

ISSN 0377-0435 (Print)  
0972-5628 (Online)

# Journal of Indian Education

Volume XLVI

Number 1

May 2020

विद्यया ऽ मृतमश्नुते



एन सी ई आर टी  
NCERT

राष्ट्रीय शैक्षिक अनुसंधान और प्रशिक्षण परिषद्  
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING

---

### About the Journal

The *Journal of Indian Education* is a reviewed periodical published in May, August, November and February by the National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi.

The NCERT encourages original and critical thinking in education. The JIE provides a forum for teachers, teacher educators, educational administrators and researchers through presentation of novel ideas, critical appraisals of contemporary educational problems and views and experiences on improved educational practices. Its aims include thought-provoking articles, challenging discussions, analysis, challenges of educational issues, book reviews and other related features.

The Journal reviews educational publications other than textbooks. Publishers are invited to send two copies of their latest publications for review.

The views expressed by individual authors are their own. They do not necessarily reflect the views of the NCERT or the views of the Editors.

**© 2020. Copyright of the articles published in the Journal will vest with the NCERT and no matter may be reproduced in any form without the prior permission of the NCERT.**

---

#### Advisory Board

Director, NCERT : H.K. Senapaty

Head, DTE : Rajana Arora

Head, Publication Division : Anup Kumar Rajput

#### Editorial Board

Academic Editor : Vijayan K.

Chief Editor : Shveta Uppal

Raj Rani	Ranjana Arora
Anupam Ahuja	Kiran Walia
M. V. Srinivasan	Madhulika S. Patel
B.P. Bhardwaj	Kirti Kapur
	Manilata Chaudhary (JPF)

#### Publication Team

Chief Production Officer : Arun Chitkara

Chief Business Manager : Vipin Dewan  
(In charge)

Production Assistant : Prakash Veer Singh

Cover

Amit Kumar Srivastava

#### OFFICES OF THE PUBLICATION DIVISION, NCERT

NCERT Campus  
Sri Aurobindo Marg  
New Delhi 110 016 Phone : 011-26562708

108, 100 Feet Road  
Hosdakere Halli Extension  
Banashankari III Stage  
Bengaluru 560 085 Phone : 080-26725740

Navjivan Trust Building  
P.O.Navjivan  
Ahmedabad 380 014 Phone : 079-27541446

CWC Campus  
Opp. Dhankal Bus Stop  
Panihati  
Kolkata 700 114 Phone : 033-25530454

CWC Complex  
Maligaon  
Guwahati 781 021 Phone : 0361-2674869

---

Single Copy: ₹ 45.00 Annual Subscription: ₹ 180.00

---

विद्यया ऽ मृतमश्नुते



एन सी ई आर टी  
NCERT

# JOURNAL OF INDIAN EDUCATION

Volume XLVI

Number 1

May 2020

## CONTENTS

Editor's Note	3
Digital Literacy — A Comparative Study of Schools ZEB A ILYAS	7
Social Networking Sites usage and Academic Deviance among Girl students of Higher Secondary Schools in Kerala ANJANA V.R. CHANDRAN AND SUNDARA RAJ. T.	18
Student-faculty Interaction— Analysing the Experiences of University Students ALOK DUBEY	29
Towards Competency based Education M. SEN GUPTA	43
Experiences of Early Childhood Education Services in a Migrant Community VARDHNA PURI, VINITA BHARGAVA AND BHANUMATHI SHARMA	50
Tribal Youth, Public Sphere and Higher Education in Tripura RAJEEV DUBEY	62
Education— Is it an Empowering Factor against Domestic Violence in India? MANJU ARYA	76

Role of Women's Organisations in Women's Education in India, 1917–1947 PRIYANKA MATHEW	84
Art Education in the Secondary Schools of Southern India: A Study ANUPAMA C.S. AND KIRAN BABU N.C.	103
Impact of Experiential Learning Programme on Student's Science Self-efficacy SHIVANI	116
A Qualitative Study of Students' Interest, Learning Difficulty, and Teachers' Teaching Methods in Geography in Secondary Schools of Meghalaya MD NAWAZ SARIF, MERALIS KHARDEWSAW AND VANDANA	128
Reflections of Student-teachers on School Internship of 2-year B.Ed. Programme FATHIMA JASEENA MPM. AND VIJAYAN. K.	145



## EDITOR'S NOTE

The COVID-19 pandemic has affected the life of people from all most all countries and territories globally. It has affected the education system, especially the face to face teaching learning process, student assessment and selection of students in different courses and programmes in our country. The different variants of online teaching through various platforms have been used by schools and higher education institutions. The pros and cons on online teaching have been a debatable issue and many of the stakeholders are now experiencing its benefits as well as drawbacks. It is in this context, the present issue of Journal of Indian Education discuss some related areas in school education and teacher education, which could be directly or indirectly related to the today's concerns. The issue covers themes such as Digital Learning, Social Networking Sites, Student Faculty Interaction; Competency Based Education, Education of Tribal Children, Early Childhood Education, Women Education, Art Education, Experiential Learning and School Internship. There are thematic papers as well as empirical research based papers in the current issue.

The swift progresses lately made in digitalisation have essential inferences for the whole society. The study by Zeba Ilyas titled 'Digital Literacy — A Comparative Study of Schools' tries to observe the incorporation of digital resources into teaching-learning by school teachers. The study also evaluates the knowledge and the use of digital resources by government and private school teachers. The uses of various social networking sites for academic as well as non academic purpose have been an increasing phenomenon now-a-days. An empirical paper by Anjana V.R. Chandran and Sundara Raj T. explores the relationship between the usage of social networking sites and its impact on academic deviance among higher secondary girls. The study reveals that more use of social media results in profound academic deviance among girls.

The paper by Alok Dubey titled 'Student-faculty Interaction: Analysing the Experiences of University students' analyses the students-faculty interface in higher education. In general, the result implies that a large number of students have minimum contact with faculty and teaching-learning methods are usually teacher-centered. As per the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005, students make their own knowledge when they are vigorous in the course of education. It is in this standpoint that the article by M. Sen Gupta titled 'Towards Competency based Education' argues the notion of competency, developing competency based curriculum and its distinguishing character. It adequately demonstrates how this curriculum aids the student by giving remedial training, added information and more occasions to practice.

Migration is a decisive facet of city space. The study by Vardhna Puri, Vinita Bhargava and Bhanumathi Sharma titled 'Experiences of Early Childhood

Education Services in a Migrant Community' is meant to comprehend lives of women and children in migrant families. The function of early childhood care workers, mainly aanganwadi centres is highlighted. The paper by Rajeev Dubey titled 'Tribal Youth, Public Sphere and Higher Education in Tripura' deals with the crisis of higher education in general and Tripura in particular. It endeavours to present a critical and reflexive glimpse at the partaking of tribal youth in existing conventional higher educational institutions (HEIs) in general and Tripura in particular. The lack of representation of tribal youth notably challenges their involvement in public sphere of HEIs, which ultimately plays a central role in determining the outlines of public policy.

The work 'Education— Is an Empowering Factor against Domestic Violence in India?' by Manju Arya studies the domestic violence in multi-dimensional view to exhibit the correlation between education and domestic violence. The research argues that enhancements in women's education would elevate their knowledge and thereby decrease violence against them. Historically, women's organisations have a major role to play in the women's education in any given country. Priyanka Mathew, in her paper 'Role of Women's Organisations in Women's Education, 1917–1947' highlights the role of such organisations in the crucial period of before and during the time of Indian Independence from British Rule.

'Art Education in the Secondary Schools of Southern India: A Study' by Anupama C.S. and Kiran Babu N.C. has tried to present a reassess of matters regarding the art education in the Secondary Schools of Southern India. It has acknowledged openings and projected outline for the looming potential. The grounds of the research done by Shivani titled 'Impact of Experimental Learning Programme on Student's Science Self-efficacy' was to look at the result of experiential learning programme and traditional teaching on self-efficacy in the subject of science. The foremost results of the study established that experiential learning model is more useful for enhancing self-efficacy of students in the subject of science.

Geography is one of the core school subjects in India. In this connection, a study was commenced by Md. Nawaz Sarif, Meralis Khardewsaw and Vandana to survey the students' interests and learning trouble in geography and to scrutinise the methods engaged by teachers to teach geography. Their paper 'A Qualitative Study of Students' Interest, Learning Difficulty, and Teachers' Teaching Methods in Geography in Secondary Schools of Meghalaya' proves that the bulk of students had an interest in geography. Yet, a considerable section of the students did not like the subject.

Training an able teacher who possesses needed academic knowledge, instructive dexterity, and classroom managerial expertise is the liability of any teacher education programme. It is in this context the study titled 'Reflections

of Student-teachers on School Internship of 2-year B.Ed. Programme' by Fathima Jaseena MPM. and Vijayan K. has been done, which intends to explore the challenges and concerns, if any faced by future teachers during their extensive school internship programme. It concludes that more concerted and orderly efforts are requisite in the organisation and performance of school internship.

This issue of JIE presents 12 thematic and research papers on a variety of themes and issues under School Education and Teacher Education. We hope that our readers will be able to relate their personal experiences with the issues and concerns discussed by the authors of these articles or research papers. We also look forward to suggestions and comments on the articles published. We invite our readers to contribute to the journal by sharing their knowledge in the form of articles, research papers, case studies and book reviews.

*Academic Editor*



# Digital Literacy

## A Comparative Study of Schools

ZEBA ILYAS\*

---

### Abstract

---

*The rapid advances recently made in digitalisation have very important implications for the entire society. Education which is the most powerful tool for the economic, social and cultural development across the globe is also being affected by the use of digital resources. The challenge that confronts our education system today is how the curriculum and the teaching learning process can be transformed in order to provide the learner with skills to function effectively in today's information rich and continuously changing environment. These days, education is at the confluence of powerful and rapid shifting political, technological and educational forces that would shape structure of educational systems across the world for the remainder of this century. Many countries are involved in rigorous efforts to bring changes in the pedagogical processes in order to prepare the learners information and technology based society. It requires that the learners should make meaningful use of digital knowledge to develop, among themselves a critical skills to achieve long term educational goals. The present study aims to examine the integration of digital resources in to teaching learning by school teachers. The study also compares the knowledge and the use of digital resources by government and private school teachers. A sample of 200 teachers was selected from these schools in Delhi. Two checklists of software and hardware were developed and the responses of teachers were analysed qualitatively using percentage. The findings reveal that the awareness of government and private school teachers about the software and hardware used in teaching is satisfactory barring few of these digital resources. However, while comparing the use of software among both the category of teachers the performance of private school teachers was found better than their counterparts in government schools except in case of*

---

\*Assistant Professor, Al-Falah University, Haryana.

*use of e module, TPACK and Youtube which are being used by government teachers more in comparison to the private school teachers. In nutshell the use of digital resources is not satisfactory in both types of schools, the situation of government schools is miserably poor in spite of the fact that the government is making all efforts to maximise the use of digital resources. The researcher is of the view that the schools or government should make extensive arrangements of in service training programmes not only to digitally equip the teachers but also, equally important, to correct their mindset which also seems to be a great impediment in the use of digital technology.*

## INTRODUCTION

The informed, efficient and critical user of ICT requires digital literacy and competencies. These capabilities are significant due to digitalisation of content (Sharma, 2010). To develop the competencies required in the digital world it is necessary to include digital literacy related components in school education (Ankita and Husain, 2017). Even though, efforts were made to include these components in school curriculum, one can commonly observe uneven practices in its integration and implementation in teaching learning process. Today is the time when teacher has to transform a typical 'teacher centric' classroom, and rote learning in to a classroom to develop critical learning and promoting 'learning by doing' among the learners and hence, it needs disruptive change. "ICTs have the potential to create that disruption, where teachers have to unlearn their habits and re-learn what it is to engage children in authentic learning. For this, ICTs will have to be integrated in teaching-learning as a facilitative tool, rather than a separate activity that is practiced in computer lab" (Tiware, 2014).

Contemporary education system is facing a variety of challenges, where the role of teacher is not confined only to impart knowledge within the boundaries of the prescribed text books rather the teacher has to create an environment where the learners seek information even beyond the school hours outside the four walls of a classroom. In a fast changing world not only that a teacher needs to update their own understanding of the knowledge, concepts and issues which they have to share with their students, they also need to integrate digital resources in their pedagogical interventions. However, for digital integration in the teaching learning process, it is necessary for the teacher to develop their own competence and skills to learn digital devices to use them in teaching. Although, there are several digital gadgets and devices abundant in the institutions, but the perception of the investigator is that neither the teachers are aware about these resources, nor are they willing to integrate them in teaching learning. Due to fast technological advancement in almost all walks of life its use is inevitable. Be it corporate

sector, government organisations, industries or education proper growth is not possible without the use of digital resources. The manpower requirement of such organisation necessitates that the incumbent at various positions in these organisations is fully trained in latest technologies to discharge their role efficiently. A pertinent question that arises is as to from where such a manpower, possessing all required technological skilled would be available. The answer is 'educational institutions' which are responsible for developing all necessary skills to handle any challenging role in the market not only to satisfy their employers' expectations but also the changing requirement of the ultimate consumer of goods and services. Here the role of educational institutions is very prominent. As the schools is the foundation for habit and skill formation, the greater responsibility lies with the teachers.

Digitalisation makes knowledge to reach the unreached at a very low cost and without consuming much of the time of the learner. "Digitalisation means providing not only connectivity through the world of web but also providing high quality e-content free of cost to all learners in the country" (Dutta, 2018).

In a number of disciplines, due to lack of required number and qualified faculty, it requires that the institutions have large number of digital resources in their libraries so that the shortage of teachers is compensated by

providing technological resources to the learners.

Today is an era of cut throat competition, where the learners regardless of the discipline, level or subject, have to prove their excellence over the others so that the market industry may offer them a suitable position. The industry in turn, expects high quality of products and services from these incumbents to satisfy the market demand. Today's market has gone remarkable change due to very advanced technology which has not only changed the taste of the buyers but requires frequent changes in the market products and services. This scenario has created challenges for the service producers, government organisations, judiciary, teaching organisations and the other employers. The high expectations of the industry and the prospective learners who are the prospective employees also needs to be addressed by the schools and colleges by introducing latest technological resources which need to be integrated in teaching learning process.

In the light of this theoretical formulation, it can be said that digital technologies are becoming an inseparable part of learning process. Integration of digital technology in educational institution will enable students to develop capabilities (skills and knowledge) required to work in an increasingly digitalising environment and actively participate in the knowledge economy.

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Korakakis, Boudouvis, Palyvos and Pavlatou (2011), aimed to look into the use of 3D visualisation in the teaching of scientific concepts. The findings show that there is a relation between the age and use of technology. Hammond, Zielezinski and Goldman (2014) found that students demonstrate a positive attitude towards school and stronger engagement with learning processes when they are engaged in content-creation project. According to Internet and Mobile Association of India (IAMAI, 2017), “mobile devices are the tools of using internet and technology for 60 per cent populations of internet users”. Researches show that there exists a large gap between the internet users even at mobile phone. According to Hew and Bush (2007), teacher’s knowledge and skills are important factors in the use of technology in the classroom. Lack of specific technological skills is a common reason teachers give for not using technology.

### NEED FOR THE STUDY

The present digital age has been many changes on account of technology. These changes range from the ways and means in which knowledge is imparted, to the attitude with which learning takes place, to the extent of collaboration and information sharing between not only students but also between educators, managers and administration (Shubhra 2016). There are variety of issues which are

involved in teaching learning through technological tools and techniques including the proper use of digital resources. The investigator, being a teacher and teacher educator is of the opinion that in spite of policy direction which says that “the schools would be provided with at least one computer lab with at least 10 networked computer access to begin with. Each lab will have a maximum of 20 access points, accommodating 40 students at a time. There would be one printer, scanner, projector, digital camera, audio recorders. part of infrastructure (National Policy on ICT in School Education, 2012), teachers in the schools are not using digital resources. Teachers’ awareness about the digital resources, lack of technical skills to use such resources and sometimes non availability of digital resources in the schools, skill to relate appropriate technology to the specific content(s) are some of the reasons for not using the digital resources in their teaching. Cornoy (2004) reported that teachers’ resistance to technology integration is one of the reasons for the failure of integration of the technology into classrooms.

In the context of schooling, there is no effective use of technology which could improve students’ performance and achievements. Due to this reason, even schools that are having better access to technology are not able to use technology effectively. This may be because of lack of training to the teachers who do not possess required



ICT skills and feel uncomfortable with the usage of digital learning resources in the classroom (Cornoy, 2004). Theoretical formulations, empirical evidences and the personal observation of the researcher indicate that in spite of countless benefits of the digital literacy there seems to be lots of reluctance of the teachers in the use of such resources in the classroom across the globe. It has been reported by Cornoy (2004) that teachers' lack of digital literacy is the single barrier to the effective integration of technologies into education. The researcher is therefore keen to investigate the issue in the context of Indian classrooms of government and private schools. In this backdrop, the present study has been proposed with the following objectives:

### **Objectives of the study**

1. To study the awareness among school teachers about digital resources.
2. To study the use of digital resources in teaching learning process by school teachers.
3. To compare the status about the use of digital resources between government and private school teachers.

### **Population**

All government and private schools of Delhi and their teachers constitute the Population of the present study.

### **Sample**

The sample for the present study was 10 government and 10 private schools which were selected on convenience basis. So total 20 schools were selected and it was convenient sample. One hundred (100) teachers, each from government and private schools teaching at senior secondary level have been selected, making sure that the teachers are from all disciplines such as; science, social science, languages and commerce. It was a purposive sample. Hence, 20 schools and 200 teachers constitute the sample for the present study. However, inspite of very sincere efforts of the researcher, she was able to collect the data from only 180 teachers, i.e., 87 from government and 93 from private schools.

### **Tools of data collection**

Check lists of software and hardware were developed for the teachers and they were asked about their awareness of e-resources given in the check list. The check list was prepared consulting the list of the e-resources published by UNESCO. However, some modifications were made consulting few latest research studies in the area.

Another check list was also developed by the researcher keeping in view the prevalent e-resources being used in teaching learning in the Indian context, to ascertain as to what extent these resources are being used by sampled group of teachers.

### Analysis of the data

Analysis of the data was done quantitatively by using percentage to show the responses of the teachers.

The data depicted in the following tables are the responses of the overall respondents (both types of schools).

walks of life. Knowledge of teachers about Modem (66%), Portal (58%), and Sensor (67%), and Flash drives (58%) was found satisfactory. Moreover, approximately 80 per cent to 93% respondents are aware about CD ROMs (80%), Digital library

**Table 1**  
**Knowledge of teachers about the hardware used for digital resources (N-180)**

Contents	Have Knowledge	Don't Have Knowledge
WiFi	180 (100)	–
Modem	119 (66)	61 (33.89)
CDs/DVDs	180 (100)	–
CD ROMs	144 (80)	36 (20)
Portal	105 (58.33)	75 (41.67)
Digital camera	180 (100)	–
Digital Library	167 (92.78)	13 (7.22)
Web publishing	155 (86.1)	25 (13.89)
e-mail publishing	160 (88.89)	20 (11.11)
Smart Class	180 (100)	–
Desktop	180 (100)	–
Tablets	180 (100)	–
Hard disk drives	146 (81.11)	34 (18.89)
Routers	39 (21.67)	141 (78.33)
Sensors	120 (66.67)	60 (33.33)
Memory cards	180 (100)	–
Flash drives	104 (57.78)	76 (42.22)
Data projectors	136 (75.56)	44 (24.44)

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentage)

Table 1 indicates that 100 per cent teacher respondents are fully aware of Wi-Fi, CD/DVD, digital camera, smart class, Desktop, Tablet and memory card which are the important digital resources and are used by the persons in almost all

(92.7%), web publishing (86%), e-mail publishing (88%) and hard disk drives (81%). From the point of view of the awareness, performance of teachers of all the schools is good. Knowledge of teachers about Routers and Print on demand is, however, poor.

**Table 2**  
**Knowledge of teachers about software used for digital resources (N-180)**

	Have Knowledge	Don't Have Knowledge
e-Journal	180 (100)	–
e-Books	180 (100)	–
Internet	180 (100)	–
Blogs	98 (54.44)	82 (45.56)
Online data base	106 (58.89)	74 (41.11)
Electronic link	111 (61.67)	69 (38.33)
T-PACK	160 (88.89)	20 (11.11)
e-Module	84 (46.67)	96 (53.33)
PPT	180 (100)	–
WhatsApp	180 (100)	–
SMS	180 (100)	–
YouTube	178 (98.89)	2 (1.11)
Simulations	50 (27.78)	130 (72.22)
Chats	172 (95.56)	8 (4.44)
iCloud	12 (6.67)	168 (93.33)
Google Scholar	150 (83.33)	30 (16.67)
Zoom	5 (2.78)	175 (97.22)

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentage)

Table 2 discloses the awareness of the teachers about the software which are used in teaching learning. The responses of the teachers indicate that 100 per cent teachers are well aware about the e-journal, e-books, Internet, PPT, WhatsApp and SMS. About the awareness of Blogs, electronic link, e-module, YouTube and chat and Google scholar was found to be

approximately 54.44 per cent, 61.7 per cent, 46.67 per cent, 98.9 per cent, 95.57 per cent and 83.33 per cent respectively. Awareness about some of the software was found to be below 50per cent which include e-Module (46.67%), simulation (27.78%), and about iCloud (6.7%) and Zoom (2.78%) the performance was very disappointing.

**Table 3**  
**Usage of Software by Private and Government school teachers (N-180)**

	<b>Frequently</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Never</b>
Internet	180 (100)	–	–	
PPT	150 (83.33)	–	30 (16.67)	
e-Journal	48 (26.67)	–	90 (50)	42 (23.33)
e-Books	36 (20)	–	–	144 (80)
CD ROMs	35 (19.44)	–	–	145 (80.56)
Whatts App	180 (100)	–	–	–
SMS	180 (100)		–	–
Blogs	46 (25.56)	–	–	134 (74.44)
Online data base	21 (11.67)	–	–	159 (88.33)
Electronic link	39 (21.67)	–	–	141 (78.33)
TPACK	78 (43.33)	12 (6.67)	–	90 (50)
Smart classroom	68 (37.78)	28 (15.56)	–	84 (46.67)
e-Module	44 (24.44)	–	–	136 (75.56)
Digital library	57 (31.67)	–	–	123 (68.33)
YouTube	115 (63.89)	–	–	65 (36.11)
Simulations	10 (5.56)	–	–	170 (94.44)
Chats	91 (50.56)	14 (7.78)	–	75 (41.67)
iCloud	08 (4.44)	–	–	172 (95.56)
Google Scholar	120 (66.67)	–	–	60 (33.33)
Zoom	0 (0)	–	–	180 (100)

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentage)

Table 3 shows the responses of teachers about the use of the software in their classroom teaching. It is to note that responses on 'frequent' and resources used 'often' have been clubbed together.

It is noticed that the Internet, WhatsApp, and SMS are used very frequently by the 100 per cent

teachers in their teaching. Teachers reported that some software are being used by significant number of teachers such as; PowerPoint presentation (83.33%), Google Scholar (66.67%), Smart class (37.78.%), Digital library (31.67%), Chats (50.56%), TPACK (43.33%) and Youtube (63.89%). The other

resources such as e-journals, e-books, CD ROMs, Online data base, Electronic link, e-module and Blogs are being used by less than 50per cent teachers. However, the performance of teachers in using Simulations (5.56%), iCloud (4.44%) and Zoom (0%) was miserably poor.

teachers. It reveals that internet, WhatsApp, SMS are very frequently used by 100 per cent teachers of both types of schools. But, regarding the use of PPT, e-journals, e-books and CD ROMs, Online data base, Smart Class, digital library, Chats and Google Library, the performance

**Table 4**  
**Responses of Government and Private school teachers**  
**about the usage of Software**

<b>Government Schools(N- 87)</b>	<b>Private Schools (N-93)</b>	
Internet	87 (100)	93 (100)
PPT	68 (78.16)	82 (88)
e-Journal	16 (18.39)	32 (34.40)
e-Books	12 (13.79)	24 (25.80)
CD ROMs	9 (10.34)	26 (27.95)
Whats App	87 (100)	93 (100)
SMS	87 (100)	93 (100)
Blogs	19 (21.83)	27 (29.03)
Online data base	06 (6.89)	15 (16.12)
Electronic link	12 (13.79)	27 (29.03)
TPACK	48 (55.17)	42 (45.16)
Smart classroom	18 (20.68)	50 (53.76)
e-Module	26 (29.88)	18 (19.35)
Digital library	27 (31.03)	30 (32.25)
YouTube	59 (67.81)	56 (60.21)
Simulations	7 (8.04)	03 (3.22)
Chats	48 (55.17)	57 (61.29)
iCloud	0 (0)	08 (8.60)
Google Scholar	54 (62.06)	66 (70.96)
Zoom	0 (0)	0 (0)

(Figures in parentheses indicate percentage)

Table 4 depicts the comparative view of the usage of digital resources by government and private school

of private teachers was found better than their counterparts. However, about the use of TPACK and

e-module, Youtube, simulations the performance, as responded by the teachers, was found to be better in case of government teachers as compared to private school teachers. In nutshell, it is found that there is not adequate use of digital resources; nevertheless, the teachers of private schools are using digital resources more than government teachers. This is an alarming situation for the schools particularly government schools, while the National Policy on ICT for School Education- 2012 stressed "the need to employ educational technology to improve quality of education".

## DISCUSSION

The present research project was an effort to evaluate the awareness and the integration of digital resources in teaching by government and private school teachers. However, there seems to be very unsatisfactory state of affairs not only about the digital use but also their awareness about various components of technology which is far from being satisfactory. This situation is more alarming where the awareness of the teachers about some of the resources is remarkably poor such as iCloud (6.7%), Zoom (2.78%) simulations (8%) and similarly the usage On line data (11.67%), simulations (5.56%), iCloud (4.44%) and Zoom (0%).

Such a state of affairs seems to be due to many factors mainly non availability of computers and internet connectivity; secondly it may be attributed to the lack of in service

training. Some of the teachers pointed out that due to heavy work load of the curriculum they are reluctant to use ICTs judiciously. Nevertheless, lack of training and lack of will to use digital resources has been cited as one of the reasons for not using them.

Regarding the use both types of teachers are presenting a very disappointing performance. Although the situation in both types of schools is not anywhere near the satisfaction, the performance of government teachers is miserably poor.

This is in spite of the fact that National Policy on ICT (2012) emphasises "to create and manage content using a variety of soft ware applications and digital devices". It also emphasised to establish computer lab with all accessories, internet network, printers and full back up for optimal use of technologies, but the situation seems to be far from the implementation of the policy in its true letter and spirit.

## CONCLUSION

Digital resources which can play a pivotal role in the whole teaching learning process, needs to be learnt, practiced and taught to the students in solving complicated problems of their life. Awareness about digital resources is the basic requirement of the teachers to move further and using these resources in their pedagogy to teach all subjects. In the present study, the result about the awareness as well as usage of software in teaching learning process are not very encouraging.

Still the hope is not lost. The educational institutions have to make arrangement of the in-service training of the teaches not only to equip the teachers digitally but also to motivate them to use these resources so that they themselves become confident in using such resources and also develop the same skills among their students to enable them to utilise such skills in their future life for which they are being prepared by the schools. In an age of globalisation which is

technically advanced and endowed with electronic resources to perform day-to-day chores digitally without any manual intervention, schools should rather be more technology friendly, well equipped with latest technologies. The teachers who are off course the backbone of the entire education system should assume the role of a facilitator providing and facilitating the learners with the basic concepts and enabling them to make an effective use of those concepts in decision making.

### REFERENCES

- ANKITA AND I. HUSAIN. 2017. National Policy on ICT in School Education—A Critical Analysis, Jamia. *Journal of Education—An International Bi-annual Publication*. Vol. 3, No. 2. pp. 45–55.
- CORNOY, M. 2004. ICT in Educatin, Possibilities and Challenges, Inaugural Lecture of 2004–2005 retrieved from [http://www.uoc.edu/inaugural 104/dt/eng/conoy 1004.pdf](http://www.uoc.edu/inaugural%20104/dt/eng/conoy%2004.pdf)
- DUTTA, INDERJEET. 2018. “Digitalisation of Higher Education: Unraveling Challenges of Educational Institutions”. Jamia. *Journal of Education—An International Bi-annual Publication*. Vol. 4, No. 2. pp. 145–153.
- HAMMOND L’ AND M.B. ZIELEZINSKI AND S. GOLDMAN. 2014. Using Technology to Support at Risk students learning—Alliance for excellent education, Washington DC, Stanford Centre for Opportunity Policy in Education.
- HAYLER M. 2015. Challenging the Phenomena of Technology—New Directions in Philosophy and Cognitive Science. Vol. 1, ISBN- 978-1-137-37785-2
- HEW, K.F. AND T. BUSH. 2007. Integrating Technology into K-12 Teaching and Tearning: current knowledge gaps and recommendations for future research— Education Tech Research Development. No. 55. pp. 223–252
- INTERNET AND MOBILE ASSOCIATION OF INDIA (IAMAI) 2017.—KANTAR IMRB
- KORAKAKIS, G., A. BOUDOUVIS AND E. PAVLATOU. 2011. The impact of 3D visualisation types in instructional multimedia appplication for teaching science, *Procedia—Social and Behavioural Science*. Vol. 3. pp. 145–149.
- MHRD. 2012. National Policy on ICT in School Education 2012, New Delhi.
- SHUBRA. 2016. Use of Information and Communication Technology in Physical Education and Sports—The Signage. Vol. 4, No. 2. pp. 87–95. ISSN -2321–6530.
- TIWARI, CHANDRA. 2014. “Teacher Disposition for Technology Integration and Professional Development”, Jamia *Journal of Education— An International Bi-annual Publication*. Vol. 1, No. 2. pp. 29–37.

# Social Networking Sites usage and Academic Deviance among Girl students of Higher Secondary Schools in Kerala

ANJANA V.R CHANDRAN\* AND SUNDARA RAJ. T.\*\*

---

## Abstract

*Social networking sites are web based services that create virtual communities in which people connect and interact with friends, family and acquaintances; it also offers platform for sharing multimedia objects. Younger generations, especially students are the major and frequent users of social networking sites. Shifting trend and behaviour is seen among students with the advent of new multimedia technology and they are more dependent on technology so that it is imperative to find out its effects on the academic activities and whether it is leading to any deviance on their part. The present study investigates the extent of academic deviance and its relation with usage of social networking sites among higher secondary school female students. Data for the study was collected from 160 higher secondary school female students using social media with the help of the academic deviance scale. Percentage, ANOVA, correlation and regression were used to test the significance of difference. Study reveals that there exists significant difference in the academic deviancy score among the various levels of social media users.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

Social networking sites are web based services that create virtual communities in which people connect and interact with friends, family and

acquaintances. It offers a platform to share opinions, photos, music and videos on particular subjects or just online hangout (Khurana, 2015; Murray and Waller, 2007). Social

---

\*Ph.D. Research Scholar, Department of Sociology, Periyar University.

\*\*Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, Periyar University.



networking apps can be referred as community based web sites, online discussion forums, chat rooms and other online social spaces. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) defined social media as the interaction among people, through which they create, share, and/or exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks via social media sites. According to Bertot et. al (2010), the concept of social media is based on four main pillars: partnership, participation, enablement and time. Through the use of social media, users achieve some form of sanctioning that allows a free forum for interactions (Duggan and Smith, 2013).

Social media networks are designed for the intention of communal acquaintances (Eijkman, 2009). Today's students are accessing Facebook and Twitter to connect and share information with those around them (Virkus, 2008). Social media encompasses a wide range of tools and apps such as wikis, blogs, video sites and other online forms.

Social networking sites play vital role in daily lives. Changing trend and behaviour can be observed among adolescents with the advent of new technology. They are more dependent on technology so that it is imperative to find out its effects on the behaviour of adolescents, and whether it is leading to any deviance on their part. Deviancy refers to the condition of being abnormal. In Sociology, deviance is explained as an action or behaviour that violates

social norms that differ from society to society.

Baldwin et al. (1997) indicated that friendship networks often necessitate access to information and knowledge directly and indirectly and effect of friendship networks on student academic performance has been confirmed. A student's involvement in activities like making friends on social networking sites should be seen as them having access to relevant information that can be channeled towards improving their academic performance. This depends on the ability and willingness of the concerned individual to be able to harness that opportunity and to cope with academic related stress. Academic performance is defined as "...how students deal with their studies and how they cope with or accomplish different tasks given to them by their teachers" (K. Banquil et.al. 2011). Deviation from the indicators of academic performance is referred as the academic deviance. This study attempts to answer the questions: What is the extent of academic deviation among girl students of higher secondary schools in Kerala? And, if there is any association between uses of social networking sites and academic deviancy among higher secondary school female students in Kerala.

### **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The findings of this study will benefit Higher Secondary School administrators to formulate policies to

guide the students properly. It will offer school administrators knowledge and insights in framing the policies and procedures to guide ethical usage of the social networking sites. The study will help the educational practitioners for designing intervention strategies which are more holistic and inclusive of all stakeholders. Moreover the findings will provide the basis for educating students on ethical usage of social networking sites.

### **METHODOLOGY: THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1971, 1997) and Bourdieu's Social Capital Theory (1986) have been applied in this research work. Students use social networking sites for communication and create virtual social capital. Social networking sites offer a platform for young people to create personal and socially interconnected and interdependent virtual communities where they share their personal data on the base of trust; but some divergent youngsters exploit other young people. Linking this theory with this study, young personnel learn deviant acts from one another via continuous reciprocal interaction through observation; imitation and modeling the attitude of other young individuals. It will adversely affect the academic performance of students and lead to academic deviancy. Further, people use social networking for information and knowledge. People watch films, unethical videos and images to fulfill

their sexual needs. Young adults also utilise users' personal information for blackmailing.

### **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

1. To know the extent of social networking sites usage among girl students of higher secondary schools in Kerala.
2. To know the extent of academic deviation among girl students of higher secondary schools in Kerala.
3. To find out the relation between use of social networking sites and academic deviancy among girl students of higher secondary school in Kerala.

### **HYPOTHESES**

1. There is no significant difference in the academic deviancy of higher secondary school female students based of the usage pattern of social media.
2. There is no significant correlation between social media usage and academic deviancy of higher secondary school female students.

### **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

Survey method has been adopted in the present research work. The higher secondary school girl students in Kerala form the universe of the study. A total of 160 higher secondary school female students using social media were randomly selected from two schools in Thiruvananthapuram District, Kerala. Two batches consisting of

40 students each from science and humanities were selected. To measure the academic deviance among higher secondary school female students, 12 statements in the five point likert-scale were used. Frequency of login social networking sites, period of using social networking sites and number of active social networking sites were used to measure the level of social networking sites. Analysis of variance, correlation and regression were used for statistically testing the tenability of hypotheses.

## RESULTS

Preliminary analysis was carried out to identify the level of cyber media use, academic deviance and the relation between cyber media use with academic deviance. Data were collected from the 160 higher secondary school female students who use the cyber media by giving due weightage to locale and class. Profile of the sample students is presented in Table 1.

It is evident from Table 1, that 52.5 per cent of the students belong to rural area and 47.5 per cent of the respondents belong to the urban area; 36.3 per cent students belong to the family income category below Rs. 20000, 29.4 per cent between Rs. 20001-30000, 23.8 per cent student come under Rs 30001-40000 income group and 10.6a per cent fall in above Rs 40001 annual income category. Based on the family type, 81.3 per cent come from nuclear families and 18.8 per cent from joint families.

**Table 2**  
**Usage of various social media**

Social Media	Number	Percentage
Facebook	58	36.3
Twitter	88	55.0
WhatsApp	138	86.3
Instagram	22	13.8
Others	6	3.9

It is seen from Table 2 that majority (86.3%) of the higher secondary school girl students were

**Table 1**  
**Profile of the respondents**

Variable	Group	Number	Percentage
Locale	Rural	84	52.5
	Urban	76	47.5
Income of the family(yearly)	Below Rs 20000	58	36.3
	Rs 20001–30000	47	29.4
	Rs 30001–40000	38	23.8
	Above Rs 40001	17	10.6
Family type	Nuclear	130	81.3
	Joint	30	18.8
Total		160	100.0

using WhatsApp. The percentage of the higher secondary school female students using Facebook and Twitter were 36.3 per cent and 55.0 per cent respectively. Instagram is used by 13.8 per cent of the girl students and only 3.9 per cent of the students were using other social networking sites.

(78.8%) of the respondents were using social media for one to two years; 5 per cent of students used social media for two to four years; 8.1 per cent used social media for above four years. Those who have been using social media only for a year is 8.1 per cent. Table 3 also shows that a significant proportion of the

**Table 3**  
**Classification of the respondents based on frequency, period and number of active social networking sites**

Frequency of login social networking sites		Period of using social networking sites		Respondents active in social networking sites	
Many times in a day	10 (6.3)	Upto one year	13 (8.1)	1	67 (41.9)
Once in a day	40 (25.0)	1–2 years	126 (78.8)	2	18 (11.3)
Few times in a week	82 (51.3)	2–4 years	8 (5.0)	3	34 (21.3)
Once in a week	28 (17.5)	Above 4 years	13 (8.1)	4	41 (25.6)
Total	160 (100.00)	Total	160 (100.0)	Total	160 (100.0)

The table presents distribution of respondents in the selected schools according to the frequency of login cyber media. The highest proportion of higher secondary school girl students login to social media few times a week is 51.3 per cent and 25 per cent login once in a day. Only 6.3 per cent of the girl students login social media many times a day and 17.5 per cent of the students login to social media once a week. The data highlight that majority of the higher secondary school female students login to social media at least once a day or few times in a week.

When the data was analysed on the basis of duration of usage of social media, it is found that majority

respondents (41.9%) accessed one active account in social networking sites. One fourth of the respondents (25.6%) accessed four active social networking sites. The percentage of female students having active account in three social networking sites was 21.3 per cent and two active social networking sites was 11.3 per cent.

#### **LEVEL OF SOCIAL MEDIA USE**

Based on the frequency of login social networking sites, period of using social networking sites and number of active social networking sites; the respondents are classified as the high, medium and low users of social networking sites and is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4**  
**Level of social media use**

<b>Level of social media use</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Low	60	37.50
Medium	77	48.13
High	23	14.38
Total	160	100.00

Classification based on the frequency of login social networking sites, period of using social networking sites and number of active social networking sites shows that the percentage of high, average and low users of social networking sites are 37.50 per cent, 48.13 per cent and 14.38 per cent respectively. Study shows that most of the respondents were medium level users of social networking sites.

#### **ACADEMIC DEVIANCY BEHAVIOUR**

Academic deviancy behaviour of the higher secondary school female students was assessed by the indicators of academic performance along with their use of social media during academic hours for (non-academic) activities.

Table 5 shows that most of the respondents completed assignments on time (90.00%), scheduled daily study plans (71.8%), followed the study plans (66.25%), used social media to discuss academic content (76.25%), did not use social media when had academic work (61.88%), and did not use social media during study hours (68.13%). But, some of the respondents showed some academic deviancy such as using social media when bored (41.13%), used social media though having academic work (38.13%), used social media during study hours (31.88%), always did last minute work (50.63%), asked someone to do the assignments (34.38%), showed the urge to use social media during school hours

**Table 5**  
**Academic deviancy behaviour of the higher secondary school female students**

<b>Academic deviancy</b>	<b>Yes</b>		<b>No</b>	
	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Complete assignment on time	144	90.00	16	10.00
Schedule daily study plan	115	71.88	45	28.13
Follow the study plan	106	66.25	54	33.75
Use social media to discuss academic content	122	76.25	38	23.75
Use social media when bored	69	43.13	91	56.88

Use social media though have academic work	61	38.13	99	61.88
Use social media during study hours	51	31.88	109	68.13
Always do last minute work	81	50.63	79	49.38
Asking someone to do the assignment	55	34.38	105	65.63
Urge to use social media during school hours	77	48.13	83	51.88
Use mobile phone in school	25	15.63	135	84.38
Part of any academic group in social media	70	43.75	90	56.25

(48.13%) and used mobile phones in school (15.63%). Academic deviancy score was calculated by providing one score against each of the academic deviancy statements. Analysis of variance was used to compare the academic deviancy score based on the level of social media use and it is presented in Table 6.

of 1.31, 1.44 and 1.96 respectively. Analysis of variance shows that ( $F = 3.956$ ,  $p = 0.021$ ) there exist significant difference in the academic deviancy score among the various level of social media users. Academic deviancy score is higher for high level of social media users and lower for low level of social media users. To know the relationship

**Table 6**  
**Social media use and academic deviancy**

Social media use	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Low	60	4.3667	1.31441	.16969	3.959	.021
Medium	77	4.3636	1.44103	.16422		
High	23	5.3043	1.96410	.40954		
Total	160	4.5000	1.50888	.11929		

Table 6 discloses that the academic deviancy mean score of the low, medium and high social media users are 4.37, 4.36 and 5.30 with standard deviations

between the social media use and academic deviancy, correlation was calculated and it is presented in Table 7.

**Table 7**  
**Correlation and regression summary of social media use and academic deviancy**

Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	.172a	.029	.023	1.49118
Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F (p-value)
Regression	10.670	1	10.670	4.798* (.030)
Residual	351.330	158	2.224	
Total	362.000	159		

Dependent Variable: Academic deviancy

Predictors: Constant, Social media use.

\* Significant at 0.05 level

**Table 8**  
**Betas of the Predictor Variable to the Predictor**

Model	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t-value	p-value
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.584	.434	–	8.253	.000
Social media use	.143	.065	.172	2.191	.030

Correlation analysis reveals that, there exist significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.172$ ;  $p = 0.030$ ) between the variables, social media use and academic deviancy among higher secondary girls students. Table 7 also shows the value of the parameters of the regression analysis between the predictor variable social media use and dependent variable academic deviancy. The result of the analysis shows that the predictor variable social media use predicts the academic deviancy of the girl students of the higher secondary schools. The predictor variable taken against the criterion variable yielded a coefficient of multiple correlations (R) of 0.172 and adjusted multiple correlation square ( $R_2$ ) of 0.029. The

$R_2$  value translated is 02.9 per cent. The analysis also gave a Standard Error of 1.491, F-value of 4.798, which is greater than the table value 3.38 and significance at 0.05 level.

Table 8 gives the predictor variables and its coefficients in the regression equation. The beta values, corresponding to the variable social media use, and constant are 0.143, 3.584 and the t-values are 2.191, 8.253 which indicate that social media use and constant are significant at 0.05 level of significance. Among the variables, beta value of all variables shows that they are the positive predictors of academic deviancy. To develop regression equation for predicting the dependent variable academic deviancy (Y) from the predictor variable, social

media use, the following procedure has been used.

The general regression equation of the criterion variable Y, in terms of the predictor variable, social media use (X) is given by

Academic deviancy (Y) = Social media use X 0.134 + 3.584.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Major findings of the study on social networking sites usage and academic deviance among girl students of higher secondary schools in Kerala are—

- Majority (86.3%) of the higher secondary school female students are using WhatsApp; the percentage of the higher secondary school female students using Facebook and Twitter are 36.3 per cent and 55.0 per cent respectively. Social media networking site Instagram is used by 13.8 per cent of the female students.
- The highest proportion of higher secondary school female students (51.3%) usually login to social media few times a week and 25 per cent login once in a day.
- Major (78.8%) proportion of the higher secondary school girl students have been using social media for one to two years.
- Study also shows that a significant proportion of the respondents (41.9%) have one active account in social networking site whereas, one fourth of the respondents (25.6%) have account in four active social networking sites.
- Study shows that most of the higher secondary school girl students are medium level users of social networking sites.
- Analysis of variance shows that ( $F = 3.956$ ,  $p = 0.021$ ) there exists significant difference in the academic deviancy scores among the various levels of social media users. Academic deviancy score is higher for high level of social media users and lower for low level of social media users.
- Correlation analysis reveals that, there exist significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.172$ ;  $p = 0.030$ ) between social media use and academic deviancy among higher secondary girl students.
- Regression analysis shows that among the variables, beta value of social media use is the positive predictor of academic deviancy.

## CONCLUSION

The aim of present research work is to investigate the level of social media use and academic deviancy and its relation among higher secondary school female students. Study reveals that majority of the higher secondary school female students login to social media few times a week or once in a day. Majority of the respondents have been using social media for one to two years. Majority of them also had one active account in social networking sites and one fourth of the respondents had four active social networking sites. Study shows that most of



the higher secondary school female students are medium level users of social networking sites. Analysis of variance shows that there exists significant difference in the academic deviancy score among the various levels of social media users. Academic deviancy is higher for high level of social media users and it is lower for low level of social media

users. Correlation analysis reveals that, there exists significant positive correlation between the variables social media use and academic deviancy among higher secondary girl students. Hence, it is essential to properly guide and channelise the higher secondary school female students regarding the academic use of social media.

### REFERENCES

- BALDWIN T.T., M.D. BEDELL AND J.L. JOHNSON. The social fabric of a team-based M.B.A. program: Network effects on student satisfaction and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*. Vol. 40, No. 6. pp. 1369–1397. 1997. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257037>.
- BANQUIL K., N.A. CHUA, G.A. LEANO, M.A. RIVERO, C.A. BURCE, S.A. DIANALAN, A.R. MATINEZO AND N.U. TIMOG. Social Networking Sites Affect One's Academic Performance Adversely. Retrieved On January 18, 2011, From <http://Www.scribd.com/Doc/28919575/Social-Networking-Sites>
- BERTOT, J.C., P.T. JAEGER AND J.M. GRIMES. 2010. Using ICTs to create a culture of transparency: E-government and social media as openness and anti-corruption tools for societies. *Government information quarterly*. Vol. 27, No. 3. pp. 264–271.
- BOURDIEU, P. 1986. The Forms of Capital. In: Richardson, J., *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education*. West, CT: Greenwood: pp. 241–58.
- BOYD, D.M. AND N.B. ELLISON. 2007. Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship, *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*. Vol. 13, No. 1.
- CENTERWALL, C.R., D.J. KERWOOD, J.GOODISMAN, B.B. TOMS AND J.C. DABROWIAK. 2008. New extracellular resistance mechanism for cisplatin. *Journal of inorganic biochemistry*. Vol. 102. No. 5. pp. 1044–1049. <http://www.socialbakers.com/facebookstatistics> accessed in July 18, 2012
- DUGGAN, M. AND A. SMITH. 2013. Social media update 2013. Pew Internet and American Life Project
- ELJKMAN, H. 2009. Using Web 2.0 to decolonise transcultural learning zones in higher education. *Campus-Wide Information Systems*. Vol. 26, No. 3. pp. 240–255.
- KAPLAN, A.M. AND M. HAENLEIN. 2010. Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business horizons*. Vol. 53, No. 1. pp. 59–68.
- KHURANA, N. 2015. The impact of social networking sites on the youth. *Journal of Mass Communication and Journalism*. Vol. 5. pp. 285.
- KOÇAK, N.G., S. KAYA AND E. EROL. 2013. Social Media from the Review. Vol. 2, No. 3. pp. 22–29.

- KOPTYOFF. 2007. Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication*. Vol. 13, No. 1. pp. 210–230.
- LENHART, A. AND M. MADDEN. 2007. Social networking websites and teens: An Overview.
- LENHART, A., M. MADDEN AND P. HITLIN. 2005. Teens and technology.
- MURRAY, K.E. AND R. WALLER. 2007. Social networking goes abroad. *International Educator*. Vol. 16, No. 3. pp. 56.
- NULL, C .2009. “How to avoid Facebook and Twitter disasters” *pcworld.com*, August 2010 of Social Media. *Business Horizons*. Vol. 53. pp. 59–68.
- ÖZGÜVEN. N. AND B. MUCAN. 2013. The relationship between personality traits and social media use. *Social Behaviour and Personality*. Vol. 41, No. 3. pp. 517–528
- PEW RESEARCH CENTER. 2018. The Demographics of Social Media Users-2018, February. <http://www.pewinternet.org/2018/03/01/social-media-use-in-2018/>
- VIRKUS, S. 2008. Use of Web 2.0 technologies in LIS education: experiences at Tallinn University, Estonia. *Program: Electronic Library and Information Systems*. Vol. 42, No. 3. pp. 262–274.

# Student-faculty Interaction

## Analysing the Experiences of University Students

ALOK DUBEY\*

---

### Abstract

---

*This paper analyses the student-faculty interaction in higher education. The conceptual framework underlying the study is based on the idea of the Student engagement referred as 'Experience with faculty' and its two indicators, i.e. 'interaction with faculty' and 'teaching effectiveness'. The study assesses the extent to which students interact with teachers in and outside the classroom and how often they feel that teaching was effective. Data was collected from the sample of 250 students of C.S.J.M. University, Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh, using National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) questionnaire followed by an unstructured interview based on the student's responses. Overall result suggests that a large number of students have minimal contact with faculty and teaching-learning methods are widely teacher-centered.*

---

### INTRODUCTION

As contemporary society is experiencing unpredictable challenges, there seems to be a big question mark on the viability of educational institutions. Since, there are gigantic expectations from the higher education system, it became necessary for colleges and universities to recognise those attributes, which distinguish a top notch institution from a fair

one. New approaches to revitalise teaching effectiveness and expanded consideration to the learning needs of students pave the way for a total rethinking of our approach to higher education. As educators and those being educated are the most evident characters in an educational institution (Kundu, 2016). It has become increasingly important to distinguish and address the

---

\*UGC-Senior Research Fellow, Department of Education, University of Lucknow, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh

attributes, which are related to the most basic unit of the system—*The Learner*. Various common measures have been used in the research to identify if students are actively engaged in their learning.

Historically, those measures have overwhelmingly centered on behaviours and on quantitative information—such as attendance, standardised test scores and graduation rates. Later on, researchers have identified more critical determinants like efforts and involvement in various scholastic activities, collaborative learning, experience with faculty, academic and social engagement and so forth.

It is important to note that what students have to say about teaching and learning, will provide a significant foundation for improvement of educational institutions. Educators at all levels agree and accept that interactions with faculty have a positive influence on academic and intellectual development of an individual. Such interactions are likewise important for learning and self-improvement of college students as it fosters intellectual work, promote mastery of knowledge, skills, and help students make connections between their studies and their plans. (e.g., Astin, 1993; Kuh, Schuh, Pascarella, 1985; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1976; Tinto, 1993).

The current study is an attempt to give voice to student's experience of interaction with faculty. This is being assessed through indicators like 'interaction with faculty' and 'teaching

effectiveness'. Studies affirmed that the amount of formal or informal contact with faculty is significantly associated with academic achievement and persistence at the institution (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1976; Kinzie, 2005; Gablinske, 2014), hence the variable merits the investigation in Indian higher education system too.

### NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE

The learner assumes much importance than ever before in the educational process as focus got shifted from teaching to learning. Today's students are increasingly worried about their learning and want it to be more relevant, socially engaging, exploratory, and responsible. So, there is a critical need to challenge and change our assumptions about the pedagogy and purpose of education. In order to make any improvement in the educational infrastructure, curriculum, teaching method or objectives we need to know more about learners. We need to know more about their educational experience. What do they feel about their institution, teachers, peers, administrators, examinations and evaluation, support system?

This study would not only give voice to the student's experience but also provide data to host institutions about the academic culture that persist in the campus. The outcome from the investigation would support colleges and universities to transform the student experience and craft policies that channel student's energy

to more purposeful activities that matter to student learning. Despite the fact that the paper focuses primarily on student experience with faculty in higher education, many of the ideas are applicable more widely to other stages of education also.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Parikh (2017), discusses that the relationship between teacher and student has been a focus of inquiry for more than 2000 years, since the Upanishads, Plato, Socrates, Confucius and so on. They built up much of the philosophical guidelines for teaching and emphasised the acquisition of knowledge through dialogue. In modern times, early attempts to study the classroom interactions can be attributed to the efforts made by Ned Flanders. Back in the late 1950s, he developed the system of interaction analysis popularly known as *Flanders Interaction Analysis* (FIA) to study the classroom interactions and verbal behaviour of teachers and students. It got well known and stays significant for a long time in for mapping student-faculty verbal interaction during classroom teaching.

However, with the passage of time researchers recognised the role of informal and social interaction with teachers. A large number of studies were carried out to assess the impact of teacher-student interaction in various formal and informal settings. Results pointed out that, in formal classroom settings, faculty interaction

and constructive feedback are noteworthy and positively correlated with the academic achievement and professional skills of students. (Bjorklund, Parente, Santinathan, 2004).

Endo and Harpel (1982) examined the effects of four aspects of student-faculty interaction (frequency of formal interaction, frequency of informal interaction, quality of faculty advising, and helpfulness of faculty) on a variety of student outcomes and reported that such interactions had substantial positive effects on student's efforts in other educationally purposeful activities. Such interactions also add to the effects on intellectual, personal and social outcomes together with an educational experience of students (Kuh 2001; Karen L. Bouchard and J. David Smith 2017; Davis 2003).

Peter Ewell (1997) contended that if student learning is to be improved, then it is critical to consider institutional and faculty engagement practices. Similarly, Amatari (2015), also discusses the importance of adopting the technique of assessing student-faculty interaction in schools and affirms that such adoption will impact the social climate of learning positively. The quality and frequency of student-faculty interaction are an important indicator of an academic environment and quality education.

Sharma and Bhaumik (2013), conducted a study to explore student engagement and its predictors at Indian Business School (IBS). Likewise, other prominent institutions like IIT's and IIM's are equally

concerned about students learning and student-faculty interaction as they have developed sophisticated mechanisms to reach out to their students. *VoxPopuli* is one of such initiative by IIT-K where students can share their experience on the scope of issues like academics, faculty, alumni, administration, career and so forth.

Cohen (1980), suggests that improved student-faculty interaction outside the classroom can maintain the quality of the academic programs. It is evident from the literature review that research on Student-faculty interaction as a predictor of student engagement is gaining widespread acknowledgement in the West yet there are very few investigations in India with such point of view. The theoretical frame works used by most of the previous research studies were concerned with quality education. Hence, the present variable is worth research in Indian Higher education system with different perspective.

### OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to trace the student's experience with faculty in higher education. Hence, the following research questions were designed to study the variable:

1. How frequently do students indulge in interaction with faculty during an academic session?
2. How frequently do students believe that teachers had effective teaching in the classroom?

3. Whether the observed frequency, i.e., student's response in each category is significantly different from expected frequency, i.e., normal distribution?

### SAMPLE AND RESEARCH SETTINGS

Data was collected using a survey method from C.S.J.M. Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh. The University established in 1966, is one of the largest institutions in India in terms of the number of students enrolled and the number of affiliated institutions. The samples for the study were selected from the population of students enrolled in on-campus courses in various departments of University, during the academic year 2014–15. All the departments were selected for the study while classes were selected by using simple random sampling. The final sample of the study comprises of 250 students who were present in class and willing to participate in the study. Due representations were given to male and female subjects.

### INSTRUMENT

Study employed unstructured interview in addition to the NSSE survey that assesses the extent to which students engage in educational processes associated with elevated levels of learning. It is found that the rating scale was imperative to gather the numerical facts like frequency of the interaction while interviews prompted further exploration of the potential reasons for the underlying situation and students' response.

Interview questions were based on the student's response in the NSSE survey for marking choice in either *never* or *very often category* for any item in the tool.

NSSE was developed by the Center for Evaluation and Education Policy, Indiana University, in 2000 updated thereafter in 2013. The items estimating experience with faculty used a rating scale ranging from *never* to *very often* with higher frequency in a given segment demonstrating the high level of interaction between students and teachers.

Some items from original tools are deleted or modified as need be to make it progressively appropriate for Indian students and institutions. This incorporates the substitution of specific words or phrases, commonly used in global settings with that of words with similar meaning in the Indian settings with due consultation from experts. However, no such changes were made in the section that is dealing with the assessment of 'experience with faculty' and its two indicators, i.e., 'interaction with faculty' and 'teaching effectiveness'.

### **VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

The value of the reliability coefficient for the entire test is 0.85. This high-reliability coefficient of correlation shows that the present tool is a reliable device to assess student engagement and its theme 'experience with faculty'. Due to paucity of time and resources at researchers end, it was not possible to re-establish the

validity and reliability. Since, there were just minor substitutions in some of the items, it is believed that the validity and reliability of the tool remains somewhat similar to that of the original version.

### **PROCEDURE**

The Investigator visited personally all the constituent departments of the university with prior permission from the Head of Department. Since students in their respective departments may tend to get influenced by the presence of their faculty and hence possibilities of biased responses are natural. Such impacts are neutralised by having personnel interviews with respondents and cross-examining their expressed views with earlier responses. All the ethical guidelines were followed in this regard and respondents were assured that their answers would be kept confidential and used for research purposes only.

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

Once all data were collected they were tabulated for analysis and interpretation. Frequency distribution for each response category was categorised with the help of MS office software. The number of students was converted into percentages for easy comparisons. Further, chi-square test was being used to test the distribution of observed data against normal probability curve parameters. Analysis and interpretation of the data are given below:

Table 1 is showing frequency distribution for items of engagement indicator interaction with faculty along with the percentage of the student in respective categories.

- One-tenths of students very often worked with a faculty member on activities other than coursework, an equal number of students does it often. Little less than one-third

**Table 1**  
**Item wise Frequency distributions for items of Engagement Indicator**  
**Interaction with Faculty**

1.	During the current academic year, about how often have you done the following ?				
S.No.	Item	Response categories			
		Very often	Often	Sometimes	Never
1.a	Talked about career plans with a faculty member	29	31	115	75
		12 %	12%	46%	30%
1.b	Worked with a faculty member on activities other than course work (committees, student groups, etc.)	26	25	79	120
		10%	10%	32%	48%
1.c	Discussed course topics, ideas, or concepts with a faculty member outside of class.	30	55	105	60
		12%	22%	42%	24%
1.d	Discussed your academic performance with a faculty member.	26	35	90	99
		10%	14%	36%	40%

- Little more than one-tenth of students very often talked about career plans with a faculty member while an equal number of students does it often. Less than half of the students talked about career plans with a faculty member sometimes while less than one-third never talk about career plans with a faculty member. About one-fourth of the students talk about career plans with a faculty member often or very often.

- does it sometimes while little less than half of the students never worked with a faculty member on activities other than coursework. Only one-fifth of the students worked with faculty members on activities other than coursework often or very often.
- Little more than one-tenth of the students very often discussed course topics, ideas or concepts with a faculty member outside of class and little more than one-fifths discussed often. More than



two-fifths discuss sometimes while little less than one-fourth students never discussed course topics, ideas or concepts with a faculty member outside of class. More than one-third of students discussed course topics, ideas or

of students discuss academic performance with a faculty member often or very often.

Table 2 represents frequency distribution for items of engagement indicator effective teaching practices.

**Table 2**  
**Item wise Frequency distributions for items of Engagement Indicator Effective Teaching Practices**

During the current academic year, to what extent have your teachers done the following?					
S. No	Item	Response categories			
		Very often	Often	Sometimes	Never
2.a	Clearly explained course goals and requirements	15	70	120	45
		6%	28%	48%	18%
2.b	Taught course sessions in an organised way	30	70	75	75
		12%	28%	30%	30%
2.c	Used examples or illustrations to explain difficult points	40	65	85	60
		16%	26%	34%	24%
2.d	Provided feedback on a draft or work in progress	28	60	69	93
		11%	24%	28%	37%
2.e	Provided prompt and detailed feedback on tests or completed assignments	20	85	75	70
		8%	34%	30%	48%

concepts with a faculty member outside of class very often or often.

- One-tenths of students very often discussed the academic performance with a faculty member while more than one-tenth does it often. More than one-third discussed it sometimes and two-fifth of students never discussed their academic performance with a faculty member one-fourth

- Less than one-tenth students feel that during the current school year teachers very often clearly explained course goals and requirements while more than one-fourth feel it happen often. Little less than half of them feels at some extent while less than one-fifth feels teachers never explained the course goals and requirements.

- Little more than one-tenth of the students feel teachers very often taught course sessions in an organised way while more than one-fourth often feels so. Less than one-third feels teacher does it sometimes while equal number, i.e., less than one-third feels teacher never taught course sessions in an organised way.
- Less than one-fifth of the students feels teacher very often used examples while little more than one-fourth feels teacher does it often. About one-third feels teacher used examples sometimes while little less than one-fourth feels teacher never used examples or
- Little less than one-tenth students feel teacher very often provided prompt and detailed feedback on tests or completed assignments while more than one-third feel it happens often. Less than one-third feels it happened sometimes while little less than half of students feel teacher never provided prompt and detailed feedback on tests or completed assignments.

The overall result is obtained by taking out the average frequency response from each category. Table 3 shows average frequency distributions for theme 'Interaction with faculty'.

**Table 3**  
**Average Frequency distributions for Engagement Indicator Interaction with Faculty**

	<b>Response category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Research question</b> How do students have interaction with their faculty?	Very often	28	11
	Often	37	15
	Sometimes	97	39
	Never	88	35
<b>Total</b>		250	100

illustrations to explain difficult points.

- One-tenth of students feel the teachers very often provided feedback on a draft or work in progress while little less than one-fourth said it happens often. More than one-fourth feels sometimes and little less than two fifth students feel the teacher never provided feedback on a draft or work in progress.

It is clear from the data in Table 3 that about one-tenth of students have interaction with their faculty very often while more than one-tenth often interacted with faculty. Two-fifths of them sometimes interacted with faculty and less than two-fifth rarely interact with faculty. Overall one-fourths of students interact with faculty often or very often and the rest of them had much lower interaction with faculty.

**Table 4**  
**Average Frequency distributions for Engagement Indicator**  
**Effective Teaching**

	<i><b>Response Category</b></i>	<i><b>Frequency</b></i>	<i><b>Percentage</b></i>
Research Question How do students feel that teachers had practiced effective teaching	Very often	26	11
	Often	70	28
	Sometimes	85	34
	Never	69	27
<b>Total</b>		250	100

Similarly, Table 4 represents the average frequency distributions for engagement Indicator—‘*Effective Teaching*’. Clearly, data shows that more than one-tenth students feel that teachers had practiced effective teaching very often while more than one-fourth is of opinion that often teaching is effective. About one-third of students feel sometimes teaching is effective and more than one-fourth of them feel teacher never use effective teaching. Overall, only two-fifths of the students are of the view that the teacher was effective most of the time.

#### **TESTING THE DIVERGENCE**

In order to test the divergence of student responses against normal distribution, a null hypothesis was

framed and the chi-square test was applied. Chi-Square test empowers us to think about watched and expected frequencies equitably, since it isn’t constantly conceivable to tell just by looking at frequencies, whether they are *different enough* to be considered statistically significant. We begin by stating the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ : There is no significant difference between observed and expected frequency) and an alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ : There is a significant difference between observed and expected frequency). Based on the outcome of the Chi-Square test, we will either reject or fail to reject the null Hypothesis. Table 5 shows the data obtained while testing the null hypothesis –

**Table 5**  
**Divergence of Experience with Faculty**

	<b>Very Often</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Never</b>	
<b>Observed(<math>f_o</math>)</b>	27	53	71	79	250
<b>Expected(<math>f_e</math>)</b>	17	108	108	17	250
<b>(<math>f_o - f_e</math>)</b>	10	–55	–37	62	

$(f_o - f_e)^2$	100	3025	1369	3844	
$(f_o - f_e)^2 / (f_e)$	5.88	28	12.67	226.11	
	$\chi^2 = 272.66$		df=3		P is less than .01

From the above Table 5, the value of  $\chi^2$  is 272.66, which is beyond the limit of the Standard table. The discrepancy between the observed and expected value is so great that the hypothesis of normal distribution in this group must be rejected. Hence, we can conclude that the significant difference does exist between observed and expected frequency. Statistical significance, in this case, implies that the distinctions are not because of chance alone, but there might be different processes grinding away.

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

One of the biggest challenge in higher education is to facilitate the perspectives of all stakeholders who have different perceptions of higher education quality. There are numerous factors associated with both sides, i.e., teachers and learners, that influence the interaction and decide the teaching effectiveness. Additionally, institutional factors are also there playing a significant role in constraining the student-faculty interaction. Sharma (2015) discussed that in most of the state and central universities over 30per cent of faculty positions are lying vacant. While the student enrollment is growing at a faster rate in the last few years.

The objective of the study was to explore student-faculty interaction

and teaching effectiveness in a state University and the outcomes are not satisfactory for both the variables. Overall results show that three-fourth (75%) of students had inadequate, deficient, insubstantial, and very low interaction with faculty and three-fifth (60%) of the students are of the view that the teacher was not effective most of the time.

Individual differences among personality factors play an important role in deciding how students and teachers are going to interact with each other in the classroom and beyond that too. Some students may find it worth to discuss their career choice with faculty for many others it may be highly unprofessional to discuss anything beyond academics. When students interact with their teachers, in a meaningful way, it not only provide academic information to students but also broadly affects their general ways of thinking, methods of problem-solving and interest in various life goals.

In many institutions research is not on top priority in such case fewer faculties are associated with national or state-financed research projects. Naturally, students don't have opportunities to work on projects, and research work apart from academic work. Sharma (2015) asserts that there is no shortage of

funding for the top Indian Institutions but due to the limited focus on Research and Internationalisation, very few Indian higher educational institutes are globally recognised.

Some students will gravitate quickly toward opportunities to interact with teachers outside of class; while others will do everything they can, to dodge these extra contacts. It is important to note that students may be hesitant to seek out or interact with faculty beyond the classroom for a various reasons. Students also consider the classroom as better option to discuss ideas and concepts. Many times even teachers also don't welcome such moves as they believe additional interactions will blur professional and personal lines.

Students need to feel that they are important accomplices in the teaching-learning process and their teachers are truly worried about them. There is disappointment among students about the teaching methods used by the teacher. When asked a student about teachers, he replied— *“wo sirf apni job karne aate h... lecture dete h aur chale jate h”*. Assessment strategies and feedback mechanisms pose another challenge in positive student-faculty interaction. A large number of students are there who are not willing to share their academic performance with teachers due to fear of criticism.

Conversations with students about the course or the discipline can be enriching both professionally and personally, but also can become extremely (or even prohibitively) time-

intensive, particularly for faculties with large number of students. Many students are not able to understand course goals and requirement as only attending a lecture does not necessarily ensure students' learning. It is evident from the fact that there is a disparity between what a teacher thinks they have taught effectively and the actual proportion of content their students effectively illustrate.

Overemphasis on rote and memorisation, biased evaluation, lower use of technology and boring classrooms can make students feel that teachers are not using effective teaching strategies. Illustrations and examples can attract the attention of students, and assist them to understand and make sense of the content. However, results demonstrate that our teachers are not ready to utilise this strategy effectively.

Learning often takes place best when students have opportunities to express ideas without being hesitant and get constructive feedback from teachers. Generally, most teachers consider feedback as class test scores or formative evaluation scores. Students want to hear more details about performance and how they can improve their scores.

### **EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS**

Classes with an emphasis on lecturing provide extremely restricted opportunities for student-teacher interaction. So, teachers can make use of virtual platforms to supplement learning and pose questions. They can

assign time after lectures to respond to inquiries from students who linger, additionally, they can also supplement teaching-learning hours in an informal setting like cafeteria or hostel.

Arriving early to class in order to respond to questions and gather informal feedback can provide valuable information to teachers about the impact of their learning. They may start class by asking students questions about the previous lesson, in this manner helping them to revise the earlier material and providing continuity. They are likewise expected to play a role beyond teaching in classrooms in mentoring and guiding students in making the right career choices as per their abilities and aspirations.

Overall, teachers need to support student's explorations of innovative thoughts and interests regardless of time and place. Networking and social interactions between student and faculty can be expanded by welcoming the students to serve on department committees, governance, and special interest groups. Organising social events such as debates, movie screening, special lectures, and meetings between Dean or senior faculty and students, will open doors for social interactions and will also act as a good strategy to support students who may be hesitant to speak out in class.

### **LIMITATIONS**

This study has few limitations. First, it is possible that sampling

bias may influence the results in unknown ways. Data from a single state university is not necessarily representative of higher education in Uttar Pradesh. If students from different colleges and universities were included in the study, the results may have been different.

There was a dearth of tools that can measure Student Engagement or Student Experience as thoroughly as the NSSE does. Since NSSE has been developed by Indiana University there is a probability that it lacks Indian perspective. However, to make it pertinent to Indian conditions some items were adjusted or deleted with the help of experts. Due to the paucity of time and resources validity of a modified version of the tool was not estimated.

Finally, if additional institutional characteristics were added to the analysis—such as student's educational background, class, gender, socio-economic status, faculty-student ratios, a different picture of the effects of student-faculty interaction would have emerged.

### **CONCLUSION**

The results of the study, for the most part, are consistent with much of the previous research on student-faculty interaction and teaching effectiveness. There is a significant and quite a large number of students in an institution who record poor interaction with faculty. They barely talk about their vocational plans with teachers, neither examined

their scholastic execution nor have opportunities to work with teachers on projects other than the coursework.

Students learning is intensely reliant on effective teaching. The teaching methods in a majority of institutions are transcendently teacher-centered and absence of organised instructions,

clear explanations, illustrative examples and effective feedback on student work, all represent aspects of teaching ineffectiveness and inadequacy. Shortage of faculty and high student faculty ratio seriously influences the average time a teacher can give to students.

### REFERENCES

- BJORKLUND, S. J. PARENTE AND D. SATHIANATHAN. 2004. Effects of Faculty Interaction and Feedback on Gains in Student Skills. 32nd Annual Frontiers in Education. doi:10.1109/fie.2002.1158615
- COHEN, S., S. KAMENIECKI AND N. MCGLEN. Graduate Student-faculty Relationships. *Teaching Political Science*. 1 1980. pp.131–152.
- EISON, J. 2010. Using Active Learning Instructional Strategies to Create Excitement and Enhance Learning.
- ENDO, J. J. AND R. L. HARPEL. 1982. The Effect of Student-faculty Interaction on Students' Educational Outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*. Vol. 16, No. 2. pp. 115–138. doi:10.1007/bf00973505
- EWELL, P. 1997. Organising for Learning: A New Imperative. *AAHE Bulletin*. Vol. 50. pp. 3–6.
- FACULTY ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES. 2020. *The Teaching Role, The Research Role, The Service Role*, Integration of Faculty Roles and Responsibilities. Retrieved 28 March 2020, from <https://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1972/Faculty-Roles-Responsibilities.html>
- GABLINSKE, P. 2014. A Case Study of Student and Teacher Relationships and the Effect on Student Learning. Retrieved 28 March 2020, from [https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1284&context=oa\\_diss](https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1284&context=oa_diss)
- HEATHER A. DAVIS 2003. Conceptualising the Role and Influence of Student-teacher Relationships on Children's Social and Cognitive Development. *Educational Psychologist*. Vol. 38, No. 4. pp. 207–234. DOI: 10.1207/S15326985EP3804\_2
- IN CONVERSATION WITH DIRECTOR: STUDENT FACULTY INTERACTION. 2020. Retrieved 28 March 2020, from <http://voxiitk.com/in-conversation-with-director-student-faculty-interaction/>
- KAREN L. BOUCHARD AND J. DAVID SMITH. 2017. Teacher-student Relationship Quality and Children's Bullying Experiences with Peers: Reflecting on the Mesosystem, *The Educational Forum*. Vol. 81, No. 1. pp. 108–125. DOI: 10.1080/00131725.2016.1243182
- KINZIE, J. 2005. Promoting Student Success: What Faculty Members Can Do? (Occasional Paper No. 6). Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research. Bloomington, Indiana.
- KUH, G.D. AND S. HU. 2001. The Effects of Student-faculty Interaction In the 1990s. *The Review of Higher Education*. Vol. 24, No. 3. pp. 309–332. doi:10.1353/rhe.2001.0005.
- KUNDU, G. 2016. Higher Education Quality: A Literature Review. *ICTACT Journal on Management Studies*. Vol. 2, No. 2. pp. 281–288. doi: 10.21917/ijms.2016.0037

- PARIKH, R. 2014. Survey of Engineering Students' Use of Internet. *International Journal of Information Communication Technologies and Human Development*. Vol. 6, No.2, pp. 45–55. doi: 10.4018/ijicthd.2014040104
- PASCARELLA, E. T., AND P.T. TERENCE. 1976. Informal Interaction with Faculty and Freshman Ratings of Academic and Non-Academic Experience of College 1. *The Journal of Educational Research*. Vol. 70, No. 1. pp. 35–41
- SHARMA, B. AND P. BHAUMIK. 2013. Student Engagement and Its Predictors: An Exploratory Study in an Indian Business School. *Global Business Review*. Vol. 14, No. 1. pp. 25–42. doi: 10.1177/0972150912466364
- SHARMA, S. AND P. SHARMA. 2015. Indian Higher Education System: Challenges and Suggestions, *Electronic Journal for Inclusive Education*. Vol. 3, No. 4.
- SKINNER, E.A. AND M.J. BELMONT. 1993. Motivation in the Classroom: Reciprocal Effects of Teacher Behaviour and Student Engagement Across the School Year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 85, No. 4. pp. 571–581.
- WERY, J. AND M. THOMSON. 2013. Motivational Strategies to Enhance Effective Learning in Teaching Struggling Students. *Support for Learning*. Vol. 28, No. 3. pp. 103–108. doi: 10.1111/1467-9604.12027
- YUHAS, B. AND A. BRCKALORENZ. 2017. Student Faculty Interaction. FSSE Psychometric Portfolio. Retrieved from: fsse.indiana.edu.
- WEBSOURCES:
- <http://nsse.indiana.edu/institute/documents/briefs/deep%20practice%20brief%206%20what%20faculty%20members%20can%20do.pdf>
- <http://mebelcity.ulmebel.com/?wgp=teacher-and-student-interaction-in-classroom>
- <https://teaching.utoronto.ca/teaching-support/strategies/supporting-interaction/>
- <https://www.ideaedu.org/idea-notes-on-instruction/encouraged-student-faculty-interaction-outside-of-class/>
- <https://www.cte.cornell.edu/documents/presentations/active%20learning%20-%20creating%20excitement%20in%20the%20classroom%20-%20handout.pdf>



# Towards Competency based Education

M. SEN GUPTA\*

---

## Abstract

*As per National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005, learners construct their own knowledge when they are active in the process of learning. This of course requires a participatory classroom ethos where the teacher stimulates the thinking and imagination of the learners and simultaneously challenges and motivates them for self directed learning. The National Education Policy 2020 repeatedly emphasises the need to nurture creativity, encourage innovativeness and develop entrepreneurship. According to the policy document, classroom transactions must shift towards competency based learning and education. This implies that the school curriculum has to emphasise experiential learning and develop in students the right kind of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values in order to enable them to face successfully the challenges posed by the rapid scientific advancement and technological development. It is in this perspective that the present article discusses the concept of competency, developing competency based curriculum and its distinctive features. It nicely illustrates how this curriculum helps the learner by giving remedial instruction, additional information and more time to practice.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

Education system today is increasingly becoming learner driven. Learning is an active, reflective and interactive process for the present day learner. His legitimate question today is 'If I cannot understand the way you teach, can you not teach me the way I

can understand?' The earlier notion of considering the teacher as a dispenser of information and the child's brain as the store house of information is unacceptable in today's perspective. Therefore, it has become necessary to bring a change in the thinking of the teacher who traditionally considers

---

\*Former Principal, RIE Bhopal, Professor and Head, Division of Educational Research, NCERT, New Delhi

that children are the receivers of knowledge and the textbooks are the only source of information. Post National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005, the school system is making all efforts to ensure knowledge creation by the learners through personal involvement and firsthand experience.

In such a participatory classroom the teacher stimulates the thinking of learners, challenges and motivates them for self directed learning rather than merely transferring the accumulated information to passive listeners. In the global competitive world of today, the need is to nurture creativity, encourage innovativeness and develop entrepreneurship.

The National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 rightly states that “Education must thus, move towards less content, and more towards learning about how to think critically and solve problems, how to be creative and multi-disciplinary, and how to innovate, adapt, and absorb new material in novel and changing fields.”

The National Education Policy has laid “special emphasis on the development of the creative potential of each individual in all its richness and complexity”. The draft policy emphasised “to close the gap between the current state of learning outcomes and what is truly needed, classroom transactions must shift towards competency based learning and education.” In a similar view, NEP 2020 stipulates that “While

learning by rote can be beneficial in specific contexts, pedagogy must evolve to make education more experiential, holistic, integrated, discovery-oriented, learner-centered, discussion-based, flexible, and of course, enjoyable.” Therefore, the school curriculum has to emphasise experiential learning and develop in students, the right kind of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values in order to enable them to face successfully the challenges posed by the rapid scientific advancement and technological development. This will help them to quickly adjust to changing socio-economic conditions.

### **COMPETENCY – THE KEY**

#### **DIFFERENTIATOR**

Competency can be described as a combination of knowledge, skills and personal and social attributes possessed by a person. Competencies are essential to perform a job, task or professional practice efficiently. A competent person uses his abilities and traits in appropriate and consistent manner in order to achieve the desired performance level. Competencies are in fact multi-dimensional in nature. These are linked to the desired level of performance in a job. Competencies are so stated that these become observable and measurable so that these can be comprehensibly assessed. The desired competencies can be nurtured and developed by individuals to reinforce their competitive advantages. Competencies when effectively applied produce a successful performance

in a given function or activity. The ability of a person to identify and acquire the required set of functional as well as behavioural competencies proves to be key differentiator for his future success. The behavioural competencies help to improve interpersonal relationships and personal effectiveness. Competency, in addition comprises aspects of self-concept, self esteem, social motives and ways of thinking, feeling and doing.

A person to be successful requires technical competencies essential to perform a given job. Alternatively, they may require these competencies to efficiently handle their role in a specialised department. For example, a person engaged in management functions requires leadership competencies for proper planning and organising the activities in their organisation. These competencies help a manager to effectively implement a plan or activity by motivating the team members for optimum efficiency. "At times, it is found that the specialised technical skills associated with different (work) roles are considered less important by the employer than the soft skills that are transferable between different jobs and different employment sectors. They instead prefer to hire those candidates who have well-honed set of soft or employability skills." (Sen Gupta, 2017). Some of these skills include ease in working as a team member, ability to solve a problem satisfactorily, participating positively in group discussions, dealing with

difficult colleagues, expressing entrepreneurial qualities, negotiating deals successfully, ability to manage time, stress or conflict, etc.

The present day discipline or subject centered curriculum is teacher oriented. Students following this curriculum learn what the teacher teaches. They basically transfer knowledge created by others. In discipline based curriculum, content organisation is historical rather than future oriented. It is academically neutral. As opposed to this, learning in competency based curriculum is learner focused. It works with self paced learning and independent study. The role of an instructor in this type of curriculum is that of a guide, motivator and a facilitator. In a competency based curriculum, the learners focus on one competency at a time. It constitutes a small component of a larger learning goal. Once the student masters the individual competency and has been evaluated on it; he moves on to other competencies. In this manner, after mastering initial competencies the learner learns higher or more complex competencies to a degree of mastery.

While developing a competency based curriculum the first job is to identify the required set of functional as well as behavioural competencies. This is done based on job analysis and task analysis.

### **STATING A COMPETENCY**

Competencies are stated as statements that describe the characteristics a graduating learner

is expected to demonstrate. The statement indicates the learner's capacity to perform and function independently in an academic, vocational or professional practice. Each competency integrates in itself the application of facts learnt, performance of skills and display of personal qualities like attitudes and values required to do a job efficiently and effectively. In practice however, several courses usually assist in the attainment of each competency.

### **COMPETENCY BASED CURRICULUM**

Competency based curriculum, as a matter of principle is child centered. It nicely adapts to changing needs of learners, teachers and the society. In this curriculum, learning situations, activities and environments are so selected that the learners get ample opportunities to acquire and apply their attained knowledge, skills and attitudes in day to day problem situations. To put in simple language it focuses on what the learners will be expected to do or carry out later in life, in higher education or in their careers and not simply on what they are expected to know by way of studying different subjects.

A distinctive feature of competency based curriculum is that in case of any deficiency it helps the learner by giving remedial instruction, additional information, more time to practice or by providing academic support in the form of better and varied resources till they achieve the desired level of competency to satisfy the expected

standards. The goal here is to ensure that more students learn what they are expected to learn by making the time flexible and through additional instruction or resources. In this way, it is better than traditional approaches where students are evaluated in their terminal behaviour primarily to ascertain their status and certify.

Competency based curriculum gives an option to a learner to even skip a learning module entirely provided by virtue of his prior learning he can demonstrate that he has already acquired mastery over it. Due to flexibility of time and resources learners can practice and refine as much as they like and then move rapidly to other skills. In other words, competency based learning requires mastery of competencies by every individual.

### **DEVELOPING COMPETENCY BASED CURRICULUM**

Competency based curriculum preparation involves bringing together a group of subject experts, practitioners from the field and curriculum experts who develop the curriculum.

In order to develop a competency based curriculum, the first task is to identify the required set of functional competencies along with the desired behavioural competencies. These are identified based on systematic analysis of the job into tasks to be performed. Each task is then analysed to identify the functional competencies in terms of knowledge, skills and personality traits.

Functional competencies are those competencies which are required to perform a particular function successfully. These include specific knowledge and their application, i.e., skills required to perform the specified tasks or functions. These are fortified by behavioural competencies which help one to improve one's own effectiveness through better interpersonal relationships.

Each course syllabus includes course goals. These goals are then specified into specific course objectives. With a view to assess the extent of achievement by a student, these objectives are written using precise language in measurable terms. Successful attainment of all course objectives by a student indicates his mastery.

Development of Competency based Curriculum follows the following steps—

### **Step 1**

Identifying the minimum characteristics that an ideal graduate learner should possess in order to be able to successfully practice his higher education initiatives or be successful in his chosen vocation or profession. In other words, he competently accomplishes his goals within a particular setting.

### **Step 2**

Listing down the necessary knowledge, required skills and attitudes or values to be imbibed by the individual for attainment of each competency thus identified. It is

advisable to indicate the methods of assessing the performance in relation to each competency.

### **Step 3**

Arranging courses or units included in the syllabus into a particular sequence. This will enable the learners to meaningfully and effectively grasp the information.

### **Step 4**

Presenting variety of 'practice exercises' and 'related activities' to help acquire and assess the extent of attainment of competencies. Prescribed activities are to be performed by learners under every course or unit which would be helpful in achieving the desired competency. The curriculum at every stage would specify the required level of performance to be achieved. These would motivate the learners to further practice and demonstrate the competency.

### **Step 5**

Presenting a plan for remediation, in case a student is unable to demonstrate competency up to a given standard.

## **COMPETENCY BASED ASSESSMENT**

The NEP 2020 mentioned that "The aim of assessment in the culture of our schooling system will shift from one that primarily tests rote memorisation skills to one that is more formative, is more competency based, promotes learning and development for our students, and tests higher-

order skills, such as analysis, critical thinking and conceptual clarity.” In this context, it is useful to realise that a competency based curriculum is amenable to a different kind of assessment scheme. In order to ascertain the successful attainment of a competency by the learner, it is essential to diagnose their status at the completion of each stage. Thus, the assessment by the teacher has to be continuous and ongoing rather than being a one time affair. With the help of such formative diagnostic testing, it would be known whether the learner requires more time, more personalised attention and further inputs or requires altogether different learning opportunities to reach the expected competency level. The development of competencies being incremental in nature the teacher helps the learner not only to acquire the competency but also to improve upon the competencies.

It is important to appreciate that any discrete assessment of single aspect will be counter productive. This is because competency assessment is comprehensive and involves all the three domains. Systematic observation and expert subjective judgement play an important part in such assessments. This implies that summative or year-end examination is not suitable for competency assessment. In spite of the subjectivity involved, the validity of assessment of competencies can be improved by involving multiple assessors, more number of assessments and assessment of different tasks and so on.

## CONCLUSION

A perusal of the above indicates that competency integrates within itself the three aspects of child's growth namely knowledge, skills and personality traits like attitude, values, etc. As opposed to this, subject centered education is time bound and focuses on knowledge only. Work force in the knowledge age is required to know well his job, do each task efficiently himself and must have the will, positive attitude and be ready to adapt. Any attempt to see them in isolation will defeat the very purpose of education.

Competency based teaching is much more than a different style of teaching. This is because competency based education follows an outcome based approach. It is, as a matter of fact a definite improvement over the present day time bound education because in this, curriculum outcome is specifically defined in terms of the level of competency to be achieved.

Competency based curriculum is focused on the complex outcomes of a learning process rather than simply focusing on the subject matter content. These outcomes of the learning process relate not only to the learner's knowledge but also the skills acquired and the attitudes developed. The competency based curriculum, in addition provides academic support in the form of better and varied resources till the learner achieves the desired level of competency to satisfy the expected standards.

### REFERENCES

- GOVERNMENT OF INDIA. 2019. Ministry of Human Resource Development, *National Education Policy* (Draft). New Delhi.
- . 2020. Ministry of Human Resource Development, *National Education Policy*. New Delhi.
- NCERT. 2005. *National Curriculum Framework* 2005. New Delhi.
- SEN GUPTA, M. (UNDER PUBLICATION) Knowledge and Curriculum. PHI Learning, Delhi.
- . 2017. *Skills for Employability – A Handbook*. Innovative Publication. New Delhi.

© NCERT  
not to be republished

# Experiences of Early Childhood Education Services in a Migrant Community

VARDHNA PURI\*, VINITA BHARGAVA\*\* AND BHANUMATHI SHARMA\*\*\*

---

## Abstract

*Migration is a crucial feature of urban areas. People have been migrating for varied reasons, to improve quality of living being crucial reason. It affects lives of people in both positive and negative ways. Migration adds to the vulnerability of poorer families. This study is aimed to understand lives of women and children in migrant families. A locality in Delhi with high migrant population was selected. The locality was an informal settlement with a dense population. 100 families were contacted and 20 families were selected for in-depth understanding. Primarily qualitative methods were used for the study. The role of early childhood care workers, primarily aanganwadi centres was highlighted. They had an important role to play in the lives of children and their families.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

Migration is a historical phenomenon which has impacted demography as far back as human movement has been documented. The modern nation state borders add a new dimension to the aspect of migration. Migration is simply defined as movement of people from one point to another. However in reality, migration is a

much more complicated process. People often do not simply move from source to the destination, but there are a host of factors which determine the geography. The process through which migration happens is crucial to understand the experiences people have during this movement. Experiences are also determined by the socio cultural position.

---

\*Ph.D. Scholar, Department of Human Development and Childhood Studies, University of Delhi.

\*\*Assistant Professor, Department of Human Development and Childhood Studies, University of Delhi.

\*\*\*Assistant Professor, Department of Human Development and Childhood Studies, University of Delhi.



Geographical location, economic status, ethnicity, gender are some of these aspects. Migration of families encompasses movement of the entire unit together. But apart from this, there is increasing evidence of independent migration of women and children. By understanding migration, we also aim to understand the lives of children who participate in this process.

### **DEFINITION AND THEORIES OF MIGRATION**

The UN Migration Agency (IOM) defines a migrant as “any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from their habitual place of residence, regardless of (1) the person’s legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) what the causes for the movement are; or (4) what the length of the stay is.” To add to this, people who move to a different place periodically for work or other reasons and come back to the habitual place of residence are considered to be circular migrants. As per the census, there are two types of migrants in the country, ones defined through place of birth and ones defined through place of last residence (Census, 2001). In the census, a person whose current residence is different from place of birth is listed as “migrant by the place of birth” and whose residence is different from last place of enumeration is listed as “migrant by place of last residence”. The definition

by IOM has a broader scope, however the definition by Census is used for most official purposes in the country.

There are many theories which explain the phenomenon of migration. Push and pull theory of migration states that there are factors within the locale which create a push factor such as poverty, natural calamities, development induced and certain other areas create pull factors such as job opportunities, better economic and social systems and so on (Lee, 1966). It is crucial to look at these factors but over time it has been postulated that networks are important for migration movement (Massey, 1999). Network theory states that social networks perpetuate and support migration.

### **TYPES OF MIGRATION**

There are different forms of migration, each with its own features but there are common features that bind them together. Some theorists are postulating that there are some overarching features of human movement which are common to all forms of migration (Castles, 2014). On the basis of location, migration can be internal or international. On the basis of agency, migration is voluntary (education, economic, marriage) or forced (refugees, development induced, trafficking). By duration, migration is classified as permanent, long term, short term or circular migration. A new form of migration now being researched is commuter migration, where everyday

people are travelling long distances for work. Amongst all these forms of migration, there are varied individual experiences. In my study the focus is on children within families and for the purpose of this paper, I am looking at migration from the lens of who moves, married or unmarried adults; children with or without adults, individuals or entire families.

### **MIGRATION IN INDIA**

Migration has persisted in our country for over a century (Weiner, 2003). Census of India defines migrant as someone living in a place other than the place of birth. There are many pitfalls to the definition as it does not include circular migrants or people who have moved back to their place of origin. The theoretical understanding of migration moves beyond this understanding as it takes into account the second and third generation migrants as well. And even in situations where people are unable to travel to villages often, they carry practices with them which gets re-imagined in their current context. Some of the major hotspots for migration in the country are UP and western Bihar (Tumbe, 2012). There are possibly around 100 million internal migrants in India which is a number larger than any other place in the world. Migration invokes the imagery of young men travelling to the city for work with women and children left behind. More gendered aspects of migration are being researched as well. A variety of studies

have highlighted advantages such as increased independence as well as disadvantages such as exploitation of migrant women (Mishra, 2016).

### **CHILDREN AND MIGRATION**

The United Nation Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) ensures that children below 18 years of age are entitled to rights of survival, development, protection and participation to which India ratified in 1992. Migration as a process can add to or take away from these rights. To counter extreme poverty, migration may help in securing development rights but protection might be an issue. There have been several negative aspects linked to the migration, especially in terms of school dropping out and difficulty in obtaining transfer certificates. Achievement levels have not been mapped but, on an average, children in migrant families receive less number of days of education (Coffey, 2003). As per UN report, the number of migrant children is estimated to be 15 million (UNESCO, 2013). Within the aspect of family migration, there are many children who are 'invisible'. These children often work at the work site as daily wage labourers (YCDA, 2014).

One of the ways to further understand children's lives can be Bronfenbrenner's conceptualisation of development. In the bioecological model, development is a phenomenon of continuity and change in the human beings, both as individuals and as groups. It is over a life course,

across successive generations, and through historical time, both past and future (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Everyday lives of children are thus affected by migration.

### **EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION (ECCE)**

Care in early years is a particular focus of this study. The state recognised the importance of addressing development of children early as 1975 when the ICDS program was established. The purpose was to provide a comprehensive package of services to children below six years of age (Drèze, 2006). These services were to be delivered at the aanganwadi centres (AWC) which are located in every village and town depending on the population of children. The purpose of these centres was to provide pre-school education, supplementary nutrition, immunisation, nutrition education, health checkup and referral services. A recent policy encompasses inseparable elements of care, health, nutrition, play and early learning within a protective and enabling environment (National Early Childhood Care and Education Policy, 2013). The policy states that education in early years makes a positive contribution to children's long term development and learning by facilitating an enabling and stimulating environment in these foundation years of lifelong learning. Many prominent studies have critiqued the implementation of ICDS programme (Venugopal, 2012). The

ICDS has been known to be plagued with issues of service delivery, particularly education.

### **METHOD**

#### **Locale**

This paper is based on an ongoing PhD research in Nizamuddin *basti*. The *basti* is situated flanked by East Nizamuddin, West Nizamuddin and Jangpura which were primarily refugee colonies after the partition of India and Pakistan in 1947. The *basti* is named after Nizamuddin Dargah which is an important shrine. Apart from the spiritual importance, it also supports the livelihood of many residents of the *basti*. A survey done by an NGO (of 490 households in the area) gives an idea about the demographic profile of the *basti* (AKTC, 2018). The estimated population is around 12,000 which do not include the homeless and the floating population. The *basti* is roughly divided into 8 clusters, which is partly historical and partly on the basis of kinship groups. These clusters are uneven in terms of population and resources. As per the survey, around 79 per cent families reported having stayed in the *basti* for more than 20 years, so about 21 per cent families have been staying for less than 20 years. Circular migrants may not have been identified, therefore the projected migration may be higher. Around 65 per cent of migrant families are concentrated in three clusters, Khusro Nagar, Nizam Nagar

and Dildar Nagar. The participants in this study belonged to these clusters. This paper focuses on children within the migrant families, therefore the descriptions will pertain to this target population. Services for children and mothers in the *basti* were government, NGOs and private service providers. The government services in the *basti* included a primary school, a polyclinic (multispeciality clinic with general physician, gynaecologist, dentist, eye specialist, paediatrician and diagnostic lab) and 7 AWCs. For the purpose of this study, an NGO was contacted which worked on development of the *basti*. As part of their education program, they were supporting all AWCs in the *basti*.

### Participants

The unit of research for this study was the AWC which consisted of workers, children attending it and their parents, mostly mothers. All the AWCs were visited and informal interactions were carried out with all the *aanganwadi* workers (AWW) and helpers. For in-depth understanding, 4 AWCs were selected. These AWCs were in three clusters with the highest migrant population. Nizam Nagar cluster had two AWCs since it had a higher population than other clusters. Through the period of study there was interaction with about 100 families with children of all ages. Within these, further contact was made with 20 families, who had at least one child attending the AWC.

### Data Collection

The primary modes of collecting data were observations and interactions with the AWCs, parents, important members of the community, older children and NGO workers. Children below the age of 6 years were observed in the AWC setting. The locations for data collection were at the AWC and community spaces. At the level of the centre, the overall environment of the centres along with available resources; curriculum implementation and interaction of AWWs, helpers and community teachers with children, parents and amongst each other was observed. Observations were non participant to begin with, however some of the children would engage with me once they were comfortable. Participant observations involved engaging children in activities and games. These visits were conducted over a period of one year. A total of around 50 visits were conducted to the centres and each visit to the centre would last up to two hours. During this time, I carried out conversations with the AWW, helpers and NGO community teachers present at the centre.

To initiate conversations with older children and women, I would locate myself in spaces frequented by women's groups when they sat and chatted during their free time. My entry into homes would happen when I was invited by the child or the mother. I was rarely invited to sit inside as they would say, "*Baaji*

*hum log ke toh chote chote ghar hain, hum kahan bithayien*" (We have small homes, how will we seat you?)

## FINDINGS

### Migration (s) in Nizamuddin Basti

Nizamuddin *basti* has a history of migration, people have come to the Nizamuddin *dargah* since its inception, in search of spiritual guidance as well as solace. Archival evidence also shows structures which signify presence of habitation. In the modern times, Nizamuddin saw bursts of growth at different points. One of the important events which precipitated development in the area was partition. Refugee camps were set up in the nearby monument Humayun's Tomb and from there migrants moved to settlement localities of Nizamuddin East and Jangpura. Nizamuddin *basti* has migrants mainly from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Assam. Of the people engaged with during the research, the reasons for migration were varied. Marriage was a big reason for women to have migrated to the city. Many people came to find work, however, most people coming to Nizamuddin for work already had relatives or village members who were engaged in some form of employment. Nizamuddin *basti* also has a high floating population, many also arrive for religious purposes. There is a large homeless population living around the *basti*. There is a

movement between the *basti* and the street. People may spend time in *rain basera* (night shelter), especially during winters. Most of the people on the street are migrants as well.

There were large sections of Nizamuddin *basti* where families had migrated from various parts of the country, most belonged to Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam and West Bengal. They routinely faced problems of getting birth certificates which was necessary for not only school admissions but other services as well. The families who had migrated also stay in rented accommodation. Being in the centre of the city, the rents were higher than the places found at the periphery of the city. A large proportion of family income was spent on rent and related services of electricity and water supply. This varied across families but a 6\*4 ft room could cost up to ₹ 4000 and ₹ 1000 was spent on electricity and water bills per month. This in some cases did not include a toilet or bathroom. In many cases, a shared toilet or bathroom or a community toilet was used. On an average, each home would have 2–3 adults and 3–4 children.

### ECCE PROGRAMME IN THE BASTI

The ECCE programme in the *basti* was based on public private partnership between the Women and Child Development (WCD) Department of the Delhi government and the NGO. A baseline survey was carried out which identified that the

pre-school component is the weakest. To counter this an additional worker and women from the *basti* trained in pre-school education were placed at the centres referred to as 'community teacher'. This worker was sponsored by the NGO. Infrastructural improvements such as repairing of walls, lighting, flooring were done by the organisation in all the AWCs along with provision of resources such as play material, stationary, teaching learning material. The AWCs were mostly housed inside people's residences, except two centres which were in the polyclinic compound. Support was being provided in form of rent. Since the size of AWCs was rarely beyond 6×6 ft, the government provided only around Rs 2000 as per their rent norms. The standard rent for this sized room in the *basti* was between Rs 4000–5000 and this gap was being filled by the NGO. AWWs and the community workers were also routinely involved in capacity building processes with the NGO.

Each AWC had three adults present on a regular basis; an *aanganwadi* worker, a helper and a community teacher. The helper was responsible for bringing children to the centre and dropping them back home. They distributed food which arrived for the children, later collected the plates and washed them when children had left. Workers gave instructions more often than participating in these activities. Parents who came in also spoke more often to the helper and interacted with the worker only if there was

some information that was needed. The pre-school component was handled mostly by the community workers, however the community workers reported that AWW took over teaching activity if they got the information that supervisor was in the area.

There were around 30–40 children enrolled in the age group of birth to six at each of the 7 AWC. Pre-school was being accessed by anywhere between 10–20 children per centre, attendance varying depending on the multiple factors. There were two centres where AWWs had not been deputed for past 6–7 years. One of these *aanganwadi* centres had been merged with another centre nearby. The centre opened between 9 a.m and 9.30 a.m. Children often reached by 10 a.m. Class started with physical activities and rhymes. It was followed by either a creative or cognitive activity which are described below. Story telling also took place on some days. Around 11 a.m, midday meal was served. From 11.30 a.m to 12 p.m, teacher would continue a previous activity or let children go if their parents came to pick them up. Growth monitoring was carried out at the centres with no particular schedule. During conversations with the mothers, it was observed that they knew that children are weighed at AWCs, but didn't consider it a reliable source for information about weight as they got weight checked during visit to a doctor. Supervisor visits would happen every two or

three weeks. The polio drive was conducted as per national schedule and immunisation at the centre happened once in three months.

### **PRE-SCHOOL COMPONENT**

A curriculum designed by the government was being used at the centres. The curriculum was divided in 4 parts broadly based on different domains of development, physical, language, cognitive and creative development. It was also divided on basis of themes such as me and my family, birds, animals. Activities for physical development included games such as walking on a line, jumping, playing catch and so on. For language development, there were theme based conversations, story telling and rhymes. Cognitive activities included puzzles, identification of colours and numbers, worksheets. Activities involving cutting, pasting, collage making, colouring were for creative development. Teachers and children were well versed with the rhymes that were part of the curriculum. Through the course of the research, if an observation was being carried out by either ICDS supervisor, NGO staff or the researcher, the aanganwadi workers would promptly tell children. "*Bacchon, ma'aam ko rhyme suna ke dikhao*" (Children, show ma'am how you sing the rhymes). AWWs were not observed conducting meetings for adolescent girls. Community teachers, helpers and AWWs seemed aware of developmental needs of children. They would routinely ask them about

their experiences, asking them to take initiative, being affectionate to them. Though incidents of shouting and scolding were also observed, mostly by AWW.

### **ENGAGEMENT WITH MOTHERS WITHIN THE COMMUNITY**

Aanganwadis are a space where many services are provided at the community level. It is the only point of direct contact with the community, especially in urban areas where other services are not located within the basti. Through the period of the research, it was observed that aanganwadi workers would carry out various tasks which fall under the umbrella of social entitlements. Aadhaar cards for children under six and their mothers were made at the different centres. Widow pension was disbursed through the ICDS program. During the elections, many of the tasks were carried out by the AWWs, leaving the centre to be run by the helper and the community teacher.

AWC was a point of contact for the people who have just moved. Guddi (name changed) was married into a family in Bihar and she gave birth to 6 daughters. The husband and in-laws refused to take care of all the children. Guddi came to the basti as her parents already lived on the street here. Her parents primarily lived outside the dargah which provided shelter to many other homeless people around the basti. Guddi rented a room and struck an arrangement with a local patron, her

eldest daughter worked as a domestic help and he waived of the rent. Since Guddi's house is in a street next to the AWC, the helper identified her when she arrived at Nizamuddin Basti and enrolled her in the centre.

In another case, Sheena, one of the helpers was very close to the family who had migrated from Darbhanga district in Bihar. Manna had been living near Karol Bagh and was involved in making caps. Though he suffers from issues related to vision, a fallout of working in the factory for long hours and in the dark. He married Rani and she had been staying in the village for the past few years. I asked her about coming to the city, she told me "*Woh aap log mein holi hota hai, mein pichle saal tab aayi*" (I came around the time you celebrate Holi). They were living in Khurso Nagar, and then moved to Nizam Nagar. Since Sheena also lives in Khusro Nagar she developed a good relationship with the family and helped them find a house. Her AWC is very close to their house and three of their children are enrolled at the centre. She often keeps the centre open till later for the mother to return from work. Often she would send extra food back home with children. The father considers Sheena his *Baaji* (elder sister) and tells me that she has been a great support for the family.

Shaan and his older brother came to Nizamuddin to live with their *bua* (paternal aunt) as their mother was unable to take care of them.

According to Shaan's *bua*, Reema "*woh dimaag ki theek nahi hai*" (she is not right in her head). When I met Reema, she already had two children and was expecting another one. Shaan's older brother, around 15 years of age, promptly found work in loading trucks in a nearby wholesale market. Shaan is much younger, around 8 years and attends the AWC close to his home. His *bua* was getting supplementary nutrition from the AWC and was known to the worker and the helper. Shaan started attending the AWC as his *bua* said, "*school jaane tak kuch toh padh lega*" (He would at least study something till the time he is enrolled in the school). He was accepted and involved in the activities of the centre often assisting the teacher and other children in carrying out tasks.

Baano belonged to Madhubani district in Bihar and her father was the Panchayat Head in their village. She got married to Vikram, whose family has lived in Nizamuddin *basti* since the 90s. They live in a narrow house which is owned by them but they have no legal papers. Many such houses had emerged in Nizamuddin *basti* as and when people migrated to the city, most confined in 10 sq. meter space. For Baano, this transition from village to the city was jarring. Around my first interaction with her, she had delivered her third child who was a girl. At that point, her husband refused to acknowledge or take care of the child as he had expected a male child instead. He had made a promise



to Baano that he will quit drugs if she delivered a boy. Not having a male child took away his motivation to quit. Just after delivery, she was struggling with taking care of her child as her in laws were sympathetic but were too old and unwell to help. The worker, Ragini, in the nearby centre, knew her situation as she was enrolled in the supplementary nutrition program. She helped Baano by giving her a blanket and some warm children's clothes. Baano often sits at the AWC talking to Ragini. She tells me, "*Yeh didi toh bohot acchi hai*" (She is like an older sister and is a good person).

## CONCLUSION

Migration is an overarching feature in the lives of many urban residents. Through the course of the study, there were different kinds of migrants that were observed. Family was one of the important spaces where complexities of migration could be observed. It is evident that people migrate and expect to see a better future for themselves and their children. Nevertheless when they move there are several factors which impinge on the lives of their children such as lack of access to health and educational services which require support from the state. Families do not have Aadhaar cards, birth certificates or proper spaces to stay which impact quality of life of migrant children as access to school and medical services including immunisation, nutritional supplements, health checkups

amongst a few others. Sometimes it is contingent on aanganwadi workers' own initiative to support new families in the area but they can have a positive presence in the lives of these families. Being situated inside the community, they can help families at an early stage of migration when vulnerability is especially high. Care needs of children can be addressed, thus helping families to ensure rights of a young child.

The AWC, not just the people but also the space were closely linked to the community. As seen in Guddi's case, the aanganwadi helper was able to identify her family due to proximity to the AWC and link her children to services at the centre. Sheena got support not only in finding a house in the basti, but the helper at the centre could provide care to children in situations needed. Baano also received support at a vulnerable juncture in her life. Ragini is another person in her 'circle of imagination' where there is unspoken trust as well as keeping of a family's care in her thought (Suneja, 2018). AWC became an important space for families to derive support, both for their own living and livelihood and the welfare of their children. In situations where migrants in the *basti* hadn't formed adequate support systems, AWC fulfilled some of those functions.

The imperfections in the ICDS system such as lack of infrastructure, poor training, leakages in the system are difficult to ignore (Kumar, 2019). But, so is the potential this space

holds in the lives of children, especially those belonging to migrant families. The extensive time spent in few AWCs provides an insight into the various networks of relationships which exist within the centre. Being compared to

harsh standards presented only through large scale studies only on quantitative parameters, AWCs will fail (Saxena and Srivastava, 2009). However, with support, AWC can have a meaningful impact on lives of migrant families and children.

### REFERENCES

- AGA KHAN TRUST FOR CULTURE. 2018. Quality of Life Survey in Nizamuddin Basti. Internal report.
- BRONFENBRENNER, U. 1979. *The Ecology of Human Development: Experiments by Nature and Design*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- CASTLES, S., H. DE HASS AND M.J. MILLER. 2014. *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World*. 5th eds. Palgrave Macmillan. London.
- CENSUS OF INDIA. 2001. Retrieved November. 15, 2019 from Census of India [http://censusindia.gov.in/Census\\_And\\_You/migrations.aspx](http://censusindia.gov.in/Census_And_You/migrations.aspx)
- COFFEY, D. 2003. Children's Welfare and Short Term Migration from Rural India. *The Journal of Development Studies*. Vol. 49, No. 8. pp. 1101-1117.
- DEPARTMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT. 2013. National Policy on Early Childhood Care and Education. Delhi. Retrieved from <https://wcd.nic.in>.
- DREZE, J. 2006. Universalisation with Quality: ICDS in a Rights Perspective. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 41, No. 34. pp.3706-3715. Retrieved from [www.epw.in](http://www.epw.in)
- INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION ON MIGRATION. 2019. Retrieved from <https://www.iom.int/who-is-a-migrant>
- KUMAR, N.P. 2019. Insights from a Field Study in Uttar Pradesh: ICDS Striving for Holistic Development. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 54, No. 48. Retrieved from <https://www.epw.in>
- LEE, E.S. 1966. A Theory of Migration. *Demography*. Vol. 3, No. 1. pp. 47-57.
- MASSEY, D.S. 1999. 'International Migration at the Dawn of the Twenty-first Century: The Role of the State'. *Population and Development Review*. Vol. 25, No. 2. pp. 303-322.
- MISHRA, D.K. 2016. Introduction: Internal Migration in Contemporary India—An Overview of Issues and Concerns. In D.K. Mishra (Ed.), *Internal migration in contemporary India*. pp. 1-25. New Delhi. Sage Publications.
- SAXENA, N.C. AND N. SRIVASTAVA. 2009. ICDS in India: Policy, Design and Delivery Issues. *IDs bulletin*. Vol. 40, No. 4. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/230015523>
- SOCIAL INCLUSION OF MIGRANTS IN INDIA. 2013. Retrieved January 23, 2016 from UNESCO website <https://unesdoc.unesco.org>
- SUNEJA, S. 2018. *Ecology of Care of Children by Siblings* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of Delhi, New Delhi, India.

- TUMBE, C. 2012. Migration Persistence Across Twentieth Century India. *Migration and Development*. Vol. 1, No. 1. pp. 87–112.
- UNCRC. 1989. Convention on the Rights of the Child. UNICEF. New York.
- VENUGOPAL, K.R. 2012. *The Integrated Child Development Services: A Flagship Adrift*. Konark Publishers. Delhi.
- WEINER, M. 2003. Migration. In V. Das (Ed.), *The Oxford India companion to sociology and social anthropology*. Oxford University Press. New Delhi.
- YOUTH COUNCIL FOR DEVELOPMENT ALTERNATIVES. 2014. Child Migration: Challenges and Scopes. Odisha. Retrieved from <http://www.shram.org/uploadFiles/20140617033430.pdf>

© NCERT  
not to be republished

# Tribal Youth, Public Sphere and Higher Education in Tripura

RAJEEV DUBEY\*

---

## Abstract

*This paper deals with the crisis of higher education in general and Tripura in particular. It seeks to raise the debate from mere economic analysis of the crisis ailing the higher education to the socio-cultural aspects of the crisis. Institutions of higher education are ideally poised to nurture public sphere in the educational space. Our constitution makers realised that the marginalised group of society needs to be adequately represented in HEIs, as this representation beside other benefits would also provide them a platform to air their views, opinion and interest in the discourses taking place in public sphere which play a pivotal role in shaping the contours of public policy. This paper attempts to provide a critical and reflexive glance at the participation of tribal youth in current mainstream higher educational institutions (HEIs) in general and Tripura in particular. Through data procured from secondary sources, researcher seeks to establish that through various means of social closure in the institutions of higher education, the representation and participation of tribal youth is far from the constitutional mandate. The hidden curriculum and banking pedagogy further aid and facilitate the process of marginalisation of tribal youth. This lack of representation of tribal youth significantly undermines their participation in public sphere of HEIs, which eventually plays an important role in shaping the contours of public policy.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

Public sphere is discursive and liberal realm in which diverse views are contested and public opinion is formed. In this dialogic space, open

conversation is promoted and rational critical discourse is encouraged. In this space, participants are treated equally irrespective of the caste, tribe or religion. In a democratic society, taking

---

\*Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, Tripura University.

cognizance of and being sensitive to such public opinion is *sine qua non* for guiding the state's decision making and policies. Through public sphere, society and the state come into contact. In a third world democratic nation like India where there are miniscule politically aware 'public' the importance of HEIs as 'public' good and as nursery of public sphere acquires further importance. Therefore, it is very important that in these democratic public spheres diverse section of society gets equal chance to voice their interest and views.

In Tripura, there are 19 major tribes and are considered to be the original inhabitant of this state. Chronicles of Tripura reveal that historically before the merger of Tripura with the Union of India it was ruled by the tribal kings and tribal were in majority. Subsequently, after the merger with the Indian union, the demography of Tripura has changed significantly. Tribals from being a majority have been reduced to minority (Bhattacharyya, 1988) and constitute 31.8 per cent of total population of Tripura as per 2011 census. Given this geo-political scenario and the changing demography, it becomes all the more important that the voice of tribal youth be heard in the discourses in public sphere of HEIs which eventually goes into policy formulation at the provincial and national level.

Public sphere in the work of Jürgen Habermas has been conceived as 'a social space for the rational-critical debate about public issues conducted by private persons willing

to let arguments and not statuses determine decisions' (Calhoun, 1992). So, for weaving the arguments in this paper, public sphere's central category – 'rational-critical discourse' and as a 'space of reasoned debate' is taken. Conceived in this sense, public sphere acquires immense importance in lending voice to all sections of society. Viewed from this vantage point, HEIs stands closest to the spirit of public sphere and they are ideally poised to nurture and sustain the public sphere.

Education is essentially conceived as 'public' in nature given everyone's stake in it. Academic values and culture are umbilically connected to the society and are reflective of social structure and contradictions of society in which they are located. As our society is marked by social closure on the lines of caste, ethnicity, gender, etc., so are the practices in HEIs mediated by the process of social closure which limits the participation of people from marginalised section of society. Social closure provides a conceptual tool and 'a general model for the analysis of all forms of domination' (Murphy, 1988). Murphy conceives of social closure as 'process of subordination whereby one group monopolises advantages by closing off opportunities to another group of outsiders beneath it which it defines as inferior and ineligible'. Studies have revealed how institutions of higher education are internally structured and subdivided by processes of social closure on the basis of caste (Kirpal

et al. 1985, Wankhede, 2013), class (Apple, 1982, Nambissan, 2010), gender (Bhog, 2002, Chanana, 2003, Manjrekar, 2013) and tribes (Kumar 1986, Nambissan, 2010, Xaxa 2008).

This paper attempts to provide a critical and reflexive glance at the participation of tribal youth in current mainstream Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) in general and Tripura in particular. In this paper beside *Introduction* which establishes the linkage between public sphere, tribal youth and higher education, is structured in two sections and endeavors to address following issues—Section I, deals with— *Limited participation of Scheduled Tribes: A Case of Shrinking Public Sphere in HEIs*, in this section through facts, researcher seeks to establish that the representation and participation of tribal youth is far from the constitutional mandate. This lack of representation of tribal youth significantly undermines their participation in public sphere of HEIs which plays an important role in shaping the contours of public policy.

In Section—II *Curriculum, Pedagogy and the culture of social closure in HEIs*, reflects on the practice of curriculum and pedagogy in institutions of higher education, research tend to reflect on the culture prevalent in institutions of higher education which further undermines the

participation of limited tribal youths in the institutions of higher education. The culture of silence promoted through multifarious means prevents tribal youth in articulating and expressing their voices in the public sphere.

## SECTION I

### Limited participation of Scheduled Tribes: A Case of Shrinking Public Sphere in HEIs

This section seeks to establish through facts that the representation and participation of tribal youth is far from the constitutional mandate. This lack of representation of tribal youth significantly undermines their participation in public sphere of HEIs. Lack of participation of tribal youth undermines their role in shaping the contours of public policy.

According to the Census 2011 data, Scheduled Tribes (STs) constitute 8.6 per cent (104,281,034) of the total population (1,210,193,422) of India. In Tripura the situation is different; tribal (STs) constitute 31.8 per cent (1,166,813) of the total population (3,673,917) of Tripura. Further, it is important to look into STs population in the age group of (18–23 years), which is the age group to enter higher education.

**Table 1**  
**Population (18–23 Years) 2013–14**

All India/State	Total Population	ST Population	Percentage of ST
All India	140801526	11926495	8.47 %
Tripura	444191	144713	32.57 %

According to the all India survey of higher education (AISHE 2013–14) in the aforementioned Table 1, Scheduled Tribes (STs) in the age group of 18–23 years constitute 8.47 % (11,926,495) of the total 18–23 years age group population (1,40,801,526) of India. In Tripura, tribal (STs) in the age group of 18–23 years constitute 32.57 per cent (1,44,713) out of the total 18–23 years age group population (4,441,91) of Tripura. Ideally, Constitution of India mandates adequate representation of STs in proportion to their population in higher educational institutions. But, in reality there is a yawning gap between what the constitution promises and mandates and what is actually delivered. The situation is glaring when we look at the enrolment of tribal youths in various Universities.

are prompt in implementing the constitutional mandate of providing adequate representation to the ST category. It is generally believed that state governed public institutions are underrepresented because of maladministration. But, a quick glance at the representation of STs in these institutions would reveal the yawning gap between the policy and the practice of affirmative action. As per aforementioned Table 2, in the Central Universities the STs constitutes merely 3.9 per cent of total students enrolled. In the institutes of national importance governed by the central government, the STs constitute 6.1 per cent of total students enrolled and in the state public University the enrolment of STs is abysmally low at 2.8 per cent. As per the Central Educational Institutions

**Table 2**  
**Category wise Enrolment in various types of Universities—**  
**All India level**

Type of University	Total Students	ST Students	Percentage of ST
Central University	655717	25885	3.9 %
Institute of National Importance	150849	9316	6.1 %
State Public University	2688340	76364	2.8 %

(AISHE 2013–2014: T-85)

**Table3**  
**Enrolment in Higher Education— Case of Tripura**

State	Total Enrolment	ST Enrolment	Percentage of ST
Tripura	68262	12048	17.6 %

AISHE (2013–2014: T-49)

In academia, there is an illusion that Central Universities and institutes of national importance governed by the central government

(Reservation in Admission) Act, 2006, reservation has been provided in following proportion— SC – 15 per cent , ST – 7.5 per cent, OBC – 27 per cent

(Laskar, 2010). In all the aforesaid scenario's mentioned in Table 2, the enrollment of STs is much below the constitutional mandate of 7.5 per cent enrolment of STs. However, the demography of North East India is different as majority of the states in the North East region have tribal population. Therefore, the government allows Central Universities and other Central educational institutions, most of which are located in the North East to continue with 15 per cent reservation for STs even though the Central Education Institutions Act stipulates 7.5 per cent reservation for them<sup>1</sup>.

This paper is concerned with the representation of tribal youth in the public sphere of higher educational institutions in Tripura. The aforementioned Table 3 reveals the representation of STs in the higher educational institutions of Tripura. Simultaneously, these tribal dominated states in North East region have made special provisions for adequate representation of tribal

in the higher educational institutions of state. In case of Tripura, as per the *Tripura Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Reservation Act, 1991*, there is a provision of thirty-one (31) per cent reservation for the Scheduled Tribes in admission of students to educational institutions<sup>2</sup>. It is noteworthy that the tribal (STs) constitute 31.8 per cent (1,166,813) of the total population (3,673,917) of Tripura. The STs population in the age group of (18–23 Years) is 32.57 per cent in Tripura. But, if we look at the enrolment of tribals in various higher educational institutions in Tripura, the condition is dismal and far from the constitutional mandate of 31 per cent. As revealed in Table 3, tribals have merely 17.6 per cent of the total enrolment of students in higher educational institutions in Tripura. This representation is further low for ST students facing multiple challenges—ethnic and physically challenged as represented in the following table.

**Table 4**  
**Category wise distribution of PWD students All India level**

Category per hundred	% out of Total PWD Male	% out of Total PWD Female	% out of Total PWD
SC	8.6	9.2	8.8
ST	2.6	2.4	2.5
OBC	28.8	30.4	29.4

(AISHE 2013–14:19)

**Table 5**  
**State wise enrolment in PWD community**

State	Persons with Disability		
	Male	Female	Total
Tripura	93	29	122

(AISHE 2013–14: T-50)



It is amply revealed that the representation of STs in higher education is much less than the constitutional mandate at national level. The conditions of persons with disability in ST category facing multiple deprivations is even worse, according to the all India survey of higher education as represented in aforementioned Table 4, PWD students of ST category constitute merely 2.5 per cent of the overall population in 18–23 years age group of PWD category. In case of Tripura the numerical strength of PWD students in higher educational institutions

is 122 out of which male—93 and female—29. It is clearly evident that the representation of tribal youth in HEIs is much below their numerical strength and also less than the constitutional mandate country wide in general and Tripura in particular. Further, ST students with multiple deprivations like disability are all the more represented inadequately.

The representation of STs in the higher educational institutions is further conditioned by the type of region—urban or rural. The following diagram (Figure 1) gives a glimpse of the scenario.

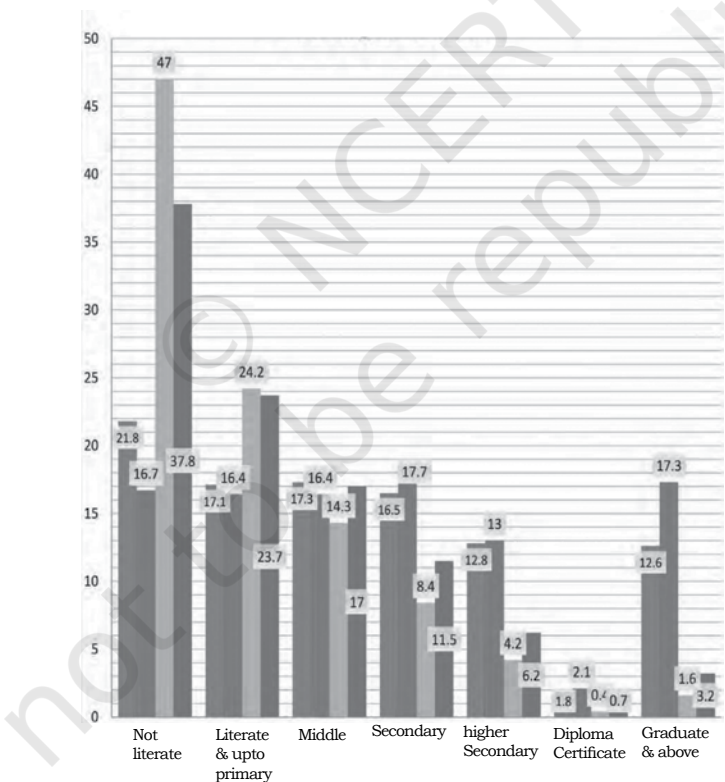


Figure 1: Statistical Profile of Scheduled Tribes in India  
Ministry of Tribal Affairs, Statistics Division, Government of India 2013: 23

The statistical profile of STs reveal that hardly 1.6 per cent of STs in rural areas are graduate and above. Further, only 0.4 per cent of STs in rural areas are diploma holders. These statistics reveal that with the multiplication of regional deprivation with STs the representation of STs in higher education further drops to a newer low. The situation of representation of tribal youth is further clear when we look at their enrolment in various programmes across the country.

In the aforesaid Table 6, it is clear that the representation of ST students in higher educational programmes ranges from virtually being nil to 6.5 per cent but it is far from the constitutional mandate of 7.5 per cent representation. It is not surprising to see that even in the minimal representation it is predominantly in the arts discipline. In specialised medical field like Master of Chirurgiae (M.Ch.), the STs are nowhere to be found. In the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), STs are as low

**Table 6**  
**Programme wise enrolment of Schedule Tribe students— All India level**  
**(based on actual response)**

Programme	All Categories	Scheduled Tribe	Percentage of STs
Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy)	104511	3815	0.3%
M.Ch. (Master of Chirurgiae)	326	0	0%
M.Phil. (Master of Philosophy)	31380	1181	3.7%
M.A. (Master of Arts)	787063	84240	6.1%
M.Sc. (Master of Science)	546978	16531	3.0%
M.B.A. (Master of Business Administration)	194338	7987	1.4%
M.C.A. (Master of Computer Applications)	244554	2816	1.1%
M.Tech. (Master of Technology)	178325	4550	2.5%
M.D. (Doctor of Medicine)	30462	910	2.9%
B.A. (Bachelor of Arts)	8597730	564951	6.5%
B.Sc. (Bachelor of Science)	3183423	130109	4.0%
B.E. (Bachelor of Engineering)	1896153	36564	1.9%
B.Com. (Bachelor of Commerce)	3261644	96303	2.9%
L.L.B. (Bachelor of Law or Laws)	223973	6423	2.8%

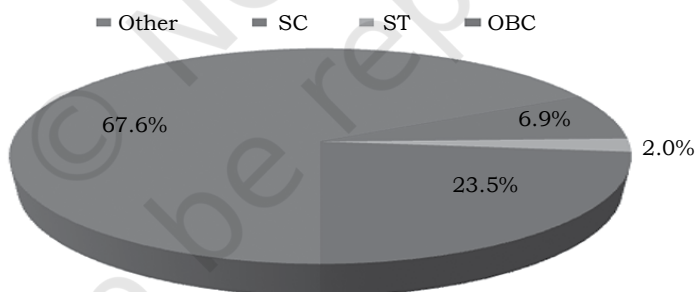
(AISHE 2013–2014: T-28–29)

as 0.3 per cent. It is clear that when STs are even less than 1 per cent at Ph.D. level, they will definitely be underrepresented at the faculty level in all streams in higher education because Ph.D. is a desirable and very soon going to be an essential criteria for faculty recruitment. In Master of Computer Applications, STs are 1.1 per cent, in Master of Business Administration they constitute 1.4 per cent, in Bachelor of Engineering they constitute 1.9 per cent, in Master of Technology STs constitute 2.5 per cent, in Bachelor of Law STs constitute 2.8 per cent, in Doctor of medicine STs constitute 2.9 per cent, in Bachelor of Commerce STs constitute 2.9 per cent, in Master of Science STs constitute 3 per cent, in Bachelor of Arts STs constitute

in Tripura in these programmes is no different and experiences similar minimal representation of tribals in these technical disciplines.

Teachers play an important role in nurturing and fostering students. There is no denying the fact that ethnic affinity plays an important role in motivating students of that particular community. But in case of tribal population, we find a grim scenario as teachers from tribal community is very less as revealed in the following pie-diagram.

Further, constitution mandates 7.5 per cent representation of STs in higher educational institutions. But, the AISHE 2013–14 data reveals in aforementioned Figure 2 that ST teachers are as low as 2 per cent in the institutions of higher education. This



*Figure 2: Social Category wise distribution of Teaching Staff at All India level (AISHE 2013–14: 26)*

6.5 per cent and at Mater of Arts STs constitute 6.1 per cent. The facts speak in volume about the institutional blackout of STs across almost all the programmes and specifically from the science and engineering field. The condition of tribal representation

significantly diminishes STs voice in articulating their voice for promoting their interest. The following Table 7, reveals the category wise number of teachers in various types of institution of higher education.

**Table 7**  
**Category wise number of teachers in various types of Universities—**  
**All India level**

<b>Type of University</b>	<b>Total Teachers</b>	<b>ST Teachers</b>	<b>Percentage of ST</b>
Central University	11040	233	2.1 %
Institute of National Importance	12282	25	0.2 %
State Public University	53216	253	0.4 %

(AISHE 2013-2014: T-89)

**Table 8**  
**Category wise teachers in Higher Education— the Case of Tripura**

<b>State</b>	<b>Total Teachers</b>	<b>ST Teachers</b>	<b>Percentage of ST</b>
Tripura	2293	238	10.3 %

(AISHE 2013-2014: T-68)

As reflected in the aforementioned Table 7, in Central Universities the representation of STs is as low as 2.1 per cent, in institutions of national importance it is 0.2 per cent and in state public Universities STs representation is 0.4 per cent. With this abysmal representation, in the institutions of higher education irrespective of jurisdiction whether it is provincial government or central government the interest and demands of STs do not find their voice in the public sphere in institutions of higher education.

Further, the status of STs in Tripura is not different; it is discussed in Table 8. In Tripura, STs comprises of 31.8 per cent of total population and as per the *Tripura Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Reservation Act, 1991*, there is a provision of 31 per cent reservation for the Scheduled Tribes in educational institutions. But, STs representation

in teaching faculty of higher educational institutions of Tripura is 10.3 per cent which is much less than the legislative mandate. Education plays an important role for the marginalised section of society as it provides an effective avenue for empowerment and mobility. Through the discourse and deliberations in public sphere tribes are not only able to bring their existential and experiential issues in the centre stage for discussion but also they contribute by suggesting viable solutions for those problems.

This under representation seriously undermines STs voice in the articulation of their interest in public sphere of higher educational institutions. Since, higher educational institutions are the spaces where policies are discussed, feedback articulated and newer policy framework proposed, the overall implication of under representation of STs in the public sphere of higher educational institutions is that

STs interest are not adequately represented in the policy formulation which is sine quo non in a democratic society. Such under representation of STs is conspicuous in various programmes across the discipline. When the existential and experiential aspects of STs are not adequately represented in the policy framework discontentment brews, such discontentment offers challenge to democratic fabric of society in form of separatism, insurgency and other modes of protest and violence.

## Section II

### ***Curriculum, Pedagogy and the Culture of Social Closure in HEIs***

The aforesaid section highlighted the numerical under-representation of tribal youth in the institutions of higher education. This section focuses on the culture prevalent in institutions of higher education of India in general and Tripura in particular which further undermines the participation of limited tribal students in the institutions of higher education. The culture of silence promoted through multifarious means prevents tribal youth in articulating and expressing their voices in the public sphere.

It is pertinent that the tribal students need to bring their issues in the discourses taking place in the public sphere of HEIs. Because as, Xaxa would argue, 'The structure specific to tribal society gives rise to certain disadvantages' (Xaxa, 2008) and these

disadvantages can be envisioned and bring out more effectively by the tribal themselves in the public sphere and possibly explore or suggest viable solution in tune with the lived experiences of the tribal students.

But, it is noticed that tribal youth are not adequately represented in the HEIs. An interesting explanation can be found in Bourdieu's analysis. Bourdieu (1997) resurrected the concept of capital and outlined its three forms: Cultural capital, Social capital, and Economic capital. It illuminates some of the reasons where tribal students are at disadvantage in the educational institutions. According to Bourdieu, cultural capital can be in three forms—embodied state, objectified state and institutionalised state. The embodied state in the form of long-lasting dispositions of mind and body, so in case of tribal youth it can be effectively communicated by tribal themselves. In case of objectified state of cultural capital: in the form of cultural goods like books, etc. Further, institutionalised state of cultural capital reflected in form of educational qualifications also puts tribal youth at disadvantage. Tribals are also at disadvantage in case of social capital as well, according to Bourdieu 'The volume of the social capital possessed by a given agent thus depends on the size of the network of connections he can effectively mobilise and on the volume of the capital (economic, cultural or symbolic) possessed in his

own right by each of those to whom he is connected.’ (Bourdieu, 1997). Therefore, in terms of cultivating network of social relationship tribals lags behind. This put them in marginal roles in the higher educational premises.

Another factor which plays a key role in dis(empowering) students is the curriculum. Curriculum in these HEIs are remote to the lived experience of tribal community thereby fail to inspire the tribal youth for meaningful participation the public sphere of HEIs. Kumar writes that, ‘Textbooks are universally used but they do not mean the same thing in different countries. Their practical use in the school’s daily routine and their symbolic function vary from one educational system to the next’ (Kumar, 1986). Similarly, the practice of pedagogy is remote to the life of tribals. ‘Pedagogical writings typically assume that textbooks have a universally accepted function. Not just pedagogical writings, even educational planning exercise are often based on the assumption than text books are a value-free, globally relevant in-put’ (Kumar, 1986). Echoing the same concern Geetha Nambissan argues that, ‘Curricular and pedagogic are concern in the NCF. However, they fail to be adequately informed by an understanding of the specific context of educational deprivation, particularly where the economically and socially vulnerable communities such as dalits and adivasis are concerned. For instance,

it is important to recognise that these communities were historically deprived of education because of the position of dalits as untouchables in the caste system and the isolation, exploitation and stereotypes of ‘cultural backwardness’ of adivasis. These factors may continue to be relevant to the educational experiences of these communities today has largely been ignored.’ (Geetha Nambissan, 2012). The marginalisation of tribal students is further aggravated with the practice of discrimination. Discrimination and humiliation lowers the self esteem of tribal students. The Thorat committee (2007) in its empirical investigation outlined the ways in which SC/ST community students at undergraduate and post graduation levels face discrimination (Thorat, 2013). These hurdles discourage the already miniscule tribal students to participate meaningfully in public sphere of HEIs where there is possibility to express and articulate the tribal demands peacefully.

In a comprehensive analysis of tribal students’ participation and representation in the public sphere of HEIs, I have already outlined their miniscule presence in terms of quantity as tribals are far below the constitutional mandate. The nature of curriculum and pedagogy practiced in HEIs instead of equipping tribals for a meaningful participation in the public sphere of HEIs creates resistance and strengthens inertia for any meaningful participation by the tribals. Beside the

curriculum and pedagogy, the speech pattern used in the educational premises further restricts meaningful participation of tribals in the public sphere. *Basil Bernstein* outlining this issue writes, that there are mainly two forms of speech pattern—‘elaborated code’ and the ‘restricted code,’ in general the members of the working class and other marginalised groups of society are limited to the use of restricted codes where as members of the middle class and upper class whose culture is reflected and practiced in the educational institutions use both restricted and elaborate codes (Bernstine, 1973). Such barriers prevent tribal students from effective articulation and expression of their views in the arena of public sphere.

If we look at the present educational scenario in HEIs in Tripura, the dialogic spirit essential for participating in public sphere is largely absent from the pedagogy and curriculum. ‘Critical pedagogy is rooted into the belief that education is fundamental to democracy and that no democratic society can survive without a formative culture shaped by pedagogical practices capable of creating the conditions for producing citizens who are critical, self-reflexive, knowledgeable, and willing to make moral judgment and act in socially responsible way’ (Giroux, 2011). In absence of such critical pedagogy, tribal students don’t find academic milieu intellectually stimulating. Academic environment fails to inspire

critical consciousness in tribal youth of Tripura in particular and India in general.

This absence of critical consciousness in tribal youth of Tripura is partly due to the practice of, as Paulo Freire would say— ‘banking education’. Freire further explains that implicit in the banking concept is the assumption of a dichotomy between man and the world: man is merely *in* the world, not *with* the world or with others; man is spectator, not re-creator. In this view, man is not a conscious being; he is rather the possessor of a consciousness; an empty mind passively open to the reception of deposits of reality from the outside world (1970). Such a conception of education robs tribal students of their agency to create and transform.

Instead Freire, proposes, problem-posing, liberating education. Where teacher-of-the-student and student-of-the-teacher ceases to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with student-teacher (1970). Such a dialogic education has liberating potential and is in tune with the democratic ethos. Freire saw students as vibrant and dynamic citizens who must constantly challenge the status quo and all forms of oppressions. But unfortunately the dialogic spirit, essential for participating in public sphere is absent from the curriculum and pedagogy of HEIs. As a result, knowledge as it is taught has been divorced from the structure of community.

## CONCLUSION

There is a clamoring call to consider higher education as a democratic public sphere geared towards inspiring students to come to terms with awareness about their own sense of power and public voice as individual and social agents by enabling them to articulate and voice their lived experience in the discourses shaping the policy formulations. But due to miniscule representation of tribal youth in India in general and Tripura in particular, the tribal youth lacks the critical mass for their voice to be noticed in the discourses taking

place in the public sphere of HEIs. Further, the dominant education system practiced in HEIs of Tripura follows the non-tribal pedagogy and also leans on curriculum centered on non-tribal lived experiences. Thus, the tribal culture becomes a problem to be adjusted in the mainstream education. Viewed from such centrist perspective the tribal culture is considered alien and strange rather than being considered as rich and unique. As a result, there is systematic 'epistemic exclusion' of tribal issues from the curriculum and enquiry itself which is detrimental for tribal community.

## END NOTES

- <sup>1</sup> The government has cleared amendments to Central Education Institutions (reservations in admission) Act, 2006 that allows certain central educational institutions to give higher reservation to SC and ST students than what is stipulated under law. For further details refer: [https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/industry/services/education/more-seats-for-sc-st-students-at-central-universities/articleshow/6060923.cms?utm\\_source=contentofinterest&utm\\_medium=text&utm\\_campaign=cppst](https://economictimes.indiatimes.com/industry/services/education/more-seats-for-sc-st-students-at-central-universities/articleshow/6060923.cms?utm_source=contentofinterest&utm_medium=text&utm_campaign=cppst). Last visited on 23.09.2019.
- <sup>2</sup> For further details refer: The Tripura Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Reservation Act, 1991 Available at [https://twd.tripura.gov.in/sites/default/files/Reservation\\_Act\\_1991.pdf](https://twd.tripura.gov.in/sites/default/files/Reservation_Act_1991.pdf), Last visited on 23.09.2019.

## REFERENCES

- ALL INDIA SURVEY ON HIGHER EDUCATION 2013–2014. Government Of India, Ministry Of Human Resource Development, Department of Higher Education, New Delhi 2015. Retrieved On 11.05.2018 From [http://mhrd.gov.in/Sites/Upload\\_files/Mhrd/Files/Statistics/Aishe2015–16.Pdf](http://mhrd.gov.in/Sites/Upload_files/Mhrd/Files/Statistics/Aishe2015–16.Pdf).
- APPLE, M. (ED.) 1982. *Cultural and Economic Reproduction in Education*. Routledge and Kegan Paul. London.
- BERNSTEIN, BASIL. 1973. On the Classification and Framing of Educational Knowledge, in Richard Brown (ed.), *Knowledge, Education, and Cultural Change—Papers on the Sociology of Education*. Tavistock. pp. 363–392. London.



- BHATTACHARYYA, GAYATRI. 1988. *Refugee Rehabilitation and its Impact on Tripura's Economy*. Omsoms Publication: Guwahati.
- BHOG, D. 2002. 'Gender and Curriculum'. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 37, No. 17. pp.1638–42.
- BOURDIEU, PERRIE. 1997. 'The Forms of Capital, in A.H. Halsey et al. (eds). *Education: Culture, Economy and Society*. Oxford University Press. pp.46–58. New York.
- CALHOUN, C., 1992. 'Introduction: Habermas and the Public Sphere', in C. Calhoun (ed.), *Habermas and the Public Sphere*. Cambridge: MIT Press. pp. 1–48.
- CHANANA, K. 2003. 'Female Sexuality and Education of Hindu Girls in India', in S. Rege (ed.). *Sociology of Gender: The Challenges of Feminist Sociological Knowledge*. New Delhi: Sage. pp. 287–317.
- FREIRE, PAULO. 1970. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Continuum. New York.
- GIROUX, HENRY A. 2011. *On Critical Pedagogy*. Continuum. New York.
- KIRPAL ET AL. 1985. Scheduled Caste and Tribe Students in Higher Education: A Study of an IIT, *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 20, No. 29. pp.1238–1248.
- KRISHNA, MURALI. 2012. Pedagogic Practice and the Violence Against Dalits in Schooling in Sleeter et al. (eds) *School Education, Pluralism and Marginality*. Hyderabad: Orient Blackswan.
- KUMAR, KRISHNA. 1986. Textbooks and educational culture. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 21, No. 30. pp. 1309–1310.
- LASKAR, MEHBUBUL HASSAN. 2010. Rethinking Reservation in Higher Education in India, *ILI Law Review*. Vol.1, No. 1. pp. 25–53. Retrieved on 12.03.2019 from [https://web.archive.org/web/20120425081633/http://www.ili.ac.in/pdf/article\\_2.pdf](https://web.archive.org/web/20120425081633/http://www.ili.ac.in/pdf/article_2.pdf).
- MANJREKAR, NANDINI. 2013. 'Gender, Childhood and Work in the Nation: Voices and Encounters in an Indian School', in Geetha B. Nambisan and S.Srinivasa Rao (ed.) *Sociology of Education in India: Changing Contours and Emerging Concerns*. New Delhi: OUP. pp.157–181.
- MURPHY, RAYMOND. 1988. *Social Closure: The Theory of Monopolisation and Exclusion*. New York: Clarendon Press.
- NAMBISSAN, G.B. 2010. 'The Indian Middle Class and Educational Advantage: Family Strategies and Practices', in M. Apple, S. Ball, and L.A. Gandin (eds), *The Routledge International Handbook of the Sociology of Education*. London: Routledge. pp. 285–295.
- STATISTICAL PROFILE OF SCHEDULED TRIBES IN INDIA 2013. Ministry of Tribal Affairs, Statistics Division, Government of India, Retrieved on 12.05.2018 from <https://tribal.nic.in/ST/StatisticalProfileofSTs2013.pdf>.
- THE TRIPURA SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES RESERVATION ACT, 1991. Retrieved on 23.03.2019 from [https://twd.tripura.gov.in/sites/default/files/Reservation\\_Act\\_1991.pdf](https://twd.tripura.gov.in/sites/default/files/Reservation_Act_1991.pdf).
- WANKHEDE, G.G. 2013. Caste and Social Discrimination: Nature, Forms and Consequences in Education, in Geetha B. Nambisan and S. Srinivasa Rao (ed.), *Sociology of Education in India: Changing Contours and Emerging Concerns*. New Delhi: OUP. pp.182–198.
- XAXA, VIRGINIUS. 2008. *State, Society, and Tribes: Issues in Post-Colonial India*. Pearson, New Delhi.

# Education

## Is it an Empowering Factor against Domestic Violence in India?

MANJU ARYA\*

---

### Abstract

---

*This work examines the domestic violence in multi-dimensional perspective to demonstrate the relationship between education and domestic violence. The previous research argued that improvements in women's education would raise their awareness and thereby reduce violence against them. The findings of the researchers are in support that the main cause of domestic violence is lack of education. Taking this as a hypothesis the work focused on the comparative analysis of domestic violence in Rajasthan and Kerala. Rajasthan is considered as the state with lowest female literacy rate whereas Kerala is considered as the state with highest female literacy rate. The analysis of the NFHS data showed the result that both lack of education and rising levels of education among women has negligible effect on protection of women from violence against them. In fact, the temporal analysis showed the increasing trend in the percentage of women in Kerala who have completed ten or more years of education are more vulnerable to all forms of violence than the women in Rajasthan.*

---

### INTRODUCTION

Several researchers like Bott and Morrison (2005) in their work 'Preventing and Responding to Gender-based Violence in Middle and Low-income Countries: A Global Review and Analysis', Cook and

Jejeebhoy (1997) in their work 'State Accountability for Wife-beating: The India Challenge' found lack of education to be responsible for domestic violence. They suggested that increase in educational level has shown remarkable impact on

---

\*Research Scholar, Centre for the Study of Social Systems, Jawaharlal Nehru University.

the decline in reported violence. 'The Gujarat Institute of Development Studies conducted a research on domestic violence and education and found that 60 per cent of women with no education had been assaulted by their husband in comparison to 10 per cent of women with secondary or higher education' (Burton et al. 2000, Simister and Makowiec, 2008: 509). "High educational attainment of women was associated with low levels of violence" (Jewkes, 2002, Simister and Makowiec, 2008). Domestic violence works on cause and effect relationship which explains that educated women are much more conscious about their rights and rejects the justification of accepting the violence in comparison to women with no education and further the women who do not accept violence are less likely to be the victim of violence than those women who accept it.

According to NFHS-4 data, almost 48.23 per cent educated women agreed on husband's right to beat his wife and almost 42.9 per cent women who have 12 or more years of completed education agreed at least one specified reason to justify wife beating. With the demand of changes in educational system, feminists' account shows how education system in itself has many loopholes to entrap women into patriarchal norms of society. Feminists have addressed the issue of gender inequality in education acquisition. The main concern of feminist sociologists is to explore the hidden curriculum which is promoting gender inequality and

stereotyping in the field of education. The argument is the education system and methodologies implied to it have potential to create education as a very powerful tool for gender empowerment.

However, a marked differentiation of gender has always been there in education. According to NFHS-4 data, overall gender disparity in educational attainment of the population falling under the age group 6 and above is sixteen percent. There is a remarkable gender disparity that can be observed in education. "Taking gender disparity table in education from NFHS-3 and comparing it with that of NFHS-4, the survey revealed the pattern of increment in median number of years of schooling for both females and males. The fact from the survey suggests the median educational attainment for females increased from 1.9 years to 4.4 years, whereas the median educational attainment for males increased from 4.9 years to 6.9 years" (NFHS-4 2015–16, 2017). Worth noting point is the median educational attainment for males in the year 2005–06 was more than the most recent median educational attainment for females in the year 2015–16. These facts are complete to explain the gender biasness prevailing in the educational aspect of the nation. There search focus on to reanalyse the education as a factor in women's experiences of their everyday confrontations and negotiations with domestic violence. The attempt resulted in reaching the conclusion that it is not merely educating

women that provide them the sense of empowerment and protection from domestic violence but the kind of education, quality education plays a major role in an individual's life.

### METHOD AND MATERIAL

The method used aimed to identify the social causes emerging from the literature survey and NFHS round of survey in order to address the 'why' question and to analyse whether education makes any difference in women's experiences of domestic violence. For the purpose, NFHS third and fourth round of survey are used. NFHS data works only on physical, sexual and emotional violence. Hence, this research relying on NFHS data is based on comparative analysis.

### RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The objective of the study is to test the hypothesis which holds that education acts as a protective factor for women against domestic violence. This objective further leads the study to frame certain related questions in order to achieve the objective of the study—

1. To find out the conditions of domestic violence and its relation to educational level of women in two Indian states, Rajasthan and Kerala.
2. To examine whether or not education ensures protection to women against domestic violence.

### ANALYSIS

When we compare domestic violence experienced by women in Rajasthan which has lowest female literacy rate with domestic violence experienced by women in Kerala which has highest literacy rate not much difference is observed. From the Table 1 below we can observe that being the most developed state on human development index and having highest literacy rate, Kerala has higher percentage of women who agrees wife beating on at least one specified reasons than Rajasthan and the trend showed increment in the last ten years. Tracing the trend from NFHS-3 and NFHS-4, data suggests irrespective of level of educational attainment more than fifty percent of women in Kerala justify one of the specified reasons of wife beating.

**Table 1**  
**Gender role attitude**

Education	Percentage of women who agree that wife beating is justified for at least one specified reason					
	Kerala		Rajasthan		State Difference	
	NFHS-3	NFHS-4	NFHS-3	NFHS-4	NFHS-3	NFHS-4
No Education	70.5	82.0	68.2	41.2	2.3	40.8
<5 years complete	69.0	76.7	55.3	41.8	13.7	34.9

5–9 years complete	69.5	75.3	47.7	2.8	21.8	42.5
10–11 years complete	61.8	67.1	22.0	25.6	39.8	41.5
12 or more years complete	*	66.8	*	18.1	*	48.7

Source: This table is prepared by the researcher based on NFHS-3, 2005–06: India, 2008; NFHS-4, 2015–16: India, 2018, statistics on two states. \*data not available. State Difference: difference of per centage of women experiencing domestic violence in Rajasthan from that of Kerala (Kerala-Rajasthan).

Referring to Table 2 below, women with five or more years completed education experience more domestic violence in Kerala and with the increase in level of their education shows increment in their experiences of domestic violence. The women with highest level of education experience more violence. Whereas women in Rajasthan are more uneducated this is the reason the greater percentage of women with no schooling shows highest percentage of women ever experienced domestic violence. Taking husband's schooling into account the trend in the table shows, with the increment in the level of education of husbands, the women's experiences of domestic violence also increased in Kerala. Whereas in Rajasthan a mixed trend is observed

yet the conclusion can be made that the husband with highest level of education perpetrates more violence. On the basis of spousal educational difference, Table 2 shows that husbands with better education than their wives perpetuate more violence in Rajasthan in comparison to Kerala but wife's better education or equal education makes husband to engage in domestic violence more in Kerala than in Rajasthan. Considering Table 1 and 2, data suggests that in Rajasthan, lack of education among women seems to be a predisposing factor for violence against women whereas in Kerala, women's attainment of education seems to be a predisposing factor indicating that women's empowerment and protection against violence does not lie in women's education alone.

**Table 2**  
**Experience of domestic violence by educational background**

<b>Background Characteristic</b>	<b>Number of women ever experienced domestic</b>		
	<b>Number of women ever experienced domestic violence in Kerala</b>	<b>Number of women ever experienced domestic violence in Rajasthan</b>	<b>State Difference</b>
<b>Women's schooling</b>			
No schooling	*	1598	598
<5 years complete	50	152	102
5–9 years complete	387	933	-546

10–11 years complete	333	186	147
12 or more years complete	580	445	135
Husband's schooling			
No schooling	20	621	-601
<5 years complete	99	129	-30
5–9 years complete	469	1277	-808
10–11 years complete	351	439	-88
12 or more years complete	418	844	-426
Spousal schooling difference			
Husband has more schooling	290	2059	-1769
Wife has more schooling	690	378	312
Both have equal schooling	371	324	47
Neither attended school	*	549	-549

Source: This table is prepared by the researcher based on NFHS-4, 2015–16: India, 2018, statistics on two states.

K:Kerala. R:Rajasthan. SD:State Difference: difference of percentage of women experiencing domestic violence in Rajasthan from that of Kerala (K-R). \*In the table, the total number of women with educational characteristic who ever experienced domestic violence constitute no women with no schooling.

The comparative data analysis from NFHS-3 and NFHS-4 for the two states, Kerala and Rajasthan proves that merely educating women provides no protection from domestic violence. There are other factors which trigger domestic violence thereby nullifying the education factor. We can conclude that socialisation and entrenched patriarchal authority are stronger than education in the women's experiences and internalisation of domestic violence. "The risk of wife abuse in south Indian community increases when

the cause of the abuse is seen as 'legitimate' by the community" (Rao, 1997, Simister and Makowiec, 2008: 509). "In Rajasthan, men feel that women has to be controlled and kept at home so that society does not say that women in the household are undisciplined" (Kumar, 2002, Simister and Makowiec, 2008).

According to NFHS-3, comparing gender role behaviour in Rajasthan and Kerala, the finding suggests some degree of more domestic violence among women in Rajasthan than Kerala but the highest and lowest disparity is in favour of Kerala which means 10.6 per cent women in Kerala experience more domestic violence than women in Rajasthan if they neglect house or children and 0.9 per cent women in Kerala experience more domestic violence than women in Rajasthan if they refuse to have sex. According to Table 3 below,

Kerala shows higher percentage of women who internalise gender roles and justify all specified reasons of wife beating than women in Rajasthan. The reason identified for internalisation of wife beating is gender role attitudes. “Young married women often assume and are socially assigned the primary responsibility of housekeeping, cooking and keeping up social and family contacts. Women generally feel it is their primary responsibility to keep the marriage happy and intact” (Romer 1981). “Marriage is thought to be of primary importance to women and of secondary importance to men. The ultimate goal is that the woman become a wife and the man become a worker, which defines their respective social statuses” (Dobash and Dobash 1980). This proves that the education factor in isolation cannot be the protective measure for women against domestic violence.

## CONCLUSION

In the Indian context, increasing access of women to education and income often leads to domestic violence. Lakshmy Devi (2008) in ‘Education, Employment and Job Preference of Women in Kerala: A micro-level study’ finds higher education and women’s preference of white-collar, salaried jobs as causes of domestic violence because it improves and gives higher socio-economic status to women. Where women gain access to education and income and attain social mobility, domestic violence also increases due to social stresses caused by women’s success that reflects the power relationship that exists between spouses. This results in low self-esteem and women undergoes episodes of depression caused by absence of personal resources and lack of institutional and societal support.

**Table 3**  
**Justification of beating wife on specified reasons**

Percentage of women who agree wife beating is justified			
<i>Specified reason for justification of wife beating</i>	<i>Kerala K</i>	<i>Rajasthan R</i>	<i>State Difference K-R</i>
She goes out without telling him	30.8	16.9	13.9
She neglects house or children	49.4	17.8	31.6
She argues with him	30.0	18.2	11.8
She refuses to have sex with him	13.7	9.5	4.2
She doesn’t cook food properly	14.9	14.8	0.1
He suspects she is unfaithful	39.5	14.2	25.3
She shows disrespect for in-laws	46.1	24.8	21.3

*Source:* This table is prepared by the researcher based on NFHS-4, 2015–16: India, 2018, statistics on two states: K:Kerala. R:Rajasthan. SD:state difference of percentage of women experiencing domestic violence in Rajasthan from that of Kerala (K-R).

It is indeed a cause of concern that while lack of education of the women was considered to be predisposing factors for domestic violence in the past, educational attainment and economic mobility of women are proved to be important factors in

women's vulnerability to violence and conflict. This clearly exposes how the challenge to underlying patriarchal structures by improvements in women's status is likely to meet with resistance and repression.

### REFERENCES

- ACHARYA, R. ET AL. 2012. Women's Empowerment and Forced Sex within Marriage in Rural India. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 47, No. 2, pp. 65–69.
- ALAGARAJAN, MANOJ. ET AL. 2018. National Family Health Survey (NFHS-4) Kerala, 2015–16. (<http://www.rchiips.org>).
- AROKIASAMY, P. ET AL. 2008. 'National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) Kerala, 2005–06. (<http://www.rchiips.org>).
- BHASIN, K. 2000. *Understanding Gender*. Kali for Women. New Delhi.
- . 2000. *What is Patriarchy?*. Kali for Women. New Delhi.
- BHASKARAN, S. 2011. Informed by Gender? Public Policy in Kerala. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 46, No. 43. pp. 75–84.
- CARACCI, G. 2003. Violence Against Women: Mental Health and the United Nations. *International Journal of Mental Health*. Vol. 32, No. 1. pp. 36–53.
- CHANANA, K. 1988. *Socialisation, Education and Women: Expressions in Gender Identity*. Orient Longman. New Delhi.
- DEVI, L. 2008. Education, Employment and Job Preference of Women in Kerala: A Micro-level Study (ed.), *Confronting Violence against Women: Engendering Kerala's Development Experience*. Daanish Books. Delhi.
- DOBASH, AND DOBASH, R. 1980. *Violence Against Wives A Case Against the Patriarchy*. Open Books. London.
- DWIVEDI, LAXMI KANT. ET AL. 2017. 'National Family Health Survey (NFHS-4) Rajasthan, 2015–16'. (<http://wwwrchiips.org>)
- EAPEN, M. AND KODOTH, P. 2004. Family Structure, Women's Education and Work: RE-examining the 'High status' of women in Kerala (ed.), *Tracking Gender Equity under the Economic Reforms*. Kali for Women, New Delhi.
- GUPTA, K. 2008. 'National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) Rajasthan, 2005–06'. (<http://wwwrchiips.org>)
- JEJEEBHOY, S. 1998. Wife-Beating in Rural India: A Husband's Right? Evidence from Survey Data. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 33, No. 15. pp. 855–862.
- JOSE, J. 2008. Issues of Domestic Violence in Kerala: An Analysis of Cases registered with Anweshi Women's Counselling Centre, Kozhikode, in Menon (ed.). *Confronting Violence against Women: Engendering Kerala's Development Experience*. Daanish Books. Delhi.



- KELKAR, G. 1989. Violence Against Women: An Understanding of Responsibility for their Lives (ed.). *Women and violence*. Vikas Publishing House. New Delhi.
- KISHOR, S. AND K. GUPTA. 2009. 'Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in India, National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), India: 2005–06'. (<http://www.rchiips.org>)
- KODOTH, P. AND M. EAPEN. 2005. Looking beyond Gender Parity: Gender Inequities of Some Dimensions of Well-Being in Kerala. *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 40, No. 30. pp. 3278–3286.
- MENON, V. AND N. NAIR. 2008. Atrocities Against Women in Kerala Profiles and Prognoses (ed.). *Confronting Violence Against Women: Engendering Kerala's Development Experience*. Daanish Books. Delhi.
- NATIONAL FAMILY HEALTH SURVEY (NFHS-2) KEY FINDINGS, 1998–99, International Institute for Population Sciences ORC MACRO. (<http://www.rchiips.org>).
- NATIONAL FAMILY HEALTH SURVEY (NFHS-3), 2005–06: INDIA: Volume 1, 2007. (<http://www.rchiips.org>).
- PANDA, P. 2008. Domestic Violence Against Women in Kerala (ed.). *Confronting Violence against Women: Engendering Kerala's Development Experience*. Daanish Books. Delhi.
- PASWAN, B. ET AL. 2017. 'National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) Kerala, 2005–06'. (<http://www.rchiips.org>).
- ROMER, N. 1981. *The Sex-Role Cycle-Socialisation from Infancy to Old Age*. The Feminist Press.
- SIMISTER, J. AND J. MAKOWIEC. 2008. Domestic Violence in India: Effects of Education. *Indian Journal of Gender Studies*. Vol. 15, No. 3. pp. 507–518.
- STROMQUIST, N.P. 1989. Determinants of educational participation and achievement of women in the third world: A review of evidence and a theoretical critique. *Review of Educational Research*. Vol. 59, pp. 143–83.
- VISARIA, L. 1999. Violence Against Women in India: Evidence from Rural Gujrat (ed.), *Domestic Violence in India: A Summary Report of Three Studies*. ICRW. Washington DC.
- WALBY, S. 1990. *Theorising Patriarchy*. UK, Blackwell Publishers.

# Role of Women's Organisations in Women's Education in India, 1917-1947

PRIYANKA MATHEW\*

---

## Abstract

---

*It is the women's movement, which in itself is a social movement. The objective of the study is to provide a comprehensive analysis of the activities of the Women's Organisations as well its educational activities. The idea is to note the educational contribution of the Women's Organisations. The research questions include how far the Indian Women's Organisations empowered women and how did the Indian Women's Organisations support women's education and the methodology is based on historical method which is based on researching documents, contemporary newspapers in the archives, and the libraries. The core findings reveal that women's organisations are no longer elitist. But, initially, they did focus on the upper caste or upper class women. In time, these organisations became non-communal. Over a period of time, these women's organisations became more multi-class. A group of professionals namely, doctors, teachers, academics and social workers actually laid the foundation of the women's education. Even post independence, women's education was about empowering the family not so much about the individual woman. The study captures the period between 1917 to 1947, which was about actually the period, when the Women's Indian Association was set up in 1917. There was also the 1947 period which is associated with the freedom of the nation. This period is a breaking point in History where women witnessed changes in their political rights through the right to vote and also set the ball moving towards the Hindu Code Bill which changed the social and economic rights of women. In the Indian context, women's movement has been classified into three phases. The first phase was related to the movement by social reformers. The second*

---

\*Doctoral Scholar, Zakir Husain Centre for Educational Studies, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi.

*phase was carried forward by national leaders, like Gandhi. The third phase was after independence. It highlights that the women movement was not only lead by the nationalist leaders but also by the numerous women leaders like Muthulakshmi Reddi, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Kamladevi Chattopadhyay, Vijaya Lakshmi Pandit, etc. It also explores the legislatives steps and efforts for women education in the stipulated period.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

Social movements like the women's movement in India were not unheard of. The Women's Movement in India was founded on social reforms of the nineteenth century. Women's issues formed the core of the women's movement in India. Finally, it was only by the twentieth century that social movements became the norm with the organised efforts of organisations like the Women's Indian Association and the All India Women's Conference, with the rise of democracies.

The women's organisations helped in furthering women's education. But, the education of women promoted by these organisations was highly traditional. The women's organisations supported the women's education within the family. The woman was reared in these organisations to be a better wife and a better mother. Moreover, educational reform was closely tied to political, legal and social reform even in the twentieth century. This is because women had to be freed in order to study. They had to be freed from the burden of early marriage, from the fetters of oppressive domestic life, from the evils of *Devadasi* system and immoral traffic of women and children. The women's movement

was organised primarily by the Women's Indian Association and All India Women's Conference. Although its foundations were laid by the social reformers in the nineteenth century, the nineteenth century has been described as the age of women. This is because women were the subject of much debate. Issues like Sati, Child Marriage, etc., were debated on. In fact there were social reformers who worked for the cause of women. One such man was Raja Rammohan Roy (1772–1833). He laboured to abolish Sati in 1829. He also addressed the question of women's rights and women's education (Jones 2003, p. 31). Ishwarchandra Vidyasagar (1820–1891) also struggled to legalise widow remarriage in 1856. In addition, he opened forty schools for girls in villages from 1857 to 1858 (Sarkar 2007, p. 179). Pandita Ramabai (1858–1922) established rescue homes for needy women. In her book *Stri Dharma Niti*, she provided guidance for women. She also attacked brahmanical ritualism. Even in her personal life, she married a Sudra, despite being a Brahmin (Kumar 1993, p. 26). M.G. Ranade (1842–1901) was a member of *Prarthana Samaj*. He established a Girls' High School in September

in 1882. In his personal life, he educated his wife, Ramabai Ranade. He furthermore struggled to raise the age of marriage (Chaudhuri 2011, p. 73). Ramabai Ranade (1862–1924) began the Seva Sadan in 1908 in Bombay. It centred on primary education and enabled women to become independent (Srivastava 2000, p. 123). Jyotiba Phule (1827–1890) too educated his own wife. He too set up girls' schools and a school for untouchables. He had compassion on women and the lower castes (Chaudhuri 2011, p. 43). Tarabai Shinde (1850–1910) wrote *Stri Purusha Tulana* in 1882. In this work, she questioned patriarchy and the notion of *pativrata* wherein the husbands were treated like Gods. Further, she observed that women had tolerated the wayward ways of men like alcoholism and adultery. She moreover, critiqued the lack of education among women, their seclusion, *purdah* and enforced widowhood (Shinde 2007, pp. 321–323). Behramji Malabari (1853–1912) was a strong advocate of the age of consent campaign 1890–91. He got support from the British public and media for this (Goodwin 2013, p. 12). Swarnakumari Debi (1856–1932) was the woman behind *Sakhi Samiti* of 1886. It worked specifically, for widows and self-reliance among women. She was also the first woman editor of *Bharati*, the women's journal (NCERT Training Material for Teacher Educators on Gender Equality and Empowerment 2013, p. 5). Rokeya Sakhawat

Hossein (1880–1932) wrote on women's emancipation in *Sultana's Dream*. She critiqued the seclusion of Muslim women and also worked for social reform like vocational training for women.

### **WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS**

The Women's Indian Association was established in Adyar, Madras in 1917 by Annie Besant, Margaret Cousins and Dorothy Jinarajadasa. The organisation fought for women's right to vote and national freedom in India. The All Indian Women's Conference was set up in Poona, Maharashtra in 1927 by Margaret Cousins. The women's education was a central concern for this organisation. The other reforms initiated by this organisation were the Sarda Act of 1929 and the Hindu Code Bill of 1955. Moreover, the political reforms of the All India Women's Conference involved the right to enfranchise. Politics was viewed as constructive work (Chaudhuri 2011, p. 156).

### **Issues in Women's Organisation**

The Women's Indian Association report of 1917–1967 looked at education being the top concern of women's organisations. The Women's Indian Association was in addition, interested in political reform, child welfare, moral and social hygiene. It worked for the removal of brothels and encouraged prison visits. Child Marriage and the *Devadasi* system were also abolished through the Women's Indian Association. The WIA

also opposed separate electorates and reservation of seats for women from 1932 to 1933 (WIA Report 1917-1967, pp. 1-8). As these organisations considered women as the equal to men. All India Women's Conference on the other hand, was concerned with the aspects like primary education, vocational education, child marriage, age of consent, purdah and position of teachers, etc. Women's literacy was an important concern. There was an attempt to raise the age of consent to 16 years by women such as Hansa Mehta in All India Women's Conference. According to Aparna Basu and Bharati Ray 2003, by 1927, the AIWC was concerned about educational, social and legal reform (Basu and Ray 2003, p. 26). Maitrayee Chaudhuri, 2011, has examined social reform in the context of Women's Indian Association, (WIA) and All India Women's Conference, (AIWC). Both these organisations were concerned about educational, legal and political reform. In addition, the Shah Bano Case is discussed. In 1985, alimony was granted to a Muslim woman, Shah Bano by the Supreme Court, despite being divorced (Chaudhuri 2011, p. 203).

**Women's Education:** It was the central concern of women's organisations. It therefore becomes crucial to study women's education in the pre Independence period and post Independence era, which is another theme. In the nineteenth century,

traditional roles were assigned to women. According to the Report on the Status of Women on Educational Development, 1974, there were few courses open to women. Concerning literacy, it was found that most women were striving for a living and hence, were uneducated. Education was crucial for personality development and productivity in society according to *The Report on Status of Women* (Towards Equality Report 1974, p. 234). This involves giving people economic opportunities like employment. This is vital asset in our country because the programme involved feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, and offering a shelter to the homeless. In addition, it also allowed girls to live a wholistic life, which involved a life of education. Rokeya Sakhawat Hossein 2005, penned the feminist dream in the pre Independence era, in which women were at the helm of affairs. Ladyland was thus free of vices because of the rule of women. There were educational institutions in Ladyland. Women were considered more efficient because they did not waste time. There were girls' schools and separate universities for women in Ladyland. A new order where women were in-charge was the set up in Ladyland (Hossain 2005).

Karuna Chanana, 1994, has studied women's education in terms of the obstacles to it, in pre Independence era. These hurdles were no jobs for women, parental apathy and general prejudice. Apart

from this, according to Margaret Cousins, the purdah in the north and child marriage in the south were other such problems that hindered women's education (Chanana 1994, pp. 43–46). Karuna Chanana, 2002, again analysed the hindrances in women's education. These included lack of schools, absence of legal support, domestic chores, traditional mindsets, lack of financial help, purdah, etc. The sex segregation in schools were also blamed. Women's education was infested with different problems. Moreover, the women's movement was praised for releasing the funds for social, research and action. Policy on education should be founded on social reality according to Karuna Chanana.(Chanana, 2002). Gouri Srivastava, 2000, also points to the hurdles that stood in the way of women's education. These were customs like child marriage, purdah, widowhood. There were also the issues of female infanticide and Sati present in the nineteenth century. It was argued that education would lead to a neglect of household responsibilities. Hence, women were not encouraged to study. Also, the main agencies of women's education were Christian missionaries, men and women and the British government (Srivastava, 2000).

Post Independence period witnessed equality in education according to the Report on the Status of Women on Educational Development, 1974. Also, during this period, a common curriculum was suggested

as men and women were considered equals. This was particularly, true of Kerala which had a high literacy rate. By the nineteenth century, the curricula was differentiated because women were considered inferior to men. But, in the post Independence era, there was common curriculum that came up because men and women were considered equals. The report further recommended a common course upto the end of class ten (Towards Equality Report, 1974). However, Karuna Chanana, 2001, has argued that there was inequality in education and outside in it in the post Independence period. School and family bases of socialisation would lead to inequality. This would lead to economic discrimination of women in the workplace. This was also seen in universities and higher education. Men were leading these places because of traditional mindsets, discrimination, cut throat competition and absence of child care facilities. Social context therefore affected academic leadership (Chanana, 2001). According to this view, women are still being discriminated against in Education.

***Ideology and Religion:*** There were other strands in women's movement. Gabriele Dietrich, 2008, observed that religion was not related to women's movement because of the secularisation. According to this view, women were to believe in their own potential not blindly follow after religion since Women's Movement

has an inherent secular nature. She also observed that women were rarely ever theologians (Dietrich 2008, p. 508). Tanika Sarkar 2008, talked about Hindu right in the politics of women's organisations. There was an egalitarian ideology prevalent here based on Brahmanical Patriarchy. Here, women were themselves blamed for rapes because they had moved away from tradition. Also, the media had corrupted the minds (Sarkar 2008, p. 528). Sylvia Vatuk, 2008 has discussed the Islamic Feminism. There were NGO's set up in the 1980's that addressed women's suffering concerning divorce and maintenance (Vatuk 2008, p. 498). Gail Omvedt 2004, put forth that women's liberation movement was having different political interests and groupings. There was no ideological consensus. There was an ongoing debate between Marxism and feminism. The two cannot be separated. For those outside, there was a debate whether women were being oppressed or did they hold a different position. There have been debates on various issues concerning women like dowry deaths, rape, wife battering, fight for equal wages, anti-colonialism, and anti-racism. All leftists and feminists supported the need for women's organisation. There was an on-going debate whether to have toiling or democratic women? (Omvedt 2004, p. 182).

**Empowerment:** Kamala Bhasin, 2008, has studied the empowerment and education of women also in the

context of India. Empowerment, further has been described as a multi-dimensional process. Education for women's empowerment involved questioning patriarchy. It was linked to a greater level of participation of women. Furthermore, it called for freedom of women. The process was about making women visible, appreciating their abilities, providing the right environment and access to resources, etc. (Bhasin, 2008). Narayan K. Banerjee, 2008, has discussed empowerment of women in the context of the third world countries. Here, the key features were poverty, lack of visibility of women, low literacy rate, strong patriarchal community values, etc. Supriya Kumari and Priyanka Kumari 2013, have explained empowerment as being self-efficient. There was need for empowerment concerning women. As one needed to improve education given to girls, bring about equality in curriculum, and provide a conducive environment for girls and remove stereotyping and exploitation of girls (Kumari and Kumari, 2013).

Although women form half the population, history has for long ignored women. It has kept women invisible from the terrain. It has not taken into account the sacrifices and 'contributions' of women. If at all the women's role was mentioned, it was coloured, full of prejudice. Also, very few women get noticed. There was a need to show that women played an equally important role in History (Krishnaraj, 2005). Hence, the role

of women's movement was crucial in relation to Women's Organisations in this regard.

The main objective of the study is to provide a comprehensive analysis of the activities of two women's organisations, Women's Indian Association and All India Women's Conference. We will research how women's organisations contributed to women's education.

The study involved analysing the documents, contemporary news papers, in the archives and the libraries. The study was conducted at the National archives, NMML, CWDS archives and other libraries. The primary sources include the Private Papers of Kamala Devi Chattopadhyaya and S. Muthulakshmi Reddi and reports of the Women's Indian Association and All India Women's Conference and secondary sources and journals.

### **THE ESTABLISHMENT OF WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS: WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION AND ALL INDIA WOMEN'S CONFERENCE**

The setting up of the WIA and AIWC are important milestones. The WIA fought for right to vote. AIWC advocated for the Sharda Act 1930 and Hindu code Bill of 1955-56. The founder members of WIA in 1917 in Adyar were Dorothy Jinarajadasa, Annie Besant, and Margaret Cousins (Sharma 1981, p. 107) and Margaret Cousins, founded the AIWC in 1927 in Poona (NCERT Training Material for Teacher Educators on Gender Equality and Empowerment, 2013).

There were various conferences organised by the AIWC on the matter concerning women's education. These centred around separate schools and separate curriculum for girls. Primary education was made compulsory. Vocational education among girls was encouraged. Girls were motivated to take up teaching. The salaries of women teachers were upgraded. A separate educational fund was set up in 1928. The Lady Irwin College was founded in 1932. The Sarda Bill and Age of Consent Bill for restraining early marriage was taken up. Muslim girls were supported to emerge out of the Purdah. Adult education and birth control awareness were other important concerns. Children's Homes were established. The Madras Children's Act was passed with the help of Muthulakshmi Reddi (AIWC Souvenir, 1927-1970, p. 44). There were several important members of the AIWC like Margaret Cousins and Muthulakshmi Reddi.

### **Women Members of AIWC**

Margaret Cousins was the founder member of WIA and the AIWC. She inspired women and introduced Child Welfare in Madras. A.L. Huidekoper was one of the initial members of AIWC. She wanted lessons on citizenship, aesthetics and domestic science for educating girls. She was committed towards women's education. She set up the Indore Girls' High School (AIWC Souvenir 1927-1970, p. 45). Sarojini Naidu (1879-1949) served as the President for



both INC and AIWC. She participated in the political movement and the Women's Movement. She advocated for girls' education. She observed where men were not free, 'women were doubly enslaved' (Education of Women in Modern India 1946, pp. i-ii). Charulata Mukherjee worked for the prevention of immoral traffic of women and children in 1930, particularly in Bengal. She also set up a girl's school. She was the President of the Calcutta unit of AIWC until her death (AIWC Souvenir 1927-1970, p. 57). S. Muthulakshmi Reddi (1886-1968) was the leader and president of WIA and AIWC. She was first lady legislator in 1926. Prior to that in 1912, she became the first woman medical graduate according to the AIWC, Souvenir. She abolished the *Devadasi* system and suppressed the immoral traffic in women and children in 1930. S. Muthulakshmi Reddi addressed the sisters to get rid of lethargy in the interest of the suffering women and children and in the interests of the nation. It was blessed to give than to receive. She advised the educated sisters to look after the needy by using their 'knowledge and wealth.' She further argued that one should just not look after one's interests only but also the interests of others. One should keep the home environment clean and influence the poor to have healthy housing so that diseases like tuberculosis could be kept away. Apart from this, one should strive for better moral hygiene. She furthermore

discussed the importance of reforms and said if we keep quiet about reforms like better sanitation, better health laws, temperance reforms better education, factory legislation and legislation to suppress the immoral traffic in women and children, then how can we protect the women in various professions and bring about equality, for instance' equal wage' (Reddi Private Papers, p. 1129).

S. Muthulakshmi Reddi put forth that the main duty of a woman was service. As a member of the family and society, she had duties. But, most women were satisfied serving the family, few served the society and country. Take the instance of the Indian case. Firstly, a large numbers of widows and secondly, deserted women tried to get admission in women's institutions. One reason to be happy was the Hindu Code Bill which was changed by the legislature of Independent India to provide help to humanity and to free them from societal and legal problems. There was a third category of people, unmarried girls who were deprived of education and the right to marry because their parents could not pay for them. But, there were others who believed that marriage was the sole purpose of a woman's life and therefore, the woman was to get married and stay at home. This kind of advice was apt for those with a joyous home with a caring husband, stable income and wealthy parents. Most widows did not have a home or property, so much so that they were not invited

into homes by close relations. Nor was shelter given to them nor basic amenities. The widows needed to depend on the world outside. Those who were young and educated could be trained in women's institutions as professionals. But, the elderly widows were burdened with children. They had to be employed for menial jobs for a meagre amount. The menial help worked as a cook or family help. It was difficult to employ labour with children. This was where the women's institutions had given them aid. A number of widows worked as cooks or family helps in families. Reddi pointed out that it was the women who could help the needy. Women were considered powerful. They gave life to the child and educated it. They were more responsible for the growth of the child. So, the women must be knowledgeable and enlightened to be a good nurturer. The family too should be responsible for healthy housing, clean water, nutrition and hygiene (Reddi Private Papers, p. 1187). Reddi wanted a few educated women to pioneer the cause of the long-suffering women, Reddi cited from the works of the learned scholars to justify her position. Women were supposed to be problem solvers according to Vivekananda. Gandhi also supported equality of women. Bhartiya went ahead and advocated for the new age under women. It may be argued that Muthulakshmi Reddi felt that women had inherent virtue. Reddi was inspired by Sarojini Naidu. She quoted the work of Naidu to demonstrate that every woman

was the maker of the nation (Reddi Private Papers, p. 1193).

Reddi said that Sarojini Naidu wanted specialisation in productive work for nation development. Naidu pleaded the producers to take pride in their work and not a false sense of humility. Further, Naidu inspired workers to be bold and united in a spirit of love and service. In conclusion, humanity was symbolised by the Hindu Goddesses in order for women to be strong and virtuous (Reddi Private Papers, p. 1193). Muthulakshmi Reddi, a family woman, social worker and a renowned doctor; greatly inspired Kamala Devi Chattopadhyaya, who was a freedom fighter and a member of the Indian National Congress. Though Kamaladevi was younger than Reddi, Kamaladevi learnt valuable lessons from Reddi for the women's cause. Reddi became the spokesperson for the country rather than only women. At the second conference, the British agreed for three women representatives. Muthulakshmi Reddi had been chosen along with Begum Hamid Ali and Rajkumari Amrit Kaur. These women asked for voting rights. They also supported the idea of joint electorates and did not want any reservation for women. This was supported by the British press. Muthulakshmi Reddi had come to talk of what they wanted, rather than hear from the Committee nor from the British people. Reddi said that women needed equal rights to carry out their normal duties. Reddi had a brief and fruitful time as a legislator. She established

the Children's hospital, supervised medical needs in schools, apart from overseeing the health of women in addition to child welfare units. She also introduced home science courses. Further, abolished the *Devadasi* system and brought about the suppression of traffic in women and children by the act on Brothels. She was also admired for being the 'Deputy Chairman of Legislative Council' cum 'the First legislator'. She created a good impression of Indian women. At the first Conference, she spoke about citizenship. She moreover, educated foreigners about India and removed the misconceptions. She worked on the Avvai home, the first Cancer Institute and was a humanist (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers, 1986, p. 4).

Rameshwari Nehru (1886–1966) was the founder and President of the Delhi unit of AIWC in 1926. She worked for removal of child marriage, caste issues and spread of education. She worked for the Swadeshi Movement, Freedom Movement and was jailed in 1942. She got the Padma Bhushan in 1955 for her services (AIWC Souvenir, 1927–1970, p. 53). Raj Kumari Amrit Kaur (1889–1964) argued for primary, universal and free and compulsory education. She also advocated for adult and mass education. She wanted co-education but supported for Domestic Science for girls. She wanted the educated women to help the marginalised women. (Kaur 1946, p. 90). Sushama Sen (1889–?) was engaged in the women's movement in Bihar in 1916. She was a keen writer, connected with

the Lady Irwin College (AIWC Souvenir 1927–1970, p. 62). Hannah Sen (1894–1957) was an active member of AIWC. She set up the Education Fund (AIWC Souvenir, 1927–1970, p. 56). Hansa Mehta (1897–1995), participated in the first AIWC in Poona in 1927. She condemned child marriages for they interfered with education (Ramji 1977, p. 96). Vijay Lakshmi Pandit (1900–1990) participated in the Civil Disobedience Movement. She was politically and socially active (AIWC Souvenir 1927–1970, p. 66).

Kamaladevi Chattopadhyaya (1903–1988) was the founder member of AIWC in 1927 and its President in 1934 (AIWC Souvenir, 1927–1970, p. 67). She joined active politics in 1922. She became a part of Congress in 1922. She also contested elections for the 'legislative assembly' in Madras in 1926. She was a part of the Civil Disobedience of 1930. She actively participated in meetings, prepared salt and picketed 'foreign cloth and liquor shops.' She broke the salt law in Bombay. In addition, she was planning to raid the salt fields'. However, she was arrested. During her trial, she asked the magistrate to leave his workplace and participate in the 'satyagraha.' This incident led to her subsequent imprisonment and fine (Kumar 2016, p. 57). She wrote on the Women's Movement in India. She defined it as based on gender with an economic base arranged around society. She commented on the Child Marriage Bill. It proposed to raise the age of marriage for girls to 14 years and for boys 18 years. But, the bill

lacked 'public' and 'state support'. The lower strata of women were victims of prostitution. In Russia, this above evil of prostitution was tackled by successfully employing all workers including potential prostitutes (Chattopadhyaya 1939, p. 2, 5). She was one of the founders of the A.I.W.C. She became its President in 1934. She travelled in India, braving prejudice against women.

Kamaladevi Chattopadhyaya wrote an article on education called 'Education: new patterns and vistas' (Chattopadhyaya, 1978). It said that there was discontentment with education. This encouraged experiments by social thinkers in formal and non-formal education. One such entity was Ivan Illich. He was a crusader against 'committed education.' He positively worked on 'adult non-formal education.' Adult education should be 'analytical and dialectic'. This would ensure freedom. Ivan Illich's 'motto' was non-preaching of 'ideas and ideologies'. Kamaladevi analysed an institute in Mexico in Curnavaca. Here, the study was through arts and crafts and 'fieldtrips.' The emphasis here was on 'mastery' of speaking skills based on 'Spanish experience'. The centre was thus a 'community' of education. It consisted of 'classrooms, library, craft-studios and two gardens.' Reading was less important than 'hearing and speaking'. In addition, students were exposed to a wide variety of experiences. As far as India was concerned, the problem in the

context of education was 'securing' employment opportunities. What was therefore needed was 'creativity and innovation.' In reality, the true goal of education has to be understood as 'personality development.' The present system of education has been pushing the young in losing interest in one's cultural heritage. We have become modernised at the cost of our cultural heritage (Chattopadhyaya, 1978, p. 1).

Kamaladevi Chattopadhyaya also wrote on women's status. She argued that there were two factors that stop the progress of women. Psychological factor that created a continual sense of 'subordination.' The other factor was a lack of women's movement. The professional women got divorced from the 'non-professional' housewives. They started pursuing 'sectional interests' and as a result the larger 'humanity' of women got left out. She also recognised that there was a huge rural and urban divide. Moreover, the leadership had failed as the women had 'stagnated and retreated.' She also identified problems of women like problem of wages (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers, 1923-1988, p. 1). Women according to her were becoming less and less important. She compared the present generation of women with the past generation of women and found the present generation of women complacent. These women of the present lacked a spirit of service, despite pursuing professional careers. She appreciated the work of people like Ramabai Ranade of Maharashtra among others (Chattopadhyaya Private

Papers 1923–1988, p. 2). Kamaladevi Chattopadhyaya also spoke for those who were deprived of fundamental rights (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers 1923–1988, p. 3). Further, she admired the work of Gandhi in helping women in various fields (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers, 1963, p. 53). She also observed that the British period witnessed the low position given to women. But, deliverance came through Gandhi (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers, 1923–1988, p. 2). She also talked about family planning. She believed people should be advised to have small families. In addition, she advocated for contraceptions rather than sterilisations (Chattopadhyaya Private Papers, 1963, p. 3). Renuka Ray (1904–1997) was attached to the Indian Women's Movement and wrote on Hindu Code Bill. The latter brought about gender equality according to her.

## REFORM BY WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS

### ***Devadasi* Reform and Ending of the Immoral Traffic in Women and Children**

Muthulakshmi Reddi was closely linked to the abolition of the *Devadasi* System. She was a member of the WIA and AIWC. In 1926–1927, the Hindu Religious Endowment Act was brought about by Reddi. This act wanted to do away with the services. It wished to protect the minor girls of the community. But, the bill was opposed on the grounds that the *Devadasi* system was part of the national culture as discussed by

Satyamurthy. Moreover, it was not equated with prostitution. But, the reformers believed in marriage replacing temple dedication. Varalakshamma considered them an oppressed class in need of favourable jobs.

Let us examine the Debate concerning the *Devadasi* Reform. The Liberal Rationalist discourse saw the *Devadasi* as a blot on the modernising nation. The Abolitionist perspective gave the practice a filthy hue. The Dalit view talked about denial of respectability to labour. The Rural Development discourse highlighted the poverty and abuse related to the practice (Tambe, 2016, p. 169). S. Muthulakshmi Reddi had argued that initially the *Devadasi* system was moral. But, it became corrupt. Hence, she wanted to redeem the lives of these girls from immorality.

She furthermore, compared Sati with the *Devadasi* system and found the *Devadasi* system worse because it inflicted physical and moral torture. Lala Lajpat Rai, Carmichael and Sarojini Naidu critiqued it. In addition, Reddi put forth that the above practice of *Devadasi* system led to venereal diseases. The *Devadasi* System according to Muthulakshmi Reddi was not intentionally immoral. But, she wanted to abolish the system for the sake of social purity, moral hygiene, public health and good virtue. The *Devadasi* Bill was a child saving measure. But, the problems were created by vested interests (Reddi Private Papers, p. 55).

The *Devadasi* was married to the Hindu God in a ceremony. She received an income for her ritual and artistic services. She maintained sexual relations with the elite male patrons.

As the *Devadasi* system became equated with prostitution in the colonial times. It was observed that in India, children fell prey to prostitution compared to the West, where adults took to prostitution. There were rescue homes for the *Devadasis*. But, Daves Soneji has pointed that the outlawing of the system led to the impoverishment of the *Devadasi* system. Some *Devadasi* even became beggars (Soneji, 2004, p. 43).

In 1930, Reddi brought about the end of the *Devadasi* System. In 1906–07, the government had tried to end the Immoral traffic of women and children. A bill by 1926 examined the conditions of brothels in Madras city. Reddi too helped in passing the Brothel Act in 1930 that shut brothels, punished the keepers and saved minor girls from prostitution. The bill was passed on 31 January, 1930. But, there was need for rescue workers (Reddi Private Papers, p. 1041).

Women's Education-Reddi admitted that it was backward. She wanted to encourage girl's education through incentives given to women teachers, vocational training, scholarships to women, hostels, etc. But, there was a demand for education for girls. The right type of education would bring about national progress according to her (Reddi 1929, p. 101).

## Legal Reform

The women's organisations supported a petition for prevention of child marriage, in the wake of Phulamani's death. An 11 year old who was raped and died during intercourse (1889). It was argued that early marriage led to poor female health, unhealthy children and lack of education. M.G. Ranade pointed out that early marriage degraded the race, led to poverty and early widowhood. Raj Kumari Amrit Kaur also stated that no girl should be married before 22 years. A committee was formed which passed the Age of Consent Bill (1891). It forbade cohabitation before 12 years of age for the wife. Next, the Sarda Act 1929 further raised the age of marriage (Kalaivani, 2015, p. 15). The AIWC session in Poona demanded the age of consent to be raised to 16 years (Basu and Ray, 2003 p. 56). Even previously the AIWC worked for the removal of child marriage.

So the age of marriage for girls was 14 years and for boys 18 years. The law fined a sum of Rs.1000 and adults would be jailed if the girl was below 14 years. The rationale was to hinder child widowhood. Sarda Act discouraged child marriages according to S.N. Agarwala (Agarwala, 1957, p. 101).

S.M. Reddi who called the Act a failure as the prosecution could be done after child marriage. Also, Kalaivani has put forth its implementation remained a problem. Moreover, the act was unknown in villages. The Bhala newspaper reported that the government was meddling with the

people's religion (Hatekar, Mathur and Rege, 2007, p. 145). However, the Muslims of India wanted exemption from the act. But, AIWC wanted all the communities to obey the act.

Before the Hindu Code Bill the Hindu widow had no share in the husband's property. Women were reduced to slaves. Also, polygamy caused population explosion. The Hindu Code Bill gave equality to women according to S.M. Reddi. It allowed women to divorce and polygamy was penalised. It gave women the absolute right to inheritance of property. H.N. Sharda argued that until daughters could inherit property Hindus would remain a subject people. Gail Omvedt said that for Ambedkar the bill marked the freedom for women. But for AIWC it meant a political move (Pardeshi 1998, p. 41). Roshni the journal of AIWC called for Hindu Code Bill's equal rights in inheritance and marriage. It was argued by women's organisations that 'gender equality in Hindu law' was crucial to national progress (Chaudhuri 2011, p. 191).

The bill was hotly debated in 1943-44, 1949 and 1951 on grounds of divorce. Nehru supported divorce on the grounds that he did not believe in unhappy marriages. It was the victory of symbol over substance according to Reba Som, as the condition of women remained poor. Renuka Ray argued that the opposers of the Bill were against the Spirit of the Constitution based on Equality. She argued that the Hindu Code Bill was a symbol of progress. Maitrayee Chaudhuri has

called it a step towards secularism and women.

### **POLITICAL REFORM**

In 1917, a deputation was sent to the Viceroy and Secretary of State for voting rights of women. The local branches of WIA organised meetings and sent suggestions to London. But the pleadings fell on deaf ears (Basu and Ray 2003, p. 70). Southborough Franchise Committee 1918-1919, said No to extension to voting rights to women because India was too conservative, seeped with purdah and lack of education. In 1919, the demand was once again made with a delegation of Sarojini Naidu and Annie Besant and others. Madras gave voting rights in 1920. Bombay did so in 1921. Meanwhile, the government chose Muthulakshmi Reddi to the legislative council in 1927 in Madras, this was supported by everyone (Basu and Ray 2003, p. 70).

When Simon Commission 1928, came, enfranchisement was granted on the basis of property and literacy. The AIWC in 1931 asked for votes for women. This included universal adult franchise, no reservation etc. Lothian Committee 1932 denied Universal Adult Franchise because of the size of the country, population and illiteracy. In 1932, there was the reservation of seats for the Muslims and Dalits. These women's organisations asked for Universal Adult Franchise, protesting against separate electorates and reservation of seats for women. In 1933, the Joint

Parliamentary Committee ruled out universal adult franchise.

But, the JPC increased the right to vote among women. This privilege was available to wives, literate women and wives of initiatory officers. In 1947 Universal Adult Franchise was given. The AIWC tried to enrol all women voters. But their political participation had been a concern (Basu and Ray, 2003, p. 73).

But, women were part of social welfare and revolutionary politics. They endured police repression, imprisonment and capital punishment. Furthermore they argued that women shifted from supportive role to direct confrontational role. These women were from urban educated families (Thanikodi and Sugirtha, 2007, p. 600).

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

### Findings and Summary

The women's movement in India can be categorised into four phases. Phase one was pioneered by social reformers. Phase two was led by the national leaders of India, namely Gandhi. Phase three was spearheaded after independence. This phase witnessed the 'politicisation' of the women's movement because women got the right to vote. Phase four started in mid-1970 (Saxena, 1994, p.395). Our study focusses on the period from 1917 to 1947, which roughly, covers the first two phases and touches upon phase three of the women's movement in India. During the early phase of the movement,

the Indian social reformers improved the condition of women and helped in educational reform. During this phase Sati was abolished in 1829, and widow remarriage was legalised in 1856, which encouraged education of women. The main reformers were Raja Rammohan Roy, Ishwarchandra Vidyasagar and Pandita Ramabai among others. The next important development was the setting up of women's organisations namely, the Women's Indian Association in Madras in 1917 and the All India Women's Conference in Pune in 1927. These organisations worked for ending the *Devadasi* vice and immoral traffic of women and children. One woman who worked in this direction was Muthulakshmi Reddi. She was part of WIA and AIWC. Politically, there were also demands made by these organisations, which culminated into the Universal Adult Franchise. Legally too, the demands were for the Hindu Code Bill, 1955–56 and Sarda Act, 1929 which tried to improve the lot of women. The Hindu Code Bill which was initiated in the 1940s, granted women the right to divorce and the right to inheritance of property, apart from abolishing polygamy. The Sarda Act 1929 discouraged child marriage. Therefore, the Indian women's movement was successful to the extent it questioned inequalities of caste, class and gender. It was non-communal. But definitely, had an upper class or caste bias and was urbanised. It has often been accused



of being un-Indian and westernised. As far as education in the nineteenth century is concerned, it aimed at making better wives and mothers. Even in the post Independence period, education was directed towards enhancing the status of the woman within the family (Tapan, 2000, p. 125).

The Indian Women's Movement had two main strategies, first conscious raising and second engaging with law. The first strategy involved 'a group of women for women, by women and of women.' The second strategy held the state responsible for the Indian Women's Movement. For instance, the state legislation on Sati (Chari 2009, p. 56). It has also been observed that the nineteenth century dealt with the question of women. Education at this time lacked a gendered perspective. Education for the woman was about being a better wife and a mother (Chari, 2009, p. 50).

Vina Mazumdar has commented on pre Independence research being full of women's problems. This was apparently done to justify social reform and to create a sense of pride in one's culture. So, sadly much of the research was centred around upper class women (Mazumdar, 1994, p. 42). Although, today the women's movement is 'no longer from the top percolating downward' (Mazumdar, 1994, p. 53). The women's organisations called for free, universal and compulsory education from the start (Kaur, 1946, p. 62).

## **RELEVANCE OF WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS TODAY**

With the work of the social reformers, the notion of the new woman emerged. This was echoed in the formation of women's organisations in India. In the pre Independence period, these organisations gave a voice to women by bringing the Sarda Act in the late 1920's that raised the marriageable age of women. Finally, these organisations also ended the *Devadasi* System and ushered in the Brothel Act in the 1930s. These organisations helped not only in the pre Independence period, but also in the post Independence period. In the post Independence period, these women's organisations enabled women to get voting rights for themselves, by 1947. The Hindu Code Bill of the 1950s was also supported by these organisations for allowing women to divorce, questioning polygamy in society and by permitting inheritance of property for women. These organisations continue to exist for the welfare of women. These organisations help women's education, apart from rescuing women from violence and deplorable conditions like rapes and dowries. They provide relief to women through vocational work and hostels and short stay facilities. They bring about a change in the country by empowering women. As when a woman is well-educated the entire family is in progress, this affects the fortunes of the nations as well. So, education remains the primary work of these organisations.

### REFERENCES

- AIWC 1927–1970. *Souvenir*, New Delhi.
- AGARWALA, S.N. 1957. The Age at Marriage in India, *Population Index*. Vol. 23, No. 2. April, Office of Population Research. pp. 96–107.
- BANERJEE, N.K. 2008. 'The Enabling Process of Empowerment.' in *Women's Studies in India, A Reader* By Mary. E. John, New Delhi: Penguin Books. pp. 75
- BASU, A. The Pathfinder(nd.) AIWC Publication
- BASU, A. AND B. RAY. 2003. *Women's Struggle*. Manohar, New Delhi.
- BHASIN, K. 2008. 'Challenges For Women's Empowerment and Education in South Asia,' In *Gender Concerns in South Asia* By Manjeet Bhatia, Deepali Bhanot and Nirmalya Samanta, Rawat Publications: Jaipur and New Delhi.
- CHANANA, K. 2001. *Interrogating Women's Education*. Jaipur and New Delhi: Rawat Publications, Jaipur and New Delhi.
- . 1994. 'Social Change or Social Reform: Women, Education and Family in Pre-Independence India.' In *Women, Education and Family Structure in India*, by Mukhopadhyay and Seymour. 37–55. Boulder, Westview Press: San Francisco and Oxford.
- . 2002. 'View From The Margins.' *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 37, No. 36, pp. 3717–3721.
- CHARI, A. 2009. 'Gendered Citizenship and Women's Movement', *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 44, No. 17. April 25-May 1, pp. 47–57.
- CHATTOPADHYAYA, K. AND OTHERS. 1939. *The Awakening of Indian Women*. Everymans Press: Madras.
- CHATTOPADHYAYA, K. PAPERS. 1923–1988. 'Education: new patterns and vistas' an article, List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, No. 50. *Indian Express*. 9 the May 1978, Published Papers.
- . 1923–1988. Kamaladevi Chattopadhyaya on Women and Family Planning', List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, S. No. 117.
- . 1963. 'President's address at the All India Women's Convention', List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, No. 26.
- . 1923–1988. 'Status of Women in Society Falling' Newspaper Article, List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, S. No.98.
- . 1923–88. 'The Real Issues Facing Women' an Article. List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, No. 98.
- . 1923–1988. 'What Ails The Indian Women', an Article. List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, No. 132.
- . 1923–1988. 'Women's Status: Bonds and Barriers'- an Article, List 238, II Speeches/Writings by her, S. No. 98.
- CHAUDHURI, M. 2011. *The Indian Women's Movement*. Palm Leaf Publications, New Delhi.
- DIETRICH, G. 2008. 'Women's Movement and Religion', In *Women's Studies in India. A Reader* By Mary. E. John, Penguin Books: New Delhi.
- EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN MODERN INDIA.1946. Aundh Publishing Trust, Bombay.

- GOODWIN, G. 2013. 'A trustworthy interpreter between ruler and ruled' in *Social History* Vol. 38, No. 1, February, Taylor And Francis, London. pp.1-25.
- HOSSAIN, R.S. 2005. *Sultana's Dream*, Tara Publishing, Chennai.
- JONES, K.W. 2003. *The New Cambridge History of India, Socio Religious Reform Movements in British India III*. Cambridge University Press, New Delhi.
- KAUR, A. 1946. *Challenge to Woman*. New Literature, Allahabad.
- KRISHNARAJ, M. 2005. 'Writing Women's History or Writing Women Into History.' In *History and Gender*, By Kirit K. Shah. 35-56, Rawat Publications, Jaipur and New Delhi.
- KUMAR, R. 1993. *History of Doing*. Kali For Women: New Delhi.
- KUMAR, S. 2016. *Women in The National Movement*, Regal Publications, New Delhi.
- KUMARI, P. AND S. 2013. 'Empowerment of Women through Education in India.' In *Women Empowerment*. By Shashi Kala Singh, Institute for Social Development and Research, Ranchi, Jharkhand
- MAZUMDAR, V. 1994. 'Women's Studies and the Women's Movement In India: an Overview', *Women's Studies Quarterly*. Vol. 22, No. ¾. Women's Studies: A World View. The Feminist Press, City, Fall-Winter, University of New York. pp. 42-54.
- NCERT. *Training Material for Teacher Educators on Gender Equality and Empowerment*. 2013. Volume 3. Department of Women's Studies. New Delhi
- OMVEDT, G. 2004. 'Women's Movement' In *Feminism in India*. By Maitrayee Chaudhuri: Kali for Women and Women Unlimited, New Delhi.
- PARDESHI, P. 1998. *Dr Babasaheb Ambedkar and The Question of Women's Liberation in India*. Kratiyoti Savitribai Phule, Women's Studies Centre, University of Pune.
- RAMJI, K. 1977. *AIWC, Golden Jubilee and Margaret Cousins Centenary Commemoration*. Vol. , pp. 96
- REDDI, S.M. 'Traffic in Women' and Children. Vol. ii, Part iii, S.No. 155-191. Individual List 99, Private Papers.
- . 'UNTITLED' Vol. II. Part III, S. No. 155-191. Individual list 99, Private Papers. 99.
- . 'WHAT IS NEEDED NOW', Speeches or Writings by Her III, Part II, Vol. II, Individual list99.
- . 1929. 'Women And Education' Justice, S.No. 12, Individual list 99, 5th January.
- REDDI, S.M. PAPERS, 'WOMEN'S ROLE IN SOCIETY.' Vol. II Part III S. No. 155-191, Individual List 99, Private Papers.
- SARKAR, SUMIT AND TANIKA. 2007. *Women And Social Reform in Modern India*. Vol. I and II. Permanent Black: New Delhi.
- SARKAR, T. 2008. 'Pragmatics Of the Hindu Right:Politics of Women's Organizations' in *Women's Studies In india* by Mary E. John, Penguin Books, New Delhi.
- SAXENA, K.1994. Empowerment of Women: The Indian Context, *The Indian Journal of Political Science*. Vol. 55, No. 4. October-December. pp. 391-400.
- SHARMA, R.K.1981. *Nationalism, Social Reform and Indian Women*. Janaki Prakashan, New Delhi, Patna.

- SHINDE, TARABAI. 2007. 'Stri purusha tulana' in *Women and Social Reform In Modern India* Vol. II by Sumit and Tanika Sarkar. 313–333. Permanent Black, New Delhi.
- SONEJI, D. 2004. Living History, Performing Memory: Devadasi Women in Telugu – Speaking South India. *Dance Research Journal*. Vol. 36, No. 2. pp. 30–49. Cambridge University Press, Winter.
- SRIVASTAVA, G. 2000. *Women's Higher Education in the 19th Century*. Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.
- TAMBE, A. 2016. 'Devadasi and or Prostitute?' in *Thinking Gender, Doing Gender* by Uma Chakravarti, Orient Blackswan, New Delhi.
- TAPAN, N. 2000. *Need for Women Empowerment*. Rawat Publications, Jaipur and New Delhi.
- THANIKODI, A AND M SUGIRTHA. 2007. Status of Women In Politics in *The Indian Journal of Political Science*. July-September. Vol. 68, No. 3. pp. 589–606.
- TOWARDS EQUALITY REPORT, *India, Status of Women*. 1974, Delhi.
- VATUK, S. 2008. Islamic Feminism in India: Indian Muslim Women Activists and Reform of Muslim Personal law. *Modern Asian Studies*, 42, 2/3, pp. 489–518. Cambridge University Press, Illinois.

# Art Education in the Secondary Schools of Southern India

## A Study

ANUPAMA C.S.\* AND KIRAN BABU N.C.\*\*

---

### Abstract

---

*The present paper has attempted to provide a review of issues concerning the art education in the Secondary Schools of Southern India. The data were collected from Head teachers and Art education teachers of selected state run government schools and KVs from South Indian states. It has presented concerns and the essence of methods of art education and raised issues about the trends, assessment and intervention approaches towards art education. The study reveals that most of the state run schools the art education as a school subject is in a neglected stage while in KVs due importance could be seen. The teacher recruitment in government school has been another important issue revealed through the study. Study also highlights that most of the art teachers uses strategies like drawing and sketching and demonstration in their classroom transaction.*

---

### INTRODUCTION

The National Policy on Education (1986) emphasised the necessity of fostering an understanding of the diverse cultural and social system of the people living in various parts of our country as an important objective of education. The National

Curriculum Framework-2005 stress the importance of art education by redefining its aims and objectives in the school curriculum. "Art education programme should concentrate on exposing the learner to folk arts, local specific art and other cultural components, leading to awareness and

---

\*Arts and Crafts teacher, (WET) DMS RIE, Mysuru.

\*\*Junior Project Fellow, RIE, Mysuru.

appreciation of our national heritage. Activities and programmes and themes should also be chosen and designed so as to promote values related to other core components like India's common cultural heritage, history of the freedom movement and protection of environment" (NCF, 2005).

The teaching-learning process in subjects coming under art education viz., visual arts, dance, drama, or music in the secondary classes are conducted with the following objectives: to provide joyful experience to the learner; to refine the aesthetic sensibilities based on earlier experiences; to make the learner understand the cultural diversity of the country through folk art forms, local art forms and other cultural components which in turn will create an awareness and appreciation about our national heritage and to develop a perspective on artistic and creative expression through experimentation with different tools, techniques and medium in two and three dimensional visual art forms. In this era of science and technology, students and parents are giving more importance to subjects like Science and Information Technology and less importance to Language and Art Education. Language and art play a significant role in the development of a child. Literature, music and dance help to reduce tension and relax our mind. Music therapy is a way to cure diseases. Further, Ubanks (2012) argued that by poising the study of art alongside mainstream academics, art teachers can partner with teachers in

other areas to explore subject matter that is already part of the curriculum, and even beyond it. Nick and Hedberg (2011) pointed out that participation in various art forms requires capacities for understanding and appreciating the modes of expression, symbol systems, aesthetics, and the cultural context in which the arts are embedded.

An art in education is an expanding field of educational research and practice informed by investigations into learning through arts experiences. In this context, the various art forms can be included as Performing arts such as dance, drama, music, literature, poetry and storytelling, Visual arts such as film, craft, design, digital arts, media and photography. The association of people with these art forms definitely makes them better human beings as the very nature of music, dance and drama elevates human soul and creates a pleasant atmosphere.

The knowledge and practice of these art forms help in the development of one's personality. The people involved in these art forms can attain balance and peace of mind, self-restraint and love for all. Their performance makes them self-confident and capable of adapting to all circumstances. Negative feelings vanish as the soul of music, dance and drama teaches us all about loving and caring. Understanding of various art forms itself is understanding of our culture. Hence, it is in this context, the researchers thought to analyse whether learning in art education in

the secondary schools takes place as visualised by the National Curriculum Frameworks.

The present study is expected to give useful insights on the teaching learning process in the art education classrooms, the status of art education in the secondary schools of Southern India, the extend of material support received by art education teachers to impart art education, the perception of the teachers and schools about art education and the problems in achieving the objectives of art education.

## **METHODS**

### **Research questions**

The study has focused on answering the following research questions—

1. To what extent, the secondary schools of southern India are able to fulfill the objectives of art education in terms of infrastructure?
2. How the art education classes are conducted by teachers in the secondary schools of southern India?
3. What support do the art teachers in the secondary schools of southern India get from the head teachers in conducting art education classes?

### **Objectives**

The following are the objectives of the present study—

1. To study the availability of infrastructure to fulfill the objectives of art education in secondary schools of southern India.

2. To study the art education classes conducted by teachers in the secondary schools of southern India.
3. To study the nature and type of support art a teachers get from their head teachers in conducting art education classes in secondary schools of southern India.

### **DESIGN OF THE STUDY**

The present study has used descriptive survey which aims to assess the extent of prevalence of art education in secondary schools of southern India. The researchers had adopted triangulation approach for the study. The data have been collected from diverse sources by a team of researchers with the help of observation of Art education classrooms, and collection of responses through questionnaire, personal interviews, focus group interviews and perception scales.

### **SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE**

The study has been conducted in 20 Government schools and Kendriya Vidyalayas (KVs) located in different localities of Southern India where students from various socio-economic statuses study. Five schools each have been selected from Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh selected purposively. All the school functionaries including the Head teacher, Art education teachers and students were contacted for collecting the data required for the study.

### **Tools and Techniques used**

The following tools were developed to collect the data.

- A questionnaire on Art education for secondary school teachers
- Art education: Classroom observation schedule to observe the art education classes.
- Interview schedules for Head teachers and teachers

The tools were validated by different experts in the art education field using five-point rating scale.

### **DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE**

The relevant data was collected from secondary schools of Government schools and Kendriya Vidyalayas following the protocol, from different schools selected randomly from Southern India. The investigators after getting consent from the commissioners of both Government schools and KVs, emails were sent to the respective Principals of both the schools for fixing the appointment schedules for the date of visit. The researchers had also planned time, distance and budget carefully and mapped out the districts before heading to the field. The research team had visited various schools for 8 to 10 days continuously. During this period, the researchers had interacted with various school functionaries in the school, observe art education classes, and took field notes. The investigators met the respective head teachers and teachers before starting the actual study, later with their permission the students were asked to sit in the classroom while art teacher conducting the class, the

researchers recorded the classroom observation using the checklist. In the next process, the researchers gave the teachers checklists to the respective art teachers to complete the art teacher's questionnaire.

In the last phase of the data collection, the investigators had prepared the interview schedule which was validated by the experts. The interview was held with Head teachers and art teachers. Later, the researchers had carefully recorded their statements using the audio voice recorder and the relevant data have been collected for the study.

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The data collected through the different sources were analysed using mean, standard deviation and percentage. The detailed analysis and findings are presented below.

### **AVAILABILITY OF INFRASTRUCTURE**

Objective 1: To study the availability of infrastructure to fulfill the objectives of art education in secondary schools of southern India.

In order to answer the above objective, the researchers used Observation (checklists), to find the extent of secondary schools of southern India are able to fulfill the objectives of art education in classrooms and infrastructure of government and KV students in Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. The following results are presented below:



**Table 1**  
**Mean, SD scores of Classroom infrastructure present and absent in Southern India**

Infrastructure-present	Andra Pradesh		Kerala		Tamil Nadu		Karnataka		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
	1.19	1.00	1.33	.83	1.22	.97	1.25	.98	5.00	3.33
Infrastructure-absent	.81	1.00	.66	.83	.77	.97	.74	.98	3.00	3.66

An analysis of the above table indicates that the Infrastructure-present in Andra Pradesh mean scores of 1.19 and SD 1.00, in Kerala mean scores was 1.33, SD .83, in Tamil Nadu mean scores were 1.22 and SD .97, in Karnataka the mean scores were 1.25 and SD .98. Finally, the total mean of 5.00 and SD 3.33 was found in Kendriya Vidyalays and government schools in Southern India. While that the Infrastructure-absent in Andra Pradesh mean scores of .81 and SD 1.00, in Kerala mean scores were .66, SD .83, in Tamil Nadu mean scores were .77 and SD .97, in Karnataka the mean scores were .74 and SD .98. Finally,

the total mean of 3.00 and SD 3.66, in Infrastructure-absent.

**ART EDUCATION CLASSROOM PRACTICES**

Objective 2: To study the art education classes conducted by teachers in the secondary schools of southern India.

The researcher conducted interview with the teachers of Kendriya Vidyalayas and government schools on different concerns how are the art education classes conducted by art teachers in the secondary schools of southern India. They include readings in Table 2.

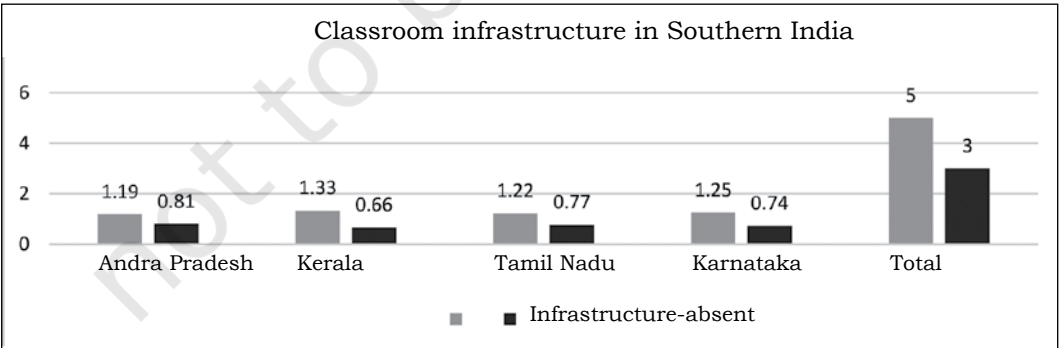


Figure 1: Mean scores of Classroom infrastructure present and absent in Southern India

**Table 2**  
**Art classes conducted by Art Teachers**

Schools	Demonstration	Drawing And Sketching	Painting	Art Assignments	Mask Making	Collage Work	Calligraphy
Kv's	16 %	17%	17%	17%	11%	17%	5%
Govt Schools	36%	46%	18%	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil

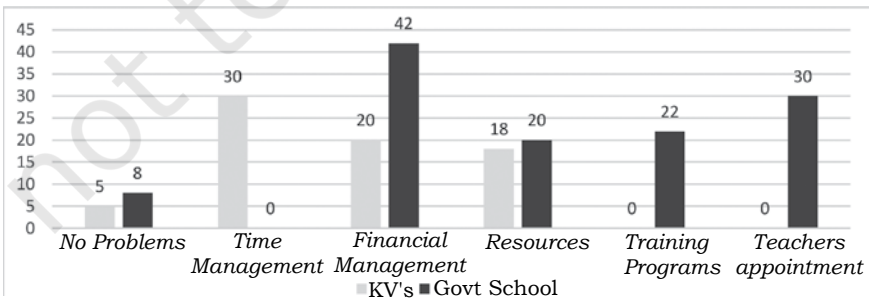
The discussion with teachers and through classroom observation, it was found that teachers from KV's have been consistently using various activities and strategies in the classroom. Drawing and sketching, painting, collage work and art assignments were used in maximum teachers. Calligraphy was used only few teachers. But, in the case of teachers from government schools, it was found that drawing sketching and demonstration as the mostly used techniques while painting

also used by around 18 per cent of teachers.

An analysis of the above Table 3 indicates that problems in professional development programs in Art education among KV's Southern India found that time management (30%) as a significant problem among KV teachers, while Financial Management a significant obstacles among government school teachers (42%). Teacher appointment has been cited as a pertinent problem for government school teachers while it was not a problem for KV teachers.

**Table 3**  
**Problems in Professional Development Programs in Art Education in Southern India**

Schools	No Problems	Time Management	Financial Management	Resources	Training Programs	Teachers Appointment
Kv's	5%	30%	25%	18%	Nil	Nil
Govt Schools	8%	Nil	42%	20%	22%	30%



*Figure 2: Percentage of Problems in Professional Development Programs in Art Education in Southern India*

**Table 4**  
**Evaluation of Art Education in an Academic Year**

Schools	Unit Tests	Monthly Tests	Quarterly Tests	Half Yearly Exams	Annual Exams
Kv's	2%	1%	60%	1%	36%
Govt Schools	Nil	Nil	28%	Nil	72%

The Table 4 provides data related with the mode of evaluation of students in art education. The result reveals that Only Quarterly and Annual Examinations are prevalent in government schools while Unit tests, monthly tests and half yearly examinations also cited by KV teachers. But, Quarterly and Annual examinations are prevalent once in KV also.

**Table 5**  
**Materials provided for Classroom Activities**

Schools	Yes	No	Very Limited
Kv's	75%	8%	17%
Govt Schools	6%	22%	72%

An analysis of the above table indicates that materials were provided in KVs (75 %) where as only limited materials were provided in government schools (72 %). This clearly indicates a difference in the material provided to the arts education classrooms of KVs and government schools.

Table 6 reveals that around 62 per cent teachers from KVs integrate art education with other subjects, one-fourth of them decorate the classroom as a part of art education and few of them (12 per cent) organises outdoor paintings also. But, in the case of government school teachers none of them integrate with other subjects but maximum (78 per cent) organises outdoor paintings and one-fifth decorates the classrooms.

**Table 7**  
**Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Art Education**

Schools	Yes	No
Kv's	85%	15%
Govt Schools	7%	93%

From the Table 7 it can be seen that 85 per cent of teachers from KVs make use of ICT in art education classes while it is only very low (7 per cent) in the case of Government school teachers.

**Table 6**  
**Art Activities conducted by the Teachers**

Schools	Integrate Art With Other Subjects	Decorating Classrooms	Outdoor Paintings
Kv's	62%	26%	12%
Govt Schools	Nil	22%	78%

**Table 8**  
**Activities organised in schools for Art Education**

Schools	Excursions	Museum	Exhibitions	Art Workshops
Kv's	54%	12%	26%	8%
Govt Schools	52%	32%	16%	Nil

Table 8 shows that, excursion was the mostly used activities for art education teaching in both KV and government Schools. One-fourth teachers from KV uses exhibition as an activity for art education while around one-third teachers from government school uses Museum as an activity. Use of workshops for art education was cited only 8 per cent of teachers from KVs and no teachers from government schools.

#### **SUPPORT PROVIDED BY HEAD TEACHER**

Objective 3: To study the nature and type of support Art teachers get from their head teachers in conducting Art education classes in secondary schools of southern India

To know the support provided by the institution as well as the head teacher for smooth organisation of different activities under art education, few questions were

**Table 9**  
**Art activities incorporated as a part of School Education**

Schools	Handmade Banners	Stage Decorations	Slogan Posters	School Handmade Magazine	Art Direction Banners
KV's	12%	65%	9%	8%	6%
Govt schools	17%	35%	19%	12%	17%

Table 9 throws light on different activities incorporated in art education class. The result reveals that, stage decorations as a significant activity in KV and government schools. In KVs, this has been opined by around two-third of the teachers while in government schools it was opined by only one-third teachers. In government schools, handmade banners, slogan posters and Art direction banners were also prevalent.

included in the interview schedule for teachers and head teachers. The data obtained were marked quantitatively to find out the percentages under different components. The analysis is presented below—

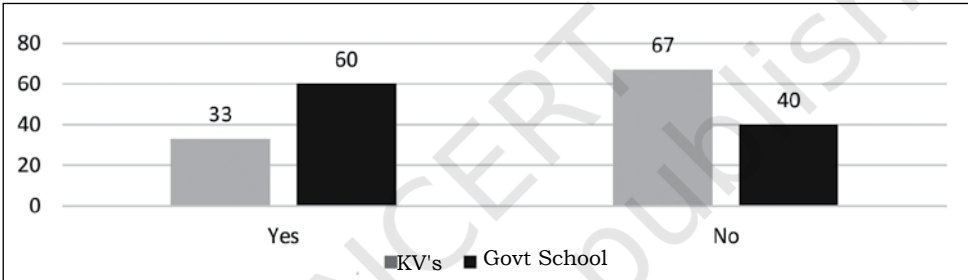
**Table 10**  
**Art Education as neglected subject in the Secondary School Curriculum**

Schools	Yes	No
Kv's	33%	67%
Govt Schools	60%	40%

The data from Table 10 reveals that, art education has been considered as a neglected subject in the secondary school curriculum by 60 per cent of the Head Teachers from Government schools where as only one- third of the Head teachers from KV's opined in a similar way. This indicates that KV administration give due importance and weightage to art education in secondary school curriculum.

from KV's have given importance to three aspects, viz, make the subject compulsory, create awareness and provide extra periods and Classes. But, head teachers from government schools have given maximum importance to the recruitment of full-time art teachers. They have also given importance to making it a compulsory subject, creating awareness, providing career opportunities and

**Art education as neglected subject in the secondary school curriculum**



*Figure3: Percentage of art education as neglected subject in the secondary school curriculum*

**Table 11**

**Ways and means to improve the status of the Art Subject**

Schools	Compul-Sory	Create Awareness	Career Opportu-nities	Extra Periods and Classes	Build Interest Among Students	Full Term Art Teachers	Improving Infras-Tructure
Kv's	23%	23%	23%	23%	8%	Nil	Nil
Govt Schools	15%	15%	15%	15%	5%	20%	15%

To the question related to the ways and means to improve the status of art education in secondary school curriculum, head teachers

extra periods and classes. The response also indicate that the major issue of the government schools are lack of full-time art teachers.

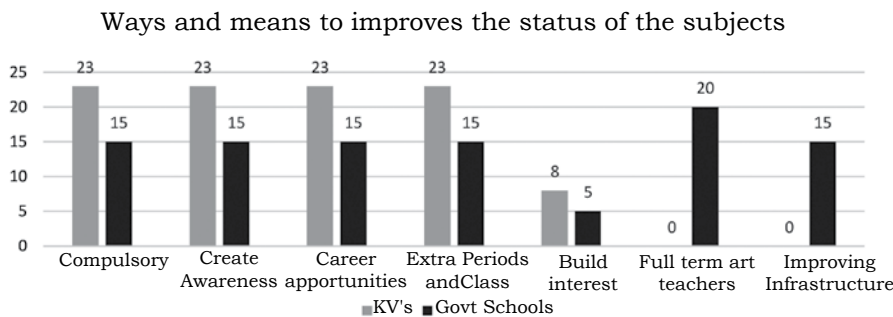


Figure 4: Percentage of ways and means to improve the status of the subject

**Table 12**  
**Areas to be included in the art education curriculum**

Schools	Art History	Classical Music	Archaeology	Drama and Theatre	Modern Art	Classical Art	Wood Work	Pot Making	Clay Modelling
Kv's	17%	6%	6%	17%	18%	18%	6%	6%	6%
Govt Schools	12%	14%	Nil%	14%	5%	35%	8%	4%	8%

An analysis of the above table indicates that areas to be included in the art education curriculum among KV's it was found to be that on Art History 17 per cent, Classical Music 6 per cent, Archaeology 6 per cent, Drama and Theatre 17 per cent, Modern Art 18 per cent, Classical Art 18 per cent, Wood Work 6 per cent, Pot Making 6 per cent and Clay Modelling 6 per cent while among government schools it was found to be on Art History 12 per cent, Classical Music 14 per cent, Archaeology nil, Drama and Theatre 14 per cent, Modern Art 5 per cent, Classical art 35 per cent, Wood work 8 per cent, Pot making 4 per cent and Clay modelling 8 per cent therefore government schools

reported high on classical art forms compare to government schools.

**Table13**  
**Support from school Principal to arrange art related Activities**

Schools	Yes	No	Some Times
KV's	95%	1%	4%
Govt Schools	65%	12%	22%

An analysis of the above table indicates that support from school principal to arrange art related activities were maximum (95 %) in KV's and in the case of government schools the support was opined by 65 per cent teachers.

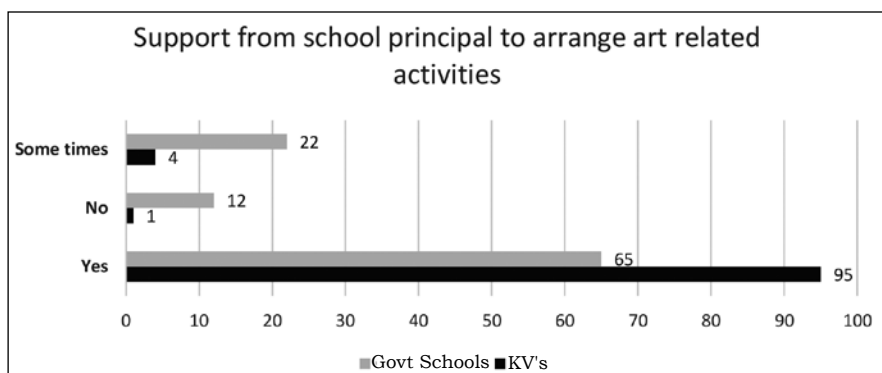


Figure 5: Percentage of support from school principal to arrange art related activities

**Table 14**  
**Support the Teachers in organising Various Activities related to Art Education**

Schools	Providing School Funds	Local Art Materials	Tie Up With Ngos	Art Workshops	Infrastructure
Kv's	43%	29%	Nil	Nil	28%
Govt Schools	27%	18%	55%	Nil	Nil

The Table 14 reveals that the teachers from KV's get support in the means of school funds, local art material and infrastructure while those from government schools, the supports were received through tie up with NGOs, school funds and local art materials. This indicate that for government school teachers, the maximum support comes from NGOs while for KV's it was from school funds.

The Table 15 reveals that the major limitations faced in conducting art education activities by KV's are time limit, student motivation and space. In the case of government schools, the significant limitation is dedicated art teachers followed by Space. In this area also, it can be seen a variation between KV's and government schools.

**Table 15**  
**Limitations faced in Conducting Various activities related to Art Education in and outside of Classroom**

Schools	Space	Students Motivation	Dedicated Art Teachers	Time Limit	No Issues
Kv's	22%	33%	Nil	34%	11%
Govt Schools	36%	9%	55%	Nil	Nil

**Table 16**  
**Resources Available in the School for Art Education In**  
**Teaching-learning Processes**

<b>Schools</b>	<b>Dedicated Art Room</b>	<b>Basic Art Materials</b>	<b>Art Teachers</b>
KV's	14%	43%	43%
Govt Schools	37%	19%	44%

An analysis of the above table indicates that resources available in the school for art education in teaching-learning processes among KV's reported that dedicated art room 14 per cent, basic art materials 43 per cent, art teachers 43 per cent while among government schools it was reported that dedicated art room 37 per cent, basic art materials 19 per cent and art teachers 44 per cent therefore both the schools predominantly reported high on art teachers.

### **CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS**

The findings from the above analysis reveals a visible difference the status, facilities and implementation of Art education at Secondary classes of KV's and government schools of selected South Indian States. In the case of art education activities or strategies, what is common in both of them are demonstration, drawing and sketching, painting. And, what is uncommon in both of them are art assignments, mask making, collage work and calligraphy. It was also found different pictures about the availability of art education teachers and government system lacks

dedicated teaching community. Both of these school systems were miserably failed in using or adapting any special interventions or innovative approaches that are needed for nurturing artistic talents among students. Another area which requires attention is about the professional development programmes for teachers. The study shows that, teachers from both KV's and government schools have raised the issue of finance management as a concern related with Professional Development of Art teachers. The conceptualisation and implementation of well prepared programmes specifically for art teachers could be organised at appropriate levels. Art teachers must be provided with adequate art materials, to nurture art education among students. The schools must be provided with dedicated art teachers to conduct various art forms classes. ICT teaching facilities must be incorporated in the art classrooms. Also, an interaction between various local artists along with students and art teachers must be encouraged to understand cultural traditional art forms of different regions.



**REFERENCES**

- EUBANKS, PAULA. 2012. *Inter Disciplinary study: research as part of art making*. Retrived on 9th December 2012 (ERIC. No. EJ974438). Innovative Teaching Strategies: Retrieved from, <https://lindsays-art-room.weebly.com/teaching-strategies.html>
- MHRD. 2007. Proposals for XI Five-Year Plan (2007–12) and Annual Plan (2007–08). Ministry of Culture, New Delhi: Government of India.
- NCERT. 2006. *Position Paper: National Focus Group on Art, Music, Dance and Theatre*. New Delhi.
- . 2005. *National Curriculum Framework–2005*. New Delhi.
- . 2005. *Position Paper: National Focus Group on Heritage Crafts*. New Delhi.
- . 2005. Teachers' handbook of art education, Class VI. New Delhi.
- DEVI, PRASAD. 1998. *Art: the basis of education*. National Book Trust. New Delhi:
- NICK, RABKIN AND E.C. HEDBERG, NORC. 2011. *Arts education in America: what the declines mean for arts participation*. National Endowment for the Arts. Washington:
- PAINTING, PERFORMING ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE: Retrieved from, <http://www.nios.ac.in/media/documents/SecIHCour/English/CH.12.pdf>
- PRAN NATH, MAGO. 2001. *Contemporary Art in India: A Perspective*. National Book Trust, New Delhi:

# Impact of Experiential Learning Programme on Student's Science Self-efficacy

SHIVANI\*

---

## Abstract

*The rationale of this research was to explore the effect of experiential learning programme and traditional teaching on self-efficacy in the subject of science. The sample consisted of 90 students from Class IX. The sample selection was done on the basis of academic scores obtained by students in the subject of science in Class VIII. The study was experimental in nature. Students were randomly and equally segregated into experimental and control group respectively. Self constructed Science Self-efficacy Scale was executed before and after the experiment. Reliability of the Science Self-efficacy Scale was measured by Cronbach Alpha and split half method which was found to be 0.86 and 0.76 respectively. The control group was taught by traditional teaching and experimental group was taught by experiential learning programme. The experiential learning programme was developed on the basis of four step stages of Kolb's model. The intervention programme was performed for sixty days. The obtained data was analysed by employing 't' test. The major findings of the study confirmed that experiential learning model is more effective for enhancing self-efficacy of students in the subject of science. The students were handling equipments and doing experiments by themselves. So, directly or indirectly it is helpful in enhancing the self-confidence of students. The research has its applications for in-service or pre-service teachers, parents, policy makers of curriculum framework and students of secondary schools.*

---

\*Assistant Professor, N.C. College of Education, Israna, Panipat, Haryana, India.

## INTRODUCTION

Experiential learning helps us to know various ways of learning. It is a process of learning through which knowledge is enhanced, by learning various skills in real world, by hands on activities. The term “Experiential Learning” has been used by different theorists in different ways, like Dewey labels it by the name of “learning by doing” (Dewey and Dewey, 1915), whereas Wolfe and Byrne (1975) used “Experienced based learning” for it.

“Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) Task Force”(1975) considered the process of learning as “applied experiential learning”, which includes learning from the existent world and its application in local interactive environment.

Experiential learning is a blend of skill, practice, observation, cognition and behaviour. In the mid-nineteenth century, there was a progression in experiential learning theory from formal and theoretical instructional methodology to experience or activity based information. In the early years of twentieth century, different out of school experiences were launched in class-room environment.

Montessori (1917) is the founding mother of experiential education. Montessori's method of learning involves two phases: in the first phase the child gets motivated to learn in a new learning environment, and in the second phase, the child works with the surrounding situations using available material daily, day after

day, or at regular intervals (Smith and Knapp, 2011). In Montessori's, model teachers systematise the environment by making it more appropriate for children. The children learn in such appropriate conditions that encourage them towards self-creation and group learning. The free environment (Smith and Knapp, 2011) leads to overall development of a child's sensory and motor abilities.

Lewin (quoted by Kolb 1984) emphasised on action research and laboratory training. Learning is an integrated concept. It follows the sequence of concrete experiences, observation, reflection leading to abstract concept formation and generalisation. Thereafter, these concepts are tested in novel situations.

Dewey gave importance to the concept of “learning by doing” and co-operative learning. Dewey's theory (Miettinen, 2000) explains that diverse form of learning helps in changing the position and needs of concrete experiences into purposeful and focused actions. Dewey in his book (Experience and Education, 1938) explains that knowledge can be generated by performing the roles rather than by merely learning something. This leads to the restoration of learning experiences and individual learn practically.

Piaget (Kraft, 1990) worked on the developmental phases of cognitive growth and development and lay emphasis on active learning and concrete experiences. The theory suggested that children learn best

from concrete experiences to develop new objective knowledge. There are four interrelated factors, namely maturity, skill of handling concrete objects and social relations with other children and equilibrium, which collectively help in organising the mental structure of an individual. Piaget outlined different stages of growth and development: starting from 0–2 years as sensor motor stage; 2 to 4 years as extorting concepts from experience; 4 to 7 years of instinctive idea; 7 to 11 years of concrete operational stage; and 11 to 15 years of abstract operational stage.

Rogers (1959) classified learning into two categories: cognitive and experiential learning. The cognitive part is focused with merely memorising the facts while the latter is basically applied knowledge that comes from doing their own. Rogers asserted that experiential learning is possible if common conditions like learners' own personal involvement in doing activity, their self initiated determined behaviour, self evaluation and learning spirit works.

### **SCIENCE SELF-EFFICACY**

Bandura (1977) proposed the idea of self-efficacy in his theory of Cognitive Behavioural Change. (Okcin and Gerceklioglu, 2013) which includes social learning and self-efficacy components collectively. It is one's own belief in capability of arranging and carrying out any task with the required action for a forthcoming situation.

School students need to recognise their own self-efficacy to get success in science subject. Therefore, science self-efficacy is students own beliefs regarding their level and making them proficient in performing specific assignments and finding solutions of specific problems related to science. Studies have revealed that students' level of science self-efficacy is affected by the plan or method they prefer to follow (Taasooobshirazi and Glynn 2009), their involvement in class-room during Science learning (Lau and Roeser 2002) and their achievement in Science (Chen and Pajares 2010; Merchant, Goetz, Keeney-Kennicutt, Kwok Cifuentes, and Davis, 2012; Zusho Pintrich and Coppola. 2003). A strong self-efficacy belief is linked with a healthy and victorious socially assimilated environment (Ozen, Ozen and Sonmez Tiryaki. 2014). Bandura (1994) asserts that there are four aspects which enhance the self-efficacy of learners: i) Mastery experience, related to previous experiences that helps the students to deal with new situations. The winning act of student enhances their self-efficacy beliefs, whereas their failed attempts diminish their self-efficacy beliefs, ii) Social modeling, a student's surveillance towards friends or classmates. Achievement of friends or classmates in any task increases their self-efficacy, while watching their failure decreases their self efficacy belief. Therefore, friends' or classmates' self efficacy belief also affects students' state of self-efficacy. iii) Social persuasion,

when people are convinced and praised by others regarding their capabilities, it is helpful in attaining mastery and appreciation (Litt, 1988; Schunk, 1989). iv) Physiological and emotional response in a class environment, it affects self-efficacy of a child, if a child feels happy and comfortable in classroom environment, it leads to the enrichment of self-efficacy belief and vice-versa.

### **EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING VS SCIENCE SELF-EFFICACY**

Science self-efficacy is affected by experiences, assignments and circumstances that an individual receives throughout their life. If an individual is stressed and nervous, and doubts their skills, it may lead to development of negative self-efficacy. However, if the person is self-confident, it leads to joy, excitement and develops a positive self-efficacy. The studies of science self-efficacy implies students' belief in handling difficult science tasks, assignments, activities, solving any scientific problems, field visits and handling science projects (Bandura, 1997; Britner and Pajares, 2006). Besides it, different kinds of experience based activities contribute in raising the level of science self-efficacy among students.

There are some research studies which showed that first hand concrete experiences, laboratories or other activity oriented strategies are capable of cultivating self-efficacy in science subject. Margolis and McCabe

(2006) recommended a variety of experiential or concrete experiences, having different practical approaches for teachers for their classrooms to promote self-efficacy of students. These activities include giving difficult and challenging tasks to the students, so that they can make fruitful efforts in finding the right solution to the problem. Teachers must teach in a precise and convenient way which may include assigning a complex task, breaking it into simple and sequential steps and also explaining the way to trace their progress in each given task. Educational material or teaching aids used during teaching-learning process is also helpful in confining the focus of the learner and also provide encouragement to teachers which contribute towards enhancing the level of self-efficacy. Various instructional approaches like, question and answers, application of electronic media, collaborative learning, and assignments related to conceptual problems were certainly interrelated with students' perceived resource of self-efficacy in Physics (Fencl and Scheel, 2005).

### **HYPOTHESISED "KOLB'S MODEL OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING"**

Experiential learning is an innovative way of learning, whereby, creating knowledge and transforming experiences (Kolb, 1984). Experiential learning theory defines "learning as a process and involves transaction between social knowledge and personal knowledge" (Kolb and Kolb, 2009).

Learning is a cyclic process which involves four stages (Kolb, 1984). Here, learners first go through the concrete personal experience; secondly, observe and reflect on that experience; thirdly, generate abstract concepts and generalisations and fourth, test these in new situations. Kolb's model of experiential learning is given in Figure 1.

efficacy. In experiential learning programme, independent concrete experiences with appropriate freedom are given to students. Co-operative learning, feedback and positive environment are also provided to students which thereby enhance their Science self-efficacy. The performance of students must be compared with their past experiences. Such kinds of timely evaluation and feedback affect

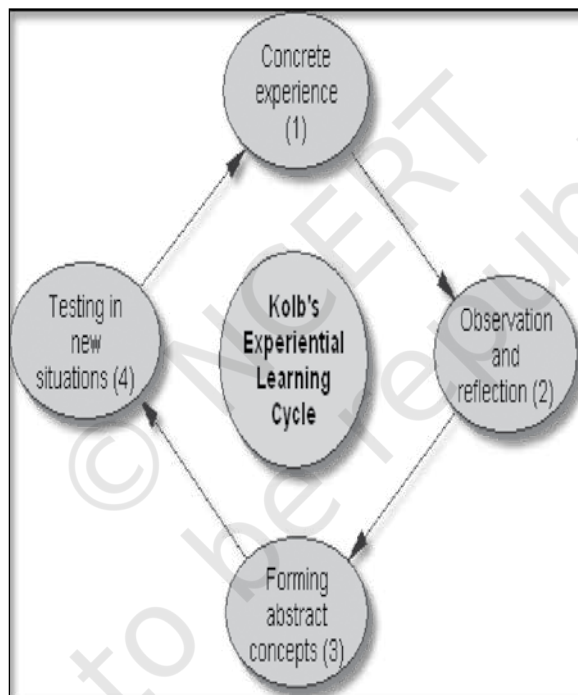


Figure: 1 Kolb's model of experiential learning

### **RATIONALE**

The rationale of the study was to discover experience based instructional strategies that help students in developing Science self-

the performance of the students (Schunk and Pajares, 2002), and that they are able to explore the environment freely and get results. The rationale of the study was to

employ experiential learning model given by Kolb and identify its effect on students' science self efficacy.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **Sample**

Ninety students of class IX, from senior secondary schools in Sonapat, Haryana, were selected for the study. Students were selected randomly and divided equally into experiment (N=45), and control group (N=45). Experimental group and Control group was taught with Kolb's model of experiential learning and conventional methods respectively.

### **Tools used**

After reviewing literature, it was found that standardised tool was available only for measuring general self-efficacy of students but no such tool was available for measuring Science self-efficacy. Therefore, Science self-efficacy scale was developed for Class IX in the subject of science. Finally, five elements were selected in the scale. These elements were self-confidence, self-regulation, Science self-concept, perceived science-efficacy and outcome expectancy. It was prepared to assess the self-efficacy of 14–17 years students, particularly in Science subject. The scale included 55 items and the items were categorised into above given five elements. The literature review related to self-efficacy and Science self-efficacy was used for developing the scale. In the initial phase, items related to various

elements of Science self-efficacy phase were framed. The opinions regarding Science self-efficacy scale were framed on five point Likert Scale. The scale was executed on three hundred students of ninth standard. After administrating the preliminary draft of scale, the process of item analysis and item discrimination was done and finally, 41 items were retained for the final scale.

The reliability of the scale was measured by Cronbach's alpha and split-half method. The value of Cronbach alpha of this scale was 0.86 and for split-half method it was 0.76. Validity of Science self-efficacy scale was determined by establishing content, face and construct validity.

### **Procedure**

A pre-test of forty one items developed to judge the self-efficacy among students of Class IX in the subject of science was done. The chapters included in experiential learning programme were Matter in our Surroundings; Is Matter around us Pure? Motion, Laws of Motion; Work and Energy; Cell— fundamental unit of life and Why do we fall ill? (Syllabus of Science of Class IX prescribed by Haryana Board of School Education). After pre-test, Instructional material (60 lesson plans) based on the above chapters in experimental group was taught by blending various activities of experiential learning programme like learning through examples, observations, brainstorming, projects model building, laboratory activities,

simulations, asking learners to use real problems, discussions, homework assignments, animation and video clips, cooperative learning, student debates, class game, etc., which was followed by four stages of Kolb's model of experiential learning. The control group was taught by conventional method of teaching. After the completion of experimental activity, both groups were again tested through science self-efficacy scale as post-test.

### Results

The effectiveness of experiential learning programme and conventional method of teaching on students' Science self-efficacy has been analysed. Initially, the students' science self-efficacy scale in both groups was tested and compared. The mean and standard deviation of pre-testing phase and post-testing score of students in both groups were computed and tested for significance of difference by using 't' value. The results obtained are shown in Table 1.

It is clear from Table 1 that the experimental group obtained 138.17 and 16.09 as mean and standard deviation scores respectively, whereas these figures for the control group were 134.68 and 17.96. The mean score of students falling in experimental group was slightly enhanced than those in control group. On the other hand, the obtained 't' value of both groups were found to be 0.97 which is not significant at 0.05 level. It means the students of both groups have same level with reference to their science self-efficacy before the experimental intervention.

Further, it was also revealed from Table 1 that the obtained post-test value for the experimental group was  $151.51 \pm 15.16$  as mean and standard deviation scores respectively, whereas these figures for the control group were  $141.06 \pm 15.36$ . The mean score of students falling in experimental group was enhanced as compared to that of control group. On the other hand, the obtained 't' value of both

**Table 1**  
**Mean scores of Experimental and Control Group on Science Self-Efficacy during Pre-testing and Post-testing Phase**

Variable	Phase	Group	N	Mean	SD	't' Value	Significance Level
Science Self-Efficacy	Pre-testing	Experimental Group	45	138.17	16.09	0.97*	*Non-significant at 0.05
		Control Group	45	134.68	17.96		
	Post-testing	Experimental Group	45	151.51	15.16	3.24**	**Significant at 0.01
		Control Group	45	141.06	15.36		



groups were found to be 3.24 which is significant at 0.01 level. It means the students of experimental group attained higher order self-efficacy in science than control group, after the experimental intervention.

The graphical description of mean scores of two groups on Science self-efficacy during the pre-testing and post-testing stage is given in Figure 2.

Figure 2 further explored that the improvement is highly visible in Science self-efficacy of experimental group as compared to that of control group.

### COMPARISON OF GAIN SCIENCE SELF-EFFICACY SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP

The mean and standard deviation of the gained science self-efficacy scores

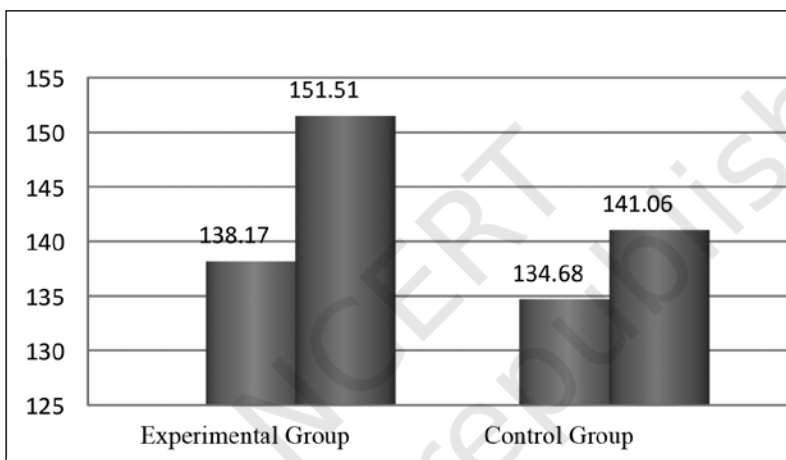


Figure 2 : Mean Scores of Experimental and Control Group of Science self-efficacy during Pre-testing and Post-testing phase

### PRE-TESTING AND POST-TESTING PHASE

It is clear from Figure 2 that there is improvement in both groups in post-testing scores than pre-testing scores.

of the two groups were calculated. The 't' value was computed, tested and significance level found is illustrated in Table 2.

**Table 2**  
**Mean Gain scores of Experimental Group and Control Group on Science Self-efficacy scores**

Variable	Group	N	Mean	SD	't' Value
Science Self-Efficacy	Experimental Group	45	13.33	14.64	2.13*
	Control Group	45	6.42	16.07	

\*Significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 illustrates that the ‘t’ value for experimental and control group was 2.13 which is significant at 0.05 level. In the context of mean gain scores, it was found that the mean gain scores of experimental group and control groups were 13.33 and 6.42 respectively, and this gain difference in mean scores of experimental group is two times greater at 6.91. It means that science self-efficacy of experimental group has shown significant improvement after their exposure to experiential learning programme than that of control group. Hence, it can be inferred that teaching through experiential learning programme has significant positive impact on Science self-efficacy.

The graphical representation of mean gain scores of two groups on Science self-efficacy during the pre-testing and post-testing stage is given in Figure 3.

On the basis of the above results, hypothesis, “Experiential learning programme has a significant positive impact on Science self-efficacy of secondary school students”, is accepted at 0.05 significance level.

Therefore, it is inferred that experimental and control group students significantly differ from each other in terms Science self-efficacy. The results are in favor of experiential learning programme. There is double improvement in gained scores of experimental group than control group. So, it can be concluded that teaching through experiential learning method has significant advantage over conventional teaching.

### DISCUSSION

The present research revealed that experiential learning activities in science are helpful in enhancing self-efficacy among students. The results of present research are supported

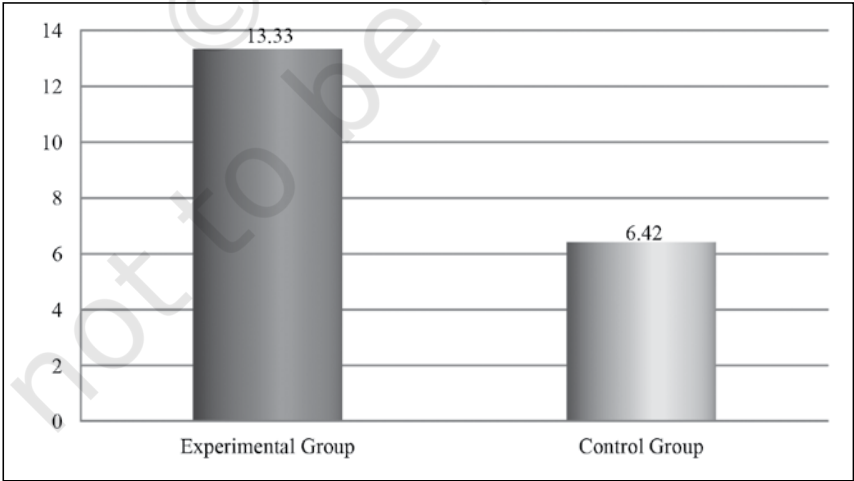


Figure 3: Mean Gain Scores of Science Self- Efficacy

by Cannon and Scharmann (1996) and Kiran and Sungur (2012). They explored that there is a close link between various teaching strategies and its impact on enhancement of science self-efficacy. Therefore, teaching through co-operative learning and collaborative science games is capable of enhancing science self-efficacy among students and teachers. The findings are congruent with Cheung (2014) who stated that various efficacy enhancing techniques like deep learning strategies directly affect the students' Science self-efficacy in Chemistry subject. Esters and Retallic (2013) argued that agricultural and work based experiential learning programme had a progressive impact in the enhancement of Science self-efficacy.

The results confirmed that experiential-learning programme has high impact than conventional classroom teaching in enhancing Science self-efficacy. The reason behind this may be the fact that content presented through experiential learning is highly motivational, as students are directly involved in the process. This leads to development of self-belief on various elements of Science self-efficacy, viz. self-confidence, self-regulation, self-

concept, perceived science-efficacy and outcome expectation.

## CONCLUSION

Introduction of experiential learning programme to experimental group has resulted in a positive change Science self-efficacy. The findings showed that there was visible variation in mean score of pre and post-testing of students in experimental group. Although, the enhancement in Science self-efficacy level is also noticed in conventional teaching method, but interestingly, there is double improvement in gained scores of students exposed to experiential learning. Hence, it can be concluded that teaching through experiential learning programme is effective in enhancing Science self-efficacy. The research studies revealed that students find difficulty in subjects like English, Science and Mathematics, so these subjects must be given due importance. But, for the all-round development of the students, all subjects should be given equal importance; and for every subject different types of experiential activities must be introduced in pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes.

## REFERENCES

- ALBAYRAK OKCIN, F. AND G. GERCEKLIOGLU. 2013. Examination of self-efficacy—Authority perceptions and social support levels of students. *Gumushane University Journal of Health Sciences*. Vol. 2, No. 1. pp. 42.

- ANDERSEN, L., D. BOUD AND R. COHEN. 2000. Experience Based Learning' in Foley G., (Ed.) *Understanding Adult Education and Training*. Second Edition. Sydney: Allen and Unwin, 225–239. Retrieved from <http://complexworld.pbworks.com/f/Experience-based+learning.pdf>
- BANDURA, A. 1994. Self-efficacy. In V.S. Ramachaudran (Ed.). *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior*. Vol. 4. pp. 71–81. Academic Press. New York:
- . 1997. *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*. Freeman. New York
- BRITNER, S.L., AND F. PAJARES. 2006. Sources of science self-efficacy beliefs of middle school students. *Journal of research in science teaching*. Vol. 43, No. 5. pp. 485–499. doi: 10.1002/tea.20131
- CANNON, J.R. AND L.C. SCHARMANN. 1996. Influence of a cooperative early field experience on preservice elementary teachers' science self efficacy. *Science Education*. Vol. 80, No. 4. pp. 419–436. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1098-237X(199607)80: 4<419::AID-SCE3>3.0.CO;2-G
- CHEN, J.A. AND F. PAJARES. 2010. Implicit theories of ability of grade 6 science students: relation to epistemo-logical beliefs and academic motivation and achievement in science. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*. Vol. 35. No. 75–87.
- CHEUNG, D. 2014. The combined effects of classroom teaching and learning strategy use on students' chemistry self-efficacy. *Research in Science Education*. Vol. 45, No. 1. pp. 101. doi: 10.1007/s11165-014-9415-0
- DEWEY, J. 1915. *The School and Society*. University of Chicago Press.
- . 1900/1970. *The School and Society*. (J.A. Boydston, Ed.). Southern Illinois University Press. Carbondale, Illinois.
- . 1938. *Experience and Education*. Collier Books. New York:
- ESTERS, L.T. AND M.S. RETALICK. 2013. Effect of an Experiential and Work-Based Learning Program on Vocational Identity, Career Decision Self-Efficacy, and Career Maturity. *Career and Technical Education Research*. Vol. 38, No. 1. pp. 69–83.
- FENCL, H. AND K. SCHEEL. 2005. Research and Teaching: Engaging Students—An Examination of the Effects of Teaching Strategies on Self-Efficacy and Course in a Non majors Physics Course. *Journal of College Science Teaching*. Vol. 35, No. 1. pp. 20–24
- GENTRY, W. JAMES. 1990. Guide to business gaming and experiential learning. Kogan Page. London.
- KIRAN, D. AND S. SUNGUR. 2012. Middle school students' science self-efficacy and its sources: examination of gender difference. *Journal of Science and Technology*. Vol. 21, No. 5. pp. 619–630.
- KOLB, A.Y., AND D. A. KOLB. 2009. The Learning Way Meta-cognitive Aspects of Experiential Learning. *Simulation and Gaming*. Vol. 40, No. 3. pp. 297–327.
- KOLB, D. 1984. *Experiential Education: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood cliffs, Prentice-Hall New Zealand.
- . 2015. *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Upper Saddle River, Pearson Education. New Jersey:
- KRAFT, R. 1990. Experiential learning. In J.C. Miles and S. Priest (Eds.). *Adventure education*. pp. 175–183. State College, Venture. pemsylvania:

- LAU, S. AND R.W. ROESER. 2002. Cognitive abilities and motivational processes in high school students' situational engagement and achievement in science. *Educational Assessment*. 8. pp. 139–162
- LINDA, H. AND LEWIS, C.J. WILLIAMS. 1994. *Experiential learning: past and present new directions for adult and continuing education*. Summer Jossey-Bass Inc Publisher.
- LITT, M.D. 1988. Self-efficacy and perceived control: Cognitive mediators of pain tolerance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 54. pp. 149–160
- MARGOLIS, H. AND P.P. McCABE. 2006. Improving self-efficacy and motivation: What to do, what to say. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 41, pp. 218–227.
- MERCHANT, Z., E.T. GOETZ, W. KEENEY-KENNICUTT, O.M. KWOK, L. CIFUENTES AND T.J. DAVIS, 2012. The learner characteristics, features of desktop 3D virtual reality environments, and college chemistry instruction: a structural equation modeling analysis. *Computer and Education*. 59, pp. 551–568.
- MIETTINEN, R. 2000. The concept of experiential learning and John Dewey's theory of reflective thought and action. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*. Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 54–72.
- MONTESSORI, M. 1917. *The Advanced Montessori Method: Spontaneous activity in education*. (F. Simmonds, trns). Frederick A. Stokes Company
- OZEN, G., Ş. OZEN AND G. SONMEZ TIRYAKI. 2014. The effect of camping life and obstacle activities on self-efficacy perception of participants. *Journal of Sports and Performance Research*. 5/4 6.
- ROGERS, C.R. 1959. *A Theory of Therapy, Personality and Interpersonal Relationships, as Developed in The Client-Centered Framework*. McGraw-Hill. New York
- ROGERS, CARL. 1951. *Client-centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications and Theory*. Constable. London
- SCHUNK, D.H. 1989. Self-efficacy and achievement behaviours. *Educational Psychology Review*. 1, pp. 173–208.
- SCHUNK, D.H. AND F. PAJARES. 2002. The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield and J. Eccles (Eds.). *Development of Achievement Motivation*. pp. 16–32. Academic Press. San Diego, California
- SMITH, T.E., AND C. E. KNAPP. 2011. *Sourcebook of Experiential Education: Key Thinkers and Their Contributions*. Routledge Publication.
- TAASOOBSHIRAZI, G. AND S.H. GLYNN, 2009. College students solving chemistry problems: A theoretical model of expertise. *Journal of Research on Science Teaching*. 46, pp. 1070–1089.
- WOLFE, E. DOUGLAS AND EUGENE T. BYRNE. 1975. Research On Experiential Learning: Enhancing The Process. *Simulation Games And Experiential Learning in Action*, Richard H. Buskirk (ed.). pp. 325–336.
- ZUSHO, A., P.R. PINTRICH, AND B. COPPOLA. 2003. Skill and will: the role of motivation and cognition in the learning of college chemistry. *International Journal of Science Education*. Vol. 25, No. 9. pp. 1081–1094.

# A Qualitative Study of Students' Interest, Learning Difficulty, and Teachers' Teaching Methods in Geography in Secondary Schools of Meghalaya

MD NAWAZ SARIF\*, MERALIS KHARDEWSAW\*\* AND VANDANA\*\*\*

---

## Abstract

*Geography is one of the core school subjects in India. As a school subject, it has also gained its due place in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC) syllabus, Meghalaya. There is a general notion that geography is a tough subject in the social sciences. This notion may exist due to several related factors that hamper geography learning in schools. In this connection, the present study was undertaken to explore the students' interests and learning difficulty in geography and to analyse the methods employed by teachers to teach geography. In this study, a qualitative research design was used and a self-developed semi-structured questionnaire was employed to collect data from fifty-seven secondary school students and twelve teachers in the South West Khasi Hills district of Meghalaya. The analysis was completed based on frequency, percentage, and content analysis. The findings showed that the majority of students (N=42, 73.68%) had an interest in geography. However, a significant proportion of the students (N=15, 26.32%) did not like the subject. Furthermore, the study rendered the grounds of students' interest and disinterest in the subject. Besides, different areas related to students' learning difficulty were identified. For better off, the study urged teachers to use innovative and ICT integrated methods and teaching aids in the classroom. Teachers' training and content mastery for teachers was emphasised as essential criteria for effective and interesting teaching at school levels.*

---

\*Senior Research Fellow, Department of Education, North-Eastern Hill University, Shillong, Meghalaya

\*\*———, M.Ed. Student, Department of Education, North-Eastern Hill University, Shillong, Meghalaya.

\*\*\*Thesis Supervisor, Department of Education, North-Eastern Hill University, Shillong, Meghalaya.

## INTRODUCTION

Geography is an important subject for school students. It is the subject that represents both, human society and the physical environment. It reflects all the wonderful changes and activities that have been there since the time immemorial. According to F. Ratzel (1882), it is "the study of the relationship between man and the environment" (Hussain, 2011). Richard Hartshorne (1959) says geography subject is "concerned with the description and explanation of the areal differentiation of the earth's surface." Thus, the description of the spatial distribution of different phenomena on the earth's surface and the man-environment relationship remains a central theme of geography (Grossman, 1977; Kőszegi *et al.*, 2015). Geography is different from other, Meghalaya, India disciplines in its subject contents and methodology but at the same time, it is closely related to other disciplines. Geography derives its contents from all the natural and social sciences and has a strong interface with the natural and social sciences (NCERT, Textbook XI, 2006). It is one of the social sciences which are heading toward a scientific form (Herbertson, 1910). By studying geography, students learn not only about their own country but also about countries around the world. They learn about the distribution of human landscapes such as population, human settlements, industrial zones, and physical landscapes such as

mountains, oceans, islands, lakes, volcanoes, winds, precipitations, and other interesting phenomena about the world and the universe. Among the important aspects that students learn in geography are the forest distribution, forest products, natural habitats, national parks, sanctuaries, biosphere reserves, variety of wildlife, plants, mammals, birds, and also learn about the major landforms such as mountains, tablelands, glaciers, volcanoes that exist around the world (NCERT, Textbook VI, 2006). The subject, geography helps students to explore and to understand these phenomena, which is fascinating and interesting for young learners. They learn about how the geographical landscapes and phenomena such as topography, climate, rainfall, natural vegetation, and wildlife habitats and human landscapes such as economic activities, habits, language, lifestyles, and religious beliefs of people differ from place to place (Khullar, 2011). Besides, geography equips students to understand and to investigate the cause and effect relationships over the changes that happened across different geographical space and time (Jones, 1956). It develops skills among students to read and interpret maps that help them to understand the globe through visual depictions of the earth's surface. The insights and the skills obtained through modern scientific techniques such as GIS and computer based cartography help students to improve their geography knowledge and map skills and to

meaningfully contribute to the national endeavour for development (Shin, 2006; Sarkar, 2009). Thus, geography, due to its width and variety, is one of the important and interesting subjects to study at the school level.

As a school subject, geography has gained its due place in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (SSLC) syllabus of Meghalaya. There is a general notion that geography is a tough subject in social sciences and has contents of both, arts as well as science. Being a subject related to both science and arts, it requires special skills from both students and teachers. In teaching geography, teachers play a very important role. They can teach children to be sensitive to nature and the environment. An understanding of nature and the environment will help them to become responsible citizens for the nation and the world. The teachers have to remember that students will be the leaders in the future. They can direct the children to the right path by imparting the lessons which make them interested. The National Curriculum Framework (2005) stated that "issues relating to geography should be taught keeping in mind the need to inculcate in the child a critical appreciation for conservation and environmental concerns" (NCERT, 2006). At the secondary stage, to make learning more interesting and effective, teachers must be familiar with all the skills required in teaching the subject. They must be

clear with the fundamental concepts of geography at the secondary stage. For developing the concept of geography, teachers must be clear about the objectives of teaching-learning and have content mastery. Besides, they are also supposed to develop a competency that is the skill for teaching geography to accomplish the objectives of the discipline. In this connection, the Kothari Commission (1964–66) stated that "the curriculum should be based on the interests and abilities of the students. It should include some core subjects common to all and certain optional subjects to suit the interests of the student. There should be provision for varied courses and maximum integration of subject matter".

The subject, geography, is taught as an independent subject at the secondary level. By the time students reach the secondary level, they generally become adolescents. Their intelligence and mental development receive enough maturity. They are in a position to establish the cause and effect relationship properly (Piaget, 1976). Their psychological requirements are also different, it is, therefore, very necessary to employ teaching methods and techniques that should be apt and capable of developing the interest, imagination, reasoning, and creativity among students. The contents should meet the local relevance and the requirements of pupils. Besides, studies revealed concern over the geography contents, teachers' quality,



and practiced pedagogy in geography (Gokce, 2009; Aydin, 2011; Alam, 2015; Kidman, 2018). The secondary level is the transitional stage, after which students have to move on to higher secondary level. Therefore, it becomes very essential for teachers to develop students' interest and proper understanding of the subject, which is deeply rooted and influenced by instructional design, effective teaching, and a good classroom learning environment. The learning requirements of students and the teaching skills required from teachers to teach geography creates a complex context for learning and teaching of geography at the school level. There are fewer studies in India that adequately address this specific context. Therefore, in the present study, the investigators try to study, analyse, and understand the teaching-learning context of geography. Following are the research questions, addressed in the present study;

1. If students are interested in geography as a school subject?
2. What are the contents liked by students the most?
3. Do students have any difficulty in learning the subject contents? If, yes then what kind of difficulty are they facing in specific areas?
4. Do the teachers address those difficulties faced by students? And, what kind of approach do the teachers adapt to teach the subject?
5. How can the difficulties and problems faced by students be minimised?

### OBJECTIVES

1. To study the students' interests in geography at the secondary level.
2. To identify the learning difficulties faced by secondary school students in geography.
3. To study the teaching methods employed by teachers to teach geography.
4. To provide the suggestive remedies to minimise the learning difficulties faced by secondary school students in geography.

### KEY CONCEPTS

The investigators have operationally defined three key concepts used in the present study. These are –

1. Geography: In the present study, geography refers to the geographical contents given in the social science curriculum of the MBOSE syllabus (Meghalaya Board of School Education), Meghalaya.
2. Secondary School Students: The students from secondary schools of Meghalaya affiliated to the Meghalaya Board of School Education have been considered as secondary school students in the present study.
3. Learning Difficulty: It refers to problems faced by secondary students in understanding the contents and concepts of geography.

# METHODOLOGY

In the present study, a qualitative research design was used to collect relevant data from the target students in the schools (Creswell, 2009).

## Population and Sampling

All secondary school students of Meghalaya were the target population in the present study. The investigators have purposively chosen a district named South West Khasi Hills district of Meghalaya for carrying out the present study. For the present study, ten schools were selected based on a random sampling technique. Then, a purposive sampling technique was used to select a total of fifty-seven secondary school students from the ninth class standard and twelve teachers in the selected schools. The following Table 1 showed the distribution of samples in public and private schools –

**Table 1**  
**Sample Description**

School type	Students	Teachers
Public school	15	1
Private school	42	11
Total	57	12

## Instrument Used for Data Collection

In the present study, the investigators have employed an open-ended questionnaire for data collection in selected schools. The questionnaire was prepared by the investigators for school students. The investigators

have checked the face validity of the developed questionnaire through experts' opinions in relevant subjects. The pilot testing of the questionnaire was done on twenty students. Based on the received feedback, minor changes pertaining to language were made to the questionnaire. The final draft of the questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section 'A' included the demographic profile of the students. Section 'B' of the questionnaire had ten open-ended questions for the students. It covered the aspects of students' interests, learning difficulty, and teachers' pedagogy. In addition to this, the demographic profile of teachers was also collected from the teachers, teaching in the sampled schools.

## Instrument Administration

The investigators had administered the open-ended questionnaire for students in the selected schools. The investigators had administered the questionnaire to each of the selected participants individually to collect data on their interest, learning difficulty, and perception about teachers' pedagogy in the classroom and opinions about how to minimise learning difficulty in the subject. Instructions were given to the participants regarding the purpose of the interview and confidentiality was ensured. Thus, the whole process of data collection was completed in three weeks.

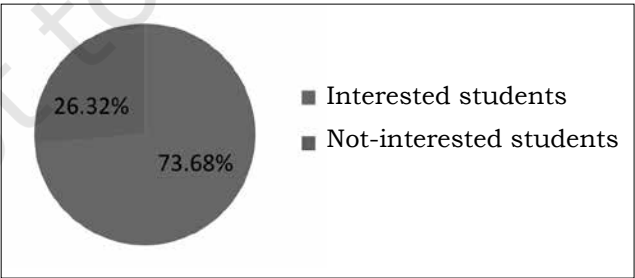
### Data Analysis

In the present study, data were analysed qualitatively. The content analysis of the data was done and

the investigators have thematically categorised the responses. The frequency and percentage had been used in the analysis, along with quotes and narrations of the respondents.

**Table 2**  
**Mapping Students' Interests in Geography**

Themes	Reasons for interest	N	%	Total N (%)
A. Interested	1. It deals with the earth and its physical features and its surroundings.	14	24.56	42 (73.68)
	2. It is correlated with other subjects and helps students to understand these subjects in a better way.	15	26.32	
	3. It deals with man-environment relationships and provides a description of different types of resources include natural and human resources and development.	7	12.28	
	4. It deals with the study of different types of maps and signs and symbols (map language).	4	7.02	
	5. It is a very scoring subject.	2	3.51	
B. Not-interested	1. It is difficult to remember and to locate the different places on maps.	15	26.32	15 (26.32)
Total		57	100	57 (100)



*Figure 1: Showing Students' Interests in Geography*

## RESULT AND INTERPRETATION

### Learning Interests

The Table 2 showed that the majority of the students (N=42, 73.68%) liked geography as a school subject. Out of 73.68 per cent of students who liked the subject reported different reasons for the same. It was found that the majority of students (N=26.32%) liked geography as it was related to other school subjects like science, environmental studies, economics, history, and mathematics and helped them to understand other subjects better.

The second majority of the students (N=14, 24.56%) reported that they liked the subject because it provided an in-depth description of the earth and its surroundings, including physical, biological, and human creatures. In further analysis, students expressed that they were interested in the subject because it provided the description of how the earth was formed and the physical features on the earth's surface such as continents, oceans, rivers, hills, mountains, plateaus, and valleys were formed. They liked the subject as it dealt with the natural vegetation and provided a description of the ecosystem, biomass, biodiversity, flora and fauna. They also had an interest in the subject as it facilitated an account on temperature, precipitation, humidity, types of winds, and cyclones across different geographical regions.

The third majority of the students (N=7, 12.28%) expressed their liking for the subject because it is the subject that dealt with the spatial distribution of natural resources and human settlements and helped them to understand man-environmental relationship as one of the respondents said: *"I like geography subject because it deals with man and environment relationship and it motivates me a lot to work hard"*. The students expressed their enthusiasm towards learning about the formation and distribution of mineral resources like coal, mica, gold, tin, uranium, petroleum, and natural resources like air, water, and land or soil resources, and man-made resources like means of transports and modes of communications. One of the students described that *"I like geography subject because it deals with different resources and respective development, for example, water resources; how water is important to us and how to conserve it, it tells us about the different type of industries classed on size, weight, ownership, and raw materials"*.

The fourth majority of the students (N=4, 7.02%) showed their interest in the subject as it informed them about different types of maps and convectional signs and symbols (map language). Some students expressed the liking of the subject because it teaches them about how to draw different types of maps, helps them in map reading and interpretation, and enables them to locate the different places or countries on a map. One of the students said

*"I like geography subject because it teaches us how to draw a map, how to locate a place on a map and to read the latitude and longitude".*

Furthermore, a few of the students (N=2, 3.51%) stated that they liked the subject as geography was a very scoring subject. One of the respondents described that *"It is the subject which I like the most and very interesting to study as it is a scoring subject"*

However, a significant proportion of the students (N=15, 26.32%) reported that they did not like geography because it was a subject that had many difficult and abstract concepts to study. They found it difficult as it dealt with facts and required the cramming of lots of facts, abstract concepts, dates,

years, lengths, and heights. Some of the students stated that they did not like the subject at all as it was a combination of social science, and has correlated with many other subjects that create complications in learning. Besides, students had also reported difficulty in map reading and interpretation and in operating different field survey related equipments. Excerpt of one of the students' anecdotes revealed this idea, *"geography is interesting, but it is difficult to remember some topics like length or height and location of different mountains, rivers, places, and rivers. Another respondent and it is very difficult in social sciences as it deals with all aspects of the earth and human society".*

**Table 3**  
**Learning Difficulties Faced by Students**

Themes	Topics and concepts	N	%	Total N (%)
A. Students with learning difficulty	1. Memorising different facts and structures.	22	38.60	47 (82.46)
	2. Abstract concepts and maps.	12	21.05	
	3. Understanding the physical features of the earth, the movement of plate tectonics, climatic conditions, and correlated or identical concepts with other subjects.	6	10.52	
	4. Project works.	7	12.28	
B. Students without learning difficulty		10	17.54	10 (17.54)
Total				57 (100)

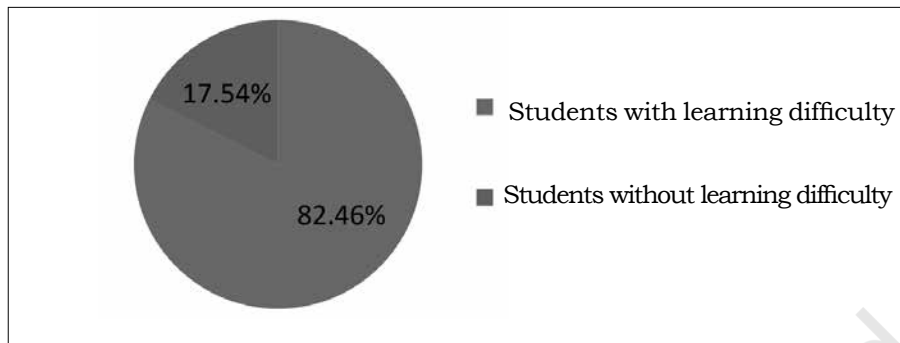


Figure 2: Learning Difficulties Faced by Students

### Learning Difficulties

The Table 3 showed that the majority of students (N=47, 82.46%) had difficulty in learning geography, whereas few students (N=10, 17.54%) had no difficulty in learning geography. The study brought out the main areas where the students faced problems in geography. It was found that the majority of the student (N=22, 38.60%) had problems in rote-based contents. They faced problems in understanding and remembering factual information such as names of different geographical places, different topographic features, and facts related to years, height, length, and location of different geographical objects, i.e., mountain, rivers, natural vegetation, and minerals resources. The exception of one student reads that *"It is very difficult for me to remember the years, height of mountains, names of the places, international boundaries and names of different ports and water stations."*

The second majority of the students (N=12, 21.05%) reported problems in understanding abstract concepts and map reading and interpretation. They

had a problem in understanding different cartographic concepts such as scales, conventional signs, and symbols, grid systems (latitudes and longitudes). They found difficulty in drawing maps according to scale and also had problems in locating and identifying different geographical places and objects on maps.

The third majority of the students (N=7, 12.28%) reported difficulty in completing the project work. They found it burdensome as they did not get proper guidance from the teachers. The finding of the present study revealed that the students find it difficult to finish or to submit a project work to the teachers due to the lack of required materials in schools and no proper guidance from the teachers. The statement made by one student, *"I find it very difficult to finish the project work given by teachers, especially in geography subject, because the subject has a wider concept and lack of materials."*

The fourth majority of the students (N=6, 10.52%) had difficulty in understanding the physical

**Table 4**  
**Teaching Methods employed by Teachers in the Classroom**

Theme	Sub-themes	Categories	N	%
Teaching methods used by teachers to explain difficult concepts	1. Lecture	Explanation and illustration.	19	33.33
	2. Use of text-book	Text book.	23	40.35
	3. Use of teaching aids	Maps, atlas, globes, and chalk blackboard.	15	26.32
Total			57	100

features of the earth, the movement of plate tectonics and the climatic condition that includes, rainfall distribution patterns, pressure belts, wind systems, ocean currents, the formation of volcanoes, soil formations, and to differentiate the types of rocks and understand their formation and distribution. The students also had difficulty in the subject contents bearing identical aspects with other subjects like science, mathematics, arts, and environmental studies. One student from a private school stated that *"I face difficulty in the study of the physical features of different continents, the theory of plate tectonic, to remember the major physiographic divisions of India, the location with latitude and longitude and different names of ocean and rivers and mountains."*

### TEACHING METHODS

The Table 4 showed the teaching methods and aids employed by the teachers to explain the difficult concepts to students. It was found that the majority of the students (N=23, 40.35%) said that the teachers used text book as the most important material in the classroom. The teachers used text book and everything that the text book provided to explain the difficult concepts to the students. As one of the students said that *"The teachers just teach, explain, and tell us to read from the text book"*. A similar response was given by another respondent who said that *"Our teachers just read and explain from the text book."*

The second majority of the students (N=19, 33.33%) indicated

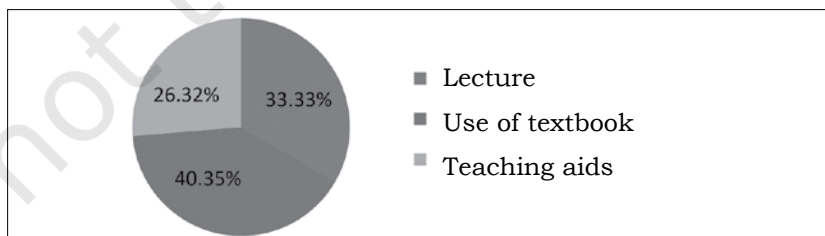


Figure 3: Teaching Methods Employed by Teachers in the Classroom

that the teachers explained the difficult concepts through lectures. As one of the respondents stated that “Our teachers explain the difficult concepts through lectures.”

The third majority of the students (N=15, 26.32%) revealed that teachers explained the difficult concepts with the help of maps, atlas, globes, and chalk blackboard. One respondent

said that “Teachers use different types of materials like maps, atlas, and globe, in teaching geography.”

From the above analysis, it can be said that lecture method with text book and traditional teaching materials, i.e., maps, atlas, globe, and chalk blackboard, were the most common practices used by teachers in teaching geography.

**Table 5**  
**Suggestions to minimise Students’ Learning Difficulties in Geography**

Theme	Sub-themes	Categories	N	%
Students’ suggestions for teachers	1.Use of teaching aids and ICT	Use of teaching aids and new technology.	18	31.58
	2.Training for teachers	Teachers should be trained to become effective teachers.	15	26.32
	3. Mastery of contents and methods of teaching	Know the concepts and use of different methods of teaching.	14	24.56
	4.Understanding students	Teachers should understand the students’ interests and abilities.	10	17.54
Total			57	100

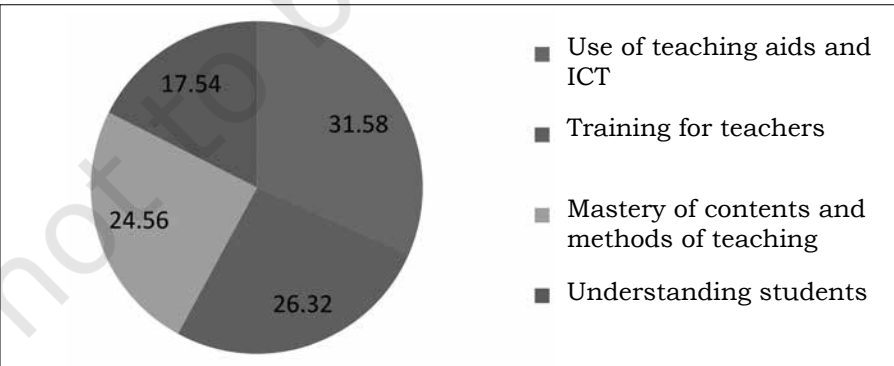


Figure 1. Suggestions to Minimise Learning Difficulty in Geography



### **SUGGESTIVE REMEDIES**

The Table 5 showed the suggestions offered by students to minimise the learning difficulties faced by them in learning geography. It was found that the majority of the students (N=18, 32%) suggested that the teachers should use teaching aids and supplementary study-materials with the blend of educationally relevant new technology for teaching the subject. They reiterated that the teachers should make use of materials like pictures, diagrams, maps, atlas, specimens, and different instruments such as a barometer, thermometer, and instruments to make the lessons more effective in the classroom. Besides, the use of laboratory and library was also suggested by the students to develop practical insights and a deep understanding of the subject. One of the students stated that *"Teaching material is very important for the students to get a better and clear concept especially to those topics which are difficult to understand and if the teachers show us with picture or specimens then it will clear the doubt and will develop the thinking capacity."*

The second majority of the students (N=15, 26.32%) suggested that teachers should be trained so that they will know about how to teach different topics effectively. As every teacher is not a born teacher so the teachers who are involved in the teaching process should get training for two years or one year, which will help teachers to teach different topics

of geography. One student stated that *"teachers should be trained and should have a habit of reading more books for teaching geography. They should bring different perspectives so that the students will not face any problem while learning the subject"*.

The third majority of the students (N=14, 25%) suggested that teachers should have mastery in contents and different methods of teaching. One student stated that *"the teacher should have good knowledge about the different concepts and teaching pedagogy, and they should know how to make a relation between the past, present, and the future."* Teachers should have methodological knowledge about how to make use of different methods to teach difficult concepts and new ideas to students. They should use methods like discussion method, play-way method, observation, and field trip or excursion to promote creative learning among students. Besides, the students also suggested that the teachers should prepare well before coming to the class.

The fourth majority of the students (N=10, 17.54%) suggested that the teachers should understand the interests and abilities of the students, and they should have friendly interactions with the students for an effective teaching-learning process in the classroom. No individual is alike or the same rather different from one individual to another. So, the teachers should understand an individual student's capability

and encourage the weak students to perform well in the examination as one of the students stated that *“Teachers should treat every student equally and take interest in those students who perform poorly in the class.”*

## DISCUSSIONS

The present study revealed that the majority of the students had an interest in geography as it provided in-depth descriptions about the earth and its physical and human features. They liked the subject as it deals with the spatial distribution of different types of natural and human resources. The students found the subject supportive as it helped them in learning other school subjects, i.e., science, environmental studies, history, and mathematics. The contents that dealt with the study of different types of maps and convectional signs and symbols (map language) were the most liked subject areas by the students. The students also preferred the subject as they saw it as a scoring subject. However, a smaller proportion of the students did not like the subject as they perceived the subject having many difficult and abstract concepts that required the cramming of lots of facts, abstract concepts, and dates. A similar study conducted by Aydin (2011) revealed the sides of geography lessons liked and disliked by the students. In the same study, memorisation of facts and mathematical aspects of geography was identified as barriers

for school students in geography learning.

The present study found that the majority of the students had difficulties in geography, whereas a comparatively smaller proportion of the students did not face any difficulty. The study rendered specific problems reported by the students in understanding and remembering fact-based information and abstract concepts. They had difficulty in understanding the geographical features and the distribution of natural resources in different regions across the world. Moreover, students also reported difficulty in cartographic tasks, i.e., map reading and interpretation, drawing a map, and locating different places on maps with accordance to the respective grid that is latitude and longitude. In the present study, learning difficulties faced by a majority of the students may be attributed to the lack of professional training among teachers, as only 60 per cent of the teachers were trained. The outdated traditional teaching methods may also be responsible for learning difficulty among students, as around 73 per cent of the students reported that most of the teachers primarily use lectures with a textbook for teaching difficult concepts. A similar observation was made by Yeung (2010), wherein it was reported that learning activities, such as analysis, information collection and oral presentation on various geographical themes were helpful for students

in learning abstract and difficult concepts in geography. Besides, the students also revealed the problem in completing project works because of the lack of required materials in schools and no proper guidance from the teachers. A study conducted by Maduane (2016) found that the textbook to second language English learners is a learning barrier for students. Overall, the present study brought out an intriguing finding wherein a majority of the students were facing learning difficulties, though they were interested in the subject.

Regarding methods of teaching, in the present study, it was found that lecture methods with textbook and traditional teaching-learning materials were mainly used by the teachers for teaching geography. The textbook was used during the lecture to explain the difficult concepts to the students. Also, teachers used teaching-learning materials such as maps, atlas, globes, and chalk blackboards as reported by the students. The use of the textbook during lectures may be due to the lack of content mastery among teachers. Suggestions received from the students also pointed out that teachers should have adequate knowledge about the contents. Another reason, as found in the present study, was lack of subject-specific trained teachers as 40 per cent of the teachers had no professional training and did not have graduation and post-graduation in geography. A similar

study was conducted by Alam (2015) on the status of geography teachers in schools where it was observed that the initiatives and efforts taken through different policies and programs were not equated to improve the quality of geography education in schools. There in the study, under-qualification of geography teachers was identified as the major problem at school level geography education in India. Likewise, a study conducted by Maduane (2016) also found the poor professional proficiency of teachers as a learning barrier for school students in geography. Besides, Gokce (2009) revealed the insufficient number of geography instructors, teachers' low motivation, and removal of some courses as negative factors, affecting students' motivation and learning outcome in the subject.

The investigators explored the means and ways to minimise the learning difficulties faced by students in geography. It was found that students were not satisfied with the existing methods of teaching. They put forward some suggestions for using teaching methods such as discussion method, play-way method, observation, and field trip or excursion to promote creative learning among students. The majority of the students suggested that teachers should use modernised teaching-learning materials in the classroom. Teachers' training and content mastery were also mentioned by the students, as essential attributes for

teachers. Students emphasised that with proper training and adequate content knowledge, teachers can teach more effectively and make the subject contents interesting. The students also recommended that a teacher should have the ability to understand students' interests and abilities and use a student-friendly teaching approach in the classroom. Besides, it was suggested that school administrators should provide adequate infrastructural support for facilitating the teaching-learning process, such as ICT enabled classroom and laboratory. A similar study conducted by Aydın (2011) had brought out students' suggestions that the teachers should use visual equipment and tool and encourage classroom activities for better learning outcomes in the subject. Lambert (1999) has emphasised on text books and printed resources, including various electronic media and internet-based materials to teach geography at the school level. Rickey and Bein (1996) investigated the students' learning difficulties in geography and brought out that the teachers' instructional interventions for improving learning outcomes in the subject as effective. Yasar and Seremet (2009) found that a constructive approach based on geography curriculum, student-centered active learning, and inquiry-based teaching help students to develop constructive knowledge and critical thinking at secondary schools. A similar study was conducted by

Yeung (2010) evidenced the positive consequences of a problem-based learning approach for teaching geography to pre-university students. Besides, a school-based support and training program and a collaborative inquiry-oriented atmosphere in the classroom were also expected and recommended to bring down learning difficulty in the subject.

### **DELIMITATION AND SUGGESTIONS**

The present study was delimited to secondary school students in Mawkyrwat Block of South West Khasi Hills district of Meghalaya, North-East India. However, the study can be extended further to identify the learning difficulties faced by school students in geography or other relevant school subjects in different geographical locales of North-East India. A similar study can further be taken at higher secondary, college, and university levels to understand the prevalence of students' interests, learning difficulties, and teachers' practice instructional pedagogy in geography.

### **CONCLUSION**

The present study provided empirical evidence about the status of students' learning difficulties in geography. It was found that the majority of the students had an interest in the subject because it deals with man-environmental relationships. And, it provides a description of the spatial distribution of different geographical phenomena on the earth's surface.

However, few students did not like the subject as it had abstract concepts and required cramming of lots of facts and dates. Overall, the present study brought out an intriguing finding wherein a majority of the students were facing learning difficulties, though they were interested in the subject. It was found that the instructional methods adopted by teachers of both professionally trained and untrained were not adequate to address the problems faced by the students. It was found that students were not satisfied with the existing methods of teaching. They put forward a number of suggestions regarding teachers and teaching methods. The majority of the students suggested that teachers should use modernised teaching-learning materials in the classroom such as ICT enabled instructional materials and activity-based e-learning materials. Teachers' training and content mastery were also mentioned by the students, as essential attributes for teachers.

The findings of the present study render some significant implications for all stakeholders in school education. Contextual teaching approach and ICT integral instructional design and pedagogy need to be employed for teaching the subject in schools. Since, both the trained and untrained teachers could not cater to the learning needs of students, the implication of the study goes to professional training programs. Teacher training program needs to focus on subject-specific pedagogy. Teachers should also motivate students to engage in group-based learning activities in and outside the classroom so that learning geography can be taking place through interaction, observation, and personal experience in natural settings. The school administration should provide necessary teaching and learning materials and technological support to both teachers and students to minimise the related factors that hamper geography learning in schools.

## REFERENCES

- ALAM, S. 2015. A Note on the Status of Geography Teachers in Indian Schools. *Geographical Education*. Vol. 28. pp. 59–65.
- AYDIN, F. 2011. Secondary School Students' Opinions about the Geography Course: A Qualitative Study. *Archives of Applied Science Research*. Vol. 3, No. 1. pp. 297–305.
- CRESWELL, J.W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage publications.
- GOKCE, N. 2009. The Problems of Geography Education and Some Suggestions. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*. Vol. 9, No. 2. pp. 757–768.
- GROSSMAN, L. 1977. Man environment Relationships in Anthropology and Geography. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*. Vol. 67, No. 1. pp. 126–144.

- HARTSHORNE, R. 1959. *Perspective on the Nature of Geography*. Rand McNally and Co., Chicago.
- HERBERTSON, A.J. 1910. Geography and Some of Its Present Needs. *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. Vol. 26, No. 10. pp. 532–544.
- HUSAIN, M. 2011. *Evolution of Geographical Thought*. Rawat Publications, New Delhi.
- JONES, E. 1956. Cause and Effect in Human Geography. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*. Vol. 46, No. 4. pp. 369–377.
- KHULLAR, D.R. 2011. *India: A Comprehensive Geography*. Kalyani Publishers, New Delhi.
- KIDMAN, G. 2018. School Geography: What Interests Students, What Interests Teacher?. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*. Vol. 27, No. 4. pp. 311–325.
- KÓSZEGI, M., Z. BOTTLIK, T. TELBISZ AND L. MARI. 2015. Human-environment Relationships in Modern and Postmodern Geography. *Hungarian Geographical Bulletin*. Vol. 64, No. 2. pp. 87–99.
- KOTHARI, D. S. AND A. R. CHAIRMAN. 1966. *Education and National Development Report of the Education Commission*. Manager of Publications. Delhi.
- LAMBERT, D. 1999. Exploring the Use of Textbooks in Key Stage 3 Geography Classrooms: A Small Scale Study. *Curriculum Journal*. Vol. 10, No. 1. pp. 85–105.
- MADUANE, L.H. 2016. *Barriers to Geography Learning And Teaching In Grade 12 In The Limpopo Province*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Limpopo).
- NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, AND TRAINING (INDIA). 2005. *National Curriculum Framework 2005*. NCERT, New Delhi.
- . 2006. *Fundamentals of Physical Geography—Textbook for Class-XI*. pp. 2–10. NCERT, New Delhi.
- . 2006. *Social Science- The Earth: Our Habitat —Textbook for Class-VI*. pp. 39–61. NCERT, New Delhi.
- . 2006. *Position Paper: National Focus Group on Teaching of Social Sciences*. pp. 7. NCERT, New Delhi.
- RICKEY, M.G. AND F.L. BEIN. 1996. Students' Learning Difficulties in Geography and Teachers' Interventions: Teaching Cases from K-12 Classrooms. *Journal of Geography*. Vol. 95, No. 3. pp. 118–125.
- SARKAR, A. 2009. *Practical Geography. A Systematic Approach*. Orient BlackSwan Private Limited, Kolkata.
- SHIN, E.K. 2006. Using Geographic Information System (GIS) to Improve Fourth Graders' Geographic Content Knowledge and Map Skills. *Journal of Geography*. Vol. 105, No. 3. pp. 109–120.
- YASAR, O. AND M. SEREMET. 2009. An Evaluation of Changes to the Secondary School Geography Curriculum in Turkey in 2005. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*. Vol. 18, No. 3. pp. 171–184.
- YEUNG, S. 2010. Problem-based Learning for Promoting Student Learning in High School Geography. *Journal of Geography*. Vol. 109, No. 5. pp. 190–200.

# Reflections of Student-teachers on School Internship of 2-year B.Ed. Programme

FATHIMA JASEENA MPM\*AND VIJAYAN. K.\*\*

---

## **Abstract**

---

*Preparing a competent teacher who possesses desired theoretical knowledge, pedagogical skill, and classroom managerial skill is the responsibility of any teacher education programme. Due to several constraints like ineffective curriculum, rigidness in its execution, lack of proper orientation to the prospective teachers, and insufficient duration of practice teaching programme made most of the teacher education institution to fail developing competent teacher. There was a general criticism that, the secondary teacher education curriculum of one year programme was not enough in terms of time to provide any scope for the student teacher to fledge with experiential learning in the school curriculum. Thus, NCTE Regulations 2014 recommended the enhancement of the duration to two year to the existing one year programme. It also highlighted that; the duration of School Internship Programme should be of minimum 20 weeks duration. Most of the Universities and Teacher Education Institutions started its implementation from 2015 onwards. It is in this context that this study has been conducted, which aims to investigate the challenges and concerns, if any, faced by prospective teachers during their extended school internship programme. The data has been collected from 300 prospective teachers from different teacher education institutions from Kozhikode and Mallapuram districts under Calicut University, Kerala. The result of the study reveals that there are many challenges and issues such as lack of time in organisation of curricular and co-curricular activities, writing of reflective journals, etc. as reflected by the student teachers. Majority of prospective teachers. (79%) agree that they*

---

\*Assistant Professor, Farook Training College. Farook College, Kerala.

\*\*Assistant Professor, Department of Teacher Education, NCERT, New Delhi.

*face inconvenience due to long duration of internship. Study highlights that, mere increasing the duration of internship alone will not bring quality. More concentrated and systematic efforts are required in the organisation and implementation of school internship.*

---

## INTRODUCTION

India has made considerable progress in school education since independence, with reference to overall literacy, infrastructure, universal access and enrolment in schools. Centrally sponsored schemes such as District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) and Samagra Shiksha have been initiated at School Education level to attain these goals. Enhancing the quality of education has been another important goal of these centrally sponsored programmes. Despite of all these initiatives by central government and state governments, we are still struggling to improve the quality of our school education. Without improving the quality of our teacher preparation programmes, we may not be in a position to improve the quality of school education.

Teachers have to play a crucial role in enhancing quality of education. It is in this context, National Policy on Education (1986) has mentioned that no people can rise above the level of its teachers. This, in other way can be interpreted that if teacher preparation system fails, that will result in deteriorating the quality of education system also.

The concern for improving quality of teacher education has been a major topic of discussion in most of the reports of the commissions, committees, plans and policies on education. The Justice Verma Commission Report, 2012 (JVC, 2012) set up by the Supreme Court to study the state of teacher education and the functioning of the NCTE have identified vast gaps in current perspectives and aspirations for education and the situation of teacher education institutions.

One of the most frequently and significantly discussed challenges in teacher education programme is organisation of school experience activities. The crux of any professional development programme is the practical and hands on real experiences provided to the candidates. In the case of pre-service teacher preparation programme, this particular component is generally known as practice teaching. The other terminologies like school experience, school internship, etc also being used interchangeably.

Even though its objective is to give the prospective teachers enough firsthand experience in school functioning and teaching related activities, due to lack of organisational vision many of our teacher education institutions are



organising it in a mechanical way. The student teachers are not getting enough opportunities to apply their theoretical knowledge during the school experience programme. NCFTE, 2009 tries to address this criticism of theory practical mismatch in teacher education programmes by incorporating the socio-cultural contexts of education, giving more emphasis on the field experience of student teachers in all courses through practicum, visits to innovative centers of pedagogy and learning, classroom based research, and longer duration of internship.

It is in this context, that, Justice Verma Commission, 2012, recommended enhancement of the duration of different teacher preparation programmes. As per the recommendations of JVC, 2012, National Council of Teacher Education has come up with its regulation, 2014.

### **THE CONTEXT**

The NCTE Regulations, 2014 made an attempt to broaden the scope of practice teaching by emphasising the importance of providing the experience of all activities and programmes of the school to the student teachers. regulations suggested the enhancement of the duration of school internship to 20 weeks for all the pre-service teacher education programmes. In the case of 2 Year B.Ed programme, regulation suggested that school internship should be the part of a broader activity called 'Field Engagement' of 20 weeks has been

further split into two parts consisting of 4 weeks and 16 weeks to be organised in the first and second year. University of Calicut has modified the curriculum and syllabus of two year B.Ed as per the NCTE 2014, regulations and started implementing it also. The enhancement of the duration of school internship alone will not be sufficient to ensure improvement in the quality. The effective implementation of school internship programme by utilising the time appropriately also is very significant. It is in this context, the investigator thought of conducting an investigation about the reflection of student-teachers about the school internship component of 2 year B.Ed programme.

### **OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

1. To study the reflections of student teachers about school internship they have undertaken as a part of 2 Year B.Ed programme.
2. To compare the reflections of student teachers from aided and unaided institutions about school internship they have undertaken.
3. To compare the reflections of student teachers from science and humanities specialisation about school internship they have undertaken.

### **METHODOLOGY**

Since the present study aims to analyse the reflections of student – teachers about the school internship programmes they have undertaken

during the 2 Year B.Ed programme, investigator used survey technique to collect relevant data.

### **Population, Sample and Sampling Technique**

The population of the present study constitutes the entire student teachers studying in the 2nd year of 2 year B.Ed programme during 2018–19 organised by Teacher Education Institutions under Calicut University, Kerala.

Sample for the present study has been selected using multistage sampling technique. During the first stage two districts under Calicut University Jurisdiction have been selected purposively. The Districts selected were Kozhikode and Malappuram. During the second Stage Teacher Education Institutions were selected using strata sampling. One government, one aided and three unaided institutions were selected during this stage. 300 student teachers from these institutions comprise the final sample for the present Study. 166 student teachers were from unaided, 134 from aided and government institutions. For the study the student teachers from aided and government institutions were considered under aided management. Based on the subject of specialisation, 167 were with science and 133 were with humanities specialisation.

### **Tool**

A questionnaire has been developed by the investigator to study the reflection of student teachers about

the various components of school internship programme. The purpose was to measure the benefits and difficulties they faced during various activities as a part of the school internship programme. The areas covered in the questionnaire are teaching, Evaluation, administration, teacher competency, class management, student interaction, teacher behaviour, student discipline, school climate, and student achievements, etc. The final tool consists of 28 items with two alternative responses agree and disagree.

### **Statistical Techniques**

Percentile analysis and t-value for proportion were used for analysis of data.

### **Analysis and Discussion**

The data collected using questionnaire was tabulated and percentage of responses under agree and disagree were calculated. The proportion of agree to disagree was used further for analysing the reflection of students based on type of management and subject specialisation.

### **REFLECTION OF STUDENT-TEACHERS ABOUT THE SCHOOL INTERNSHIP PROGRAMME**

Table 1 below provides the number and percentage of the reflection of student teachers about various issues, problems and challenges they faced during the school internship.

**Table 1**  
**Response of Student-teachers about the Issues, Problems and Challenges they faced during the School Internship**

<b>Sl No</b>	<b>Statements</b>	<b>Agree (%)</b>	<b>Disagree (%)</b>
1.	Faces inconvenience due to the long duration of internship	238(79.3)	62(20.7)
2.	It is very difficult to prepare for both curricular and extra-curricular activities at a time	171(57)	129(43)
3.	Getting involved in school related activities along with teaching badly affects other things	116(38.7)	184(61.3)
4.	Hurdles in teaching affect other things prescribed in the course	103(34.3)	197(65.7)
5.	Faces inconvenience from senior teachers who should themselves be mentors	92(30.7)	208(69.3)
6.	Burdened with heavy workload	115(38.3)	185(61.7)
7.	Had to face problems from students in the class while teaching	172(57.3)	128(42.7)
8.	Teachers working in the institutions show no care in preparing new methodology	104(34.7)	196(65.3)
9.	Teachers are generally lazy in duly analysing the lesson plan	72(24)	228(76)
10.	Frequent changes in learning media become problematic	121(40.3)	179(59.7)
11.	There is no enough time allotted for class room activities	129(43)	171(57)
12.	Getting various responsibilities related to school becomes intolerable	78(26)	222(74)
13.	Lacking basic necessities in school affects day to day affairs	112(37.3)	188(62.7)
14.	Teachers scold even for silly things	65(21.7)	235(88.3)
15.	Cannot manage teaching responsibly since there are so many other duties assigned as part of working in the school	57(19)	243(81)
16.	Do not get enough time for yoga and journal works	179(59.7)	121(40.3)
17.	Do not even get basic facilities like restroom, dining area, toilet, etc	93(31)	207(69)
18.	Teachers become egotistical at even simple things	98(32.7)	202(67.3)
19.	Teachers scold in front of other students	22(7.3)	278(92.7)

20.	Give no directions to improve the ways of teaching	32(10.7)	268(89.3)
21.	Give less motivation, encouragement or appreciation	34(11.3)	266(88.7)
22.	Acts as if we are a burden to them	54(18)	246(82)
23.	Attempts to make fun of in the presence of all the students if there is a problem concerning the entire class	20(6.7)	280(93.3)
24.	Questioning from the staffrooms is common and is continuing	38(12.7)	262(87.3)
25.	Allocate portions which are unmanageable in number	88(29.3)	212(70.7)
26.	Allocate portions without considering the time limit	98(32.7)	202(67.3)
27.	Generally feel mental stress, laziness and grief	128(42.7)	172(57.3)
28.	Often feels that teaching practice should somehow end very soon	128(42.7)	172(57.3)

From the Table 1, it can be observed that around 79 per cent student teachers opined that, they have faced inconvenience due to longer duration of school internship. But, for the subsequent reflective question, they were given mixed responses. In the case of preparing activities related with curricular and co-curricular activities at the same time, 57 per cent of them expressed their difficulty. Around equal number of student teachers agreed that, they have faced problems in managing students effectively. In the case of planning and conducting yoga activities and writing of reflective journals around 60 per cent of the participants expressed the lack of time. 43 per cent of the respondents reflected that, the time allotted was not enough for organising classroom activities and 40 per cent of them opined that switching in to learning

medium often creates problems. Mental stress, laziness and grief due to longer duration have been reflected by 42.3 per cent of student-teachers and similar number wished to see the end of school internship quickly. Regarding the support from mentor teachers most of the student teachers only 11 per cent said that, they were not given any direction, support or motivation for their improvement. 18 per cent reflected that, the mentor teachers were thinking that, student teachers are a burden to them. With regard to teaching activities, around 30 per cent opined that, sometimes they feel, the activities given to them were unmanageable and 32 per cent said that the activities were assigned to them without considering time. 37 per cent of the respondents reflected that lack of basic amenities

provided to them in the school hinder their activities and performance.

**REFLECTION OF STUDENT-TEACHERS  
ABOUT SCHOOL INTERNSHIP  
PROGRAMME WITH RESPECT TO THE  
TYPE OF MANAGEMENT**

To compare the reflection of student teachers from government and unaided institutions about the school internship programmes, they have undergone, investigator

first calculated the percentages of agreement and disagreement responses given by the government and unaided student teachers for each statement. To find the significance difference between their reflections based on type of management, t value of proportions were calculated separately. The analysis of the data based on type of management is presented in the Table 2 below.

**Table 2**  
**Response of Student-teachers about the issues, Problems and Challenges they faced during the School Internship based on type of Management**

S. No.	Statement	Aided (N=134)		Unaided (N=166)		t-value
		Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	
1.	Faces inconvenience due to the long duration of internship	85.8	14.2	74.1	25.9	2.48**
2.	It is very difficult to prepare for both curricular and extra-curricular activities at a time	59.7	40.3	54.8	45.2	0.85
3.	Getting involved in school related activities along with teaching badly affects other things	41.0	59.0	36.7	63.3	0.76
4.	Hurdles in teaching affect other things prescribed in the course	44.0	56.0	26.5	73.5	3.17*
5.	Faces inconvenience from senior teachers who should themselves be mentors	50.0	50.0	15.1	84.9	6.51*

6.	Burdened with heavy workload at times	49.3	50.7	29.5	70.5	3.50*
7.	Had to face problems from students in the class while teaching	56.7	43.3	57.8	42.2	0.19
8.	Teachers working in the institutions show no care in preparing new methodology	31.3	68.7	37.3	62.7	1.08
9.	Teachers are generally lazy in duly analysing the lesson plan	29.1	70.9	19.9	80.1	1.85
10.	Frequent changes in learning media become problematic	45.5	54.5	36.1	63.9	1.65
11.	There is no enough time allotted for class room activities	56.7	43.3	31.9	68.1	4.31*
12.	Getting various responsibilities related to school becomes intolerable	38.1	61.9	16.3	83.7	4.27*
13.	Lacking basic necessities in school affects day to day affairs	47.0	53.0	29.5	70.5	3.11*
14.	Teachers scold even for silly things	29.9	70.1	15.1	84.9	3.09*
15.	Cannot manage teaching responsibly since there are so many other duties assigned as part of working in the school	32.8	67.2	7.8	92.2	5.49*
16.	Do not get enough time for yoga and journal works	57.5	42.5	61.4	38.6	0.68
17.	Do not even get basic facilities like restroom, dining area, toilet, etc.	38.8	61.2	24.7	75.3	2.62*
18.	Teachers become egotistical at even simple things	56.7	43.3	13.3	86.7	7.96*

19.	Teachers scold in front of other students	11.9	88.1	3.6	96.4	2.74*
20.	Give no directions to improve the ways of teaching	14.2	85.8	7.8	92.2	1.78
21.	Give less motivation, encouragement or appreciation	14.2	85.8	9.0	91.0	1.41
22.	Acts as if we are a burden to them	28.4	71.6	9.6	90.4	4.21*
23.	Attempts to make fun of in the presence of all the students if there is a problem concerning the entire class	11.9	88.1	2.4	97.6	3.28*
24.	Questioning from the staffrooms is common and is continuing	17.2	82.8	9.0	91.0	2.12**
25.	Allocate portions which are unmanageable in number	28.4	71.6	30.1	69.9	0.321
26.	Allocate portions without considering the time limit	31.3	68.7	33.7	66.3	0.44
27.	Generally feel mental stress, laziness and grief	40.3	59.7	44.6	55.4	0.74
28.	Often feels that teaching practice should somehow end very soon	53.0	47.0	34.3	65.7	3.25*

\* significant at 0.01 level\*\* significant at 0.05 level

From Table 1, it is clear that there exist a significant difference in percentage of agreement of aided and unaided student teacher for following situations, faces inconvenience due to the long duration of study activities ( $t=2.48$ ), hurdles in teaching affect other things prescribed in the course ( $t=3.17$ ), faces inconvenience from senior teachers who should

themselves be mentors ( $t=6.51$ ), burdened with heavy workload at times ( $t=3.50$ ), there is no enough time allotted for class room activities ( $t=4.31$ ), getting various responsibilities related to school becomes intolerable ( $t=4.21$ ), lacking basic necessities in school affects day to day affairs ( $t=3.11$ ), teachers scold even for silly things ( $t=3.09$ ),

Cannot manage teaching responsibly since there are so many other duties assigned as part of working in the school ( $t=5.49$ ), do not even get basic facilities like restroom, dining area, toilet, etc., ( $t=2.62$ ), teachers become egotistical at even simple things ( $t=7.96$ ), teachers scold in front of other students ( $t=2.74$ ), Acts as, we are a burden to them ( $t=4.21$ ), attempts to make fun of in the presence of all the students if there is a problem concerning the entire class ( $t=3.28$ ), questioning from the staffrooms is common and is continuing ( $t=2.12$ ), and often feels that teaching practice should somehow end very soon ( $t=3.25$ ).

Interestingly in all these statements, the reflection of student teachers from aided institutions are seems to be more in the scale of agreement. This shows that, the difficulties, challenges and issues faced by student teachers from

aided institutions are significantly higher than that from unaided institutions.

### REFLECTION OF STUDENT-TEACHERS ABOUT SCHOOL INTERNSHIP

#### PROGRAMME WITH RESPECT TO SUBJECT OF SPECIALISATION

To compare the reflection of student teachers about the school internship programmes, they have undergone, investigator first calculated the percentages of agreement and disagreement responses given by the student teachers with science and humanities specialisation for each statement. To find the significance difference between their reflections based on subject specialisation,  $t$  value of proportions were calculated separately. The analysis of the data based on subject specialisation is presented in the Table 3 below.

**Table 3**  
**Response of Student-teachers about the Issues, Problems and Challenges they faced during the School Internship based on Subject Specialisation**

S. No.	Statement	Science (N=167)		Humanities (N=133)		t-value
		Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	
1.	Faces inconvenience due to the long duration of internship	80.8	19.2	77.4	22.6	0.72
2.	It is very difficult to prepare for both curricular and extra-curricular activities at a time	61.7	38.3	51.1	48.9	1.84
3.	Getting involved in school related activities along with teaching badly affects other things	31.7	68.3	47.4	52.6	2.77*



4.	Hurdles in teaching affect other things prescribed in the course	26.3	73.7	44.4	55.6	3.28*
5.	Faces inconvenience from senior teachers who should themselves be mentors	26.3	73.7	36.1	63.9	1.82
6.	Burdened with heavy workload at times	38.9	61.1	37.6	62.4	0.23
7.	Had to face problems from students in the class while teaching	55.1	44.9	60.2	39.8	0.88
8.	Teachers working in the institutions show no care in preparing new methodology	26.9	73.1	44.4	55.6	3.16*
9.	Teachers are generally lazy in duly analysing the lesson plan	22.2	77.8	26.3	73.7	0.82
10.	Frequent changes in learning media become problematic	32.3	67.7	50.4	49.6	3.17*
11.	There is no enough time allotted for class room activities	46.1	53.9	39.1	60.9	1.21
12.	Getting various responsibilities related to school becomes intolerable	24.0	76.0	28.6	71.4	0.90
13.	Lacking basic necessities in school affects day to day affairs	35.9	64.1	39.1	60.9	0.56
14.	Teachers scold even for silly things	24.6	75.4	18.0	82.0	1.37
15.	Cannot manage teaching responsibly since there are so many other duties assigned as part of working in the school	10.8	89.2	29.3	70.7	4.05*
16.	Do not get enough time for yoga and journal works	64.7	35.3	53.4	46.6	1.98**
17.	Do not even get basic facilities like restroom, dining area, toilet, etc	22.2	77.8	42.1	57.9	3.70*

18.	Teachers become egotistical at even simple things	26.3	73.7	40.6	59.4	2.62*
19.	Teachers scold in front of other students	6.6	93.4	8.3	91.7	0.56
20.	Give no directions to improve the ways of teaching	15.0	85.0	5.3	94.7	2.70*
21.	Give less motivation, encouragement or appreciation	13.8	86.2	8.3	91.7	1.49
22.	Acts as if we are a burden to them	16.2	83.8	20.3	79.7	0.91
23.	Attempts to make fun of in the presence of all the students if there is a problem concerning the entire class	2.4	97.6	12.0	88.0	3.31*
24.	Questioning from the staffrooms is common and is continuing	16.2	83.8	8.3	91.7	2.04**
25.	Allocate portions which are unmanageable in number	27.5	72.5	31.6	68.4	0.77
26.	Allocate portions without considering the time limit	35.3	64.7	29.3	70.7	1.10
27.	Generally feel mental stress, laziness and grief	44.3	55.7	40.6	59.4	0.64
28.	Often feels that teaching practice should somehow end very soon	35.9	64.1	51.1	48.9	2.64*

\* significant at 0.01 level\*\* significant at 0.05 level

Science and humanities student teacher shows a significant difference in percentage of agreement or disagreement for following statements—getting involved in school related activities along with teaching badly affects other things ( $t=2.77$ ), hurdles in teaching affect other things prescribed in the course ( $t=3.28$ ), frequent changes in learning media become problematic ( $t=3.17$ ),

cannot manage teaching responsibly since there are so many other duties assigned as part of working in the school ( $t=4.05$ ), do not get enough time for yoga and journal works ( $t=1.98$ ), do not even get basic facilities like restroom, dining area, toilet, etc., ( $t=3.70$ ), teachers become egotistical at even simple things ( $t=2.62$ ), give no directions to improve the ways of teaching ( $t=2.70$ ), attempts to

make fun of in the presence of all the students if there is a problem concerning the entire class ( $t=3.31$ ), questioning from the staffrooms is common and is continuing ( $t=2.04$ ), and often feels that teaching practice should somehow end very soon ( $t=2.64$ ).

From the table it can also be seen that, the maximum agreement towards the statements were shown by student teachers with humanities specialisation except for few statements. In the case of lack of support from mentor teachers, the difference is significant in favour of student teachers from science specialisation. Similar is the case with reflection towards the statements lack of time in yoga and journal writing and questioning from the staffroom. The result of this comparison shows that, student teachers with humanities specialisation have faced minimal problems during school internship.

## FINDINGS

The major findings of the present study are summarised below—

- Around 57 per cent of student teachers expressed their difficulty at preparing curricular and co-curricular activities together.
- In the case of managing students during classroom activities, more than 57 per cent agreed that, they faced lots of difficulty.
- Lack of time was an obstacle in organising yoga activities and preparing journals for around 60 per cent participants.
- Only less than 20 per cent opined that, the experienced teachers (mentor teachers) from the school were not helpful in motivating and supporting them.
- More than 30 per cent felt that the some of the activities given to them were unmanageable due to time constraints.
- 37 per cent pointed out that lack of basic amenities provided to them in the school hinder their activities and performance.
- More than three quarters (79%) of the student teachers agree that longer duration of the school internship programme created inconvenience to them.
- Study found significant difference in the reflection of student teachers based on type of management. Towards all those items which show significant difference the agreement towards issues, challenges and problems during school internship of student teachers from aided institutions are significantly higher than those from unaided Institutions.
- Study found significant difference in the reflection of student teachers based on subject of specialisation. In most of the cases, the agreement towards issues, challenges and problems during school internship of student teachers with humanities specialisation are significantly higher than those with science specialisation.

## DISCUSSION

Providing ample opportunities to the student teachers to practice and gain exposure of various kinds from a real school situation can be considered as a crucial phase of any pre-service teacher preparation programme. By recommending a longer duration teacher preparation programme with increased internship, Justice Verma Commission (2012), has send a message to the education community the need of providing a real hands on field on experience to the prospective teachers. The result emerged from the present study needs to be discussed in this perspective. It has been seen that lack of time as a constrain in organisation of many activities both curricular and co curricular as reflected by some students. Whether this happens due to lack of time or due to absence of planning? Student teachers are placed in the school for almost 4 months. That means, it may not be the issue of lack of time instead it of course will be the issue of judicial use of time. The other major issues reflected by majority of the students are related with planning of curricular and co-curricular activities together, managing students during classroom teaching, amenities provided in the school are not sufficient, etc. These issues were there earlier during the shorter version of school internship also. This indicates that, the basic issue is not of duration but it is something else. Here, comes the role of proper planning and organisation of school internship programme. As

mentioned earlier, what is required is a systematic planning and judicial use of the time. The findings also reveal that almost 80 per cent of the respondents opined that the longer duration of school internship has been an inconvenience for them. This opinion may be the result of improper planning and organisation of school internship programme. The study also reveals that the reflections of student's teachers from aided institutions were against the duration of school internship and their issues and problems were significantly higher than those from unaided institutions. This is an indication that, the unaided institutions shows more interest in planning and organising school internship activities.

## CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study reflects that, merely increasing the duration of school internship has no use unless it is organised in a systematic way. It is not the matter of sending student teacher to a particular school for four months. What's more important is the kind of experience they acquire during that period. Teachers being the one of the important resources responsible for quality education, the preparation of teachers also require utmost care and importance. It is in this context, the Universities and teacher education institutions needs to prepare effective and feasible guidelines for the organisation of the school internship programmes. The guidelines could

include the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders, different activities to be organised at institution level and school level, orientation to the stakeholders, assessment of student teachers, etc.

### REFERENCES

- JUSTICE VERMA COMMITTEE REPORT (VOL. I). 2012. Ministry of Human Resource Development of India, New Delhi. Retrieved from <http://www.teindia.nic.in/files/TE-India-Report/JVC-vol-1pdf>.
- MINISTRY OF HUMAN RESOURCE AND DEVELOPMENT. 1986. National Policy on Education. Government. of India. New Delhi
- NCTE. 2009. *National Curriculum Framework for Teacher education: Towards preparing professional and humane teachers*. New Delhi, National Council for Teacher Education.
- . 2014. National Council of Teacher Education Regulations, 2014.

Form IV (See Rule 8)

**THE JOURNAL OF INDIAN EDUCATION**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. Place of Publication   | National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT)   |
| 2. Periodicity of Publication   | Quarterly   |
| 3. Printer's Name<br>(Whether citizen of India?)<br>(If foreigner, state the country of origin)<br>Address                                      | Chander Mohan<br>Yes<br>Not applicable<br>Proprietor : Gita Offset Printer<br>C-90, Okhla Industrial Area<br>Phase II, New Delhi 110 020                          |
| 4. Publisher's Name<br>(Whether citizen of India?)<br>(If foreigner, state the country of origin)<br>Address                                    | Peyyeti Rajakumar<br>Yes<br>Not applicable<br>Head, Publication Division, NCERT<br>Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi<br>110 016                                       |
| 5. Editor's Name<br>(Whether citizen of India?)<br>(If foreigner, state the country of origin)<br>Address                                       | Raj Rani<br>Yes<br>Not applicable<br>Academic Editor (JIE), DTEE,<br>NCERT, New Delhi 110 016   |
| 6. Names and addresses of the individuals who own the newspaper and partner or shareholders holding more than one per cent of the total capital | National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi<br>(An autonomous body of the Government of India in the Ministry of Human Resource Development) |

I, Peyyeti Rajakumar, hereby declare that the particulars given above are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

**Publisher**

---

---

### **GUIDELINES FOR CONTRIBUTORS**

Original manuscripts of the articles must be sent in English, typed in Times New Roman - 12pt., double space, on one side of A-4 paper with sufficient margins, to

The Academic Editor  
Journal of Indian Education  
Department of Teacher Education, NCERT  
Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi 110016  
E-mail: journals.ncert.dte@gmail.com  
dtee1999@rediffmail.com

The articles must be submitted in both soft (CD or E-mail) and hard copy format.

An abstract of the paper in not more than 150 words must be sent with each manuscript.

Diagram or line drawings must be supplied separately, numbered neatly for identification and their position in the text clearly indicated. Tables may be given as part of the text.

References need to be listed at the end of the article, in alphabetical order, as follows:

LANNIER, J. AND J. LITTLE. 1986. Research on Teacher Education. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. 3rd ed. Macmillan, New York.

NARAYAN, JAYANTHI AND M. AJIT. 1991. Development of Skills in a Mentally Retarded Child: The Effect of Home Training. *Indian Educational Review*. Vol. 28, No. 3. pp. 29-41.

---

---

**Revised Rates of NCERT Educational Journals**  
(w.e.f. 1.1.2009)

<b>Title</b>	<b>Single Copy</b>	<b>Annual Subscription</b>
<b><i>School Science</i></b> A Quarterly Journal for Secondary Schools	₹ 55.00	₹ 220.00
<b><i>Indian Educational Review</i></b> A Half-Yearly Research Journal	₹ 50.00	₹ 100.00
<b><i>Journal of Indian Education</i></b> A Quarterly Journal of Education	₹ 45.00	₹ 180.00
<b>भारतीय आधुनिक शिक्षा (त्रैमासिक)</b> (Bharatiya Adhunik Shiksha) A Quarterly Journal in Hindi	₹ 50.00	₹ 200.00
<b><i>Primary Teacher</i></b> A Quarterly Journal for Primary Teachers	₹ 65.00	₹ 260.00
<b>प्राथमिक शिक्षक (त्रैमासिक)</b> (Prathmik Shikshak) A Quarterly Journal in Hindi for Primary Teachers	₹ 65.00	₹ 260.00

**Subscriptions are invited from educationists, institutions, research scholars, teachers and students for the journals published by the NCERT.**

**For further enquiries, please write to :**

Chief Business Manager, Publication Division  
National Council of Educational Research and Training  
Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi 110016

E-mail: gg\_cbm@rediffmail.com, Phone: 011-26562708, Fax: 011-26851070

Published by the Head, Publication Division, National Council of Educational Research and Training, Sri Aurobindo Marg, New Delhi 110016 and printed at Saraswati Offset Printer (P) Ltd., A-5, Naraina Industrial Area, Phase-II, New Delhi 110028