal interests. Teachers working within the bureaucracy of the school must assert their dominance over students. But their dominance is never ensured because conflict and resistance are always lying in wait, ready to spring. Authority relations between teachers and students are thus unstable and exist in a ‘quavering’ balance that may be upset at any moment. The teacher has to persuade students for successful classroom learning whereas it is required from students to give their effort and assent to the subject matter which is being taught. Society makes teachers responsible withthe formal right and responsibility to take charge in the classroom and expects students to obey. The character of teacher-student authority relations has great bearing on the quality of students' educational experience and teachers' work. But the actual performance of classroom authority involves ongoing negotiations between teachers and students influenced by numerous and often conflicting institutional, cultural, and social factors. Classroom authority has some moral dimensions too. Durkheim emphasized the importance of teachers’ moral authority which, for him is ‘that influence which imposes upon us all the moral power that we acknowledge as superior to us’. Teachers interpret the great moral ideas of their time and space. They are supposed to represent and uphold the moral order of the school and society. For Durkheim, one of the primary responsibilities of the teacher is to teach students the rules of good conduct. But, the issue of authority is not confined to moral dimensions of the society only. The idea of authority inherently brings some power dimensions of the society in consideration as well. It has some contentions and contradictions as well. The students contest the existing authority of teacher by several mechanisms like disrupting classroom processes, pedagogic activities and disobeying the dictates of the teacher. Contradictions of authority are especially prominent in the sphere of formal education, in which teachers are expected to impose social controls on groups of students while liberating individual human potential. Because authority is so fundamental a feature of classroom life, to understand it is crucial for considering practices, policies, and research aimed at improving the quality of schooling and ameliorating educational inequalities. So, it is quite evident that classroom authority has moral considerations of the given society and power dynamics of the society as well.

National Curriculum Framework 2005 and Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education 2009 (RTE) emphasize on child-centric pedagogy which require ample avenues for sensitization on the part of the teacher. It focuses on less authoritarian and humiliation free classroom environment for students where they could express themselves while learning. The kind of freedom and expressive environment NCF sought for certainly need curbing of physical punishment in the classroom. It attempts to inculcate sense of critical and democratic citizenship which is based on the progressive idea of schooling and education. Although, all progressive changes in the schooling is designed to make it more inclusive, democratic and child-centric but it would be interesting to look upon on some other aspects of schooling also like agency of the teacher in the successful deliberation and implementation of these ideas in the process ofteaching and educating young minds of the society. NCF 2005 and RTE demand teachers to be more sensible and recognize the individual differences of the students and make classroom environment as per the situation. But, the position of teacher which makes her/him superior and powerful brings the authoritarian ego at the helm of pedagogic practices. Here, the agency of the teacher comes into action. The agency of the teacher could be understood as the performance of the intentional actions by the teacher. And, the agency of the teacher must be considered on the backdrop of her/his predispositions and socio-cultural understanding of the schooling and education. Accordingly, if teacher has understanding of her/his role as an authoritarian entity, it will significantly reflect on her/his action as a teacher. At the same time, the teacher would have teleological explanation of their action in the classroom. Policy documents and institutional interventions try to bring positive changes in structural and functional aspects of the schooling but it should also be remembered that teacher is an independent category and [S]he acts as per the demands of the classroom situation. Therefore, we oftentimes witness some authoritarian practices during educational transmissions. The classroom authority has some pertinent connections with agency of the teacher which must be taken into account. While, trying to understand the teacher’ action and classroom transaction between teacher and students, we must look upon some aspects of ‘the agency of the teacher’.

In this paper, the researcher attempts to understand and demonstrate the changing nature of classroom authority and how teacher as an independent category or agency finds scope for some different kind of authoritarian manipulations and manifestations. The proposed paper would be discussing some peculiar classroom transaction where teachers latently manifest their authoritarian ego and cite justifications for their behavior and modalities of classroom practices. The teacher tries to rationalize their authoritarian practices in the classroom as a pedagogic intervention. Pedagogic interventions could be understood as ‘all those mechanisms adopted by teachers for successful classroom activities which include teaching, engaging students, maintaining students’ interest on the topic and classroom control’. Although, the teachers’ action sometimes does not qualify as punishing behavior but different kind of pedagogic activities to bring students’ attention on the classroom processes and pedagogic transactions. Therefore, the researcher tries to discuss about some emerging changes in the nature of classroom authority and punishment. National Curriculum Framework 2005 is a comprehensive document which focuses on constructivist method of pedagogy along with several issues related with schooling in India.

The researcher tries to understand and explain all these transactions between students and teachers in the backdrop of recent changes made and shaped by National Curriculum Framework 2005. This paper would discuss some classroom transactions about different methods used by teachers for successful disposal of their roles and responsibilities and authoritarian practices as a teacher whereas students’ different methods for successful classroom survival. Apart from it, this paper also deals with agency of the teacher while practicing classroom authority like how mechanism and modalities of classroom authority differ from teacher to teacher and how some personal attributes of the teacher come into play while dealing with the issue of classroom control. In this paper, an attempt has been put to understand the different aspects of classroom authority practiced by teachers and how students respond while doing educational transmission. The present paper would shed some lights on the changing nature of punishment drawn from classroom authority of the teacher in which agency of the teacher plays significant role.

\*Bishnu Pratap Mishra is a doctoral student at Department of Sociology, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi – 221005, UP, India.

**18**

**Research Presentation on Vocational Subjects in Primary School Curriculum in Thailand**

**Author**:Chaveewan Charoensap

**Affiliation**:Phitsanulok University

**Keywords**: Vocational Subjects

Primary School Curriculum

Educational Reform

**Abstract:**  
  
This study focuses on primary schools in the Thai Educational System after the 1992 Educational Reforms. The special emphasis is on curriculum and the teaching-learning process about the vocational subjects in primary schools in Thailand. Towards this end, the attitudes and opinions of administrators, teachers, parents and students is examined in detail.   
  
As per the post-1992 curriculum, the teachers have to train the pupils to carry out skill-based activities using the new methods and techniques in the teaching-learning process. Work-oriented Experiences, dealing with general practical work experiences and basic knowledge for career preparation which start from grade 1. Special Experience, dealing with activities based on learners’ interests provided for those in grades 5-6 only. Each school can organize learning activities according to learners’ needs and interests. The total time allotment for primary curriculum is six academic years, with not less than 40 weeks for each academic year and not less than 25 hours or 75 periods per week. The time allotted for each period is 20 minutes. The total of the learning periods above 200 days or 1,000 hours. The area of special Experiences for grades 5 and 6 provided 200 hours extra times for activities based on learners’ interests. The pupils have become the centre of the schooling process and have been motivated to express their idea about what they would like to study. The teachers supervise and advise them in these matters. The students have more skill-based activities in school and have become proficient in basic skills. The need of based skill and work oriented subjects offered in primary schools for basic knowledge and skills in work, good work habits and ability to work cooperatively with others.   
  
The vocational aims to make the Thai children better equipped to face rapid changing realities of AEC today’s life. The vocational skill which training at schools help them to find gainful employment to the country’s and AEC’s welfare. The skill specialization system of learning is characterized by objective and specialized curriculum to help the learners develop vocational knowledge and skills by which they can work as entrepreneurs and paid workers. The nature of teaching and learning activities in schools is conditioned by the needs of the local communities by which the people can apply the acquired knowledge and basic skills to improve their quality of life and their community.   
  
The curriculum to be followed by the primary schools in Thailand comprise of general subjects, mathematics, Thai language, English language, character development , work-oriented subjects, family veterinary etc. The way how to teach vocational subjects, the teachers use teaching – learning process by studying practice and visiting the working place such as visiting farm, faculty, and factory etc. Both of teachers and students enjoy teaching learning vocational subjects in the schools. The teachers are motivated and seeing the interest of the students to learn these subjects such as house work, cooking, farming , handicrafts, and so on.   
  
For example, most of the schools in Thailand there are free mid-day meal for all students. Some schools have a farm then the students have to learn and have duty for take care of the animal in the farm , also plant some vegetables for mid-day food, if there are too much then might sell for buy the other food for them. The teacher might supervise the students and cooking food for mid-day meal along with them. The practical and application of basic skills close interaction between industry and education as also between media and education has made schooling job-oriented and interesting for the students. Knowledge of basic skills is an asset which not only helps students in finding employment but also enables them to help their families in household work.   
Autonomy provided to the local authorities to formulate and implement basic skill courses relevant to local conditions has facilitated their process. Such a curriculum encourages parents to send their wards to school as it holds promise of a better future for them. Incentives like provision of free books, stationery, bicycles and offer material and mid-day meal programmers also encourage poor parents economically to send children to school instead of engaging them in domestic or other types of jobs. Both students and their parents are highly covers in school. These courses have made the learning process more enjoyable as well as more socially useful.  
  
Regarding educational management in school, the principal and vice-principal have been empowered to make decisions on providing education according to the pupils’ needs and requirements. They could manage their school activities, work plans, budget, and academic matters and so on.   
  
The educational reforms of 1992 made certain parts of the curriculum including the general subjects compulsory for all schools in the country. With regard to the optional subjects, it was realized the each province and each district had different needs and, therefore, a number of optional subjects were introduced, which were predominately skill-based. The school education committee consisting of school teachers, school administrators, parents and community leaders designed the optional subjects which were suited for their areas. This benefited the students, as the teaching process became more child- centered rather than teacher centered.  
  
While many of the reforms have been successfully implemented, others have met with a limited degree of success, and some are still in need of practical application.  
  
The study examines the vocational subject in primary school in Thailand.  
  
In Thailand the primary schools provide vocational subjects to the students as the optional subjects. The student will learn any vocational subject for predominately skill-based subjects which are good for their future. They come to know themselves, what they would like to be in the future, and then they can plan for their career and continue to learn more in the higher vocational college.  
Motivation:   
The guidance and support from leaders, including policymakers, planners and administrators in the education system, students who graduate ready to enter the workforce is employed in the ASEAN community; effectively comparable to vocational subjects in India.  
Approach:  
Conferences and seminars on government policies in the preparation of elementary school students’ basic skills, vocational curriculum labor - employment in the ASEAN -was held in Phichit Primary Educational Service Area Office 1 in Phichit Province. The officials, planners and administrators, teachers and parents were in attendance. Data distribution and query analysis was performed.  
  
**Results and Conclusions:**   
The teachers and administrators think that the 1992 Education Reform and the new curriculum had not produced the desired result to the full extent. They expressed the views that the post 1992 curriculum is definitely better than the previous programs and those students and teachers enjoy the new process of teaching- learning vocational skills and practice learning sessions. Right now Thailand joins AEC. (ASEAN Economic Community) not only vocational subjects are in need, English language is much more needed right now; but most of the teachers and Thai students are still very weak in English.   
The new system provides more freedom for the learners to choose from the various subjects offered and the schooling and teaching process is more practical; both in vocational skill and English language use as in Bilingual School.  
One of the loopholes pointed out by the administrators as well the teachers is that in the 1992 Education Reform too much emphasis was given on the practical aspects of the curriculum neglecting other subjects like Thai language , English language and arithmetic.   
Most of them suggested that it would be better to evolve a new education system in which both the new and old curriculum could be combined together. This would open up new areas of enquiry in the study of educational system and reforms in Thailand.  
Lack of teaching experience on the part of rural school teachers is a matter of concern. Their joining the urban school after a few years of teaching may be seen as an attempt to gain upward mobility. The rural-urban disparity is noticeable here. Informal discussion revealed that another issue of concern for the teachers is their inadequate remuneration, which compels them to take on part-time jobs. This adversely affects their teaching work in the school as their time and energy get diverted elsewhere.   
The objectives of the post-1992 reforms get diluted due to this factor. Again, although the time allotment for various subjects has not substantially changed, due to lack of experience, some teachers may not be able to gauge the relativity of each basic skill subject and allot time accordingly. Moreover, the training provided to teachers to implement the revised curriculum may not be adequate.   
Suggestion   
Many of the above problems can be allayed by an increase in the Thai educational budget, improving salaries, English language training for all teachers and letting them use English language in the school daily life. Most important is that the teachers have to observe and let the students learn and tryout which vocational subject is the best for their skill and goals by themselves.  
Thailand primary curriculum might be the good lessons for India to do the same and change the curriculum like the one in Thailand.

**19**

**Shadow Education, Credentialism and Family Strategies: An Exploratory Study of IIT Aspirants in Delhi**

**Author:** Shalini Punjabi

**Affiliation:** JNU

**Keywords** : Shadow Education

Credentialism

Family

Joint Entrance Exam

Professional Classes

Formal schooling

IIT

**Background**   
  
The higher education around the world is now situated in a hierarchically structured environment where competition intensifies to the extent that the value of credentials hinges on institutional rankings and fields of study. “The expansion of higher education has been driven by the changing value of educational degrees in the job market. As the number of persons with academic degrees has increased, there has been decline in the occupational level for which they have the degree” (Collins 2011:229) Therefore, to enter elite occupations, institutes that maximize the chances of entering them are sought after. Hence, elite institutions for higher learning for professional courses are sought, the entry into which is based on a student’s performance in examinations. Entrance examinations have high stakes as they significantly determine the future pathways of students into high status careers. Weber (1946:241) argued that “these examinations were meant to restrict the supply of socially and economically advantaged positions and their monopolization by the owners of educational certificates” Hirsch (1976:52) emphasizes the zero sum character of positional competition and argues that elite degrees and other positional goods confer advantages on some only by denying them to others; ‘what winners win, losers lose’.  
  
In India, the examination-oriented education system and the intense competition for professional credentials has made families, especially the ‘middle classes’ engage in ‘strategies’ (Ball 2003) to give their children a competitive edge for securing high status careers in the future. One of the key sites for competition for positional advantage in India is the private sector and in particular educational arrangements that are known by the term ‘shadow education’, which is ‘paid out of school academic learning’ outside formal school system availed for public exams and competitive entrance tests. The metaphor of shadow is used because “much tutoring mimics the mainstream school system” (Bray 2011:13). In India, shadow education takes the form of private unregulated ‘coaching’ and ‘tuition’ that have become widely accepted and necessary for academic success and competitive exams. The demand for coaching for entrance exams is high due to fierce competition among students for professional courses in select institutions of higher learning (Sujata and Rani 2011). Moreover, the willingness of parents to invest in their children’s education has risen with the norm of a small family with double incomes. For these parents, associating themselves with reputed coaching centers is also a matter of ‘social prestige’ (Sujata 2014:8)   
  
The Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) in India are among the most prestigious technical institutes for undergraduate engineering education. Admission to an IIT is viewed by many as a passport to success and prestige. Studies have pointed out that a large majority of students going to IITs come from well-to-do upper middle class and highly educated families. For entry into the IITs, the Joint Entrance Exam (JEE) is the primary channel of admission. The demand for admission in IITs makes JEE rigorous and prestigious (Rao 2013).   
  
The coaching industry in India is highly stratified. Studies show that the coaching market for JEE is highly lucrative, unregulated and differentiated. As a result, the Joint Entrance Exam has spawned a massive coaching industry in the country with diverse coaching institutes ranging from low end to high end and hence catering to the needs of families with differing socio-economic backgrounds. This is seen in the differential investments in shadow education occurring within families. The privileged sections secure their advantageous positions by enrolling their children in well known and expensive coaching institutes which are also “brands” with conviction that the institute will take care of both the school curriculum and the competitive exams; whereas the others have to make do with average coaching centres that are affordable.   
  
**The Study**  
  
The paper is based on an empirical study carried out as part of the M.Phil program to explore the practices of credentialism by the coaching institutes preparing students for the JEE exam and the strategies of the families around the JEE entrance test preparation for engineering at the prestigious Indian Institute of Technology (IIT). The objectives of the study were to understand the aspirations of students and their parents for engineering education and their perception of an IIT degree, to examine the credentialing practices of coaching institutes from the experiences of IIT aspirants and the strategies of their families around IIT-JEE coaching market and finally the perceptions of students and their families of JEE vis-a-vis formal schooling.   
  
I draw on data collected qualitatively through snowball sampling and in-depth interviews with ten families categorized broadly into two professional classes-higher and lower professionals and their children who aspired to be in the IITs. The aspirants were enrolled at different coaching institutes in Delhi. The students in the sample were from class 11 studying in private unaided schools in Delhi. The conceptualization of class in this paper is essentially in Weberian terms, hence its representation is located in the market.   
  
In this paper, I first focus on the conceptual understanding of the process of ‘credentialism’ from the perspective of ’shadow education’ (Bray 2011) and the ‘positional goods theory’ (Hirsch 1976). Subsequently, I highlight the determinants of shadow education and the credentialing practices of coaching institutes and families of different occupational strata and how these become exigent for entry into the IITs. I also analyse the impact shadow education has on mainstream schooling. I draw on theoretical constructs of Max Weber (1946) and Randall Collins (2011) in understanding the practices of credentialism adopted by the families and the coaching institutes and the importance of obtaining degrees from high status institute through a competitive examination system that drives the use of shadow education. I also draw on the theoretical lens of Stephen Ball (2003) to examine the educational decisions, strategies and mobilization of resources by different professional classes. I have used the conceptual framework of Mark Bray to understand Shadow Education.   
  
Accessing shadow education at the senior secondary level of schooling in India has received scant attention as there are only a handful of studies focusing on coaching at the elementary level of schooling. The educational experiences of senior secondary students and their families with the JEE market in a metropolitan have never been explored before. Delhi being a metropolitan city is a key site for practicing credentialism because of the affording capacity of parents in professions such as Engineering, Management Civil Services. Research so far has also not captured the impact of shadow education on mainstream schooling. Hence, the study also dealt with how schools were being pushed on a back burner and seen as “academically irrelevant and only certificate issuing authorities”(Majumdar2014) On the contrary the coaching institutes were seen as instrumental in fulfilling all the academic needs of the IIT aspirants for both JEE and CBSE  
  
**Key Findings**  
  
The key findings of the study revealed that the pressures of extensive competition in entrance examinations led to the decisions to enroll aspirants in coaching. IITs were seen by students and parents as giving them an edge in the job market because of the degree being held in high esteem by the employers. Most of the aspirants saw an IIT degree synonymous with job security, a certain lifestyle, decent pay package and perks. It was a ‘brand’ to be acquired as it conferred prestige. Hence, a degree from a prestigious institute was a key to all material things in life. The practice of credentialism was evident in the way the shadow education market was stratified and capitalized upon the anxieties of parents by offering them with differential institutions (high end and low end) and a range of courses according to the potential of students. An important characteristic of stratification that was revealed through the study was that these institutes segregated students by way of grouping them into different batches which created a hierarchy of top, middle and lower batches. They tried to push only a select few students from the top most batches into IIT by giving extra attention to them so that they could secure higher ranks because that was the need of the market to reward exam-based ranked achievements.   
The study also showed that parental perception of shadow education appeared to be influenced by their class locations and parents’ market situation was pervasive in their educational strategies and micro practices. As compared to the lower professional families, the upper professional families seemed to have the capacity to exert their market power to gain a competitive advantage for their children and maximize their chances of gaining access to IIT. The market rewarded achievements on the basis of ranks which in turn determined not only the entry to an institution but also the choice of stream. Hence, the market played a crucial role in determining the life chances of the aspirants. A very significant finding of the study was that the coaching institutes impacted the mainstream schooling in myriad ways and were seen as ‘one stop shop’ fulfilling all the requirements of students under one roof. Parents perceived a lacuna in schools and felt that only the coaching institutes could offer the ‘strategic’ pedagogy required to ‘crack’ different competitive exams. It could be seen from the study that groups were competing for higher forms of status and exams had emerged as a means to attain that status.   
  
**Selected Literature**  
  
*• Ball, S. (2003). Class Strategies and the Education Market: The Middle Classes and Social Advantage. London and New York: Routledge Falmer  
• Bray, M. (2011). The Challenge of Shadow Education: Private tutoring and its implications for policy makers in the European Union. European Commission  
• Collins, R. (2011) Credential Inflation and the Future of Universities: Italian Journal of Sociology of Education  
• Hirsch, F. (1976) Social Limits to Growth. UK: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited   
• Majumdar, M. (2014) The Shadow Education System and the New Class Divisions in India: TRG Poverty and Education. Working Paper Series  
• Rao, SS. (2013). Structural Exclusion in Everyday Institutional Life: Labelling of Stigmatised Groups in an IIT’ in Nambissan and Rao (eds.) Sociology of Education in India: Changing Contours and Emerging Concerns. New Delhi: OUP  
• Sujata, K. (2014). Private Tuitions in India: Trends and Issues   
• Sujata, K., Rani, G. (2011).Management of Secondary Education in India. New Delhi: NUEPA  
• Weber, M. (1946). From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology. New York: OUP*

**20**

**Postcolonial State, Agrarian Economy and Education in Bihar: Structure of Educational Aspiration and Reordering of a Stratified Society**

**Author :**Manoj Kumar

**Affiliation :**Azim Premji University

**Keywords :** Social Class and Education

Education in Bihar

Social Inequality and Educational Aspiration

Education and Political Economy of Bihar

**Introduction :**

Bihar is the third most populous state of India with total population 104,099,452 in 2011. Out of over 100 million population, approximately 38 million people do not know to read and write. The state lags far behind the national average on various parameters of human development and economic growth. 74.04 % of total population of India was literate in 2011; the corresponding figure for Bihar was 61.80%. There must be several explanations for this relative underdevelopment of the state ranging from quality of leadership at the local level to policy regime and planning at central level. It is beyond the scope of this paper to seek the proper explanation for overall underdevelopment of the state. However, the paper will try to trace the status of education in state vis-à-vis social transformation and changing configurations of social stratification during the colonial and post-colonial modernisation.   
  
Characterization of the nature of social transformation of the state during colonial regime and after independence of India from the British rule has generated some debate among and historians, political scientists and economists. As state has not followed the ‘usual’ trajectory of social transformation from being largely a feudal society to transforming itself into a capitalist economy under the forces of modernisation, it has always posed a sort of taxonomical challenge before the analysts. I shall try to follow this debate in this paper as the relevance of this debate seems compelling for a student of education for several reasons.   
  
The paper assumes that educational aspiration has class character and class in this discussion has not been simply taken as a gradational and static category. In Marxian analysis, class is a relational and dynamic category located in history. Following this understanding of class the paper assumes, for example that even if the income level of free and unfree landless labourer may be same their educational aspiration will vary. Similarly, even if income level of a rent-seeking intermediary class is not different from the income level of a profit-seeking capitalist farming class their educational aspiration will differ. The same rule is applicable to the other parameters of social stratifications as well. Likewise locating the gender relations and relationships among the castes in history, we can expect better understanding of their implications for the structure of educational aspirations and institution building.   
  
It is therefore important to note that the first idea that needs to be dispelled is the notion that social stratification is static and fixed. Social strata takes shapes in history- and it takes shape through the various forms of accumulation- social, cultural and economic. These forms of capital, according to Bourdieu, interact with each other, converts into each other to form certain structure of advantage and disadvantage to regulate the social energy and to govern its ‘law of motion.’ The idea of habitus proposed by Bourdieu is therefore a useful analytical scheme to link the social structure with agency. As an analytical tool, the notion of habitus also helps in understanding the nature of educational aspirations. Beyond habitus, it is possibly the process of institution building, which can be seen as link between structure and agency.   
  
It is in this context following the debate on social transformation is relevant for a student of education. This transformation has economic, social, cultural and political dimensions and therefore holistic understanding of the transformation requires understanding of caste dynamics, attention to gender relations and institutional framework created by state. The paper will touch upon the aspects of caste and gender as well, but in order to understand emergent education aspirations of the state it will focus mainly on the dynamics between forces of production and relations of production, formations of classes with their expression of interest through various political channels. The paper will argue that the process of bureaucratic recruitment through open examination, legalization of property right and its realization though written artifacts during the colonial rule and access to state-power through universal adult franchise after independence of India have shaped the educational aspiration more in Bihar than mechanization and commercialization of agriculture. In short, state and politics rather than market have shaped the educational aspiration of the state over the years.   
  
In general middle caste peasantry after getting comparatively secure tenure was more open to mechanization and commercialization of agriculture. The experiences from southern Indian state, Maharashtra, Gujrat and northern Indian states like Punjab, Haryana support this observation. In Bihar some sign of economic vitality was seen among some of the castes of middle peasantry during colonial and independent India, but the experience was nowhere closer to the experiences of Marathas of Maharashtra who made their fortune by controlling various sugar cooperative or Patels of Gujrat. (Breman, 1989)   
  
Some of the key features of capitalist mode of production in agriculture identified by historians were production primarily for market- i.e. commodity production, production by free labour and not by bonded labour, profit and not the rent as prime motivator for producers, tendency to maximize the profit through investment of technology and scientific management etc. It seems, some analysts assumes unwittingly that if one of these processes would be unleashed the others would also follow. For example, if the opportunity for commodity production is available then it should essentially demotivate rent-seeking behavior by layers of intermediaries. Similarly, with commencement of new technology, irrigation system and commercialization of agricultural production the age-old institution of boded labour would essentially wither away. The historical evidences accrued by historians, several ethnographic accounts and empirical studies of evolution of political economy in places like Bihar often do not validate this claim. To solve the puzzle either some historians propose that one dominant mode of production in a society at certain historical junction should not be the norm (Robb, 1992), while others propose some transitional term like semi-feudalism to explain the case. (Prasad, 1979) Many others believe that the capitalism – the way it works in history need not to conform the entire analytical package.   
  
The relevant question in this context for a student of education is the following. What role education has to play in this tumultuous balance of various forms of social power? Looking at the emergence of polity and society in colonial and post-independent Bihar one feels convinced about the crucial role education has to play in the formation and reformation of stratified society. In general, education in India since colonial time was geared more towards bureaucratic recruitment than gaining technical expertise for handling mechanized production process. Competition among upper caste groups and intermediary caste groups for controlling the state machinery in post-independence Indian politics made the education even more instrumental than of intrinsic worth. Also it seems when representational politics becomes most important vehicle for status mobilization through bureaucratic recruitment and other means reification of education in academic degree becomes more likely.   
  
  
**Bibliography**   
  
*Bandyopadhyay, D. (2009). Lost Opportunity in Bihar. Economic and Political Weekly, 44(47), 12-14.   
  
Breman, Jan. "Agrarian Change and Class Conflict in Gujarat, India.” Population and Development Review 15   
  
Blair, H. W. (1980, January). Rising Kulaks and Backward Classes in Bihar: Social Change in the Late 1970s. Economic and Political Weekly, 15(2), 64-74   
  
Bourdieu, P. (1986). THE FORMS OF CAPITAL. (J. Richardson, Ed.) Westport, CT: Greenwood.   
  
Chakravarty, A. (2001). Social Power and Everyday Class Relations: Agrarian Transformation in North India. New Delhi: Sage Publications.   
  
Das, A. N. (1996). CHANGEL: The Biography of a Village. New Delhi: Penguin Books India (p) Ltd.   
  
Das, A. N. (1992). The Republic of Bihar. New Delhi: Penguin Books India (p) Ltd.   
  
Wright, Erik Olin. 1996. Class Counts: Comparative Studies in Class Analysis. Cambridge University Press.   
  
Jha, H. (1977, Oct-Dec). Lower-Caste Peasants and Upper-Caste Zamindars in Bihar (1921-1925): An Analysis of Sanskritization and Contradiction between the Two Groups. The Indian Economic and Social History Review, XIX(4), 5420559.   
  
Jha, H. (1980). Permanent Settlement in Bihar. Social Scientist, 9(1), 53-57.   
  
Kumar, Krishna. (1996). Agricultural Modernisation and Education: Contours of a Point of Departure. Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. 31, No. 35/37, Special Number (Sep., 1996)   
  
Prasad, P. H. (1979). Perspective: Caste and Class in Bihar. Economic and Political Weekly, 14(7/8).   
  
Prasad, P. H. (1979). Rise of Kulak Power and Caste Struggle in North India, Vol. 26, Issue No. 33, 17 Aug, 1991   
  
Ram, B. (1997). Land and Society in India: Agrarian Relations in Colonial North Bihar. Chennai: Orient Longman Limited.   
  
Robb, P. (1988, May). Law and Agrarian Society in India: The Case of Bihar and the Nineteenth-Century Tenancy Debate. Modern Asian Studies, 22(02), 319 - 354.   
  
Robb, P. (1992, February). Peasants' Choices? Indian Agriculture and the Limits of Commercialization in Nineteenth-Century Bihar. The Economic History Review, 45(1), 97-119.   
  
Roy, R. (1994, July - September). Bihar Politics. The Indian Journal of Political Science, Vol. 55(No. 3 Special Issue on State Politics In India), 221-230.   
  
Rudra, P. B. (1978, February). Interlinkage of Land, Labour and Credit Relations: An Analysis of Village Survey Data in East India. Economic and Political Weekly, 13(6/7), 367-384.   
  
Srivastava, S. S. (2007). Violence and Dalit Women's Resistance in Rural Bihar. Indian Anthropologist, 37(2), 31-44.   
  
Sturman, R. (2005). Property and Attachments: Defining Autonomy and the Claims of Family in Nineteenth-Century Western India. Comparative Studies in Society and History, 47(3), 611-637.   
  
Washbrook, D. A. (1981). Law, State and Agrarian Society in Colonial India. Modern Asian Studies, 15(3)*

**21**

**Change in textbooks and circulars can't bring educational reforms: Role of mathematics teachers' agency**

**Author**:Ruchi S. Kumar

**Affilation** :Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai

**Keywords** :Educational reform

Student centered teaching

Teacher professional development

Teacher agency

Teacher beliefs

Teacher-researcher collaboration

**Abstract:**

In this paper, I present the case studies of two mathematics teachers, one primary and one middle school teacher, who in the course of their participation and engagement in the professional development workshop and collaboration with the researcher in the school reflected on their practices and explored new practices for student centred teaching. However, their personal beliefs about mathematics, teaching and students capability as well as the expectations of parents and administration created a tension for teachers for exercising their agency. Their knowledge of teaching of mathematics, representations and its connections with concepts and procedures and understanding of student thinking helped teachers in using their agency to explore new practices while some of the beliefs held by them constrained their perceived agency.

Key words: *Educational reform, student centred teaching, teacher professional development,teacher agency, beliefs, teacher-researcher collaboration*

*Introduction*

In India, post the educational reform efforts to develop the new National Curriculum Framework (2005), several efforts were done to implement this curriculum in the education system. The focus groups identified the issues of rote memorisation, mechanistic teaching, dependency of textbooks and disregard of students knowledge of their local mileu as important to be addressed. The new curriculum envisaged the "construction of knowledge" through "child centred education" by understanding the primacy of the "active learner" (NCERT, 2005, p.13). Major impetus for reform was the change in textbooks which have been by far the most economical and most easily available resource for teaching and learning for all these years post independence. What was missing in this vision of educational reform was systematic planning to address pre and in-service education of teachers to make them aware and understand the ideas embedded in the new curriculum (Batra, 2005). Reform was implemented through issuing directives and circulars to government schools to integrate the ideas conveyed in NCF 2005 like use of activities, mathematics lab, making classes interactive by involving students etc.

An important missing element in these efforts for educational reform is the recognition of teachers' agency in bringing about reform in classroom practices which have a major influence in what and how students learn. How teacher perceives her agency and how system and professional development efforts contribute to her agency, have a major impact on how educational reforms get implemented. Bandura (1997) identify the emergent interactive agency as the belief that a person perceives in bringing about a change in certain situations. In the context of the study, I have defined personal agency of the teacher as the "purposeful choices" (Walter and Gerson, 2007, p. 209) made by the teacher for using certain practices for developing understanding of mathematics and fostering reasoning while experiencing the tensions evident in their social context between learning of procedures and engaging in reasoning

*Study*

In this paper, I illustrate how two teachers' exercised their agency while participating in the study to provide professional development opportunities through workshops and follow up in classroom. The goals was to support take up of practice for moving away from rote memorisation towards

understanding, going beyond textbooks and encouraging students to share their ideas in the classroom. This is part of larger exploratory study which lasted for two years. Data from the first year observation of 2 teachers (1 primary and 1 middle school) post a ten day orientation workshop has been used to write case studies. The main research questions that these case studies address are

1. How did teachers' agency play a role in what ideas from the workshop are taken up in the classroom?
2. How do factors like teachers' beliefs, knowledge and preference for certain practices interact with teachers' agency in exploring new practices?
3. What is the role of teachers' contexts in enhancing or constraining teachers' professional development efforts?

*Findings*

One of the important finding is the way participant teachers exercised their agency in interpreting and implementing the ideas conveyed in workshops. Enhancing their agency by providing them more central role in their professional development lead to exploration of new practices and reflection on students' learning. Rather than viewing agency as “associated with the individual subject as a self-standing entity,” we describe how this “arises out of engagement” (Wenger, 1998, p. 15). The engagement that we focus on is with tasks in the workshop, their colleagues, their students while teaching and lastly, teacher educators and researchers who share the common enterprise of improving mathematics education in schools. Teachers' agency is thus initiatives and autonomy expressed by teachers during the course of these interactions to assert and justify their beliefs and through actions of taking up or resisting certain practices. These participants were government school teachers who were part of the nationwide education system and the observations and interviews during the workshop as well as during the follow up in school revealed important insights about the factors that influenced the practices that teachers considered as central as compared to those that were occasionally used and thus peripheral.

Teachers' participation in the orientation workshop reveal that teachers' agency was evident in the way they engaged in the tasks and used their knowledge about teaching to make assertions and also for challenging and resisting ideas that do not conform to their beliefs. We found these as important 'moments' in teacher education since it provided opportunity for teachers to articulate and become aware of their own beliefs, reflect on their beliefs and practices and awareness of alternative ideas and practice for teaching through interaction in workshop or in classroom.

Classroom observation and collaboration with the researcher further clarified the role of teachers' agency. A primary teacher with positive belief towards student centred teaching explored the new practices in her classroom. However, while teaching the topic of equivalent fractions, she faced several challenges due to lack of knowledge about the use of different representations and their connections with procedural and conceptual ideas. Her belief about lack of students' capability for engaging in reasoning led to her using perceptual characteristics of representation rather than conceptual criteria. The reflection about students' responses and learning with the researcher helped her in identifying the central ideas that need to be focused in teaching of fractions and how non-typical tasks can help in assessing as well as developing students' understanding.

The middle school teacher adopted practices to increase students participation in her teaching but it was based on learnt procedures with little scope for sharing their own ideas. She had positive beliefs for reasoning but did not believe that activities or contexts are useful in teaching of mathematics and initially refrained from using them. However, reflecting on students' understanding made her question the category of 'bright' students who gave right answers quickly in her class. She admitted that they might be knowing solutions due to tuitions that they go to after the school. This made her more open to the use of other ways like activities to engage 'weak' students and increase the class participation. Her knowledge of mathematics did help her in identifying the key ideas to be focused

in teaching, although she found it difficult to address the errors and misconceptions of students without taking the recourse to telling rules.

The interaction with these teachers in their school settings along with other teachers (in staffroom) and principals in the schools revealed how the 'change' in practices is being sought through circulars which teachers perceived as orders from 'above'. While some teachers were happy with the change, other teachers were reluctantly engaging in practices which they feel are expected from them and sometimes even considered it harmful for students' future. There was lack of clarity about how a classroom teaching using reform principles would look like. These aspects indicated the necessity of engaging teachers in making sense of the documents through collegial discussion.

The case studies of teachers who participated in the study, revealed how this collegial discussion in workshop and with the researcher during classroom collaboration helped in enhancing teachers' agency by encouraging reflective practices. Teachers' perceived agency is the result of the interplay between teachers' personal beliefs, ideas conveyed in professional development workshops, the expectations of the administrators conveyed through circulars and of the curriculum designers through the textbook. Some of the beliefs held by teachers which are aligned with the ideas visualised in educational reform or professional development contexts serve as footholds to bootstrap the process of professional change for teachers and thus enhancing their agency through feeling of being validated and empowered through reform efforts. However, when the beliefs do not align with reform efforts teachers attempt to integrate old practices with the new one which creates an impression of reform oriented practices, but caters to the goals set by teacher which might be teaching of procedures and rules. The implications can be derived for design of professional development of in-service teachers and roles of administrators that contributes towards teacher agency in a positive manner through encouraging reflective practices.

*References*

Batra, P. (2005).Voice and Agency of Teachers: The missing link in the National. Curriculum Framework 2005, Economic and Political Weekly, 40(36),4347-4356.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self efficacy: The exercise of control,* W.H. Freeman, New York.

National Council of Educational Research and Training (2005). National curriculum framework. New Delhi: NCERT.

Walter, J.G. & Gerson, H. (2007) Teachers' personal agency: Making sense of slope through additive structures. *Educational studies in mathematics, Vol. 65,* No 2, Springer.

Wenger, E. (1999). Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity (Learning in Doing: Social, Cognitive and Computational Perspectives).

**22**

**Relevance of Social Context in Understanding Academic Achievement: An Intersectionality Approach.**

**Author :** Mona Yadav,Dr. Arvind Kumar Mishra

**Affiliation:**Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi

**Keywords :** Academic achievement

Social contextual factors

Intersectionality

**Introducation:**

Academic achievement has received attention of a large number of researchers in psychology. A plethora of empirical studies have analyzed the various factors which influence and are correlates of academic achievement. There have been empirical studies focusing on the role of individual factors such as, reasoning, executive functioning, intelligence, motivation, self-concept influencing academic achievement. There has also been an attempt made to understand the influence of social-contextual factors such as role of social class, gender, peers, and parents on the academic achievement on individuals.

Studying the role of social- contextual factors on the individuals indicates a limitation that social categories/identities based on social class, gender, race, ethnicity are seen as, demographic characteristics by psychologists rather than categories leading to experiences of discrimination and stereotype. In real life-settings, it’s the multiple social forces that shape individual’s experiences and behavioral outcomes. In most of the research studies on academic achievement, factors such as gender, race, ethnicity, social class are taken as demographic characteristics of individuals rather than social categories that influence the psychological processes related to academic achievement. In various studies, these social categories have been controlled while, analyzing any behavioral outcomes. In other studies, only the main effects of these social categories have been considered, no attempt has been made to analyze the higher order interactions. Evidences indicate that when the main effects are significant, the probability of higher order interactions to be significant decreases. Though, there is a need for intersectionality approach, methodological constraints are the main hurdles for the reluctance on the part of the psychologists to engage in the complexity of social reality due to limited methodological options.   
This paper will focus on providing an understanding of intersectionality theory as an alternative approach to understand the role of social context in the area of academic achievement.

**23**

**Interrogating Silence: Young Women Challenge Sexual Harassment**

**Author :** Parul Malik

**Affiliation :** Central Institute of Education, Delhi University

**Keywords :** Gender

Sexism

Gender based violence

Agency

**Introduction :**

**‘**Casual’ sexual harassment is the reality of a multitude of young women in India. It is an almost universal feminine experience to be ‘eve teased’, letched at, touched or groped while women make their way through their neighbourhoods on foot or cover the expansiveness of the city in public transport in order to reach school, tuition classes, workplaces, or to simply run errands.   
  
On the one hand are women, who are socialised to be feminine (Nirantar, 2011), are expected to protect their honour (Dube, 1997) and when harassed, themselves charged with misogynistic victim-blaming (Reuters, 2016); and on the other hand are young men, who are brought up to be masculine and it is acceptable within this purview of ‘manliness’ to treat women as the object of one’s desire and amusement (Abraham, 2001; Chanana, 2001; Kumar, 2004). It then hardly comes as a surprise that women in a patriarchal society hesitate to question the assumed ‘right’ of men to harass them routinely, least of all fight the culture of silence that may challenge their repression and victimisation.   
  
At the same time, not very different is the gender biased treatment in their cultures at school or residences and the list of dos and don’t that govern their lives. There is surveillance of what to wear, whom to talk to, which profession to choose, how far to continue studies, time to return home, manner of conduct, so on, in families and even at schools. The school doubles as the parent-in-charge, we notice; thus, maintaining a continuum of patriarchal authority.   
In an on-going study in two schools and a shelter home for children in Delhi, India, young girls share their experiences of sexual harassment, in/ability to disclose these to their guardians/caretakers and the accompanying emotions that these situations of humiliation, threat to personal safety, helplessness, so on entail. They express angst at being treated as the ‘softer’ and lesser gender in society and their families. They open up about the many instances of sexual harassment they have encountered over a period of time (carefully guarded up till now), and in the process form a community of young women, empathising with and supplying strength to one another.   
  
We record how through discussions – and at some places, research interventions- these young women feel empowered to then choose to interrogate their silences of these experiences in life thus far, build agency to break out of the associated walls of shame and guilt that they have been made to believe need to be maintained, and challenge gendered discrimination and protest against sexual harassment.   
For the purpose of this paper, therefore, the commonality of young women’s experiences and conviction to fight sexism and gender violence across a spectrum of socio-cultural and economic backgrounds is being put forth. So is the possibility of enabling them to build a voice and an agency through community building via initiatives outside and at schools.   
  
**References***Abraham, L. (2001). Redrawing the Lakshman Rekha: Gender Differences and Cultural Constructions in Youth Sexuality in Urban India. South Asia: Journal of South Asian Studies, 24:Supplement1, 133-156.   
Chanana, K. (2001). Hinduism and Female Sexuality: Social Control and Education of Girls in India. Sociological Bulletin. 50:1, 37-63.   
Dube, L. (1997). Women and Kinship: Comparative Perspectives on Gender in South and South-East Asia. New Delhi: Vistaar Publications.   
Kumar, K. (2004). What is Worth Teaching (3rd Ed.). New Delhi: Orient Longman.   
Nirantar (2011). Khulti Parten: Yaunikta aur Hum (Shrikhla 1 aur 2). New Delhi: Nirantar Trust.   
Reuters (2016, April 13). Short skirts, bad stars, chow mein: why rape happens in India. The Express, Tribune. Retrieved from http://tribune.com.pk/story/1083914/short-skirts-bad-stars-chow-mein-why-rape-happens-in-india/*

**24**

**“Padhe Bastar, Badhe Bastar” : The Ideological Persuasion of Schooling in Bastar**

**Name**: Rashmi Kumari,Sreejith Murali

**Affiliation :**Tata Institute of Social Sciences

**Keywords :** sciEducation,

Development,

Adivasi,

Tribal Children,

BastarConflict

**Abstracts :**

For many of the post-colonial countries in Africa and Asia, the imagination of the self lies in the progression along the development spectrum towards becoming a ‘developed’ nation. These countries define their collective future as nation states in terms of the all pervasive ‘development’. Despite the efforts of imagining differently (in the lexicons of social development, sustainable development etc.) development seems to be an inevitable reality. (Escobar 1995). But, encounters with development have historically been brutal and violent,

especially for the oppressed communities in these countries (ibid). Modern education is seen as means for moving towards development and integrating a population to capitalist economy. The role of education, in capitalist societies, has been instrumental in transmitting capitalist ideology.

For Gramsci, in Western society, social institutions such as schools and other educational establishments are not 'neutral' but serve to cement the existing hegemony, therefore being intimately tied to the interests of the most powerful social groups, especially the bourgeoisie.

Education is crucial in securing consent for the dominant way of life, one that is supportive of and is supported by the prevailing mode of production. - e.g. the compulsory initial learning mandated by capitalist states (Mayo 2010). In India too, education has been an essential tool for human and economic development, which is mainly articulated in the interests of dominant social groups – upper class and upper caste (savarna) Hindus mostly. With its significant rural agricultural population which is not fully integrated with capitalist mode of production, the urban India is in constant battle to convert the rural resource to capital and its people to labour. In these societies education serves a purpose to “integrate” the rural into this capitalist market. In the rural parts of Chhattisgarh, it can also be seen as legitimising the nation state which is in conflict with the community over the resources.

Educational policies and developmental discourse

Analyses of the current educational scenario in Chhattisgarh, particularly in the Bastar region which a tribal majority, point to a mix of national and international educational policies acting concurrently. Bastar, today, has multiple actors involved in education as opposed to the initial post-independence policy of erstwhile unified Madhya Pradesh where the Tribal Welfare Department (TWD) was solely responsible for education. The educational policies in current neo-liberal economy seem to be in contradiction. The right to education in India is in tune with the international developmental paradigm such as Millennium Development Goals (MDG). One of the goals ‘Education for All’ (EFA), if critically analysed, defines education narrowly in terms of basic numeric and literacy skills, which the so called ‘third world’ countries are expected to have. This is in contradiction to the larger goal of social justice that is constitutionally defined.

(Sadagopal 2010). Such instrumental goals of education are transferred from the state to nonstate actors like various NGOs. Although there has been a history of non-governmental initiatives in M.P., the “neo-liberal state” of Chhattisgarh has opened its doors to numerous corporate NGOs, Public Private Partnership (PPP) etc. In the national imagination of ‘human resource development’, there is no place for any transformative potential of education for the historically oppressed groups like tribes in India. Owing to its low literacy rate, Chhattisgarh has also received attention from international agencies which invest heavily in educational sector to meet international commitments like EFA, MDGs etc In addition, the local non-governmental organisations are also working to fill the gap in education in the so called ‘backward areas’. As it has been argued that many postcolonial countries have been moving (or have moved) from government to governance regarding

welfare policies like education (Dale 1997). The process of governance, that controls social activities towards desired outcomes cannot only be conducted by the State, but other non-State actors as well. However, the State can hold on to governance through regulation of these actors to meet its political objectives of economic growth.

Education, since Enlightenment, has been seen as a tool for scientific development and modernisation. It has been a prime instrument for the modern technological progress, a primary source for the supplies of skills that the modern civilisation depends on. Arup Maharatna writes that the role of education, in the modern civilisation, has become narrowed rendering the liberal view of education as mere means to material progress. He writes;

“The early 1960s witnessed attempts at constrictive reinterpretation of the role and purpose of education in terms of ideological premises, concepts and methodology of neoclassical economics, with “economics of education” being founded. In this newlyfounded economic discourse, education is seen as a vehicle for “human capital

formation”, a key both to avowed growth of aggregate economy and to upward economic

mobility of individuals/households”. (Mahartna 2014; 1) In other words, the role of education became more market oriented with an intense cost-benefit consciousness. As there was a dominance of market economy principles the concepts of “productivity, cost, revenues, returns, prices, investments, and ranks” became the vocabulary of globalized market for education (Maharatna 2014). Development and educating the Adivasi child In recent years there has been a significant amount of work in the field of child rights particularly education as a fundamental right. Burman (2012) points out that the discourse around childhood has been shifting towards the neoliberal ideas of freedom, autonomy and choice. These are also visible in the wider discourses of child welfare where the international NGOs have also made a shift from being child protection organization to child rights organisation. The significant shift towards rights discourses link rights to development, and this helps in making “development as an unquestionable good” (Burman 2012). Xaxa (2015) provides an overall political economy background to the condition of Adivasi children in the context of the community’s engagement (and the lack of it) with India’s development trajectory. The large scale displacement of the tribal population in India in the wake of development projects has impacted some 40% of the population; this has directly impacted the health and education of the Adivasi children (Xaxa 2015). Education for the community has been an agenda for social development by the State since the colonial times. The relative isolation of the community was said to be the reason for the lack of development.The project of modernisation through modern schooling along with other such welfare schemes in health was addressed to bridge this isolation and for integration of the community with the nation (ibid). This development model sees education as a tool to modernise the Adivasi community so that they move towards development, and away from poverty, seeking to “submissively assimilate” the community to the dominant nation (Tukdeo 2015). On the other hand, the educational policy does not address the structural inequality faced by the community. As Xaxa (2015) puts it, in the larger environment of denial of social justice in the form of lack of access to land, failure of decentralised governance, education also is a subset of these governance failures.

Developmental goals of education: Schooling in the Conflict Zone of Bastar The Bastar region, from the time of colonial rule, has been difficult to control and govern. The abundance of natural resources in its dense forests has brought tension between the local adivasi population, whose life and livelihood is dependent on the forest produces, and the Indian state which considers the traditional habitat of the local people as potentially exploitable to fuel growth. The project of bringing these communities into the fold of ‘civilisation’, or “Hinduisation of the scheduled tribes of central India” (Oommen 2011: 239 ), and in effect transforming tribal communities into a homogenised Indian society, is an ongoing process. However, the state’s development policy and its implementation has, for the last seven decades, failed to bring ‘opportunity of equality’to adivasis and compounding that are the problems of development-induced displacement of the tribal population and exploitation of the raw and unprocessed materials from their area (Xaxa 2011). These conditions are resulting in conflicts at various levels including armed resistance. Due to the inherent apathy towards the traditions, and in turn the very lives and livelihoods of the tribes, the Indian government has been sending consistent messages to these vulnerable communities that the project of development and of ‘civilising’ them are primarily towards the exploitation of their resources (Guha 2007; Xaxa 2011).

Under such circumstances education becomes a primary vehicle for economic and political development. Keeping the nexus between education and development as the backdrop, this study attempts to critically look at education under the current dominant political economic arrangement of neoliberalism. Based on fieldwork in Bastar, our objective is to understand how education and development are related in general and particularly in Bastar where the conflict and violence has left thousands of children displaced, orphaned and hence out of school. With these objectives the questions that we ask are: within this circumstance whatdoes ‘development’ signify for the people, community, and for the state. Problematising the agenda of development, we investigate the contradiction in the perceptions of development that education is to bring about. The markers of development for the state may or may not be the same for the ‘target’ populations including the out of school children. For example, the demonstrative development in the forms of roads, hospitals, and schools seem to serve a different purpose than the one intended.

**References**

*Burman, E. 2012. Deconstructing neoliberal childhood: Towards a feminist antipsychological approach. Sage Publication. Vol.19. 423-438.*

*Dale, R. 1993. The State and Governance of Education: An analysis of restructuring of the StateEducation relationship. In: Halsey,A.H. Lauder, Hugh. Brown, Phillip. Wells, Amy Stuart (Eds.)Education: Culture, Economy, and Society. Oxford University Press.*

*Guha, R. 2007. Democracy and Violence: In India and Beyond. Economic and Political Weekly. Vol. 48. Issue No. 14.*

*Maharatna, A. 2014. Invasion of Educational Universe by Neo-liberal Economic Thinking: A Civilisational Casualty? Economic and Political Weekly. Vol. XLIX, No.37 p. 61-70. Oommen, T. K. 2011. Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and the Nation: Situating G. S. Ghurye . Sociological Bulletin , 60, 228-244. Sadagopal, A 2010, Right to Education vs Right to Education Act, Social Scientist, Vol 38. Nos 9-12 September-December 2010*

*Tukdeo, S. 2015. Literacies and Power: Looking for Adivasi voice in Education. In: Kumar, S.A.K, Rustagi, P. and Subramaniam, R. (eds.) India’s Children: essays on social policy. Oxford University Press. 2015.*

*Xaxa, V. 2011. The Status of Tribal Children in India: A historical perspective. IHD-UNICEF Working Paper series. Children of India: Rights and Opportunities. Working paper no. 7 Xaxa, V. 2015. The Political economy of development and Adivasi Children and Sociey. In:*

*Kumar, S.A.K, Rustagi, P. and Subramaniam, R. (eds.) India’s Children: essays on social policy. Oxford University Press. 2015.*

**25**

**VISIONS, VOICES AND SOUNDS FOR HEARING IMPAIRED IN TEXTILE AND APPAREL EDUCATION**

**Author :** Dr.Jayashree Venkatesh

**Affiliation :**Department of Apparel Technology and Management,

Bangalore University,Bangalore

**Keywords** :Education

Fashion design

Hearing impaired

Textile.

**Introduction :**

Education for All (EFA) that represents an international commitment to ensure that every child and adult receives basic education of good quality is based both on a human rights perspective and on the generally held belief that education is central to individual well-being and national development. The objective of this paper is to highlight that the goals of EFA will not be achieved unless targeted measures are taken to help children with disabilities to overcome the barriers that is preventing them access to basic education. The paper focusses on the scope, opportunities and possibilities that textiles and apparel education can provide for people with hearing impairment. The emphasis in most cases is upon the student to fit the system rather than the system to adapt to meet the educational needs of a student. This expectation is completely ruled out since there is ample and equal opportunities to integrate the hearing impaired, the educational institutions and the demand of the industry. Textiles, apparel and fashion design is a vast area of study that deals with creativity, skill, technology and management. There is ample scope for training the hearing impaired in all the facets of textile and fashion design .This further ensures them not only for basic education and skill but prepares them for employment and life. This can only be achieved by concentrated efforts and close monitoring of the education system since education planning and implementation is as dynamic as fashion. Success in achieving this mandate will ultimately depend on how Indian educators and education systems can collaborate to deal with differences in India’s culturally charged and changing context .But one thing is definite that equal opportunities and inclusive education will definitely ensure a sustainable world.

**26**

**Inequality in Quality of Elementary Education in West Bengal- An analysis of disparities and determinants.**

**Author :** Shashi Bhusan Mishra

**Affiliation :**Calcutta University

**Keywords :** Primary schools

Learning achievement

Inequality

Tobit Regression

West Bengal

**Extended Abstract**

Background: From the inception of the National Education Policy of 1968, the major focus of the Government of India has been to provide universal elementary education. This commitment has been reiterated by subsequent polices like Operation Blackboard (1986), Total Literacy Campaigns (1988), District Primary Education Program (1994), and the Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (2001). The major focus of all these policies have continued to be improvement in enrolment, reducing drop outs and ensuring retention of students, with a special attention on gender equity. The focus on quality of education was mainly understood in terms of resource availability. However, in year 2009 the Government of India enacted the Right to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) that entitles every child between 6-14 years age a legal framework to acquire free and compulsory education. RTE not only focuses on the universalization of elementary education by ensuring basic availability of infrastructure, but for the first time recognized the quality dimension of education. The Twelfth Five Year Plan subsequently pointed out the aim of improving the quality in terms of better learning outcomes. However, the implementation of No Detention Policy (which allows students to be automatically promoted to next class), has been questioned in terms of a compromise with the quality of education. Subsequently, ASER reports have pointed out serious quality lapses among children across the states. While globalization and exposure to high quality English medium schools have excelled to improve educational quality outcomes among children belonging to richer strata, the vulnerable section in the economy has suffered from lack of quality of education. Thus, it becomes very important to analyse the quality of education in terms of learning achievement of the student in schools across regions and socio-economic groups.

Basic Approach of the Paper: Given this backdrop, the present paper attempts to analyse the quality of elementary education in the state of West Bengal. The reason to choose West Bengal is that it is an average performing state in terms of literacy 76.26% (Census, 2011). NEUPA (2010) posits that the access to primary schools, defined by availability and physical accessibility, to be one of the highest in West Bengal. DISE report (2014) points out that there has been significant improvement in school infrastructure measured by falling student-teacher ratio, student classroom ratio, rising average number of teacher per class and rising accessibility of schools. In contradiction, ASER (2013, 2014) highlights it to be one of the few major states having overall drop of quality of education. These two incongruous factors make this state a very interesting setting for further analysis of the quality of the educational sector in West Bengal. There is a stark difference of literacy across district, where Purba Mednipur has highest literacy (87.02) while Uttar Dinajpur is the lowest with (55.07). Moreover, average male literacy in the state is 81.69%, while female literacy remains to be 70.54% (Census 2011). This picture of gender inequality in literacy rates is present across districts, with Kolkata being the least and Purulia the highest. Thus, automatically the question that rises is weather similar gaps exist between male and female students in terms of learning outcomes. Moreover it also becomes interesting to analyse the difference in learning outcomes among different groups of students.

**OBJECTIVES**

Based on the above arguments the following are the main research questions:

1.How are the students in primary schools of West Bengal performing in terms of learning outcomes? (Performance in mathematics, reading and writing)?

2.Does there exists significant Gender Gap in leaning achievement of student?

3. Does this learning outcome differs across different groups (geographical region, place of residence (rural/urban), policies of government (Mid-day meal, Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation or CCE etc), or across different infrastructure facility?

4.What are the factors that determine the learning achievement of students in mathematics and language?

**Data and Methodology**

For analyzing the performance of the students the marks of the students of class 4 in mathematics and reading and writing and information on some input variables on students and schools were taken from Government of West Bengal’s Utkarsha Abhiyan 2013-14, under the state’s Sarba Siksha Abhiyan’s mission. Utkarsha Abhiyan is an initiative by Government of West Bengal to assess the reading, writing and numerical skills of the primary school children based on previous years competencies. Here a sample of students per class were chosen such that they represent different groups, like a mix of boys and girls, slow and fast learners, from privileged and depressed social backgrounds etc. of the government run primary schools. The students appeared for a standardised test of numerical aptitude (full marks being 20), reading skills (10 marks) and writing skills (10 marks). All the students were evaluated by external examiners. Further school name was matched with DISE dataset (District Information System for Education for the year 2013-14), from where data related infrastructure have used.

For the purpose of analysis 1.23,980 students of class 4 were considered from 12912 primary schools distributed across West Bengal. To analyse the disparity across the student’s performance across districts basic exploratory statistics and Gini measures are used. For analysing the difference across groups, standard mean based t-test is used. However to analyse the factors determining the performance of the students in mathematics and language, two separate Multivariate Tobit regression analysis is considered at school level. The choice of Tobit regression over standard OLS regression model is due to the fact that the marks of the students represent a censored distribution with upper censor been the maximum marks and lower censor is indicated by minimum marks.

The regression equation can be shown as

Y\_i= β’ x\_i+ μi .

Where Yi is the marks scored in mathematics in the first regression and marks scored in language in another one. Xi’s contain the set of independent variables which can affect the performance of the student. Some basic independent variables are: average attendance of the students, distance of the school from cluster resource center, age of the school, availability of toilet per student, teacher per student, classroom per student, teacher’s qualification etc. Several dummy variables were used like CCE, electricity facility of school, medical check-up facility, whether the school is approached by all weather roads etc. Another interactive variable of availability of girls’ toilet in co-ed or girls and availability of water in these toilets are used too. Similar variables are created for boys.

**Results:**

The analysis of marks of 123980 students shows the mean marks (out of 20) of mathematics 15.42 and language is 13.65 . District level analysis reveals that in terms of mathematics Nadia is the best performer (16.56 marks) followed by Birbhum (16.28) and Mednipur (16.22), whereas the worse performing districts are Shiliguri (11.9), followed by Uttar Dinajpur (12.7) and Malda (13.47). In terms of Language the top performer is Nadia (15.29) followed by Kolkata (13.93) and Birbhum (13.92), whereas the worst performers are Uttar Dinajpur (11.66), Maldah (11.72) and Darjeeling (12.01).

In order to capture the interconnection of quantity and quality of education, correlation coefficients are calculated. While no significant correlation across districts could be identified between overall literacy rates and quality outcomes, the study found strong correlation between district-wise enrolment rates and quality indices, both for language and mathematics (significant at 1% level).

Analysis of Gini coefficient across districts posits that though there is no strong inequality (Gini coefficients being 0.037 and 0.032 for mathematics and language), there exists strong inequality across schools within districts. The highest inequality prevails in districts like Maldah, Siliguri, Uttar Dinajpur and Darjeeling, while the districts like Nadia, Birbhum, Paschim and Purba Mednipur exhibited low inequality.

Interestingly it is observed that on the average, girls are performing better than boys in mathematics, reading and writing and the difference are statistically significant at 1%, representing a negative gender bias. In mathematics girls are performing better than boys except in South 24 Parganas and Uttar Dinajpur. Additionally, majority of districts where girls perform better, the gaps are statistically significant. The story is true in case of language too.

Students in Urban regions have performed better in learning outcomes. Interestingly students of schools, where CCE programme is followed, Schools with Mid-day Meal Programme, where basic drinking water facility is available are performing significantly better in both subjects in comparison to their respective control groups. Single sex school students have done relatively better than the students of co-educational schools.

The results of the two separate Tobit regression shows that factors like average attendance of students, age of the schools, teacher per student, teachers with higher qualifications, availability of more toilet per student, higher workdays of schools have positive impact on the scores of the student. Factors like distance of the school form the cluster centers or district centers and classroom student ratio have significant negative impact on the performance of the students. Interestingly more female teachers and higher funds received per student have insignificant impact. Schools with separate girls’ toilet perform better (especially girls). Further if these toilets have continuous running water facilities (especially in girl’s toilet) performance gets enhanced further. Students of schools belonging to urban region, having CCE implemented, have a school management council, proper functioning electricity facility, proper drinking water facility, having proper approaching road or have medical checkups facility are performing better than their counter parts.

**27**

**'Stream Choice' in Secondary Education: Role of Family- A Study of Students from a Government School in Delhi**

**Author :** Priyambada Shah

**Affiliation :**Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords :**Stream choice

lower middle class

lower class

family

Locality

**Introduction :**

The present study will focus on the ‘stream choice’ in the higher secondary school. The students have to choose any one out of the three streams offered by the school- science,  
commerce or arts. Nowadays there is a growing number of students from lower middle and  
lower class families, often, the first generation in their families to enter secondary education.  
How do students in these families ‘choose’ streams in class XI? What are parents’ aspirations  
and families’ strategies for support? The complex processes of decision making within family  
and how they are influenced by economic and social factors, networks, aspirations and  
struggles of parents, gender differentiation in society. These are some of the questions which  
the study closely looked at in the context of role of class, gender, and family in the  
educational choices that students among the lower middle and lower class families make in  
higher secondary education. The result of the study has been highlighted under various  
subthemes.  
The subject choice, access to secondary education and related factors had received the  
attention of scholars like Woods (1976), Pinxten et al (2012), Werfhorst et al (2003), Davies  
et al (2008), Sujatha and Rani (2006). However there is hardly any research on stream choice  
in relation to family. This study is an attempt to understand this crucial aspect of stream and  
various factors influencing the choice of stream in higher secondary education.  
  
**Theoretical framework**  
The study has used interactionist perspective of Oakes (1985) and Woods (1979) to  
understand streaming in India. The study has further used agencies of parents in choices and  
practices and for this the study takes Woods (1976) understanding that subject choice is  
‘socially structured’ and Drury’s (1993) understanding of families strategies. These helped to  
understand how parents make educational choices for the child.  
  
**Methodology**  
For the purpose of the study Kendriya Vidyalaya (KV), situated in Jawaharlal Nehru  
University (JNU) was chosen. 50 students residing in JNU, IIT and Munirka (opposite JNU)  
formed the part of the sample and were identified through convenience sampling. These 50  
students are first generation (34) and second generation (16) in their families to enter class  
XI. These students belonged to lower middle and lower class families, wherein their parents  
were engaged in lower professional, routine non manual, skilled manual, and semi-unskilled  
manual work. Students in the sample were referred to as respondents. This included 22 girls  
and 28 boys. The interview was taken in two stages, first to get the basic information of the  
respondents and second stage comprised of in depth interviews with the respondents, their  
parents and elder siblings.  
  
  
**Parental involvement**  
The family appeared to have the most influence on the respondent’s ‘stream choice’.However the involvement of the family members varied. The parents provided support and guidance to the respondents. But the social and educational background of the parents constrained their involvement in the decision making regarding ‘stream choice’. Thus in this  
context the parents left the choice to the respondent. The fathers appeared to be more  
involved in the decision making then mothers. The fathers’ involvement ranged from  
suggesting respondent to take a stream, guiding and leaving it to the respondents. The  
mothers seemed to be supporting the respondents. However, their role in guidance regarding  
‘stream choice’ was minimal and echoed the views of the fathers or encouraged the  
respondent to opt any stream of interest.  
In the case of parents’ involvement, the place of residence played an important role. Since  
these parents belonged to lower middle and lower classes, they themselves were not so  
educated and majority (35) studied till higher secondary.  
The faculty, colleagues and students of the institutions appeared to have an influence on the  
parents. The parents residing in JNU encouraged the respondents to opt for arts and science  
while parents from IIT encouraged them to take science. However in the case of Munirka, 4  
(out of 5) respondents opted for commerce. So commerce appeared to be a ‘new stream’ and  
students were taking it on their own as science was regarded ‘hard’ and ‘difficult’ and arts  
was regarded as ‘easy’. Commerce was perceived as a midway choice.  
  
  
**Role of elder sibling**  
In families where parents were not able to guide and advice the respondents, the elder  
siblings provided guidance. Elder siblings who had completed higher secondary schooling  
had the highest educational qualifications in their families and hence they provided guidance  
and academic inputs to the respondents.  
  
  
Construction of streams  
Study pointed towards construction of streams on the basis of ability of students, amount of  
hard work, tuition, enjoyment, expensive-inexpensive, scoring, salary package,  
understanding- rote memorization, and explanation-elaboration. On the basis of these  
constructions, science was considered as ‘hard’ and arts as ‘easy’, and commerce ‘neither too  
hard nor less hard’. Some parents and respondents believed that science and commerce  
required ‘complex thinking’ and arts required ‘rote memorization’. An important aspect  
emerged is that not all parents and respondents held these views about streams especially arts.  
The locality appeared to have influenced the perceptions that fathers and respondents had  
about arts.  
The study suggested that gender of the respondents did not have an important impact on the  
‘stream choice’. The stereotypical views on gendered division of stream/subject were not  
influential. Parents gave equal opportunity to both boys and girls and wanted ‘best’ for their  
child. This is due to the influence of locality wherein parents were thinking beyond the  
gendered constructions.  
  
  
**Reflect back**  
When respondents were asked to reflect back, many were not happy with the streams they  
chose and subject combinations within it. They took the particular stream because of lack of  
awareness, financial constraints, and less CGPA.  
  
  
**Aspirations**  
What emerged very clearly from the study were the high aspirations that respondents and  
parents belonging to lower middle and lower classes hold regarding education and future  
careers. Despite the fact that they come from homes where they do not get much guidance  
they are continuously encouraged by their parents to achieve high goals. The respondents  
from JNU and IIT were quite clear about their aim but the respondents from Munirka were  
confused as they said everything depend on class XII marks.  
Thus, class restricted the scope and awareness among the respondents and their parents but  
locality widened their horizon especially in JNU and IIT. In choice of stream the location  
played a significant role. Their understanding of the stream/subject was shaped by location  
wherein arts was regarded as a good stream by respondents residing in JNU. However the  
respondents and parents residing in Munirka were more vulnerable as compared to IIT and  
JNU because they were not directly engaged with the academic environment and also lack  
interaction with knowledgeable people, which became hindrance in decision making.

**28**

**New networks of educational reform: Situating the ‘Teach for India’ programme**

**Author :** Vidya Subramanian

**Affiliation :**Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords :**PPP

NGO

networks

teachers

**Introduction :**

The ‘Teach for India’ programme is a Public-Private Partnership (PPP) intervention within the under resourced and highly variegated government schooling system in India. Through its two-year fellowship it seeks to encourage individuals to teach in poorly functioning municipal schools with the aim of providing better quality education and in turn addressing the educational inequities among children from low-income communities.   
  
One of the central aspects of the programme is its re-imagining of the ‘school teacher’. Within the scope of the programme, the ‘school teacher’ is any high-achieving graduate or professional who may not necessarily be trained in the field of education or choose it as a career, but enters the vocational space of teaching for reasons such as altruism, exploring the social sector, opportunities to venture into school teaching aside from a traditional route or modes to enhance personal career trajectories (Vellanki 2014; Teach for India website: www.teachforindia.org). ‘Teach for India’ traces its vision to two prominent global entities the ‘Teach for All’ (TFAll) network and the ‘Teach for America’ (TFA) organisation, which has been in operation in the United States of America (US) for more than 25 years (Straubhaar and Friedrich 2015, Ellis et al.2015, Teach for America website: www.teachforamerica.org, Teach for All website: www.teachforall.org).   
  
Like most of its global counterparts, ‘Teach for India’s’ operations are largely supported by a range of private corporate and industrial sponsors (Vellanki 2014). It was in 2009 that Shaheen Mistri head of the Akanksha Foundation founded ‘Teach for India’ in Mumbai and Pune through support and assistance from Anu Aga, former executive Chairperson of the Thermax Group of Industries, Wendy Kopp (founder of ‘Teach for America’ and ‘Teach for All’ network) and the McKinsey organisation (Gupta and Mistri 2014). The programme today operates in seven cities - Mumbai, Pune, Delhi, Hyderabad, Chennai, Ahmedabad and Bangalore – across the country and is one of the most visible not-for-profits whose members and Alumni are working in diverse areas of school education, including teacher training, curriculum, testing, school management and leadership.   
  
The aim of this paper is to situate the emergence of the ‘Teach for India’ programme and map some dimensions of its links to diverse global, national and local actors and organisations through ‘Social Network Analysis’. The programme is connected to a multitude of prominent individuals, NGOs and corporate foundations. ‘Social Network Analysis’ is used to understand the larger matrix of collaborations through which global discourses of reform travel through multiple sites and influence realms of the ‘national’ and the ‘local’. The Indian satellite organisation – ‘Teach for India’ – will be discussed locating specifically urban socio-political environments of schooling for the poor (mostly in the cities of Mumbai and Delhi), increasing neglect of teachers and teacher education and the coming of NGOs within this space to offer support and alternatives to the failing municipal education system.

**29**

**Meaning and Determinants of School Leadership for Women in India**

**Author :** N. Mythili Sastry

**Affiliation :** National University of Educational Planning and Administration

**Keywords** : Structures

Agency

Situational Strength of the structures

Opportunity for Agency

Ladder of School Leadership Development for Women Determinants of School leadership for Women

***Extended Abstract***

1. **Gender and School Leadership in International and Indian Contexts**

Research in the 1980s on school leadership of women in developed countries spread to traditional societies in the Middle-East Asia, Africa and south Asia in 1990s. Despite international, national and regional efforts to address the women and gender issues, problems multiply, gender inequality and discrimination continues, issues and challenges remain unresolved and the system continues to function without adequately addressing the gender blind ways2. Interest in this field continues to be ever new as issues are reopened from time to time due to changing social, economic, cultural contexts impacting the school leadership of women. Consequently the role of agency and structure influencing the women’s choices, career aspirations within and beyond the education system is reiterated. In India, studies refer to the effect of social norms, family mores, social class and socialization, caste, affecting the aspiration, choice of profession, income of women in the employment which also includes status quo maintenance of patriarchy (Banerjee 2002, Shenoy-Parker 2014:63, Jandhyala and Ramachandran, 2015).

While there are a number of studies that highlight the issues such as under representation, orthodox and gender stereotypes in the families, career break due to child care, ethics of care, perception that school leadership is a male domain, gender discrimination, passive racism, marginalization of ethnic minority, negative perception among women teachers to take up leadership roles, sexual orientation, discouragement in the society to take up leadership roles, mono-culturalism of power, lack of leadership preparation which are related to structures and role of women in school leadership, very few studies refer to the interaction between structures that impinge upon the agency of women resulting in a particular way of interpreting the meaning of school leadership for women. The present study attempts to fill this gap. Thus, research questions raised for the present study are: ***How do different structures and agencyinteract to shape school leadership for women?What is meant by school leadership for women in Indian context?* What are its determinants?**The study also assumes even greater significance as school

1. Assistant Professor, National Centre for School Leadership, NUEPA New Delhi – 110016. [Sastry.mythili18@gmail.com](mailto:Sastry.mythili18@gmail.com)mob:9971292148
2. Addi Raccah 2002, Cubillo and Brown, 2003, Coleman 2003, Fritzgerald 2003, Arar 2010, Brinia 2012, Panigrahi 2013, Miller 2013,

Kyriakoussis and Saathi (n.d.), Shekshaft 1987, Dorsey 1989, Limerick and Lingard 1995, Ozga 1993, Coleman 2003, Court 1995, Preciurumantuntu *et.al.,*2012, Benham 1997, Rey, 2005; Lugg & Tooms 2010, Martin 2011, Abu-Tineh 2012, Popescu and Gunter 2011, Makura, n.d, Jane, *et.al,* 2010, Shapira,*et al*(2011), Fuller 2013, Mc Lay and Brown, 1999, Blackmore 1999, Trinidad and Normore, 2005, Mutopa and Shumba 2006, Monari Mwebi 2008, Chabaya 2009, Gaus 2011, Aslanargun 2012, *Sperandio and Kagoda (n.d.),* National College of School Leadership, UK. n.d.

1

leadership for women in school education remains an unexplored area in Indian context except for the lone study on gender equity in school leadership by Mythili (2014).

**2. Theoretical Framework**

The study adopts structure – agency theory. The review of various existing literature on structure-agency theory led to the development of a conceptual framework to analyze the qualitative data (See matrix 1).



**Matrix 1: A Conceptual Framework: School Leadership for Women in India**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | **Structure** |  |  |  | **Macro Structure- situated** |  | **Meso Structure – situated between** |  | **Micro Structure – situated** |  |  |
|  |  | **Agency** |  |  |  | **farther away from individual** |  | **distant and domestic structures** |  | **close to an individual and** |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | **and hence distant (Education** |  | **(school and Community)** |  | **hence domestic (family)** |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | **System )** |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Fundamental** | **human** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **capacity with Projective** | |  |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Agency** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Fundamental human** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  |  |
|  |  | **capacity with Practical** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Evaluative Agency** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Domain specific Projective** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **agency** |  |  |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Domain specific Practical** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Evaluative Agency** |  |  |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  | D/V/M |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |



(D- Determinsitc; M- Mediated; V – Voluntary)

**Methodology**

A case study of 20 women school heads using in-depth interviews was conducted working in different Indian states. Qualitative data is organized under seven themes using Narratives, *viz.,* Basic profiles of women school heads; Educational background of the family; Familial Support; Balancing Resilience and Determination**;** Leading School Administration, Management and Academic Functions; Gender in School Leadership Practices; Zeal beyond School Leadership and Irrespective of Gender. These emergent pattern from the narratives is examined to study the interaction between different structures and agency. The meaning of school leadership for women is deduced for Indian context.

In order to arrive at the determinants, factors are identified from the narratives and positioned suitably within the conceptual framework. From these factors positioned in the conceptual framework, explicit and implicit cues are identified to arrive at the situational strength of each structure and its respective opportunity for agency. From here, key determinants of school leadership for women deduced.

**A Snapshot of the Findings**

These narratives reveal that agency of women heads interacts with the structures to create a ladder–like blueprint for women school leadership in Indian context. The ladder consists of four steps - *Aspire,Achieve and Ascend* and *Transcend -* a linear movement in the school leadership of women*.* The firstthree stages, namely, *aspire, achieve, and ascend* is mostly shaped within the scope of education system structure and supported by the family. The fourth stage, *i.e., transcend* is predominantly due to the agency. These four steps of the ladder are defined in the following manner:

***Aspire*** refers to how women set their personal goal to become school heads. They are inspired andsupported by parents and husband resulting in a *collective aspiration* for the women who chooses her goal as a career in school leadership. To accomplish the goal, she negotiates between multiple roles and expectations from the family and profession with the support of her parents and husband. This support is critical for young women, whereas for older women, it is a means of self actualization having negotiated and settled with multiple roles and expectations.

***Achieve*** is about how women attempt to live the leadership role in the school having accessed theposition either through direct recruitment competing to surpass the intermediary stages or promotion based on seniority. They practice many skills such as negotiation, assertion, resilience, caution and diligent response to situations by working silently, proving positively, neutralizing sensitive situations, depoliticizing complexity with an explicitly projected attitude of ‘all is well’ and refusing to recognize the tension by reiterating that ‘there is no problem’. They construct a safety net of shadow neutrality around them to gain acceptability by colleagues and higher officers yet problematising some situations wherever negotiations are possible.

***Ascend*** is to excel in the profession as school leaders crossing over professional barriers and systemicconstraints in addition to fulfilling the demands of multiple roles and expectations as wife, mother, with a sense of readiness, to take up greater challenges, seek more opportunities and make a dent in their careers accentuated by a mix of intellectual capital in the family, core professional competencies and people-centered approach. They exercise casualness about gender biases. These women neither encourage patriarchy nor succumb to status quo that is veiled beneath the women’s employment. Leadership values of these women school leaders are significantly different from those who are yet to cross-over the thresh hold levels of socio-cultural barriers despite working in leadership positions. So, leadership is also in asserting merit over gender based choice, adopting a cautious approach to address covert and overt gendered practices, raising the bar of excellence by demonstrating confidence, maximizing social, cultural, financial and intellectual capitals inherited and enriched through self effort in their work place. Thus, these women leaders exercise their agency conspicuously within the structure.

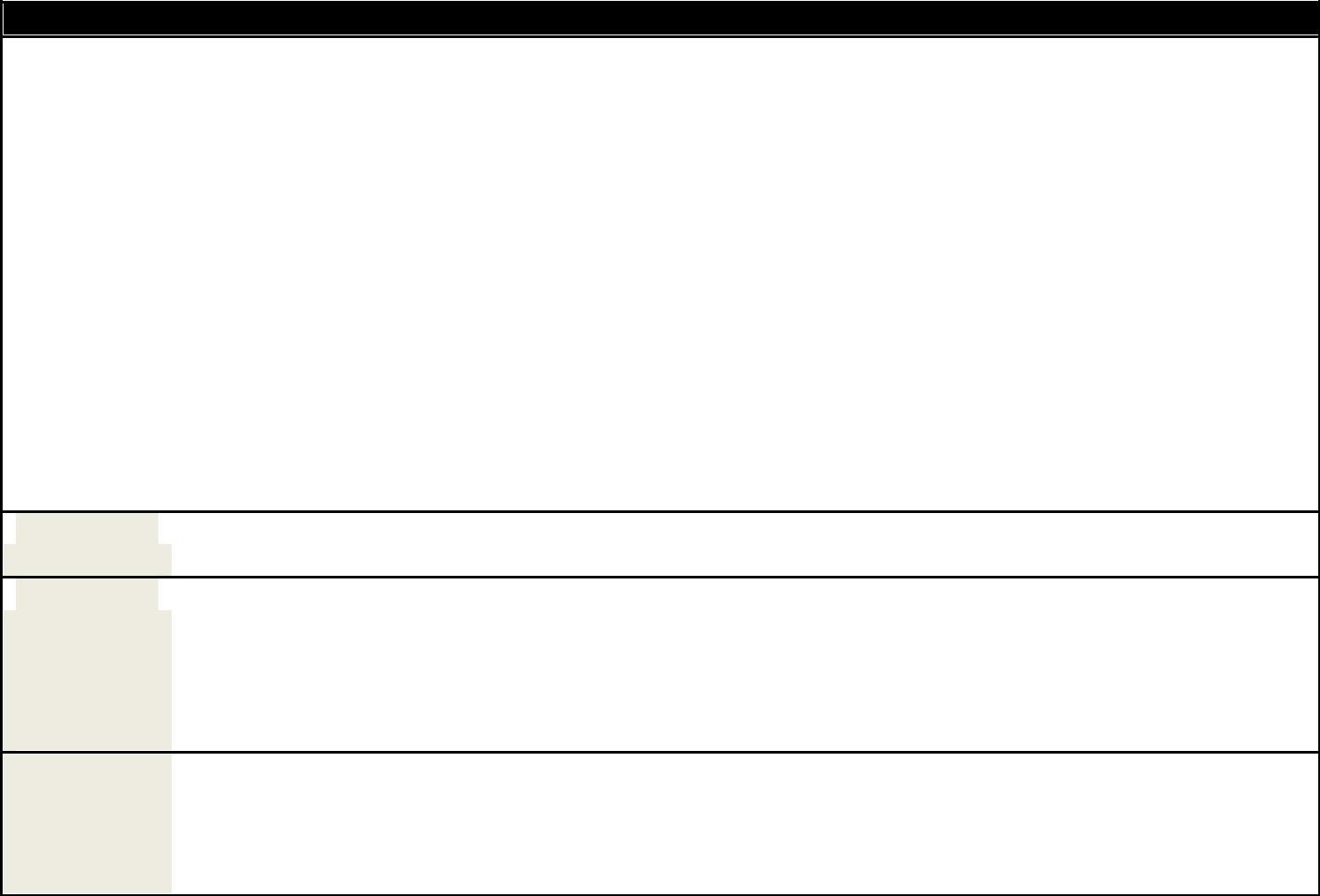
**Transcend** is to consider the school leadership as a means for rising to a higher realm of life with anattitude of service. It is an important phase gradually reached by women in one’s life. They gradually transform to visualize their leadership role as serving the cause of children’s education using the positional advantage as school heads. Thus, school structure serves as an important means to strengthen their agency to cross over the norm-based leadership by effectively mediating, deriving a sense of self worth, fulfillment and confidence, respecting the available opportunities, facing the challenges and overcoming barriers and/or limitations.

The linearity in the ladder of school leadership for women is due to the hierarchical nature of the education system. It was also found that role of education system as a primary strcuture in encouraging women to develop as school leaders is only modest in India. Agency of women with the support of family structure plays a significant role in navigating the linearity in their career path as school leaders.

However, a rare few transcended the confines of the education system structure to consider school leadership as a means to serve the cause of children’s education.

Meaning of School Leadership for women in Indian context, therefore, refers to “*deriving a meaning foroneself by seeking an answer to what is worth doing as a school leader, exploiting the opportunities, understanding existing structures and their boundaries, translating them to lead schools by maximizing agency to leap into higher realms of self awareness through actions, practice, review, reflection and meta-cognition. It is an outward-inward movement of raising consciousness beyond the role of school leadership to embrace the greater good traversing from aspiring to transcending the norm based leadership using the very education system structure as a means with a moral purpose powered by agency”.*

The determinants of school leadership for women may be either deterministic, mediated or voluntary depending on the nature of the structures and role of agency. It was also found that family plays a significant role in which support from parents and husband are critical actors.



**Determinants of School Leadership for Women in Indian Context**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | **Determinants** |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Structures** |  |  | **Deterministic (D)** |  | **Mediated (M)** |  | **Volunteerism (V)** |  |  |  |
|  |  | **Education** |  |  | Provision and access |  | Core Professional Competence |  | Love for children |  |  |  |
|  |  | **system** |  |  | to school leadership |  | influencing the choice as a school |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | position |  | leader |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | **School** |  |  |  |  | Practice Distributed leadership and/or |  | Objective assessment of the |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Shared leadership |  | utilitarian value of conflicting roles |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | in a given circumstance |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Create an identity for the School |  | Knowledge driven Decision making |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | in school administration and |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | management |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Knowledge driven Leadership Practice |  | Integrate innate feminine qualities |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | with professional roles to create a |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | people centered approach |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**Community**

**Family**

**Diversity in**

**School**

**Context**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | Direct all efforts towards achieving |  | Trust building through Relationships | |  |
|  |  | expected student learning Outcomes |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Collective aspiration and ownership of |  | Strong belief in oneself |  |  |
|  |  | the family in shaping woman’s |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | career as a school leader |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Higher levels of preparedness to |  | Conviction |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | compete in the employment market |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Situational Leadership skills and abilities

Gradually mature into a transformational leader

The study reveals that the key structural determinants in the education system are deterministic in nature that has weakened its own positional advantage to encourage women to ascend to school leadership positions. Thus, it is a delayed process to achieve school leadership positions, rendering the role of

agency to become increasingly important. Competition also puts excessive pressure on early and mid-career women professionals. As a consequence, family as a support structure has a crucial role in the professional career seeking professional women in the area of school leadership in Indian context, due to which some determinants are mediated and a few others are voluntary. The passion to serve the cause of education for children drives a few women to exercise agency over the structures to cross over the threshold levels, paving way for volunteerism.

At a time when the agency is predominantly deciding the school leadership for women in India, the question is how should education system realign and reinvent itself to encourage school leadership among women? One of the possible answers is to visualize school leadership as a necessary step in the ladder of professional growth and career progression in education system. Hence, in Indian context, selection of school leader needs to be shifted from seniority based promotion to requisite aptitude, competency and ability to lead the change that is beyond routine school administration and classroom teaching. These are articulated as: Right of *opportunity* for school leadership; Right of *access* to school leadership positions; Right of school heads for autonomy and decision making powers; Right of school heads to gender equity and non-discriminatory work environment characterized by dignity and respect for self esteem. This approach may help in addressing SDG 5.5 which talks about ensuring equal opportunity for leadership and; full and effective participation of women in the school education to improve school quality and student learning.

**30**

**Understanding Visual Arts Practices of Middle School Art Teachers in Hyderabad**

**Author :** Shravan Kumar Pendyala,Ritesh Khunyakari

**Affiliation :**Tata Institute of Social Sciences

**Keywords** : Art Education

Substantive knowledge

Teacher professional development.

**Introduction** :

This paper investigates visual arts and teacher practices as it is conceived of and practiced by the art teachers in context of middle schools in Hyderabad. The predominant idea and understanding of 'art through education' and 'education through art' in school scenario has drawn serious attention of research studies worldwide. The larger body of research developed around art education, has positioned itself in a manner draws upon perspectives exploring the foundational (i.e. socio-historical contexts, art development, agency of stakeholders in shaping arts) and philosophical (i.e. aesthetics, self-expression, visualisation and creativity) roots of art and human engagement, both along conceptual as well as developmental progression. Art historical studies, art education and educational domains, particularly those focusing on visual mode of learning have given its instrumental value in learning, for which teacher plays a vital role. Several research studies on art education as a discipline in itself, have emphasised the convergence of practice with the ideas around the relevance of art in education. However, what seem to be missing in this understanding is how art as a subject unfolds itself for the “art teacher” practicing it, the students intending to benefit from the learning engagement, and the nature of negotiations that shape the processes of interactions between art teacher and their students.

This paper reports findings from a yearlong empirical study that investigating relation between the role of visual arts and the role of art teacher’s practices. Firstly, paper in its fringes discusses the role of visual arts in the schools, as in the curriculum, and as a subject. Within the existing idea of all these components of school education, the role of the visual arts and art teacher is elaborated along with interpretations of their practices. Secondly, the paper portrays research outcomes and findings eliciting some implications to reflect on art educational practices in Indian context. Drawing upon the larger context of contemporary art practices, both at professional and curricular, this paper argues that the role of art teacher and art teaching practices in visual arts at the middle school level is an important avenue that opens to understanding the framing of “Visual Arts” as a curricular subject. In reference to the Indian context, it would be significant and relevant to explore the art practices of teachers in institutional settings, particularly at the school level where ideas about the significance of art education is admirably established and experienced by students, teachers, and parents alike. An understanding of teachers’ practices reveals a considerable interest of in-service teachers to relate to potentials of art education to nurture the human creative capabilities and aesthetic sensibilities. Beyond exploring teachers’ perceptions, this study attempted to examine teacher practices through two strategic research questions. (1). what kind of art ideas, concepts, components, and strategies are used in art teaching at middle school level? (2). what kind of consideration do art teachers employ at practice in order to make a meaningful engagement with the middle school students?

The study was circumscribed within a qualitative, interpretative paradigm, to explore and understand the verbal and non-verbal, spontaneous and complex actions of teachers and students in wide-ranging instructional and open learning environments. Using the phenomenological approach to capture the experiences of the teachers from three different schools and their settings to identify and relate to teacher practices in contemporary art classrooms. This includes the explicit effort of art teachers to develop pedagogic sequences that support art learning with their classroom. Data gathered during this study, examined the prescribed syllabi and identified it to relate it to the pedagogic components of teaching arts. Treatment of ideas and concepts, components within visual arts and design are covered to comprehend the subtleties of evolving nature. Data included class-room observation, thick-descriptions, field-notes, after-class interactions and semi-structured in-depth interviews with the art teachers. All these data sources helped in understanding ideas and conceptualising teachers’ art practices. Students’ and facilitators' artefacts illustrated the conceptions around art components. Besides important art events and co-curricular, extra-curricular events, art field visits and student art exhibitions were explored to tap the nature of ‘visual art’ engagements of students and teachers. From trends in data, three art techniques (i.e. stroking & smudging, perspective, and composition) was used to in-depth probing to reveal individual teacher’s preferences on conceptualisation of visual art elements. Analysis of data-transcripts involved identifying relevant episodes of art practices from the observed classes, field-notes and drawing insights from discussions and interviews with teachers to discuss nuances and seek clarification about goals achieved during the art classes and draw inferences about practices.

This empirical attempt to unpack the existing practices, gave insights on visual art as a subject, identify teachers' considerations and decisions that shape their art class pedagogies. In terms of art curriculum, there is a felt need for furthering our focus on aspects related to learning theories in art and education; and the philosophy of art education. Teachers’ practices brought out the ways and affordances they create to engage students in art learning. The study of visual arts practices unravelled a chasm between teachers’ advocacies on one hand and their classroom practices on the other. The schooling structures seems to operate in ways providing the ideological and value framework that teachers bring as they negotiate with the curriculum and vision of the school. It is interesting to notice that art practices are shaped in a way that is harmonious with larger ideas. These include beliefs of the art teachers’ around ‘art’ and ‘art programme’. This is especially relevant in the case where there is an evident absence of art text-books, lack of dedicated curricular guidance, and paucity of resources that impact the class-room practices. The art teachers often tend to choose ideas which are easy to teach, manage and can attract students. Art then becomes activity engagements, decorative and production-oriented. As a result, art a curricular subject seriously limiting experiential engagement which in turn has implications for progression in learning in art education. The epistemological standpoints of art teachers helped in gaining a practitioners perspective on art discourses and consolidate them by relating to teachers substantive knowledge and skill.

The process of meaning making in this manner helped gain an emergent account of contemporaneous practices of art rather than being guided by theoretical frameworks. It is hoped that this understanding will give leads to planning and designing systematic interventions for professional development of art teachers.

**31**

**Title of Paper: Creating an opportunity for Innovative Teacher - PilotExperiment in RuralKarnataka**

**Authors :** Vaijayanti K, Anuradha Mondal and Suma MN

**Affiliation :** Akshara Foundation, Bengaluru

**Keywords** : Teacher Motivation

Innovation

Mathematics Contest

**Abstracts :**

The need to make gradual educational changes at micro- level institutional innovations is not often seen. Reviews of government school performance in rural India show they lack mechanisms resulting into lower accountability and returns. Time-series ASER1 data outlay declining numeracy performance of grade III and V government school children in rural India. The reasons for poor outcomes in rural government primary schools are often grounded towards teaching capability, inadequate learning materials and lack of innovations.

This paper discusses more on the third aspect; innovation. A range of major programs for improvement of quality of education were implemented, and a set of reforms, including curriculum, evaluation and institutional features were achieved for the government schools. However, the limited chances for innovation have often created a slow and depressing atmosphere in the government schools. Against this backdrop, this paper discusses the innovative action taken by Akshara Foundation necessary for quality education other than curriculum and institutional reforms.

Teachers play a pivotal role in shaping a child‟s intellect through knowledge dissemination. In manydeveloping countries, government primary school teachers are equipped only with text books and a curriculum and they limit their forays into vital innovation that can foster young minds. Unlike in elite private schools, government school teachers do not get the opportunity to explore any kind of innovative teaching methods except for their routine, annual teacher training that aims at competence revival. Government school teachers often lack motivation to make learning more interesting and helpful for children and the teaching experience more valid and meaningful for themselves. The scanty research available on teacher motivation in primary school suggests the principal motivators for teachers for better teaching in primary schools are extrinsic factors such as

1 Annual Status of Education Report from 2007 to 2014.

positive responses from children, less workload, colleague support and ability to deal with school administrator 2. Thus, the limited evidences calls for the need to have more empirical evidences to inform education stakeholders to make important decisions on methods of motivating teachers.

Akshara Foundation, a non-profit organization in Bengaluru, has been implementing a Mathematics3 programme in rural government primary schools and has created a mathematics contest for teachers as a part of the program evaluation strategy. Any noble approach loses its significance if it is not revived by further interventions, a constant push towards goals, demand for academic quality, and continuous support.

The contest was organized in one of Akshara‟s working geographies, Kushtagi4, to understand thelevel of competence among mathematics teachers who have been exposed to Akshara‟s Akshara

Ganitha programme for the last 4 years. The objective behind this contest was to motivate teachers and encourage them to bring creativity into classrooms. The other objective was to build advocacy and disseminate awareness of the Mathematics Programme in the community, the government hierarchy and other stakeholders in and around the selected geography by airing the reality show using the facilities of a local cable TV operator.

*Contest Processes*

Akshara team had sent applications to all 220 government primary schools in Kushtagi to invite entries from Mathematics teachers teaching in grades I to V. The team received 280 entries from these 220 schools. While screening the participants on the basis of knowledge parameters set by Akshara‟s evaluation team, 130 participants could clear the round. The next stage involved directentry for semi-final round and the evaluation team selected 20 teachers for the round, out of which six were finalists. In the final round all the six finalists had to demonstrate a mathematics concept using one TLM from the Akshara Ganitha kit within the given time. The panel of judges for this round comprised of three experts from the domain.

*Post Contest Processes*

Post contest an investigation was done to study to know more about the 20 semi-finalist teachers - The investigation seeks how open educators are to accept change or innovation. Additionally, a small set of parents, SDMC members and school head teachers were also interviewed to understand

2 Rosemary Addison and Mark Brundrett. 2008. “Motivation and demotivation of teachers in primary schools: the challenge of change”, ***Education3–13***, 36(1): 79–94.

Esther T. Canrinus, Michelle Helms-Lorenz, Douwe Beijaard, Jaap Buitink and Adriaan Hofman. 2012. **“**Self-efficacy, job satisfaction, motivation and commitment: exploring the relationships between indicators of teachers‟ professional identity”, ***European Journal of Psychology of Education*,**

27(1): 115-132.

1. The Akshara Ganitha – a Math program followed a pedagogical strategy of three stages viz., concrete, representational and abstract in learning mathematics with aid of Teaching Learning Materials designed to help the teacher to cover all the concepts specified in teaching mathematics up to grade 5 taught in government primary schools of Karnataka. The pedagogy was aligned to the Karnataka State Curriculum Framework 2005 and the text books prescribed by the government.
2. Kushtagi is an educational block of Koppal district. Kushtagi has 220 government primary schools.

their level of awareness and perceptions about the need for Akshara‟s Mathematics Programme and the Mathematics contest.

**Achievements**

* The Math Contest for teachers created the necessary environment to think about the relevance of the Akshara Mathematics programme and related training among the teachers. Reality show seems to be a motivator and energizer among the teacher community which is bogged by daily routines. For teachers the competition was first time exposure in their teaching career. Thus, events like this may keep the know-how on the program alive. However the event has to be designed for a longer time period so that teachers may be motivated to get latched on to the program.
* Post contest, there is higher demand for specific concept-clarity support from Akshara by teachers for strengthening their mathematical skills.
* The contest also contributed to higher levels of knowledge and interest acquiring among teachers. Teachers are working to improve on their concept weaknesses and its application.
* School HMs, and the limited number of parents and SDMC members who were aware of the contest found it a good opportunity for teachers to improve their knowledge about mathematics and make people aware about their teaching skills.

**Lessons Learnt**

* A number of teachers had difficulties in preparing for the contest due to inadequate time and lack of contest related resources. Participants familiar with the Akshara Ganitha kit had stage fear and could not do well. The contestants also shared their views that demonstrating some concepts was difficult at the contest spot and lacked innovativeness while demonstrating. Thus, it is important for education stakeholders to embrace innovations in professional development of teachers and equip cluster education resource centres with inputs related to the subject and allied activities. The above situation also calls for Akshara to re-look into the design of the contest for future endeavours to avoid disputed feelings among the participants.
* It is clear from this quick turnaround study that stakeholders, the SDMC members are not informed well about the activities “in-side the school” in general and completely ignorant about the events like „Reality Show‟. Therefore, a systematic ground work has to be planned and implemented prior to launching of any such events. The focus on the community and other stakeholders must be intensified to improve awareness about school issues.

**32**

**'House-full' ZP Schools: Identifying Some Initial Trends of 'Reverse School Choice' in Rural Maharashtra**

**Author** : Kishore Darak

**Affiliation** : Independent Researcher

**Keywords** : school choice

public school

Maharashtra

ZP School

**Introduction :**

For more than two previous decades, urban and rural parents have been preferring private schools over public schools (government and government aided schools). The observed decline in enrollment in the public schools has become a characteristic feature of the Indian schooling system. When compared with earlier decades, while the overall enrollment in schools as well as the sheer availability of schools have gone up in a rather unprecedented manner between the years 2001 and 2015, the unaided private school enrollment has shown a steady growth as reported in the annual District Information on School Education (DISE) reports. In many states, the recent rate of growth of enrollment in private schools has been higher than their government counterparts.

The Public Report on Basic Education (PROBE, 1998) has clearly shown that the poorest of the poor parents also want their children to go to school, provided schooling is available and affordable. The common perception that public schools lack in quality refrains the parents from sending their children to public schools. Their desire and aspiration to access the best quality education for their children has resulted into what Prachi Shrivastava has termed as, “low-fee private schools”. Studies by James Tooley (2009) suggest that low-fee private schools have become the most affordable choice for poor parents in most of the poor or developing nations. Dhananjay Karopady's (2014) longitudinal study spread over 5 years in 5 districts of Andhra Pradesh shows that there is no difference in children’s achievement levels between the public schools and the private schools. Experts like Pankaj Jain and Ravindra Dholakia (2009) tend to rely on low-price private schools as the only way of enforcing Right to Education Act 2009 (RTE). Amita Chugdar’s (2015) analysis of the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) data suggests that existence of private school in the vicinity of public school works as a pressure exerting mechanism and in turn the public school equips itself with better infrastructural facilities. Thus, during the last decade and a half there has been a lot of debate, deliberation and ongoing research that focuses on school choice and on low-fee private schools.

It should be noted that in the above mentioned and other similar and recent researches from India, the term ‘choice’ is always attributed to the private school, and mostly to the private unaided school. Secondly, most of the body of the research focuses on effects of school choice that are measured by noting difference only in quantified (and quantifiable) scholastic achievements of children attending both types of schools. Moreover, the focus rests on ‘efficiency’ in terms of per child expenditure on teachers' salary and ‘quality’ output. Some of these researches believe in an underlying assumption that parents always perceive ‘private’ as better compared to the ‘public’. Reflection on other possible socio-economic reasons of school choices apart from 'availability', ‘affordability’ and ‘perceived quality’ rarely appears in most of the available researches in this area.

In this context, I would like to argue that the choice of school is never thought of in terms of ‘consciously choosing public school’. My point primarily addresses the interesting phenomenon of what I propose to call as, ‘reverse school-choice’ that can be currently observed in some pockets of the state of Maharashtra in Western India. The phrase implies that in a few sites in rural Maharashtra, parents have either started withdrawing their wards from fee charging private schools which are mainly private English medium schools, and admitting them into public schools or have deliberately chosen to begin their wards' schooling with public schools, especially the Zilla Parishad (ZP) schools despite the availability of private schools. Though such observation is limited to a few schools per district of Maharashtra, these schools are being projected as sites of 'positive shift' and as 'proofs of quality' in public schools by individual teachers, teacher unions and the state.

The decision of choosing a public school on the part of parents can be seen as a movement from private to public. It acquires more significance, given the fact that secondary education in Maharashtra, popularly known as 'high school', is almost completely provided by grant-in-aid private schools except a few pockets belonging to some central and eastern districts of the state. These schools are managed by private bodies or trusts registered with the charity commissioner's office. The state government provides them financial grant in terms of salary of teachers who are employed by the private management bodies.

The state of Maharashtra has a history of having schools from grade 5 or grade 9 onwards managed by private bodies. After 2010, under the RTE, the state has an obligation of providing schooling up to grade 8. Parents are fully aware of the situation that their wards ought to move to the privately managed schools (aided or unaided) beyond 8th grade. It is interesting that in spite of this common knowledge that their wards' secondary schooling is impossible without schools run by private managements, they are choosing a ZP school for their elementary schooling. Reports from sections of media added to by experiences of some teachers working in these ‘wanted’ schools show that parents exercising such choice are not necessarily the rural poor. Many of them come from the rural middle and upper-middle classes who are in a position of not only paying fees but also of providing transport for their wards to attend a school located at a few kilometers.

While various reports suggest diverse reasons for the phenomenon, ranging from availability of school building to students from ZP schools excelling in scholarship examinations, they do not elaborate on any of these. It becomes doubly important to research the ‘reverse school-choice’ since there are instances of middle-class parents who choose public schools despite their capacity and readiness to spend far more than demands of 'low-fee' private schools (more than INR 70000 - 80000 per annum per child) and also despite the availability of private schools in their vicinity.

Equipped with these observations I propose to understand the reverse school-choice phenomenon in selected locations and on a particular spatio-temporal scale. In this attempt I would like to explore reasons of parental choice of public schools vis-à-vis private schools, and the role played by teachers, officials and other actors in their decision making. There would also be space in the said exploration for reflection on nuances of the notion of ‘quality’, and ‘accountability’, and for the response of private school managements to the situation.

**Research Methodology:**

For this study, a school is defined as a school experiencing ‘reverse choice’ if it satisfies at least one of the two criteria – (1) the number of such pupils is more than 10% of its previous year’s enrollment or (2) it is greater than or equal to 6. In other words, the schools with an enrollment of more than 60 pupils i.e. at least 3 teachers as per the RTE norms, will qualify for this study. I would try to avoid sites where government school is the only choice available for schooling.

Choice of locations and spacio-temporal scale invite data collection and quantitative analysis, basically about socio-economic background of children undergoing reverse school-choice. Secondary data available with the state will be analysed. Considering the sporadic nature of this phenomenon, case-studies would be useful to develop more specific and in-depth understanding. I intend to take up 2-3 case-studies. Nevertheless, the nature of proposed research also invites qualitative analysis. The qualitative data will be sought in terms of structured and semi-structured interviews of parents deliberately choosing ZP schools, teachers, HMs and higher officials in education department as well as of teachers, HMs and members of management of private schools. The paper also aims at suggesting some scalable or generalisable practices, if found as trends among the schools in demand, so that public schools start gaining the 'public faith' that is on the verge of getting completely lost.

**33**

**A Comparative Study of Human Digestive System as Conceptualised within the National and the State Science Textbooks**

**Author** : Garima Singh,Ritesh Khunyakari

**Affiliation** : Tata Institute of Social Sciences Hyderabad

**Keywords :** 1. Human Digestive System

2. Progression

3. School Education

4. Textbook Analysis

5. Visuospatial Modelling

Key words: Human Digestive System, Progression, School Education, Textbook Analysis, Visuospatial Modelling

Among the wide range of concept knowledge that a school student gathers through her/his experience of schooling, a substantial body of knowledge, particularly the secondary school science is abstract and conceptual. Knowledge disciplines like biology have content which is perceived to be largely informative, descriptive, and often building further on some of the foundational elements taught in earlier grades (Carey, 1985). Such a positioning of knowledge within the school experiences posits unique demands for the teacher and the student alike. Further, the organisation of concepts in a spiral curriculum design implies revisiting the abstract concept on several occasions through the progressive grades (Bruner, 1960). An ill-founded or shaky conceptualization is something not desirable in aiming for building scientific literacy. Developing scientific literacy among future citizens is one of the often cited educational aims, which is about developing a critical approach to enquiring about reality rather than receiving information passively. Science literacy has been argued to depend upon three major aspects of learning: content knowledge, understanding of processes and developing inquiry skills (Linn, 1999; Perkins, 1986). All these inform the learner’s epistemic understanding (Gobert & Pallant, 2004; Carey & Smith, 1995; Grosslight et al, 1991) and in developing a critical approach, harmonious with the understanding of surroundings (flora, fauna, etc.), our own bodies, and the structural-functional aspects in a healthy body system.

Biological systems are internally situated and not explicit to the immediate senses. The invisible and abstract nature of biological systems poses a challenge to internalising concepts. Individuals ought to use visualisation and imagery to conceptualize and handle abstract, complex ideas while studying biological systems. Besides, we are aware that students have several alternative conceptions about the animal (Cardak, 2015; Prokop & Fanèovièová, 2006; Reiss, et al. 2002) and plant body systems (Çokadar & Özel, 2008; Köse, 2008). One of the reasons for the alternative conceptions is attributed to learning situations that do not follow academically acceptable visualisations, imagery and modelling, which enable students to associate abstract notions in scientifically relatable ways. Modelling is a process wherein learner conceptualises the phenomenon, internalises, organises and expresses it in different forms. As argued by Greca & Moreira (2010), modelling is a semantic relationship between theory and phenomenon or object. Literature review suggested that models play a significant role in understanding the concepts (Gilbert, 2005; Barbara, 2000; Moreira, 2000). Conceptual understanding can be drawn from a convergent analysis of the representations and treatment of content in resources such as textbooks used by teachers and students as well as eliciting students' understanding of the systems/ phenomena.

This paper reports a part of dissertation research towards MPhil which focuses on understanding the kind of visuospatial modelling that students rely upon to make meaning of the foundational biological systems, namely; the Human Digestive System and the Plant Water Transport System. The larger study engages a cross-sectional sample (Classes 6 to 8, average age 11 to 13 years) from a Government and a Private school in Hyderabad city in order to examine the progression aspects related to content and students' conceptual modelling. The inclusion of two different schools is to notice any differences that permeate because of exposure to resources in the school environment. The study adopts a Design-based research methodology where inputs at various stages of probing will feed into the subsequent action plan envisaged as phases. The very first phase of this study involved a comparative analysis of the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and Telangana State Council of Educational Research and Training (TSCERT) to elucidate the treatment of Human Digestive System in school science textbooks. It is well established that in the Indian context textbooks are the most relied resources for students and teachers.

This paper reports the findings from an analysis of textbooks which were done at several levels involving different aspects: content and its organisation, representational forms (includes visuals and key words), the explicit scaffold (in terms of activities and exercises for students), and the potential scope for teacher's agency. Since the Human Digestive System begins to be discussed in a systematic manner in classes 5, 6, and 7, the focus has been these grades. However, the researchers have also explored the English and the EVS textbooks (covering classes 1 to 5) and Science textbooks of classes 8, 9 and 10 to get a sense of the progression in the concept, implicit in design and captured in textbooks across grades. The analysis does not have an intent of merely making sense of the concept but also identifying conceptual pitfalls and potentials for engaging with ideas that can be critical to building conceptual understanding. The textbook analysis for the Human Digestive System, led to emergence of a framework which involves 5 dimensions: (a) nature of continuity & discontinuity in dealing with the concept; (b) conceptual organisation; (c) social context in treatment of ideas, (d) explicit references to students’ knowledge & engagement; and (e) the agency ascribed to the teacher in design of textbook content discourse.

We try to briefly explain these analytical dimensions which will be elaborately substantiated in the paper. The continuities and discontinuities refer to the degree of synchronization, compactness and advancement of a particular concept/ phenomena. It also refers to how well a concept is structured and presented in all relevant chapters, both in the same class as well as across all classes. An understanding of these would enable us to relate to the potential pitfalls that may affect student's conceptual internalisation. The conceptual organisation dimension refers to the structure and organisation of the content in each chapter within each class. It can be noted that the organisation within textbook seems to follow on two aspects: (i) external stimulus/ component i.e. ‘food’ and (ii) its structural and functional constituents (body parts/ organs). Some evidences of well-structured and ill-structured conceptual organisation will be brought to discussion. The social context is a crucial dimension of understanding biological concepts, especially because it deals with human bodily interactions and their immediate surroundings on an almost everyday basis. The analysis revealed distinct perspective in use by the National and State textbooks. It would be worth questioning the value and the form in which we relate and bring social context to teaching human digestion. We believe that textbooks play a crucial role in triggering as well as mediating the interactive processes between teacher and the learner/s. Hence, the next dimension of our analysis aims to identify the explicit opportunities built in textbooks for engaging students, eliciting their knowledge and building on it further. Interestingly, several activities in both textbooks seem to be directed to enable students to visualize and operate on their imagery. It would be relevant to study the visuospatial imagery of students engaged in these activities. The agency of teacher within the discourse of textbook needs exploration. Hence, our effort has been to map the explicit and implicit references made by curricula and textbook designers to negotiate the role and agency of teacher in dealing with the biological system. This paper will discuss insights within each of these dimensions by substantiating with appropriate examples.

The comparative analysis on one hand, is quite revealing about the conceptual treatment, but at the same time, invokes concerns about the socio-cultural issues that need to be taken cognisance of in dealing with concepts. In fact, it seems that the contextual situations many a times coax students to construct imagery around their experiences. Also, a certain depth of engagement with activities has the potential of providing the “insightful hooks” and engaging them in conceptual modelling. This aspect needs more careful pondering and can be used in pedagogical practices of science teachers. Beyond just identifying trends in observations, the paper will try to systematically tease out some such relations to conceptual learning.

**References**

*Bruner, J. S. (1960). The Process of Education. London: Harvard University Press.*

*Cardak, O. (2015). Student Science Teachers' Ideas of the Digestive System. Journal of Education and Training Studies, 127-132.*

*Carey, S. (1985). Conceptual Change in Childhood. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.*

*Fanèovièová, J. & Prokop, P. (2006). Students' Ideas About The Human Body: Do They Really Draw What They Know? Journal of Baltic Science Education, 86- 94.*

*John, G. (2005). Visualisation in Science Education. Netherlands: Springer.*

*Köse, S. (2008). Diagnosing Student Misconceptions: Using Drawings as a Research Method. World Applied Sciences Journal, 3(2), 283-293.*

*Michael J Reiss, S. D.-Y. (2002). An International Study of Young Peoples' Drawings of What is Inside Themselves. Journal of Biological Education, 36(2), 1- 7.*

*Moreira, I. M. (2000). Mental models, conceptual models, and modelling. International Journal of Science Education, 22(1), 1-11.*

*Position Paper National Focus Group on Teaching of Science (2006). New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training.*

*Position Paper National Focus Group on Teacher Education for Curriculum Renewal (2006). New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training.*

*Özel, M. & Çokadar, H. (2008). Elementary School Students' Ideas About Water Transport in Plants. Journal of Baltic Science Education, 155- 164.*

**34**

**CHILD MARRIAGE AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT:**

**COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF INDIA, BANGLADESH, AND NEPAL**

**Author *: Singh, Deepshikha\*, Sonal, Jyotsana\*\****

**Affilation**: \*Research Associate, SSS, Jawaharlal Nehru University, Delhi

\*\*Doctoral Scholar, National University of Educational Planning and Delhi Administration,

**Keywords**: Child Marriage

Education

Gender

South Asia

**Abstract:** This paper presents the comparative assessment on child marriages andeducational attainment in three countries of South Asia viz. India, Bangladesh, and Nepal. The paper is based on the review of empirical evidence to examine the link between child marriage and educational attainment of girls, including the crucial cultural and structural barriers preventing school completion of girls specific to these countries. In addition, it will compare the country-specific issues and examine the counter measures adopted in these countries to prevent and end child marriages with a special focus on promoting girls’ education. It presents findings from international and national surveys including Demographic and Health Survey, survey from World Bank and UNICEF, and other national surveys like Census, Multi Indicator Cluster Survey, and other sample surveys. The findings would provide a base to discuss the programme-level recommendations for each of these countries to end child marriages through educational intervention.

Child marriage is a formal marriage or an informal union before the completion of the minimum

age of 18 years. It is one of the types of forced marriages as minors are incapable of giving their

informed consent. According to United Nations (Thomas, 2009), forced marriage is ‘marriage

that takes place without the free and valid consent of one or both of the partners and involves

either physical or emotional duress’ [p.1]. Child marriage is associated with unequal gender

relations, affecting girls more than the boys as men are less likely to be married as children

(ICRW, 2007; UNICEF, 2005).

Educational deprivation is both the cause and consequence of child marriage which later poses threats to reproductive health, fertility, gender equality, and financial independence. In a study by ICRW (2006), it is reported that across 18 out of 20 countries with the highest prevalence of child marriages, girls with no education were up to six times more likely to marry than girls with secondary education. Child marriage significantly reduces the chance of girls’ completing secondary education (McCleary-Sills *et al.,* 2015; Nguyen & Wodon, 2015;). According to Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI) Report, it is revealed that in South Asia there are 36 million out-of-school children, out of which 9.8 million of primary age children and 26.5 million lower secondary age adolescents are out of school. About 14.5 million children dropped out before reaching the last grade of primary education and about 57 percent of children have never attended school (UNICEF, 2015a).

**Scope and Rationale**

Despite several international and national efforts to end child marriages, a considerable proportion of marriages are still taking place below 18 years, especially among girls (UNICEF, 2014). South Asia has a high prevalence of child marriages when compared with other geographical regions. Evidence suggests that worldwide there is an overall decreasing trend observed in child marriages over the past few decades, still the marriages of children and adolescents below the age of 18 years is still widely practiced (Nguyen & Wodon, 2012). The figure shows that around 46 percent of girls less than 18 years are married in South Asia (Westoff, 2003). Despite the decline in child marriages over the years in the world as whole, studies have reported that child marriage continue to show stronghold in three countries of South Asia viz. Bangladesh, Nepal, and India (Field & Ambrus, 2008; Toyo, 2006). In these countries, a considerable proportion of girls still get married early and many of them experience childbearing at teenage. The primary scope of the paper is to bring to light the extent and nature of child marriages in Bangladesh, India, and Nepal with their ranking on incidence of child marriage as fourth, eleventh, and eighteenth respectively in the list of top 20 countries in the world with highest rate of child marriages (UNICEF, 2015b). Secondly, the scope extends to discuss the educational attainment of girls and women in terms of their age at marriage and thus, to relate child marriage with the educational attainment of females.

**Objective**

The paper aims to present the comparative assessment on child marriages and educational attainment in three countries of South Asia viz. India, Bangladesh, and Nepal. The paper is based on the review of empirical evidence to examine the link between child marriage and educational attainment of girls, including the crucial cultural and structural barriers preventing school completion of girls specific to these countries. It also aims to compare the country-specific issues and examine the counter measures adopted in these countries to prevent and end child marriages with a special focus on promoting girls’ education.

**Methods**

This study will analyze the international and national level secondary data on trends of child marriages as well as on status of educational attainment to present the comparative overview of child marriages and educational attainment of the female population in India, Bangladesh, and Nepal. The findings and recommendations in this paper are based on secondary data analyses and on review of evaluation studies conducted by international organizations, empirical studies and the government reports in order to identify the educational interventions implemented in the selected countries to end child marriages.

**Results**

In the present study, three countries are selected for comparative assessment due to their high prevalence of child marriages in South Asia. Bangladesh has the highest prevalence rate (66 percent) of child marriages (BDHS, 2011) followed by India (47 percent) (NFHS-3), and Nepal (NDHS, 2011). The percentage of women aged 20-49 years married before the age of 18 years is 48.5 percent in Nepal (MICS, 2014a), 48 percent in India (IHDS, 2011-12)1 and for Bangladesh, it is 43.8 percent (MICS-Bangladesh, 2014). However, the percentage of women in the age group 15-19 years currently married is highest in Bangladesh (26.7 percent) (MICS- Bangladesh, 2014) which is followed by India (25 percent) (IHDS, 2011-12) and Nepal (24.5 percent) (MICS-Nepal, 2014). The percentage of adolescent girls currently married or in union is again highest in Bangladesh with 44.7 percent, while it is 30 percent for India and 28.8 percent for Nepal with

1 See Desai, S., & Vanneman, R. (2015).

only slight difference. The trend of child marriages shows a decline in all the three countries over the years. In India, there is decline in the age of marriage as reported by IHDS-I (2004-05) that 60 percent of women over 25 years were married before 18 years, while IHDS-II (2011-12) reported a decline to 48 percent. In Bangladesh, the trend of child marriages among female has declined with the reduction in mean age at marriage from 2005 to 2010. In 2005 the mean age at marriage was 17.9 which slightly increased to 18.7 (SVRS-BBS, 2010). Similarly, in Nepal child marriage trend shows a steady decrease with 40 percent of women aged 15-19 years were married in 2001, 32.2 percent in 2006, which further declined to 28.8 percent in 2011 (NDHS, 2001, 2006, 2011).

**Table 1**

**Prevalence of child marriage by selected age-group in Bangladesh, India, and Nepal**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Bangladesh** | **India** | **Nepal** |
|  |  |  |  |
| Women aged 20-49 married before 18 yrs (%) | 62.8\* | 48\*\* | 48.5\*\*\* |
|  |  |  |  |
| Women aged 15-19 currently married (%) | 34.3\* | 25\*\* | 24.5\*\*\* |
|  |  |  |  |
| Adolescent girls (10-19) married or in union | 44.7\*\*\*\* | 30\*\*\*\* | 28.8\*\*\*\* |
|  |  |  |  |

*\*Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), Bangladesh, 2014 \*\*Source: lndia Human Development Survey (IHDS-II), 2011-12*

*\*\*\*Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), Nepal, 2014*

*\*\*\*\*Source: UNICEF, 2015, The State of World’s Children Report 2015 Country Statistical Information*

The education data (UNICEF, 2015) from the three countries shows that the literacy rate among female youth is highest in Bangladesh with 81.9 percent followed by Nepal (77.5 percent) and India (74.4 percent). However, the net attendance ratio among females for primary and secondary is highest in Nepal as compared to India and Bangladesh. With the slight difference in figures among the three countries, in Bangladesh the percentage of out of school children (OOSC) of primary age is highest (3.8 percent), in Nepal it is 2.4 percent, while India has the lowest percentage of OOSC (1.1 percent). The World Bank (2007) reported that the share of female population aged 15-19 years having attained at least grade 5 is lowest in Nepal (56.3 percent) followed by India (71.6 percent) and Bangladesh (78.4 percent). The share of female population aged 20-29 years having attained grade 10 is lowest in Nepal (17.2 percent) followed by Bangladesh (18.5 percent) and India (23.6 percent). The share of female population aged 20-29 years having attained grade 12 is again lowest in Nepal (4.2 percent) followed by Bangladesh (8.7 percent) and India (14.6 percent).

The recent available data on educational attainment suggest that all three countries have accelerated their investments in primary education. The result shows that Bangladesh is doing better in terms of education when compared to other two countries, especially the country has made a remarkable progress in terms of gender parity. Unlike other two countries, Bangladesh has a larger proportion of female population with primary education (78.4 percent) compared to male population (70 percent) and also the net attendance ratio both for primary and secondary education is higher for girls (81.2 percent for primary and 47 percent for secondary) as compared to boys (77 percent for primary and 43 percent for secondary).

**Discussion**

Several studies have documented the association between child marriages and education level. The available data from the three countries- India (Census, 2011), Bangladesh (BBS, 2013), and Nepal (MICS- Nepal, 2014) on educational attainment of women by age at marriage indicate a strong negative association between child marriage and educational attainment. The data shows that the age at marriage had a significant impact on the educational attainment of women. The percentage of women married before the legal age (before age 15 years and age 18 years) in all selected age groups (15-49 yrs, 20-49 years, and 15-19 years) showed a declining trend with the increasing educational levels. In other words, majority of women remained illiterate or having achieved only lower levels of education when married before the age 15 (for 15-49 years) and age 18 (for 20-49 years). This can be interpreted that higher the level of educational attainment, less would be the probability that girls are married before the legal age, or higher the age at marriage, more would be the probability that girls attain higher levels of education.

Despite the educational progress achieved by these countries over the years especially in terms of high enrollment in primary education, the problem of child marriage is still prevalent with high rates of girls getting married before the age 15 years and 18 years. If the current trend of child marriages persists in these countries, the rate of educational attainment and progress would be disrupted, especially in Bangladesh if more active efforts are not planned and implemented to prevent child marriages. The discontinuation of schooling, especially the drop-out at the late elementary and secondary level is a possible consequence related to the high incidence of child marriages in these countries. The reasons for school drop-out by the married young girls may attribute to the possible consequences of child marriages including premature pregnancy and

childbearing (Walker, 2012; Westoff, 2003), poor maternal and child health outcomes (Adhikari, 2003; Goli, *et al.*, 2015; Raj *et al.,* 2009), household work burden, child caring, poor autonomy, isolation, discrimination (Alam, 2007), and gender-based violence (Devries *et al.,* 2013; Gracia-Moreno *et al.,* 2005; Rahman *et al.,* 2013; Zakar *et al.,* 2015).

The solution to put an end to child marriages is to improve and strengthen the educational status of girls and women in these countries. As the result indicates that the gender parity in primary education has been recently achieved by Bangladesh, there is a possibility that despite the improved educational status at the primary level, girls are not doing fair at the secondary levels. In addition, the traditional and cultural barriers may also be an important determinant of child marriage in Bangladesh assigning it the fourth highest rank among top 20 countries of the world with high rates of child marriages. The three countries need to improve their educational programmes in terms of strengthening the aspect of inclusion of large number of girls with a special focus on their attendance, retention and transition to higher levels of education. Successful transition, participation and completion to higher levels of education among girls especially required in India and Nepal, is likely to delay the age at marriage and prevent other debilitating consequences of child marriages among young women.

**References**

Adhikari, R. (2003). Early marriage and childbearing: risks and consequences. In Bott S. et al. (Eds.),

*Towards Adulthood: Exploring the Sexual and Reproductive Health of Adolescents in South Asia*

(pp. 62-66). Geneva, World Health Organization.

Alam, S. (2007). Islam, culture, and women in a Bangladesh village. In V. J. Cornell (Ed.), *Voices of*

*Islam* (pp. 35–53). Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers

BDHS. (2011). *2011 Bangladesh Demography and Health Survey.* National Institute of Population and

Training, Mitra and Associates, Dhaka, Bangladesh and Measure DHS, ICF International, Calverton, Maryland, USA.

Desai, S., & Vanneman, R. (2015). *India Human Development Survey-II (IHDS-II), 2011-12.*

ICPSR36151-v2. Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research

[distributor], 2015-07-31. [http://doi.org/10.3886/ICPSR36151.v](http://doi.org/10.3886/ICPSR36151.v2)2

Devries, K. M., Mark, J. Y., Bacchus, L. J., Child, J. C., Falder, G., Petzold, M., Astbury, J., & Watts, C.

H. (2013). *Intimate Partner Violence and Incident Depressive Symptoms and Suicide Attempts. A*

*Systematic Review of Longitudinal Studies.* [http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.100143](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001439)9

Field, E., & Ambrus, A. (2008). Early Marriage, Age of Menarche, and Female Schooling Attainment in Bangladesh. *Journal of Political Economy*, 116*(5),* 881-930.

Goli, S., Rammohan. A., & Singh. D. (2015). The Effect of Early Marriages and Early Childbearing on

Women’s Nutritional Status in India. *Maternal and Child Health Journal,* 19(8), 1864-1880. Gracia-Moreno, C., Jansen, H. A. F. M., Ellsberg, M., Heise, L. L., & Watts, C. H. (2005). *WHO*

*multicounty study on women’s health and domestic violence against women: Initial results on prevalence, health outcomes, and women’s responses.* World Health Organization. Switzerland.

ICRW. (2006). *Too Young to Wed: Education and Action towards Ending Child Marriage.* Washington, DC: ICRW.

ICRW. (2007). *How to End Child Marriage: Action Strategies for Prevention and Protection,*

International Centre for Research on Women. [http://www.icrw.org/files/publications/How-to-End](http://www.icrw.org/files/publications/How-to-End-Child-Marriage-Action-Strategies-for-Prevention-and-Protection-Brief.pdf)- [Child-Marriage-Action-Strategies-for-Prevention-and-Protection-Brief.pd](http://www.icrw.org/files/publications/How-to-End-Child-Marriage-Action-Strategies-for-Prevention-and-Protection-Brief.pdf)f

McCleary-Sills, J., Hanmer, L., Parsons , J., & Klugman, J. (2015). Child Marriage: A critical barrier to girls’ schooling and gender equality in education. *The Review of Faith & International Affairs*, 13*(3),* 69-80. doi: 10.1080/15570274.2015.1075755

Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)- Bangladesh (2014). *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey: KeyFindings*. Government of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics,

Ministry of Planning, and UNICEF.

Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)- Nepal (2014). *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, 2014:Monitoring the situation of children and women. Final Report.* Government of Nepal, NationalPlanning Commission Secretariat, Central Bureau of Statistics and UNICEF Nepal.

NDHS. (2001). *2001 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey: Key Findings*. Kathmandu, Nepal and Calverton, Maryland, USA. Ministry of Health and Population, New ERA and ICF International.

NDHS. (2006). *2006 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey: Key Findings*. Kathmandu, Nepal and Calverton, Maryland, USA. Ministry of Health and Population, New ERA and ICF International.

NDHS. (2011). *2011 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey: Key Findings*. Kathmandu, Nepal and Calverton, Maryland, USA. Ministry of Health and Population, New ERA and ICF International.

NFHS. (2007). *National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), 2005-06*. International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International, 2007: India: Volume 1, Mumbai: IIPS.

Nguyen, M. C., & Wodon, Q. (2012) Measuring Child Marriage. *Economics Bulletin* 32*(1)*, 398-411. Nguyen, M. C., & Wodon, Q. (2015). Estimating the Impact of Child Marriage on Literacy and Education

Attainment in Africa. In Q. Wodon (Ed.), *Child Marriage and Education in Sub-Saharan Africa.*

Washington, DC: World Bank Group.

Rahman, M., Nakamura, K., Seino, K., & Kizuki, M. (2013). Does gender inequity increase the risk of intimate partner violence among women? Evidence from a national Bangladeshi sample. *PLoSONE*

8*(12)*. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.008242](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0082423)3

Raj, A., Saggurti, N., Balaiah, D., & Silverman, J. G. (2009). Prevalence of child marriage and its effect on fertility and fertility-control outcomes of young women in India: a cross-sectional, observational study. *The Lancet*, 373*(9678),* 1883-1889.

Sample Vital Registration System (SVRS) (2011). *Report on Sample Vital Registration System-2010*. Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics. Statistics Division, Ministry of Planning. Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Thomas, C. (2009). *Forced and Early Marriage: A Focus on Central and Eastern Europe and FormerSoviet Union Countries with Selected Laws from Other Countries*. United Nations Division for theAdvancement of Women. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. United Nations.

Toyo, N. (2006). Revisiting Equality as a Right: The Minimum Age of Marriage Clause in the Nigerian Child Rights Act, 2003. *Third World Quarterly* 27*(7),* 1299-1312.

UNICEF. (2005). *Early Marriage: A Harmful Traditional Practice. A Statistical Exploration.* New York. UNICEF. (2014). *Ending Child Marriage: Progress and Prospects*. United Nations Children’s Fund,

New York.  [http://www.unicef.org/media/files/Child\_Marriage\_Report\_7\_17\_LR..pd](http://www.unicef.org/media/files/Child_Marriage_Report_7_17_LR..pdf)f

UNICEF. (2015a). *Educate all girls and boys in South Asia: The Global Out-of-School ChildrenInitiative.* UNICEF South Asia.

UNICEF. (2015b). *The State of World’s Children Report 2015*. Country Statistical Information.

Walker, J. A. (2012). Early marriage in Africa- trends, harmful effects and interventions. *African Journalof Reproductive Health*, 16*(2),* 231-240.

Westoff, C. F. (2003). *Trends in Marriage and Early Childbearing in Developing Countries.* DHS Comparative Reports No. 5. ORC Macro: Calverton, Maryland USA.

World Bank. (2007). *The Knowledge Economy, Education and Training in South Asia.* Human Development Unit. South Asian Region.

Zakar, R., Zakar, M. Z., & Abbas, S. (2015). Domestic violence against rural women in Pakistan: An issue of health and human rights. *Journal of Family Violence*, 31*(1),* 15-25. doi: 10.1007/s10896-015-9742-6

\*\*\*

**35**

**Extended Abstract for CESI Public or Private Schooling? A ilemma of School Choice among Parents of Tribal Children**

**Author : \*** Jyotsana Sonal, \*\*Deepshikha Singh

**Affilation: \***NUEPA \*\*Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords** : Privatisation

Private Schools

Scheduled Tribe

Inequality

Education

**Abstract**

The present paper attempts to analyse the impact of privatisation of education among Scheduled Tribes in Uttarakhand. Transformation of educational system has driven the trend of private schools among the masses. The present study looks into how Scheduled Tribes are responding towards private schools. Whether the private schools are facilitating the education among Tribes or creating a gap among children attending private and government schools. The study has been conducted in a Tribal district of Uttarakhand. The study finds out presence of Private schools in tribal areas and preference given to private schools over public schools by parents for their children as they believe private schools provide better quality education than government schools.

**Keywords:** Privatisation, Private Unrecognised Schools, Scheduled Tribes, Inequality,

Education.

**Introduction**

In past few years, social development in the sphere of health, education, infrastructure, and employment generation has become an important sphere for involvement in order to achieve overall growth. Among these, education has received very favourable treatment. In 2009, the Government of India through Constitutional Amendment Act made Education as fundamental right and provided with compulsory education of minimum eight years for children in the age group of 6-14 (Gazatte of India, 2009). It has come up with various other policies and schemes for bringing all children into the formal education system. Special priority has been given to education of Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), Minority and Women as these are most marginalised sections in terms of educational development (EFA, 2014).

Along with government intervention, private players are playing major role in providing formal education. Jain and Dholakia (2009) in their study mentioned that Universalisation of school education is not possible only by allotting more than 6% GDP to education, but is possible through Public-Private Partnership (PPP) in which low cost private providers of school

1. PhD Research Scholar, National University of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi. Email- jojokiran2010@gmail.com
2. Research Associate, SSS, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi.

education, who pay much lower teacher salary, cover a significant part of school education. Some more studies have mentioned that private schools can supply a reasonable quality of school education at almost 25% to 35% of the cost of government education (Jain 1997; Tooley et al 2007; Vachani & Smith 2008). However, the problem with private schools is their full autonomy to recruit these low salaried teachers and lack of accountability towards minimum standard of quality teaching. Recent example of poor quality of education in private schools is Bihar Education Board Scam, where board toppers alleged paid money to clear the exams and did not attend the classes regularly. Further probe find out several fake private schools being recognised by Bihar Education Board in return of bribe. (Indian Express, 2016)

There are two types of private schools in India recognised by the government- Private Aided and Private Unaided. Private Aided schools receive considerable funds from central/state government, whereas Private Unaided are self financed schools running in affiliation with state or other boards (Kingdon, 2005). Apart from these two categories, there are several private unrecognised schools running without authorization from the government. These unrecognised schools are mostly functioning in suburban country sides, attracting parents and children by mode of advertisements and propaganda. Their functioning, curriculum, fee structure is independent of government norms. Recently, there has been mushrooming of these unrecognised private schools even in villages and towns (Pradhan, 2013).

Since past two decade, world has seen tremendous transformation of educational system, practice, process, and its effects are easily seen in India too. Education has become a subject to market force. With open market policy, globalization and liberalization, private players are playing important role in almost every field. Government has welcomed private firms to invest more in educational infrastructure. Privatisation has entered all levels of education i.e. from primary level to university level. This process has mitigated government responsibility and has succeeded in hiding state incompetence and inefficiency. Almost all developing countries are rightfully concerned about the problem of low school completion rates, both because of low investment opportunities for society and because of general inefficiency in the provision of public schooling (Hanushek, Lavy & Hitomi, 2008).

Against this background, the main issue arises- *Is the privatisation of education beneficial topeople? Do privatisation will solve the problem of low enrolment and low achievement?* Criticsin favour of privatisation of education argue that it provide quality education to those who can afford. Ram Mohan (2002) in his paper argued that private ownership of education does not always lead to superior outcomes as compared to public ownership. He further pointed out that in certain circumstances the private ownership may accrue the potential benefits but at the same time it also requires many conditions for such benefits to materialise. Especially in the context of diverse Indian society divided in terms of caste, class, religion, ethnicity, the question arises that how the privatisation will bridge the gap in learning outcomes, or whether it will further widen the gap among people in terms of access, achievements and skills. Against this background, the present paper attempts to analyse the impact of privatisation on the education of tribal children

who are one of the marginalised social categories in India. The present study attempts to look into the extent of privatisation of education in rural tribal areas of the State of Uttarakhand. Further, it will also examine the response of tribal children towards the private school system..

**Scheduled Tribes of Uttarakhand**

Scheduled Tribes in India constitute 8.6% (Census, 2011) of the total population. These tribal groups are different from each other in terms of socio-economic and cultural aspects and are spread across the country and reside in different geographical conditions. In Uttarakhand, there are total five tribal groups- *Bhotia, Tharu, Jaunsari, Buxa* and *Rajji.* In Uttarakhand, the percentage of Scheduled Tribes residing in rural areas is 93.8% and those residing in urban areas is only 6.2%. In terms of literacy, Scheduled Tribes of Uttarakhand are performing better than various other Tribes of different states. As per Census of India 2011, Bhotia tribal group has highest literacy rate of 86.5%, followed by Tharus with 76.2% and Jaunsari with 58.9%. The literacy rate of these tribal groups is higher than the national average of tribes which is just 45.02 (census, 2001).. The present paper focuses on Bhotia tribal group of Uttarakhand.

**Demographic Detail of Scheduled Tribes in Uttarakhand**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Name of the Tribe** | **Population** | **Proportion to** | **Areas** | **Occupation** |
|  |  | **the total ST** |  |  |
|  |  | **population** |  |  |
| **All Scheduled Tribes** | 256,129 | 100 | - | - |
| **Tharus** | 85,665 | 33.4 | Udham Singh Nagar | Cultivators |
|  |  |  | District |  |
| **Bhotias** | 83,262 | 32.5 | Pithoragarh Region | Traders |
| **Jaunsaris** | 46,771 | 18.3 | Dehradun District | Cultivators |
| **Buxas** | 36,438 | 14.2 | Predominantly Rural | Migratory |
| **Rajjis** | 517 | 0.2 | Champawat Block | Forest dwellers, |
|  |  |  |  | Animal |
|  |  |  |  | Husbandry |
| Census, 2001. |  |  |  |  |

**Literacy rate of Scheduled Tribe in Percentage (Uttarakhand)**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Serial number | Name of the Scheduled Tribe | Male | Female | Total |
| 1 | All Scheduled Tribes | **83.6** | **63.9** | **73.9** |
| 2 | Bhotias | **94.9** | **78.6** | **86.5** |
| 3 | Tharus | **86.1** | **66.2** | **76.2** |
| 4 | Jaunsaris | **80.5** | **61.2** | **71.2** |
| 5 | Buxas | **75.9** | **51.8** | **64.2** |
| 6 | Rajjis | **79.6** | **50.6** | **65.6** |

*Source: Census of India, 2011*

**Methodology**



The study is undertaken in four tribal villages of Pithoragarh District in Uttarakhand State. The sampled district is predominantly inhabited by Bhotia tribe. Bhotia tribe has been selected for the study because of its highest literacy rate among other tribal groups in Uttarakhand.

The study has adopted the exploratory research approach and data was collected using two tools - Questionnaire and Interview Schedule. On total, eight private schools were selected from four villages. Questionnaire was administered to private school teachers to collect their demographic, educational and professional information. Interviews were conducted separately for parents sending their children to private schools as well as those sending their children to government schools. Data was analyzed both through quantitative methods such as percentage, mean, cross tabulation using SPSS and also through qualitative methods such as thematic analysis using coding.

**Major Findings**

In India, there is a gradual decline in state responsibility towards education of children. Government is shedding its burden of providing quality education and private players are coming forward who are mainly profit driven enterprises (Narayan, 2010). Hanushek and Wobmann (2006), in their analyses for a wider group of countries, identified the cognitive skills as more important than just school attainment in determining the economic growth. In Indian context, there has been no increase in budget allocation for education for past several years. The data shows that the enrolment rate has declined in government schools, however it has increased in private schools.

The study finds out the presence of primary private school in all four sampled villages. Few private schools were recently opened and had applied for affiliation. Majority of tribal parents were sending boys to private schools and girls to government schools. Many tribal children were attending these private schools instead of government schools present in the village and the major reason cited by parents were low quality of education in government schools, teacher irregularity, and lack of attention towards their children. Majority of Tribal parents in the sampled villages were aware about importance of education and wanted to provide quality education to their children. However, they reiterated that quality of education in public government schools have deteriorated. According to parents, teachers remain irregular in government schools and regular teaching gets hampered. The major driving forces for demand of private schools are the claims of such schools to provide better quality education and teacher regularity.

**Conclusion**

The world is progressing at very fast pace. Everyday new changes are becoming part of the system. With advent of market economy, education has become a commodity. Private players are



investing in education with a sole vision of profit. State in return is shedding the responsibility of providing accessible and affordable education. This system is further dividing the gap between rich and poor. Those who can afford tuition fee send their children to private schools and those who cannot afford it are left with no choice than to send their children in government schools.

**The quality of education in government schools are deteriorating.** Mere investment ininfrastructure will not solve the problem, instead government should focus on the quality of education. The mushrooming of private schools with motive of financial gains would fail to provide quality education. Government must continue to support education of the masses. The spread of unrecognized private schooling must also be addressed effectively through government interventions.

**References**

Census, 2001, and 2011 Government of India [http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011](http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011-common/census_2011.html)- [common/census\_2011.htm](http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011-common/census_2011.html)l

*Education for All, Towards Quality with Equity* (2014). Ministry of Human ResourceDevelopment, NUEPA.

Gazatte of India, 2009 [http://eoc.du.ac.in/RTE%20-%20notified.pd](http://eoc.du.ac.in/RTE%20-%20notified.pdf)f

Hanushek, E. A., Lavy, V., & Hitomi, K. (2006). *Do students care about school quality?Determinants of dropout behavior in developing countries* (No. w12737). NationalBureau of Economic Research.

Hanushek, Eric A., and Ludger Wobmann. 2006. “The *Role of School Improvement in EconomicDevelopment*.” Working Paper no. 12832 (October), NBER, Cambridge, MA.

Indian Express, (June, 2016) [http://indianexpress.com/article/india/india-news-india/bihar](http://indianexpress.com/article/india/india-news-india/bihar-topper-scam-topper-ruby-rai-arrested-bihar-cheating-bihar-class-xii-board-scam-2880193/)- [topper-scam-topper-ruby-rai-arrested-bihar-cheating-bihar-class-xii-board-scam](http://indianexpress.com/article/india/india-news-india/bihar-topper-scam-topper-ruby-rai-arrested-bihar-cheating-bihar-class-xii-board-scam-2880193/)- [2880193](http://indianexpress.com/article/india/india-news-india/bihar-topper-scam-topper-ruby-rai-arrested-bihar-cheating-bihar-class-xii-board-scam-2880193/)/

Jain, Pankaj (1997): "Program Success and Manage- ment of Primary Education Programs in Deve- loping Countries", *World Development*, Vol 25(3): 349-58.

Jain, P. S., & Dholakia, R. H. (2009). Feasibility of implementation of right to education Act. *Economic and Political weekly*, 38-43.

Kingdon, G. G. (2005, October). Private and public schooling: The Indian experience. In *Prepared for the conference:“Mobilizing the Private Sector for Public Education”*

*Co-sponsored by the World Bank Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University* (pp. 5-6).

Mohan, T. R. (2001). Privatisation: Theory and Evidence. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 4865-4871.

Narayan, V. (2010). The private and the public in school education.*Economic and PoliticalWeekly*, 23-26.

Pradhan, M. (2013). Mushrooming Private Schools: Bane or Boon. Odisha Review.

Tooley, James, Pauline Dixon and S VGomathi (2007): "Private Schools and the Millennium Develop- ment Goal of Universal Primary Education: A Census and Comparative Survey in Hyderabad, India", accepted for publication in *Oxford Review of Education*.

Vachani, Sushil and Craig N Smith (2008): "Socially Responsible Distribution Strategy for Reaching the Bottom of the Pyramid", *California Management Review*, Vol 50(2).

**36**

**Even I want to live freely: Understanding Gender Identity Negotiation at School Using Feminist Post-structuralist Discourse Analysis**

**Author** : Disha Maheshwari

**Affiliation** : Department of Education, University of Delhi

**Keywords :** Gender Identity Construction & Negotiation

Discourse Analysis

Adolescence

School and Peer Culture

**Introduction :**

This paper reports on the case study of a young adolescent girl Anita (pseudonym) and explores the complex ways in which she constructs and negotiates her various identities at school. The specific focus of analysis is Anita’s identity construction in relation to the discourses of victimisation and agency, which are seen to be running parallel to each other. The paper looks at Anita’s endeavour to achieve a sense of self in the transition between childhood and adulthood. She struggles with the various intersecting and opposing discourses of parental expectations (being a student and a girl), friendship (peer approval and affiliation), sexual abuse and vulnerability (at school and in society at large), and adolescence (and related expectations for girls). Anita selectively draws on these discourses and positions herself in relation to several significant others in her life (e.g. her parents, friends, boyfriend, teachers) thereby in constructing her various identities in relation to and collaboration with them. In order to link the various social identities that Anita performs to wider socio-cultural meanings, the paper locates Anita’s experience in the specific communities of practice in which she participates (such as being a girl in a mixed-sex classroom and belonging to a specific peer group), while also considering the matrix of socio-cultural identities available to her in the context of Indian society. The analysis looks at the way Anita constructs her own identity through language use. She is constantly negotiating with the discourses of peer culture, adolescence, family values, societal expectations, and sexuality to construct her identity.

According to Eckert (1994) ‘sexuality is a major symbolic arena to display maturity’ among adolescents which further facilitates to establish one’s identity at school and claims for peer group approval. Sexuality and peer relations are thus two important themes that run through the paper. The focus here is upon the social constructionist view of the individual as active and having agency in her/his positioning. Bourdieu states in Language and Symbolic Power that it is in linguistic exchanges that “relations of symbolic power in which the power relations between speakers or their respective groups are actualized” (1991, p.37). It is imperative to study the relational order as well that discursively establishes between the speaker and the audience in a narrative. Therefore, in my analyses I will not only discuss how Anita is positioning herself but also how she is simultaneously positioned by positioning others: peers and teachers. The focus is on a concurrent creation of self rather than on an ‘essential self’. Anita simultaneously positions herself as a passive victim on one hand, but also as an active agent on the other, and thereby shows her struggle with the various discourses of adolescent sexuality, peer culture, school culture, and family expectation.

The analysis is loosely based on Bamberg’s (2004) concept of positioning. Bamberg used narratives to analyse the construction of identities and the self. According to him (M. G. Bamberg, 1997), position is emergent in the narrative and not given. He has suggested looking at time, space and storyline as well in order to analyse the positioning of characters. Using feminist post-structuralist discourse analysis this paper examines the ways in which Anita positions herself in the period of transition between childhood and adulthood while drawing on various discourses of gender and sexuality available to her in the specific social context of her school. The data on which this paper draws was collected over a period of six months from grade 9 of a co-educational government school, in an urban neighbourhood in New Delhi, India. The process of data collection began with field observations over a period of 4 weeks which lead to the first round of interviews. The aim of the semi-structured interviews was to hold a long conversation with students, so as to understand their context, opinions, friendship patterns and classroom dynamics in a better way. The second phase of data collection involved searching for research participants from those who had been interviewed and were willing to be audio-recorded for a week. Four participants, two boys and two girls volunteered to participate in the project. Each participant was recorded for a week each i.e. five days during school hours. Another round of interview of these four participants was conducted after the all the recordings were completed. The data was originally in Hindi and has been translated into English as closely as possible without possibly affecting the overall meaning.

Quoting Giroux and Simon (2000), Thapan (2014) states that in schools “meaning is produced through the constructions of forms of power, experiences and identities”. ‘Schools are spaces where identities are fluid, made and unmade over innumerable times’ (2014, p. 8). It is thus important to look at how students construct their own and each other’s identities by negotiating and modifying the imposed social structures they engage with at school. The paper is thus attempts understand how Anita engages with the socio-cultural ways of meaning making available to her in this specific context and how she modifies them in her everyday experiences as a young adolescent at school. More specifically, this paper tries to facilitate an understanding of the complex and often ambiguous ways in which Anita is simultaneously positioned as relatively powerless within a range of dominant discourses of gender and sexuality, but as relatively powerful within alternative and competing social discourses (Baxter, 2003) thereby illustrating how identity takes different forms in different contexts.

**References**

*Bamberg, M. (2004). Form and functions of ‘slut bashing’in male identity constructions in15-year-olds. Human development, 47(6), 331-353.*

*Bamberg, M. G. (1997). Positioning between structure and performance. Journal of Narrative and Life History, 7(1-4), 335-342.*

*Baxter, J. (2003). Positioning gender in discourse: a feminist research methodology.*

*Bourdieu, P., & Thompson, J. B. (1991). Language and symbolic power: Harvard University Press.*

*Eckert, P. (1994). Entering the heterosexual marketplace: Identities of subordination as a developmental imperative: Citeseer.*

*Thapan, M. (2014). Ethnographies of Schooling in Contemporary India: SAGE Publications India.*

**37**

**Children's Experience of Violence and Schooling**

**Author :**Ajay Kumar Singh

**Affiliation** : Associate Professor, TISS, Mumbai

**Keywords :** Violence

Conflict

Experience

Children

Schooling

**Introduction** :

This paper is based on an ethnographic study conducted in a village in Bihar, India, with the children who have experienced violence and conflict in one or more forms. The village is one among the many in Bihar that have been affected by Naxal conflict. In this context this paper explores the connections between children’s experience of violence, and school education.

Violence and conflict (of varied forms) continue to structure the social and political life in India. In various forms and styles, violence and conflict also reflect in how the politics of education is played out in society. While educational research registers conflicts and violence involving apparent physical implications, the subtleties of children’s experience(s) of these phenomenon are not empirically well studied in educational discourse in India. Also, as is the case with all social categories, the understanding of impact of violence and its relation to children’s education has been largely ‘hegemonised’ and shaped by the adult world-view. In this context, this paper underlines the need and a ‘pedagogy’ for engaging with the experiential world(s) of children amidst more than one forms of violence and conflicts (both apparent and implicit). The main objective of the paper is to underline the character of various forms and tendencies of violence [both a. the permanent violence inherited in social structures, and b. Immediate violence (Prasad, 1974)], experienced by children (particularly in a village context in India). An attempt has been made to explore the role of children’s experience in reproduction of violence and to suggest an alternative located in the process of education to counter it.

Why do people think that violence may provide any kind of solution to a conflicting situation? How do ‘we’ come to believe that violence may lead to the fulfilment of some objectives (social, political, economic or psychological)? How does this understanding develop? How do children experience and understand violence? How does school education engage with violence? These questions have a wide range of answers in different discourses and disciplines. An inquiry into the historical events leads us to the understanding that there has always been some kind of conflict behind violence. These

conflicts, on the one hand, have been a part of the processes involved in establishing dominance, and on the other, they have also appeared on the social scene in the form of struggle against deprivation. To engage with these questions and connect strands with education theoretically, this paper draws from the works from different disciplines and domains including psychology, anthropology, sociology and education. The works of Lorenz (1963), Geertz (1973), Freud (1986) and Jung (2003) are central in drawing an understanding of violence. To examine experiences of violence in relation to children, this paper engages with the conceptual category of childhood with the help of Aries (1973), Kakar (1981) and (Kumar 1994). The works of Tagore (1931) Gandhi (1949) and Freire (1996) inform the connections drawn with education.

Conflict and violence have been many a times underlined/highlighted as inevitable (Lorenz, 1966). Inevitability of violence reflected in cultural practices is also reflected in the understanding that ‘every people…loves its own form of violence’ (Geertz, 1973). Yet, drawing from psychoanalytic theory (Freud, 1986) it can be hypothesised that one of the prominent explanations or “causes” of violence can be traced in the experiences during childhood that constitute the unconscious. However, psychoanalysis also engages with

‘collective unconscious’ as another powerful explanation of violence (Jung, 2003). [Jung’s

(2003) idea of archetype explains that practices of violence can be traced in various metaphor, images and memories].

Reading of Tagore (1931), Gandhi (1949) and Freire (1996) suggests that it is possible to respond violence through education in general and schooling in particular. In order to respond to violence, Tagore (1931) suggests that it is important to understand child’s cognitive world. This is possible only through a creative engagement with the child. Gandhi (1949) highlighted the limitation of violence as tool to achieve any end. His understanding enables the imagination of an educational framework that responds to violence as a social collective, as does Freire’s (1996) work.

While talking of school education and children’s experience, this paper draws from the perspective that childhood is not merely a social and cultural position manifested by historical process (Aries, 1973; Kakar, 1981). Rather, it is a political construction of a society dominated by adults (Kumar 1994). The paper locates social violence as a part of this political framework that directly influences the social context of childhood and

cognitive world(s) of children. As has been argued by some prominent educational thinkers’ children are deeply aware of social conflicts and its reflection in the form of violence (Kumar, 1996; Giroux 1983, 1989 &1996). This awareness leads to ideas, questions and anxieties about the past, present and future. However, given their social location, children seldom find the opportunities to express themselves. They do not have the spaces, neither in school nor in society, to voice these anxieties and make sense of these concerns. Yet, children actively construct their own ‘rationales’ and ‘meanings’ of violence, which have an implication on their understanding of the larger social matrix.

In the above context, the paper makes an attempt to understand the overall matrix of conflicts and violence constructed by children and explores questions such as – how is the thread of violence and conflict interwoven in this matrix? How (if at all) do children relate or differentiate between various kinds of conflicts (caste, class, gender, adult-child, and the like)? How the children’s identities get implicated in these processes? How is school as an institution involved in this context? How can school education counter violence? In this process, the paper engages with the archaeology of experience during childhood responsible for formation of children’s ‘psyche’ and ‘cognitive world’ which perceives violence as a ‘solution’ to conflict situations. The field evidences demonstrates a range of experiences during childhood that are responsible for the formation of children’s idea of violence as the only solution to conflict situations. Further, the findings help in understanding ‘violence’ as a form of adult male domination.

Children often observe, or are forced to observe, the methods of resolving conflict resorted to by adults. These methods largely resort to violent alternatives. Experiences based on the day to day observations, are strengthened by the social cultural traditions, folk-practices, social trends and popular icons, media (i.e. , radio, television and films). These tradition, sign and icons interact with children on regular basis. Yet, there is a strong evidence from the field that demonstrates that the children are able make a fine differentiation between violence to establish domination and protect ourselves from domination.

Schooling, in this entire period, not only remains ‘silent’ but also reinforces the violence based methods. A close observation also suggests that violence is essentially intrinsic to the mere concept of schooling (Niell, 1968). While this is one part of the finding, it also

comes across from the field that schools can potentially be visualized beyond mechanistic view of social reproduction. This is the role expected from schools -- that as social institutions these should work towards the enhancement of peace processes (N.C.E.R.T., 2005; Giroux, 1989).

**References**

1. Aries, P. (1973). *Century of childhood*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
2. Freire, P. (1996). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.
3. Freud, A. (1986). *The essentials of psychoanalysis*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
4. Gandhi, M. K. (1949). *Hind Swaraj or Indian home rule*. Ahmedabad: Navajivan Publishing House.
5. Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. New York: Basic Books.
6. Giroux, H. (1983). *Theory and resistance in education*. London: Heinemann.
7. Giroux, H. (1989). *Schooling for democracy: Critical pedagogies in the modern age.* London: Routledge
8. Giroux, H. (1996). *Fugitive cultures: Violence, race and youth.* London: Routledge.
9. Jung, C. G. (2003). *Four archetypes*. London: Routledge.
10. Kakar, S. (1981). *The inner world: A psycho-analytic study of childhood and society in India*. New Delhi: Oxford.
11. Kumar, K. (1994). *Raj, samaj aur shiksha*. Delhi: Rajkmal Prakashan (originally publish in 1979)
12. Kumar K. (1996). *Learning from conflict*. Delhi:  [Orient Longma](http://www.infibeam.com/Books/orientlongman-publisher/)n
13. Lorenz, K. (1963). *On aggression*. London: Routledge
14. N.C.E.R.T. (2005). *National Curriculum Framework 2005*. New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training.
15. Neill, A. S. (1968). *Summerhill*. Harmodsworth: Penguin
16. Prasad, A. (1974). *Gramin hinsha: Ek adhyayayn*. Varanasi: Sarva Seva Sangh
17. Tagore, R. (1931). T*he religion of man*. New York: The McMillan Company.

**38**

**Fff TUITION CLASSES AND ORIENTATION TO MATHEMATICS LEARNING: A STUDY AT SECONDARY LEVEL OF SCHOOLING IN SEMI RURAL CONTEXT**

**Author :**Manasi Thapliyal

**Affilation :** Assistant Professor

Schoolof Education,

AmbedkarUniversity

Delhi

PhD Part-Time Scholar,

NationalUniversity of

Educational Planning and

Administration,New

Delhi

**Keywords** : Academic Reforms

The idea of the university

educational change

**Introduction :**

Framing reforms, reforming frames: The politics of academic reforms and higher education in India

In this paper the attempt is to make sense of the frameworks—political, social, economic, and organisational, in which one sets up the problem of engagement with the idea of „reforms‟ in an institution like university. What is it that one wants to change about the nature of work done in the university? This question has, one may argue, little bearing on the intrinsic being of the institution and much more dependent on what is perceived to be the expectations from the state, society and more importantly from the corresponding contexts of other parallel institutions of learning in the society. So the nature of work or academic tasks and functions of the university should be critically dependent on the larger framework mentioned above, and its well being and identity determined on the basis of how congruent these functions are in responding to the challenges posed by the changing environment. These within the policy discourse then essentially get a positive connotation and are posited as “reforms” as opposed to “deforms” or simply “deviation”.

The paper argues that in the Indian context it may help to visualize the discourse on reforms in the academic functioning of universities in essentially three phases. This first phase corresponding to the pre-independence phase, it is argued, indicates the pulls between the emergent nationalist articulation and the colonial imagination which modelled the first set of university level institutions on the typology of London University (which itself underwent radical transformation in the first part of the twentieth century) with very little expectations from this enterprise. There was no grand effort, in fact marginal, in articulation of the mandate, almost as if the European discourse on the idea of the university did not exist for those visualising the same for the colonial India. India like other „third world‟ erstwhile colonized countries was really adversely situated, neither did we inherit the liberal legacy of

Oxbridge nor did we adopt the Humboldtian charter for research and technical know-how for our universities.

The second phase, it is argued, would correspond to the post independence concern with making the most of the colonial legacy and a heightened concern with operational efficiency of an almost inert system of institutions. Despite articulating the normative essence of what roles universities ought to play in nation building, eventually it becomes a brass-tax narrative and an almost cosmetic approach to review day-to-day functioning becomes visible, legitimately perhaps, about how the densely inert and elephantine system of universities in the country be made tolerably functional. How deep is the commitment of the Commission with envisaging the university‟s link with the cause of a society thrust into the throes of modernity almost artificially and does it impact the social imagination around universities of the times is a strand this paper writes into the narrative of reforms set up for the university explored through this study.

Academic reforms therein become a reference point to also understand the motivations with which change is initiated as well as the different vantage points from which the respondents receive change and work with it.

The third phase corresponds to the post-liberalisation concern with linking university education to the “employment, social mobility, market triad” much more directly and fiercely than ever experienced in the three decades after independence. Reforms here correspond to making the public institutions respond to a change of pace and align their own pace of change with the demands of an emergent consumer society. The conflict essentially boils down to the one between the liberal imagination of the university, as owed to Cardinal Newman and the competing definitions which not only integrate the logic of market but give it precedence and preference over the liberal.

The struggle then appears from within the site of the university to define what really is higher education? Vocational education, professional education, education in distance mode, an education in management skills, the development of the discipline of communications and management, the burgeoning demand for technical know-how courses/programmes and their perceived relevance to the needs of the present and future employment markets--how do universities respond to these diverse mandates? It is argued that an engagement with the sub-text of institutional or university‟s dilemmas, reflect these questions running concurrently with all other discourses.

Given the fact that universities are resource intensive organisations, the demand for changes also boils itself down to the demand for changes in resource allocation and utilisation. What should the public universities be responding to, and what happens when they do not? Since the peculiar definition we have bestowed on our universities, more often than not, by a university system we primarily refer to the large undergraduate system being nurtured in constituent and primarily affiliated colleges, where in bulk of our enrolments, nearly 60 per cent of the total reside. And it is what happens in these brackets of undergraduate coteries that the struggle for defining the nature of universities gets played out or gets defeated. If what is happening in the name of education and training in these institutions is inconsequential to the market economy then why would they deserve state patronage in terms of funding resources? And what happens when, working with this stream of logic, changes are enforced through an incentive or rather disincentivizing structure?

Many scholars contend that in the era of coalition politics radical transformation in any sphere of popular politics, or welfare, is impossible. So how is the State, as the vanguard of

“market”, contentiously though, interested in normative discourses around the essential character of university like institutions, and where does that reflect in policy making and institution shaping? The paper would address this contentious space while situating the idea of university and reforms in the Indian context. What has come to characterize the agenda of academic reforms in the post-independence India—an obsession with cosmetic changes, a reluctance to engage with legacy of existing institutions (treated as a burden) or the discourse of operational efficiency surrounding the universities, are addressed in the paper.

But then the question of reform does an inverse flip. Even as we analytically address what the politics of the reforms looks like, as educational practitioners, there is a contingent interest in engaging with the unfolding of the politics at the institutional level in its own terms. Given the politics of the reforms agenda, how does an institution, at the micro level—as manifest in the institutional leadership, the resolve of the teachers, and expectations of the students, cope with and respond to the emergent demands from the society and the market alike?

This paper emanates from the author‟s ongoing doctoral work that engages with the discourse of reforms and change dynamics in the University of Delhi. The study views the reforms and shifts in a historical span that enables the analytical positioning of institutional response to reforms vis-a-vis the political economy of reforms. The ease with which the University has taken up and then abandoned curricular initiatives at different points of time and the failures

in implementing changes or “reforms” has encouraged one to engage with the context of academic reforms in the University. It is in the exploration of the fissures and divides between the idea and the implementation and the challenges in the context of the policy environment that one sees possibility of multiple and layered analyses of the higher education landscape in the country embedded. The attempt in the paper is thus to present the analysis, which enables one to explore more than the teleological, and enables one to map the changes critically.

**39**

**Salience of Social Class Identity in Education: Reflections from an Elite Private School in Delhi**

**Author** : Sharmila Rathee

**Affiliation** : Institute of Home Economics, University of Delhi

**Keywords**: Social Class

Identity

Education

Schooling Practices

**Introduction :**

Every day, in schools and other educational institutions, individuals notice social class, and in doing so create, maintain, and—at times—challenge its psychological meanings (Ostrove & Cole, 2003, p.678).

Above lines highlight the omnipresent salience of class identity in educational institutions which makes educational sites such as universities and schools a rich laboratory to study the experience of social class. Although children may have awareness of social class differences before they enter schools, yet schools often act as significant sites where class differences may be noticed more plainly. These differences may get more austere and lucid in settings which include students from diverse socio economic status.

Indian education system is often characterized as a stratified school system showing class differences in terms of schooling choice, with elite private schools on the top catering to the upper and middle classes and government schools on the bottom position with an overrepresentation of poor and marginalized communities (Nambissan, 2012). In order to overcome the issue of school choice due to economic constraints and to dilute the stratified nature of school system, Right to Education (RtE) Act, 2009 made a provision under section 12 of RtE act, which focus on increasing choice and classroom diversity by mandating private schools to reserve 25% seats at entry level to government-funded students belonging to officially-defined minority groups and economically weaker section (Hill & Chalaux, 2011).

It would not be inapt to say that prior to implementation of abovementioned provision; economic composition of elite private schools’ student population was very much homogeneous with most student population belonging to upper middle or high-class economic status. It is after implementation of this clause, private schools in Indian setting represent more heterogeneity in terms of social class where salience of class may become more prominent. Ostrove & Cole (2003) suggest that such heterogeneous settings of difference often happen to be the milieu where students develop awareness of their own class status and come to struggle with its meaning in their own lives and personal identities. These features of educational contexts set these contexts into an ideal stage where the dynamics and contradictions of social class played out at individual and social psychological level, can be watched. In current available literature, social class has been studied mainly from two perspectives. One set of researches in this field has focused on exploring the impact of social class in shaping/influencing the ways in which individual experiences, views and understands the world (e.g., Stephan, Markus, & Phillips, 2014; Coˆte, 2011; Aries & Seider, 2007; Ostrove, 2003; Ostrove & Cole, 2003; Stewart & Ostrove,1993); another set of researches on social class are related to the ways in which contexts socialize social class identity (e.g., Hochschild, 2003; Stephens,Markus, & Phillips, 2014).

In Indian setting, class has been studied prominently from sociological perspective with major emphasis on school choice (e.g., Nambissan, 2012; Harma, 2011; Lall, 2000) and reproduction of social class in school settings (e.g.,Talib, 1998). Social class has not received adequate attention in studies focused on studying relationship of identity and education in Indian context. Talib (1998)’s work serve as an exception in this regard. Talib (1998) examined the site of the classroom to understand the social aspects of class formation. His work is very insightful in terms of demonstrating the association between discriminatory practices in school and society and in explaining the reproduction of social class in schools. Despite significant insights, this work focuses on sociological explanations and ignores the role that social psychological processes play in such experiences.

Further, available studies on social class in Indian context have been studied in comparatively homogenous contexts i.e. schools with majority of students from similar social class status and not in heterogeneous settings in terms of class. Heterogeneity generated in private schools in terms of social class as a result of implementation of 25% reservation under clause 12 of RtE act, sets these schools as an important site to study social class in educational settings. However, being a newly implemented phenomenon, these mixed group contexts has not yet been explored adequately. Available commentaries are also based on predictions and hypothetical arguments and lacks empirical findings. Some exploratory studies (e.g., Sarangapani, Mehendale, Mukhopadhyay & Namala, 2014; Tucker & Sahgal, 2012; Nayak, 2012) are available which aimed at exploring perceptions of principals, children, parents and civil society members. Despite the importance of reported findings, these studies are insufficient to understand the problem at hand as they are mere exploratory and doesn’t apply or propose any theoretical framework to understand the reported findings.

Being a member to working class status and studying in an upper-class academic institution can be considered as a unique experience for students belonging to low social class. However, being a recent provision, its practice has been reported by very few empirical studies. Some studies (e.g., Mallica, 2005; Sarin & Gupta, 2013), have reported the resistance of school authorities to admit these schools and discriminatory practices towards working class students admitted to elite private schools under freeship quota scheme of Delhi government. Sarin & Gupta (2013) in their study on quota students (who got enrolled under freeship quota scheme) in elite private schools, reports complexities arise out of social and cultural mismatches between student’s family practices and school practices. They also report that working class students face stereotypical and discriminatory behavior in these elite schools. Major stereotype associated with low SES children in Indian context is their inherent deficiency of competence, or particular kinds of intellectual ability (Sinha & Mishra, 2013) and anti-social behavior. Bhat (2012) analyzed this setting in light of Bernstein (1971) and Bourdieu (1977)’s work and suggests a word of caution in implementation of this provision. He suggests that elite schools have their own culture which differs from that of working class and suits children belonging to upper class status. Difference of mode of communication, lack of cultural capital and low social-class identification with teachers (as most of teachers in these schools are from middle class or upper class), puts students belonging to working class at a disadvantaged position). Bhat’s (2012) arguments points towards possibilities of complexities in such classrooms as a result of changed social structure of classroom as a result of diversity, but what are these possible complexities, has not been explored or discussed by him or any of the in-sight studies.

A significant number of studies related to this field in western context suggest that minority students like working class and first-generation students are often uncertain about the “right” way to act as students and begin to question whether they belong and can be successful in college settings (Johnson, Richeson, & Finkel, 2011; Ostrove & Long, 2007). This uncertainty can hinder their ability to effectively navigate the experience in educational institutions and to take full advantage of all the opportunities that these institutions have to offer (Housel & Harvey, 2009).

Stephans, Markus, & Phillips (2014) suggest that social class culture cycles operate over the lifespan and through three critical contexts—the home, school, and workplace. Schools play a significant role in facilitating and inhibiting identity development of students (Adams, Ryan & Keating, 2000). Schools are often conceptualized as site of control and a tool of identity reproduction. Stephans et al. (2014) suggest that most of the mainstream institutions are structured to reflect and reinforce mostly middle/upper-class ways of being a self. Values focused in working class cultures are often ignored and sometimes even undermined in these institutions (ibid). Tsai (2007) also suggest that instead of achieving equality, schools use diversity as a tool to create division among the minority students. By keeping minority populations at a certain level, schools maintain privilege of majority.

Stephens, Markus, & Phillips (2014) suggest that schools (in elite context) catering to students from upper and middle social class focus on expressive independence self and schools in working class context foster hard interdependence self. According to them, as a result of conflation in values fostered at home and that at schools, students from working class backgrounds in elite schools face a clash of discourses. Stephens, Fryberg, Markus, Johnson & Covarrubias (2012) in their study of American universities found that university culture itself—through its focus on middle-class cultural norms of independence—plays a pivotal role in creating and reproducing the very social class inequalities that universities hope to alleviate.

As discussed earlier, Mixed-group private schools settings under 25% reservation policy of RtE (2009), has not yet explored adequately. In context of lack of research in this domain and conceptualizations of schools as site of identity productions, present work intend to examine the role of school context in shaping class based identities. In order to achieve this objective it is important to understand, how does school context influence the social class identities of lower income students; what is the role of school in forming, shaping and reproducing social class identities? And what are the different curricular and co-curricular processes employed by schools which shape the identities of children vis-à-vis class?

In this Context, Present paper is an attempt to contribute to the body of research in this field by addressing abovementioned research questions. Paper includes sections of field notes which report the instances in the process of schooling where social class becomes salient. Reported instances come majorly from the secular and normative world of the school. While the secular domain of the school comprises of the systematic curriculum that is being followed in the school; normative domain is about the philosophy and culture that school promotes and attempts to inculcate among its students. Incorporated accounts have been attained using an ethnographic approach in an elite private school in Delhi which represents heterogeneity in terms of student’s social class. Study of social class identity in a school representing heterogeneity in terms of social class carries value in providing a more complex understanding of identity experiences in intergroup settings of schools. Present research domain is considerable to the advancement of theoretical knowledge and provides insights for practical applications.

Further enquiry of relationship between school practices and student’s experiences is helpful in enhancing theoretical understanding of intersection of context and identity. It also contributes to understand the role of intergroup processes in shaping students’ subjective and identity related experiences. At practical level, understanding of the ways through which students’ social class background is associated with students’ school experiences provides valuable insights to practitioners, administrators, and policymakers seeking to make inclusion a reality for lower/working-class students. At broader level, better knowledge and understanding of the sociological and social psychological processes at work in inclusive settings may assist in the development, implementation and efficacy of inclusive programmes designed to achieve equality in education.

**40**

**Tribal education policy and the promotion of residential schools: Comparing the ‘stolen generation’ policy of forced assimilation in North America and Australia, and the present situation in tribal India**

**Author** : Malvika Gupta

**Affiliation** : Central Institute of Education, Delhi University

**Keywords :** tribal education

stolen generation

assimilation

comparative study

ashramization

**Introduction :**

India’s first Education Commission, chaired by F.W. Hunter in 1882, promoted the idea of schools in India’s tribal areas, delegating this task to Christian missionary societies, several of which had already set up school networks, among Munda, Oraon, Kond, Gond and other tribes. The Commission called for ‘western scientific knowledge’ to be taught, along with English, to tribal elites, who would be in a position to ‘interpret’ government policies. Thus began the first schools in tribal India, to ‘give literacy’ to societies that had a long unwritten history of transmitting knowledge and value systems to youth through ‘informal’ institutions such as the ghotul of the Muria Gond and the dhumkuria of the Oraon.

Ashram schools, formed on a ‘Gandhian’ model and set up in tribal areas of several provinces from the 1930s by Thakkar Bapa and associates, spread rapidly post-Independence. About 1,000 were in operation by 1960, and 3,500 by 1989, with at least 600 more since 1990. As Archana Prasad has argued, the first Ashram schools were partly motivated by the wish to break a Christian monopoly on tribal education, and substituted a Hindu orientation that continues in the widespread practice of forcing ‘Hindu’ names onto tribal children, along with promotion of many other ‘sanskritizing’ features. But at the same time, Thakkar Bapa and his associates inherited many negative stereotypes about tribal society from the missionaries and colonial power structure, seeing tribals as ‘backward’, ‘lazy’, ‘promiscuous’, ‘addicted’ to alcohol, and to ‘destructive’ economic practices such as shifting cultivation – a ‘deficit discourse’ that has defined educational approaches to tribal education ever since, tied to an aim of ‘assimilation’ that contradicts India’s official tribal policy of integration.

Navodaya Vidyalaya schools, set up under the New Policy on Education 1986, are not specifically tribal, though many are in remote tribal areas. They number nearly 600, one per district, and were criticized by the Ramamurti Committee soon after their inception as promoting a two tier education system. Eklavya Model Residential Schools, specifically for tribal children, were set up in a similar fashion, to take children from class VI. They number over 70, and can be seen as playing a role in forming tribal elites. Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools, which started in 2004, for girls in ‘educationally backward’ areas, number over 3,000. Various private school models are also being promoted now, such as the Kalinga Institute of Social Sciences (KISS) in Bhubaneswar, that claims to provide education ‘from KG to PG’ to 25,000 tribal children.

Recently, sexual abuse has been exposed in a number of residential schools and hostels for tribal children, in Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Odisha and other States, while a Report of the Standing Committee on Social Justice and Empowerment submitted in February 2014 mentions nearly 800 poorly explained deaths in Ashram schools in Maharashtra alone during 2001-2013.

There is also evidence of widespread physical and emotional abuse in boarding schools and hostels, such as use of corporal punishment, and systematic humiliation of tribal children who speak their languages or display features of tribal culture in the classroom. Ashram schools were supposed to promote mother tongue education in tribal languages, which is every child’s constitutional right under Article 350A.

This is one out of many examples of how Ashram and other tribal boarding schools, far from embodying the principles of Gandhi’s system of Basic Education, and integrating local knowledge and culture into the curriculum, actually undermine tribal systems of knowledge and values, alienating children from their communities, and suiting them ‘neither for the home nor for the field’. The Kothari Commission ‘redefined’ Gandhi’s concept of productive work towards technical training, to wean tribal people away from their traditional, land and forest based economy, and turn them into an industrial labour force in a situation of rapid industrialization that was simultaneously displacing hundreds of tribal communities from their land. A large part of the funding that supports the KISS enterprise comes from mining companies such as Nalco and Vedanta. So alongside the infiltration of hindutva ideology, there is also widespread promotion of an entrenched ideology of industrialization.

Part of India’s heritage is an extraordinary range of languages. Apart from a few dozen ‘major’ tribal languages, which have over 100,000 speakers, there are an estimated 1,500 languages which have 10,000 or fewer speakers. A large proportion of these are tribal languages, and culturally significant tribes such as Bonda, Juang, Gadaba, Didayi and Dhurwa in south Odisha and south Chhattisgarh for example each have a population of under 10,000 speakers of unique, extremely ancient languages, each of which carries a unique vision of social reality embedded in a symbiotic relationship with the local environment geared towards long-term sustainability. Isn’t preserving these languages of great national importance, and shouldn’t use of tribal languages be seen as an asset rather than impediment for education?

The models of residential schools that have been so widely promoted for tribal children in India have significant but little-commented-on parallels with the mission schools promoted for indigenous children throughout North America and Australia, in the policy of forced assimilation that stole children from their families - ‘stolen generations’ - for which the Prime Ministers of Australia and Canada (but not the USA) have issued formal apologies to their indigenous populations. In Australia for example, ‘Tens of thousands of Aboriginal children were forcibly taken from their parents under a government policy of assimilation from the 1880s to the 1960s. Those children are called the "Stolen Generation"… "It clearly was attempted genocide," Sir Ronald Wilson, president of Australia's Human Rights Commission, told Reuters.’ (Michael Perry, ‘A Stolen Generation Cries Out’, 1997)

As a Lakota ‘medicine man’ named Lame Deer recorded, of his own enforced schooling in the USA around 1920, ‘In those days the Indian schools were like jails and run along military lines, with roll calls four times a day…. We were forbidden to talk our own language or to sing our songs…. The teacher said “Stand!”, “Sit down!” He said it again and again until we caught on…. To the Indian kid the white boarding school comes as a terrific shock. He is taken from his warm womb [of the family] to this strange, cold place…. In these fine new buildings Indian children still commit suicide, because they are lonely in all that noise and activity. I know of a ten-year-old who hanged herself. Those schools are just boxes filled with homesick children. The schools leave a scar….’ (John Fire and Richard Erdoes, Lame Deer, Sioux Medicine Man, 1972, p.33)

This paper includes a brief survey of the history and models of tribal schools in India, including the residential models outlined above; village day schools, increasingly closed down since 2014 (especially in Chhattisgarh and Odisha); models from Northeast India such as the Nagaland communitisation of education scheme that empower communities in decision-making on village schools; and small-scale, culturally sensitive, multilingual models available from different parts of the country.

Our methodology is based on historical anthropology combined with discourse analysis of policy documents and critical pedagogy. We draw on our own field experience of tribal schools in several parts of the country, which is not extensive, but supplements a wide reading on classroom processes in indigenous contexts, in India and other countries. We also draw from Linda Tuhiwai Smith’s seminal work Decolonizing Methodologies: Research and Indigenous People (1999/2012), who summarizes the situation from a Maori standpoint: ‘For many indigenous peoples the main agency for imposing this positional superiority over knowledge, language and culture was colonial education… Numerous accounts across nations now attest to the critical role played by schools in assimilating colonized peoples, and in the systematic, frequently brutal, forms of denial of indigenous languages, knowledges and cultures… Colonial education was also used as a mechanism for creating new indigenous elites…’ (Tuhiwai Smith p.67)

This international indigenous history needs to be a lot better known in India, to cast light on present educational practices and their colonial roots. The comparison we make has vital policy implications. For one, since India’s tribal policy is characterized as a middle path of integration, between ‘isolationism’ and assimilation, why isn’t the infamous international history of forced assimilation better known and widely discredited, like the policy of isolationsim? The Virginius Xaxa chaired Report of the High Level Committee on Socio-economic, Health and Educational Status of Tribal Communities of India (2014) shows how the official policy of integration has morphed into a policy of assimilation, in which an ‘Ashramization’ of tribal education plays a crucial, little-recognized role of undermining tribal cultures.

Our paper will end with policy recommendations, and by highlighting positive models of schools in India, New Zealand and elsewhere, showing how a proper synthesis could be achieved that could integrate tribal with mainstream knowledge systems.

**41**

**How Schools Fail Working Class Children**

**Author :** Dr. Shubhra Srivastava, Dr. Madhu Kushwaha

**Affiliation** : BHU

**Keywords** : Working Class

Contextual Knowledge

Legitimate Knowledge

Pedagogic Practices

**Introduction :**

The Rajya Sabha passed the amendments to the Child Labour Act, making way for complete prohibition of employment of children below the age of 14 but also allowing them to work in ‘family enterprises’ and farms after school hours and on holidays. There has been a lot of debate over this with several NGOs, child right activists and educationists criticizing the amendment. They argue that it perpetuates exploitation of children in the name of family enterprise and will maintain social inequalities. Several types of work like weaving, zari making, embroidery work, bindi making, bangle making etc require the entire family to participate to meet the demands of the contractors who supply material and procure the finished product on a piece- rate basis. Such work is a form of hidden exploitation under unregulated labour conditions. Most of India’s child labour is caste based work with many landless farmers and their family working on landholders land as cheap labour and caught in inter generational debt bondage. All such kind of work require long working hours before and after school and also results in skipping school during peak business seasons. All this happens at the cost of their health and education, resulting in poor concentration at school. Unable to cope with both school and work, these children are either branded as slow learners or are pushed out of the school system. But other than this there are still other hindrances in the way of their completion of schooling. Child labour existed in India before the present amendment and now the irony of the situation is that the government is allowing children to work after school hours. So the reality is that children from certain caste and class are involved in work along with schooling.

Success at school is determined by the fact that to what extent children can produce legitimate class room knowledge. The legitimisation of class knowledge depends on the dominant class room culture and the teacher’s authority. According to Bernstein’s pedagogic codes the pedagogic practice leads to reproduction and production of culture **(Bernstein,1990). Bernstein (1975)** proposed that education is the primary social classifier in society.Underlying his theory was his claim that the school acts as the social classifier through ‘three common message systems’ that all schools around the globe have in common: curriculum,

pedagogy and assessment **(Cause, 2010).** Bourdieu’s theory of cultural reproduction suggests that children from different social class possess different cultural capital that is; possession of cultural capital depends upon social origins **(Blunden, 2004).** The education system maintains the demarcation between higher class and lower class by assuming the possession of dominant class cultural capital by all **(Cobb & Hodge, 2002; Sullivan, 2002).** Thus success in education system is facilitated by the possession of cultural capital and higher class habitus thus legitimising class inequalities **(Sullivan, 2002). Zevenbergen & Lerman (2001)** used the theoretical tools developed by Basil Bernstein and proposed that aspects of school mathematics were socially biased and enhanced or hindered the potential for success for some students. **Hoadley (2007)** found that mathematics pedagogies reproduced social class inequalities in South African schools.

In India there is no clear cut demarcation between social class and caste and both overlap. Most of the children who are enrolled in government primary and upper primary schools form part of the ‘allowed child labour’ as per the amendment, as most of them work or assist their parents in their family enterprise and also attend school (working class children). These children possess a certain cultural capital and exposure to day to day mathematical practices due to their exposure to work outside school which is different from the children who don’t work and attend private schools. Several studies have explored the relation between culture and mathematical learning (Carraher et al, 1985; Fahrmeier, 1984 as cited in Nunes, 1993; Khan 1999, 2004; Lave, 1977, 1988; Nunes et al, 1993; Saxe, 1988, 1991; Scribner, 1984 as cited in Nunes, 1993) and support the observation that experiences outside school led to mathematical cognition. Learning therefore is viewed as a process of enculturation or cognitive apprenticeship into practices and modes of thinking of a particular discipline, trade or profession (Brown et al, 1989).

The present paper tries to explore the research questions as to what extent the out of school mathematical experiences of working class children facilitates/ hinders their success at school mathematics and how school mathematics pedagogical practices fail working class children. The study presented here was part of the doctoral research of the researcher and was designed as a qualitative exploratory field study. The sample consisted of working class children studying in class V in government primary schools of Varanasi. The study involved identifying working class children and then conducting a task based interview where the task

comprised of realistic word problems. Apart from this observation of the mathematics class to understand the instructional process and informal talks with the mathematics teachers and children were also conducted.

Based on the analysis of data it was found that the rule for finding or arriving at a right answer existed for these children but was not universally applied for all problems and they considered the underlying context for some problems while overlooked for others. Teachers were the institutionalised authority who legitimised class knowledge. The children had lesser disconnectedness between out of school and school knowledge whereas, school mathematics teaching practices led to greater disconnectedness between real world and school knowledge leading to difficulty in conforming to teachers’ expectations.

It was concluded that the children had limited socialisation at school as work had greater priority to schooling. For them the social class effect was not completely overridden by the effect of schooling. They were still beginners in the process of structured school learning that is; they were at the periphery in the ‘community of practice’ (schooling) as a result working class children could not produce legitimate responses for certain problems. Classroom teaching deepened the gap between esoteric knowledge and main stream knowledge for these children. This led them to be labelled as poor performers in mathematics. The working class children suffer a greater disadvantage as they are completely pushed out of the system as a result of being labelled as poor performers due to non conformity with the school culture. They internalise this idea that they cannot do well in school and hence they don’t find school mathematics interesting or of any use to them. The pedagogic practices make no attempt to fill the gap between their esoteric and main stream knowledge. These children continue to be poor performers due to lack of any support system and are slowly pushed out of the system without getting a chance to be part of it.

The irony of situation is that on the one hand government is allowing children to work after school hours and on the other hand schools are not ready to accommodate the contextual knowledge (a product of working) of working class children while teaching and evaluating them. School life (curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation practices) remains centered on the lives of non working class children. The much desired change is needed in the school structure and pedagogical practices and not in the labour laws.

**42**

**Understanding Subaltern philosophy of Education: Reading Phule and Ambedkar**

**Author** : Ashwini Kp

**Affiliation** : mount carmel college

**Keywords** : Education

subaltern

power

knowledge

Phule

Ambedkar

Education has been one of the significant aspects of empowerment. Historically education has undergone significant changes in Indian history. Subsequently, Introduction of modern education transformed the socio-cultural framework of Indian society. The societal structure based on caste, class and gender often drew parameters with regard to access to Education. It is in this background that the concept of universal education gained prominence. This paper attempts to analyse of evolution of subaltern perspective of education with reference to Phule and Ambedkar. Post-colonial India witnessed numerous political movements of which social movements related to accessibility to education transformed the notion of inequality. Both Phule and Ambedkar evaluated the significance of education in a larger perspective pertaining to the marginalised communities. For both Ambedkar and Phule Education remained as an instrument of socio-economic empowerment. They viewed that inaccessibility to education excluded large section of people from the mainstream society thereby placing them in a mode of deprivation. Hence, this paper attempts to examine their objective of social revolution that placed education as an aspect of social empowerment. It also examines the contribution of Phule and Ambedkar in building a subaltern perspective of education. In the background of endorsing the idea of universal education both Phule and Ambedkar were addressing the aspect of social-inequity in India. Hence this paper attempts to examine the intricate relationship between education and empowerment. Most importantly the concept of power and knowledge propounded by Phule and Ambedkar holds great importance in constructing the aspect of welfare state.

**43**

**Stepping Out Of The Box: Exploring children’s Right to Autonomy and its implications on fostering a secular attitude**

**Author** : Chandrima Chattopadhyay

**Affiliation** : University of Delhi

**Keywords :** Education as justice

Right to Autonomy

Autonomy and Education

Autonomy Facilitating Education

Secularism and Education

**Introduction :**

The paper presents a parable that highlights the need to preserve the autonomy of a child given the effect of the immense complexity of our pluralistic society.I argue that in establishing ‘Right to Autonomy’ as a right fundamental to a child as realised through education, we uphold the intrinsic interests and motivations of a child to be independent of the influence of the environment. Subsequently, exploring how the process of becoming an autonomous self optimises one’s own behaviour and reflects on one’s own belief-states that has implications on the structure of our knowledge of the world. I further argue how by facilitating for an environment in education that upholds autonomous thinking of children, will advance secularist attitude among children.   
  
A reasonable normative approach to understanding access to education accords it as a matter of justice and not of democracy or of public good. Justice requires that interest driven individuals as members of the State have a sphere within which they enjoy certain rights and live in consensus with other individuals that seek to positively affect their well being. In a Rawlsian sense, all individuals are driven by two higher order interests of: being able to develop capacity in forming a conception of the moral ‘good’ and a sense of ‘justice’ (Rawls: 1999). This idea necessitates that individuals must then be provided with an environment and certain entitlements that render them capable to exercise their interests and desires. This is a significant distinction from rights in a democracy for utilitarian intentions or for purposes of better governance or stronger democracy. The key point is justice for justice’s sake. Such a concept of justice presumes that individuals have an autonomous entity capable of independent thought, to tread in the path of self-determination and perform with critical accountability. It is then primarily the State that as a duty bearer then must through rights that protect the interest of well being of the self, provide for an environment conducive to upholding individual autonomy.   
  
The concept of Autonomy can be rightly traced back to Socrates’ response against the ‘unexamined way of life’. The matter is more complex for a child if such an examination at its very onset is biased and prejudiced. A child must be understood to be autonomous as a conscious being comprising of two cognitive capacities: self-reflective capacity to reflect on and recognize one’s own belief states in forming knowledge and self-affective capacity to evolve through reflection and attempt to form core values that coheres with the agent's character (Dworkin:1988). A child can be said to have natural propensities and intrinsic motivation to form and develop such an account of autonomy if and only if she/he may be provided with certain external enabling conditions.This then provides for the rationale for an education that is facilitative of promoting this autonomy in children. An introduction to the concept of autonomous thinking in children must be based on the foundations of giving them real choices on inherent recognition of their independence and a relationship of trust. A crucial aspect in this respect is that of respecting and securing the intrinsic autonomous thinking and emotional capabilities of the child and enabling a space for their expression.   
  
It may be argued that children as future adults must be subject to least constraints and be given an environment that gives way to a feeling of being an autonomous decision maker that ensures the ‘child’s right to open future’ (Feinberg: 2007). Here, is the assumption that a child must be treated as a future adult and must thereof have an environment that facilitates for exercising adult autonomy in the future. However, my concern here is primarily of the right of the children in ensuring for a free and independent childhood that delimits the external influences and biases of the child’s immediate environment, which I call here as the ‘Box’. The sole argument here is that children must be granted child-as-child autonomy before child-as-adult autonomy. The adult is not only a product of its environment but also a self-reflective individual of its formative childhood years. An emphasis on the aspect of childhood here focuses on child-agent as a product of its environment. Since, the child’s environment --culture, class, social status and specifically religion is seen as the given starting point where there is little voluntary control. It is only in the school environment that a child can be given the scope in developing a self-reflective and self-affective capacity. The self-determination or autonomy of self is then required to be reoriented through an engagement and participation as provided through a comprehensive schooling.   
  
The subsequent challenge is also of understanding the enabling conditions for ‘Right to Autonomy’. Being autonomous is contingent upon conditions and children have a right to those conditions. The problem arises in determining those conditions and how they must be implemented given their state of being in the ‘box’. The necessary conditions of developing autonomy requires a neutral space for evaluating worldviews and reflecting on one’s own worldview of immediate community , its culture, values, traditions and religion. Others however argue that children should have the exposure and the freedom to evaluate these world views in a space where there is significant amount of unlearning, new imaginings of alternate world views and a renewed sense of values and respect for diversity.   
This requires a certain ‘stepping out of the box’; it is the consciousness of the child that must evolve in respect through a considerable deconstruction employing a certain method of skepticism to gain robust autonomy. Therefore, autonomy requires that the child gains sufficient knowledge that accounts for the plurality of views, exposure to diverse culture and value systems and understanding more of the ‘why’ of moral and political responsibility alongside ‘how’ to be a morally and politically responsible agent. In knowing, one must also exercise being a responsible agent and then acquire the necessary skill for its practical application. This kind of educational environment shall equip the child with skills to reflect on alternatives providing them with substantive freedom and real choices. The primordial focus in autonomy facilitating education is that knowledge, i.e. of self-knowledge is discovered in learning and necessary skill learnt to employ autonomy i.e. of volition and motivation. The crucial point is that autonomy must be facilitated in knowledge and skill and not promoted just in virtue (Brighouse: 2000).   
  
A societal ‘given’ component in which a child’s autonomy is undermined is that of the formation of its secular attitude. A strong education system unarguably is the measure of the performance along dimensions of a balance between representation and judicious approach to the public spirit, in order to inculcate that which must go comply to well being standards demanding an attitude of social justice. An organization like the schools for a child in the foundational space in an initiation to the social structure and system, serving to fulfil the aim of organization and mobilization of the people in order to achieve actions which have specific consequences and yet maintain equidistant from its overall influences. Secular education as achieved through facilitating an autonomous environment will form a necessary platform for the dialogue between the child and society. This dialogue is cardinal to the structure of democracy through putting a sense of responsibility in the education system for facilitating autonomy.   
  
The problem is that in indoctrination of religious values, we are but given value judgments which are content empty, lack verifiability and are given as undeniable truths. A set of blind value judgments leads to a certain sort of absolutism that upholds a certain viewpoint as superior to the other. Thereof Right to Autonomy I believe as realised through education where children are not just tolerant but achieve greater acceptability, adaptability and learn through genuine discovery of their own religious identity is formative for their roles in the society. The ethos of the autonomy-facilitating education has the potential impact for allowing children in schools to reflect the values embodied in their religious culture-popular and traditional. The independent development of the child and its two cognitive aspects will further their roles in the country as citizens expressing secularist attitude. Autonomy facilitating education will enable students to further question their given set of religious doctrines, expose themselves to varying religious viewpoints and do a customary ‘stepping out of the box’.   
 **References**   
  
  
*1. Callan, Eamon (1988). Autonomy and Schooling. Canada: McGill-Queen’s University Press   
2. Rawls, John (1999). Theory of Justice. Belknap Press   
3. Dworkin, Gerald (1988). The Theory and Practice of Autonomy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press   
4. Brighouse, Harry (2000). School choice and social justice. New York: Oxford University Press   
5. Feinberg, Joel (2007). The child’s right to an open future. In Randall Curren (ed)\_ Philosophy of Education: An Anthology. Blackwell Publishing*

**44**

**Addressing social inequalities: Locating Dalit women in Indian educational framework**

**Author** : Ashwini Kp

**Affiliation** : mount carmel college

**Keywords :** dalit women

social inequality

exclusion

**Introduction :**

Education is one of the important mediums through which marginalised sections have attempted to elevate their socio-economic status. However, social stratification and hierarchical differences have consistently placed large section of marginalised sections at the periphery. Higher education spaces have turned out to be highly contentious. Indian society has been structured in a manner that education is a monopolised asset. On contrary the aspect of gender plays a crucial role in defining the status quo of women. The heterogeneous pattern within the gender aspect has raised numerous questions with regard to glaring disparity among women. Caste, class, ethnicity, region have all set apart women in defining their socio-economic status. This paper examines the heterogeneity among women with reference to their educational condition. It also focuses on the representation of Dalit women in education. The multiple patterns of discrimination meted against Dalit women in the urban and rural spaces have denied them access to higher education. Hence it is of utmost importance to understand and analyses the underlying dynamics of exclusion and discrimination among women on the basis of caste that places Dalit women at the margin. The paper attempts to locate Dalit women and the challenges they are prone to in educational spaces.

**45**

**Comparison of Distance and Formal Education: Enrolment and Achievement of students at Post Graduate Level**

**Author**Md. Kutub Uddin Halder

**Affiliation** : University of Calcutta

**Keywords** : 1. Comparison of the Distance and Formal Education

2. Enrolment

3. Success Rate at Post Graduate Level

**Introduction :**

The open and distance learning system in India has emerged as an important mode for providing education to diverse section of society. According to the World Bank report, India has earned the distinction of having the world’s second largest education system after China. In West Bengal, some universities offer Under Graduate and Post Graduate courses through distance education mode along with formal education. But some questions are raised regarding instructional materials, personal contract programmes, evaluation process and other areas of quality and quantity of distance mode of education. It is necessary to take clear insight into the enrolment and achievement of distance education in West Bengal. The main objectives of the study were (1) to compare the number of students enrolled in different subjects in social science in regular course and distance education mode and (2) to find out the success rate of students of regular course and distance modes. Purposive sampling technique was adopted. As dual modes university, the Rabindra Bharati University (RBU) and Vidyasagar University (VU) were chosen. All students of RBU and VU in the sessions 2011, 2012 and 2013 in seven academic subjects in social science were taken as sample. Official records of the university were considered as primary source of data. Data regarding the quality of distance education were also collected from the directors and course coordinators, academic councillors and students through opinionnaire standardized by Delphi –technique. For quantitative analysis of the data percentages were calculated and z-test was used for caparison the two groups. The study observed that the students’ enrolment in distance mode was much greater in number than that of regular mode in both the universities, RBU and VU. Out of 64609 students in RBU in Bengali, English, Sanskrit, History, Political Science, and Education in the three academic years, 60,454 (93.56%) were enrolled in distance education and only 4155 (6.43%) were enrolled in formal education mode. In case of VU, in Bengali, English, and Sanskrit, History, and Political Science subjects 87.04 % and 12.96% students were enrolled in Distance and formal education Mode respectively. The success rate was above 80% for most of the subjects in the both of the modes in the two universities. It was also found that it was better in distance mode for RBU. But in VU, the rate was better in regular mode than that of distance mode. The study found from the opinion of the teachers (academic counsellors) and students that there should be equal status in regular and distance mode. It was also found from the opinion of the directors that some students from distance mode had qualified NET/SET examination and joined in colleges and universities and were working efficiently.

**46**

**School Based Management in context of Rastriya Madhyamik Siksha Abhiyan a case study of policy into practices in Haryana**

**Author** : Dipendra Pathak

**Affiliation** : National University of Educational Planning and Administration

**Keywords :** School Based Management

Community Participation

Decentralisation

**Abstract**

Education of good quality is essential for every child; this can be possible only through active participation of parents in educational planning and administration at grassroots level, which means at school level. Family being the unit of community, parents, and family involvement plays vital role in child’s education. Parents’ involvement increases the capacities and capabilities of their children. The involvement of parents, family, and community in education sets the stage for higher academic performance and improvement in education delivery systems (NEA policy review, 2008). When schools, parents, families, and communities work together to support learning, students tend to earn higher grades, attend school more regularly, stay in school longer, and enroll in higher-level programmes (Thapa, 2012). Several research studies have found that parents, family and community involvement plays vital role in addressing the school dropout crisis (UNICEF 2003, Talbot and Verrinder 2005, Cole 2007, Putnam 2000).

The concept of Community Participation stems from such ideas and practices around the world. In recent times, community participation has been perceived as a key mechanism to promote sustainable development. The aim is to encourage people to take decision themselves to become agent rather than being a target group of beneficiaries. Thus, it evolves as a bottom-up approach against the traditional top-down approach and centrally planned programme. The term community participation can be clearly understood in terms of decentralisation. Decentralisation usually means participation. Participation means involvement of people in decision-making and its implementation process. Decentralisation is a strategy for enhancing local economic development. It is also a path to democratic local governance. Decentralisation is the transfer of authority, responsibility, and accountability from central to local governments. Decentralisation started in 1970s when increasing role of market reduced the role of centralised government. Economic and financial globalisation has weakened the central governmental system. Market based decision making has strengthened the local group. At the same time education system around the world has doubled and tripled enrolments. The increase in numbers of teachers and students strained the capacity of centralised bureaucracies to maintain quality. Increasing public dissatisfaction has resulted in pressures to shift decision making to local group.

**School Based Management**

School Based Management (SBM) can be viewed as conceptually as a formal alteration of governance structure, as a form of decentralization that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision- making authority as the primary means through which improvement might be stimulated and sustained (Malen, Ogawa, and Kranz, 1990). In another way SBM can be defined as “it is a way for forcing individual schools to take responsibility for what happens to the children under their jurisdiction and attending their school. The concept suggests that, when individual schools are charged with the total development of the educational programmes aimed at serving the need of the children in attendance at that particular school, the school personnel develop more cogent programmes because they know the student and their needs (Candoli, 1995). School based management is important because the school restructuring literature identifies a need for improving the school system. There was and is a strong belief that the changes that need to be made to meet international education standards and to provide a workforce that satisfies emerging domestic needs, requires fundamental change in the education system. Decentralization to increase accountability, access local knowledge, focus the change process on individual schools, and to gain support for the change process was a central component of many restructuring strategies. Consequently, SBM was central to many proposals. SBM offered local control of decisions, equitable allocation of resources, effective use of resources, teacher empowerment, and diversity because of a market driven responsiveness to community needs. Also, SBM was expected to promote the correlates of effective schools such as improved student outcomes, strong instructional leadership, long term academic improvement, positive attitudes and behavior, more successful programs, and more effective schools. Offsetting the benefits, teachers, administrators and parents will spend more time planning and being involved in the decision making process.

The data shows, 61.7% of the respondents considered the power and authority vested in school councils as adequate, while 12.7% considered it more than adequate whereas 20.4% considered it as barely adequate. A tiny minority of school council members considered the power and authority of the school council as either inadequate (2.0%) or absolutely inadequate (0.6%).

In the pilot study 31 School Management and development committee members were interviewed. Overall, 95.2% of the respondents stated explicitly that school decision-making authority has been vested in schools during the implementation of SBM. On the basis of guidelines issued by the central government, school decision makers comprising of principals and representatives of teachers and community members including parents, wider community, local government, and alumni have made the decision in relation to school’s mission, vision, goals, annual budget, school text book, new buildings and renovations, teachers’ houses, and even the deployment of

In discussions on how the decisions were made, 28 respondents stated that decisions were made on the basis of consensus. This implies that decisions in schools have been made in a spirit of partnership among the school stakeholders. Prior to the implementation of SBM, decision-making authority with regard to deployment and deployment of staff curriculum, textbooks, and school facilities were the

Despite of the government efforts to influence and motivate communities and the school authorities towards school based management participation strategy adopted under RMSA and knowledge of school based management is limited. There is low turn- up of the local people to involve themselves in development processes. The community does not respond positively to participate in development activities. According to the head teacher of one of the school the school based management is simply the formation of school management committee. As per him the school have both elementary and secondary section so it is not feasible for them to constitute two committee (School management Committee for elementary section and School Management and Development Committee for secondary section) for same school, so when asked to do so the school officials send the name of the same members for another committee.

Head Teacher told me that there is much more importance is given to the RTE act. Schools are getting more funds RTE than RMSA. When asked about the functions performed by the School Management and Development Committee Head Teacher replied

“We take decision on popular majority system. I am over-burdened because of formation of SMDC in school. So I delegate authority to my senior colleague. I have the opportunity to seek advice from other stakeholders of committee.”

District programme Coordinator in his interview said that “There is not much to do from his office. His office provide the details of formation and functioning of SMDC. Schools are capable of taking their own decision in case they face any challenges regarding the decision making process or allocation of funds the Block Resource Center provide necessary helps to the concerned school.”

**47**

**Reform Policies and their Effects on Teaching Practices in Teacher Education Programs**

**Author :** Tuba Khan

**Affiliation :** Homi Bhabha Centre for Science Education

**Keywords :** Teacher Education

Mathematics Education

Teaching Practices

**Introduction :**

Teacher education programs in India have theoretical and practical components. The practice of teaching comes under the practical component and mostly focuses on ‘how’ to deliver the subject matter and not so much on ‘what’ to deliver. Thus, there seems to be a clear disjuncture or a ‘didactic cut’ (Filloy & Rojano, 1984) between the two aspects of teaching - ‘how’ to teach and ‘what’ to teach. The content is presented only as a context to introduce various methods of teaching. The position paper on 'National Focus group on Teacher Education for Curriculum Renewal' also points this out:

The design and practice of current teacher education programs is based on certain assumptions, which is to inculcate the ideas of professional and personal growth of the teacher. It is assumed for instance, that disciplinary knowledge is ‘given’, which the trainees ‘acquire’ through general education and which is independent of professional training in pedagogy. [Position paper, National Focus group on Teacher Education for Curriculum Renewal]

Many student-teachers enter in a teacher education program expecting to learn 'how to teach'. They are often exposed to the lecture method of teaching. Current teacher education programs add one more dimension to their teaching. They learn to demonstrate things. This lecture and demonstration method leads to a situation where 'practical theorizing' (Alexander, 1984) becomes impossible. It prevents teachers from understanding that teaching is a continuous process of testing conjectures, and from being active decision makers (Sullivan & Mousely, 2001) in a classroom context.

Many national level policy documents give recommendations on how to make classroom teaching effective. Though these documents undergo reforms from time to time, the grassroots situation remains the same as the teachers as well as teacher educators face problems in interpreting and transacting various theoretical ideas introduced in these documents.

These documents are open to the possibility of interpretation in multiple ways based on a reader’s understanding and experiences. There are no instances of classroom teaching present in the documents which clarify how to make sense of various theoretical ideas.

This paper is based on a study conducted on pre-service teachers. The mathematics teaching sessions of three teachers were selected for analysis. The teaching sessions were taken by pre-service teachers of a reputed teacher education institution affiliated with a state university. The paper presents the analysis of these classroom observations using the ideas on teaching, in general and specific to mathematics as discussed in the two position papers of the National focus group of NCERT.

One of the the lessons observed was ‘construction of quadrilaterals’. In the example that I provide here, students were asked to draw a square of side 5 centimetre. The teacher whom I refer to as Luna, asked a boy student to solve this problem on the blackboard. He drew a five centimeter square with the help of a scale. When the teacher asked him, “Is this the *correct* way to draw a square?” The student responded, “Yes! It is”. When the teacher appeared doubtful about his response, the other students also agreed to it. They asked, “If we can draw square segments with the help of a scale then what is the need to use a protractor?” The teacher closed any possibility of

further discussion by saying, “The correct way to construct is to use a protractor and a compass.”

Luna had an opportunity to lead the discussion by asking some critical questions related to squares. The curiosity of students' understanding around subject matter can be facilitated by asking authentic questions in a ‘reformed’ classroom (Sfard & Keiran, 2001) based on peer-interactive setting (Yackel & Cobb, 1996).

Many scholars have argued that children have rich out-of-school mathematical knowledge (Subramaniam, 2012; Bose, 2013) rooted in their everyday experiences. Teachers can build on this out-of-school knowledge to introduce formal mathematical concepts depending on the sophistication of students' understanding (Pirie & Kieren, 1989).

When Luna refuted the student's response by saying, “To make a square, you need to use protractor and compass because it is a correct way to do the mathematical construction”. The children just accepted Luna's answer without defending their own thinking. The content moved ahead without '*co-learning partnership*' (Jaworski, 2001) between teacher and students where both are engaged in action and reflection.

Are students really engaged with mathematical learning? In order to facilitate authentic learning, the student-teacher needs to develop a set of topic and activities that are feasible, coherent that engage pupils, and promote rich learning (Kosnick & Beck, 2009).

The position paper on teaching of mathematics discusses the nature of mathematical learning as involving many aspects, among which are “reasoning and proof”, “making connections”, “mathematical communication”. In the context of the example discussed here, I find that the teacher is unable to bring these aspects in the classroom. Thus, what is written in the curriculum document is not getting implemented in an actual classroom context.

There is no absolute solution to the problems that pre-service teachers' and teacher educators' face. The paper argues that there is a need to integrate the pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), and special content knowledge (Ball, 2008). I will also discuss a few ways in which the gap between the policy rhetoric and the field-level teaching practices can be bridged.

**References**

1. Alexander, R. J. (1984). Innovation and continuity in the initial teacher education curriculum. *Change in Teacher Education. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston*.
2. Ball, D. L., Thames, M. H., & Phelps, G. (2008). Content knowledge for teaching what makes it special?. *Journal of teacher education*, *59*(5), 389-407.
3. Bishop, A. J. (2001). Educating student teachers about values in mathematics education. In

*Making sense of mathematics teacher education* (pp. 233-246). Springer Netherlands.

1. Bose, A., & Subramaniam, K. (2013). Characterising work-contexts from a mathematics

learning perspective. In *Proceedings of epiSTEME-5: Fifth International Conference toReview Research on Science, Technology and Mathematics Education* (pp. 173-179).

* Cobb, P., Stephan, M., McClain, K., & Gravemeijer, K. (2010). Participating in classroom

mathematical practices. In *A journey in mathematics education research* (pp. 117-163). Springer Netherlands.

* Filloy, E., & Rojano, T. (1984). From an arithmetical to an algebraic thought. (A clinical

study with 12-13 years old). In *Proceedings of the 6 th Conference of the InternationalGroup for the Psychology of Mathematics Education* (pp. 51-56).

* Jaworski, B. (2001). Developing mathematics teaching: Teachers, teacher educators, and

researchers as co-learners. In *Making sense of mathematics teacher education* (pp. 295-320). Springer Netherlands.

* Kosnik, C., & Beck, C. (2009). *Priorities in teacher education: The 7 key elements of pre-service preparation*. Routledge.
* National Council of Educational Research and Training. (2006). *National focus group onteacher education for curriculum renewal*. Delhi: NCERT.
* National Council of Educational Research and Training. (2006). *National focus group onteaching of mathematics*. Delhi: NCERT.
* Pirie, S., & Kieren, T. (1989). A recursive theory of mathematical understanding. *For thelearning of mathematics*, *9*(3), 7-11.
* Sfard, A., & Kieran, C. (2001). Preparing teachers for handling students’ mathematical

communication: Gathering knowledge and building tools. In *Making sense of mathematicsteacher education* (pp. 185-205). Springer Netherlands.

* Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educationalresearcher*, *15*(2), 4-14.
* Subramaniam, K. (2012, July). Does participation in household based work create

opportunities for learning mathematics? In *36th Conference of the International Group forthe Psychology of Mathematics Education* (p. 107).

* Sullivan, P., & Mousley, J. (2001). Thinking teaching: Seeing mathematics teachers as active

decision makers. In *Making sense of mathematics teacher education* (pp. 147-163). Springer Netherlands.

* Yackel, E., & Cobb, P. (1996). Sociomathematical norms, argumentation, and autonomy in mathematics. *Journal for research in mathematics education*, 458-477.

**48**

**Social Inequality in Higher Education: Exploring Inclusion through Narratives of Students with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities**

**Name**: Ritu Gopal

**Affiliation :**Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Hyderabad

**Keywords :** Intellectual and Developmental DisabilitiesHigher Education, Inclusive Education, Social Inequalities, Narrative Inquiry, Perpectives of education shared by students with disabilities, Agency of student voices

**Abstract**  
The Right to Education Act (2009), the 1994 UNESCO Salamanca Statement, and the United Nations Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 1995, call for equal opportunities and institutional designs suited to diverse communities in formal education. Further to these, India’s National Policy for Persons with Disabilities (2006), of which The Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act (1995) is a part, has shown an orientation shift from medical to social and economic rehabilitation, the creation of an enabling environment, and the development of professionals to facilitate services. The National Policy for Persons with Disabilities, India, has continually amended and revised its agenda of empowering the rights of persons with disabilities. Despite this, it is evident that an active and collaborative societal discourse about these issues is missing, which implies that the prevailing inequality is more than an access or enrolment issue. Attitudinal and cultural impediments, types of opportunities, and support systems determine an individual's takeaway of the experience of inclusion in educational settings.   
Inclusion in education has been classified as inclusive cultures, policies and practices (Booth & Ainscow, 2002). It is more than the extension of educational services; it is a way of life that converges capability, a sense of belonging, and non-access to institutions, curriculum, and the opportunity to contribute to society. Interactions with students, families and teachers have shown that immense effort goes into bridging disconnect among education services and policies at every step. (Deliberations during the Workshop on Perspectives of Disability, 2014; 2015; Sawhney, 2016)  
One of the most prominent discourses pertaining to disability and education is about the academic and professional life course that an individual follows for prospects of independent living. The dominant concern expressed by parents, students and educators is essentially of life beyond school years. Acceptable forms of communication, behaviour, and knowledge lead to those considered ‘different’ to be sidetracked, when all that they want are positive, equitable experiences. (Zollers, Ramanathan, & Yu, 1999) Observations of episodes in education, as witnessed in special education, therapy, inclusive, and mainstreams settings, show that key decisions of students with disabilities are based on the an inescapable outcome of inhabiting a world skewed towards standardised notions of learning and achievement. Often this leads to inequalities of opportunities in educational spaces and other walks of life.   
Inequalities in educational spaces present barriers impacting identity, dignity, and well-being. Students with disabilities are ‘accommodated’ till they are in the primary grades (Deliberations during the Workshop on Perspectives of Disability, 2014; 2015; Sawhney, 2016) after which they are compelled to drop out. In these cases, parents of children with disabilities have no option but to withdraw their child since the school is not sufficiently equipped to take care of diverse needs, especially after primary grades. A forceful continuation in the school would mean that their child struggles in a space not oriented towards sensitising its members towards co-existing and incorporating inclusive practices that would benefit the child. Interactions with parents of children with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (IDD) (Deliberations during the Workshop on Perspectives of Disability, 2014; 2015) show that primary and secondary schooling are still relatively accessible due to the policy provisions on inclusion in schools. However, higher education is ridden by low sensitivities of administrative and teaching staff.  
The lack of policies and directives to specifically cater to educational needs of students with disabilities has resulted in it being even less accessible than school education in the Indian setting. Lack of infrastructure and facilities invariably lead to students with disabilities dropping out of secondary and/or high school. Hence, the percentage of students with disabilities being equipped for higher educational streams in colleges and universities is low (Halder, 2009). This reveals the true culmination of policies into ground realities of the culture and sense of community that educational spaces are imparting. Who is human capital and what value addition to society is considered useful. What then drives the very nature of inclusion in the designs of educational systems and philosophies?  
The paper discusses the findings of a qualitative research study on people with disabilities in higher education, reflecting on themes of social inequality and inclusion of students with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (IDD). IDD is an umbrella term referring to the autism spectrum, learning disabilities such as dyslexia, a range of neurodevelopmental disorders, communication and language disorders, and other mental and physical impairments that render difficulties in everyday living as compared to typical individuals. (Das & Kattumuri, 2010; National Focus Group, 2006)  
The educational journeys of students with intellectual and developmental disabilities are chronicled as part of a larger qualitative study on their formal and informal choices to create educational biographies. The methodology of narrative inquiry gathers in-depth insights into identifying causes influencing present learning trajectories. The epistemological stance of phenomenology is situated within the theoretical framework of Urie Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems Theory to holistically draw out linkages and transitions among family, school, peers, and decision or policies in education to identify the interconnectedness of perspectives. The experience of inclusion and transitions from learning levels and institutions, primary to secondary, have been documented by building narratives and restorying them, i.e., reliving of the educational lives by the students. The participatory respondents have been selected through purposive sampling. Data collection tools comprised of semi-structured interviews, analyses of journal records and artefacts, and interactions with families, educators and institutions corresponding to the students. The methodology of the study is important as it contests views on how research of people with disabilities is conducted, considering that the central focus of this paper is the students themselves.   
Initial findings show valuable developments in understanding why students choose certain education streams, and their agency in making those choices. These arise cohesively when the student participants themselves weave experiences. Challenges and learning outcomes, opportunities and incidents that influenced choice of an educational stream, the social constructs of disability prevailing in specific settings, and other issues that arise from the narratives were thematically analysed. The study essentially is tuned in to listening to marginalised voices for a critical analysis of the social inequality faced by the students.

***49***

**Strengthening the agency of teacher through Learning Manager**

**Author :** Murari Jha

**Affiliation** :Sarvodaya Vidyalaya No‐3

Sector‐7, R.K Puram, New

Delhi‐110047

**Email:** murarijha1984@gmail.com

**Keywords** : Learning Manager, Mentor Teacher, Teacher Professional Development,Government School, Creatnet.

**INTRODUCTION**

The Report of the National Commission on Teachers (1983-85) recommended that strategies used for in-service education must be ‘imaginative, bold and varied”. It further states that “the most effective among them are the services organized through the school complex. The idea of school complex…put forward by the Kothari Commission…intends to link primary and secondary schools with a view to pulling resources and including the educational process.” The Commission mooted the idea of Teachers’ Centres that could function as “…a meeting place for teachers located in a school that has resources that it would like to share with others…it is a forum where workshops of very practical nature are organized for teachers of all faculties and of all levels; it pools in the talent of all teachers of various schoo ls who act as resource personnel for centers’ workshops and it arranges book fairs.” What teachers need most “…is a change in the climate of schools, an atmosphere conducive to educational research and enquiry ( position paper, national focus group on teacher education for curriculum renewal; 05)

The learning manager’s programme has been introduced in the 54 model school of the government school of Delhi. These schools are managed by the directorate of education,

Government of NCT. Of Delhi. The programme aims to strengthen the grass root teacher training module. A nongovernment organization called CREATNET has been given the responsibility to train the learning manager. Initially, they started with the principals. They realized that this would not be very effective as there would be a relationship of authority between teacher and principal. It would be better that if a teacher from each school is trained and he/she would be given the responsibility to carry out the training in his/her own school. The acceptance of the teacher as learning manager among his/her colleague would be higher. The learning manager is given day long training in the nearby DIET, once in a month. The study looks at the implementation of the programme and its impact. The programme is unique in its concept. A proper implementation would set a milestone in the field of teachers’ professional development. This study falls into the category of participant observation. The researcher, himself is the learning manager.

**Background**- Teachers are one of the most important aspects of the school. Empowered teachersare the solutions for many challenges which schools face. Being in a school set up for last 7 years, I could see the challenges which the teachers face on regular basis.There is a feeling of helplessness among the teachers. I have been part of a couple of research project and those were also around the enhancement of learning of the teachers.

**Teacher resource center**–This was the project under TISS. We explored some teacher resourceCentre across the country to see that which kind of helps is available for the teachers? We found that these centers are not useful as they are available only for those who approach them. The study suggests that there should be support for the teachers at the grass root level.

“In our country, there are very few spaces that focus exclusively on teachers. Even if they do, most of them offer the kind of training and materials which do not necessarily take their needs and interests into account. There is an element of patronising the teacher and though there is some choice, it is limited and seen to be within a closed framework. But for teacher professional development to be functional in the true sense, the teacher should have autonomy and voluntarily participate in her growth. If she sees a program thrust upon her, then not much will be achieved in the long run. Besides, the onus of seeking out such a space should be her own belief that it would help her develop professionally and that it would help her become a better teacher”

( Teacher resource centres- A source book; 2014;p;04)

**Teacher fellowship programme by RRCEE** (Regional resource centre for elementaryeducation)- I have also been the teacher fellow of RRCEE. This was the programme conceptualized under USRN( University School relationship network). The idea was to let the research and expertise, available with the university be integrated into the classroom practice of the school. Unfortunately, the institutional practice couldn’t survive longer.

Under the concept of Lm programme, they are enabling a teacher from within the school to address the training need of the teachers. The LMs would also assess the specific need of a teacher or a group of teachers for training and if it could not be addressed at the school level the LM can place the request before the SCERT to address the training need. So, in brief, the training of the teachers would be now demand based not the one imposed from the above .In the continuation of this idea, the department has planned to appoint a mentor teacher for every five schools The teacher would go through intensive training and they would be exposed to the best practices in education here in India and in abroad. LMs along with the Mentor teachers would address most of the training needs of the teachers. The mandate for the work of LM has been described in the following ways

1. Teacher assessment – for development
2. Learning needs assessments
3. Organizing specific facilitator led experiential learning programs based on learning needs assessed
4. Enable teachers to learn from other teachers
5. Curating learning material ­ supporting videos, readings

**METHODS**

The method of the study is empirical. The researcher himself is the learning manager. The methods to collect data would include a formal and informal discussion with the teachers, Discussion with other learning managers. Structures and semi-structured interview with the teachers. Observation of the classes to see that how the programme is bringing the change in the overall attitude of the teacher.

Teachers have been divided into different groups. Groups are based on subject. In each group there are 6 to 7teachers in average. Each group sits together for around 1and half hour for a day. They attend this session for three days in the month. In the session, we discuss the questions like. What is learning? How have we learned something? What were qualities of our favourite teacher? How our school has improved? Etc.

**Findings**

We discussed ‘Re framing our roles’ and the discussion began with the challenges teacher face . Each teacher were asked to think for a challenge and share it. They shared the challenges they face. Some of the challenges they observed are the following

* Students don’t know how to read and write even in higher classes. How to deal with such children?
* The challenge of irregularities; students often remain absent from the school and this makes our work less effective.
* Backgrounds of the children are very disturbing.
* Parents don’t support us
* Compulsion of syllabus completion
* We are judged by the results of the students, etc.

Who is responsible for it?

A range of answer came which includes the no detention policy, no punishment, and so on. I was surprised to see that in the last the consensus was that teacher is respons ible for most of the challenges.

What can you do?

The amazing scene was there. Everybody was finding the solutions and citing their examples. They agreed in the last that love for the children is the solution to all problems. This was really phenomenal we were not instructing rather they came with this finding. In the last when we came to reframe the challenge, the frame was changed; now the new frame has many solutions rather than the challenges.

**Conclusion**

The study would reveal the hidden potentiality of school as a resource hub for teachers. The empowered teacher would empower the students. The study would add a new chapter in the field of teacher professional development. Finding out a formal space for the teacher’s professional development is a unique initiative in the government school of Delhi. The space of discussion provides an opportunity to the teachers to speak without the fear of being judged by higher authority. In one of the sessions an economics PGT (Post-Graduate Teacher) shared that she has been promoted after two decades of her Masters in Economics. She has forgotten most of the concepts now she needs training. Training like a child where one can start from the beginning. She also shared that she cannot share the same thing in a large group. She would not like an outsider to know that she doesn’t know the basics of Economics. However, she has no hesitation in accepting the same in a small group inside her own school where the facilitator is her colleague. This anecdote narrates the importance of this programme.

**References**

* Tata Institute of Social Sciences Centre for Studies in the Sociology of Education.(2014)*TEACHER RESOURCE CENTRES: A SOURCE BOOK* : Padma M.Sarangapani, DishaNawani
* NCERT (2004); *position paper, national focus group on teacher education forcurriculum renewal*; New Delhi.

**50**

**Indian National Congress and the development of Techno-Scientific Education (1885-1947)**

**Author :** Nirmala Shah

**Affiliation:** Assistant Professor SPM College University of Delhi New Delhi

**Keywords** : Indian National Congress

technical education

scientific education

industrial education

swadeshi movement

world war I

world-war II

**Introduction :**

The present paper is an attempt to analyse the role of Indian National Congress (INC) in the growth and development of scientific, technical and industrial education. Science and technology are important for the development and self-reliance in every country. The need for technical and scientific education was felt by Indians for a long time. Scientific and technical education is a necessary pre-condition for industrial growth and the spread of scientific knowledge.

The INC from the beginning was enthusiastic regarding the problem of the Indians and hence was fast emerging as the ‘most zealous vanguard’ of Indian interests. Congress touched several problems. The INC always complained that the technical education provided, was of a lower quality and therefore demanded a higher level of scientific and technical education.

But the English officials emphasised on providing only a certain amount of ‘basic’ technical education. It is important to note that the Indian nationalists linked this problem directly to the country’s industrial backwardness.

The leaders gave importance to science and technology can be noticed from the fact that from the third session in 1887, it started demanding an elaborate system of technical education. In response to the colonial exploitation and consequent poverty and backwardness of the country, the following resolution was passed:

“That having regard to the poverty of the people, it is desirable that the government be moved to elaborate a system of technical education, suitable to the condition of the country, to encourage indigenous manufacturers by a more strict observance of the orders, already existing, in regard to utilising such manufactures for State purposes, and to employ more extensively than at the present the skill and talents of the people of the country.”1

Scholars and historians like Deepak Kumar, B.R.Tomlison and Aparna Basu have argued that under the British rule the teaching of technical, vocational and scientific education remained neglected. More emphasis was given to the study of literature, politics and philosophy. However the period under review was the phase of national movement in the history of modern India. As a result a number of activities took place in the socio-political arena. For instance, beginning of swadeshi movement, emergence of Gandhi, two World Wars, and formation of various committees for expansion of techno-scientific education. A number of scholarships were given to students to go abroad and equip themselves in the various fields not available in the country. Therefore both the British government and the Indian intelligentsia were working hand in hand for the promotion of technical, scientific and industrial education. There were certain clashes also.

Some serious attention began to be given to technical education after 1860s. After the Revolt of 1857, the British interest in the socio-economic development of India became lukewarm. Therefore, indigenous initiatives began as an alternative. Societies were organised to popularize science and promote its growth in Bengal and in other parts of the country

Therefore the paper would try to understand the efforts made by the congress leaders. Was there any development happening during this time? Could the leaders devote their time to educational issues amidst so much political turmoil through which the country was undergoing? What developments were made in this field during the two world wars? How was the attitude of the colonial rulers toward them? These are some of the questions which are attempted to be answered.

1 Report of the Proceeding of the INC, held in December, 1887, p. 4.

**51**

**Autonomy, accountability and information asymmetry in Indian higher education under neo-liberal discourse: A look at policy using foucauldian lens**

**Author** : Aishna Sharma

**Affiliation** : JNU

**Keywords** : Neo-liberal discourse

Autonomy

Accountability

Power

Information asymmetry

Game theory

Quality

The neo-liberal ideology has found a rampant place in Indian higher education policy during the post 1990s period. It saw its roots in the structural adjustment programme and stabilisation policy instituted by the World Bank and the IMF, which suggested that the education sector, particularly higher education, have a cut in the public expenditure and be subsequently open to privatisation in order to become efficient. Autonomy from the State funding, thenceforth, found a mention in the policy documents. For instance, the Punnayya Committee report (1992) recommended a shift from the input-based funding to output based funding, Birla Ambani report (2000) vouched for users pay principle in university funding and leaving the higher education to private sector, Central Advisory Board on Education (2004-05) and the National knowledge commission (2006-09) proposed a raise in the tuition fees, Yashpal Committee (2009) and Narayana Murthy Committee (2012) suggested that universities collaborate with industries. More recently the draft New Education Policy (2016) proposed the role of privatisation coupled with relegation of the direct role of the State in the institutions which are of quality.  
At the same time an additional dimension of a neo-liberal change in higher education regulation has emerged. This is restricted not only to fund-base diversification but aims at changing the very governance of universities, through managerial practices. The State steers the individuals from the distance in universities. The principles of New Public Management (NPM) are injected, where the principles of private sector are installed in public sector institutions. It seeks to apply the techniques of competitive markets like written contracts, audits and accountability, output monitoring, performance pay (Marshall and Peters 1999; Marginson 2008). Accountability is pressed upon in order to ensure efficiency and value for money; there is a demand from various sectors for quality of education in return for the huge resources placed in higher education. One such governance mechanism was brought about in 2010 in the form of performance based assessment system (PBAS), (which has undergone various amendments), where the faculty is required to perform in the areas of teaching-learning, research and co-curricular activities, in order to get recruited or promoted and justify their salaries. Such reform directly affects the individual behaviour, by altering their incentives. At the institutional level as well, the performance assessment has found a place in the policy. Accreditation with National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) has now been made mandatory for the universities, and the ranking is supposedly a signal of relative quality of universities. The Rashtriya Uchchatar Shiksha Abhiyan (2013) also highlights performance based funding of the state universities.. In the more recent times, there has been lament in the policy circles over Indian universities not figuring in the world ranking. It has been taken as an indicator of poor quality of universities. As a result, a national institutional ranking framework, NIRF, (2016) has recently emerged, which aims at making universities accountable at home and improving their quality, in order for them to figure in the global rankings. It now requires the faculty to perform all the more. Another quest at improving the standing of universities in the global space is the recent proposal of raising 10 public universities and 10 private universities as world-class universities. However, these institutional level policy prescriptions may not always have a direct impact on faculty incentives.  
Thus, for improving quality, creation of self-regulating free individuals/ institutions and their accountability has assumed a great importance in the neo-liberal policy discourse through monitoring their performance. It re-organises the lives of individuals within the institutions, as also their relationship with the State. Therefore, autonomy and accountability can be seen as two major policy tools in organising the lives of individuals.   
At this juncture, it needs to be noted that the present neo-liberal principles assume that all the individuals are rational, self-interest driven, maximising their own utility. Therefore, what matters for good performance is an external reward system; the individuals would rationally respond to the incentives provided, in return for their adherence to accountability norms. Thus, the policy texts, in a subtle way, determine the behaviour which is expected of individuals or the institutions, in order to render legitimacy to the discourse. One can, therefore, see that in any education policy text, rules/ conditions underlying the discourse, are exercised by spelling out instructions or guidance on how subjects should behave, not explicitly though. It would be, therefore, interesting to see what kind of behaviour or relationship is expected of the actors to give legitimacy to the neo-liberal discourse on autonomy and accountability. In addition to this, whereas it is assumed that a self-regulating individual is free from the direct state control, subjecting them to the market like competitive mechanism may not necessary render them autonomy.   
Another pertinent problem in the process of performance assessment is that unethical practices performed by the faculty go unnoticed. There lies an information asymmetry between the State and the faculty over the actions undertaken by the latter. It gives scope to fabrication or corrupt practices by producing more in numbers, but poor quality output.. Therefore, the average quality of output may fall, thwarting the very objective of installing performance assessment exercise.   
Against this backdrop, the paper would address two broad objectives, i) to critically look at autonomy and accountability as neo-liberal policy technologies, which seek to create amenable subjects (individuals and institutions- the State, market and universities) that would act rationally and if these subjects are indeed autonomous, and ii) to understand the possibility of unethical practices within the rational framework of monitoring/accountability,   
The first objective (i) would be addressed by answering the following questions: a) How have accountability and autonomy been conceptualised as policy technologies in the policy texts, b) What kind of the rational strategies different institutions and individuals are expected to undertake to legitimate the discourse, c) how the relationship between different actors/ individuals is expected to get altered? This would be done by the method critical discourse analysis using Foucault’s framework of power. Foucault (1980) stated that, to analyse a text is to analyse “what” governs a statement. These are a set of rules/conditions; the prevailing discourse. And these rules are nothing but “power”. This power is not coercive but creative as it creates certain relations in the various elements of the society and legitimates its own exercise; it does not force itself on the institutions and individuals but rather causes a wilful acceptance through various techniques. It gets imbedded in individuals and institutions, which become the subjects of power and are produced by modification of relationship between them. Thus the important level of analysis for power relations is at the level of micro practices, the terminal points of the web of relations and how these practices shape the ways that individuals and institutions can conduct themselves. In the Indian context, the issue of autonomy and accountability in policy has hardly been addressed using Foucault’s discourse analysis.  
After having understood the expected behaviour of the individuals and institutions, the next objective (ii) would be to gauge what would be the optimum strategy of the faculty both at the individual level and at collective/ institutional level. The game theoretic expositions would unravel the equilibrium strategies of faculty, which has not so far been explored in Indian literature. First it would be assumed that there is no information asymmetry. The possibility of unethical practices giving rise to a fall in quality would then be introduced using the Adverse selection game model.   
It would be concluded that with autonomy being conceptualised as freedom from the state, the location of accountability would shift from the society to the immediate needs of private funders. The meaning of quality output would restrict to something which is quantifiable only. The individuals or institutions though purported to be free subjects under the neo-liberal discourse, are actually not autonomous. Also, whereas on the surface they may be performing rationally, in sync of the discourse, there lays a huge possibility of unethical practices which would eventually pull down the quality of output in universities.  
  
**Key References**  
*• Ball. S. 2003. The teacher’s soul and the terrors of performativity. Journal of Education Policy. 18 (2). Pp. 215-228.  
• Foucault, Michel. 1980. Body/ Power and Two Lectures. In Colin Gordon (ed.). Power/Knowledge. Selected interviews and other writings. 1972-77.Great Britain: Harvester Press Limited.   
• Government of India. Various policy documents.  
• Marginson, S. 2008. Academic creativity under new public management: Foundations for an investigation. Educational Theory. 58( 3). Pp. 269-287.  
• Marshall, James, D. and Michael. A. Peters. 1999. Introduction. In James D Marshall and Michael. A. Peters (eds.). Education Policy. UK: Edward Elgar.*

**52  
Using Social Media as a lens to look at Conflict, Violence and Social fabric and Espousing the need for Transitional Justice through Education for Peace**

**Author** : Padmini Ghosh

**Affiliation** : Jamia Milia Islamia

**Keywords:** Conflict and violence on social media

transitional justice

education for peace

Social media today provides a means to social, crowd-sourced popular archiving of times, events, life and memories - a space which reflects perceptions and real-life images of socio-political realities. That the social media is now woven into the social fabric can no longer be denied. Events and incidents - be it social or political somehow manage to make an appearance on social media, where netizens agree, disagree, support, critique, debate, discuss, connect and disconnect over a range of issues. The world wide web and the pertinent use of social media has made society that much smaller and larger simultaneously.   
  
In this paper, the author(s) seek to create a net of the concepts of conflict, violence and social fabric linked to perceptions as reflected on social media, while underscoring the need for a praxis of transitional justice which can be fostered through education for peace by employing an interdisciplinary lens.   
  
Conflict if understood as differences in and incompatible interests, aspirations, lived experiences, perceptions and realities only begins to explore the myriad issues that crop up in this regard. In addition, the different kinds of violence, both overt and covert, that a person may or does experience in terms of structural or institutional violence, cultural violence or direct violence only adds to the majuscule impact that both in combination have on the social fabric.   
  
As already stated, the social fabric is no longer limited to our immediate community; when the world is a global village, the fabric that the society is composed of, is not only much larger in dimension but also consists of various materials and mindsets - each contributing a new shape and character to the texture we call society. Continued practices of stereotyping and perceptions on and of “us” and “the others”/them are only some but significant elements in this context. These eventually get ossified as one’s social identity which in turn is unfolded in and across various platforms, the social media being one of them.   
  
For the purpose of this paper, we will speak of how structural violence makes inroads into cultural violence in terms of various, comparative socio-political identities and context.   
  
Cultural violence is penetrated and perpetrated over a long period of time through subtler and invisible socio-cultural practices and beliefs - reflected in conduct, language, gestures, social exchanges and the like - the extended expression of which is more often than not manifested on social media posts demonstrating a particular practice, language, culture/caste/class/community/gender/ideology as higher than the rest to the detriment of “the others”. As experiences have shown posts relating to non-majoritarian categories or classes of individuals are neither uncommon nor unpopular, in fact, any alternate or different view (even if not always dissent) is often met with trolls, which is no doubt an extended version of the culture of violence.   
  
At this juncture, the authors take the latest incident of unrest in the Kashmir Valley as an entry point to elaborate upon how conflict and violence has yet again worked its way through the territorial and social fabric of a nation to unfold different aspects of national and regional reality on the social media.   
  
The death of Burhan Wani opened a Pandora’s box of differences in lived experiences and incompatible realities that were being brushed under the carpet for quite some time. The reaction that this event evoked was evident on the social media - divisions along regional and national contexts which formed the basis of one’s socio political identity were impossible to overlook; while some mourned there were others who celebrated an apparent victory, while some were confined   
to their homes to a life of pre-telecom revolution era, there were many hurling indignities on social media, while the life of the ordinary civilian continued with regular check-ins and updates on what a certain category of people deserve, the life of these very category of civilians was stranded behind curfewed roads and closed doors.   
  
This of course is only a precursor to a fresh new round of othering, of stereotypes, building up on the basis of a set of preconceived and perceived notions, of pitting the national against the regional, of mundane continuities on one hand and disjunctured realities on the other, of identities and consciousnesses embedded in different realities and comparative contexts rendered difficult.   
  
The authors argue that the emergence of such dichotomy in the long run serves only to loosen the social fabric, which in turn proves disadvantageous not only to the smaller micro-communities that individuals perceive themselves to be a part of, but also larger macro-societies in which they function and operate. It is in this context the authors iterate the need for educational spaces, paradigms and pedagogies, that provide for learnings beyond mere ‘black and white’, for inclusive turfs, for constructive engagements, for democratic horizons and kaleidoscopic visions of not one but many realities unfurling through the means of interdisciplinary education within the larger paradigm of education for peace, thereby making a case for practices and process of Transitional Justice through educational trajectories.   
  
Focussing on education as an important social need and institution, the author(s) would like to point out how often unconsciously or consciously, the practices within the system contribute to stereotyping and othering - which later form the foundation stones of a series of conflicts. However, it also has great potential to build bridges and kindle compassion and sensitivity in young minds. The author(s) would like to emphasise that socially sensitive learning is an essential element of the education process and therefore explore the scope of education for peace as an important cog in the wheel of transitional justice. In the authour(s)’ opinion, this can be made possible by inculcating interdisciplinary aspects in classroom teaching and curriculum, not when divisive ideas and identities have already been solidified but from a much younger age of school education celebrating diversity and seeking to neutralise effects of exclusivity.   
  
For the said purpose, the author(s) would like to explore a) how the concept of transitional justice and education for peace is closely related to ensure a just social order? b)how the lack of an effective culture of education for peace spills over to influence societal behaviour, with reference to social media. c) the scope available within the Indian context to explore options of education for peace in the protracted conflict context of Kashmir and India.   
  
Using deductive research methods, the proposed paper would be an effort to investigate the whys and hows of a combined praxis of transitional justice and education for peace.It would explore the possibilities of such praxis by looking at best practices from conflict areas around the world.

**53**

**IMPACT OF EDUCATION AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT ON TRENDS AND GROWTH OF WAGES: A STUDY OF DIFFERENT SOCIAL GROUPS**

**Author** : Amanpreet Kaur

**Affiliation** : Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords** : Wage inequalities

Education levels

Labuor markets

Social group

India

**Introduction:**   
The enrolment ratio of young cohort of population has gone up in the recent years in India. It may be regarded as one of the development outcomes of an economy. The various linkages can be found as the reason of such phenomenon such as increasing income levels due to the increasing wage rates, increasing awareness regarding education, aspirations, and urbanization. Since backward and disadvantaged groups are likely to gain more from educational upliftment (since their asset base is too low to give cushion for better standard of living). Although it is well established that education can prove its best to help disadvantaged groups move on an upper ladder of economic status. Even after the many schemes and programme for improvement in the conditions of the Dalits (scheduled caste) and Adivasis (scheduled tribe) are lagging behind in social and economic perspective.   
  
However, In the Indian context, access to employment is not just determined by educational qualifications or capabilities but factors such as sex, caste, agricultural development etc. also play a vital role (Jha 2006). Ironically, in India, women lag behind in educational attainments and to a large extent have restricted entries into the labour market. Like women, dalits and schedule tribes are also far behind in the educational achievements and in employment opportunities. However, the discrimination and exclusion against dalits, tribes and women still exists in both formal and informal labour market.   
  
The other striking feature of Indian labour market is high wage inequality (Das, Chandra, Kochhar and Kumar, 2015). Since India’s independence, these issues have received attention from both social and economic prospectives. There has been special focus in planning in order to improve the labour market structure, i.e., the programme such as compulsory elementary education for every child, reservation for deprived groups in different employment sectors, special schemes etc were started in order to improve the labour market structure (Madheswaran and Attewell, 2007). Despite these measures, after almost seven decades of independence, large sections of the population are unable to avail any benefits from high growth rates. Certain sections of society such as women, schedule castes and tribes, not only face inequality but have also reconciled with the consequences of it.   
  
The concentration of income and wages is in fewer hands, and are mostly with the upper castes (Madheswaran and Attewell, 2007 and Mukherjee and Majumder, 2011). Both human capital endowment (education and skill development) and discrimination are equally important for the explanation of any type of inequality. A study by Madheswaran and Attewell (2007) on caste discrimination in Indian urban labour market shows that wage differences among dalits/tribes and non-dalit/tribe group is mostly because of human capital endowment but 15 per cent of wage differences are due to discrimination against dalit/tribes. Therefore, it is important to understand the trends and growth of wages and wage inequality with relation to educational levels. In this paper is an attempt to explain the wage inequalities among different occupational groups as well as among different economic sectors. The paper is also an effort to understand the role of education in wage inequalities.   
 **Data and Methodology:**   
The study is based on employment and unemployment survey conducted by National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO). The unit level data of 68th round (July 2011 - June 2012, 2011-12) and 61st round (July 2004 – June 2005, 2004-05) is used to study the role of education in determining the wages of individuals of different social groups according to their educational qualification.   
  
Simple statistical measures like mean, median, percentage etc. are used in study. The study includes people who belong to 15-59 age group. For work force participation calculation, usual principal and subsidiary Status is used. For wage calculations current day activity status is used. Average per day wages for 2004-05 will be inflated using Consumer price index for both industrial and agricultural workers. In order to understand the wage inequality among different social groups and among different types of employment, value of Gini coefficient and Lorenz curve are calculated on the weekly wage rates used.   
  
Also, Mincerian approach to determination of wage will be used. According to this approach education is one key determinant factor of wages among all factors responsible for differentials in earning. This approach implies that earning of an individual is a function of its time spent on education and training.   
  
Research Findings:   
It is clear from analysis that there is large difference in the wages of regular and casual workers of different social groups, sectors, sex. The study points out that there is not only differences in the wage payment of regular and casual workers but also within the regular paid workers, there is higher inequalities in the payments based on gender and caste. Though implementation of MGNREGA has decreased the wage gaps between male and female workers from 2004-05 to 2007-08 (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh 2011).   
  
Although, there is increase in wages of every social group over time but this increase was particularly higher for social groups (SCs and STs) have had comparatively lower wages in previous years, i.e., the annual rate of growth in wages of schedule tribe and schedule caste workers was higher than all other social groups. Similar was the scenario for casual wages and wages of female workers during 2004-05 to 2011-12.   
  
The intra social group inequalities in wages is higher among regular employed workers than casually employed worker. And over the year from 2004-05 to 2011-12, there has not been any change in these intra social inequalities. The inter social group inequalities in wages are also higher in case of regular employment. However, the wage difference persistent over years in different social groups, particularly in the form of discrimination and exclusion, has worsen by the increase in the intra social and intra employment group inequalities.   
  
The wages have increased with an annual growth rate of 5.15 per cent but this increase in wages has not being able of reduce the inequalities. On the other side, data points out that if there is not any decrease in the wage inequalities, there is also not any increase in wage inequality of any social group, not for any employment type during 2004-05 and 2011-12.   
  
This is also clear from given analysis that level of education has positive effect on the wages as wages increase with higher level of education for every social group for both casual and regular employment. There is wage difference among casual and regular employed but inequality within these groups is higher than inter occupation.   
  
Though education levels have positive impacts on wage rates, but the inequality in wages start rising after secondary or higher secondary level for both regular and casual workers. So, therefore the wage inequality for same educational level are persistent for not only inter-social groups but also for inter employment. However, the wage inequality for same educational level is an issue of concern because education is a source for economic and social upliftment for the schedule tribes and schedules castes.   
  
It is clear from the regression analysis that education certainly improves the earning of any individual and wage difference can be explained in the form of difference in the educational level with one condition that comparing individual have identical characteristics.   
  
All wage determinant factor (education, experience, gender, social group, region) have different impact in the rural and urban labour markets. In rural areas caste based discrimination and exclusion are more effective than in urban areas and on the other hand, gender based human capital related factor like education and experience are more effective in urban areas than rural areas. Other category wages are more dependent on education level and experience followed by other backward class, schedule tribes and schedule castes.

**54**

**The Morung system of education of the Mao Nagas**

**Author** : Akha Mao

**Affiliation** : Ambedkar University delhi

**Keywords :**Morung

Dormitory

Socialisation

Oral Traditions

The Mao Nagas, a tribe in the north-east India (in Nagaland and Manipur), had developed a social-educational institution in the form of a ‘dormitory system’ from time immemorial till the first half of the 20th century in many of the villages. This particular system/institution is known among the scholars in the domain as the ‘Morung’ system. The larger umbrella name Morung is used for two different insitutitional arrangements for the men and women.‘Khrochi’ refers to the bachelors’ house/halls or the sleeping dormitories for the young men/boys among the Nagas. ‘Elochi’ refers to the young women’/girls’ sleeping houses/halls or the dormitories.This paper explains the Morung as an educational institution among the Nagas prior to the coming of Modern education system. The paper pursues the following questions: What role did the Morung system play in the daily life of the Nagas prior to the introduction of the modern education system and coming of the Christian missionaries in the Naga Hills? How is it different or similar to other institutions that existed in the north-east Indian tribal cultures? How did the Morung system promulgate and preserved the oral history and culture of the Nagas? What kind of idea of ‘education’ was the Morung based on? How does this idea compare with the ‘modern’ system of education?  
  
The paper is based on the review of literature, historical sources (including text, artefacts, archival records from Churches, State, private libraries and village collections) and qualitative fieldwork in a Mao Naga village that makes use of oral history about the Morung in the Mao-Naga community. The method lies at the intersection of historical and sociological research to study education. The fieldwork involved identifying and conducting prolonged interviews with informants who have experienced the Morung to construct a narrative of the Morung in the twentieth century among the Nagas. Using this method, it attempts to reconstruct or trace the history of an institution which is no longer in existence.   
  
The paper would attempt to contextualise the Morung and its functioning during second half of the nineteenth century the early half of the twentieth century. One of the earliest written records available about the practice of the Morung system can be traced to the personal diary entry of Major James Butler, a British Administrator, made during his travel to the Naga Hills. Butler’s diary of 28th December 1845 reads, “We first went to a large building called Rankee or the Daka Chang in which all boys of the village reside until they are married. The building was about 60 feet long and 20 feet high. At one end, a small room was partitioned off for the accommodation of an elderly man who was superintendent of the establishment” (Butler 1978: 66). In the same diary entry he further writes, “On leaving the boys, our attention was next directed to the Hiloke (a building of similar dimensions and construction with the Rankee) devoted entirely to the use or residence of the girls of the village, who live in it, in the same manner as the boys, until the day of their marriage. An old woman superintended the establishment, and the utmost order seemed to prevail in both the Rankee and the Hiloke” (ibid: 67). Elwin (1961:8) writes, “Prominent in many villages is the Morung or the dormitory for the young unmarried men. Some of the tribes also have small houses for the unmarried girls…”.   
  
In most of the earlier writings, the term or the word ‘Morung’ is said to be possibly of Assamese origin (Horam 1975: 65, Shimray 1985: 192 and Lanunungsangs 2004: 61). Shimray (1985:192) opines, “Morung in real sense of the term connotes a big hall, built separately for young men to sleep and keep a vigil at night against the enemies”. However, there are scholars who have argued that the term Morung was and is of Naga origin, and was used in areas inhabited by the Konyak-Nagas. The literal meaning and definition of Morung is a dormitory or a sleeping house/hall for the youth. However, it is interesting to note that most of the scholars usually used the term ‘Morung’ in their writings to refer to the men’s sleeping houses. At the same time, it is often observed that the women’s sleeping houses were mostly referred to as the ‘dormitory’ and not as ‘Morung’ – without any stated explanation. This may be because they wanted to make a differentiation between the men’s and women’s sleeping houses because of various socio-religious and political roles and functions played by the boys’ Morung or in a way ‘delegitimise’ the equivalent significance of the girl’s Morungs.  
  
Dr. Mashangthei Horam a native political scientist/sociologist whosaid, “As a matter of fact no single writer has yet found himself equal to the task ofcorrectly portraying the Nagas- historically, socially, politically and psychologically”(Horam 1975: 1). This is because of the varied theories, myth and legends aboutthe history of the Nagas among themselves and also among the earlier scholars. At the same time it may be kept in mind that inthe earlier days, the Nagas themselves did not have any written records or written history.While I am a Mao-Naga studying my own community, my understanding and representation about the Nagas is based to a great extent on the work of earlier anthropologists, colonial administrators and writers, civil servants who had lived in the Naga areas, travellers, and a few native scholars (Verrier Elwin (1961, 1962, 1969 & 1988), C. von Fuhrer-Haimendorf (1938, 1939 & 1967), T.C. Hodson (1911), J.H. Hutton (1969 & 1986), J.P. Mills (1982 & 2003), James Butler (1978), V. Sanyu (1996), R. Vashum (2000), R. R. Shimray (1985), A. D. Mao (1992), etc.), who may have their own interest and idiosyncratic ‘styles’ while presenting the case of the Nagas in writings.  
  
**Selected Bibliography**  
  
*- Butler, J. (1978). Travels and Adventure in the Provinces of Assam (pp. 53-75).  
Delhi: Vivek Publishing Company.  
- Elwin, V. (1961). Nagaland. Shillong: The Research Department, Adviser’s  
Secretariat  
- Horam, M. (1975). Naga polity. Delhi: B.R.Publishing Corporation.  
- Iralu, K. (2000). Nagaland and India: Blood and tears. Privately Published.  
- Lanunungsangs (2004). Working system of the Ariju in traditional Ao society: Asocio-cultural institution. In N.Venuh (Ed.), Naga society continuity and change  
(pp. 61-86). New Delhi: Shipra Publication.  
- Mao, A. K. (2009). ‘Morung’/Dormitory, the Traditional EducationalSystem of the Nagas: AnExploratory Study amongthe Mao-Nagas. Unpublished MPhil. Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Delhi. Delhi, India.  
- Shimray, R. R. (1985). Origin and cultures of Nagas. New Delhi: P.K.R. Shimray*

**55**

**Exploring the factors of dropout during transition from elementary to secondary education**

**Author** : Sneha Bhasin

**Affiliation** : JNU

**Keywords**: dropout

secondary education

cost benefit

The central theme is to explore the problem of dropout during transition from elementary to secondary education. With enhanced retention at the elementary level, growing cohorts of students “will now knock at the doors of secondary education for more and more places” (Aggarwal: 1). A recent survey conducted by GoI in September (2014) shows that Government sponsored retention schemes has demonstrated conclusive outcomes and had estimated 2.97% of children in 6-14 age-group dropping out from the system as against 6.94% in 2006. Consequently, the concern is that with the accomplishment of these programmes implemented at the elementary level, the problem of dropout may simply translocate to secondary education (Reddy, 2007).   
Bihar is undertaken as the area of the study. And since transition from elementary to secondary education is acute in rural areas the problem is examined in the rural district of Bihar. Based on the transition rates, Katihar is chosen as the area of the study (lowest transition in 2013-14). The area was chosen rationally amongst the most backward block in the said district. To identify the subjects the local schools were visited and the relevant sample children were recognized. A sample size of 120 was undertaken for the survey. Investigations included both school and household level inquiry.

**The present paper is sought to answer the following specific questions:-**   
1. What are the various constraints that determine the decision of dropping out after completing elementary education?   
2. How do these constraints vary according to gender?   
An attempt is made to discuss the human capital model within a cost-benefit framework to understand the decision making dynamics. Individuals invest in themselves to enhance one’s productivity which in a manner calls for a sacrifice with the current consumption in lieu of future benefits. For that matter, decisions can be subject to economic analysis as long as it entails cost and benefits to the society as well as to the institution and individuals; the decision makers thus act as an economic agent in the pursuit. This economic analysis in cost-benefit framework sets the stage in determining the allocation of resources to education. Thus, the rate of return from acquiring education becomes a guiding tool for the decision makers, i.e., parents in the present case.   
A stream of benefits is compared to a stream of costs by means of discounting, which serves as a guiding principle in the decision making.   
Decision to continue schooling= (Benefits > Costs)   
Decision to dropout= (Costs > Benefits)   
The finding is discussed through cross tabs and is validated by the regression results. The regression was thus run for the equation   
Dropout= f [income, parental education, family size, academic performance, alternative income, marriage, religion, gender]   
For 72% of those dropping out income is an important factor as households with low income are constrained in their ability to let the child attend school as a result of which the child dropout. The result is in consonance with these studies (Birdsall et al., 2005; Chugh, 2011; Lewin and Sabates, 2013).   
It is seen that amongst those dropping out 56% had illiterate fathers and 87.5% had illiterate mothers. They fail to appreciate investment in child’s education. Literate mothers cause lesser dropout among girls (3%) than boys (9%). However, the odds ratio in case of mother’s education (0.58) being lower than that of father’s education (0.85) implies that literate mother have more effect on the continuation of schools of their children than literate fathers. Durasaimy (1992) found that mother’s education has more effect on child’s enrolment and that father’s education on their retention. The finding is however in contradiction to Hanushek (2006) study who found no correlation between parental education and children’s schooling.   
In large families there are fewer dropouts than in smaller families. This may be because in larger families there may be larger contribution of income resulting in lesser dropping out. Or it may be that in case of large number of siblings the indirect cost like stationary, books, etc. may not be incurred again and would not pose a burden for the family thus the likelihood of a child dropping out gets reduced. Or it may be that with larger number of members in the family he/she may also get help in the studies and the high cost of tuition may not dampen the educational opportunities thereby reducing the chances of a child dropping out in case of larger families. The findings are similar to Chernichovsky (1985) who reported lower dropouts in case of larger families discusses that in large families dropout is low because of low demand for child’s involvement in wage work.   
For 60% of those who were dropping out academic performance was identified as not an important factor leading to their dropout. It may be a case that academic performance may push the child out but socio-economic factors pull him out of the system.   
For 25% of those who are dropping out opportunity cost is considered as an important reason for dropout. This implies that in some cases of a disadvantaged household the child is called upon to support the family by working outside. The requirement of children for work outweighs their requirement at school (Caldwell et al., 1985; Unni, 1996; Bhatty, 1998; Colclough et al., 2000).   
37.5% of those dropping out considered marriage to be an important reason. It is seen that the societal obligations lead to a girl’s discontinuation. Studies have demonstrated that menarche has resulted in girls withdrawal (Caldwell et al., 1985; Unni, 1996). A discussion with the family revealed that when they get a good marriage prospect they withdraw the girl from school.   
Among those dropping out 56.2% belong to Muslim and 43.8% to Hindu category. This result is similar to Bhat and Zavier (2005) study who found that Muslims lagged behind Hindus in educational attainment.   
There is 68.8% female and 31.2% male dropout. A discussion with them revealed that families consider education among girls as a waste and mere writing is considered enough on her part. She is viewed as somebody else’s property. Why waste money on her education when that is of no relevance to her is the general perception. Studies have documented that girl’s enrolment is low when compared to boys (Alderman and King, 1988; Burra, 2001; World Bank, 2009; Siddhu, 2010). Some discuss in terms of safety issues and lack of female teachers (Colclough et al., 2000; Chugh, 2011) and few in terms of discrimination in gender spending (Tilak, 1996). For socio-cultural reasons, household undermine benefits in case of girl’s education (World Bank, 2009).   
For 37% of those who dropped out considered education as irrelevant and that it will do no good to them. A talk with them revealed that after completing elementary when education is not free and compulsory and has not changed the situation that people find themselves in, then why would they continue education and not dropout? This has actually been reported as an important factor causing dropout by NSS 64th Round which is interpreted by Rani (2007) as a deficiency in the school system. However, schools may be held responsible in making people feel that education is irrelevant but it may also be the illiteracy among parents that they don’t understand the role of education. This is evident from the result which shows that among the dropouts, parents who considered education as irrelevant are 37.5% illiterate mothers and 21.87% illiterate fathers respectively unlike 0 literate mothers and 15% literate fathers.   
In case of smaller families, the dropout of a female child (6.2%) is lower than that of a male child (12.5%). In case of larger families, female dropout (62%) is more when compared to boys (18.75%). This shows that in case of larger families when they prioritise education they continue sending the male child to school over a female child. In case of larger families, there is more number of children to be taken care of so more female dropout. In case of smaller families it is seen that boy’s dropout is more. This may be because they may be called upon to add to household income as the family may be fighting under low income levels.   
However, the application of cost-benefit approach is that whether it is a guiding principle for the decision making dynamics in case of issues concerning that of equity and accessibility? With the inclusive objective of achieving universal accessibility in secondary education by 2017 and universal retention in 2020, RMSA was implemented. With this objective, secondary education is assumed to have acquired public good nature of education. With the above vision can it then be subject to a cost-benefit analysis while achieving the objectives? Can decisions on investment in school education be treated at par with investment in other sectors when the government makes investment decisions? If children from poor socio-economic background fail to find their ways to school, this force us to think what might be the causal factors motivating such a decision. The talent of children may remain unexplored as well as they may be bereft of the motivation from the family if they are subject to an economic analysis.

**56**

**Community Participation in supporting schools: A conceptual exploration while considering insights from practice**

**Author :** Martha Moghbelpour

**Affiliation :** Martha Root Montessori School

**Keywords**: Community Participation

Ownership of Schools

Policy and Practice

**Introduction :**

In the discourse on education and development, participation of parents and the community in the endeavours of the school has been a long sought aspired goal. Numerous reasons have propelled the pursuance of such a goal at the level of policy and practice ranging from the diagnosed need for accountability of the educators of the school, for keeping a check on the financial management of funds, to more broader reasons of bringing about ownership of the educational goals which would suggest increased collective will of the community towards the same.

In spite of the prevalent top down approaches towards the flow of knowledge that informs what is best for the grassroots, there has been a cursory mention of the need for collaboration between teachers and the community at the level of policy. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and then the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009 having made provisions for constituting School Management Committees (SMCs), recognize the need for reforming the school which has at present become an isolated entity for universalizing elementary education. In numerous studies such superficial directions have shown to have not achieved results. For worse, they seem to have reaffirmed and led to the incredulity of the masses of teachers about the agency and capacity of the community as a potential protagonist to collaborate with. Heightened social consciousness of certain tribal communities regarding their marginalization from educational opportunities has been a result of their engagement in Narmada Bachao Andolan. In spite of their high volition to independently meet the educational needs of their children by opening Jeevanshalas, they face the challenge to increase community engagement in the management of the schools. This can be

looked at as an example of how in spite of heightened collective will, participation of a community in meeting the educational needs of their young ones is a far more complex endeavor than prevalently conceived.

The paper examines the assumptions that are embedded in the conceptual framework that inform the instructions of RTE Act 2009 in regard to constituting School Management Committees and creation of School Development Plans. In spite of the efforts at the level of policy to ensure equitable participation by all sections of the community such as including proportionate members of marginal communities and fifty percentage of women representation, attention needs to be given to move beyond the understanding of participation that limits it at the level of a procedural enterprise. In this light, the ideas that the paper will explore will be in relation to the ineffective approach on capacity building of the members of the School Management Committee, the limiting nature of school development that is implied in the policy and the unpragmatic methodology of its planning that characterizes the elements of policy in regard to school development plans. As these elements are outlined, the paper suggests capacity building of the individual, institution and community by creating spaces where a consultative environment is created for generation, implementation and diffusion of knowledge by the members of the committee and community themselves in contrast to them being just technicians who ‘monitor’ mechanics of educational practice.

The above exploration will be linked to another part of the paper which covers insights from the writer’s official visits to a number schools in few states of the country. Few of these schools are working towards meeting the educational aspirations of the communities they are serving. One of the elements of their guiding conceptual framework is the emphasis to grow organically corresponding to the capacity that is developed in the members of the community. Having also worked with parents of students of two schools for increasing their sense of ownership and support for the

establishment in principle, the paper is written in cognizance of the gradual and organic nature of efforts that seek to increase participation of the community in the functioning of the school.

The paper aims to move beyond just holding policy, institutions, teachers or social behaviors as responsible for the challenges that are being faced in improving quality of primary education. It seeks to contribute to the understanding of the concept of participation in the light of the challenges that are being faced and in the light of learning that is being generated through action directed towards creating alternative possibilities.

**57**

**Demand and Supply of Elementary Education in a Democracy: A Study of Parhaiya(PVTG) in Jharkhand**

**Author :** Dipanjali Goswami,

**Affiliation :** Research Scholar

Centre for Humanities & Social Sciences

Central University of Jharkhand, Brambe, Ranchi, Jharkhand

**Keywords**: PVTG

Parhaiyas

Jharkhand

Education

**Background**

This paper tries to peer into the current status of demand and supply of elementary education amongst the Parhaiya tribe of Jharkhand. The study has huge relevance as the above mentioned tribe belongs to Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups of Jharkhand. It is commonly accepted that elementary education has got almost universality in India. But whether this universality sacrosanct irrespective of caste, creed, gender or other social variations? Many studies also state that gone are the days especially in the most backward regions where the relevance of primary education was questioned. But is it so in this case? The latest census (census 2011) shows that Scheduled Tribes (STs) are still on the margins compared to the other groups in terms of educational progress and literacy rate(<http://www.census2011.co.in/scheduled-tribes.php>). Again, among the STs, PVTGs are the most backward in terms of its educational development. Dhebar Commission, 1961 had identified a class of tribal among the STs who are in extremely underdeveloped state as the base, initially known as Primitive Tribal Group (PTG), but later termed as Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups in 2006 (PVTG). On the basis of three norms these groups are identified where as one remains their extremely backward educational status (Survey Report, 2002-03).

Parhaiya is the focus of the study as it ranks the lowest in the educational front among the PVTG. Jharkhand is the third highest of those where the PVTGs live after Orissa and Andhra Pradesh, and in both these states atleast some study specifically on education of PVTGs can be found but such studies are conspicuous by its absence in Jharkhand. Among the PVTGs of Jharkhand the lowest literacy rate is of Parhaiyas indicating 33.1%, so it becomes relevant and imperative to select this community for the study.

**Aim of Education in a Democracy**

The preamble of sovereign democratic republic India claims to secure to all its citizens justice, liberty, equality etc. M.K.Gandhi rightly points out “My notion of democracy is that under it the weakest should have the same opportunity as the strongest….No country in the world today shows any but patronizing regard for the weak….Western democracy, as it functions today, is diluted fascism….True democracy can’t be worked by twenty men sitting at the centre. It has to be worked from below by the people of every village”. He also made it clear to make democracy

function, right education is needed. Empowerment of all the peoples supported by the state will only lead to sustainable development which is only possible through education. But is it so in case of the elementary educations in India?

**Methodology**

This paper is based on empirical study done in the state of Jharkhand especially in the districts of Latehar & Palamu. Extensive field works for many weeks have been done in the area where this community inhibits. Before the data collection, I went to the field several times to understand the socio-economic situation of the community. Both primary source as well as secondary sources were utilized for the analysis of the study. Interview Schedules were used to elicit data from the teachers, community members and the children. Method of observation was the major way to understand the ground reality of education and garner data from the field.

**Supply & Status of Elementary Education in India**

Since the inception of our republic different policies and programmes to provide education for all have been adopted. Article 45of the constitution of India itself states “State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of the Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years’ (Sarma, 2011:7).

Regarding the importance of elementary education for the tribals special emphasis can be made to tribal sub plan approach of the fifth fife year plan. Elementary education is considered important, not only because of constitutional obligation, but as a crucial input for total development of tribal communities, particularly to build confidence among the tribes to deal with outsiders on equal terms (Sujatha, B.N21.G1). However, the task of providing basic education for all, with concrete plans of action, gained greater momentum only after the National Policy of Education (NPE), 1986. This policy underlined greater emphasis on improving access in education in tribal areas. Recently the National Programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), which aims to achieve Universal Elementary Education (UEE), has a special focus on education of the tribal children. Tribal children are included under Special Focus Group (SFG) under SSA and this PVTG also fulfils the criteria of SFG, along with being tribal they also fulfill another criteria i.e. children below poverty line. All these approaches are strengthened by the RTE Act, 2009 which claims elementary education a basic right in India. But government policies always have a pro poor image and functional utility. But how it is accepted by the people at the margins actually shows the utility of such schemes for all.

**Demand and Response from the Parhaiya**

Research studies already indicate that education for tribals should be culturally appropriate which was also mentioned in SSA. Since the PVTGs of Jharkhand including the Parhaiyas are very vulnerable to hunger, starvation, malnutrition, ill health etc, they are very less concerned towards their education and other rights, though those who are comparatively nearer to the district headquarter are at a privileged position relatively. They don’t know the name of educational programmes but started sending their children to school and they are concerned for their material benefits also, they know about some of the provisions and claims for it too. Community members keep eye on the performance of the teachers at school, though not upon the

children. In these areas children come to school but most often they run out of classroom leaving the bags there itself and remain busy in playing and spending time outside the periphery of classrooms. On the other hand, communities which are at far flung areas with low connectivity know that children get to eat if they go to school, but here children start leaving school after attending some months, and if one child stopped going other child of the family also started imitating the former, this phenomenon is often refereed as vacuum or suction affect. Another important thing is failure of one government programme impacts on the another. Government introduced concept of ‘Direct Bahali’ (Direct employment) for the PVTGs, if any of them pass 7th standard they were supposed to employ directly in government job. But this hardly have any affect, now this Parhaiya community doesn’t want to go for study for this reason too. So according to them where is the need of education? The failure of this policy has adversely impacted the interest of the community in education. So this Parhaiya community doesn’t believe in the policies of the government and thus the set-up of education.

**Conclusions& Observations**

The supply of the elementary education often seems to remain as target oriented, but target specific programmes may not be sustainable for a democratic country. Even though education has been made free and compulsory, the location factor of the tribe plays major role regarding their educational decision, gap between home and school can be seen for different socio-economic factors. Enrolment has been increased in some areas, but how many of them have completed the eight years elementary education cycle needs attention. Lack of employability and failure of government’s promise to it also detracts them from formal education. To make the tribe fully aware about the value of education, partnership between the government and the parhaiyas is the dire need of the hour.

**References**

Bagai,Shweta & Neera Nundy (2009) *Tribal Education*. Dasra. Maharastra.

Brown, David S. (1999). Reading, Writing, and Regime Type: Democracy's Impact on Primary School Enrollment. *Political Research Quarterly*, Vol. 52, No. 4 Dec, pp. 681-707

Buchmann Claudia and Emily Hannum (2001). Education and Stratification in Developing Countries: A Review of Theories and Research. *Annual Review of Sociology*. Vol. 27, pp. 77-102.

Ramachandran, Vimala (ed). (2003) *Getting Children Back To School*. Sage Publications. New Delhi.

Saha, Abhishek. (2015). Endangered Jharkhand Tribes Battle for Survival. *Hindustan Times*. January. Sarma, Nirmala. (2011). *Universalisation of Elementary Education among Tea Tribe of Assam withspecial reference to Jorhat District.* State Institute of Education, Assam.

Sujatha, K. *Education Among Scheduled Tribes*. CED code- B.N21. G1. India Education Report.

Survey Report. (2002-03). *Primitive Tribal Groups of Jharkhand.* Government of Jharkhand,

Ranchi.

*The Avenue Mail.* (2015). Tribal Cultural Society helps bridge education rights of Tribal Children. July 8.Vender, JoAnn C. (1994). Culture, Place, and School: Improving Primary Education in Rural Ecuador.

*Conference of Latin Americanist Geographers*. Vol. 20, pp. 107-119.Link: <http://www.census2011.co.in/scheduled-tribes.php>

**58**

**City and Educational Growth:A socio-historic account of Bhubaneswar**

**Author** :Roma Ranu Dash

**Affiliation :**Ph.D Scholar, ZHCES, SSS

Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords** : City spaces

Educational Growth

spatial contexts

**Abstract**

The city of Bhubaneswar, located in the Eastern part of India, is the capital city of the state of

Odisha. It is Independent India’s one of the first planned cities along with Chandigarh and Gandhinagar. It is known as the “city of temples” but recently it has shot into prominence because of the “smart city” tag it has acquired in 2016. In contrast to the old town, the new city of Bhubaneswar is very different with wide roads and infrastructural facilities that may symbolize modern city spaces. In other words, from being a temple town for more than thousand years, it has moved on to become the planned capital city of the state of Odisha, then further to a neo-liberal city through the growth of industries and trade and commerce, and by becoming an IT hub.

As the city grew, so did the educational facilities. While in the temple town education was a prerogative of few castes and social classes as the temple served as source of education, gradually there has been massification of education in the city today. This made the city a modern center of education in the Eastern India. Today the city is a bustling administrative, commercial, educational and religious center merging its past with modern aspirations (CDP, 2006). With the growth, there is a simultaneous rise in educational aspirations among people which also contributes to the growth of the city. The city, is at the same time becoming an educational hub and is attracting students from all over India.

However, we find that studies have not captured urban transitions and urbanism in India systematically at a micro level and have tend to neglect the role of education entirely in the growth and development of a city. So the study aims to fulfill this research gap by looking at

different contexts of the growth of the city and what is happening to education in these contexts. It will focus on the relationship between city and educational growth.

As mentioned earlier, the city of Bhubaneswar has seen a lot of historical epochs like being a temple town, then a planned city, to a city that has seen neoliberal growth to being a ‘smart’ city.

Under each of these epochs the city may have experienced transitions in terms of the nature of the town, its characteristics, growth, its social structure, the land use pattern, urban life, employment structure and the educational opportunities. Ravi Kalia (1994) in his book

*“Bhubaneswar: from a temple town to a Capital City”* discusses elaborately the transformationof the city of Bhubaneswar and says that the history of the city starts from around 261 BC.

The old temple town of Bhubaneswar is typical of a sacred town and was famous as a Hindu cultural and religious center. Looking at the transition, Kalia (1994) observes that in contrast to the old temple town, in the capital city of Bhubaneswar a new pattern of life has emerged. From a planned city, the city of Bhubaneswar saw yet another transition to become a city with neo liberal developments and made it a commercial hub. To add to the transition, Bhubaneswar recently won India’s first smart city challenge, a competition devised by the Government of

India to encourage bottom up innovation and inspire cities to work with local citizens to identify and address key priorities which can impact future growth ,jobs and the quality of life in the urban areas.

Education is central in such processes of urban growth and transition. It is education which shapes and is required for urban transitions. George (2006) says that in a knowledge based information economy, emphasis is not on the structure of the educational institutions but more on its content. Industrial society was characterized by narrowly specialized tasks on the factory floor and fragmentation of skills and knowledge. But the knowledge economy will rely on individuals who are able to adapt to the rapidly changing situation, people who are creative independent, and have skills for specific jobs. Education is an intervening aspect in the growth and transformation of a city and in its role in modernization.

In the context of Bhubaneswar too, education played an important role in the growth of the city. Kalia (1994) observes that the importance of education was felt when the new province of Odisha was created. The popular sentiment prevailing among the Oriyas was a separate

university to a separate province of Odisha. The role of education in transformation of the city is understood from the history, when there were deliberations regarding the selection of the capital city of Odisha. This is echoed by Dehury (2007), Das (2015)

In contrast to the old city where schools or pathasalas or chatasalis as they were called ran in temples, Sanskrit *Tols*, Bhagavat Tungis and in the house of some rich men (Das, 2015), the new capital of Bhubaneswar saw the mushrooming of many private colleges like the Kalinga Institute of Industrial Technology (KIIT), Shiksha O Anusandhan University, The Xaviers Institute of Management etc Apart from this many elite schools like the KIIT International School, the Xaviers International School, The Delhi Public Schools, The Sai International School also came up at Bhubaneswar. Bhubaneswar recently has been an educational hub with six universities and many general colleges and around eighty technical institutions. It is also improving in terms of medical education and institutions like the All India Institute of Medical Sciences (AIIMS), Kalinga Institute of Medical Sciences (KIMS), etc have been established (Pradhan, 2013). The recent addition to the growth of educational facilities came with the establishment of the Indian Institute of Technology (IIT) at Bhubaneswar.

It is in this background the paper tries to understand the role of education in the development and growth of the city. It tries to see how changes have occurred in the city life and what role education plays in this transformation. More than the space, it is the people who matter as they are the one who come in between the ‘old’ and the ‘new’ as people make an important part of the way the city is reorganized and reformulated. For sociologists, the city is known by the people who occupy it, “it is a mosaic of social worlds” (Park, 1915). It consists of people with divergent personalities who draw upon their social worlds in a city to form certain experiences of the city or it can be said that the cities are important because they are the sites of “urban culture”

(Gottdiener and Budd, 2005). The paper seeks to understand the nature of the city and its educational growth through various Sociological perspectives. It relies on the perspectives offered by David Harvey and Manuel Castles to understand the nature of city growth and production of space in the city of Bhubaneswar. For them it is in the nature of capitalistic models of urban development to envision and develop spaces in the city.

The paper seeks to enquire into the following questions:

1. How did Bhubaneswar evolve as a city? What has been the socio-historical evolution of the city of Bhubaneswar through its various transitional phases?
2. What role did education play in the economic, cultural and political transitions of the city in different spatial contexts in the city? Is educational growth the cause and consequence of city transitions in those spatial contexts?

As the city has gone through different phases of transformation, data will be collected from different parts of the city looking at the stages of transformation of the city. The role of education in these spatial contexts will be looked at.

The present paper will deal with these questions and data will come from these explorations.

**References**

Das, M. K. (2015), growth of education in Odisha during the British period. May-June, 2015,

vol. 3/18.

Dehury, D.(2007). Cuttack City: Promotion of Education in Orissa in the Pre-Independence Era.

*Orissa Review.*

Kalia, R. (1994). *Bhubaneswar: from a temple town to a capital city*. OUP, Delhi

Lipman, P. (2010). *Education and the right to the city: The intersection of urban policies,*

*education, and poverty*.

Park, R. E. (1915). The city: Suggestions for the investigation of human behavior in the city

environment. *The American Journal of Sociology*, *20*(5), 577-612.

Pradhan, A. C. (2013). The New Capital at Bhubaneswar. *ODISHA REVIEW*, 55.

**59**

**Small Cities and ‘New’ Education Economy: Urban Growth and Rise of Shadow Education in Dhanbad**

**Author** : Juhi Singh

**Affiliation** : Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords**: Small Cities

urban growth

new education economy

**Abstracts :**

Small and medium cities have been catching the imagination of sociologists, urban geographers and economists as they are witnessing demographic transitions along with spatial, cultural and economic transitions. Social scientists are now interested in knowing how the small cities grew as a result of the global influences as well as local pressures. Short (2006), explains the importance of small cities or any other city apart from mega cities by writing that “globalization acts through in and through all cities - almost all cities can act as a gateway for the transmission of economic, political and cultural globalization.” Studies have revealed as to how these urban centres have became more viable areas of spatial growth as the metropolitan cities are now showing stagnation (Singh 2015). It is also discussed widely that how these small cities have been neglected in terms of development in the policy making (Bannerjee- Guha 2013). Some studies also present alternative theories that how small cities can become better sites of global investment as these will retain the regional identity and will not get into the trap of globalisation (Banerjee-Guha 2013; Shaw 1996). The need to develop these small cities also emerges from the idea that small and secondary cities also help in development of rural areas adjacent to them (Brondelli 1983).   
At the centre of their growth though is the economic transition, it does have ramifications for the social class character of the growing city, aspirational landscape of such class structure and also the resultant culture of the city spaces. It is this that selecting the small city becomes impediment, as the site for exploring the linkages between the urban growth and the rise of certain kind of economy that is rooted in the provision of education.   
Interestingly, most of the new institutions of industry and education are located in small cities rather than the usual practice of locating them in the big and metropolitan cities. For instance, 8 of the 9 new IITs have been set up in tier 2 or tier 3 cities and 9 new NITs have came up in tier 3 cities, giving a major boost to education infrastructure in these small cities. Also 3 out of every 10 colleges in India are in tier 2 cities, with Coimbatore and Jaipur being the leaders (Zinnov, 2015). This in turn seem to trigger the economy of the real estate in these cities which make the urban sprawl far and wide in these cities.   
Along with this change in economy and class structure we can also see that there is a growing demand for private education in small cities. According to NSSO 71st Round (January- June 2014) Survey of Education in India, the number of students taking coaching classes or tuitions is estimated to be 7.1 million, almost 26 % of the total number of students in the country. This shows a definite growth in the parallel kind of education system which is not formal or regulated by government bodies. This is commonly known as 'shadow' education system (Bray, 2015). Along with it we can also witness the rise of private non- aided schools and low budget schools which are another major factor defining the education economy of small cities across the country.   
John Vaizey’s (1962) explanation for the need to understand the education economy. At first stage, he explains that as the economies become big, and there is a tendency to shift from primary to secondary industry and from secondary to tertiary/ service sector. Secondly, he suggests that as the individual becomes richer the share of expenditure done on basic necessities like food drops and he starts spending more on health care, transport, holidays, education, etc. The increased expenditure on education is also necessitated due to the increasing demand for certain skills in the economy which are dependent on the formal education and training. In case of India too, the whole education system is built on the overall development of the citizens by imparting education from primary to higher level in order to enhance their human capital (Schultz, 1971). The education sector in India comprises of pre-school, primary and higher secondary education. This is then followed by the higher education segment, which includes professional and technical education. In addition, the segment also comprises of vocational training, coaching classes, distance education etc.   
The emergence of coaching institutes and growing reliance on it also shows the coming up of new education economy which is going beyond the traditional education industry of India. This new education economy may be understood through the idea of new economy in a network society by Castells (1996). This new education economy can be seen as a circuit of production of education, which is run through investment of capital, marketisation and is connected to many networks of enterprises running to ensure the success of that business at various levels or in various places. This new education economy then also influences the society and peoples’ take towards education.   
The small city of Dhanbad which in the last decade have witnessed a huge transformation in terms of real estate and urban sprawl have also witnessed a particular kind of education economy growing in this urban sprawl leading to a ‘new’ education economy.   
There is a rise of coaching centres taking place mainly in a particular urban space of the city of Dhanbad. This part of Dhanbad which is a result of new urban sprawl due to these coaching centres has witnessed a redefinition in its education economy. The new education economy triggered by these coaching centres have reshaped the urban spaces like making houses for renting it to students, making building appropriate for coaching centres itself, rise of eating spaces like mess etc, rise of hostels, market arising according to demands of students etc. This is however not limited to this new area but can also be seen in older areas of Dhanbad too. This paper thus aims to look into the changing feature of Dhanbad in relation to the rising shadow education making Dhanbad an important site to study this changing relationship of space and new education economy in a small city.   
**References**  
*1. Castells, Manuel (1996) The Rise of Network Society, Blackwell Publishing   
2. Schultz, T. W. (1971). Investment in human capital: The role of education and research. New York: Free Press   
3. Bray, Mark (2003). ‘Adverse Effects of Private Supplementary Tutoring: Dimensions, Implications and Government Responses’. Paris: International Institute of Educational Planning, UNECSO   
4. Zukin, Sharon (2012),Competitive Globalisation and Urban Change: The Allure of Cultural Strategies in Rethinking Global Urbanism: Comparative Insights From Secondary Cities ed by Xiangmimg Chen and Ahmad Kanna, Routledge   
5. Vaizey, John (1962), Economics of Education, International Social Science Journal, Vol xiv, No 4   
6. Shaw Annapurna (2007), Indian Cities in Transition, Orient Longman   
7. Bannerjee- Guha, Swapna (2013), Small Cities and Towns in Contemporary Urban Theory, Policy and Praxis, in Small Cities and Towns in Global Era ed by R N Sandhu and R S Sandhu, Rawat Publications   
8. Shaw, Annapurna (2015), Indian Cities, Oxford University Press   
9. Short, John Rennei (2006) Urban Theory: A Critical Assessment, New York, Palgrave, Macmillan*

60

**Teacher Education and Service Conditions in Karnataka: Exploring the Policies and Practices**

**Author** : Sumana Srikant, Ananya Chatterji

**Affiliation** :Tata Institute of Social Sciences

**Keywords** : Teacher service conditions

teacher education

teacher quality

professional development

student outcomes

**Abstract for CESI 2016**

1. **Statement of problem**

The National Achievement Survey (NAS)1 and Annual Status of Education Report (ASER)2 which conduct periodic assessments of students’ learning outcomes in India. They have shown that a considerable percentage of children at different grade/age levels are not able to match the learning standards as per their grade curriculum and also lack basic arithmetic/reading skills. Studies have shown that systems interested in raising levels of student achievement have or should invest in teacher policy and ensure quality in teacher education rather than focusing on student background, class­size, school curriculum, etc. (Darling­Hammond, 2000; Rockoff, 2004).

In a step towards ensuring teacher quality, Right to Education Act (2009) and Justice Verma Committee (2012) mandated a Teacher Eligibility Test (TET) for teacher recruitment. This was an important decision to assure that only qualified and talented individuals are recruited as school teachers. Karnataka conducted its first TET (KARTET) in 2014 and out of 3.86 lakh candidates only 1.29% could clear the paper I (to teach in classes 1 to 5) while 10% cleared the paper II (to teach in classes 6 to 8) (Kulkarni, 2014). These poor results indicate miserable quality of pre service teacher education program and poor subject knowledge of candidates. However blaming the pre service education system is not enough since even the entry level requirements, service conditions and policies for teachers are significantly lower than in other professions (NUEPA & World Bank, 2015).

There is a large workforce of teachers in India. Teacher policies, norms and regulations play a vital role in teacher education and recruitment. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), sets the norms for teacher education. The purpose of the present study was to identify the standards set by these norms for entry into teaching profession, teacher recruitment, and teacher service conditions. Evidences were gathered to understand if the existing policies are actually put to practice. This study was initiated by UNESCO Teacher Task force in association with World Bank in 27 countries for preparing Country reports on International thematic report on teachers.



1 NAS is a school­based survey conducted by National Council of Educational Research and Training for students enrolled in Classes III, V and VIII in government and government­aided schools. It is a grade level assessment, intended to assess children’s learning outcomes relative to the curriculum for their class.

2 ASER is a household­based survey for children enrolled in government schools, private schools, other types of schools and also for those not enrolled in school. ASER aims to assess whether children have attained basic reading and arithmetic skills.

* **Literature review**

The efficiency and learning achievement of students are linked to teacher’s effectiveness, their nature of work and service conditions. Barber and Mourshed (2007) assert that the best school systems of world encourage talented people to become teachers, provide stimulation for their professional development and ensure that every child receives quality input from the system.

A study about teacher motivation states the aspects of motivation as considered by teachers

and administrators and these include “low absenteeism, maintaining discipline, proper record keeping, **…** giving exercises in the classroom and correcting them” (Ramachandran, V., Pal, M., Jain, D., Shekar, S., & Sharma, J., 2005, p.43). This is one of the main reasons that talented candidates are not attracted towards teaching and those who work as teachers are more adherent to clerical jobs than teaching itself.

Talented candidates who have opportunities in other professions may be discouraged from becoming teachers if working conditions are unpleasant. Teachers’ job satisfaction and school outcomes are also dependent on teachers’ working conditions (Rosenholtz, 1989). However if the scope of growth is widened in teaching profession then there is a possibility that more qualified candidates will join the force.

Professional development of teachers leading to effective instruction is also directly beneficial for underachieving students (Sanders & Rivers, 1996) and hence “... interventions to improve the effectiveness of teachers or to identify the effective teachers might be promising strategies for improving student achievement” (Nye, Konstantopoulos & Hedges, 2004, p.253).

**Research Objectives**

* 1. To collect data on the existing teacher policies in Karnataka and comparing them with NCTE prescribed norms.
  2. To explore if the teacher policies are implemented in teacher education system and work conditions.
  3. To check if the education system in Karnataka helps in achieving the 8 teacher policy goals set up by SABER­Teachers.
* **Rationale for this Study**

The SABER­UNESCO report required data to be presented for one country. But given the diversity across states in India on matters pertaining to teachers, we were allowed to select only one state for the purpose of the study.

Karnataka was identified based on the following criteria – position of Karnataka on teachers is stable with large teacher body, absence of para­teachers, an established system on pre­service and in­service teacher education programmes; location of the research team and access to material, ability to read the circulars in state official language.

1. **Research Methodology**

The data was gathered using the data collection and analytical instruments of Systematic approach for Better Education Results (SABER). A detailed list of sources of data and list of key respondents was prepared for every set of questionnaire and the items included therein.

First policy documents, government orders, gazette notifications and notices issued by Karnataka Government related to the above mentioned areas were reviewed and policies were identified. Officials from various wings of the Education departments were interviewed for required information.

In the second phase of data collection, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and a short survey were conducted with 29 Government School teachers to have more clarity on existing practices related to teacher service conditions. The policy goals set up by SABER were measured on a four­category scale (latent, emerging, established, and advanced).

1. **Key findings** 
   1. Teachers’ have to often spend their working hours doing non­teaching duties like arranging for mid­day meals, going for census survey and election duties, facilitating voter cards/BPL cards for parents of students who come from disadvantaged groups.
   2. There is no recruitment of cleaning and non­teaching staff for the Government elementary schools.
   3. There is no transparency in the system of selecting teachers for award given by the Government.
   4. Teachers feel requirement of need based trainings as some of the in­service trainings are repetitive and are usually routinized in nature.
   5. There is no strict system for teacher evaluation and monitoring as most of the schools headed by incharge HMs who hesitate to evaluate colleague teachers.
   6. The incharge HMs in spite of doing both academic and administrative tasks are not given any incentive or bonus. There is no system of either incentives and disincentives for teachers based on their performance in classroom.
   7. Teachers often do not raise their grievance in Teachers’ Association citing that individual voices are not heard. There is a sense of insecurity among teachers that their identities may get revealed and they may have to face dire consequences if the system’s faults are exposed by their complaints.
2. **Policy implication** 
   1. More focus is needed for improving pre­service teacher education as there is no demand for joining B.Ed/ D.Ed Course and mostly under­achieving students are joining these courses since there is no entry level test.
   2. As per NCF 2005, RTE and SSA 2011 framework, a new system has been started to measure teacher performance using PINDICS (Performance Indicators). But this has not been practised yet and thus strict implementation of such system is required.
   3. Trained teachers for Maths, Science and English are insufficient in numbers.More number of these subject teachers should be allowed to pursue higher studies and they should be given incentives/promotion as soon as they finish the course.
   4. The criteria for promotion of teachers needs to be revised. Currently, this is done on the basis of seniority while ignoring teachers’ qualification and ability.
   5. Non­teaching staff should be appointed in schools so that teachers can focus on their actual work.
3. **Keywords**

Teacher service conditions, teacher education, teacher quality, professional development, student outcomes

1. **References**

Barber, M. & Mourshed, M. (2007). **​*How the world's best performing school systems come out ontop***. McKinsey & Company.

Darling­Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher Quality and Student Achievement: A Review of State Policy Evidence. **​*Education Policy Analysis Archives, 8***(1), 1­44. Retrieved from http://epaa.asu.edu/ojs/article/view/392/515

Kulkarni, T. (2014, August 21). Only 5.93 per cent clear Teacher Eligibility Test in the State. ***The Hindu***. Retrieved from [http://www.thehindu.com/news/cities/bangalore/only­593­per­cent­clear­teacher­eligibili](http://www.thehindu.com/news/cities/bangalore/only-593-per-cent-clear-teacher-eligibility-test-in-the-state/article6335807.ece)t  [y­test­in­the­state/article6335807.ec](http://www.thehindu.com/news/cities/bangalore/only-593-per-cent-clear-teacher-eligibility-test-in-the-state/article6335807.ece)e

NUEPA & World Bank. (2015). **​*Teachers in the Indian Education System: How we manage theteacher work force in India***. New Delhi: National University of Educational Planning andAdministration**​*.Retrived fromhttp://www.nuepa.org/new/download/Research/Teachers\_in\_the\_Indian\_Education\_System.pd f***

Nye, B., Konstantopoulos, S, & Hedges, L.V. (2004). How Large are Teacher Effects?

***Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 26***, 237­257.

Ramachandran, V., Pal,M., Jain, S. Shekar, S. & Sharma, J. (2005). **​*Teacher Motivation in India***. New Delhi: Educational Resource Unit. Retrieved from http://www.teindia.nic.in/efa/Vimla\_doc/TeacherMotivation\_inIndia\_2008.pdf

Rockoff, J. (2004). The Impact of Individual Teachers on Student Achievement: Evidence from Panel Data. **​*The American Economic Review,*​*94***(2), 247­252. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3592891

Rosenholtz, S.J. (1989). **​*Teachers’ Workplace: The Social Organization of Schools***. White Plains, NY: Longman Inc

Sanders, W.L., & Rivers, J.C. (1996). **​*Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on futurestudent academic achievement: Research Progress Report.*** Knoxville: University of TennesseeValue­Added Research and Assessment Center.

**61**

**Student Performance in High School Public Exam - Outcomes and Issues: Analysis of**

**Karnataka State 2016 SSLC Examination Results**

**Author: Padmini Sampath and Sumana Srikanth**

**Affiliation** : **Centre for Education Innovation and Action Research, Tata Institute of Social Sciences**

**Keywords** : 1. SSLC Examination Results

2. Results Analysis

3. Karnataka State SSLC Board

4. Medium of Instruction and Results

5. Student Grade Achievement

6. Trend analysis of SSLC exam results

7. Rural and urban schools results

**Background:**

**High School or SSLC or Grade X Board Examinations are an important milestone in the education journey of any student choosing to complete secondary education and wanting to pursue higher secondary education, in India. The performance of a student in the SSLC examination irreversibly determines the range of choices available to the student to pursue higher education and consequently career choices at a later date. Quality of education plays a key role in ensuring high grades of student achievement in the Board Examinations.**

**The Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (MHRD) launched the Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) scheme in 2009, with the objective to enhance access to secondary education and to improve its quality. In addition to the High School Public Exams conducted by various Boards, we also have learning achievement surveys like the National Achievement Survey (NAS) being conducted by institutions like the National Council for Scientific Education and Research (NCERT). Such learning assessment surveys provide good indicators of the quality of education by assessing “what the children in schools know.”**

**According to the most recent Examination Results Statistics published by the MHRD in 2010, 172.5 lakhs students appeared for the High School examinations in 2010, the examinations being conducted by 34 different regular boards and 15 open boards, in various states. So from an education department perspective, yearly conduct of these exams and publication of results is a massive exercise, considering the scale of the operation.**

**Various boards publish summary statistics about the results every year. But the statistics remain numbers and it is not apparent whether the statistical analysis is followed by a drill down into the causes for improvement or degradation of performance at a complete population or sub-population category level. There is not much published literature detailing the analysis and follow up actions taken by education departments. The Indian education and the examination systems seem to run open loop, with no apparent feedback from the examination system into the education delivery process, despite the significance of the Board exam results both from the student and the education department’s perspective.**

**Interestingly, Prof Sridhar Srivastava, Head of the Educational Survey Division at NCERT, in his Preface in the Class VIII Cycle 3 report of National Achievement Survey published in September 2014, mentions that information obtained from NAS, in conjunction with the student examination results analysis from the states can be collated to prepare state-specific reports to enable further analysis at state level, with the objective of improving overall quality of education.**

**About the study:**

**This paper seeks to present an analysis and a summary of the results of the April 2016 SSLC Exams in Karnataka State. The analysis was performed by the authors on 2016 SSLC Exam results data, provided by the Karnataka SSLC Board. The primary objective of this data driven analysis was to comprehensively study the various aspects of the results, looking at the data**

**provided by the SSLC Board, from various combinations, thereby leading to conclusions which can possibly result in actions to improve performance at various levels (State, District and Taluk). The analysis presented in the paper can be classified into three major types, as detailed below:**

**Type 1 Analysis**

**- includes 2016 result analysis for different categories of population as listed below. For most of the below categories gender analysis of data is also presented.**

**a.** **Student Type categorization - Regular Freshers, Regular Repeaters, Private Freshers and Private Repeaters**

**b. Student Caste categorization – Caste Category 1, 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, SC, ST and Others c. School Location categorization – Rural and Urban schools**

**d. School Management categorization – Government, Aided and Unaided schools**

**e.** **Medium of Instruction categorization – Kannada, English, Urdu, Hindi, Marathi, Telugu, Tamil mediums**

**f. Subject wise categorization**

**i.** **Details of overall performance in I, II, III Language, Mathematics, Science and Social Science**

**ii.** **“Fails” categorized into number of individual subjects failed**

**iii.** **Overall student achievement as outlined by % of students in various marks ranges in all the 6 subjects**

**g.** **Student Grade Achievement categorization – percentage of students in A+, A, B+, B, C+, C and Failed grades**

**The results from this analysis can provide triggers for the State Education Department to delve deeper into either groups of population that are averaging down the state or address poor performance in certain subjects and so on. Further investigation using methods like 5-whys or fish-bone analysis conducted the Department has the potential to identify suitable corrective actions**

**Type 2 Analysis – district level analysis focusing on 2 aspects:**

**The first aspect is inter-district. This involves comparisons of district level performance. There are 34 educational districts in Karnataka, which are grouped into 4 educational zones namely Bangalore, Mysore, Belgaum and Gulbarga or Hyderabad Karnatak zone. Inter-district analysis results can enable learnings and best practices from the better performing districts to be systematically imbibed by the lower performing districts**

**The second aspect is intra-district. This involves comparisons of district performance grouped under various categories with the pertinent state averages. This type of analysis can result in crisp actions that the district education management on specific groups that are under-performing compared to the state average, by suitable corrective actions or remedial measures**

**Type 3 Analysis – focusing on trends of performance over the past few years**

**Such trend comparisons put in perspective the performance improvement or degradation as compared to the previous years. These perspectives can then lead to appropriate inquiry followed by suitable actions to improve trends in upcoming years. For instance in 2016, the state overall results have undergone a significant negative dip compared to the previous 2 years. The possible primary contributing factors for the same are outlined in the paper. Two types of trend analysis are presented here**

**The first type is the state level 10 year trend analysis. This focuses on overall state level performance trends by location classification, performance by management type, grade achievement trends over the years and caste categorization of grade achievement over the years.**

**The second type of trend analysis is 3 year district level trends. Summary analysis of district trends based on 2014, 2015 and 2016 results is presented here**

**Key findings from the analysis:**

**A few salient findings that emerge from the analysis are listed below:**

**a)** **The results of the 2016 examinations have shown a dip in overall pass percentage (79.16%) by almost 6% compared to 2015 (84.98%)**

**b)** **Performance of girls in any population category is better than boys – overall girls pass percentage being at 82.64% vs boys at 75.84%**

**c)** **Performance of students from schools in rural locations is better than that of urban locations – as evidenced by almost 2.5% higher passing students in rural schools**

**d)** **The proportion of students passing the exams with Kannada as medium of instruction is significantly lower (75.7%) compared to English medium students (87.13%)**

**Conclusion and Policy Implications:**

**The paper offers two directions as a conclusion.**

**The first vector points to the need to better explain remnant questions which are not answered by the data analysis. These questions may be pursued by the concerned departments leading to answers and ensuing actions, that might possibly improve the results and performance of students in coming years – as well as improving the overall quality of secondary education in the State. Some of the questions are listed below:**

**1.** **why is there a big difference in pass percentage between Kannada and English mediums and what possible actions can be taken to improve performance of Kannada medium students**

**2.** **what is the exhaustive set of reasons for the dip in results compared to previous years and what can be done to improve in the academic year 2016-17, by addressing each one of them**

**As a second concluding vector, based on the evidence from the analysis, the authors would like to recommend that such analysis and study of key findings of examination results need to become a regular practice and need to be performed every year by the respective Boards. In conjunction with other sources of information like NAS reports, such analysis can provide a very good method and process to close loop the education system thereby systematically improving overall quality.**

**62**

**EXAMINING THE INTER-LINKAGES BETWEEN ACADEMIA-INDUSTRY-GOVERNMENT IN THE INDIAN CONTEXT**

**Author** : Aparajita Gantayet

**Affiliation** : national university of education planning and administration

**Keywords** : Industry-Academic-Government collaboration

Research and Development

Higher Education

Innovation in Education

National Innovation System

Triple-Helix model

The World Bank report of 2007 starts with the claim: ‘India is increasingly becoming a top global innovator for high tech products and services’ (Dutz, 2007). The paradox is that the real scenario of the working population (90 percent) in India is still from the informal sector. The spread of higher education amongst the working population has been limited and is reflected through 70 percent of the workforce, still employed in the agricultural sector. Despite these challenges India’s ambition to sustain its position in the IT and IT-Based services is commendable.   
The transformation of India’s economy from an agrarian economy to post-industrial economy based on services and increase in the export of such services cannot be justified through traditional explanations of economic policy changes or the low cost of human resources. Of the several factors that have contributed to India’s success, one is of pertinence to this study, the nature of post-industrial innovation that India has excelled in. The case of India is an interesting one from the innovation perspective for two main reasons. Firstly, as already alluded to, the rise of India as a top innovator of knowledge-based services in the face of considerable challenges is worthy of detailed explanation. Secondly, national success in innovation activities have been primarily explained through the concept of national innovation systems or the triple helix thesis, which has focused on the national institutions of industry, government and university.   
One of the traditional approaches to understand the academia-industry collaboration in R&D is the Schumpeterian analysis of a business cycle, wherein, innovation plays a key role in economic growth. Innovation is the engine of growth in a ‘market pull’ or ‘technology push’ economy.The linear model, which expresses in terms of either market pull or technology push, is insufficient to explain how they can induce transfer of knowledge and technology. Both R&D and higher education have been generally analyzed in terms of markets through a linear model (Dasgupta& Davis, 1994). While the implication of a linear model might be useful to study the interaction of university with industry, but it leaves out the contribution of a major stakeholder, i.e., the government. Hence a new model was necessary to understand bipartite knowledge transfer in tripartite collaborations.   
Since the need was for a new model, science policy researchers developed new conceptual frameworks. These frameworks add to the traditional functions of academic institutions (universities or research centers) as an ‘entrepreneurial’ mode of functioning to engage directly in economic development through enterprise and spin-off creation (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 2000). Under this new conception of roles, innovation is no longer seen as a linear process of knowledge transformation, but rather as a process that occurs in a spiral mode and through strategic networking between different actors at the national and international levels in multi-disciplinary knowledge networks. Gibbons (1998) termed this phenomenon the ‘Mode 2’ type of research.   
Earlier research conducted by IIEP on the management of university–industry linkages (Hernes and Martin, 2001) concluded that governmental action, as well as existing legal frameworks, are important factors conditioning the development of university– enterprise partnerships. This result is in line with a change in the perception of the role of governments in supporting academia–industry partnerships. This new role has been encapsulated by science policy researchers under theoretical frameworks such as the ‘triangle of university–industry–government relations’ (Sabato and Botana, 1968), the ‘national systems of innovation’ (Freeman, 1987; Lundvall, 1993; Nelson, 1993; OECD, 1999; 2002), or more recently as the ‘Triple Helix of university–industry–government relations’ (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1996, 1997; Leydesdorff and Meyer, 2006).Sabato and Botana (1968: 125) see the government in developing countries as the main actor responsible for ‘implementing a science policy connecting the scientific and industrial infrastructures’.   
In addition to the innovation systems approach, the ‘Triple Helix of university–industry–government’ metaphor was introduced by Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (1996; 1997). These authors see academia–industry– government relations as an interwoven network of relationships among the three factors that influence each other. Rather than a static mapping of linkages, the Triple Helix model recognizes that the respective roles of the different actors change over time, and that correspondingly this dynamic provokes changes in the internal configuration of each actor. Both national and regional governments play an important role in the national system of innovation and in the knowledge economy, as the coordinating actors within the Triple Helix.   
The Triple Helix model anticipates a synergistic process of scientific achievement and accelerated innovation across the different actors through collaboration. Although scholars are finding other metrics to capture this progress (Leydesdorff and Meyer, 2006), there are still many questions about the potential for these collaborations to leverage gains in innovation and scientific development, and the processes required to enable Triple Helix structures and dynamics.   
The Triple Helix thesis emerged from a confluence between Etzkowitz’ longer-term interest in the study of university- industry relations (e.g., Etzkowitz, 2002) and Leydesdorff interest in an evolutionary model that can generate a next-order hyper-cycle—or in terms of the T-H model, an overlay of communications (cf. Leydesdorff, 1995).Science and technology have become important to development of emerging economies across all the regions of the world (Braczyk et al., 1998). In this situation the Triple-Helix (T-H) Model has been able to represent dynamic evolution of the roles of the three communities, namely, academia, industries and government.   
The importance of external sources to carry out research and innovation has been highlighted by many authors, going back to the contributions of Schumpeter (1934). Cutting-edge R&D activities require an ever-growing amount and range of resources and capabilities. Moreover, other authors have argued that the need to collaborate is now met with a wide availability of highly skilled people and companies, making it possible to pursue collaboration with external organizations (Chesbrough, 2003; Chesbrough, Vanhaverbeke, and West, 2006). To borrow from Chesbrough and colleagues, the model for research and innovation at an economy level is becoming more ‘open’. This suggests that actors within these changing systems of innovation must develop the capabilities and strategic vision to collaborate.   
The interaction of academia, public research, and industry takes place in an economic and policy environment that, as this study will show, impacts on the collaboration, from both a capability and an opportunity point of view. The economic environment relates to the overall structure of the economy in terms of value added by the economic sector, the average size of enterprises, their export orientation, the degree of foreign investment, and, last but not least, the existence of capital markets with venture capitalists.   
The policy environment partially relates to government’s capacity to stimulate academia–industry linkages, which is precisely the objective of this study, but it also includes broader policy frameworks such as science and technology policies, policies for the development of higher education, and economic and employment policies. Among these, fiscal policies may play an important role since they may set incentives for academia and industry to collaborate.   
Until recently in most industrialized Western countries, academia and industry were seen as forming separate institutional spheres, with strong borders separating them. The role of the state was conceptually limited to addressing problems that could be defined as market failures, with solutions that the private sector could not or would not support.In recent decades, many Western industrialized countries seem to be experimenting with a more active role of the state as a catalyst for academia–industry partnerships, due to their potential to contribute to national competitiveness (Laursen and Salter, 2004). In this context, the three actors function in overlapping institutional spheres. Each actor can assume parts of the role of the other, and hybrid organizations emerge at the interfaces.   
In one form or another, most Western industrialized countries and many emerging economies are today introducing new measures, such as targeted science and technology policies. They are also establishing enabling legislative frameworks to secure conditions conducive to innovation. In addition, they are introducing policies, programmes, and incentives intended to directly foster academia– industry relations in both the research and training domains. These policies and programmes aim at removing specific barriers to innovation and increasing synergies between public and private investment in innovation. In particular, they establish new types of support structures and incentives that concern higher education institutions, research institutes, and enterprises, often simultaneously. Such policies, programmes and incentive measures have four potential aims: creating incentives for joint academia–industry R&D activities; supporting the development of new technology-based firms or spin-offs; creating a climate and structures for innovation; and, creating enabling framework conditions for sustainable academia– industry partnerships.

**63**

**University Finances: An exploratory study of a Central University**

**Author** : Nooria Rehman

**Affiliation** : JNU

**Keywords** : Higher Education

Financing

University Finances

**Introduction**:  
The higher education systems especially universities throughout the world are in transition. ‘Hollowing up of publics’ is becoming reality and consequently there is an increasing trend of budgets cuts, pressures of efficiency, introduction of evaluation systems with performance indicators so on and so forth. This has led to the crisis like situation especially in the developing countries, both because the harsh fiscal adjustment and inability of the developing country to contain pressure from enrollment expansion (World Bank, 1994).  
Therefore, keeping the overarching state of affairs in background the present paper will attempt to understand how the pattern of income and expenditure in a central university is undergoing a change? How the university negotiate with the challenges of development and expansion of the university in the face of the resource constraint? Rising enrollment pressure, declining per capita expenditure on students and diminishing financial resources in the country has led to the dire need of managing and utilising the resources in a more efficient manner. Government is advocating cut in the financial assistance and stressing on income generation through non-governmental sources. The fee charged is phenomenally low and is not forming a significant proportion of the total income. In the wake of these constraints a central university is also struggling with problems of managing the resources efficiently.   
Financing of universities have been studied with reference to specific state universities (Jha 1974; Mathew, 1974; Mukherji, 1974; Nigam, 1974; Nanjundappa, 1975; Panchamukhi, 1977). Other studies on financing of universities have undertaken a comparative analysis of two or more universities where they analysed the pattern of financing of central , deemed to be and state universities (AIU, 1978,1982; Singh and Sharma, 1981; Tilak,1977,1988,1993; Qamar, 1996; Ansari,1997; Azad, 1975,1983,1989,1999,2008). The study of specific universities was conducted way back in 1970’s and the present studies are comparing the structure and finances of a many universities. The present study looks into a Central university and explores the pattern of finances in the backdrop of massification of student enrolments, rising expenditure and depleting resources. The change in the policy and perspective has led to change in the dynamics of the problems encountered in managing the university finances. Thus an empirical analysis pattern of finances with special reference to Aligarh Muslim University (AMU) is undertaken. The university being publicly funded, how their institutional mechanism is undergoing a change as a result of inadequacy of resources and how is the university coping with such challenges.   
Theoretical framework   
Educational institution is unlike firms because its objective function is not profit maximisation . This implies that the framework of University is unlike any economic organisation, and it aims to realise its objectives rather than profits.   
As the site of analysis of the present study is University, it is constantly faced with the dilemma of how to make the best use of their existing resources. In order to cope with the challenge of utilising the resources within the institution, there is a need to strengthen the internal governance and management of resources within the university. This entails the understanding of the concept of efficiency in the University. Though it is well understood that the applicability of the efficiency as a concept is not tenable in education, however, to understand the phenomenon of utilisation of resources in the present context analogies are drawn from conventional economic theories. The study looks into the funding pattern of the University in terms of sources and utilisation of funds and is guided by input-output model. The input and output of the University is as follows:   
Q= f (inputs: students, teachers and infrastructure, maintenance and augmentation)   
Q = total output of the university: graduates, research output   
Resource allocation in the university is guided by the framework borrowed from Winston (1999), but the equations are modified as per the requirement of the study. Since the profit maximisation principle is not applied to the non-profits organisations, Hansmann (1980) differentiates the revenue for non profits into two parts. One is ‘donative nonprofits’ which can be referred to as charitable donations and other ‘commercial nonprofits’ which are generated through sale of goods or services. Universities and institutions of higher learning generate resources from both types of revenues. They are offered charitable contributions and generate some commercial revenue through sale of services, and so are called ‘donative–commercial non profits’. For a university dependent heavily on public funding, expenditure incurred on maintenance and development are primarily constrained by sources of funds.   
Findings of the study   
AMU being a Central University, major grants flows from the government in the form of maintenance grants and development grants. Maintenance grants are extended in order to meet recurring expenditure which forms approximately more than 94 percent of the total grants. Exponential growth analysis shows maintenance grants have declined from 31 percent growth rate in 2008-09 to 20 percent in 2013-14 (base year 2007-08) and in real terms it has declined from 20 percent to 12 percent. In 2011-12, the real exponential growth rate also declined to 8 percent. The decline in the maintenance grants in nominal and real terms seeks to explain the phenomenon of decline in the resources by the government to the university. Development grants are extended in favour of creation and innovation of assets. Development grants allocated in the plan period (11th Plan) forms only 9.33 percent of the total required planned grants by the University. This depicts the downsizing of grants faced by a university amidst rising enrolments and increasing expenditure.   
The sources of income generated within the university in the form of academic receipts and other internal income forms insignificant proportion of the total income. Brief analysis of components shows amount collected from admission test fee forms the major fraction of the total academic receipts varying from 40 to 50 per cent approximately in seven years. In 2011-12, it formed almost 50 percent of the total fee recovered from the students. This illustrates the rising demand for the courses in the university. It is evident from the analysis that admission fee has observed a spontaneous rise in 2009-10 and 2013-14 because of increase in the fee by the University. Tuition fee and examination fee has also observed a fluctuating trend. In the recent years university has practiced upward fee revision with the view to rationalise the fee structure, however still the fee income forms meagre proportion of the total income. Donations and endowments also form an important source of income in AMU.   
With regard to the expenditure it is apparent from the literature and the analysis that major share of expenditure is made in favour of paying off the salary bills of the staff members and tariff charges especially electricity bills, followed by the other expenditures.   
Analysis of non-salary components depicts a very gloomy state of affairs of AMU finances. As a result of squeezing of funds the university is cutting down its expenses severely on academic expenses, repair and maintenance, administrative expenses. Academic expenses in the form of scholarships and fellowships, teaching aid and material and other research activities hardly form 2-4 percent of the total expenditure. Repair and maintenance forms 1-2 percent followed by general and administrative expenses which are meager in proportion. In all recurring expenditure on non-salary components forms almost 5-6 percent of the total recurring expenditure. This shows expenditure incurred on students and related activities forms insignificant proportion.   
In brief, composition of expenditure and pattern of distribution of resources provides information about the structure of the university finances. In order to obtain nuanced picture of the components of recurring expenditure, the values are deflated by using the GDP deflator. The evidence clearly indicates that the recurring expenditure has witnessed an unprecedented growth in nominal terms. However the real expenditure depicts the gloomy state of University finances. In real terms the expenditure is increasing but not with the pace of rising enrollments and other activities in the university. Unit cost is also estimated to overview the trend of expenditure incurred per student. It is observed from the analysis that expenditure per student in real terms is more or less stagnant. In 2013-14 the expenditure per student has increased drastically. Unit cost has been calculated in order to gauge cost efficiency and effectiveness. However the scope of the unit cost as a measure of efficiency is limited, as it is not tenable to conclude that university is efficient or not on the basis of estimation of unit cost. In education institution, where most of the expenditure is incurred on the human beings, the scope of reducing the cost is limited. Thus, in the education system reduction in cost does not signify efficiency (unless there is any major technology change in the system). Thus the paper attempts to shed light on the crucial aspects of fund allocation in a university.

**64**

**“Private Sector Participation in School Education: New Partnerships and its Challenges”**

**Author :** Har Simrat Kaur

**Affiliation :** Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords :** education public-private partnerships

efficiency

effectiveness

**Introduction:**

The nature and role of government provisioning and financing of services has been changing post the economic reforms initiated in early 1990s. This marked an important factor in driving private sector’s role and growth in school education. As a result, the private sector now accounts for 37% of the total enrolment and 22% of all schools at the elementary level, despite the simultaneous implementation of policies for expanding state initiatives in elementary education over the same period. However, over the last few years, there have also been rapid changes with respect to private participation and financing in school education. This is attributed to wider changes in the ideological and conceptual landscape of policymaking through the introduction of neoliberalism in the education sector.

Specifically, in the Indian context, the hegemony of neoliberal framework started with the adoption of practices required to fulfill international obligations posed by loan conditionalities. Also, due to the simultaneous pressure from the international development agencies arguing that developing countries should resolve to private sector participation for achieving education for all objectives. Interestingly, these commitments required achieving different outcomes but their broad practices and modules remains same. It lead to the implementation of education policies that restricted public spending, invoking notions of choice and competition through opening up of private schools.

These policies, however, did provide relief to government by achieving some of the targets but expansion of heterogeneous variety of private schooling raised serious equity concerns. Moreover, challenges persisting to the quality of learning in schools were brought forth and various facets of the school came under public scrutiny. These included focus on learning outcomes attributable to teacher attendance and activity in the classroom, were seen to led to greater accountability as well, structures of labour hierarchies within institutions and issues relating to physical infrastructure. In light of such observations, the evidences were

eventually utilised to reflect superior performance of private schools in comparison government schools in terms of cost-efficiency and cost-effectiveness.

These concerns for quality of education imparted in public schools are further multiplied with the state’s inappropriate public spending on education and evidences in support of private sector efficiency and effectiveness. This has spurred the discussions in international policy discourses on expanding the role of private sector through mode of “partnerships” and particularly public-private partnerships. Following the global trend for increasing private sector participation in education, policy makers in India are also now increasingly promulgating the public-private partnerships for addressing concerns relating to public service delivery. This is evident from the number of recent publications by the government starting from the 10th five-year plan on securing corporate sector participation including in public-private partnerships in school education.

This backdrop brings us to the central theme of the paper of public-private partnerships in school education, which has now become an apparent policymaking tool, for improving efficiency and quality in public education delivery. Partnerships in school education have existed earlier also in the form of government aided school system and state also partnered with non-government organisations, non-formal institutions to reach masses, ensuring accountability and community participation in schools. However, new public-private partnerships that are sought in the recent policy documents are theoretically and procedurally different from the earlier forms of partnerships.

These new forms are overwhelmingly based on the general belief that public-private partnerships are mostly efficient and effective in education delivery. However, there is plausibility of theoretical understanding alongside premature empirical claims regarding their efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore, given the uncritical theoretical acceptance of private sector participation in public-private partnerships warranted us to undertake this study to deepen the theoretical logics governing applicability of such concepts in education. Thus, the prime objective of the study is to develop a theoretical understanding of the assertions for improving efficiency and effectiveness of public education delivery through public-private partnerships because of private sector involvement. This paper is deeply concerned with the

mechanisms in which private sector resort to achieve efficiency with the changing sources of revenue in particular public-private partnerships model. Given this objective, paper also highlights the concerns that crop up with the objective of achieving efficiency, which has direct implications on the access and quality of education due to the operation of the private sector. This paper argues that the country, which is increasingly propagating public-private partnership investments in school education, based on the idea of private sector proficiency may not be advantageous due to theoretically not tenable assumptions.

Since, current partnerships envisaged in school education are implemented through the schema of “models” or “modes”. Thus, paper also identifies public-private partnership models laid in the policy documents for reforming the public education system. In this, each model provides a different mechanism in which public and private sector share its role vis-à-vis the provisioning and financing of services for education delivery. Within this, paper proffers different operational forms prevalent in varied education services (like IT, stationary, security, etc.) through such modes. The association of the public and the private sector role in the implementation of public-private partnership models and its implications for achieving efficiency are an integral part of the study. Therefore, the research questions have been formulated in order to get an understanding about the concepts for the paper i.e. private, partnerships, efficiency, quality, etc. in relation to each other.

An indispensible part that gives the motivation for analysing public-private partnerships that comes from the literature on public-private partnerships. Much of literature on this is being funded by international development agencies fails to provide theoretical legitimacy to the advantageous of efficiency and effectiveness in partnerships in education. Moreover, the results confirming public-private partnerships implemented in one country hold general applicability to all sectors and across north south divide. There is broad acceptance to such claims, as it is tough to comprehend, since education is fundamentally based on the principles of social justice giving it a unique character. Theoretically, the advent of partnerships for reforming service delivery comes from the work of new institutional economics of transaction costs, which evaluates the relative cost of governance structures. It argues partnerships as a distinct form of organisational structure for delivering programs by

minimising transaction costs which ultimately requires excessive attention on governance approach focusing on efficiency and effectiveness.

Therefore, for the prime objective for understanding the theoretical underpinnings behind the belief that public-private partnership are unanimously efficient and effective. This paper as part of the method deploys the application of theoretical framework from the economics of education for understanding the implications of partnerships in education based on these claims. It is argued that due to the absence of appropriate input-output framework in education concepts such as deployed in commodity sector remains elusive to education.

Furthermore, Tilak1 (2010) warns of the changing pattern between government and private in terms of ownership and management of new forms of public-private partnerships in school education in India, ultimately provides more freedom to the private sector to dictate its terms on all the matters of school functioning. The issues argued in these points out directly to the form of partnership and overarching goals of education within which private sector needs to achieve the efficiency and effectiveness in the service delivery. Integral to this study, which are generally ignored are the regulatory frameworks governing education delivery in the country. Since, India abdicates profit maximisation in education, the resolute of partnerships to achieve objectives of efficiency and effectiveness by private sector connotes interesting dimension to the implication for education delivery. Additionally, few empirical works on partnerships provide an account of terms of engagement among partners, which are necessary for realising claims relating to the efficiency and effectiveness.

This gives the motivation for exploring the terms of engagement among partners in current public-private partnerships models. In this particular attention would be given, as due to the restrictions on earning profits, the way efficiency will be achieved by private sector would overtly impact educational objectives. This paper will utilise Winston’s financial balance equation (19992) to a partnership mode of school adoption scheme implemented in India to



1. **Tilak, J.B.G. (2010). Public-private Partnership in education. *The Hindu, Opinion*. May 25, 2010. India.**
2. **Winston, Gordon C. (1999). Subsidies, Hierarchy and Peers: The Awkward Economics of Higher Education. *The Journal of Economics Perspectives*. Vol. 13 No.1. Pp. 13-36.**

gauge the possibilities through which private sector would ensure efficiency and its implications for education delivery in the absence of profit maximisation.

Finally, empirical studies done on the public-private partnerships in education would be reviewed. The review of studies would help to corroborate the claims, which are explained through the understanding of the theoretical frameworks and implications of public-private partnerships. It will also explain the necessity of linking the claims of efficiency and effectiveness with the other goals of education.

Therefore, given the swift application of public-private partnership models in education. This paper endeavours to map out the applicability of economic concepts in education on the basis of which private sector is sought to address the concerns governing public service delivery. It comprehends the implications of private sector participation seeking to be efficient and effective in the sector in which profit maximisation is not allowed. Since education is a service where the opportunity cost of leaving any objective unfulfilled is so high therefore, this paper argues critical examination of the nature of participation of private sector in new partnerships and evaluating its implications on educational objectives including those relating to efficiency and effectiveness of delivery.

**65**

**Exploring Caste and Gender Inequalities: A Study of the Sikh Kanya Mahavidyalaya in Ferozepur, Punjab**

**Author** : Tripti Bassi

**Affiliation** : Lady Shri Ram College for Women

**Keywords** : Caste

Gender

School system

Caste, through its manifestation, influences reproduction of unequal gender relations in the society (Rao 2003). The ideal of equality inherent in our ideas and aspirations remains distant from the harsh realities of life. Caste, class and gender remain widespread and intermingle creating a complex frame in our society. The permeable fabric of education permits easy diffusion of disparities. How do these factors impact the process of achieving aims/goals of education? Often, they interrupt the access of education by all. Main challenge then is to enable everybody to reach the portals of education without getting eliminated. Schooling serves as an important medium to gain education.   
  
In Punjab, on the Indo-Pakistan international border, is Ferozepur. Closed border with Pakistan insulated it affecting both economy and society. The city of Kasur (Pakistan), with many leather tanneries, pollutes the Satluj tributary flowing into Ferozepur thereby increasing toxicity of the ground water. Agriculture is the main occupation of the locales. Most parents of students of the Sikh Kanya Mahavidyalaya were small farmers who ran petty business, like that of dairy products. Those who had sufficient funds allowed daughters to pursue professional courses like B.Ed. or nursing from private institutions that charged exorbitant fees. Still, many were unwilling to let daughters gain higher education in the neighbouring districts, like Moga. Many Ferozepuris felt that the government system could not address their concerns related to education and employment. Since public institutions offering higher education were negligible so opportunities available to girls were limited.   
  
The profile of students and teachers in this school largely varied. Students came from border villages or suburbs while teachers lived in the heart of the city. While teachers were upper class and caste Khatri Punjabi Sikh and Hindus, students were from marginalized class and caste milieu. Most were Kamboj Sikh while some belonged to the valmiki caste. Though almost all contract teachers belonged to Kamboj caste yet the senior upper caste teachers determined attitude towards students. Gendered socialization in this school nurtured girls and boys to perform distinct tasks. Most teachers encouraged segregated seating arrangement and gender-based groupings.   
  
The government school system ensures education for all as part of the universalization of elementary education (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan). Despite efforts like free access to elementary education, free admissions, and liberal policy of extending benefits to the deprived sections of the society through various school schemes and scholarships, the government school system faced numerous challenges. The study of Sikh Kanya Mahavidyalaya revealed important insights related to inequalities in education. In this school, though admissions were free yet overage children were often admitted. Falling student strength was a major setback for the school. The absence of kindergarten classes created a vacuum in the process of transferring early education to the students.   
  
Careful study of the student data across a decade (2000-2010) revealed significant changes in the profile of students. Instead of more students from the general category in initial years those from the scheduled caste and OBC increased. Among scheduled caste girls, an interesting trend was noticed. In the higher realms of schooling, their participation across years reduced. During interviews, some students shared that the scheduled caste families discouraged daughters’ education beyond the elementary stage. Student achievement at the higher secondary stage for over a decade revealed average performance across subjects. It was particularly low in Mathematics and Social Studies. In such a scenario, students during discussions revealed that private tuitions were held as panacea of all problems. Most teachers expected them to undertake these to improve performance.   
  
Education and economy are inherently linked as discussed vividly in the study by Bowles and Gintis (1976). This ‘correspondence principle’ implies that changes in the economy directly impact our education system. With onset of the new economic policy focusing on liberalization, privatization and globalization, the state expenditure on social sector, including education, witnessed downfall. It directly impacted the school system and the teaching-learning process since disbursement of teacher salaries and for student schemes was delayed. The government-aided schools were the worst sufferers.   
  
Social inequality manifests through the schooling system. Private English-medium schools multiply like mushrooms in every nook and corner of the Ferozepur city. Importance of English language led parents to choose those schools that equipped students in acquiring such skills. Only English-medium education was considered to offer good-quality education (vadiya education). Natural tendency was to look down upon indigenous vernacular medium Punjabi schools. Few locales stated that the deteriorating quality of education, lack of committed permanent teachers, plenty of unqualified contract teachers and dearth of adequate infrastructure were some reasons that discouraged parents from enrolling children in the government schools (personal interviews 2010). Many private schools operated in proximity of this school such as Sai Public School, Chopra Public School, Bright Public School, and Dashmesh public school, among others. Like money-minting shops, they charged inflated fees from the students.   
  
Gender dimension plays an important role in determining access to the school. Many social factors restrained them from coming to the school. Parents cited domestic violence or work-related migration as reasons causing delay in admitting wards to the school. Sibling care, household tasks and farming related work constrained girls. Their domestic role at home was even extended to the school. Most girls took complete responsibility of their brothers. Sometimes, even during the school time, they were seen walking into the classrooms of their elder sisters to get their needs addressed. The role of girls as sister was constraining fulfillment of their larger role as learner. Such anomaly was not visible in the case of boys, as girls were expected to turn responsible at an early age and avoid disturbing their brothers engaged in gaining education.   
  
A common trend noticed was that in the same family, daughters were admitted in the government schools while sons were in elite private schools. This clearly shows that girls’ education is still considered ‘consumption luxury’ rather than ‘productive investment’ (Chanana 2001). Expenditure that parents were ready to incur on educating daughters was limited. In order to allow sons to pursue education of their choice, they made provisions by cutting household budget or by selling off some property but daughters’ education mostly was funded by easily available money. Barriers to girls’ education surfaced in many ways. At the senior secondary stage, the government girls’ school offered choice of streams that their daughters were interested in yet its proximity to government boys’ school hindered parents from admitting girls there. This was when, according to retired principal of the school, most people believed that girls were like nikammi gau (worthless cows), translating into something valuable, though education.   
  
How can education nurture rational and secular outlook? If goals of education are to develop scientific, objective and secular outlook, then somewhere surely religious education defies the very aims of education. Religious education was an important component of the school curriculum. All teachers believed that holistic education for girls was incomplete without religious studies. This school was an adopted school of the Satnam Sarab Kalyan trust. Representatives from other religious organizations like Sikh Missionary College, Shiromani Gurudwara Parbandhak Committee, and Guru Gobind Singh Study Circle among others visited this school to interact with the students and instruct them. The school seemed to believe that religious and moral education strengthened character-building process of these girls. Religious girls were considered an asset for the community as they disseminated such learning amongst not only family but also wider community.   
  
The school thus exhibits many peculiar trends and patterns that are symptomatic of the larger discourses in society. The study of microcosm reveals aspects related to the organism referred to as the society. Schools are no longer neutral entities, they are charged with both positive and negative elements radiating uncomfortable social dimensions. Ideologies are at work intrinsically in the school environment. The idea of becoming ‘good daughter’ and ‘good student’ exercises control over other ways of being an individual and a learner. Conservative and traditional expectations neglect those dimensions of the personality of girls that need to be nurtured for the development of individuality. The school as an institution should allow education to be emancipatory and liberating enabling the development of freedom of thought and expression along with a critical outlook. Dissonance between education and schooling is visible whereby schooling somehow resists the ideals of education. Knowledge that is produced also is seldom objective creating consciousness-raising among the girls. Schooling in its role neglects the very purpose of education and the larger aims of knowledge production.   
  
  
**References:**   
  
*Chanana, Karuna (2001) Interrogating Women’s Education: Bounded Visions, Expanding Horizons, Rawat Publications: Jaipur   
  
Kamila Hyat, Toxins from Tanneries endanger Kasur residents, Kasur, 1 May 2007, www.irinnews.org   
  
Rao, Anupama (2003) ‘Caste, Gender and Indian Feminism: Introduction’ in Rao, Anupama (ed.) Gender and Caste, New Delhi: Kali for Women   
  
Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis (1976) Schooling in Capitalist America: Educational Reform and the Contradictions of Economic Life, New York: Basic Books Inc.   
  
Sood, Aman, Polluted by Pak Tanneries, Sutlej Poses Health Hazard, 22 September 2015, www.tribuneindia.com*

**66**

**Hindu Nationalist Imagery and the Visual Pedagogy of Gita Press**

**Author**Ritu Sinha

**Affiliation** : Jawaharlal Nehru University

**Keywords**: Visual culture

Visual Pedagogy

nationalist imagery

god-pictures

Hindu social order

visual communication

image and text

religious press

**Abstract**   
  
Title: Hindu Nationalist Imagery and Visual Pedagogy of Gita Press   
  
Modern world is pervasively mediated by visual culture and constantly engages our worldviews with its dominant assumptions. The production of visuals and its uses for political-social goals explains the pedagogical orientations of the images. The transformative potential of visual culture and its pedagogy opens a new field of inquiry that shaped the complex terrain of visual culture in Indian subcontinent with the coming of print and rise of printing presses. The world of images and its visual pedagogy explains that images influences ways of seeing and thinking and contributes in composing our cultural and historical memory. The subject matter of the nascent visual culture in early and late twentieth century remained almost similar as it focused on constituting the subjectivities of the indigenous masses around the visions of nation and society.   
Several scholarly works on south Asian visual culture have underlined the importance of mass mediated visuals in establishing collective values of cultural and religious types for political and social necessities. The religious pictures mediated through print, photography, films, TV have invoked a cultural memory and have established what Pinney refers as “Indian Hindu scopic regimes” and essentialised the process nationalist imagery. Borrowing heavily from such scholarly works the present paper explores the interrelationships between politics, education and visual culture and delves in the dynamic world of printed visuals to assert that emergence of visual culture in the subcontinent has to owe a great deal to the growing need of newer forms of pedagogy during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. The nationalist visions of society shaped the relevant education and devised fundamental ways of disseminating ‘relevant’ knowledge. The pedagogical experiments therefore encapsulated the visions of society free from foreign rule, a nascent nation and its well- crafted citizens. The task involved educating the literates and non-literates of both mofussil and cities. The paper argues that visuals along with print became one of the crucial pedagogical skills in the hands of nationalists of all variety. Here the focus is on printed images produced and circulated by printing presses highlighting that these presses most efficiently utilized the immense pedagogical potential of printed visuals in training the readers in envisioning the contours of Hindu rashtra or nation.   
Elsewhere, I have argued that small religious presses in north India also acquired the role of pedagogues and treated the masses as pupils during the period of nationalist struggle and also in the early decades followed by independence. These spaces evolved as socializing agency, informally training masses outside the realm of institutionalized pedagogy and in turn assisting to provide solid foundations to formal training. These small publishing houses produced low-priced popular vernacular publications and also journals that reached out to a large section of population that never visited formal educational institutions and also to those who passed out from them. These were purely politically oriented nationalist in nature though they can be categorized as Hindi religious publishing houses. It is crucial to note that these low-prized publications made massive uses of visuals to elaborated on the printed material and popularized definite icons representing their politics. Religion and politics enmeshed in these icons to shape the desired society and became influential pedagogical tools for ideal education for the masses.   
The present paper explores the contribution of one of the leading religious presses of north India- the Gita Press and its famous journal Kalyan. Extending the popular visual culture emerging from eighteenth century in Indian subcontinent, Gita Press in north India, familiarized the masses with cheap mass produced religious printed images and set its tone, vocabulary and politics in the region. The aim is to see the printed images produced by the press as repositories of religion, nationalism, and culture and significantly as a tool of pedagogy to train the masses. From its inception in 1926, Gita press significantly added to Hindu religious philosophical context in the field of art through the production and dissemination of religious printed pictures. Following the legacy of hybridity in discursive field of art emerging in late nineteenth century from Bengal that as anti colonial, acquired a pan-Indian phenomenon, Gita press operated with the distinct ideology of Hindu rashtra and legitimately brought mythological- religious imagery in the popular public domain in the United Provinces. It is crucial to highlight that in its nationalist-religious pedagogy it not only published the religious pictures in its flagship journal Kalyan but also published images explaining their visions of Hindu society and education. With its printed images it not only popularized the symbols and codes of Hindu religion but also envisaged a social moral world constituted by definite political vision. It shaped masculinities femininities and all social relationships and also mediated the ways of interactions between individuals, caste groups and religious communities.   
With an ambition to educate the Hindu masses they published images of ideal woman, child, prescribed practices and rituals besides endless images of Hindu gods and goddesses. The present paper will attempt to discuss the relevance of god pictures but will also explore the other world of printed images in Kalyan that fall outside the realm of god-pictures. These printed images crucially reflect on its visions of society and are crucial marker of its ideological constructions of Bharatvarsha’. Therefore paper attempts to explore the image- text relationship and images as visual texts to understand the iconography of the Press.   
The printed pictures or images involved the participation impersonally as well as emotionally along with the political. Widely fused with the printed world of the words of the twentieth century they powerfully reconstituted and provided thrust to the logic and meaning of the printed words. The text left indelible mark on the newly emergent reading class when theme of the text concretized itself in illustrations or pictures. The emotional linkages of the readers to newly formed literature of the vernacular languages obtained permanence with visual representations of themes, subject and purposes of the vernacular languages. Gandhi in his famous autobiography mentions about reading a play on Shravana Pitrabhakti and the picture of Shravana carrying his parents on a sling fitted to his shoulders for pilgrimage that made him recall the agony of Shravana on the death of his parents and the episode remained fresh in his memory throughout his life. Such examples where visual allowed the reader to recollect the text remains implicit in the growth of Press’s nationalist-religious pedagogy and visual print culture. The cultural knowledge was imparted by the means that appealed to all class, regions and demographic distributions. With such means it created a ‘culture of spectacle and ideological indoctrination’ where a certain kind of visual communication took place resulting into information based entertainment. The audience enjoyed the presence of vibrant bright images of Gods and Goddess and learnt their lessons on religion at the same time.   
Exploring the power of images to convey values attached to them with or without printed words and to invoke the desired glory of the past as they can traverse space and time, the press consciously relied on it for spreading popular Hinduism since its inception. Restricted in the realm of sacredness of indigenous culture primarily based on Hindu religion; these mechanically produced images, as cultural products, altered the ways of ‘seeing’ and endorsed religion as inseparable to economic political reality, making religion quintessential part of public domain. As harbingers of visual politics in north India since early part of the century it widened the fertile terrain of ‘god-pictures’ or religious pictures and utilized its performativity for Hindi- Hindu identity and supremacy. The creation and mobilization of Hindu consciousness by the universe of Hindu social order established by these images surfaced most emphatically in the revivalist period of 1980s.

**67**

**A study to investigate middle school students' conceptions about earths' structure and related phenomenon.**

**Author**:Atima Singh

**Affiliation** : Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Hyderabad

**Keywords** : Alternative Conception

Geography education

Earth sciences

**Introduction**  
  
Within the context of school education, it has been validated through significant number of studies that children often bring ‘naive theories’ or ‘alternative conceptions’ to classrooms. These ‘naive theories’ or ‘alternative conceptions’ are constructed on the basis of prior experiences, in order to understand the world around. This kind of understanding is generally intuitive in nature and inconsistent with currently accepted ‘expert views’ or theories. Researches conducted in different subject domains have argued that ‘alternative conceptions’ are irresistible to change as they are formed by means of episodic knowledge, interpretative frameworks, values and most of the time, empirical knowledge. Therefore, they are complex, context dependent and sometimes contradictory in nature.   
  
Thus, it becomes crucial for educationists to deal with the idea of ‘alternative conception’ for effecting teaching-learning process. Research has consistently found that pedagogy informed by knowledge of students’ existing ideas is more efficient in promoting conceptual change than traditional methods of instruction. Also, according to Shulman (1986) a teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge includes: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to class. In context of India, National Curriculum Framework (2005) also stress that effective learning involves connecting what is known with what is new. In order to make this connection teachers’ awareness of preconception or alternative conceptions is a prerequisite.   
 **Rationale for the study**   
  
In India, Geography education is a significant and compulsory part of school curriculum till class 10. However, not many researches are available on pedagogic orientation of the discipline resulting it into an unexciting, dull and unchallenging subject. Especially with respect to the kind of ideas children construct prior to formal introduction to concepts of Geography and teachers acquaintance with them, minuscule studies have been conducted as opposed to Science and Mathematics. Also, the ways in which teachers use these ideas to facilitate Geography learning among students is an unexplored area.   
  
As discussed in previous section, an understanding of students’ common preconceptions regarding geographical concepts should be a central component of a teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge. As this knowledge is essential for the development of pedagogies that promote conceptual change and better understanding of the domain. For a teacher, facilitating children to let go their alternative/pre- conceptions is equally important as introducing them with new knowledge. This led the basis of this study which has tried to look into the way children understand the ‘geographical concepts’ before and after getting familiar with them formally. nature of conceptions held by children in Geography.   
  
**Methodology**  
  
This qualitative, exploratory study aimed at probing the kind and nature of conceptions children hold with regard to geographical concepts. The insights gathered through this study will build the necessary evidential claims to explore the issues concerned with knowledge of preconceptions of children, particularly in context of Geography.   
  
This study will particularly look at preconceptions related to earth’s internal structure and related phenomenon that is earthquake, volcano and rocks. This particular concept was chosen for four reasons: one, the concept of earth is the first geographical concept introduced at school level; two, the concept of earth and its structure is itself a rich knowledge domain; three, it is one of the primary geographical concepts which is related to children's’ life experiences; and four, the domain itself has undergone several major changes and development historically. These four reasons support the assumption that children must be holding some preconceptions and conceptions which will be significantly different from the present culturally accepted information about earths’ structure.   
  
The idea of the study led to address the following questions:   
What does textbook analysis reveal about the content and organization of concepts in middle school geography textbooks?   
What are the nature of conceptions that get elicited in students’ responses about earth’s internal structure and related phenomenon?   
What kind of rational do students articulate and attribute to their understanding of earth’s internal structure and related phenomenon?   
  
The study is set to reconstruct a body of knowledge pertaining to nature of conceptions in Geography. Hence in its orientation and approach it follows constructivist paradigm. The earth’s conceptions of two hundred and forty students from one government and one private school of Hyderabad are in a process of being diagnosed with the help of a diagnostic questionnaire. 30 of them would be given cognitive tasks and would be encouraged to articulate rationale for their actions during it in coming few days.   
 **Anticipated Analysis**   
  
Previous studies conducted outside the India in similar area and findings till now let the researcher to gauge the analysis. Almost all children start the knowledge acquisition related to earths’ structure assuming that the earth is flat. And later children have huge difficulty in understanding and accepting the fact that it is sphere as the idea is counter-intuitive.   
  
There are high chances that children existing conceptions are the assimilation of their preconceptions and formally taught conceptions. As it is difficult for children to dismiss their theories and conceptions and ‘just’ accept what has been told. As a result they subsume the new knowledge in such a way which does not contradict their prior understanding. For an example, Vosniaadou & Brewer (1992) discussed ‘disc earth’ mental model which conceptualize earth as both flat and round.   
  
The Geography textbooks published by National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) suggest that though Geography is taught as a part of Social Science curriculum, the way concepts have been introduced and organized, maintain the spirit and philosophy of discipline.   
  
  
**Conclusion**   
  
Few studies have shown that unacknowledged alternative conceptions impact the acquisition of further knowledge as the later concepts are interpreted and understood in their light. Therefore, it is necessary to identify and study the nature of conceptions in detail to ground pedagogy in a detailed understanding of students’ existing conceptions. Also, most of the recent educational documents which claim that knowledge acquisition is the result of constructivist activity support the argument of this study.

**68**

**Philosophical Implications in classroom practices: Lessons from Digantar**

**Author :** Risha Borooah

**Affiliation :** Independent research scholar

**Keywords** : Philosophy

curriculum

pedagogy

Digantar

**Introduction:**

This paper would make an attempt to analyse the interconnections between the foundational principles on the basis of which school organizes itself and functions by taking the case of an organization which runs two Alternative schools. Here, foundational principles refer to the philosophical framework that defines the kind of curriculum, pedagogic tools and modes of assessment according to which a school operates. By exploring theoretical basis of Digantar schools located in outskirts of Jaipur, this study would attempt to observe how Digantar’s philosophy is reflected in its curriculum, pedagogical practices and methods of assessment.

Why is it that the Digantar schools call themselves “an alternative model of elementary education”? Is it due to their clearly defined philosophy regarding aims of education that takes into account the conception of a learner, ideas on learning or the kind of environment that is conducive to learning? Or because they have developed an alternate curriculum which takes into account the learner’s context or different methods of teaching that encourage the learner to be an independent critical thinker or modes of assessment that is weaved into classroom pedagogy? What are the mechanisms both within and outside the classrooms that make it different from mainstream schools? Is there any common element in the philosophy, classroom practices and curriculum content of these schools to mainstream schools or are they poles apart? Who are the kids that go and the parents that want their children to go to the Digantar schools? These are some of the questions that this study would attempt to answer.

By exploring noted educationist John Dewey’s ideas on democracy and Education who stated that, “the aim as a foreseen end gives direction to the activity; it is not an idle view of a mere spectator, but influences the steps taken to reach the end”, (Dewey, 2001)an attempt will be made to understand Digantar’s philosophy of education and how it is transacted through their curriculum and the facilitator’s pedagogical practices coupled with their continuous mode of assessment. In case of Digantar, which has a clearly defined philosophy of, “helping the child become an independent and motivated learner, the concern that such a help should be provided to each child and given the nature of human learning process such a programme could be built only upon the child’s existing understanding and skills”, it remains to be seen how the claim of encouraging a child to be motivated, independent learner by providing equal opportunities and an environment which will enable him/her to link to prior knowledge will be actualized in its curriculum, pedagogy and assessment methods.

In addition to this, Michael W. Apple’s concepts about democratic schools would also be studied. “Democratic schools, like democracy itself, do not happen by chance. They result from explicit attempts by educators to put in place arrangement and opportunities that will bring democracy. One is to create democratic structures and processes by which life in school is carried out. The other is to create a curriculum that will give young people democratic experiences.” (Michael W Apple, J. A.,2006) This is in alignment Digantar’s goal to “bring about a commitment to humane, democratic and rational values as well as the capacity to work for their actualization.” Hence while conducting the study an attempt would be made to observe the classroom practices as well as other process within the school which take inculcate the said values.

**Objective:**

To study the philosophy in of Digantar schools and observe its reflection in their curriculum, classroom practices and modes of assessment

**Field of study:**

Digantar Shiksha Evam Khel Khud Samiti located in the outskirts of Jaipur, Rajasthan was set up in 1979 to provide free education especially to girl children from economically backward areas in an environment free from compulsion. Currently, Digantar has two schools, the one Ratwali till primary level and the second one in Bhav Gadh Bandhya had children till higher secondary level but due to financial crunches the middle school had to be shut down.

A combination of factors, namely, a unique curriculum coupled with innovative pedagogy, absence of examinations, inculcation of democratic spirit at an early age within the children and continuous interaction with the parents has lent a distinctive air to its functioning. At its inception, its founders Rohit Dhankar and Reena Das had constructed a highly contextualised curriculum; they created teaching learning materials including text-books, work-books, work-sheets and activity books for both children and teachers which are regularly updated. During classroom transactions, these innovative learning materials are weaved in with rich pedagogical inputs like story-telling, singing songs with actions, enacting in self-composed plays, role-plays, dancing to the beats of dholak and harmonium, painting, drawing, craft-work to help children in the process of knowledge construction. In terms of assessment, it has a strict no examination policy. Assessment is inbuilt in classroom pedagogy, children are assessed daily on their work through multiple parameters developed by the facilitators who regularly documents their progress. Digantar puts a lot of emphasis on teacher autonomy due to which it has a clearly defined programme of teacher professional development. Hemantji, its present co-ordinator remarked, “All of us went through a comprehensive training for six months where we read and discussed theoretical basis of education alongwith school observations to gain practical understanding of the inter-linkages between curriculum, pedagogy and assessment procedure.”

As an institution, Digantar has developed specific structures to inculcate democratic ethos of equality, freedom and justice within children by encouraging accountability, a spirit of questioning and participation in the schools’ affairs. This is evident in the egalitarian, non-hierarchical relationship shared between children and facilitators and their involvement in the daily processes of cleaning its premises, preparing notice-board as well as participation in the weekly Bal Panchayat. The Bal Panchayat, consisting of elected representatives, with teachers and students having an equal say, presides over the student body meetings to discuss and find solutions of school problems in a collective manner. Also, the children have developed their own mechanisms of self-discipline, every class or samuh as they call themselves, comprising children of roughly similar learning level rather than age, construct a set of rules to enable its smooth functioning. The classroom seating arrangement is egalitarian, everyone including the facilitator sits in a circle to enthusiastically engage in activities and discussions to explore, examine and create their belief system, develop an understanding of a particular concept and construct their own knowledge by taking into account their prior experiences.

**Methodology:**

This study has been carried out in three phases. In the first phase, school observation was carried out to understand their perspectives on education, the second phase consisted of carrying out a literature review of their literature produced by them and on them while the third phase consisted of classroom observations, teacher interviews and community visits to conduct interviews with passed out students and their parents.

The first phase centred around school observations and informal interactions with teachers and students to gain an overall understanding about the functioning of the schools, processes and mechanisms that inculcate democratic spirit within children, their unique curriculum coupled with innovative pedagogical practices as well as distinct methods of assessment.

In the second phase consisting of literature review, all the literature developed by Digantar, from their text-books, teacher’s activity books and curriculum to Annual Reports, Report on Impact study was studied to gain an understanding on the curriculum and history of the organisation. In addition to this, literature on Digantar by different writers was also reviewed.

The third phase consisted of a second round of school visit to conduct observations and interviews through semi structured interview schedule with Teachers to understand their beliefs. Community visits were carried out to conduct interviews with pass out students and parents.

**Time-line of Study:**

**Outcome of the study:**

1. Detailed analysis of the school observation, literature review, teacher, student and parents interviews on the basis of the philosophical framework
2. School observation Report
3. Case studies of children who have learnt or are learning and teachers who are teaching in Digantar schools
4. Audio interviews of teachers and students transcripted to written ones.

In addition to the above, it would also have the following outcomes:

* Compilation of literature on Digantar and the literature generative by Digantar
* Creation of a repository of their school practices in terms of video, audio and written documentation to understand the process of teaching and learning

**References**

(Dewey, Democracy and Education, 1916) (Digantar) (Shardha ain) Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education.* Macmillian.

Dewey, J. (2001). *The School and Society.* New York: Dover Publication. Digantar. (n.d.). Digantar, The Philosophy.

Michael W Apple, J. A. (2006). *Democratic Schools.* Bhopal: Ekalavya Publishers.

Shardha Jain, A. M. (n.d.). Digantar:Concepts in Practice.

**69**

**A Meta-Analysis of Shadow Education: Determinants, Impact on Student Achievement and Implication for Equality**

**Author**:Arundhati Roy

**Affiliation** : Tata Institute of Social Sciences

**Keywords** : Shadow Education

Private tuition

Inequality

Student achievement

Meta-analysis.

Private tuition also called as private coaching or after-school supplementary classes, is globally referred as shadow education, since it mimics the mainstream (Bray and Lykins, 2012). It has been practiced much before the initiation of formal schooling. With ‘education revolution’ over the past 60 years, it developed an organisational form with greater complexities in its type, purpose, duration and organisation (Mori and Baker 2010). Though importance of education in economic growth literature has been studied since 1960s and researchers did touch on shadow education, it was not until the beginning of 21st century that literature saw a huge surge of interest in this area, for various reasons. Common perils of shadow education are its tendency to adversely impact mainstream schooling and society. Existence of ‘outside agencies’ or tutors may give an alibi to mainstream teachers to not work hard in schools (Bray, 2003). On the other hand mainstream teachers may deliberately shirk in class to create a niche of private tuition (Biswal, 1999). Often vested interest of such tutors coupled with the hidden nature of the market makes reform of education systems difficult. Eradication of huge dependencies of students on the shadow market, overtime, hence become difficult. Shadow education which has thrived well on the culture of exam-oriented education (Stevenson and Baker, 1992), now promotes the same, more intensely, leading to a vicious circle, alienating education from its higher ideals. It thus, as often argued, “distorts the overall curriculum that has been designed with careful balance by specialists” (Bray, 2003). Researchers have tried to understand this new field from all possible perspectives like its scale, nature and history.   
  
  
***About the study:***   
This paper would address three distinct research questions: (a) What variables have emerged as significant determinants of shadow education? (b) Whether there has been significant improvement in academic achievement of students participating in private tuition? (c) Whether it promotes inequality?   
  
**Methodology:**   
Meta-analysis is a reliable method to summarise, evaluate and analyse existing literature (Stanley, 2001). Unlike a literature review, it gives an opportunity to evaluate the results emerging from the literature. Given the unprecedented emphasis on evidence based policy-making, this paper uses meta-analysis to evaluate the questions under consideration. Papers which are empirical in nature are selected for the analysis from the journals of literature of Education, Psychology, Economics and Sociology. The literature has been selected in two rounds. First round focuses on various dimensions of shadow education. From these selected literature, 65 papers have been shortlisted which address three research questions. The keywords used to shortlist the papers are ‘Shadow Education’, ‘Private Tuition’, ‘Coaching’, ‘After school supplementary education’, ‘Determinants of Shadow Education’, ‘Impact of shadow education’ and ‘Shadow Education and inequality’. The time period covered is from 1991 to 2014 and includes studies on shadow education from different countries like Japan (Harnish, 1994), Vietnam (Dang, 2007), Korea (Baker et al., 2001; Ban et al., 2005), Hong Kong (Bray and Kwok, 2003; ), India (Majumdar, 2014), Sri Lanka (De Silva, 1994), Canada (Davies, 2004).   
  
***Rationale of the study:***   
There is a serious concern with respect to inequality in educational opportunity and shadow education. Not all families can afford the additional expenditure. Shadow education - a ‘positional good’ (Bray and Lykins, 2012) - encourages strong demonstration effect. Which also means those who cannot follow-suit, are actually the disadvantaged and this explains how shadow education by its very nature promotes inequality of educational opportunity. This further promotes inequality in terms of academic achievement which is not resulting from innate abilities and perseverance of students but from economic disparity. It is therefore important to analyze the findings from the literature on whether shadow education has promoted inequalities across countries or does it also have the potential to narrow the gap of academic achievement between the ‘haves’ and the ‘have-nots’.   
Having discussed how prevalence of shadow education is a threat to equality, it is important to look for the reasons or determinants for its existence. Understanding the factors determining the demand for shadow education is important for policy implications. The common reasons mentioned – as a passing note in the literature – for participating in shadow education are, to score more or/and pass in examination and to compensate for poor classroom teaching. However literature discusses more of the micro factors like students' socio-economic characteristics and parental education level. Systematic analysis of determinants of shadow education can explain how differentiated demand arises, on which the industry of shadow education sustains itself. It can help to explain which students tend to attend shadow education more. For instance are they from rich or poor families, higher grades or lower grades etc. In short, analysis of the determinants of shadow education helps to understand source of differentiated demand and could help to undertake better policy decisions either to curb or regulate the shadow market.   
Proponents of shadow education have argued that since differentiated demand for education is addressed by this market, it provides an additional opportunity for education. These markets open up a scope for students to have a better understanding of the subject matter after the school hours which helps to raise their achievement levels. It serves the purpose of either remedial – where the objective is to assist the low performing students and make them at par with the performance of others – or enhancement – ensuring students surpass their current level of achievements (Bray, 1999). Systematic analysis of literature can be helpful in analysing how far shadow education market has stood upto the expectations of its proponents or is it a waste of time, money and resources? It's impact on mathematics and language test scores are widely studied but nothing significant emerges out of it. If the shadow education has failed to be effective then it not only proves to be additional economic burden for families but also leaving students with no after-school time for co-curricular and other additional activities which are also a part of holistic educational development.   
**Research and policy implication:**   
Though a lot of research has been undertaken in this field, a lot more needs to be done, subtlety of the market being a major challenge. The following areas can be addressed by research in the future.   
Determinants of shadow education can be extended to supply side analysis and macro level factors in particular. Impact analysis of shadow education can also surpass the academic scores to include students’ confidence and motivation. Questions like, whether there is any difference in impact, when undertaken as a remedial class as opposed to when undertaken for enhancement of academic achievement, can also be addressed. As a policy matter it is worth considering whether shadow education necessarily needs to be curbed or regulated. In other words, can it ever complement the mainstream education? And if yes, then in what manner?   
  
***References:***   
*Baker, D. P., Akiba, M., LeTendre, G. K., & Wiseman, A. W. (2001). Worldwide shadow education: outside-school learning, institutional quality of schooling, and cross-national mathematics achievement. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 23(1), 1–17.   
Ban, S., Jung, S. and Yang, S. (2005). Analyzing the Effect of Private Tutoring on Academic Achievements. Paper presented at the first Korean Education and Employment Panel conference, Seoul, Korea.   
Biswal, B. P. (1999). Private tutoring and public corruption: A cost-effective education system for developing countries. The Developing Economies 37(2), 222-240.   
Bray, M. (1999). The Shadow Education System: Private Tutoring and its Implications for Planners. Fundamentals of Educational Planning 61, Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP).   
Bray, M. (2003). Adverse impacts of private supplementary tutoring. Paris: UNESCO.   
Bray, M., & Kwok, P. (2003). Demand for private supplementary tutoring: Conceptual considerations, and socio-economic patterns in Hong Kong. Economics of Education Review, 22, 611–620.   
Bray, M., & Lykins, C. (2012). Shadow education: Private supplementary tutoring and its implications for policy makers in Asia. Manila: Asian Development Bank, and Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, The University of Hong Kong.   
De Silva, W. B. (1994). The Present Status of Private Tutoring in Sri Lanka. Economic Review.   
Davies, S. (2004). School choice by default? Understanding the demand for private tutoring in Canada. American Journal of Education. 110, 233-255.   
Dang, H. (2007). The determinants and impact of private tutoring classes in Vietnam. Economics of Education Review, 26, 684–699.   
  
Harnisch, D. L. (1994). Supplemental Education in Japan: Juku Schooling and Its Implication. Journal of Curriculum Studies 26 (3), 323-334.   
Majumdar, M. (2014). The Shadow School System and New Class Divisions in India. Working Paper Series, TRG Poverty & Education, Max Weber Stiftung.   
  
Mori, I., & Baker, D. (2010). The Origin of Universal shadow Education: What the supplemental education phenomenon tells us about the post-modern institution of education. Asia Paciﬁc Education Review, 11, 36-48.   
Stanley, T.D. (2001). Wheat from chaff: Meta-analysis as quantitative literature review. Journal of Economic Perspectives 15, 131-50   
  
Stevenson, D. L., & Baker, D. P. (1992). Shadow education and allocation in formal schooling: transition to university in Japan. American Journal of Sociology, 97(6), 1639–1657.*

**70**

**What if science and mathematics education was based on historical dialectical materialism?**

**Author**: Rossi D'Souza

**Affiliation** : Bhabha Centre for Science Education

Tata Institute of Fundamental Research

VN Purav Marg, Mankhurd

Mumbai 400088 India

**Keywords** : mathematics education

science education

historical dialectical materialism

idealism

ideology

**Introduction :**

In the film, “Everyone For Themselves And God Against All” by Werner Herzog. there is a Professor who asks the protagonist, Kaspar, to pretend that there is a village in which all the people only tell the truth. and another village in which people only tell lies. He asks Kaspar how he could know which of these two villages a man comes from by asking the man just one question. Without pausing, the Professor gave the the question which answers this problem of logic:

“‘If you came from the other village would you answer no if I were to ask you whether you came from the liars' village?’ By means of a double negative, the liar is forced to tell the truth. This construction forces him to reveal his identity, you see. That's what I call logic via argument to the truth!”

Although the Professor insisted that this is the only possible question which could solve the problem, Kaspar had another answer - he said that he would ask the man whether he was a tree-frog, and from his answer it would be clear whether he was lying or not. But the Professor replied:

“No, that's not a proper question. That won't do, I can't accept it as a question. That's not logic. Logic is deduction, not description. What you've done is describe something, not deduce it.”

A woman who was also sitting at the table said: “But I understood his question.” But the Professor said:

“Understanding is secondary. The reasoning is the thing. In logic and mathematics, we do not understand things... We reason and deduce. I cannot accept that question.”

This dialogue provides us with an example in which a common belief about the nature of mathematics is highlighted. In mathematics what is right and what is wrong is generally considered as being just a matter of logic. Mathematics is not concerned about understanding physical reality (things or matter). It is a form of idealism, by which we mean that ideas, reasoning, and logic are basic, and can exist independently of physical reality.

But in this paper we will question this conception of the nature of mathematics. Rather, we ask if mathematics is really so different from science. In the above dialogue, the reason that the Professor did not accept Kaspar’s question about the tree-frog, is that the way someone would know whether the man was a tree-frog depended on observing physical reality, not just on logical deduction. Perhaps it is more science than mathematics. The Professor did not not consider observation of physical reality to be connected to mathematics. Thus, while mathematics could be considered as idealist, clearly, science is based on observing physical reality. Thus, it must be materialistic. In science, the truth of an idea, statement, theory, or explanation can be ascertained through direct or indirect observations of physical reality - and the logic may be probabilistic, inductive, and very difficult to prove (not that the logic of mathematics is always very simple).

However, we wonder whether mathematics needs to be considered to be so different from science. Can mathematics and mathematics education also be materialist in some sense? Or rather, Is mathematics really idealist? Are the mathematical principles really the starting point of any authentic engagement? What if a particular mathematical model/conceptual structure does not properly/accurately describe some phenomena in nature or history? What would be more reasonable - a different (mathematical) model or a different phenomenon which fits into the model that we consider fundamental? These questions need to be taken into consideration by those of us who design curricula, textbooks, and teaching/learning materials and methods.

The above dialogue also raises another problem. Suppose we consider another way to find out which village the man comes from: we could ask him what might sound like a purely logical mathematical question, “Is 1+1=2?” Again, the professor would say that it would not be an acceptable question, since he had said that there is only one solution to this problem. This could imply that he would not consider the truth of 1+1=2 to be valid in this context because it cannot be deduced just from the statements given in the problem.

However, if “1+1=2” is a universal statement, implying that its truth is independent of any context, its universal property would imply that its truth could be arrived at even in this context.

Mathematical ideas (concepts/models) like integers, addition/subtraction, multiplication/division do need a context from which they can be developed, learnt and taught. And, their definitions can be, and in fact are formalized later on to mask their material origins. And any new mathematical ideas that arise later do indeed emerge from people interacting with the material world, who later on try and formalize their new ideas.

Another problem which is also raised in the same Werner Herzog film, is that science is sometimes taught as if it is idealist rather than materialist. This is shown in the following dialogue:

Teacher: [referring to the apples he is carrying in his arms] Look, these are last year’s apples. Big and red, aren’t they? And those apples on the tree will look just the same soon.

Kaspar: How do they do that?

Teacher: Time does it, Kaspar.

Priest: And the Lord’s plan.

[a couple of apples the Teacher is carrying fall to the ground and he bends down to pick them up.]

Kaspar: Let the apples lie, they’re tired and they want to sleep.

Teacher: Kaspar, an apple can’t be tired. Apples don’t have lives of their own, they follow our will. I’m going to roll one down the path, it’ll stop where I want it to.

[He rolled it, but the apple bounced off the path.]

Kaspar: The apple didn’t stop, it hid in the grass.

... [Then the teacher gets the priest to hold out his foot to stop another apple which he rolls, but instead of stopping where he wants it to, it bounces over the foot.]

Kaspar: Smart apple! It jumped over his foot and ran away!

This scene describes a common (idealist) approach towards science education: teachers try to fit observations within a conceptual structure and keep trying to get an experiment to

produce results which fit into their particular, predetermined concept or theory. According to this approach, the concepts (ideas) are taken to be more fundamental than what actually happens in physical reality. This contrasts with a materialist approach in which the observations would lead to concepts or theories which may be different from what was hypothesized or even different from what was previously proven. The ‘stuff’ is the authority, as Eleanor Duckworth says.

In this paper we will use a historical dialectical materialist (HDM) framework and claim that both mathematics and science education should be based on an HDM ideology, We will base our arguments mainly on two sets of teaching/learning experiences, in which we compare and contrast teaching methods which are more idealist with those that are more HDM. In one set of experiences we contrast the way even and odd numbers are introduced in the Class VI NCERT mathematics textbook to an experience which occurred when one of us was teaching a session on even and odd numbers at a school for the blind (Rossi D'Souza (2016) Where do/did mathematical concepts come from? For the Learning of Mathematics 36(1), 25-27). In the other set of experiences we contrast three different ways that we have previously taught topics related to tree identification at the middle school level (Gurinder Singh, Rafikh Shaikh, & Karen Haydock, Understanding student questioning and its role in doing science in open-beginninged explorations, submitted for publication, 2016).

Based on these comparisons, we will make some concrete suggestions on how teaching science and mathematics can be improved by explicitly basing it on an HDM ideology.

**71**

**INTEGRATION AND INNOVATION DEVELOPMENT IN INDIAN HIGHER EDUCATION THROUGH STATE POLICIES: CONCERNS AND CHALLENGES**

**Author :** Kappey Yadagiri

**Affiliation :** divison for child studies -center for economic and social studies

**Keywords** : Quality higher education

Integration Innovation

inclusion

Rashtriya Uchchattar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA)

**Abstract**

The Indian higher education system faces a raft of challenges, among which the issue of access and quality rank near the top. The government has set a goal of increasing the enrollment ratio among Indians of college age (gross enrollment ratio, or GER) to 30 percent by 2020, from a current rate of just fewer than 20 percent. In doing so, the government hopes to bring the nation’s

GER broadly into line with the projected 2020 global average. It also recognizes that quality standards need to be improved in tandem with access if the GER goals are to have a measurable impact on the broader Indian economy. The GER goals were laid out in the government’s 11th five-year plan (2007-2012) at the beginning of which India’s GER was significantly lower than today’s 20 percent, at just 12.3 percent. So, clearly, significant progress has been made with regards to increasing access to higher studies. Noting this success, the  [12th (and current) five](http://planningcommission.gov.in/plans/planrel/12thplan/welcome.html)- [year plan](http://planningcommission.gov.in/plans/planrel/12thplan/welcome.html) (2012-2017) goes on to discuss the need to continue improving access to higher education, while also stressing the importance of doing it in conjunction with improvements in quality and social equity.

**Context**

The Twelfth Plan adopts a holistic approach to the issues of expansion, equity and excellence so that expansion is not just about accommodating ever larger number[s] of students, but is also about providing diverse choices of subjects, levels and institutions while ensuring a minimum standard of academic quality and providing the opportunity to pursue higher education to all sections of society, particularly the disadvantaged. In this regard we take a look at the reforms put forth under the current policy document, with a particular focus on the academic initiatives outlined under the Ministry of Human Resources Development’s (MHRD) 2013 Rashtriya

Uchchattar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) plan. These include the introduction of academic credits, significant curriculum changes, new assessment protocols and the transition to a semester-based academic calendar but still there are various concerns and challenges for a holistic quality Higher education development in India

**For E.g.;** There are many graduate and other technical institutions are not reaching the rankinglevels of NAAC. And there is no integration among inter and intra linkages of various higher education institution in India

**Rationale**

The challenges faced by the Indian Higher Education Sector today are indeed numerous, as it struggles to adapt to an increasingly globalized world order. There was unanimity in declaring that the process of globalization is the single most important factor that has made it imperative for our institutions to rise to the occasion and evolve strategies that will allow them to retain gifted Indian students as well as attract international students. In the current scenario we see that higher education in India is facing problems in multiple areas covering both qualitative and quantitative issues. The lack of integrated and innovative resources devoted to Higher Education in terms of faculty development and research support, as well as outdated and cumbersome administrative and governance policies have meant that there has been a steady exodus of Indian students to foreign universities.

**Hypothesis**

1. There is the urgent need and importance of innovation and integration for quality assurance system in higher education.
2. The integration and innovation among of higher education institutions provides a broad overview of the development of quality assurance education system.
3. By introducing and implementation of innovative integrated methods through RUSA would effectively impact among management, the member’s external evaluators and other stake holders of education system

**Objectives of the Study**

* To study the need for innovation and integration among higher educational Institutions through RUSA
* To study the main objectives and provisions of RUSA for new innovations and integration building among institutes and stakeholders
* To study the major challenges for RUSA to initiate and develop an integrated innovation methods in Higher education institutions

**Methodology**

In India there are many policies and programs initiated by state and central governments for improve quality development in higher education but the methods of teaching are not seriously concern, now its need to be critically examine, and urgently there is the need of reevaluation and some modifications in the delivery of knowledge. These are all suggesting us review on the strengths and weaknesses of existed isolation methods of innovation in the deliverances assurance of quality in higher education. And there is the need of identification and suggestions of some probable modifications in the existed traditional methods.

**72**

**LEARNINGS FROM MEANDERING INTO DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY EXPERIENCES**

**ACROSS CONTEXTS**

**Author** : Ritesh Khunyakari and Shikha Takker\*

**Affiliation** :Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Hyderabad

\* Homi Bhabha Centre for Science Education, TIFR, Mumbai

**Keywords** : Design thinking

Design and Technology Education

STEAM education

Systems thinking

**Key words:** Design thinking, Design and Technology Education, STEAM education, Systemsthinking

The intent of this paper is a strategic one rather than serving a mere description of our research and development endeavours. By strategic purpose, we mean that we would like to articulate and bring out the coherence in the various efforts undertaken to enforce the cognition and action linkages in designing learning experiences. To highlight the value of learning involving design and technology engagements, there is a conscious effort to draw upon case experiences involving students at different age and grade levels. The cases are not just serving the overt purpose of an exemplary activity but also captures the nature of negotiations, possibilities and prospects that emerge from such learning situations. More importantly, we argue that these engagements have potentials of addressing several aims of educational experience in a wholesome manner. This paper begins with reflections on curricular learning experiences, posits the value of design thinking and technology education as experiences that challenge otherwise cursory notions of hands-on in serving either as pedagogical aid or to create curiosity or ‘fun’ element among learners. Drawing upon four empirical cases of engaging with design and technology experience, we argue that that cross-disciplinary, authentic learning needs to be carefully examined at various educational levels.

*Reflecting on school learning experiences*

In the Indian context, there is an evident disparity between the conceptual (minds -on) and the procedural (hands-on) understanding. The large variety of educational experiences available to students are largely conceptual and involve an exposure of students to informational content, descriptions or algorithms. The engagement with hands-on are construed either as procedural knowledge (implying a knowledge of step-wise actions) or an internalisation of skills to achieve well-defined goals and definite outcomes. In such a scheme of thinking, the organic link between cognition and action seldom finds any robust expression. The learning experiences, even if they engage with hands-on, are structured as school projects (within sciences, social sciences and rarely mathematics), construction of models, simulations, and so on. Though the science projects, out-of-school activities, or science exhibitions encourage students to work with materials and resources, the focus is on reproducing artefacts following specific instructions, templates, prescriptions or ‘do-it-yourself’ kits. Though the active engagement with materials and making generates a lot of enthusiasm and interest, it often overshadows any opportunities of engaged learning.

*Redefining design thinking within a technology context*

Literature argues that design thinking is a fundamentally distinct ‘way of looking’ at life-context problems. It is argued that design problems are ill-structured, open-ended and prone to multiple potential solutions. This feature of design problems lend themselves to possibilities of emergent, creative solutions. Design-and-make experiences embody the design and technology aspects in learning, which include the cognitive and social aspects which will be discussed at length as we discussing each of the cases.

The discussion explicates that the design and technology education engagement serves as providing opportunities for mediational processes to engage students with their substantive content

knowledge, skills and capacities allowing them to optimise their creative learning potentials. Besides offering cognitive benefits, they allow for realising the social aspects of collaborative interactions and mutual learning. Understanding the processes involved, the design and technology education endeavours encapsulated as four cases are at the interface of research, development and teaching-learning. In terms of knowledge production, such engagements provide rich, comprehensive and authentic sources for an initiation into systems thinking. This theoretical perspective will be exemplified through four empirical research, development cum teaching cases. A brief of cases has been provided.

**Case 1:** Eliciting young childrens’ solutions to solving an everyday problem embedded in storycontext (Pre-primary school)

The task involved narrating a story which has within its story-line an everyday problem-solving situation. Since the work involves young children, the task is about asking them to think of possibilities by which they could get mango down a tree or get the kite down a tree without any wear and tear. Childrens’ narratives about ways of solving these problems brings out the creative potentials tied with their language and thought. Besides, contexts encouraging children to use abstract symbols to construct narratives around is another task of design and technology education, where the potential of technology as cultural mediational tools come to the fore.

**Case 2:** Designing and making a puppet and staging a puppet-show (Elementary school students)This case embodies our effort to engage middle school students in design-and-make activities. Students were taken through the process involving investigation of problem context, exploring ideas, planning their design-and-make by detailing technical drawings, procedural drawings, communication of design and products, evaluation and reflection. Students worked in groups towards developing a story with specific number of characters. Each group then works towards making a puppet and then the class works collaboratively towards staging a puppet-show. Puppetry has been used to communicate social messages and for sustaining social contact. The communicative purpose within the collaborative discourse involving designing and making puppet characters as well as staging the performance brings capacities to bear in realising the thought of students in enriching ways.

**Case 3:** Developing a task-based intervention on human digestive system (Secondary school)

The task invited middle and school secondary students to visualize, imagine and mentally animate how the food consumed travels in their bodies. It is argued that besides developing an appreciation for structure-function relationship, such a context enables a systems understanding with an explicit acknowledgement of relational contingency of organs and organ systems. The design thinking extends to personal bodies and ‘transformative reasoning’ while anticipating the prospective outcomes of changes in structural features of the system. On one hand, such a task builds a robust understanding of concepts and on the other hand provides opportunities for using knowledge that cuts across disciplinary boundaries.

**Case 4:** Developing a board game based on understanding of the cell system (Higher Secondary)The last case draws from an engagement with undergraduate students who represent an eclectic composition from across streams. The task involved developing a board game that will capture the understanding a biological cell system, its various organelles and structure-functioning. Students work in triads to conceptualise the game structure, rules and details of their board game. The progression in terms of an evolving structure is captured through the group portfolio which includes ideas brainstormed, technical detailing, plan of making and so on. The case provides demonstrative evidences for an integration of knowledge and skills from across disciplines and also from insights from history, social context and philosophy of a discipline.

The four cases anchor the evolving, constructive experiences involving students at different age and grade levels. Insights extracted provide prospects for learning in rich, authentic and significant contexts.

**73**

**Self-Financing Courses in Higher Education**

***Issues of Pricing, Inclusion and Quality***

**Author :**Subir Maitra

**Affiliation** : *Associate Professor of Economics Heramba Chandra College (University of Calcutta) 23/49, Gariahat Road, Kolkata-700029*

**Keywords :** Higher Education

Self-financing courses

Education and Training

Privatization

Information and Product Quality

Government Policy

***A B S T R A C T***

Higher education holds the key not only to “knowledge creation” but also to meeting the labour supply requirements of an economy for faster growth.1 In a knowledge driven society, higher education is crucial for determining the competitive edge of an economy in the global market. In case of India, higher education has become a necessity for reaping the benefits of what has been termed as “demographic dividend”. Higher education improves functional ability and efficiency of an individual. It makes an individual ‘employable’ by the industry or capable of launching a technology-driven ‘start-up’. Larger size of educated

‘employable’ labour force is essential if we are to attain higher economic growth. For this huge expansion of higher education sector is necessary. Adequate provision of state finance is arguably the best option for developing the higher education sector. But given the size of fund requirement for expansion of higher education, it is most unlikely that state would be able to finance the entire exercise. Despite recent increases in budgetary allocation for higher education, exploring alternative sources of financing higher education remains quite important. Private funding is necessary, so is charging of fees to students for higher education courses. The opening of new courses under self-financing mode has nowadays become a policy option out of this necessity.

**Who will pay for higher education?—The debate**

One of the most debatable issues of the 21st century worldwide is concerned with the question: ‘Who will pay for higher education?’ In the dominant neoliberal ideology, higher education is viewed as essentially a private, individualised commodity and students should bear more of the costs. (Economist, 2004). The World Bank has adopted an approach for higher education, founded on the same principle. The Bank in its approach has put emphasis on (i) recovery of public cost of higher education; (ii) promotion of education loans through the development of a credit market with selective scholarships, especially in higher education; and (iii) decentralisation of the management of public education and encourage the expansion of non-government and community supported institutions. Thus, charging user fees with a view to recovering the public cost of higher education has been stressed upon even by the World Bank.

<http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/up/India_Country_Paper.pdf>1[http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/up/India\_Country\_Paper.pdf,](http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/up/India_Country_Paper.pdf)accessed on 23.08.2015

The three main sources of funding for higher education institutions are governments, students and households, and other private entities. Government resources include operational grants (for both teaching and research), capital investment and research grants paid directly to institutions. Student payments include tuition fees and charges for ancillary services. Other private payments and resources include private donations and gifts, and payments for consulting, patents, and other services.

Tilak and Rani (2003) argued that given the increasing importance of higher education, the state should continue to take a major responsibility of financing the universities. All other sources of finances, including fees, should be viewed only as peripheral ones, supplementing public expenditures.

**Higher education scenario in India**

Higher education institutions in India include universities, colleges and other institutions. On the basis of funding, higher education institutions are broadly classified as Public institutions or Private institutions. Public institutions include both government institutions and aided institutions, whose major source of fund is the government, both the central and the state. Private unaided institutions, however, sustain primarily on the fees charged to their students. These institutions are all not-for-profit institutions.

**Self-Financing Programmes-- The issue of pricing**

Self-financing programmes are the programmes which are financed by charging user fees from the students. There is almost no government subsidy for such self-financing programmes. On the basis of recommendation of UGC’s core committee on vocational education UGC introduced vocational courses at the undergraduate level during 1994-95. Initially UGC provided funds for these vocational courses in affiliated colleges. In general colleges introduced courses that had high demand from the students, and at the same time had market value as well. These courses, with fee structure different from the vocational courses, came to be known as self-financing courses. These courses would be delivered using the own infrastructure and staff of the colleges. These courses mostly fall in the category of professional education, which are in demand as the financial returns to the students completing these courses are quite ensured.

The nature of self-financing programmes depends on the institutional mode under which it is delivered. The cost of running a particular course may vary from institution to institution depending upon the extent of resources such as infrastructure, teaching and non-teaching staff available within the institution. Private universities are all self-financing in nature. Private deemed universities also can charge fees to meet the cost of the educational

programme. Both these types of universities need to recover the capital as well as revenue expenditure from the user-fees levied upon students2. There is no effective regulatory control on the fees in the private universities. Private deemed universities charge fees subject to the approval from the state level committees.

The colleges affiliated to state universities offer courses in both general and professional disciplines. These colleges are of three types: government colleges, privately managed but government-aided colleges and privately managed but non-government-aided colleges. Most of the regular programmes offered by the former two types of colleges are subsidized by the government. These colleges can introduce any programme after the approval of the affiliating universities but can charge fees, as decided by the government. These institutions are allowed to introduce self-financing programmes. Since these institutions have ready infrastructure, they can charge user-fees only to recover the recurring expenditure. Private colleges not receiving any government-aid can charge user-fees to cover capital as well as the revenue cost from the students. All the programmes delivered are self-financing by nature in private colleges – general as well as professional.

Thus, the pricing of self-financing courses has two distinct patterns in India: Firstly, the government colleges and the aided colleges under the supervision and control of the affiliating universities are allowed to charge fees just sufficient to recover the revenue expenditure. Secondly, the private universities, private deemed universities and private non-aided colleges affiliated to the state as well as the private universities can charge fees to recover both capital as well as revenue expenditures. For some of the self-financing professional courses such as engineering and medical, however, regulatory authorities fix the fees. For the rest, there is no effective regulation and monitoring of fees. Even so, they cannot raise their fees to any level because of two reasons: Firstly, by fixing higher fees, they may lose their prospective buyers (students). Secondly and the most importantly, educational institutes in India are not allowed to make ‘profit’ by fixing higher fees. What they can make is a ‘reasonable surplus’. In the famous Pai Foundation case, the apex court has allowed educational institutes to make ‘reasonable surplus’ but the reasonable surplus earned by such institutions can only be utilised for the purpose of education, i.e. for the expansion and augmentation of education and not for any other purpose. The reasonable surplus should ordinarily vary from 6% to 15%.

2 Sudhanshu Bhushan, Self-financing Courses in Colleges, NUEPA, 2008

Still, there is a significant difference in the fee ranges for regular and self-financing courses. The average fee per student for the self-financing courses has been found to be six times the average fees per student of the regular course3. It has also been found that course fees are primarily fixed keeping in mind the demand of the course. The demand of the course depends on the quality of the course, employment opportunities available to the students on successful completion of the course, acceptability of the course locally and globally, the credibility of the institution, the viability of the knowledge and skill provided etc. However, competition forces less differentiation in fee range in self-financing programmes at least in the aided and private colleges (Bhushan, 2008).

These courses violate the equity consideration of education, since admissions are mostly based on the ‘ability to pay’ principle rather than ‘merit’. These courses may not serve greater societal needs as the objectives of these courses are to serve the needs of the students.

**Self-Financing Programmes-- The quality issue**

In Indian situation, where education is a not-for-profit sector, the proliferation of private self-financing institutions is quite intriguing. If private operators cannot make profit, what are they working for? Is it pure philanthropy? Actually, they are ‘not-for-profit’ de-jure, but are ‘for-profit’ de-facto. They siphon off funds in lieu of profit. This has damaging impact on quality. As employability is linked with the quality of self-financing course, the employability of graduates suffer due to this. However, due to the presence of asymmetric information, a prospective student often makes wrong decisions about course and institute. The unscrupulous operators also take advantage of the asymmetric information and provide their students with higher education of such quality which is much poorer than what they promised to deliver. A layer of asymmetric information seems also to exist between the institute and its regulators, due to which regulators often fail to realise about the quality of self-financing courses.

This paper reviews literature on financing of higher education institutions with special focus on self-financing courses. It makes a detailed analysis of the cost and pricing of the course with a view to finding the compatibility of these courses with India’s imperatives such as ‘inclusion’ and ‘quality’ of higher education. The role of regulator has also been focused upon. This paper also suggests some measures which may be adopted in India in the future.

**74**

**Transition towards Context Aware Social Networking Services in Indian Higher Education**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Dr. Baiju Antony** | **Vinu Wilson** |
| Principal | Assistant Professor |
| De Paul College, Mysore, Karnataka | De Paul College, Mysore, Karnataka |
| baijuacm@gmail.com | vinuwilson@depaulcollege.in |

**Keywords**: Context Aware

Social Networking Services

Higher Education

India

**Introduction**

Context-Awareness is an area of Computer Science, which deals with the adaptation of computing systems to the user’s current context. Introduced by (Schilit, Adams, & Want, 1994), the most recognized definition for the term “context” was from (Dey, 2001): “Context is any information that can be used to characterize the situation of an entity. An entity could be a person, place, or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between a user and an application, including the user and applications themselves.” By being “aware” of the user’s context, a computing system can make deductions about the current situation of the user, from various hardware sensors such as GPS receiver (i.e. for positioning), surrounding Bluetooth equipments (and thus, surrounding people), and even software sources like one’s agenda and list of currently open documents. Thereafter by combining and inferring on this sensed information, a meaningful knowledge can be derived, for instance position or activity like “in a meeting” or “watching TV” can be deduced.

With the rise of the so-called Web 2.0, Social Networking Services (SNS) have become extremely popular on the Internet. A SNS is a virtual community in which users have a personal web page (called a “profile” or a “space”) that allows others to know more about the interests and activities of the profile owner and to interact with him/her in many ways, mostly in a public fashion. Contexts and social network information have proven to be a source of valuable information for building accurate recommender applications. Over the years several such applications like Intelligent Meeting Rooms (Leong, Kobayashi, Koshizuka, & Sakamura, 2005; Chen et al., 2004), Smart Homes (Gu, Wang, Pung, & Zhang, 2004), Personalized mobile advertisement (Zhdanova et al., 2006) and electronic healthcare (Broens, van Sinderen, van

Halteren, & Quartel, 2007) have been developed. Context –aware social networking applications therefore have an immense significance in contemporary R&D initiaves, wherein they can be in charge of supervising the way users interact with the ubiquitous environment for automating users’ repetitive actions.

Ubiquitous environments employing mobile devices, wireless communications and sensor technologies in learning activities are called “context-aware ubiquitous learning”. The context-aware feature of the ubiquitous computing environments allows better understanding of both the user and the specific situation “around” him or her. The term “ubiquitous” does not refer here simply to anytime/anywhere, but more specifically to the ability to support multiple diverse learning contexts and automatically adapt to them. Currently, ubiquitous learning takes place in various education environments, in contrast with early applications of ubiquitous learning (Tourist and museum guides), which offered the possibility of getting information based on visitor’s current position, e.g. facts about a painting or a tourist attraction

The main characteristics of context aware SNS for ubiquitous learning are as follows: Permanency (the learners will never lose their work unless it is voluntarily deleted) moreover, all the learning processes are recorded on a daily basis, which allows for later reflection on the learning process. Accessibility, the learning content is accessible anywhere. Interactivity where the learners can interact with facilitators or peers, both synchronously as well as asynchronously. Situated-ness of the instructional activities, which shows the adaptability to the learner’s current situation, both in the virtual as well as real world.

Over the last decade, there has been a growing interest on Ubiquitous systems among SNS researchers across the globe. This lead to the current research initiatives to investigate the potential of the educational paradigm’s transition from traditional one-size fits all teaching approaches to an environment that provide an interoperable, pervasive, and seamless learning architecture. The key benefits of this approach is that it provides an intuitive way for identifying right collaborators, right contents and right services in the right place at the right time based on learners surrounding context such as where and when the learners are (time and space), what the learning resources and services available for the learners.

With the large-scale availability of ubiquitous devices, its application in learning scenarios requires a detailed investigation. This paper intends to provide overview on the latest developments in context aware social networking services for learning in the institutions of higher learning and scope for further development.

**Problem Statement**

Though there has been a wide spread proliferation of mobile devices in India, Context aware social networking services for ubiquitous learning still wade in technological backwaters vis -a - vis advances in technology enabled learning initiatives. Adapting learning content and services according to a learners’ needs and wants to different learning context is one of the key problems that needs to be addressed.

**Purpose of Research**

This conceptual paper is intended to identify and understand the different services that facilitate learning in the institutions of higher learning. To serve the research purpose an extended review of existing literatures is required.

**Significance of Inquiry**

This conceptual paper is significant because it will explore a number of factors that influence the use of context aware social networking for learning in the institutions of higher learning and make recommendations for future research.

**Limitations of the study**

The conceptual paper is limited to an overview of current developments in the area of context aware SNSs. This paper has its analytic restraints. It relies only on the data collected by other researchers’.

**Literature Review for *Context-aware SNS for ubiquitous learning***

Context-aware ubiquitous learning is a computer supported learning paradigm for identifying learners' surrounding context and social situation to provide integrated, interoperable, pervasive,

and seamless learning experiences. The objective of incorporating the social platform for context-aware ubiquitous learning is to enhance Web-based learning a step further from learning at anytime anywhere to learning at the right time and the right place with right resources and right collaborators.

Some work in this area have already been undertaken by the research fraternity; El-Bishouty, Ogata, Yana (2007), proposed a Knowledge Awareness Map, which provides personalized learning conditions to the students’ according to their current need and location and recommends the best-matched materials according to learners’ current task and current location. Chang (2007) recommends Environment of Ubiquitous Learning with environmental Resources (EULER) platforms, which allows students to observe real learning objects and share learning experiences with others. Chen, Kinshuk, Wei, & Yang (2008) proposed a Group Area Network (GroupNet) learning environment, which is a mobile learning management system providing better support of mobile learning for small groups of learners with effective social interaction within proximity are some of the notable works to incorporate social networks into the context aware techniques.

**Method for collecting and analyzing literatures**

This conceptual paper is based solely on a review and analysis of research and data from the literature. Several methods were used to collect and analyze the literature. First, research was conducted using the Google search engine. Terms such as ‘Context aware social networking services for learning’ and ‘ubiquitous learning social networking services’ were used, and a limited amount of information was found.

Second, research on Scopus databases pertaining to context aware social networking for ubiquitous learning was examined. 11 journals/articles were found. Of the 11 found, 10 were deemed relevant to this conceptual paper.

Third, books on the topic for this conceptual paper were searched. The same terms used in the database search was used to find books related to the topic. One book was deemed useful and was purchased for further reading.

**Contemporary Application of Context aware SNS for ubiquitous learning**

MOBIlearn is a worldwide European-led research and development project that has explored Context-sensitive approaches to informal, problem-based learning by using key advances in mobile technologies. The user is provided with personalised and location-based information, by combining both their user profile current location.

The Street Poet project offers digitally augmented and location-aware content in literature education. The Client program that runs on a handheld device obtains the user’s GPS position, and use it to playback the relevant education content, allowing users to interact with local artifacts or areas of interest. Similarly, a context aware ubiquitous learning platform is developed that applies GPS and image recognition technologies to support learners while learning about natural herbs, in the real world.

Another typical application of context aware ubiquitous learning allows language learning, Students being provided with the right vocabulary in the current contextual situation. An interesting attempt that integrates support for personalised and contextualised learning has been designed for learning English in real-world situations, called CLUE. CLUE adapts the learning content to both learner’s interest and location, by offering suitable English expressions that denominate the objects in his surroundings.

A system for learning the appropriate polite Japanese expression according to a particular context called TANGO is designed which detects the objects around the learner based on RFID tags, and assigns questions to the learner related to the detected objects to improve learners’ vocabulary knowledge.

A system called MILE is developed that supports both classical and virtual learning environments, which allow students to collaborate, share notes, participate in whiteboard sessions, etc.

A related approach has been taken in a project that tests the RAFT concept (Remote Accessible Field Trips) that allows the students to participate lively in field trips from remote locations. In fact, only a small number of students are at the field location, while most of their peers are in the classroom. The field and the classroom are connected by means of a number of

technological devices that relay data via a high-speed internet connection. The two studies reported in the paper indicate that RAFT provides an engaging and motivating learning experience for students.

**Recommendation for Future Research**

Based on the review of current applications it is found that several applications that enable users’ to learn are being developed. Further research should be conducted to test whether learners’ perception towards ubiquitous learning environment that would lead to learners’ preference to use it over other Technology enabled learning methodologies. The future research should therefore try to address learners’ perception towards peer-to peer content access and adaption, personalized annotation management and multimedia real-time group discussion systems.

**Data collection and Data Sources for Future Research**

This conceptual paper is based solely on a review of literature on the topic of context aware social networking services for ubiquitous learning. For future research, a quantitative study would be conducted to obtain data on the public’s perception of context aware social networking services for learning. The procedures for conducting research would be to create a valid instrument that measures perceptions toward context aware social networking service for learning.

The sample population to be studied would be college students, ranging from ages 18-30, across different disciplines. The sample would consist of person’s who have had some type of experience with the context aware social networking services and those who haven’t had any exposure to the context aware system.

For ethical reasons, participants will be asked to read and sign a consent form stating that they willingly participated in the study and that any answers provided will be used as data and compiled into a report. The participants will also be informed that participation in the survey is completely confidential and voluntary.

**Data analysis Strategies for Future Research**

Since future research will rely on a survey, strategies for data analysis would be to separate the

surveys from those who have had experience with context aware social networking services from

those who have not.

If the questions from the survey use a likert scale it will be easier to analyze the data. The

responses to each question will be tallied in an excel spreadsheet. Responses from those who

have experiences with context aware social networking will be placed in a separate spreadsheet

from the other respondents.

From the responses, conclusions will be made about whether experience with context aware

social networking services affects a person’s perception of learning and whether those who have

experience with context aware social networking services have a more positive attitude toward

ubiquitous learning.

**Conclusion**

The findings of future research would lead to draw a comparison of what factors influence the

learners’ preference of ubiquitous learning environments in Indian institutions of higher learning.

This would in turn give inputs to the application developers of context aware ubiquitous learning

services to design services keeping in mind a learners’ interest.

**References**

Broens, T., van Sinderen, M., van Halteren, A., & Quartel, D. (2007). Dynamic Context Bindings in Pervasive Middleware. In Pervasive Computing and Communications Workshops, 2007. PerCom Workshops '07. Fifth Annual IEEE International Conference on (pp. 443- 448).

C. Yin, H. Ogata, Y. Tabata & Y. Yano, (2010). “JAPELAS2: Supporting the Acquisition of Japanese Polite Expressions in Context-Aware Ubiquitous Learning, Mobile and Ubiquitous Technologies for Language Learning”, International Journal of Mobile Learning and

Organisation, Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 214-234.

Chen, N.-S., Kinshuk, Wei, C.-W., & Yang, S. J. H. (2008). Designing a Self-contained Group Area Network for Ubiquitous Learning. Educational Technology & Society, 11 (2), 16-26.

El-Bishouty, M. M., Ogata, H., & Yano, Y. (2007). PERKAM: Personalized Knowledge Awareness Map for Computer Supported

Ubiquitous Learning. Educational Technology & Society, 10 (3), 122-134.

G.-D. Chen, & P.-Y. Chao, (2008) “Augmenting Traditional Books with Context-Aware Learning Supports from Online Learning Communities”, Educational Technology & Society,

Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 27-40

H. Ogata, Y. Yano, (2005) “Knowledge awareness for a computer-assisted language learning using handhelds”, Int. J. of Continuing Engineering Education and Lifelong Learning, Vol. 14,

Nos. 4/5, pp.435–449.

Boticki, N. Hoic-Bozic, & I. Budiscak, (2009) “A System Architecture for a Context-aware

Blended Mobile Learning Environment”, Journal of Computing and Information Technology**,** Vol. 17, No. 2, pp. 165–175

Leong, L. H., Kobayashi, S., Koshizuka, N., & Sakamura, K. (2005). CASIS: a context-aware speech interface system. Proceedings of the 10th international conference on Intelligent user interfaces, (pp. 231-238).

L. Hyon, J.-K. Yang & Y.-S. Lee, (2007) “The Development of an Ubiquitous Learning System Based On Audio Augmented Reality”, International Conference on Control, Automation and

Systems, Seoul, Korea, pp. 1072 – 1077

Mobilearn project (2010) available online at http://www.mobilearn.org/, accessed October 2014

T. de Jong, M. Specht & R. Koper, (2008). “Contextualised Media for Learning”, Educational

Technology & Society, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 41-53.

Wang, X., Zhang, D., Gu, T., & Pung, H. (2004). Ontology based context modeling and reasoning using owl. In Pervasive Computing and Communications Workshops, 2004. Proceedings of the Second IEEE Annual Conference on (pp. 18-22).

Want,R., Falcao,V., Gibbons, J., (1992). “The Active Badge Location System”, *ACMTransactions on Information Systems*, Vol.10, 91- 102.

Y.-G. Guoa, S.-L. Wang, (2010) “Designing a Knowledge Awareness Navigation for Ubiquitous Learning Environment”, available online at http://elearning.lib.fcu.edu.tw/bitstream/2377/11042/1/ce07ics002008000002.pdf, accessed October 2014

Zhdanova, A. V., Zoric, J., Marengo, M., van Kranenburg, H., Snoeck, N., Sutterer, M., et al. (2006). Context Acquisition, Representation and Employment in Mobile Service Platforms. Proc. 15th IST Mobile & Wireless Communications Summit.

**75**

**Global University Rankings and National Institutional Ranking Framework: A Critical Appraisal**

**Author : Mujeeb Gattoo**

**Abstract:**

There has been anemergence of the ‘audit culture’ within academia. There have been drives of quality assurance which have been given mandates with varying rationales, approaches and forms across the world. At the international level there has been an emergence of the Global Rankings in higher education. In fact in the present global context the notions of knowledge economy and world class university have become concomitant; and the notion of World Class University is often intertwined with the Global rankings of Universities. The discourse of rankings has dissolved in the international higher education community and every country is in a pursuit and retention of World Class Universities.

As far as Indian higher education sector is concerned, it has not remained inert to the above mentioned changes and discourses. On one side there is a hue and cry to bring Indian higher education institutions into the top 200 list of Global University Rankings and on the other side there has been a drive for quality accreditation[[1]](#footnote-1). From the Ninth Five Year Plan onwards there has been an increasing emphasis on excellence in higher education. One of the important initiatives of the 11th Five Year Plan of the Planning Commission was the initiation of fourteen world class central universities (later termed as innovation universities) to be developed as centre’s of global innovation. The anxiety due to the absence of Indian universities in the top 200 of global universities has got translated into policy panic and consequently national higher education systems as well as institutional priorities are being restructured. Many policy documents like National Knowledge Commission, 12th Five Year Plan etc have lamented the absence of the Indian universities in the top 200 of the global rankings. 12th Five Year Plan also maintains that Universities at the top of the hierarchy should be identified and generously supported so that they can reach the top league. The government (also few individual institutions) entered

into direct discussions with both Times Higher Education and Quacquarelli Symonds Groups to improve the national standing. Finally there was a development of indigenous National Institutional Ranking Framework (NIRF) for higher education in response to global rankings. Given this background present paper will try to critically study the NIRF and other global rankings, so as to answer following research questions:

* What are the research methods that are deployed in the construction of ranking indices? How is data generated, transformed and aggregated? How are performance indicators selected and how are relative weightings applied to them?
* Is any theory of excellence embedded in the NIRF and global university rankings? Whether NIRF can empower the Indian universities to participate in the global rankings? What is being selected, measured, and tried to replicate in different methodologies of quality assurance and global university rankings? What is being excluded? What tensions, anxieties and fears are being activated? Whether equity is being promoted or displaced via concern for excellence?

## University Rankings: Theoretical Exposition

Different theoretical and conceptual prisms have been used to study the ranking frameworks. Some scrutinize rankings within broader frame of globalization and networks of power, Organizational change, and social capital and positional good (O’connell, 2014 c.f. Hazelkorn, 2015). It is contended that globalization has turned higher education landscape into a relational landscape, wherein institutions and nations are measured against each other and hence rankings are inevitable. Marginson (2010) is of the view that neoliberal reform policy and it’s financial and governance technologies collated in new public management have created twin effects (somewhat contradictory), the deregulation of the university as firm[[2]](#footnote-2) and over-regulation of academic output as performance.

Drawing on Foucault’s work on discipline, surveillance and punishment, scholars (Ordorik& Lloyd, 2015, Sauder &Espeland, 2009,etc) assert that rankings by their disciplinary power not only change perceptions of higher education but constant surveillance of performance can result in an obsessive form of control which is

internalized. Invoking Bourdiou’s and Hirsch’s conceptions of “Social Capital” and “Positional Goods” respectively, it is contended (Marginson, 2010, 2014; Amsler&Bolsmann, 2012) that university

rankings make perceptions of prestige, status and quality explicitand “generate positional arms race”. This arms race is a zero-sum game[[3]](#footnote-3) where “winner takes all”. Since rankings emphasize vertical or hierarchical stratification, they generate consequential implications for social equity. It is argued by Amsler&Bolsman, 2012) that rankings create new forms of social exclusion.

Moving away from the above theoretical explanations[[4]](#footnote-4), Nandi and Chattopadhyay (2013) theorize rankings within the paradigm of quality measurement. They consider Rankings and accreditation two different forms of quality assurance mechanism, given that education is experience good and is characterized by information asymmetry

## Methodology

Since the study will be analyzing the Global rankings and national ranking frameworks, analyzing already done analysis, it would be a Meta-analysis. The critical analysis of national institutional rankings framework (NIRF) and global rankings would be done adhering to the principles of social science research methods. It is rightly pointed out by Marginson (2014) that

“Most extant comprehensive reviews are largely descriptive, or examine rankings primarily in terms of normative policy assumptions rather than principles of social science. University rankings are critiqued; but surprisingly, they are little critiqued as social science. It is surprising because the techniques used by university rankers are taken from research in sociology, economics, psychology, and business studies, including market research. There is little discussion and debate about what the different rankings measure and how, and related questions of data coverage and validity; the kind of discussion that distinguishes between good and bad rankings on scientific grounds” (ibid., pp.46-47).

In present study the black box of rankings and its constituent parts will be scrutinized on the basis of key confidence measures in social science research like reliability, consistency, validity, etc.

## Concluding Remarks and Findings

A comparison of the designs and methodologies of NIRF *vis-à-vis* Global Ranking Frameworks (See Table 1 and 2 given below) reveals that NIRF shares close proximity with QS and Times rankings. Yet the developers of NIRF have attempted to ground it in the reality of Indian higher education. It is comprehensive and uses 16 separated indicators (indicative of teaching, research as well as outreach missions) that are weighted, scaled and pressed into the final unitary number. NIRF tries to stress on excellence and inclusion simultaneously, which is evident by incorporation of parameter Outreach and Inclusivity.

Table 1

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **QS Ranking** | **Times Ranking** | **Shanghai Jiao Tong** | **NIRF** |
| Academic reputation (40%) | Teaching (the learning environment): 30% | No. Nobel Prize/Fields Medal Winning Alumni: 10% | Teaching Learning and Resources: 30% |
| Employer reputation (10%) | Research (volume, income and reputation): 30% | No. Nobel Prize/Fields Medal winning Staff: 20% | Research Productivity, Impact and IPR: 40% |
| Student-to-faculty ratio (20%) | Citations (research influence): 30% | No. HiCi researchers Research output: 20% | Graduation Outcome: 5% |
| Citations per faculty (20%) | International outlook (staff, students, research): 7.5% | No. articles in Nature/Science: 20% | Outreach and Inclusivity: 15% |
| International faculty ratio (5%) | Industry income (knowledge transfer): 2.5% | No. articles in Citation Index (Science and Social Science): 20% | Perception: 10% |
| International student ratio (5%) |  | Size of institution/Per capita academic Performance: 10% |  |

**Source:** Websites of Respective Ranking Frameworks.

Table 2

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **S. No**. | **Parameters/Indicators** | **Weights** |
| **1** | **Teaching, Learning and Resources (TLR)** | **30%** |
|  | A. Teacher Student Ratio with emphasis on Permanent Faculty | 25 |
|  | B. Combined Metric for Faculty with Ph.D. and Experience | 25 |
|  | C. Metric for Library and Laboratory Facilities | 40 |
|  | D. Metric for Sports and Extra Curricular Facilities | 10 |
| **2** | **Research Productivity, Impact and IPR (RPII)** | **40%** |
|  | A. Combined Metric for Publications | 45 |
|  | B. Combined Metric for Citations | 45 |
|  | C. Intellectual Property Rights | 10 |
| **3** | **Graduation Outcome (GO)** | **5%** |
|  | A. Combined Performance in University Examinations | 50 |
|  | B. Combined Performance in Public Examinations | 50 |
| **4** | **Outreach and Inclusivity (OI)** | **15%** |
|  | A. Outreach Footprint(Continuing Education, Services) | 25 |
|  | B. Percentage of Students from Other States/Countries | 25 |
|  | C. Percentage of Women Students and Faculty | 20 |
|  | D. Percentage of Economically and Socially Disadvantaged Students | 20 |
|  | E. Facilities for Differently Able Persons | 10 |
| **5** | **Perception (PR)** | **10%** |
|  | A. Process for Peer Rating in Category | 50 |
|  | B. Application to Seat Ratio | 50 |

**Source:** Website of NIRFIf we examine NIRF through prism of Social Science research methods, it has serious limitations. Bothselection of indicators and assigning of weights are not grounded in theory (true for most of rankings) and are arbitrary; hence NIRF is weak in terms of objectivity. Subjective indicator like perception has been valued almost equal to inclusion and graduate outcome. The indicator like application to seat ratio necessarily doesn’t imply good public perception, it can be indicative of low institutional density in that particular region. Similarly the indicator, Percentage of Students from Other States/Countries, gives an edge to central universities over State ones.

However, the major drawback of NIRF is in terms of transparency and reliability. Any ranking framework creates a clear incentive to manipulate data in a manner which will benefit an institution (Meredith, 2004; Usher &Savino, 2006), NIRF gives full authority to participating institutes in reporting data, and it doesn’t specify the mechanism of verifying and validating the same. The process of peer rating,

surveys about public perception, standardisation and interpretation are opaque to the user[[5]](#footnote-5).

**76**

**Preparing Teachers to Reflect on Self**

**Traversing Relationships and Creating Teacher Agency**

**Author** : Smriti Sharma

**Affiliation** :Institution: Lady Shriram College, University of Delhi, Delhi.

**Abstract :**

Teaching students from a variety of backgrounds such as religious, regional, linguistic, caste, class is increasingly becoming the guiding agenda of education driven partly by pragmatic concerns such as the increase in diverse population entering the schools (especially after the Right to Education Act 2009) and partly by reform movements with philosophical underpinnings of looking at education as an equalizer rather than a perpetuator of inequalities (National Curriculum Framework 2005). It is crucial to look at teachers and their preparation in this context as teachers are an influential element in any educational reform. National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education 2009 has been hailed as a progressive policy recommendation in this regard. The element of and focus on self has also been flagged as a crucial element in this discourse.

The discourse on the focus on self might be relatively new however the discourse on identity of the teacher andteacher socialization has a relatively long drawn historical perspective. It is not incorrect to say that the predominant paradigm in teacher preparation has not been to look at teachers as individuals who come with their own sets of personal schemas, and internal beliefs, by virtue of their unique socializations. Teacher education programs have also come under severe criticisms because of this. Several researchers such as Dan Lortie (1975) have argued that teacher candidates’ predispositions stand at the core of becoming a teacher, exerting a much more powerful socializing influence than either pre-service training, or later socialization in the workplace. Zeichner and Gore (1990); Mardle and Walker (1980) among others assert that teacher education courses do little to alter, and in all probability confirm and reinforce instead, what student teachers bring with them.

Yet on the other hand humanistic paradigm influenced by Carl Rogers charts out a path for person-centered educationwhich has been exemplified by the work of people such as Coombs – Humanistic Teacher Education and more recently that of James Banks pertaining to the discourse on Social justice and culturally responsive teaching.Banks J et al in Darling Hammond 2005 explicates the three types of teacher education pedagogies that stress all three of knowledge domains - that of learners, knowledge of self, and knowledge of how to continue to learn in teaching would be crucial for addressing diverse learners. He argues how knowledge of self and of others (students, parents, community) is an essential foundation for constructing, evaluating and altering curriculum and pedagogy so that it is responsive to students. He parallels the importance of learning about one’s self to learning about one’s students. Darling-Hammond also contends that the teachers who develop self-knowledge and an awareness of themselves as cultural beings as well as awareness of the ways their culture shapes their views. When teachers develop self-knowledge they begin to locate and contextualize their students and the communities they work in.

Thus, most of the research (Gomez and Tabachnick 1992; Florio-Ruane 2001; Banks J 2001) in this area revolves around looking at teachers as cultural beings to lead changes in their own beliefs. Even though there is a dearth of literature specifically in this area, there is a significant contribution of the notion of teacher socialization to this thread. One significant position outlined is by Feiman-Nemser (1983) who offers a psycho-analytic explanation of teacher socialization found in the work of Wright (1959) and Wright and Tuska (1968). This work suggests that teacher socialization is affected to a considerable extent by the quality of relationships teachers have as children with important adults (e.g. mother, father, teachers) and that becoming a teacher is to some extent a process (sometimes unconscious and sometime deliberate) of trying to become like significant other in one's childhood or trying toreplicate early childhood relationships.

However, teacher socialization strand is yet to find its way in terms of application, in the predominant discourse on expectations of teacher education.

Another argument in this thread highlights the need to cater to the emotional needs of student-teachers since becoming students experience emotional responses while undergoing the process of learning to teach (Hobson et al 2006) and the process of being engaged in a program aimed towards preparing reflective practitioners, community teachers and other progressive ways would make a number of demands on their students (Gore, J. 1991; Gay G. 2010). The argument is thus posed that the teacher preparation programs need to provide effective support to trainees to help them to navigate these emotionally charged states especially those that center around the questions of privilege of the student-teachers.

The role of focusing on self and one of that as a teacher are crucial in teacher empowerment as highlighted by Batra P. 2009 through example of the Bachelor of Elementary Education Program. She highlights the importance of provisioning of a space in the teacher preparation program to focused study of self and identity, human relationships, adult-child gaps, assumptions, beliefs and attitudes to examine stereotypes, going beyond prejudices leading to greater sensitivity.

**Methodology**

Taking the cue from the arguments posed by Batra P. 2009 this research focusses on the four year professional teacher preparation program Bachelor of Elementary Education which is offered in eight women college of University of Delhi.

The B.El.Ed. program offers practicum papers in Performing arts and Self-Development Workshops in the first as well asthe third year and second year respectively. The second year self development practicum has been “conceptualized to facilitate further the teacher trainee’s process of personal development.” The workshops aim to complement the theory course on Human Relations and Communications. According to the prescribed curriculum the self-development workshops are meant to cover broad areas of awareness of: one’s own strengths and limitations, developing sensitivity, open mindedness and positive attitudes, the ability to communicate and relate with children and adults and developing one’s own personal aim and vision as a teacher and as a person.

The transaction mode of the practicum is through workshops taken by the facilitators from outside the B.El.Ed. department and the undergraduate college in which the course is run. A list of suggestive facilitators is prescribed in the curriculum itself. Since the practicum is conducted in tandem with the theory paper on Human Relations and Communications, the faculty teaching that course also sometimes accompanies the facilitators (depending on the college).

The present research was undertaken with the primary aim of understanding the purposes of the self-development course and to unravel the processes of the self-development from the perspective of the facilitators and the associated faculty (teaching the Human Relations theory paper).

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with 4 facilitators and 4 faculty members with the above objective. The research falls in the paradigm of interpretivism which proposes that humans are also influenced by their subjective perception of their environment – their subjective realities. The purpose was to understand the lived experiences of the facilitators and the faculty from their vantage point.

The analysis was subsequently culled out from the narratives of the interviewees. The mode of analysis is thematic where the themes were not predetermined but emerged as a result of detailed analysis of the responses.

**Analysis**

As stated above the analysis is thematic and in the context of focus on self in the four year professional teacher preparation program four prominent themes were culled out from the data. These are - Understanding self for the sake of self; Understanding self to build relationships with others; Understanding self for a wider world view; Understanding Self as a Teacher to build an agency. Each of these is described here briefly to highlight the essence of the theme and the responses that were categorised in that particular theme.

***Understanding self for the sake of self***

All the facilitators and the faculty univocally stressed on the need to understand self (though question of whether self-development can be forced was flagged) and appreciated that there was legitimate space in the program given to focus on self. This they felt needs to be one of the primal goals of education – any education at any level. There were a variety of responses that characterize this theme -

“That I firmly believe is the key to a good education – it cannot be just the outer and just the inner and that way this integration of the self development component is very very necessary and very welcome move and that is one reason we feel happy to be associated with B.El.Ed., because they have finally acknowledged the importance of self-development though in my view it is still not sufficient…. In my view it should be the core around which the entire programme should develop and bloom. The approach of the educators should be from within and moving out.”

“You are asked, a child is asked what will you become, what is the goal of your studies so there is no focus on the self in the present. So the whole education the goal seems to be preparing for the market force and employability and if we add self-development in that then employment would happen but how do I see myself today.”

This theme would be analysed from the perspective of Krishnamurti for whom the, “ The function of education, then, is to help you from childhood not to imitate anybody, but to be yourself all the time….Whereas, if you look at what you actually are and understand it, then in that very understanding there is a transformation. So freedom lies, .... in understanding what you are from moment to moment. (Krishnamurti 1956)”

***Understanding self to build relationships with others***

The second major strand in understanding of self is in relation to the others – understanding them and traversing relationships. This was voiced by the facilitators in the context of the activities that were undertaken during the process of the workshop as highlighted in this response – “We do this exercise in which in a pair a student is blind-folded and the other has to take care of her for an hour and then after that they exchange roles. And then we have these conversations after the exercise - How I began to trust my partner and what helped me trust her more. And how we were able to do things I was not able to do earlier. … and we could discuss - What helps us trust more and together we draw the learning that come out of this activity and this is an activity which is a very very simple activity but has layers and layers.” Another facilitator focused more on understanding children – “The transference of the… would be better since they know the people much better, the children much better.”

Understanding Self for enhanced pedagogy is a sub-theme subsumed in the broader theme of understanding self to understand others. This theme would be analysed in the Humanistic paradigm with reference to Rogers and his conception of person-centered approach.

***Understanding self for a wider world view***

Another significant strand that came up during the interviews is that of understanding self for a wider world view. The need to engage in personal reflection and connect the thereticla underpinnings was stressed as highlighted in this response - “There are theoretical connections that get built during the process of the workshops, in the act of doing and reflecting. ….I see it in a different light and it is not so threatening and I can connect to it. Like even a session at a particular college we were doing a game of conflict and suddenly they (the students) landed in a position of avoidance. And then someone said this is foreclosure that we were talking of.”

***Understanding Self as a Teacher to build an agency***

The theme talked about the importance of understanding onself in the role of a teacher and what that connotes for onself as explicated in this response – “And gradually we talk about what it means to be a teacher, what it means for myself to be a teacher, what it means for it to be a teacher in a system. So …the idea of how to deal with others and that also means the system is talked of and discussed.” This theme would be analysed from the political perspectives of Paulo Friere and Michael Apple.

**References**

Banks, J.A. (2001) Citizenship, Education and Diversity: Implications for Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52(1), 5-16.

Banks, J.A. et al. (2005) Educational Goals and Purposes: Developing a Curricular Vision for Teaching Iin Darling-Hammond, L. and Bransford, J. (Eds.)*Preparing Teacher for a Changing World - What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Batra P. (2009) Teacher Empowerment: The Education Entitlement-Social Transformation Traverse. In *Contemporary Education Dialogue.*6(2), 121-156.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1983) Learning to Teach. In L. Shulman and G. Sykes (Eds.)*Handbook of Teaching and Policy*. New York: Longman.

Florio-Ruane, L.(2001) Teacher Education and the Cultural Imagination: Autobiography, Conversation and Narrative. London: Routledge.

Gay, G. (2010)Acting on Beliefs in Teacher Education for Cultural Diversity. In *Journal of Teacher Education,*  61(1), 2143-2152.

Gomez, M.L. & Tabachnick, B.R. (1992). Telling Teaching Stories. In *Teaching Education*, 4(2), 129-138.

Gore, J. (1991) Practicing what we preach: Action Research and the Supervision of Student Teachers. In Tabachnick R & Zeichner K., (Eds.)*Issues and Practices in Inquiry-Oriented Teacher Education*. London: The Falmer Press.

Hobson, et al (2009) Mentoring Beginning Teachers: What we know and what we don’t. In Teaching and Teacher Education, 25, 207-216.

Lortie, D. (1975). Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Mardle, G ., & Walker M . (1980). Strategies and Structure: Some Critical Notes on Teacher Socialization. In P. Woods (Eds.) Teacher Strategies: Explorations in the Sociology of the School. London: Croom Helm.

Krishnamurti, J. (1956) Think on These Things. Varansai: Krishnamurti Foundation of India

Wright, B., and Tuska, S. (1968). From Dream to Life in the Psychology of Becoming a Teacher. School Review, 76, 253-293.

Zeichner K and Gore J. (1991) in W. R. Houston (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teacher Education. New York:Macmillan.

**77**

**EVOLUTION OF A PROFESSIONAL LEARNING SPACE FOR MATHEMATICS TEACHERS AND RESEARCHERS**

**Author** : ShikhaTakker

**Affilation** : HomiBhabha Centre for Science Education, TIFR, Mumbai

**Keywords :**Communities of Practice, Identification, Mathematics Education, Social Learning, Continuous Teacher Professional Development

**Abstract:**

Strengthening the relation between the teaching of disciplines and research-based knowledge has been long reiterated. The vision of building communities of teachers and researchers provides both groups with opportunities to develop the tools to talk about teaching and discuss the everyday challenges emerging from the complex work of teaching. However, efforts to forge convergence of these communities in a manner which is intellectually challenging, sustaining and affords avenues for mutual learning have indeed been scant. The evolution of such spaces can be utilized to develop an understanding of the knowledge required for teaching, and talking about the complex work of teaching. When organizing professional development experiences, such spaces are structured by the teacher educator or researcher usually with a clear set of goals. As a researcher, organizing a session with mathematics school teachers has involved selection of tasks which are based in teacher’s practice. However, in the workshop mode interactions with teachers tend to rely on a unidirectional relation between the knowledge being passed on from the researchers or teacher educators to teachers. One wonders how could such a learning space be re-configured to create opportunities for mutual engagement and learning among teacher educators/ researchers and teachers. This kind of an imagination requires a more active participation of teachers in the process of their learning and development. In this paper, we aim to discuss the processes underlying the creation of such a space and the complexities of situating it within the sites of practice. The larger aim of the research study was to explore the nature of mathematics teachers’ knowledge about students’ thinking in specific topics and examine ways in which it gets manifested in their practice. The study was carried out in 2012-13 with a group of four experienced mathematics teachers from a school in Mumbai. In the first year, the focus was on understanding the nature of practice and teacher’s perspectives on their own teaching. In the second year, we organized focused interactions with the individual and group of teachers and researchers through weekly teacher researcher meetings (TRMs) held in the school.

In this paper, we use the data from TRMs to understand the evolution of the learning space for teachers and researchers over time. While the discussions during these meetings centered around the mathematics taught in classrooms, the processes underlying the group discussions were social in nature. We notice a change in teachers’ participation in these meetings over time. Teachers’ responses were guided by normative ways of behaving and talking about teaching. Participation in the learning space required challenging some of these norms and providing alternatives where teachers are supported in and outside their classrooms. In this paper, we attempt to discuss the processes underlying the changing nature of discussions during TRM. We articulate the struggles in developing the culture of talking about teaching as well as the affordances generated in the process of engagement. The data of teacher meetings included transcription of audio and video records, and detailed notes are used to identify patterns in interactions between teachers and researchers. We select the data from an initial, a mid-course, and a near end session (or meeting) to study the changes in the nature of discourse temporally.

The analysis of processes focuses on the content and nature of discourse about mathematics teaching, developing the tools to analyse students’ mathematical work, talking about ones’ own practice, etc. The emergent processes operating in these discussions included recreating the norms of discussions, gathering tools to talk about practice deeply, and developing an understanding of mathematics in classrooms. The paper will locate its findings within the theoretical perspective on Social Learning Theory (SLT) proposed by Wenger and Trayner. The change in discourse involved the changing identification of teachers and researchers in their experiences of boundary crossing. Extending the communities of practice idea (with core elements of practice, meaning, and identity proposed by Lave and Wenger), the disciplines identified in SLT of alignment, engagement, and imagination will be used to analyse the changing discourse in the course of meetings. Further, the nuances of the emergence of these disciplines in relation to re-configuring the norms of this learning space will be discussed. In the process of analysis, we find emergence of a dialectical relation between these three disciplines and the potentials for offering an alternative image of the landscape of teaching and learning.

The centrality of the question lies in the organization of further experiences of working with teachers where the social processes play a significant role in organizing such spaces for mutual learning and engagement. The nature of interactions between teachers and researchers, among teachers, and teachers with students provides a useful data point in arguing for enabling such learning opportunities by re-thinking about these spaces of learning. The paper draws upon an empirical, analytical approach to studying teacher meetings and draw insights and evidences to argue about the significance of developing professional learning communities for in-service teachers in general and for mathematics education in particular.

78

### CAN SOCIAL MOVEMENTS LEAD TO EDUCATIONAL CHANGE? OMEREFLECTIONS ON A CASE STUDY OF THE ADIVASI MUNNETRA SANGAM

### Author :Amman Madan

### Institution: Azim Premji University

**Abstracts** :

Debates on making Indian education more inclusive and egalitarian tend to revolve within two kinds of paradigms: (a) educational content and method, viz. improving the curricula, textbooks and teaching methods, bringing them in line with educational goals which may variously range from creating skills and human capital at one end of the spectrum to an emphasis on self-discovery or good citizenship at the other; (b) enhancing organizational and systemic processes, which may range from improving teacher colleges to privatization of schools to strengthening the roles of leaders. These two paradigms are popular with both the state as well as with the NGOs which are increasingly active in this sector. They are also inter-connected, though relatively few organizations work upon all of these together. In contrast with the above two, a voluble but smaller group of voices has emphasized the role of politics as an independent force for improving education in India and elsewhere (Saxena 1998, Bowles and Gintis 2011/1976, Anyon 2005, Apple 2007). It is argued that the key and primary factor missing for educational change is the lack of political will and not technical abilities and resources. Social movements are one of the main ways of creating that political will. It is through social movements and shifting the balance of power within the political system that the normative orientations of key actors will change. Only then shall strategic institutions generate the will to pull attention and effort away from competing demands and put them into improving the education system instead.

It is well known in comparative education that political processes have a significant role to play in the expansion and improvement of education systems. The examples of communist countries like Cuba (Gasperini 2000, Carnoy 2007) and the USSR (Zajda 1980) show how a strong dictate from centralized command systems led to a dramatic growth of access and an improvement in average quality. For all its problems with the US embargo and the collapse of the Soviet Union, Cuba still managed to have the highest levels of achievement scores in South America (UNESCO 2008). Similar evidences of the key role of politics in improving schooling for the lower classes comes from Western Europe. For instance, in the second half of the twentieth century the growth of comprehensive schooling and the decline of streaming in UK was driven by changes in the ideologies of the rulers, a culture of greater egalitarianism and new social and political alliances which expanded the bases of power (Lawton 2004, Aldrich 2002). Combined with a change in the economic structure, it was this shift which led to the opening of new universities and increased social mobility (Halsey et.al. 1992), though recent decades and further policy shifts may have seen a reversal of that trend (Themelis 2008).

This paper is a step towards examining the possibilities and limitations of social movements as a source of transformation of the education sector. It is about the Adivasi MunnetraSangam (AMS), a social movement for adivasi empowerment which emerged in the Nilgiri hills of Tamil Nadu and the impact it has had on local education. An analysis of its work is hoped to be able to give some insights on what one can expect social movements to achieve in the south Asian context and also what they cannot be expected to achieve.

SOCIAL MOVEMENTS FOR EDUCATION

The study of social movements has been an active area in both sociology as well as in politics. These may be defined as having dense informal networks engaged in a conflict with some other entity, united by a collective sense of identity (Della Porta and Diani 2006: 20). In sociology there has developed a considerable body of theoretical work around social movements, but this has mainly been oriented to explaining their rise, success and decline. Theories which explore social conflict, social organizations and networks, political opportunities and mediation, identity, culture and framing have provided rich insights into many social movements across the world (cf. Della Porta and Diani 2006, Opp 2009). Social movements for specifically transforming education have been an area of special interest for scholars in the United States and Canada, particularly for those inspired by critical pedagogy. Michael Apple (1999, 2007, 2008, with Beane 2009), Stanley Aronowitz (2008, with Giroux 1987), Henry Giroux (2001, 2005), to name just a few, have written extensively about social movements or community-based organizations working to defend and strengthen public schools there. For them the significance of such movements has lain in their potential to balance the influence of neo-conservative, neo-liberal and religious fundamentalist forces in education. In recent years there have even emerged how-to manuals with instructions for mobilizing communities (Kahn 2010, Warren and Mapp 2011).

A clear inference from studies of social movements is that their possibilities and limitations have to be understood only with reference to the local context. There is no single formula from which a movement can spring. Nor can its impact be deductively predicted from looking at one situation into another. The political opportunity structure, local cultures, institutions and contradictions, all these impact what a movement can be expected to achieve. Studies of social movements in other regions, therefore, may provide great inspiration and many ideas, but do not translate easily into the South Asian context.

ADIVASI MUNNETRA SANGAM

ACCORD (Action for Community Organisation, Rehabilitation and Development) is an organization which began work in 1985 in the Gudalur block of the Nilgiris district in Tamil Nadu, abutting the border with Kerala and Karnataka. ACCORD built a cadre of adivasi youth who in turn formed a community-based organisation, the Adivasi MunnetraSangam. The AMS has led protests for the recovery of land for adivasis which had been taken over by outsiders. Over the years it has established itself as an important and effective voice for the protection of adivasis. This mass base is significant since it has led to a different trajectory in its educational work than that seen in NGOs which work directly with the state and government schools. Their educational work was studied through extensive interviews of teachers and activists, classroom observations and by drawing upon various documents generated by ACCORD and AMS.

A hallmark of the AMS has been its highly decentralised organisational structure. The adivasi activists have had a decisive voice in what was needed and how it was to be operationalised. There was a conscious decision not to centralize power and thus avoid the fate of most NGOs. It meant keeping alive a culture of grassroots democracy and never becoming just service delivery personnel for the government. This implied continued and deliberate efforts to enhance the adivasis' decision making powers, their culture, their unity and their values. This was in marked contrast with many NGOs' trajectory of consolidating power within a narrow bureaucratic structure and building firm-client relations with their beneficiaries, which eventually debilitated the local community and its sense of agency.

EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION

Given the importance of adivasi identity, culture and language to AMS's methods of mobilization, it was inevitable that education draw its attention. A basic challenges has been that of how to straddle two worlds – that of the adivasis and that of the region's dominant cultures. A second challenge was what kind of education could they get that would not dump them again at the bottom of the social and economic heap. They wanted instead an education which could set them up as independent self-respecting community members.

The AMS led several initiatives, with some successes and some failures. Both kinds of consequences give insights into our question of the potential and limitations of social movements for educational change. AMS initially tried to take over government run tribal schools but had to retreat in the face of stiff resistance from the teachers and school administration and now works with government schools by assisting them without trying to control the entire institution.

Vidyodaya, an alternative school, has instead become the core for cultivation of adivasi teachers and educational activists. AMS's political stance of the centrality of adivasi culture underwrites and encourages pedagogic innovations that support that culture. The respect and compassion of the teachers, para-teachers and activists for adivasi students has led to several remarkable practices in Vidyodaya school which go a long way to help adivasi children make the best of school life. A teacher training curriculum was set up which introduced them to the history of adivasis in India. It also established why they were at the bottom of the social and economic ladder and that it was no fault of theirs. It discussed ways of getting out of the cycle. Into the school curriculum for children were introduced the history of the land rights movement, the geography of their villages, their food and living practices. Elders from the community came into the class room to talk of their experiences, their rituals, customs, values and the way forward. They taught their origin stories, their songs, stories and dances. These became part of the daily routine of the school, breaking some of the barriers between home and school. Today it is the adivasis who run the school and they have been able to further develop curricula which integrate their lives into the school context. Not just in terms of content, but also in terms of adivasi ethos and values in the functioning of the school. Several interesting pedagogic innovations have been documented from the school.

Along with the innovative school, AMS has set up an extensive network for supporting adivasi children to get into and then stay in school at several locations across the region. Building upon an intimate knowledge of the problems of adivasi parents and tapping organizational resources from within the community AMS has been able to ensure that every adivasi child is now in school.

The processes involved in all these educational activities by ACCORD re-affirm local democracy and participation, thereby avoiding the passiveness which could come up by handing over agency to the bureaucratic machinery of an NGO or the state. Empowerment and mobilization is deliberately cultivated and protected. The cultivation of a substantive democracy with continued participation of the people is a keystone of AMS's work as documented through the study.

POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITATIONS OF MOVEMENTS

AMS and its work present an opportunity to reflect upon the possibilities and limitations of the social movements approach over the nowadays more familiar approach of working directly upon curricula, pedagogy, school organization and teacher education through state institutions or NGOs. There are obvious difficulties in generalizing on the basis of just one case study. And yet the benefit of a case study is the insights it may offer for generalization building and subsequent testing. The AMS study does seem to support the notion that a substantial change in the nature of political control over educational institutions is very important for moving them into more egalitarian directions. This political change must include relevant shifts in the normative orientations and cultural beliefs of the elites who control the education system. It may or may not actually be a change of classes or groups or in the composition of the elite, but at the very least their ideas and culture must change for significant improvements in a static education system. Social movements offer a way of achieving such a political change.

However the AMS and Vidyodaya experience also points to the importance of cultivating technical expertise along with political strength. Pedagogic knowledge and the ability to formulate new curricula are key abilities for changing the education system and these may be developed at sites other than social movements alone. While social movements can give them momentum, the cultivation of teachers requires more effective teacher education institutions.

Social movements for greater democratisation have the capacity to change the overall climate within which institutions function. Without such a change the cultural milieu and goals of institutions may continue to remain under the influence of entrenched dominant groups. And yet, it would appear that “institution-building” continues to be important, whether it is for strengthening of teacher education institutes or the effective functioning of school bureaucracies themselves or improving teaching and research in the higher education system which generates potential teachers who know their subjects well. For those who want to work for egalitarian education systems, it is worth asking whether democratic social movements may well be a necessary ingredient for educational change that empowers the oppressed. At the same time, it also seems plausible that while necessary they may not be sufficient to ensure that such change takes place.

**79**

**Children and schools in the Dal Lake in Kashmir: Some preliminary findings and observations.**

**Author :** Farida Khan

**Abstract:**

Over the last two to three decades India has made remarkable progress in getting children into schools and the target of universal elementary education for the country finally seems to be in sight. This dramatic increase in numbers has changed the demographic profile of the school going population and several formerly excluded groups – notably Dalits, STs and girls - are entering schools in unprecedented numbers. The urgency of initiatives to promote access has created a paradoxical situation where children are leaving government schools which are forced to serve only the poorest and most marginalized of India’s children. The highly competitive nature of access to higher education and secure employment is an important factor contributing to this exodus from government schools which is then fed by the popular perception that privilege can be ‘purchased‘ and exclusivity gained by entry into all manner of private schools.

This has created problems and challenges for the government school system and the establishment that it seems neither able to comprehend nor to address adequately. Prominent amongst these is the issue of the falling levels of academic performance, measured through formalized assessment and loosely referred to as the question of “quality”. This has become an issue of national concern, and immediate and short term remedies are being sought from all quarters without an effort to reflect seriously on the complex processes of learning, curriculum and other academic components of the system, the educational structure or policy implementation. More importantly, the social and economic context, within which schools function and this crises is embedded, is almost totally ignored in these discussions.

This paper is a tentative attempt to unravel this extremely complex relationship between the social, political and economic contexts of schooling, the ways in which intent is translated into action and how communities get excluded and children get marginalized and left behind. The data presented here come from an ethnographic study of the ‘Hanji’ community that lives on islands scattered within the Dal lake in Srinagar – the summer capital of the state of Jammu and Kashmir. The community’s living and livelihood is located within the many islands and floating gardens inside the lake where they have had legal title to land and water for generations. Despite their location in the heart of the city, the bulk of the community feels isolated with little access to urban amenities including schools and health care. Educational indicators including literacy, school enrolment and retention are amongst the lowest in the state.

According to a survey sanctioned by the Lakes and Waterworks Development Authority, there are 6250 households living in hamlets inside the lake and the total population is 38,797 (28.3% adult males and 27.4% adult females). Although the primary activity is vegetable cultivation, other activities related to the lake such as fishing are also a source of income. 71.7% of the population is illiterate, 20.7% had some form of primary or middle education, 4.43% have completed high school and 386 are graduates.

Within the context of the larger socio-economic profile of the Dal Lake inhabitants our research focussed on one private and two government schools, the children attending these, and the larger community to which the children belong. The private school is run by a Shia trust and hailed as a pioneering institution by the local community, whereas perceptions of the government schools are mixed and varied. The SSA has been instrumental in expanding the system although it has left problems in its wake. A majority of the children are first generation learners and easier physical accessibility to the schools is a recent phenomenon.

Based on the ongoing research, the paper describes the experience of schooling from the perspective of the children, the parents and the larger community with the objective of identifying the contradictions between educational rhetoric and promises made by policy on the one hand and the implementation and transactions on the ground on the other. It also highlights the disconnect between what is sought and what and how it is delivered. The prolonged political conflict that has dominated the valley since the late 80s has had direct and indirect consequences on the educational system and although the conflict affects the experience of living and learning of all children in Kashmir, the poor and the marginalised are rendered particularly vulnerable.

An added complication in this narrative is a state order of 1985, in the interest of preserving the lake, that calls for the lake to be cleared of all habitation and for the present inhabitants to be relocated elsewhere. This project is in the process of being implemented in the face of much opposition for a variety of reasons and although some part of the population has been relocated, the experience is not reported as a satisfactory one for a host of reasons. This is an added constraint to an already inadequate infrastructure in that no construction is allowed in the lake and children are confined to cramped spaces with no permissions for expansion of school buildings, playgrounds, laboratories or other facilities. The life of the community and everyday activities including schooling are necessarily effected by the political conflict and its consequences just as they have been by the order for relocation and the uncertainty that this creates.

The educational system in J&K is not bound by laws and institutions of the central government although it has been guided and influenced by national policy and modelled on its structures. The research provides rich data concerning a diverse range of issues within education: the sensitivity of the educational system to the needs of particular segments of the student population; the quality of teacher education and teacher capacity to negotiate classroom transactions and school spaces; structural support both academic and non-academic for schools, teachers and students and the aspirations and expectations of the community and the students and their perceptions and observations on the prevailing system. In an effort to link these various strands the paper will focus on some important findings and comment upon them.

A persistent finding is the ad hoc manner of educational decisions and the lack of co-ordination between the several parallel structures within the educational edifice. This is partly a reaction to the political situation of a state of instability and a desire to provide short term measures that are likely to yield and demonstrate immediate results. The large scale recruitment of teachers (regular and contractual) with little thought or rationalization of what the schools need is one example as a result of which schools with very satisfactory levels of pupil-teacher ratios have difficulty finding teachers with the necessary subject expertise and pre-service training is rendered irrelevant. The medium of instruction has been another controversial decision that has been implemented without serious deliberation.

The paper argues that there is need for serious reflection, research and analysis and a commitment to the broader idea of education that can provide a solid foundation for measures for change and for reform. It also argues that education and the school system does not and cannot exist in a vacuum and that the crisis in education cannot be addressed without attention to explicit recognition of larger social, political and economic challenges that impact the educational system at every level.

**80**

**Innovative Methods of Financing of Higher Education**

***Special Scholarship Scheme for Jammu & Kashmir***

**Author *:*** *Dr. Vetukuri P. S. Raju*

**Affiliation** : Department of Educational Finance National University of Educational Planning and Administration New Delhi-110016

**Background**

In a developing country like India, socio-economic disparity at the inter and intra-state level is so stark that no single solution can be equally valid or effective for addressing problems faced by different states. Access to education is one of the important reasons for the existence of a skewed distribution among states. Therefore, from time to time, initiatives are taken to address this issue at the primary, secondary and higher education levels. One such initiative was the constitution of an expert committee by the Prime Minister of India on 18th August 2010 with the objective of enhancing employment opportunities in Jammu & Kashmir and for formulating jobs’ plan involving the public and private sectors. The proposal emerges from the identified strategy for a human resource development initiative focusing on improving skill set through improved access to higher education.

**About the Scheme**

The ‘Special Scholarship Scheme for Jammu & Kashmir’ was started in 2011-12 by providing 5000 fresh scholarship annually to Jammu & Kashmir students. Out of this, 4500 seats are for general degree courses, 250 for engineering and 250 for medical courses. Though it was initially implemented by Ministry of Human Resource Development, but was transferred to All India Council of Technical Education in 2012-13. Under this scheme, every beneficiary would be eligible for receiving tuition fee up to Rs. 30,000 per annum for general degree course; up to Rs. 1.25 lakhs per annum for engineering course and up to Rs. 3.00 lakhs per annum for medical course that includes Bachelor of Dental Surgery. In addition to this, hostel fees and incidental charges will also be provided for all categories of courses for which the ceiling will be Rs.1.00 lakh per annum.

**Objectives of the Study**

* To evaluate the performance of the ‘Prime Minister’s Special Scholarship Scheme for Jammu & Kashmir’, launched by the MHRD, during the period from 2011-12 to 2015-16 and assess as to how far the scheme is useful to students of Jammu & Kashmir studying in the higher education institutions outside Jammu & Kashmir.
* To ascertain and assess the awareness of the students of Jammu & Kashmir about this scheme and identify their difficulties faced in applying for the scholarship.
* To identify and understand the problems and issues involved in the effective implementation of the scheme.
* To assess the impact of the scheme among those students who have been already awarded the scholarship and how far the financial assistance provided helped the students in sustaining the pursuit of higher education.

**Methodology**

Evaluating the impact of the financial assistance provided to those students of Jammu & Kashmir who secured admission in higher education institutions outside Jammu & Kashmir State, under the ‘Special Scholarship Scheme for Jammu & Kashmir’, launched by the MHRD, is significant in determining as to how far the students of Jammu & Kashmir benefited from the scholarship and also understand whether the students benefited or not. The study was conducted by using the descriptive survey method using primary and secondary data collected.

The survey has some important observations to make on the status of the Jammu and Kashmir students who have achieved progress after receiving this scholarship and the diverse ways in which the students improved are clearly focused in the analysis based on the data collected. Field Survey emerged as a significant research methodology to collect, receive and understand information personally by meeting the scholarship-holders and heads of the institutions.

The scholarship-holder students’ questionnaire seeks response on the socio-economic and educational status of the family members, issues and challenges in getting the scholarship amount. The filled-in schedule was investigated, analyzed and the details tabulated; the profile of family members and background of the student, socio-economic condition, income, education, academic achievement, difficulties in getting the scholarship etc, were identified and codified. The details were analyzed and interpreted for understanding the introduction, implementation, usage of the incentive, and how far the Jammu and Kashmir youth is benefited from this scheme. The implementation of the Special Scholarship Scheme at different levels and the details regarding awareness of the scheme among the students and the institutional heads were collected. Another questionnaire was prepared and distributed among the officials who were also involved in this scholarship scheme in one way or the other. The questionnaire contained some of the most important queries related to the scheme, its delivery system, sufficiency or insufficiency of the amount, eligibility of the students etc. The officials were suggested the feasible and conducive atmosphere to make the scheme in a better way.

The sampling frame consists of two States Haryana and Uttar Pradesh and eight districts, namely Faridabad, Gurgaon, Palwal, Panipat, Sonipat, Gautam Budh Nagar, Ghaziabad and Meerut. Twenty-six institutions of these districts were selected for the study. There were 703 beneficiaries of this Scheme in these institutions covered for the evaluation purpose.

**Major Findings**

This study has tried to analyze various dimensions of this scholarship scheme. Initially, most of the scholarship was unutilized because of lack of awareness about the scheme. Most of the students in J&K including the capital region of Srinagar were unaware about this scheme and so were unable to apply.

Counseling was done only at Jammu and Srinagar which was very inconvenient to many candidates belonging to remote areas. Besides that, uploading online application without internet accessibility was another major problem. Provisions should be made to accept application through offline mode, clear guidelines to the students and institutions explaining each step of process in the form of booklet should be provided at the time of counseling.

Students admitted in private institutions/universities/colleges through NGOs faced problems like getting eligibility for scholarship, recognition of the institution and degrees etc. Many colleges are not in the habit of regularly updating their websites, some of them even discontinuing the courses before its scheduled completion thereby making the students lose their academic years.

Many of the colleges and universities were not aware of the scheme and did not entertain the students selected by AICTE. These institutions should be informed in detail about the scheme. In a number of courses under the General Degree stream, the academic fee was much higher than the tuition fee. Therefore, scholarship amount should include all type of academic fees of the institute. Tuition fee should be increased for the general degree courses. The students have shown their inclination towards engineering degree more than general degree and medical degree courses; this should be taken into account by increasing the quota of engineering courses from 250 to a higher number. Those colleges/institutes should be allotted whose fee structure matches with the scholarship amount.

Some of the institutions did not show interest to merely admit two students as per the new guidelines of MHRD. Two supernumerary seats should be created in each of the approved programme/branch in any of the institute instead of 2 students per institute subject to a maximum ceiling of 20 students in one institution.

Many of the institutions expressed their disapproval towards Direct Benefit Transfer to students’ accounts. Clear guidelines regarding Direct Benefit Transfer should be provided to students. Students mentioned that late disbursement of scholarship led institutions to demand money from students. Institutions on the other hand stated that they had to incur heavy loss because of delay in receiving scholarship amount which included not only tuition fee and incidental charges but also other hostel charges.

A Toll free number should be started for addressing the grievances of students and institutions. Besides this, a helpdesk should be specially maintained at the implementing agency especially when Direct Benefit Transfer has been introduced. Special cell should be established both at Jammu and Srinagar and Nodal officers at AICTE and J&K should be strengthened with adequate manpower and infrastructure.

Employment details of the student beneficiaries should be maintained. Monitoring agency should be deployed to regularly assess the implementation of the scheme. Coordination among various bodies like AICTE, UGC, MCI, Govt. of J&K, Universities and institutions should be enhanced.

**81**

**Emerging ‘Private School Culture’ and Disadvantaged Sections of the Society in Uttar Pradesh, India[[6]](#footnote-6)**

**Author**: Rajshree Chanchal

**Affiliation** : Research Scholar

ZHCES, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India

**Abstract**

The issue of school choice is high on the national and international agenda. School choice programme are run and promoted by the government in many western countries but in India the school choice agenda has emerged by default rather than by design. The demand for better education and failure of government schools to keep up with the aspirations of parents for better education has lead to the emergence of private schools at large scale in different parts of India.There exists a range of private schools run by different organizations catering to different sections of the society in India. A new genre of private schools called ‘low cost’/Budget Schools had emerged during the last decade in India and other countries such Kenya and Ghana (Nambissan, 2014). Now studies acknowledge (Jeffery et al. 2005; PROBE, 2006; Srivastava, 2006, 2007; Nambissan and Ball, 2011) that there is a huge market for private schooling developing across India. The research on markets in education in India is in its nascent stage but market principles are being advocated in the school sector, for instance school vouchers and parental choice is highlighted. Markets are the part of the society and context specific hence it is essential to focus on the ‘lived market’ (Gewirtz, et al. 1995) experiences of the parents. In the education market choosing a school is not a neutral process. It is considered a ‘socially charged’ activity (Saporito and Lareau, 1999) influenced by the economic and social resources of the parents. Bourdieu (1973) points out that class and class cultures as well as economic capital and cultural capital possessed by the family plays an important role in facilitating or impeding children’s or parental negotiation with the process of schooling. The present study draws upon Bourdieu’s argument that parents belonging to different classes attach different values and meaning to education and the investment in the schooling of children is influenced by parental expectations and hopes of what they will get in future.The present paper based on an empirical study in the State of Uttar Pradesh, India, the main objective of this paper is to look at the emergence of ‘private school culture’ amongst the disadvantaged sections of the society living a semi-urban area. The study moves between numbers of levels of analysis from micro to macro level. Therefore it is possible to trace the linkages between decisions made on investment in education at family/household level with the larger socio-economic changes happening at national and international level. Based on a series of in-depth interviews of 126 parents and observation this paper tries to explore the various socio-economic factors which influence parental decisions to send children to private schools. The factors parents take into consideration while decision making and the strategies they adopt to cope up with the demands of private schooling are looked at.

**82**

**Title: Bound to Care: Writing Pedagogy & the Indian University**

**Author** : Dr. Anannya Dasgupta

**Affiliation**: Shiv Nadar University

On January 17th, 2016, Rohit Vemula a dalit PhD Student at the University of Hyderabad hung himself to death and left behind a heart wrenching suicide note that demands attention from, among others, educators who can ill-afford to ignore the challenges in higher education that he has drawn our attention to. In this paper, I will close-read and contextualize Vemula’s note in order to propose the following: 1) Consider why it is time institutions of higher education take the teaching of writing seriously. This is both a challenge and a vision for the educational destiny of India that we hope to shape. 2) Present the results of a short preliminary survey conducted between four Indian universities that are teaching writing in a sustained manner 3) Look at what the demands of writing pedagogy at the university level teaches us about how the university and its curriculum might be re-imagined. 4) Propose that care is fundamental to education and to a learner centric classroom pedagogy which is the foundation of teaching writing.

**The Letter that Rohit Vemula Wrote**

The very opening of Rohit Vemula’s letter brings our attention to his desire to be a writer: “I always wanted to be a writer. A writer of science, like Carl Sagan. At last, this is the only letter I am getting to write.” He repeats, “I always wanted to be a writer. A writer of science like Carl Sagan.”After an M.Sc in science at HCU, Vemula shifted to the PhD program in Science, Technology and Society Studies, a discipline at the cusp of science and social science that would engage him in the social impact of science and technology, a discipline that would also require him to write a lot more. The astronomer Carl Sagan, Vemula’s hero, wrote lucidly, among other things, about the cosmos making technical and specialized scientific knowledge comprehensible and accessible. The lyricism of Sagan’s prose makes even as technical a subject as astronomy a matter of human knowledge. In his book *Cosmos* he recalls being intrigued by the stars in the sky as a child and receiving no satisfactory answers from the adults about what they were, he says: “I could see they were lights in the sky. But what *were* they? Just small hovering lamps? Whatever for? I felt a kind of sorrow for them: a commonplace whose strangeness remained somehow hidden from my incurious fellows. There had to be some deeper answer.” The sorrow for strangeness made commonplace, the search for answers that are deeper and hinge on being able to make sense; and the imperative to communicatethat meaning are all things about Sagan’s science writing that would have captured Vemula’s imagination.

Vemula writes of the growing gap between his soul and his body, “I have become a monster,” he says. He experiences dehumanization and an extreme form of alienation to a point of fatal clarity. The strangeness of his experience, and that of the reality of dalit lives, is one that is normalized and accepted as commonplace. It was a normalization that he called out for its strangeness and learned to defamiliarize as he read, wrote and gathered a different set of vocabulary and for different narrative of reality, one that could possibly alter reality. What he experiences though is a gap between body and soul, between his ability to perceive and articulate

In his “first time of a final letter” Vemula hopes above all to make sense: “ Forgive me if I fail to make sense,” he says. The task at hand is no mean one, he has the brevity of a suicide note to explain why he is killing himself in a way that his inability to abide by living on is seen for the exit it is. In his note, which he also edited and scratched out sentences in, he offers a reading of his context in terms vast spaces where specific fights he was fighting were located: “Never was a man treated as a mind. As a glorious thing made up of star dust. In every field, in studies, in streets, in politics, and in dying and living.” What we get from Vemula’s note is distilled insight about what it is that finally matters.

**The commonplace strangeness of failure to care**

As an educator, a professor of literature and writing, what do I take away from Vemula’s letter that makes me want to re-imagine the university, the microcosm of the universe really? The deep and monstrous alienation that Vemula wrote about is evidence of our failure to make universities truly inclusive beyond meeting quota directives. I also take from it that university classrooms are complicated spaces that need to be understood and negotiated with care. The care especially in recognizing that education is rarely one way, that the educators have to learn from students, especially those with histories of marginalization, even as they re-imagine curriculums that impart knowledge along with aiding the ability to articulate learning and knowing. One immediate challenge to that is the accommodation of numbers and the meagerness of misdirected resources.

Andre Beteille, for instance, in his book *Universities at the Crossroads*, speaks of how world over, universities in the 20th and 21st century are essentially meeting the challenge of changing from being exclusive, elitist spaces to being secular, inclusive and more accessible to many more people than the university has ever been before. Under the aegis of a new constitution that aimed at equality, Independent India gave itself the mandate for education where it is a “universal right not a class privilege.” The 1971 Kothari commission too concluded that Education was the only alternative to bloody revolution if social transformation were to be achieved on a grand scale.” And it is precisely in staging the grandness of the scale that universities of the 21st C are facing their biggest challenge yet. In India, the public universities have been severely stressed by what Beteille calls “reckless expansion”. The public universities, he points out, have expanded their scale of operations to be more inclusive without the resources to support the needs of the numbers. In response to these problems the short term solutions that we often fall for – expanding class sizes and sacrificing meaningful teacher student ratio, looking longingly at MOOCs (such as Swayam) to solve the problem of public universities forced into disrepair seem to all have one thing in common – higher education minus care.

To articulate care the space of the university has to be understood as a space that is both open and inclusive but also bound. In his 1951 lecture “Building Dwelling Thinking” Heidegger suggests that the kind of thinking that enables dwelling is crucial for building spaces where we don’t experience boundaries as restrictive but as the point at which something new begins. To quote Heidegger: “Boundary is not that which at something stops but a boundary is where something begins its essential unfolding”. For instance, one of the definitions of a written grammatical sentence is that it is contained between two full stops. Boundaries, in other words, are an articulation of what is built, cultivated and punctuated. This is an opportunity to see boundaries negotiate the relationship between physical space, it’s habitation and the kind of thinking that will allow us to re-imagine the re-building and re-inhabiting of universities. What, in other words, is the relationship between buildings, technology, administration or the infrastructure of that houses the production of knowledge and the work that in its doing is the inhabiting of knowledge. Do we build because we inhabit? And how does a building constrain our capacity to inhabit and to be? Cast in terms of higher education, this could be rephrased as, what is the knowledge that helps us be and how does that help us rethink the university we build?

**Bound to Care: Writing Pedagogy and Higher Education**

Those of us that teach academic writing at the university level, certainly come gruesomely close to asking these gritty questions and others. I would even wager that writing courses, where they are taught, or just the state of undergraduate writing is a good place to check the pulse of the university. A closer examination of the structure and curriculum of a few different universities: Azim Premji, Ambedkar University Delhi, Ashoka University and Shiv Nadar University reveals how writing courses are predicated on a pedagogy of care. These are very difficult courses to offer because it taps close to the fault lines of the breaking point of university administrations. They demand small class sizes, inter-disciplinary curriculum, additional support system in the form of tutoring and the training and mentoring of teachers who have to be taught to do this anew. The expectation is that a writing course will improve and correct language, in addition to teaching students how to write as academics write.

In a celebrated essay, “Inventing the University” (1986) David Bartholomae argues that what characterizes the basic writing of students that is not yet college level is precisely that students are unable to speak with the authority of insiders in the language of expertise and specialization. In other words, basic writers don’t inhabit the space of the university and writing courses become instrumental in bridging the gap between what Heidegger termed building and dwelling. To teach writing is to teach ways of knowing by reading, writing and thinking critically. In *Pedagogy of the Oppressed,* Paolo Freire argues that the only kind of learning in the university worth having is if "men and women develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality but as a reality in the process of transformation." This sounds like a tall order, but it can and does in fact very powerfully inform both the content and pedagogy of writing courses.

In articulating his desire to be a writer, Vemula has made it impossible for us to ignore the connections between self-determination, dignity and the ability to coherently articulate knowledge of the self in the context of knowledge that universities are meant to produce and disseminate. Writing courses can prove to be the critical for universities to offer. Because in offering it, the space itself will have to be re-organized as well as the relationships that make and keep the space visible.

**Short Bio:** Anannya Dasgupta is Assistant Professor in the Department of English at Shiv Nadar University where she teaches literatures of the British Renaissance and Co-ordinates the teaching of Academic Writing.

83

**Human Capital Theory: A Postcolonial Critique**

**Author:** Vikas maniar

**Affiliation:**Azim Premji University

**Abstract**

*This paper presents a postcolonial critique of Human Capital Theory in postcolonial contexts. Human Capital Theory proposes that marketable knowledge and skills acquired through the process of education and other means contributes to enhance personal earnings on one hand and the economic growth on the other. This education-earnings linkage proposed by Human Capital Theory does not bear out in empirical observations in two communities, a village in Gujarat, India and in Eastern Cape, South Africa. The paper then explores the possible explanations for these observations, and proposes that this is possibly a consequence of unique postcolonial contexts and structural features of capitalist economy. It then goes on to speculate possible alternative scenarios to promote economic wellbeing of people in communities such as those mentioned earlier and the status of education in these alternative scenarios.*

**Introduction**

Many postcolonial counties have adapted the hegemonic socio-political order that the west has developed over five centuries in response to the particular historical contingencies and economic, social, political and cultural contexts that existed there. These ways of organizing a society order are characterized by an emphasis on liberal values of individual autonomy, universalism and melioration in the socio-cultural space; a capitalist mode of production, distribution and consumption in the economic space; a representative democracy and human rights based on particular conceptions of human dignity in the politico legal space. Education systems in these nations are subsequently designed to serve a social order based on these normative assumptions. In the present times, this order is undergoing a legitimation crisis in erstwhile colonies and metropoles alike (de Sousa Santos, 2005). This paper critiques the assumption of education being an enabler for individual economic progress, an argument that finds it most powerful expression in human capital theory, in particular postcolonial contexts. The human capital theory postulates that education and skilling are investments in one self and in the future prospect of a society, just like anyother capital that provides returns on the investments made (Becker,2009). At the level of a country, this would imply a high rate of economic growth for countries that have a higher and a better quality stock of human capital developed primarily through education. For an individual, this means that by educating and skilling oneself, one can then expect future economic returns from this investment through higher paying jobs in a capitalist economy. Human capital theorists argue that schooling provided the highest rates of return as compared to higher education or other forms of skill training (Psacharopoulos&Patrinos, 2004), thus locating schooling at the heart of the promise of individual economic emancipation and national economic growth in human capital theory.As already discussed, an implicit assumption in this scheme of things is that education would lead to jobs in the capitalist economy for everyone who makes this investment in education. Just how much of this promise if delivered is the subject of this paper. The paper explores this schooling – capitalist jobs linkage in the context of two rural communities, one in the Indian province of Gujarat and the other in Eastern Cape, South Africa. It argues that this promise of better jobs through education is not delivered in either of these communities even thougheach of these communities arrive at this situation via different routes. It then goes on argue that this is primarily due to particular macroeconomic contexts and the nature of local economies, particularly those in postcolonial countries, combined with structural features of capitalism, rather than the individual merit or the quality of education system. If this argument is convincing, then the questions arise as to what should the alternatives look like and what should be the role of education in this new scenario. What follows is a description of the economic and educational contexts in these two communities based on primary research that was held between June and October, 2016. While it concerned with all aspects of education, the emphasis of this paper is on Human Capital theory in context of schooling in postcolonial countries.

**Economic and Educational Context and Processes in Two Communities**

Moti Sadhli is a village with a population of 3000 located in ChhotaUdepur district of Gujarat. A majority of the population of this village are Adivasis, with Rathwas comprising about 90% of the population. The key economic activity in the village is that of subsistence agriculture complemented with migratory labour to various construction sites in major cities in western India such as Jaipur, Vapi etc. Some families also indulge in migratory sharecropping in the cotton fields in and around Rajkot in Gujarat. The village is spatially organized into *Falias*, a homestead of extended kin spread over a common ancestral land. The landholding is marginal with each family owning about 1-2 acres on an average, with the holdings reducing every generation with land getting split among the male heirs. While most of the Rathwas own land, other Adivasi communities like Dhanakas and Nayakas are in most cases landless. There is also a small population Harijanswho play a ritual role in many Rathwa ceremonies. Harijans too do not have any landholding. For people who have land ownership, land is primarily cultivated for self-consumption and is only a minor source of income. The migration labour to construction sites is the main source for income to fulfil all other needs, and most of the youth (aged 15 to 40) to migrate at least a few months in year to such sites. Most families however aspire for a job, particularly a government job, for their childrenas it is seen to be a way out of poverty and also an antidote to the vicissitudes of life dependent on subsistence agriculture.However, less than 5% of the families have members engaging in salaried jobs either in public or private sector and as would be discussed shortly, odds of them getting a salaried job are slim. There are four schools in this village: a Lower Primary School (grades 1-5) in one the Faliyas; a Higher Primary School (grades 1-8); a residential Ashram School (grades 1-8); a newly opened Model School (grades 6-12). Many of the students who pursue secondary schooling also commute to a secondary school in ChottaUdepur. Last year, of the children who enrolled in secondary education in the ChhotaUdepur taluk (block), about 50% of them could pass their SSC exams and those who made it to the higher secondary only about a third were able to pass the HSC exams. So, even for the students who made it to the secondary school, only about 17% were able to complete it. Considering that many children do not even make it to the secondary education, the rate of completion of secondary education in this region may be in single digit in percentage terms and those pursuing higher education even smaller. With SSC and HSC being the minimum qualification for many public and private sector jobs, a majority of them are already precluded from the job market by virtue of them not having passed these exams. When one looks at the availability of jobs, the picture is similarly bleak. There aren’t many industries or other wage earning jobs in the district that can be pursued. Of the few jobs that available locally, dolomite stone crushing or sand quarrying, most are not dependable and pay poorly. The opportunities for coveted government jobs are seriously limited despite the members of the community being eligible for reservations in these jobs through affirmative action. So the most feasible option for jobs is to migrate to cities for manual construction labour.

Qeto is a village of about 1000 people in 300 households, about 95% of whom speak isiXhosa as first language. Qeto is located in the erstwhile homeland of CISKEI, an area that apartheid government had earmarked for the Xhosa speaking people. In the heydays of gold and diamond mining, able males were expected to travel to the mining cities for workin mines and stay in hostels while their families stayed back in the villages in their designated homelands. The democratization of South Africa in 1994 has lifted this restriction on residency. At present Qeto is located in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. The house in Qetoare collocated in a central area, a result of to the aggressive villagisation or ‘betterment planning’ by the then apartheid government in mid-20th century. Most of the land is held communally, and allocated to different families by the traditional authorities. 50% of households are female headed, a consequence of migratory labour and causalities from AIDS, and in many cases the families comprise the pensioner grandparents living with their grandchildren, while the youth and middle aged family members have migrated to cities in search of livelihoods. Despite once dependent on subsistence farming, cultivation has all but been abandoned in the recent years after an extended incidence of draught. Social security grants are the main source of subsistence for a majority of the families. There is an extensive social security provision in the form of old age pensions, child grants and disability grants that is universally provided and almost all the black Africans are recipients of these social security grants. The village has a primary and a secondary schooland a majority of children reach matric, as the grade 12is called in South Africa. Matric is the first qualifying exam that these students face and about 60% of the students who appeared for the matric exams passed last year. But of those who passed matric only a minuscule percentage could pursue higher education mainly because of the lack of financial capacities. Thus matric becomes a terminal degree for most youth in Qeto. The absence of productive ways of engagement in the village pushes them out in search of jobs in the cities. Some take up private security jobs, other move to construction sites or mines, and still others join other low paying jobs in nearby cities. The promise of decent jobs in the capitalist economy remain unfulfilled for most of them.

While this paper presents the educational and economic context and processes in broad brush strokes, there are further nuances on how this plays out for diverse social groups. For example, gendering of this phenomena was different in the two contexts. In Qeto for example, the gendering of roles was less evident than in MotiSadhli, where women were expected to take ‘feminine’ careers such as nursing or teaching. Similarly,families that did not own land in Moti Sadhli faced a different dynamic of survival and schooling than those that did as they did not even have basic food security. The availability of social grants in Qeto had led to very specific ways in which people managed their survival given that they had a steady income. These however are not dealt with in detail here.

The following broad patterns in education and career transitions can be identified from the above discussion. Despite the weak linkages between schooling and jobs, many parents express faith in schooling for their children partly because they would like to take their chances however adverse the odds, and partly because they perceive benefits other than employment from schooling. Students continue with their schooling if there is easy access to schools till they encounter their first qualifying exam, at which stage there is filtering out of students who can progress further. Of the students who complete secondary schooling, only very few decide to continue with higher education, among other things, because of a lack of financial resources and absence of bursaries/ scholarships. Secondary school degree thus becomes a terminal qualification for most of the students from these villages. With these qualifications, public or private sector job options for them are limited. Typical public sector jobs that are pursued in Moti Sadhli include joining military, paramilitary or police forces at entry levels, clerical jobs in government, nursing/ health workers and drivers for cars/ busses. Most of the residents of Moti Sadhli qualify for affirmative action in public sector jobs, but despite that very few land up in such jobs because of the paucity of such jobs and competition for these jobs from other communities. Private sector jobs too are hard to get as there are no manufacturing or service sector opportunities in the area. Despite a higher percentage of students pursuing and completing secondary schooling in Qeto, the situation vis. a vis. higher education and jobs are similar. Typical jobs opportunities include a career in nursing and law and order related careers, and further in mining, retail and construction industries as entry level workers. Thus a large proportion of youth were under or unemployed in both these communities. The fact that the only handful of youth who are education get employment of any kind is already common knowledge in these two villages among parents, teacher and local education officials. Parents grudgingly accept the situation with a degree of frustration and resignation, while still willing to take their chances with schooling even if the odds of getting job are meagre. When challenged on why they still continue to patronize schooling when job prospects are so bleak, the allude to gaining of basic literacy in the regional language / English that facilitates mobility, access to welfare programmes and general survival in the literate world. Thus the premises of Human Capital Theory are already being discounted by the people closest to the ground. That these communities are not exceptions is evident from the fact that expanded unemployment rate in Eastern Cape stands at 43.8% (Statistics South Africa, 2016), and rural unemployment rates are likely to be higher. In case of Gujarat, while the official unemployment figures are a low 1.2% (CMIE, 2016) this hides the fact that over 90% of rural employment is in agriculture and in unorganized sectors, both of which represent a disguised under / un-employment.

**Making Sense of these Contexts and Processes**

We now turn our attention to how to make sense of this situation. Policy making in India as well as in South Africa seems to be influenced by the canon of Human Capital Theory, particularly so in the last quarter of a century or so. In India, a paradigm example of this policy focus is the so called Ambani Birla report (Ambani& Birla, 2001), but this also evidenced in other policy statements such as the recent policy on skill development (GOI, 2015) and the draft of the new National policy on Education (GOI, 2016). Similarly, linking of education, skills and labour marketswas a key theme in planning for education in a democratic South Africa, the origin of which can be traced back to labour movements against apartheid government in 1970s. For example, one of the objectives of the National Qualification Framework of South Africa is to “Facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within, education, training and career paths;” (SAQA, 2016)

Despite this emphasis, both the countries continue to face a high degree of under / unemployment as was demonstrated earlier.The reasons given for continued unemployment in postcolonial countries such as South Africa and India vary depending who you talk to. The protagonists of human capital theory present this as a supply side problem and put the blame for continued unemployment squarely on the students and the school systems. Framed in terms of skills mismatch, this argument suggests that many employers are unable to find suitable employees because they do not have the necessary qualifications for the job, and so the problem lies in the inability of the individuals to acquire these skills, or with education system as it is unable to impart the requisite skills that the industry wants. For example, the national skill development of policy of India (ibid) states, “Our country presently faces a dual challenge of paucity of highly trained workforce, as well as non-employability of large sections of the conventionally educated youth, who possess little or no job skills”. While there may be an element of truth in some of these arguments, this raises the question,if everyone had the requisite skills would they all be employed in the capitalist economy?If the frequent news about a large number of candidates applying for a handful of jobs is any indication, this does not seem to be the case. Some sociologists and economists (Dore, 1997; Collins, 1979;Brown & Session, 2007)suggest that educational qualifications may be used a signalling or screeningwhere educational qualifications serve as device to select potential employees in a situation of an oversupply for people looking for jobs. This situation may result in increasing credentialisation of existing jobs and correspondingly a race for higher educational qualifications to succeed in employment market, whether or not the skills acquired are directly related to the job in question.

The other argument that is forwarded, is that we do not have enough jobs because there is a gap in required economic activity, and with economic growth over time, eventually we would have well-paying jobs for everyone. Apart from the repugnant consequence of failing generations of youth while we wait for this utopian state to arrive, history has not borne out this fact that unhindered capitalism has can deliver on this promise of full employment. The trickle-down theory has now been discredited, and similarly the growth – employment linkage is being challenged in a scenario where the profit motive drives increased labour productivity such that it can account for most of the economic growth resulting in a situation of ‘jobless growth’, (EPW, 2010)phenomena that some argue can be observed in India as well as South Africa today.Klees (2014) makes powerful argument when he states, “unemployment is not a worker supply problem, but a structural problem of capitalism. There are two or more billion un- or under-employed people on this planet, not because they don’t have the right skills, but because full employment is neither a feature nor a goal of capitalism.” This condition is particularly acute in case of postcolonial countries such as India and South Africa as the demographic and economic landscape is very different from the developed west. Chakrbarty (2009) asserts, “A key question in the world of postcolonial scholarship will be thefollowing. The problem of capitalist modernity cannot any longer be seensimply as a sociological problem of historical transition (as in the famous“transition debates” in European history) but as a problem of translation, as well.”

What compounds the problem is a neo-liberal advocacy of rollback of welfare state and the public sector that has resulted in reduction and contractualisation of public sector jobs. The share of government employment in the labour market participation has been reducing over the years, and marginalized communities despite affirmative action are unable to find suitable employment in public sector as well.

If the line of argument so far is accepted, it significantly weakens the HCT orthodoxy of education – employment linkage and places the burden of employment of structural aspects of the economy and essential nature of capitalism.In this situation, we have to be concerned about the prospects of a significant proportion of youth not finding suitable employment and the consequences of such a predicament. In Moti Sadhli a community member referred to educated employed as people possessing a half-baked education (Gujarati: ‘adhkachrubhanela’) who refuse to work in farms or engage in manual labour and are easy target for activities such as bootlegging or working as henchmen for local politicians. Similar concerns were raised by parents in Qeto when they worried about their children getting involved in drugs or crime in the communities they live in. These observations are consistent with other studies in similar contexts. (Jeffrey et. al., 2008). This calls a serious search of alternatives rather than a blind faith in neo-liberal market forces to sort out the situation.

**Possible Futures and Their Impact on Education**

The next few paragraphs enter into a speculative exploration of what can be the alternativesto the current social arrangement based on hegemonic western conceptions, and the corresponding status of education in these alternatives. The scholarship in this area points to one of the two directions, one calls for humanising capitalism by appropriate regulatory oversight and promoting a welfare state; the other set calls for a search for alternatives to capitalist economic order which is based on solidarity rather than individualism, sufficiency and sustainability rather than melioration.

The neo-liberal onslaught can be rolled back if government regulations mandate the business to ensure favourable labour conditions and generating resources for government run welfare programme would indeed be a step forward. This would result in a higher welfare spend for social sectors such as education and a reinvigoration of government programmes may open up new avenues of employment for some. Social security grants, and growing demand for a universal basic income if accepted, may assuage some of the ills of widespread unemployment and help in economic wellbeing of families. This strategy however depends on business generating enough resources to pay for the redistributive welfare programmes and implied bias to enable business growth. But even in this scenario a possibility of jobless growth in private sector cannot be ruled out. Employment generation in private sector can be supported through government regulation and incentives in this direction. Shifting the discourse from making education a key criteria in securing jobs and livelihoods, to making the structural features of the economy and essential features of capitalist economy equally responsible for widespread unemployment would prompt new set of policy action that may have positive impact on creating jobs. Education in the scenario may have increased public resources contributing to equity and quality in schooling and even better access to higher education for the poor. The underlying dynamic of the nature of capitalism can be tempered to an extent.

In contrast, some scholars point to looking at alternatives that look beyond the capitalist modes of production (de Sousa Santos,2006 ) proposes a search for cooperative modes of production or solidary economy, alternative development, and alternatives to development. While the debates on these alternatives have been going on for some time, Santos suggests that we might only now be in situation for a paradigmatic shift.Many protagonists had advocated alternate systems of organizing the society on the eve of independence of their respective countries, point out to their cultural, social and historical contexts that were different from the west. Gandhi’s gram swaraj and Nyere’scall self-reliance are a few such examples. In each of these cases, they also had a corresponding vision for education systems that would cater to the needs of such a way of arranging the social order. Gandhi advocated Nai Talim (Sykes, 1987) where as Nyrere(1967) called for education for self-reliance. In such a scenario, education systems would likely have to undergo a radical change to align themselves with new social order, and likely to emphasise alternate values such as solidarity, equity and universal need fulfilment, and a focus on sustainable lifestyles. Education would then be a tool for social transformation, rather than feeding into the existing hegemonic structures, not quite different from the role it played in Europe during the transition to European modernity but this time in the pursuit of a different mode of organizing the society. For example, Qeto already has a large communally owned land that can be used for co-operative economic activities. The village headmen of Qeto had expressed a hope to start a cooperative dairy to capitalize on the vast swathes of communal land and the abundance of livestock in that village. He believed that by doing so, the youth would be engaged in productive activity that would benefit the village.

**Concluding Observations**

This paper has argued for different understanding of the functioning of Human Capital Theory in postcolonial contexts. The modes of organizing the society around the hegemonic economic and socio-political order are strained in delivering economic wellbeing in postcolonial countries both because of the inherent structural features of a capitalist economy and the differing historical and socio-cultural contexts that call for ‘translation’ rather than ‘transition’ of western ideas in theses contexts . This challenges the strong education-employment linkages that Human Capital Theory advocates and directs our attention to equally important aspects of how the economy is structured and how can the capital be made to deliver social goods while it is chasing private profits. It has also argued for an exploration to alternatives to capitalist mode of production wherever possible as what was described as ‘solidary economy’. In these situations, education would have key role to play to help communities function in this new ways of organizing the society.

**References**

Ambani, M., & Birla, K. (2001). Report on a policy framework for reforms in education. Government of India, New Delhi.

Becker, G. S. (2009). Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education. University of Chicago press.

Brown S. & Sessions J.G.(2007 ) Signalling and Screening. In Johnes, G., &Johnes, J. (Eds.). International handbook on the economics of education. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Center for Monitoring of India Economy (2016). <http://unemploymentinindia.cmie.com/> accessed on 6-Nov, 2016 10:54pm.

Chakrabarty, D. (2009). Provincializing Europe: Postcolonial thought and historical difference. Princeton University Press.

Collins, R. (1979). The credential society: An historical sociology of education and stratification. Academic Pr.

Dore, R. (1997). Reflections on the diploma disease twenty years later. Assessment in Education, 4(1), 189-206. GOI (2015). National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship. Government of India.

De Sousa Santos, B. (2006). Another production is possible: Beyond the capitalist canon (Vol. 2). Verso.

De Sousa Santos, B. (2005). General introduction: Reinventing social emancipation: Toward new manifestos. Democratizing democracy: Beyond the liberal democratic canon, xvii-xxxiii.

EPW (2010). Editorial. Economic and Political Weekly. Vol. 45, Issue No. 39, 25 Sep, 2010

GOI (2016). Report of the Committee for Evolution of the New Education Policy. Ministry of Human Resource Development. Government of India.

Jeffrey, C., Jeffery, P., & Jeffery, R. (2008). Degrees without freedom?: Education, masculinities, and unemployment in north India. Stanford University Press.

Klees, R. (2014). Foreward. In Vally, S., &Motala, E. Education, economy and society.

Nyerere, J. K. (1967). Education for self‐reliance. The Ecumenical Review, 19(4), 382-403.

Psacharopoulos, G., &Patrinos, H. A. (2004). Human capital and rates of return. International handbook on the economics of education.

SAQA (2016). <http://www.saqa.org.za/list.php?e=NQF>. Accessed on 6-Nov, 2016 11.01 pm. South African Qualifications Authority.

Statistics South Africa (2016). Quarterly Labour Force Survey. Quarter 2: 2016.

Sykes, M. (1987). The Story of Nai Talim. Wardha: Nai Talim Samiti.

84

**TUITION CLASSES AND ORIENTATION TO MATHEMATICS LEARNING: A STUDY AT SECONDARY LEVEL OF SCHOOLING IN SEMI RURAL CONTEXT**

**Author:** Varsha Sadafule

**Affiliation**: Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai

**Keywords :**Mathematics Learning

Secondary School

Socioeconomic Background

**Introduction :**

This study tried to see the social context of mathematics learning in semi rural area by understanding the views of students, teachers and parents about learning of mathematics in relation to the students’ social identity. In this paper I have highlighted some part of study which suggests that students’ social class impacted on their learning in terms of tuition classes. Hierarchical division of Marathi classes and Semi-English classes orient students learning of mathematics subject at junior college level. This is mixed method approach. Data is collected by three data sources, questionnaire, observations and semi structured interviews. 70 questionnaires are filled by students from four classes of Marathi (Two) and Semi English (Two) divisions to understand their socioeconomic background. Classes of Algebra and Geometry have been observed to see the classroom participation and semi-structured interviews are done with 9 selected students, three mathematics teachers and 2 parents to understand their views about mathematics learning. Study observes that students socioeconomic background relates to students tuition classes and hence to their orientation of mathematics learning.

Key Words: Mathematics Learning, Secondary School, Socioeconomic Background

**BACKGROUND**

In mathematics Paul Ernest (1994), Sal Restivo(1994), Paul Dowling (1998), (Skovsmose, 2005)Ole Skovsmose (2005), Paola Valero (2007) have made important contribution by their studies to shift traditional view of mathematics which was bounded to the numbers, rules, formulas or measurement towards the social perspective of mathematics education.

Skovsmose suggested that learning means action and learning as action means it could be performance or it could be the attainment. Skovsmose’s ‘*Foreground*’ and ‘*Background’* concepts are useful to see the students learning in meaningful way. He argued that when students found mathematics is impossible then it can be relates to their ‘Ruined Foreground’ (Skovsmose, 2012, p. 6). According to Paul Dowling choice of mathematics as the empirical domain is not is not arbitrary because of its explicitness of grammar, mathematics text is more distinctive, and mythology activity of mathematics. Also he made distinction between mathematics and other subjects. He suggested that mathematics is complex as it signifies diverse semiotic registers and perceived necessity to understand this coordination increases the difficulty level of students (Dowling, 2010).

Valero have explained that school children improve their understanding and thinking process in to the school is connected to the school practices social activities. School children exercise this understanding in relation to the power relations which are existed outside the school. Therefore she suggested that teaching learning process is not restricted to the classroom or school but also involves to textbook writers, policy makers, communities expectations, and labour market. These are social actors exercises their power. At the national level education

2

gets its meaning to solve cognitive problem which is only one aspect of many in the broader context of many as there are many other factors for example students background, language, cultural conflicts in the school and outside the school affects educational research of mathematics (Valero, 2007).

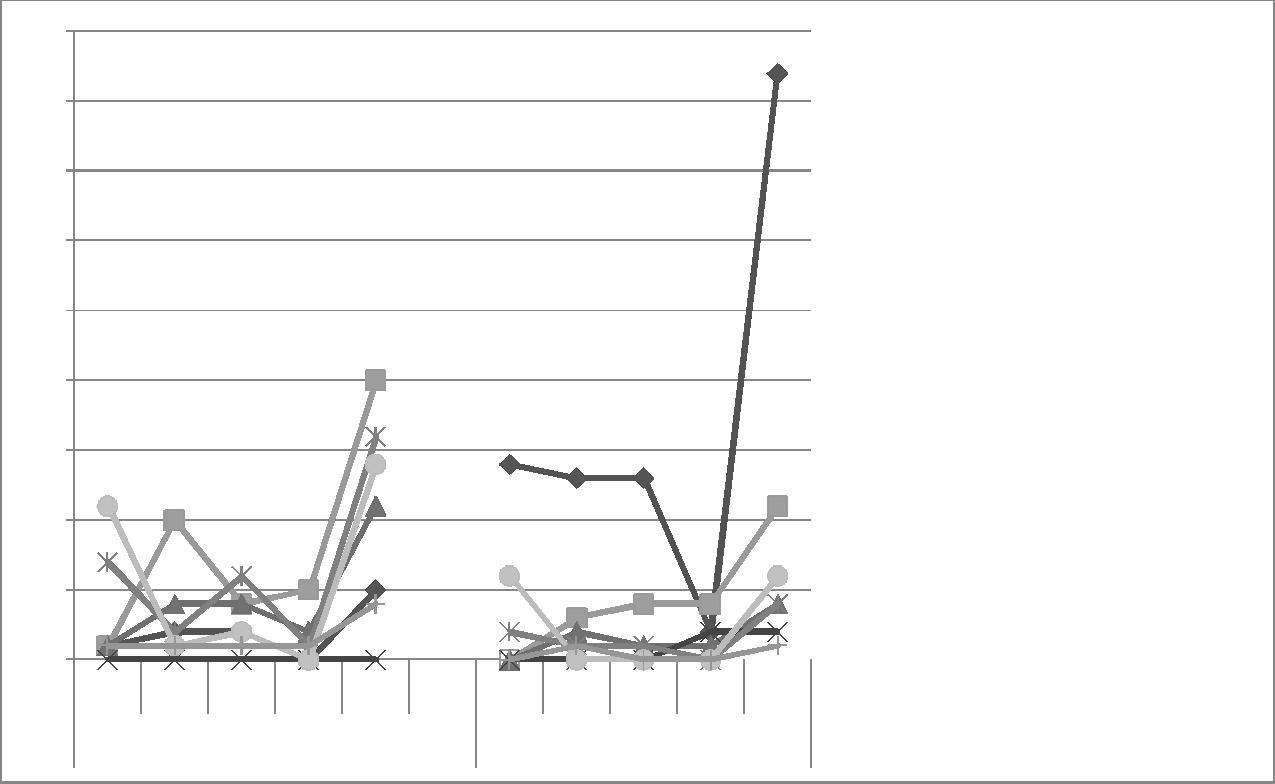
**SITE OF THE STUDY**

This study is conducted in government aided secondary school in Ahmednagar district of Maharashtra state. School is old and prestigious school in the village and nearby villages. School conducts a test to select students for Semi-English classes in class 5. For class 6 students are divided in to ‘Semi English’ divisions A and B and ‘Marathi’ divisions C and D. In semi-english classes mathematics and science are taught in english language while in marathi classes these subjects are taught in marathi language.

**SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND AND TUITION CLASSES**

Chart 1 shows the information about fathers and mothers’ occupation. Chart 2 shows the information about fathers and mothers’ qualification of selected 70 students from four divisions. In chart 1 out of 22 students interviewed in class 9A, 11 and 7 fathers and 6 and 2 mothers are working in government and private sector respectively. 5 fathers are post graduates and 9 are graduates while 4 mothers manage completed their graduation degree and 5 completed higher secondary education. In other three classes 10B, 10C and 9D this number is significantly low. In class 10B only one father has completed post graduation degree and 4 are graduates while no mother has completed post graduate or graduate degree. In class 10C, 4 fathers are graduates no mother is graduate. For class 9D this number is significantly low as in class 9D no father and mother is post graduate or graduate.

**Chart 1: Fathers’ and Mothers’ Occupation**



45

40

35

30

25

20

15

10

5

0

Not working/House wife

Wage labour

Agricultural labour on own land

Agricultural labour on others land

Private Emp

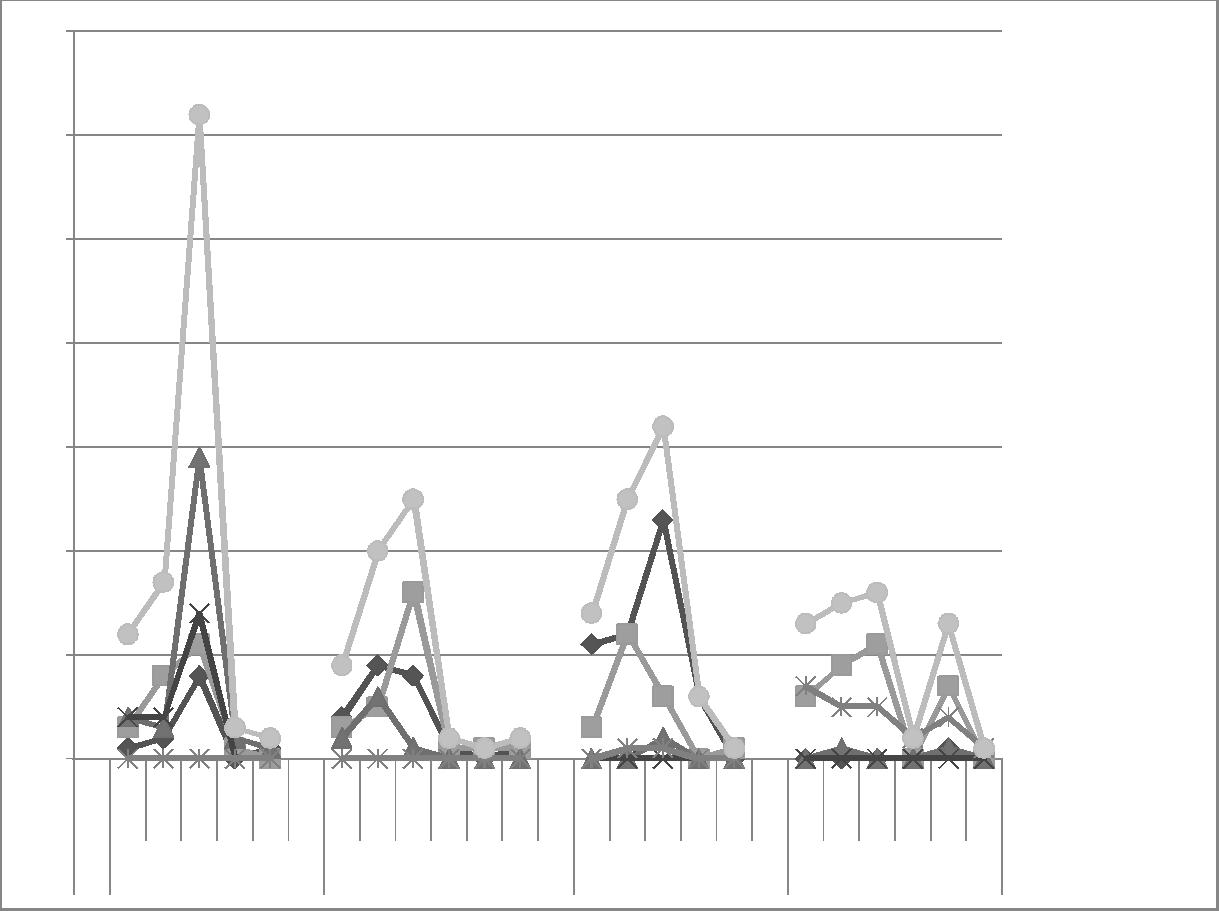
Gov Emp

Not Attempted

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |
| 9A 10B 10C 9D Total | 9A 10B 10C 9D Total | | |
|  |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 40 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 25 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9A | 10B | 10C | 9D | Total | 9A | 10B | 10C | 9D | Total |
|  | Fathers Qualification | | | |  | Mothers Qualification | | | |

**Chart 2: Fathers’ and Mothers’ Qualification**



Primary

Seconday

Higher Secondary

Graduation

Post Graduation

Not Attempted/Don’t know

70

60

50

40

30

20

10

0

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| NTOBCOpenSCST | NTOBCOpenSBCSCST | NTOBCOpenSCST |
| STD A | STD B | STD C |

1—10

11--20

21--30

31—40

Absent

Total

|  |
| --- |
| NTOBCOpenSBCSCST |

STD D

**Chart 3: Student Performance in Mathematics**

Chart 3 shows the data of students’ mark in unit test out of 40 marks. In class 9A out of 53 boys 16 got marks in the range 31-40 while 6 girls out of 43 falls in this category. In other

4

classes 10B, 10C and 9D no student got marks in this range. In class 9A, 19 boys and 20 girls got marks in the range 21-30. For class 10B, 7 boys and 2 girls got marks in this range. In class 10C, 2 boys got marks in this range while no girl falls in this category. For class 9D only one boy and one girl are in this range of marks. So, in this way we can see the disparity in the performance of students in mathematics subject are goes down with the hierarchical nature of divisions A to B, B to C, and C to D.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Division |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Tuition\_Subjects | | | | |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Math, | | Sci | | Math | Math | | Math | Sci |  | Eng | | Not |  | Not | | Total |
|  | and | |  |  | and | and | |  |  |  |  |  | Applicable | | Given | |  |
|  | Eng | |  |  | English | Sci | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9A | 20 | |  |  | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 1(Girl) |  | 0 |  | 1 |  | 0 |  | 22 |
| 10B | 10 | |  |  | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |  | 2 |  | 4 |  | 20 |
| 10C | 04 | |  |  | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 |  | 2 |  | 11 |  | 0 |  | 19 |
| 9D | 00 | |  |  | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 |  | 1(Boy) | | 8 |  | 0 |  | 09 |
| Total | 34 | |  |  | 2 | 1 |  | 2 | 2 |  | 3 |  | 22 |  | 4 |  | 70 |
| **Table 1: Subjects of Tuition classes** | | | | | | | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | If\_No\_Tuition\_Reasons | | | | |  |  |  |  | Total |
|  |  |  |  |  | |  |  | |  | |  |  |  |  | |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | Poor | |  | Do not | | Study at | |  | Not |  | Not | |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | economic | |  | find | | school | |  | Applicable | | Given | |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | condition | |  | time | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Division |  | 9A |  | 1 |  |  | 0 |  | 0 |  |  | 21 |  | 0 |  |  | 22 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 10B |  | 0 |  |  | 0 |  | 0 |  |  | 19 |  | 1 |  |  | 20 |
|  |  | 10C |  | 8 |  |  | 2 |  | 1 |  |  | 8 |  | 0 |  |  | 19 |
|  |  | 9D |  | 8 |  |  | 0 |  | 0 |  |  | 1 |  | 0 |  |  | 9 |
| Total |  |  |  | 17 | |  | 2 |  | 1 |  |  | 49 |  | 1 |  |  | 70 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**Table 2: Reason for not Joining Tuition Classes**

Table 1 shows that in class 9A almost all students join tuition classes for mathematics, science and english subject except one girl student, she join tuition for science subject only. For class 10B 10 students join tuitions for three subjects some of them join either mathematics or english or science. 2 of them did not join while 4 did not attempt this question. In class 10C 4 students join tuitions for all three subjects, 8 did not joined the classes. For class 9D no students joined classes except one boy student joined tuition for english subject. Students are paying 6000 Rs to 7000 Rs per year. For mathematics subject fees is high i.e. 3000 Rs per year. Table 2 makes clear that mostly students are not joining tuition classes because of their poor economic condition.

Table 3 shows that out of 22 selected students 19 students willing to select mathematics or science subject at junior college in class 10B out of 20 nearly 16 students willing to go in science discipline. While on the other hand this number is low for class 10C and negligible for class 9D.

5

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | Maths\_or\_Science\_Jr | |  | Total |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Yes | No | Not Given |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9A | 19 | 3 | 0 | 22 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Division | 10B | 16 | 1 | 3 | 20 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 10C | 12 | 7 | 0 | 19 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9D | 1 | 8 | 0 | 9 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total | | 48 | 19 | 3 | 70 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**Table 3: Mathematics or Science at Junior College**

**CONCLUSION**

Above data and description clearly shows that socioeconomic status of student affects students learning, achievement in mathematics subject and also the orientation of learning towards the mathematics subject. This study also suggests the need to see the learning process from socioeconomic background of student and to see the learning from intertwined nature of gender and caste along with social class dimension in Indian context.

**References**

Dowling, P. (2010). Abandoning Mathematics and Hard Labour in Schools A new sociology of knowledge and curriculum reform. pp. 1-24.

Dowling, P. (1998). *The Sociology of Mathematics Education.* London: The Falmer Press.

Restivo, S. (1994). The Social Life of Mathematics. In P. Ernest, & P. Ernest (Ed.),

*Mathematics Education and Philosophy: An International Perspective* (1st Editioned., pp. 209-219). London, Washington, United Kingdom: The Falmer Press.

Skovsmose, O. (2012).Students' foregrounds: Hope,despair, uncertainty (Creative Common Attribution License) Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/pythagoras.v33i2.162

Skovsmose, O. (2005, March). Foreground and Politics of learning Obstacles. *For theLearning of Mathematics* (25), pp. 4-10.

Valero, P. (2007). What has Power got to do with Mathematics? *Philosophy of MathematicsEducation Journal , 21*, 1-13.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |

**85**

**Emerging ‘Private School Culture’ and Disadvantaged Sections of the Society in Uttar Pradesh, India**

**Author**: Rajshree Chanchal

**Affilation**: Research Scholar

ZHCES, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India

**Key words:** Private schools, Parents, Market, Disadvantaged Sections

**Abstract**

The issue of school choice is high on the national and international agenda. School choice programme are run and promoted by the government in many western countries but in India the school choice agenda has emerged by default rather than by design. The demand for better education and failure of government schools to keep up with the aspirations of parents for better education has lead to the emergence of private schools at large scale in different parts of India. There exists a range of private schools run by different organizations catering to different sections of the society in India. A new genre of private schools called ‘low cost’/Budget Schools had emerged during the last decade in India and other countries such Kenya and Ghana (Nambissan, 2014). Now studies acknowledge (Jeffery et al. 2005; PROBE, 2006; Srivastava, 2006, 2007; Nambissan and Ball, 2011) that there is a huge market for private schooling developing across India. The research on markets in education in India is in its nascent stage but market principles are being advocated in the school sector, for instance school vouchers and parental choice is highlighted. Markets are the part of the society and context specific hence it is essential to focus on the ‘lived market’ (Gewirtz, et al. 1995) experiences of the parents. In the education market choosing a school is not a neutral process. It is considered a ‘socially charged’ activity (Saporito and Lareau, 1999) influenced by the economic and social resources of the parents. Bourdieu (1973) points out that class and class cultures as well as economic capital and cultural capital possessed by the family plays an important role in facilitating or impeding children’s or parental negotiation with the process of schooling. The present study draws upon Bourdieu’s argument that parents belonging to different classes attach different values and meaning to education and the investment in the schooling of children is influenced by parental expectations and hopes of what they will get in future. The present paper based on an empirical study in the State of Uttar Pradesh, India, the main objective of this paper is to look at the emergence of ‘private school culture’ amongst the disadvantaged sections of the society living a semi-urban area. The study moves between numbers of levels of analysis from micro to macro level. Therefore it is possible to trace the linkages between decisions made on investment in education at family/household level with the larger socio-economic changes happening at national and international level. Based on a series of in-depth interviews of 126 parents and observation this paper tries to explore the various socio-economic factors which influence parental decisions to send children to private schools. The factors parents take into consideration while decision making and the strategies they adopt to cope up with the demands of private schooling are looked at.

**86**

**Social Inequality – Community**

**Author : M. Anasuyamma**

**Affilation : Academician SVU**

**Keywords**: Inequality, Community, Sustainable, Self Driven,

**Abstracts :**

Social inequality is a resultant of differential access to wealth, power and prestige. In general, in our societies, the social inequalities exist in the areas of Gender, Race, Age, Ethnicity and Religion. The classification of societies will affect Life style, Interests, Tastes, Language, Self-image, values, political orientation, access to resources, such as education, health care, housing and consumer goods, access to power, wealth and prestige. Social in equality will not only lead to the differences we live in but also it leads to differences in life expectancy. In some countries, like UK for example, this inequality comes with the profession, in some other countries like in India, it is due to caste systems, which are originated from the kind of the work a particular group of people will be doing.

In any case, social inequality is not a good tool for the long-term and sustainable wellbeing of the societies. With the kind of technology development and awareness programs through various media, there is a great progress to address the social inequality issues but there is a lot more to be done. It should be more of a self-driven change than forced by external circumstances (like, Government laws etc.,). If we can address this issue completely we will have society that is a much better and comfortable livelihood. The above mentioned inequalities, addressing these and the way they influence the human wellbeing in the society will be discussed in detail in this article.

**87**

**Education and Social Inequalities in Higher Education**

**Author : Dr. M.Rajendra Nath Babu**

**Affilation : Assistant Professor, Department of Teacher Education, Nagaland University, Kohima Campus, Meriema, Nagaland- 797 004,**

**Keywords**: Education, Inequaliteis, Higher Education

**Abstract :**

Educational Inequality is the difference in the [learning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Learning) results, or efficacy, experienced by students coming from different groups.Inequality can be understood as the absence of equality, primarily in terms of equality of opportunities.Indian society suffers from inequalities in education, employment, caste and quality education, skills, theory and practice. The main objective this article is to know the issues and inequalities in higher education institutes with reference to employment and to know the remedies

**88**

**Preparing Teachers as Agents for Developing Inclusive Society**

**Author : Ch.Baby Prasuna**

**Affilation : Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Sri Padmavati Mahila Visvavidyalayam, Tirupati.**

**Keywords**: Teacher agency, inclusive pedagogy, teacher competence, teacher education, educational change,

**Abstracts :**

,

Inclusion requires teachers to accept the responsibility for creating schools in which all children can learn and feel they belong. In this task, teachers are crucial because of the central role they play in promoting participation and reducing underachievement, particularly with children who might be perceived as having difficulties in learning. This paper draws on theories of teacher agency and inclusive pedagogy to clarify the meaning of teachers as agents of change in the context of inclusion and social justice. Inclusive practice requires the collaboration of teachers and others such as families and other professionals. Agents of change work purposefully with others to challenge the status develop social justice and inclusion. ‘pedagogy’ is often understood as a practice related exclusively to classrooms, the present conceptualisation of teachers as agents of inclusion and social justice emphasises the need to develop teachers’ capacity for working with other agents in order to remove the structural and cultural barriers for some students’ learning and participation. In this paper, discuss the possibilities of combining theories of inclusive pedagogy and teacher agency for developing teachers as agents of inclusion and social justice in teacher education.

**89**

**The Women Reservation Bill – Hope for Gender Equality**

**Author : Dr. G. Sunil Kumar**

**Affilation : Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Sri Padmavati Mahila Visvavidyalayam, Tirupati.**

**Keywords: Gender, Women, Reservation, Equality, Lok Sabha**

**Abstracts :**

India can prosper when and only when each and every segment of this vast sub-continent is in the path of development. The country as a whole cannot advance by keeping its womenfolk or for that matter keeping any other section of the society to lag behind. One should encourage participation of women in the political process like in other fields and allow them to act for themselves as well as for the rest of the society in a fruitful manner. Thus, one may welcome the Women's Reservation Bill as a temporary measure to ensure women’s participation in the political process of the country, to make them more conscious, more involved with the country's decision making process. The Lok Sabha has been adjourned several times on this issue and it has witnessed noisy scenes, even physical scuffles between the pro and anti-reservation lobbies, pushing the Bill out of the agenda in the process.

**90**

**The Role of Technology for a changing educational world**

**Author : Dr. K. Kavitha**

**Affilation : Faculty of department of Education, Vikrama simhapuri University, Nellore.**

**Keywords:** Education, Technology, Globalisation, internationalisation, comparision

**Abstracts :**

Comparative education is a discipline in the social sciences that involves the analysis and comparison of educational systems, such as those in different countries. The modern era of education has facing many challenges which are concerned to the success of educational programmes, developing meaningful terminology and standards for education worldwide, exchanging of ideas on regional, national and international aspects of education for the improvement in the standards of teaching, organization of academic discussions and policy making. For improving, analysing and comparison of educational systems in different countries globalisation and technological developments plays a major role. Technological developments leads production and exchange, efficiency and productivity, distribution of resources help to build an imagination about education for a changing world. To protect dignity of human being, expression of work through creativity, the possibility of labour together as friends rather than masters and slaves possible through technological developments. This paper presents significance of technology, labour and education for the changing world as modern era.

**91**

**Comparative Study of Education in Present situation**

**Author** : Dr B PrabhakaraRao

**Affilation :** Academic Consultant, Dept of Political Science and Public Administration, VikramaSimhapuri University,Nellore (Dt),Andhra Pradesh,India.

**Keywords:** **comparative education, Human needs and Society**

**Abstracts :**

This paper presentation should be going on the outside of all social needs of human being compare with one and another through comparative education fields. Comparative education is a entirely established academic field of study that examines [education](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education) in one country by using data and insights drawn from the practices and situation in another country, or countries. Programs and courses in comparative education are offered in many universities throughout the world, The field of comparative education is supported by many projects associated with [UNESCO](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/UNESCO) and the national education ministries of various nations. Current issues in comparative education is dedicated to serve as a platform for debate and discussion of contemporary educational matters worldwide. To improve the relationship between comparative education and society.

**92**

**Social Inequality in Society**

**Author** : Dr. N. Anuradha\*, N. Shanthi Sudha\*\*

**Affilation :** \*Assistant Professor, \*\*Research Scholar, Department of Education, S.P.Mahila Visvavidyalayam, Tirupati,

**Keywords:** **Social inequality, Society**

**Abstracts :**

Social inequality is what creates the necessity for social justice. It is when a particular social group is at a great disadvantage. Often, the unequal treatment exists within both community and government factions. Opportunities in employment, education and politics are the main platform in which inequality occurs and can subsequently hinder the availability of health care, clean water, food and shelter for many. Social inequality refers to relational processes in society that have the effect of limiting or harming a group's social status, social class and social circle. Social inequality can emerge through a society's understanding of appropriate gender roles or through the prevalence of social stereotyping .There are currently a number of various social inequalities that are faced by our society as of today.

**93**

**A Psychodynamic Approach to Comparative Education**

**Author** : **Dr. S.HASEENA,Prof. L. KULLAI REDDY**

**Affilation :** UGC-PDF, and Professor, Dept. of Psychology,Sri Venkateswara University, Tirupati, Andhra Pradesh

**Keywords** *:* **Psycho-dynamic approach, Comparative education, methodological approach**

**Abstracts :**

Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behavior. Psychology is a multifaceted discipline and includes many sub-fields of study such as human development, health, clinical, social behavior and cognitive process etc. Similarly being of multi-disciplinary nature, comparative education has also different methodological approaches. The present paper highlights two broad categories of methodological approaches to comparative education, namely traditional and modern approach. In Western countries, if a student is poor in the school, the parents with the help of teachers try to improve the skills of the student by consulting a psychologist. As compared to the west, in Indian culture if student is not able to learn something the parents send him to extra tuitions and make him to do extra work rather than consulting a psychologist. The paper exemplifies the Psychodynamic perspective of comparative education in this direction. This approach emphasizes the importance of unconscious mind, early childhood experiences and interpersonal relationships to explain human behavior and treat people suffering from mental illness. The remedial suggestions and implications of the study are discussed.

**94**

**Teacher Education in India and England:*Past, Present and Future Perspectives***

**Author** :  **Dr. B. Venkata Rao\***

**Affilation :** \*Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Nagaland University (A Central University), Kohima Campus, Meriema-797004, Nagaland State, India.

**Keywords** *:* Teacher Training in India and U.K., Content of training, comparison in India &U.K

**Abstracts :**

Within comparative education, we now make an analysis of educational systems of various countries in order to understand their educational problems with a view to find out solutions of one’s own educational problems. The teacher education system through its initial and continuing professional development programmes is expected to ensure an adequate supply of professionally competent teachers to run the nation’s schools. Teacher education reaches out to the student teachers by providing the relevant knowledge, attitude and skills to function effectively in their teaching profession. Teacher education encompasses teaching skills, sound pedagogical theory and professional skills. Teacher education and training institutions must design programmes that would help prospective teachers to know and understand deeply; a wide array of things about teaching and learning and in their social and cultural contexts. This paper, which reflects upon past, present and future aspects of teacher education in England and India, comprises four main parts. First, there is a historical overview of key developments in the field. Secondly, the issue of where best to train the teacher - in school or in a higher education institution (HEI) is considered. Thirdly, the content of training, and those qualities and skills most desired in the new teacher are discussed. Finally, there is some informed speculation about possible future developments in teacher training in the rapidly changing world of the twenty-first century

**95**

**Differences In Educational Achievement Of Scheduled Castes And Scheduled Tribes In Nananthapuramu District**

**Author** :  **Dr. K. Venkata Reddy\*, Dr. D. Sreenivasa Reddy\*\***

**Affilation :** Lecturer cum Assistant Director, CSSEIP, Sri Krishnadevaraya University, Ananthapuramu., A.P-515003,

\*\* Teaching Personnel in Social Work, Department of Rural Development and Social Work, Sri Krishnadevaraya University, Ananthapuramu, A.P-515003

**Keywords** *:* Teacher Training in India and U.K., Content of training, comparison in India &U.K

**Abstracts :**

Despite efforts to incorporate all sections of the population into the Indian education system, through mechanisms such as positive discrimination and non- formal education, large numbers of young people are still without schooling. Although enrolment in primary education has increased, it is estimated that at least 35 million, and possibly as many as 60 million, children aged 6-14 years are not in school. Severe gender, regional, and caste disparities also exist. The main problems are the high drop-out rate, especially after Class 10, low levels of learning and achievement, inadequate school infrastructure, poorly functioning schools, high teacher absenteeism, the large number of teacher vacancies, poor quality of education and inadequate funds. Other groups of children 'at risk', such as orphans, child-labourers, street children and victims of riots and natural disasters, do not necessarily have access to schools**1**.

Furthermore, there is no common school system; instead children are channeled into private, government-aided and government schools on the basis of ability to pay and social class. At the top end are English-language schools affiliated to the upscale CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education), CISCE (Council for the Indian Schools Certificates Examination) and IB (International Baccalaureate) examination boards, offering globally recognized syllabuses and curricula. Those who cannot afford private schooling attend English-language government-aided schools, affiliated to state-level examination boards. And on the bottom rung is poorly managed government or municipal schools, which cater for the children of the poor majority. Therefore, while education for all is safeguarded by the Constitution, and a majority of people can now access educational resources, the quality of the education that young people in India receive varies widely according to their means and background, which is a worrying and problematic trend.

The thrust on elementary education over the last two decades and the growing aspirations of poor communities resulting from their participation in a political democracy have already led to a situation where most children at age six are enrolling in schools/learning centres and residential bridge courses. However, the poor quality of these schools and their rudimentary physical and human infrastructure often lead to children dropping out of the school system without learning or continuing in it with limited learning. An emphasis on food, livelihood and health guarantees is therefore simultaneously required to level out the initial disadvantages of the poor in the educational sphere stemming from malnourishment, poverty, and health-related debility. The present study is intended to study the differential writing achievements of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Children. The study also analyzes the differential reading and numerical achievements of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe Children.

**87**

**Title: Marketisation and Schools choice: A study of middle and lower class family strategies in Rajasthan**

**Author: Dr. Saheed**

**Institution: Department of Sociology, Maulana Azad National Urdu University, Hyderabad**

Introduction   
Market has influenced everyday life of people all over the world. It has assumed a significant role in delivering basic services like health, education, food, etc. to the people even at their doorstep, a process one may called marketisation. This process has influenced education tremendously in India too. In the post-1990s education policy in India is guided by the philosophy of neo-liberalism adopted by the Government of India. An overwhelming market niche has gradually been created for the proliferation of private schools leading to commercialisation of schooling in the country (Sadgopal 2010, Drury 1993). In nutshell, As a consequence of this ongoing marketisation of education, certain trends have become visible such as decline of enrolment in government schools; significant rise in number of private schools of various types, closure of government schools in various states in the country; even poorer (lower class) families preferring to send their wards to (low fee) private schools, and lastly there appears to be some kind of unwritten encouragement by the state to private schooling.   
  
Such trends, as mentioned above, appear to encourage a scenario what we may call ‘school choice’ a phenomenon where parents have options to make choices (not voluntary or without constraints always) of schools for their wards. It is actually one of the facets of competitive market where both sellers (schools) and buyers (parents) position distinctly and negotiate. This is an ideal market situation where the schools need to be better sellers and the parents suppose to be better choosers. Here, in this open and competitive market (of schooling), the strategies parents (or the school) make for better choices/decisions are the key to success. The strategies and choices of parents are driven and directed by one’s social class, which Ball (2003) calls ‘classed strategies’. For instance, the choices of middle classes differ than those of the choices of lower classes not just in terms of spending, but in terms of one’s social network, information about schools, accessibility, aspirations and understanding of education system, etc. which are the critical issues in shaping up of parental decisions, essentially need deeper investigation.   
  
This study is an exploratory research aimed to understand the issue of parental choice of schools in Alwar city in Rajasthan. The study took about 105 families for the purposes of survey and in-depth interview to understand parental views on the subject of the study. Schools were also visited to explore school’s strategies and their perception of parental choices of schools.   
  
Major findings of the study   
Locality, social classes and school choices   
A type of school available depends on the location/locality in which it is situated and the kind of social class inhabit that locality. Production of locality is thus essentially based on the social class that resides in that locality which in turn suggest what kind of schools are available in that locality. Similarly, one can assume what kind of social class a school in particular locality caters to. Families also choose a particular locality due to the availability of particular type of school in that locality. That shapes the social class character of the locality too. The study finds deeper and significant interconnection among class, space and the schooling which it attempts with the help of empirical data and diagrammatic presentation.   
  
Availability of choices   
In the sample for the study, 105 families are sending their children to 42 different schools in the city. However, most parents across both middle and lower classes face various sorts of constraints. The constraint for middle class is of the quality of schools. Most middle class families are migrants from (or educated from) metro cites such as Delhi, Gurgaon, or even Jaipur etc. They look for branded schools which explain one’s class habitus or ‘distinctions’ segregating people on different class lines. However, they constraints for lower class are of affordability. Lower class, though have lot of choices, but they have to limit their choices to certain type of school if not certain number of schools.   
  
Parental network and aspirations   
The study observes that the parental social network differ across social classes. Middle class parents have an advantage in terms of richness of the social network, the quality and quantity of information available to them. They have sort of insider’s knowledge about schools. They carry knowledge about teachers, curriculum and so on. They collect minute details on school and its performance unlike the lower class. Middle class ties and social network seem to be solid and constructively productive as they have all well educated and well settled people around. Lower class, on the other hand, has network of people who are similar to them that is less educated and not-so-well settled. This appears to hold them back. Lower class found not much aspiring, except few and not much eager to explore on higher education like middle class parents do. So, class, network and aspirations are interlinked and have deeper ramification for education and career of children.   
  
Middle class parents expectedly found to higher aspirations and also clearly draw educational pathways of their children whereas among lower class families it is somewhat undecided and though some have expressed equally higher aspirations within their given limitations. Lower class, not just having networks of less educated or better informed people around, but many a times leave things on ‘kismat’. Kismat as ‘class product’ is adequately linked to parental education, social class, aspirations and decisions on education.   
  
Choices of lower classes influenced by choices of middle classes   
The study explores that choices/aspirations of lower class are impacted by choices/aspiration of middle classes. Middle class choices or standards are seen as reference point by the lower class. The study elaborately demonstrates this aspect with the examples of, how the emergence of low cost educational institutions such as low cost schools, school plus coaching, tuition centres and English medium schools in Alwar city as an aspect of this class interconnection.   
  
‘Kismat’ and ‘capability’ factors shaping parental choices   
The study found that the middle class appears to have strong belief in their capability. They found to be confident and determined to achieve things as they wish based on their capability, power and position. However, the lower class observed to leave most things on ‘kismat’ which appear to defy very aspect of choice, notions of aspirations and dream to achieve better goals in life. Kismat and capability as thus ‘classed’ notions significantly explain class variations in schooling of children.   
  
Possible patterns of ‘classed choices’   
The study observed two distinct patterns namely centripetal and centrifugal patterns in school choice behaviour of parents in Alwar city. These patterns explain how parents move, strategise and take decisions about schooling of their children. Choice behaviour of middle classes appears to form a ‘centripetal pattern’. Middle class parents appeared to move in one direction. The parents prefer to choose a school which is normally preferred by the people of their own class fellows such as neighbours. They thus get concentrated in a select number of well-known elite private schools. On the other hand, school choices of lower class parents appear to follow a ‘centrifugal pattern'. Lower class parents appeared to choose a school which is normally not chosen by their fellow class people, especially their neighbours. This leads to the movement of lower class in different directions while making choices of school for their wards. They fear the company of their neighbourhood children and feel that the children keep fighting in the school too just as they do in the neighbourhood. They wish their children to learn certain kind etiquettes and discipline (reference here is again middle class, not their fellow class or eighbourers). However, ultimately, the lower class end up choosing low cost private schools where children of similar background get segregated. These patterns have caste, class, religious aspects, certain exceptions too, which study demonstrate elaborately with the help of empirical data.   
  
Conclusions   
The study had observed that socio-economic status, experiences and cultural traditions shape parental aspirations, networks and school choices. It has also shown that choosing a school is not one-off exercise. It involves lot of back and forth, involving multiple factors in choice, selection and rejection of a school. The study has made it clear that for both the classes, lower and middle, choice is not without constraints and restrictions. Middle classes have advantage in terms resources (rich social capital). They appear to have higher aspirations, have clarity on what to do, how to go about choice making. Lower class families, however, though some have higher aspirations, most are undecided, feel constrained and leave things to kismat/god’s grace/destiny. Kismat clearly emerges as a product of one’s social class. So, class, as a major determinant (of one’s life chances as Weber said) in the market, shapes parental aspirations, decisions and finally the fate of their wards. Overall, as the study explored, in choosing a school, ‘distinction’ clearly exists, reinforcing Bourdieu’s arguments. In a way it is this social class ‘distinction’ that the study finds to be reproducing existing social and educational inequalities.

1. UGC has now made it mandatory for all institutes to get NAAC accreditation and get at least a ‘B’ grade to get extra funding. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. with a desire of economic revenues and market share [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. since only one university can be number one [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. But acknowledging the concerns [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. For instance, NIRF 2016, doesn’t explain a public perception score of 834 for IIM (A) and only 118 for IIM (B) [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. The present paper is a part of Ph.D Thesis of the Researcher submitted to JNU, New Delhi under the supervision of Prof. Geetha B. Nambissan. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)