

**PEDAGOGY, CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND
SOCIAL JUSTICE:**

**A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES IN HIMACHAL
PRADESH AND UTTAR PRADESH**

Dissertation Submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University

in partial fulfillment of requirements

for the award of the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

CHARUSHEEL TRIPATHI



Centre for Political Studies

School of Social Sciences

Jawaharlal Nehru University

New Delhi – 110067

September, 2021

RECOMMENDATION FORM FOR EVALUATION BY THE EXAMINER/S
(CERTIFICATE)

This is to certify that the thesis/dissertation titled “**Pedagogy, Citizenship Education and Social Justice: A Study of Educational Policies in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh**”, submitted by **Ms. Charusheel Tripathi**, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for award of degree of Ph.D. of Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, has not been previously submitted in part or in full for any other degree of this university or any other university/institution.

We recommend this thesis/dissertation be placed before the examiners for evaluation for the award of the degree of Ph.D.



Signature of the Supervisor:

Prof. Vidhu Verma

Date: 6th September, 2021

Signature of Dean/Chairperson:

Prof. Narender Kumar

Date: 7th September, 2021

Dedicated to my family:

Paa, Maa,

Anu, Tanu

and

Baby Godzilla

CONTENTS

	Page no.
List of Figures	iv - v
List of Tables	vi - viii
Abbreviations	ix - x
Acknowledgement	xi - xii
Introduction	1 - 26
Chapter I	
Beyond Archaic Educational Variables:	
Pedagogy and Quality of Education	27 - 66
Chapter II	
Pedagogy and National Educational Initiatives:	
An Imperative Shift from Ascriptive to Descriptive Domain	67 - 97
Chapter III	
The Underexplored, Yet Unassailable Bond:	
Pedagogy and Citizenship Education	98 - 126
Chapter IV	
Citizenship Education, Pedagogy and Capabilities:	
Understanding Social Justice in Education	127 - 148
Chapter V	
Research Methodology	149 - 161

Chapter VI

A Comparative Study of Pedagogy and Citizenship Education

in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh 162 – 253

Conclusion 254 - 276

Bibliography 277 - 291

Appendices

Appendix I 292

Appendix II 293

Appendix III 294 - 296

Annexures

Annexure I Rationale behind the Questions Selected 297 - 306

Annexure II Questionnaire for Teachers (Pedagogy) 307 - 313

Annexure III Questionnaire for Teachers (Citizenship Education) 314

Annexure IV Questionnaire for Students 315 - 317

Annexure V Questionnaire for Retired Teachers 318 – 323

Annexure VI Schools Surveyed in HP and UP 324 - 325

Annexure VII Few Glimpses of the Field Survey 326 - 329

List of Figures

Figure 1: A Model of Teacher's Thoughts and Actions by Christopher Clark and Penelope Peterson.....	34
Figure 2: Conceptual Framework of Pedagogy and its Constituents.....	37
Figure 3: A diagrammatic depiction of Paulo Freire's understanding of oppression and how to overcome it with the help of pedagogy of liberation.....	41
Figure 4: Project Monitoring Structure of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.....	89
Figure 5: The Inter-relationships between Citizenship Education, Pedagogy and Social Justice.....	119
Figure 6: The Triangulation of the Research Problem from Three Different Perspectives.....	152
Figure 7: The Formula for Calculating the Sample Size for a Finite Population of Teachers and Students.....	158
Figure 8: Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts, Tehsils and Schools.....	160
Figure 9: Map of Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts in Himachal Pradesh.....	165
Figure 10: Map of Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts in Uttar Pradesh.....	166
Figure 11: Phase-wise Depiction of the Fieldwork and Survey conducted by the Researcher.....	167
Figure 12a: Educational Qualification of Teachers in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh.....	170
Figure 12b: Pre-Service Training Received by Teachers of Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh.....	171
Figure 13a: Desirable Attributes of a Teacher.....	173
Figure 13b: Undesirable Attributes of a Teacher.....	175
Figure 13c: Appreciable Qualities of the Teacher as denoted by Students.....	177
Figure 13d: How do you identify your teacher?.....	180
Figure 14a: Foremost Duties or Responsibilities of a Teacher as perceived by teachers themselves.....	181
Figure 14b: Who is a Teacher? : Students' Responses.....	182
Figure 15a: Qualities of a Good Student: Responses of Teachers.....	184
Figure 15b: Undesirable Qualities in a Pupil: Responses of Teachers.....	185
Figure 15c: Qualities of a Good Student: Students' Responses.....	186
Figure 16a: Best Teaching Method According to Teachers.....	189

Figure 16b: Personal Teaching Style of Teachers	191
Figure 16c: Core Principles of Teaching: Responses of Teachers	193
Figure 16d: Why were you punished? : Responses by Students	200
Figure 17a: Reasons for Considering Resources as Inadequate or Inefficient: Responses by Teachers	206
Figure 17b: Resources that should be made available: Responses by Teachers	207
Figure 17c: Teaching Aid preferred the most in Classrooms: Responses by Teachers	209
Figure 17d: Teaching Aid used the most in Classrooms: Responses by Students	209
Figure 18a: Methods of Ensuring Classroom Discipline	212
Figure 18b: Lost Temper in Class	215
Figure 18c: Attributes of a Healthy Classroom Environment	217
Figure 19: Purpose of Exams: Responses by Teachers	225
Figure 20: Teachers' Level of Involvement in Curriculum Renewal Programmes	230
Figure 21: Reasons for Teachers Attrition or Leaving from Jobs	233
Figure 22a: Reasons for Underperformance by Educators: Responses by Teachers	241
Figure 22b: Which among the three is more important? : Responses by Teachers	242
Figure 23a: Qualities of a good and responsible citizen: Responses by Students	246
Figure 23b: Methods that can be employed for effective teaching of citizenship education	248
Figure 23c: What kind of curriculum would ensure better training of students to be good citizens?	250

List of Tables

Table 1: Repertoires of Dialogic Teaching as formulated by Robin Alexander.....	47
Table 2: World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs.....	54-55
Table 3: Computation of Education Development Index.....	63
Table 4: Relative Incidence of Different Types of Non-Teaching Duties of Teachers. Source: PROBE, 1998.....	86
Table 5a-5b: Teacher Indicators by Programme Evaluation Organization of Planning Commission, May 2010.....	90
Table 6: A Shift in the Practices and Perspectives on Teaching and Learning.....	91
Table 7: Descriptive Indicators of Pedagogy Selected from National Level Policies.....	95-96
Table 8: Values and Skills mentioned in Education for Peace Document (2006).....	123-125
Table 9: Number of Teachers, Students and Schools per District.....	158-159
Table 10: Educational Indicators in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh for Elementary Education (2015-2016).....	163-164
Table 11: Three Districts of Uttar Pradesh.....	166
Table 12: Three Districts of Himachal Pradesh.....	167
Table 13: Towns and Villages Surveyed by the Researcher.....	167-168
Table 14: Basic Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh.....	168-169
Table 15: Basic Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Himachal Pradesh.....	169
Table 16: Basic Profile of Students Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh.....	170
Table 17: Qualities of Teachers Disliked by the Student.....	178-179
Table 18: Duties of a Student: Responses of Students in Percentage.....	187
Table 19a: Number of Teaching Methods Known to the Educators.....	187-188
Table 19b: Is Rote Learning Beneficial?.....	190
Table 19c: Change in One's Personal Teaching Style.....	192

Table 19d: Allocation of Time within the Classroom.....	194
Table 19e: How do teachers respond to certain situations?.....	196-198
Table 19f: Have you ever been punished?: Responses by Students.....	198
Table 19g: What was the punishment you received?	201
Table 19h: Techniques for Ensuring Maximum Participation of Pupils in Class.....	201-202
Table 19i: Noticeable Flaws in the Teaching Mechanisms of Colleagues: Responses by Teachers.....	203-204
Table 20a: How Efficient and Adequate are the Resources provided to the Teachers?.....	205
Table 20b: Shown movies/videos/audio-visual clips in the classroom?: Responses by Students.....	210
Table 21a: How would you define your classroom environment?.....	211
Table 21b: Best Method for Maintaining Discipline in the Class.....	211-212
Table 21c: Factors the Distract a Student.....	213-214
Table 21d: How often does your teacher lose temper or get angry?.....	215
Table 21e: Questions about Classroom Environment and Students' Responses to them.....	218
Table 21f: Questions about Likes and Dislikes about Studies in General: Student Responses.....	219-220
Table 22a: Do you engage in private tuitions? : Responses by Teachers.....	221
Table 22b: Why have private tuitions become so rampant? : Responses by Teachers.....	221
Table 22c: Students' Responses to Attending Tuitions.....	222
Table 22d: Students Responses to Who is Better: Class Teacher or Tuition Teacher?.....	223
Table 23: Students' Views on Exams.....	225-226
Table 24a: Teachers' Level of Participation in Non-teaching Activities.....	227-228
Table 24b: Effect of Participation in Non-curricular activities on Pedagogical Duties.....	228-229
Table 24c: Ratio of Involvement of Teachers in Curricular: Non-Curricular Activities.....	229
Table 24d: Number of Parent-Teacher Meetings Held (Annually).....	231
Table 25a: Ever thought of leaving your profession? Responses by Teachers in Percentage.....	231-232
Table 25b: Problems Related to Teaching as a Profession: Responses by Teachers.....	234-235

Table 25c: Satisfaction with Teaching as a Profession.....	236
Table 26a: Satisfaction with Syllabus and Associated Concerns.....	237-238
Table 26b: Class Strength and Pupil Teacher Ratio.....	238-239
Table 26c: Resolution of Conflicts between the Teaching Staff and School Administration.....	240
Table 26d: Is Teaching a Joyous or Serious Activity? : Responses by Teachers.....	241-242
Table 27a: Were you taught about citizenship education during training?.....	244
Table 27b: Qualities to inculcate in a child to assist him/her become a good citizen.....	244-245
Table 27c: Qualities inculcated in a Student to make him/her a Good Citizen.....	247
Table 27d: Five Benefits of Value Education: Responses by Teachers.....	251-252
Table 27e: Is the present syllabus responsible for inculcating values among pupils so that they can become productive and dutiful citizens?.....	252
Table 27f: Best Technique for Imparting Citizenship Education: Responses by Teachers.....	253
Table 28: I like my favourite subject because? : Responses by Students.....	275

ABBREVIATIONS

ABL	Ability Based Learning
ASER	Annual Status of Education Report
BRC	Block Resource Centre
CRC	Cluster Resource Centre
CK	Content Knowledge
DfID	Department for International Development
DIET	District Institute for Education and Training
EDI	Education Development Index
HP	Himachal Pradesh
PK	Pedagogical Knowledge
GPK	Generic Pedagogical Knowledge
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource and Development (now Ministry of Education)
NAS	National Achievement Survey
NCF	National Curriculum Framework
NCFTE	National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education
NCERT	National Council of Educational Research and Training
NEP / NPE	National Education Policy / National Policy of Education
NITI Aayog	National Institution for Transforming India
NUEPA	National University of Educational Planning and Administration
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PROBE	Public Report on Basic Education in India, 1999

QMT	Quality Monitoring Tools
RTE	Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2002
TT	Traditional Teaching
UDISE	Unified- District Information System for Education
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UP	Uttar Pradesh
WB	World Bank

Acknowledgement

The completion of this dissertation would not have been possible without the cooperation extended to me by a number of individuals, in different capacities, at different stages of dissertation writing, which made the entire journey memorable.

I would like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to my mentor and supervisor, Professor Vidhu Verma, Centre for Political Studies, Jawaharlal Nehru University, for her consistent guidance and invaluable support. Her critical insights encouraged me to dig deeper into the issues pertaining to pedagogy, citizenship education and their association with social justice and these discussions opened up new avenues for me to explore. I cannot explain through words how her presence provided me with reassurance in times of distress and doubts. Besides teaching me the fundamentals of research and dissertation writing, she taught me, in multiple ways, how to prevent one's emotional stress from overpowering oneself and how to challenge oneself into striving for something which one wouldn't have dreamt of achieving in the first place.

My sincerest regards are invariably extended to my parents. Despite turbulent times, they put up a brave face and this effort on their part infused in me an unrelenting willingness to study hard and gain further knowledge on the subject. My siblings, Kalrav and Divya ensured a positive working environment, by keeping in touch, sharing humourous anecdotes from time to time and continuously sending memes about the completion of the never-ending thesis. Besides my immediate family, there are some other significant persons whom I would like to thank, for their persistent curiosity in my endeavours, as this reminded me, from time to time, the importance of questioning what is happening around me. They assisted me in their respective capacities by either referring me local contacts from the places that had to be surveyed, enquiring about the best time to visit the schools in Himachal Pradesh especially, encouraging me to learn software skills e.g. Excel, that would come in handy while tabulating the data collected, helping me translate the questionnaires into Hindi language or simply checking up with me about the progress of my thesis writing and field work. These individuals were Anshul Sharma, Gaurika Chugh, Ma'am Taru Suri, Rizwana Ansari and Rishi Misra.

I would also like to thank Jawaharlal Nehru University and its Centre for Political Studies for giving me the opportunity of entering the esoteric and self-challenging world of academia. The

research environment provided by this university was healthy for open deliberation and self-development. The Central Library simplified the process of accessing books and journals and it promptly purchased books on request as well.

Last but not the least, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my laptop (popularly known as 'Dadaji' at home), which has been together with me since my Bachelors and I wanted to finish writing my PhD thesis with it. Thankfully, the dream was actualized, as both of us kept our ends of the bargain.

This dissertation writing assisted me in critically engaging with issues related to quality of education and social justice from the perspective of capability approach and I hope it will shine light upon some new avenues for creative research. We learn from our mistakes, and keeping my mind open to this thought, I hope that I will also learn from the errors I made, if any, while writing the thesis and I pray that this process will eventually polish my writing skills and research abilities.

New Delhi, 2021

Charusheel Tripathi

INTRODUCTION

In our rush to reform education, we have forgotten a simple truth: reform will never be achieved by renewing appropriations, restricting schools, rewriting curricula, and revising texts if we continue to demean and dishearten the human resource called the teacher on whom so much depends...if we fail to cherish—and challenge—the human heart that is the source of good teaching. (Palmer, 1998)¹

The 21st century has become a harbinger of some unconventional yet much needed modifications in the field of education. Beginning with the launch of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in 2002 i.e. a national flagship initiative directed towards universalization of elementary education in India, in a time bound manner, for all children belonging to the age group of 6-14 years; to the formulation of the National Curriculum Framework of 2005 by the National Council for Educational Research and Training; followed by the passage of the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act of 2009; and ultimately graduating with the latest development of the National Education Policy of 2020. Though there were a plethora of other national documents, policies and committees that were deliberated upon in this intervening period, these four initiatives became a custodian of the political agenda of the government towards education.

While all these milestones pledge to provide elementary education of a ‘satisfactory quality’, ‘good quality’ or ‘high-quality’², their respective connotations behind these terms have expanded considerably over the years. A huge jump can be witnessed from mere attainment of fundamental objectives like universal access, admission, retention and completion of elementary education, provisioning of adequate infrastructural amenities, bridging of gaps in gender and other social groups, to ‘a concern for quality of life’ (NCERT, 2005) and citizenship education i.e. to “develop among the students a deep sense of respect towards the Fundamental Duties and Constitutional values, bonding with one’s country, and a conscious awareness of one’s roles and responsibilities in a changing world” (MHRD, 2020). This does not in any way whatsoever, discount the fact that the preceding curriculum frameworks and committees, especially in the late 20th century, also

¹ This has been mentioned by Christopher Day in his 2004 work called *A Passion for Teaching* (London: Routledge Falmer).

² These terminologies have been borrowed directly from the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, the Right to Education Act and the National Education Policy, 2020, official documents.

hinted at these dimensions, but the correlation between quality education and value-based education, along with pedagogical concerns, became solidified in the later years. If we consider the four-fold contours of a ‘good education institution’, as laid down by the recently released National Education Policy of 2020, i.e. a classroom environment where every student feels ‘welcomed and cared for’; a space for safe and stimulated learning; a variety of learning activities and experiences; and accessibility to adequate infrastructural resources and teaching-learning materials; it is evident that the first three attributes are symbolic of a formidable pedagogical setup and student-teacher interaction. The logic behind such a construction is to ensure that educators take proactive steps to facilitate a joyful learning experience for their pupils, filled with active engagement in classroom activities and further urging them to use their critical reasoning capabilities for understanding concepts and resolving problems.

Though the terms ‘*quality education*’ and ‘*quality of education*’ are sometimes used interchangeably, their implications differ. The former comprises of a set of salient features that a national body or international agency decides upon as the parameters for either maintaining or upraising the standards of education. The latter, on the other hand, is concerned more with the criteria that are selected for evaluating the status of an education system by mapping its performance. It focuses on creating evaluation or measurement yardsticks, as opposed to the former where implementation is the larger concern e.g. if ensuring reading capacity and solving arithmetic problems is a determinant of quality education, then evaluation of the performance of pupils in foundational literacy and arithmetic skills, through nationwide tests, is the method of analyzing the respective objective and determining the quality of education at hand. The two terminologies are henceforth interrelated and also incomplete without one another. This symbiotic relationship will eventually become one of the inevitable frameworks for the research objective of this doctoral thesis, which will try to marry the two at an empirical study level.

Review of Literature

According to Dr. Krishna Kumar and Dr. Padma Sarangapani, discussion on quality of education is an ‘integral’ and ‘implicit’ part of the discourse on education and it became ubiquitous during the 1950s and 1960s. As deciphered by them, this term entailed two meanings i.e. an inherent property or “essential character” of a thing and the “superiority or rank of particular merchandise” (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004). Simultaneously, the human capital theory also

thrived during this period, making a case for neo-liberal reforms in order to maximize returns generating from education in terms of gainful employment and literate working force. Since decolonization had just taken place for various third world colonies, the colonial trajectory of education system continued for majority of these post-colonial societies. Following the footsteps of the ideological propaganda laid down by Thomas Babington Macaulay and J. S. Mill in the 19th century (primarily the former with reference to implementable colonial policies), from its inception during the 1854's Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, which talked about bureaucratic control of education system, accompanied by English as a medium of instruction, a centralized examination pattern and conformity to syllabus and textbooks prescribed by the colonial government, the emergent "textbook culture" and traditional modes of teaching like repetition, drilling and rote memorization, continued to exist and thrive in an environment which was designed to propel an agenda of a bureaucratic-centralized form of education system (Kumar, 2002). Inspired by Manheim's viewpoint of trying to dissect the objectives of education by studying its historical background or context, Kumar depicted how the status of the teachers had been reduced from autonomous decision makers in terms of "what was worth teaching and in deciding how to teach", to that of 'meek professional' 'dictators', who were powerless in terms of not only their freedom to decide the curriculum or the contents of textbooks, but also in other associated educational realms like inability to conduct examinations personally, regular inspections by officers with imminent threats of salary cuts, inadequate remuneration, and teaching in English rather than vernacular (Kumar, 1991).

Trying to understand the repercussions of all these detrimental forces on the education system, from a sociological viewpoint, Durkheim (1979) as quoted by Kumar and Sarangapani, lamented how a culture of authoritative teachers, passive learners and a teaching and learning process restricted to textbooks and examinations had become deeply rooted, and quality was articulated with reference to this circumscribed understanding of processes. With the goal of surpassing these loopholes, educationalists like Froebel, Pestalozzi, Montessori, Alfred Binet, John Dewey and Piaget, brought forth their respective 'progressive' conceptualizations of educational practices like no physical punishments, experiential learning within the classroom i.e. referring to real life problems adopted from the social milieu of the children, treatment of children as autonomous thinking agents and child-centric learning, where the participatory role of the learner was promoted. This last mentioned development was a result of a popular stream of thought i.e.

constructivism, and it was upheld over behaviourism for its breakaway from conventional pedagogy and assessment parameters based on predictable outcomes (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004). A comprehensive explanation about constructivism as a ‘psychological advance’ of 1960s was given by Krishna Kumar in an interview with Mukul Priyadarshini, where he defined it as an idea to bring the knowledge and experiences of children into the interactions between the teacher and student or among pupils themselves (Priyadarshini, 2014).

The late 1960s also bore testimony to the rise of critical pedagogy, born out of the political writings of a Brazilian philosopher, Paulo Freire. In *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1968), Freire laid down the foundations for *conscientizacao*, which meant learning to look for social, political and economic contradictions existing in the society and taking requisite action against oppressive powers and systems. He believed that it was difficult to free the oppressed as there was a “fear of freedom” not only among this social category, but also within the oppressors, as while the former was afraid to embrace a new form of living involving freedom of choice and opportunity, the latter was afraid of losing its power over the subordinated class. This fear was a result of the gradual process of dehumanization that occurred due to being constantly subdued.

Pedagogy, for Freire, became a tool for teachers i.e. revolutionary leaders, to convince their pupils i.e. the oppressed class, to realize the fact that they are equal as human beings to their oppressors and do not have to give in to their subordinated living and treatment. One important outcome of this rendition was that it challenged the “narration sickness” that had encapsulated teaching practices, where the educator is the narrating subject and the student is the object (Freire, 2000). Thus, because of this the student adopts the detrimental habit of repeating and mechanically memorizing the data that has been narrated, without any proper critical engagement. This is what Freire addresses as the “Banking concept of education” where the students were the depositories whose main tasks were to receive, file and store the data imparted to them by their depositors i.e. the teachers. Communication and reconciliation between the two parties, which are the two parameters of “problem-posing” education, were somewhere misplaced in this entire practice.

Of late, parallels have been drawn between the political writing of Freire, Giroux and Indian scholars like Krishna Kumar. While trying to decipher Kumar’s critical role, in the field of education, Mary Ann Chacko, during her conversation with Hongyu Wang, in her chapter on *Schooling as Counter-Socialization: Krishna Kumar’s Contributions to Curriculum*, hinted at a similarity that could be drawn between Krishna Kumar’s argument for utilizing schools and

curriculums as spaces for ‘counter-socialization’, and Freire’s necessity of transitioning from ‘banking education’ to ‘problem-posing’ education (1970) and Giroux’s assertion for ‘radical pedagogy’ (1981) (Pinar, 2015). She believed that like these Western philosophers, Kumar’s faith also lied in transforming the quality of life of the students by inducing changes in the schooling processes of teaching and learning.

In contrast to the aforementioned understanding of the schooling processes and determination of quality, Jaap Scheerens in *Perspectives on Educational Quality: Illustrative Outcomes on Primary and Secondary Schooling in the Netherlands* (2011), talked about a system model for determining quality of education, which was surprisingly akin to David Easton’s systems or ‘black-box’ model of 1953. Scheerens conceptualized education as a ‘production process’ which transformed inputs into outputs, and he used this as an objective yardstick for determining quality, as it would be easily captured through scientific methods and would simplify the process of improving teaching and learning methods and resources, through planned changes. This theory was one step ahead of the previous input-output models, as processes were given equal weightage, in terms of “the resources that teachers draw upon to organize their practice and in cultural factors beliefs of teachers and community” (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004).

While considering the *Quality Agendas* set by the Dutch government to determine the quality of education at the primary, secondary and vocational and/or adult education levels, Scheerens depicted how performance of students in language and arithmetic achievement tests was the fundamental criteria. This was accompanied by strategies like monitoring by Educational Inspectorate and ranking schools as either regular, weak or very weak. Despite having a system of Inspectorate, these schools were “quite autonomous” and “determine quality targets and norms as well as the way in which these are to be measured and assessed” (Scheerens, Luyten, & Ravens, 2011).

Besides this, in *Benchmarking the Quality of Education*, Jaap Scheerens & Maria Hendriks, talked about the six perspectives on determining educational quality and these were: -

- i. Productivity view: - The success of an educational system is dependent upon the attainment and achievement of the prospective outputs or outcomes.
- ii. Instrumental-Effectiveness view: - An extension of productivity view, this perspective focuses on the effect of context, inputs and process indicators on the outcomes.

- iii. Adaptation view: - Focuses on the critical analysis of the educational goals i.e. how to do the right things?
- iv. Equity view: - Analyzing inputs, processes and outcomes for their equal or fair distribution among the primary stakeholders.
- v. Efficiency view: - Trying to decipher quality by focusing on processes and inputs that yield “the highest possible outcomes at the lowest possible costs.” (Scheerens & Hendriks, n.d.)
- vi. Disjointed view: - Consider each variable or element on its own and see how it scores or performs individually without being related to any other variable.³ This was the most popularly used perspective but its nature was quite ‘arbitrary’.

While this six-fold methodological segregation was able to provide a holistic understanding of the different forms of research possibilities available in the field of determination of educational quality, the pervasiveness of ‘productivity’ and ‘disjointed’ approach, or obsession with the ‘black-box’ model, was cumulatively the resultant of an ‘empirical myopia’ (as highlighted by Robin Alexander), and this was inevitably a prominent area of contention. Kumar and Sarangapani, criticized the ‘black box’ on the grounds that it only focused on inputs and outputs, in terms of resources put into the system and the outcomes achieved with reference to the performance level of students in tests e.g. PISA. This fixation with the correlation between quality and outcomes could not be undone by the various nationwide surveys conducted in India e.g. Annual Status of Education Report, Quality Monitoring Tools and National Achievement Survey of NCERT. To ensure that conceptions of educational quality were attentive towards the intrinsic features of the teaching and learning processes, these resource persons advocated propagation of sociological studies like those of Pierre Bourdieu, Basil Bernstein and Michael Apple, as these philosophical works “opened the black box of the school to look into the classroom, at pedagogic relations, the symbolic character of school knowledge, and the deeper effects of institutional culture” (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004).

³ Based on these bifurcations, it is not hard to comment that this doctoral thesis will try to abide by a combination of two views i.e. productivity and disjointed. It will try to do so by focusing on the prospective goals laid down by the governmental institutions regarding pedagogical processes and then try to rate their performance and accompanying outcomes on the receptors i.e. the students. This will be further elaborated in the latter sections of the introduction.

Another renowned academician who challenged this circumscribed understanding of quality of education was Robin Alexander. In his work, *Culture and Pedagogy: International Comparisons in Primary Education* (2000), Alexander tried to understand the teaching and learning processes within the context of culture and policies of the respective nations. The field work for this study was conducted by him from 1994 to 1998, in the area of primary education in England, France, Russia, USA and India, almost the same time when the PROBE report survey was conducted within India. A commonality between the two was their intent to focus on processes of education rather than the traditional input-output model. The point where Alexander's methodology surpassed the PROBE report of 1998 was its ability to do an empirical study of teaching along with the ideas, debates and values that inform it and to link the micro with the macro i.e. try to understand the classroom interactions between the teacher and students and other multifarious activities of the classroom, within the context of the national policies and curriculum. This, he envisaged as the foremost strategy for conducting researches on comparative education.

Challenging the restrictive notions of quality, as expounded in the Global Monitoring Reports, OECD reports, Education for All Campaigns and their associated conferences e.g. Jomtien, Dakar etc. held by international organizations like UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNFPA and World Bank, Alexander made a case for how pedagogy should be an indelible part of the generic conceptualization of quality. He defined pedagogy as "the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it." He mentioned that for teaching to be transitioned into pedagogy, it had to be considered as an activity which was comprised of four elements i.e. students, their learning, the planning and execution of teaching practices and the curriculum; placed within a particular context i.e. a school system and the policies of the respective government running at the time; and lastly, to understand how teaching as a value laden activity could be determined by locating it in the culture i.e. idea of the self and history (Alexander, 2004). This particular understanding of pedagogy holds unparalleled importance as it has been adopted as the basis for formulating the questionnaires for the stakeholders of education i.e. teachers and students, and for conducting the empirical part of the doctoral thesis at hand.

What can be gathered from the discussion above is that all these research luminaries were extremely baffled by the fact that the parameters designed to conceptualize 'quality education' and the researches and surveys dealing with 'quality of education' were deficient in addressing the real or integral aspects of schooling. From the first systematic discussion on quality as a "master

concept” i.e. J.P. Naik’s seminal work on *Equality, Quality and Quantity* (1975), which talked about analyzing the means and ends of education, its capacity or provisioning, performance and its measurement, efficiency and ‘comprehensive evaluation’ from every possible angle, to contemporaries like Christopher Winch, who capitalized upon the notion of accountability, aims of education as a complex activity, curriculum, pedagogical practices and standards for measuring outcomes (Sarangapani, 2018), and Robin Alexander, whose conceptualization of quality was based upon pedagogical exchanges and processes, or Krishna Kumar’s concern that informed planning can only occur with inclusion of studies on classroom pedagogy (Kumar, 2002) and curriculum interlinked to the social milieu of the community being taught (Kumar, 1991), the quality debate overall underwent a significant remodeling. Both Sarangapani and Alexander almost synonymously mentioned two discoveries: firstly, that the programmes trying to quantify and measure quality were either focused on the achievement levels of the students in standardized tests or the availability of infrastructural amenities and teaching learning materials in schools, and secondly, that indicators and measures were required to address other dimension of quality as well. For Sarangapani specifically, these areas were: aims of education, capacity or provisioning, curriculum, standards and achievements, pedagogy and lastly, accountability.

The traditional, parochialized perceptive of quality, which has been thwarted by multifarious Western and Eastern scholars alike, as depicted in the preceding paragraphs, can be seen especially in the context of educational planning and statistics collection in India. If we consider the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017), which was officially the last plan to be formulated by the Planning Commission, before being replaced by NITI Aayog in 2015, we find that despite its claim of shifting the governmental strategy from inputs and universal access, enrolment and retention to teaching-learning processes, in order to facilitate the primary objective of augmenting learning outcomes of pupils, the plan ended up in proliferating targets like improved access, attendance, decreased drop-out rates, increased enrolments at secondary level, raised literacy rates and better learning outcomes. Quality, which was perceived by this document as incremental changes in “physical space, textual materials, classroom processes, academic support to the teachers, assessment procedures and community involvement”, was rendered futile after streaming through its six official five-yearly targets. Though the plan did recognize the “weak teaching processes and transactions between teachers and learners that are neither child-friendly nor adopt child-centred approach to curriculum”, as one of the principal concerns affecting quality of education, and it

even defined quality of education as a concept comprising of six aspects i.e. curriculum and learning objectives, provisioning of teaching-learning materials, pedagogical processes, frameworks for classroom assessment, teacher support in the classrooms, and development of school leadership and management (Planning Commission, 2013), yet all this was directed towards improvement of learning outcomes, which would eventually ensure increased human capital and inclusive growth within the nation. This is clearly visible in this quotation borrowed from the official document that tries to link achievement of learning outcomes as a source of motivation for teachers and also the reason behind their training for better content and pedagogical knowledge: -

Teachers need to be adequately prepared to deal with the realities of their schools. In many areas, particularly rural areas, there are multi-age, multi-grade and multi-ability classrooms. This would require special competencies amongst teachers to not only have the necessary subject knowledge, but a repertoire of pedagogical approaches and techniques that help them to teach effectively to improve learning outcomes for a diverse group of children. For improving teacher competence, quality of teacher training and the rigor of teaching certification have to be considerably enhanced. Motivating teachers is more difficult. Teachers usually get motivated when they are supported to achieve attainable learning goals for their students, and are recognised and rewarded for the same. (Planning Commission, 2013)

To understand these debates around the inclusion of pedagogy as a measurable variable of quality, in collaboration with the educational goal of training and nurturing the young minds of the citizens in making i.e. the students, this thesis will review the performance of some of these teaching related variables, by taking elementary education and schools as the cases for the study. Before delving into the research objectives and methodologies of this doctoral thesis, a brief outline of the education system in India along with the accompanying planning and policy making will be discussed in the ensuing section of this introduction.

Education and its Political Dimensions

According to Amartya Sen and Jean Dreze (1995), “basic education is a *political issue* and attribute the poor enrollment ratio in primary education to limitation in educational policy, a shortage of education expenditure, poor school management in rural areas and the neglect of girls’ education” (Rao, Pearson, Cheng, & Taplin, 2013). A crucial take away from this statement is the denotation of education as a political concern, as being on the concurrent list of subjects, it is inevitably governed by public policies that are formulated under various regimes to uplift it and secure the pre-determined goals.

While delving into the discourse on what does political theory entail, Rajeev Bhargava in his renowned article, *What is Political Theory?* (2008), envisaged that political theory dealt with what and how decisions were made concerning the good-life of the community; how certain groups were excluded from decision making; a study of the institutions of the state, through which the state exercised its power; and, the values, on the basis of which, a particular community governed its life. In concurrence to this understanding of political, education can be attributed as a political enterprise and phenomenon, as it stands at a pedestal determining the normative principles that are deemed to be suitable for imparting to the future citizens of a nation. The National Education Policy of 2020, formulated by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, attributed education as having the capacity to develop an equitable and just society, propel economic growth and scientific advancement, and acculturate values to sustain national integration and cultural preservation. This policy was formulated in such a way that it would facilitate the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goal of ensuring “inclusive and equitable quality education” and promoting “lifelong learning opportunities for all”, by 2030. Thus, this was reflective of the decision making concerning the good-life of the community as well as in determining the values on the basis of which the citizens of a nation should conduct themselves, communicate and interact with one another.

The political dimension of education can therefore be encapsulated in the fourth aspect of political theory, highlighted in the definition above, i.e. values governing the life of a particular community. Since independence, various national education policies and committee reports and commissions’ recommendations⁴, have conceptualized the idea of creating an education system

⁴ These policies, reports, and initiatives have been discussed in detail in Chapter II and III dealing with national educational policies and initiatives for citizenship education, respectively.

which obsesses on development of good and responsible citizens, capable of rational and impartial thinking, creativity, empathy, punctuality, respect for diversity and elders, helpfulness, compassion and many such values. These values would eventually produce, “engaged, productive, and contributing citizens for building an equitable, inclusive, and plural society as envisaged by our Constitution” (MHRD, 2020). Thus, the formulation of a curriculum encompassing references to the preamble, fundamental rights and duties and other constitutional values, and establishing a teacher education and training set up for ingraining in them the skills to ensure that these values are duly imparted among the pupils during classroom interactions, is representative of the political nature of education as a system.

Besides this, Dr. Krishna Kumar (1986, 1991), while discussing the political agenda of education throughout the colonial and nationalist period, reasoned how the decision making done with reference to formulation of curriculum, contents of textbooks and pedagogical techniques or methods, was highly circumscribed and parochialized, as the primary stakeholders i.e. teachers, were not consulted or represented in the meetings. From setting up the objectives behind the functioning of such institutions, to controlling their internal processes and resources, the enterprise robbed the indigenous teaching faculty and learners, of their will to decide what to teach and how to teach and to be curious and pose questions, respectively. A truly representative decision making body was missing from the site, when viewed from a political lens.

Lastly, the political nature of education and its units or stakeholders, can also be ascertained with the help of question on rights and the institutions and initiatives planned to facilitate them. Rights and correlative duties are an essential component of the political domain of a community, and are often enshrined in the constitutions of nations or their statutory laws. The inclusion of the right of elementary education, for children belonging in the age group of 6 to 14 years, in the constitution, under article 21 A, by the 86th constitutional amendment of 2002, gave provision of education, the status of a fundamental right. Apart from this, the same amendment also provided for the inclusion of a separate fundamental duty for citizens, to provide opportunities for educating one’s ward or child between the age group 6-14 years. Thus, the whole idea of education as a *public service* and a *basic right* of every child (MHRD, 2020), along with the multifarious policies and bodies designed to ensure its implementation and achievement, gave it a political outlook.

Thus, the embeddedness of education as a political concern is visible in these three discourses i.e. decision making concerning the good-life of a community, values pertaining to the life of a particular community and the question of rights and public policies formulated for their accomplishment.

Educational Development in India: An Overview

A holistic framework for classifying the contemporary education system in India, was the one which was laid down by the British Council, which depicted the diversification through three categories i.e. levels of education (pre-primary, primary, upper primary, secondary, senior secondary, higher and adult education); ownership of school or educational institutes (government, government-aided and private); and lastly, through educational boards affiliations (ICSE, CBSE, State Boards and International Boards) (Parruck Chanda & Ghosh, 2014). In terms of levels of education, a ubiquitous category is “elementary education” i.e. a combination of primary (class I-V) and upper-primary levels (class VI-VIII). Majority of the statutes, schemes and other policy interventions, in the field of education, accrue to this level i.e. for children belonging to the age group of 6 to 14 years e.g. the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan of 2002, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009. As aptly denoted by the XII Five Year Plan (2012-2017), elementary education forms the foundation of the education pyramid in the country and unless it is strengthened, the goal of quality education for all will be a distant dream. It is for this reason that the education policies taken for this doctoral research, including the two mentioned above, are those which are implemented nation-wide and make special reference to elementary education in some way or the other.

At this point, it’s imperative to decode the meaning of an education programme. According to the Indian Standard Classification of Education (InSCED), 2014, an ‘educational programme’ is defined as a logical set of activities that are formulated and arranged to achieve some pre-determined learning objectives over a sustained time period. Any educational programme, be it national or international, is designed by variables which are deemed realizable and achievable. While talking about the rise of “textbook culture” and bureaucratic control over the education system, during the colonial history of India, Dr. Krishna Kumar, in one of his lectures entitled *Textbooks and Educational Culture*, lamented how the Wood’s Despatch of 1854 tried to acculturate Indian children and adolescents in “European attitudes and perception”, through an

education system characterized by English as the medium of instruction, centralized examination patterns and bureaucratic control over schooling in all its aspects i.e. syllabus and teacher training. In order to prevent itself from jeopardizing its long term commercial interests of trading in India, the colonizers began investing in schooling, so that they could produce cheap labour as well as garner the support of the dominant elite sections of India society (Kumar, 1991). Thomas Babington Macaulay, in his *Minute on Education* (1835), while advocating education for the governed masses, infamously said that the sole purpose of this enterprise in the colony would be “to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons Indian in blood and color, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect.” Besides this logic behind educating the subjects, thinkers like J.S. Mill, went on to challenge the innate barbarianism of such communities and how despotism was a “legitimate mode of government” for such societies. He furthered this argument by saying that, “The conquered have to be governed by despotism, a mode of government..... as legitimate as any other, if it is the one which in the existing state of civilization of the subject people, most facilitates their transition to a higher stage of improvement' - not only that, 'such is the ideal rule of a free people over a barbarous or semi-barbarous one' (Jahn, 2005). In order to legitimize the latter claim, almost stealthily, and also realizing that this rationale won't hold its ground for long, the colonial rule utilized education as a systematic political approach to establish a strong foothold over the colony.

One of the popular debates that underlined the initial stages of colonial rule in India, with respect to development of education, was Orientalists versus Anglicists. While the former envisaged principles like use of vernaculars, and establishing education on the grand Indian philosophical traditions and religious teachings, the latter propagated practices like introduction of English language, science subjects (a hoax in reality), disposing of social evils like Sati, polygamy, child-marriage, dowry, infanticide etc. and building a reformed education system based on progressive European ideals. Kumar argued that these two forces worked in tandem as the vast body of research produced by the Orientalists about the native Indian society, its culture, history, language and literature was used by the Anglicists to attack the very native culture (Kumar, 1991). Though initially, the Anglicists along with the Evangelicals, who believed that religious conversion of Indians would cure all social injustices prevalent in the society, thrived within the colony, starting from the Charter Act of 1813 (Ghosh, 2015), by the inception of 20th century, a

different course of events started occurring. Nationalists' agendas on prospective educational programmes started proliferating.

Realizing the inadequacy of the British educational agenda to address the concerns of resonating with the culture of the people of India, Rabindranath Tagore founded Shantiniketan in 1901. He considered freedom of the mind to be the primary object of education (Batra, 2015). He believed that pursuing knowledge through science was in actuality the pursuit of truth through objective enquiry, and this was the reason behind the material progress in Europe, but this faith went bankrupt with the ensuing freedom struggle (Kumar, 1991). He later realized that being taught and trained in a foreign language was inhibiting the mind of an Indian child from becoming liberated or having adequate spaces for exercising their curiousness.

The ineffectiveness of colonial education was brought to limelight by another Indian luminary i.e. Mahatma Gandhi, and as an alternative he proposed a plan for Basic Education, also known as *Nai Talim* or Wardha Scheme of Basic Education (1937). The novelty brought forth in this scheme was to educate children in their mother-tongue and develop a craft related skill like weaving, spinning, home-science, pottery making etc. According to Neeladri Bhattacharya, this was where Tagore's idea of *lok shiksha* or popular education, deviated from Gandhi's basic education, as Tagore was unwilling to sacrifice artistic creativity for productivity oriented education (Batra, 2015). Gandhi's model of education was inspired by his experiments and experiences in Phoenix and Tolstoy farms of South Africa and was based on the logic of financial self-sufficiency which would prevent schools from becoming dependent upon the state and would henceforth guarantee their autonomy (Kumar, 1991). Krishna Kumar argued that: -

The pedagogy he advocated was deeply reflective of the ideal he wanted education to pursue—that of the economically useful and socially committed citizen—and this was supposed to contribute towards the realization of Gandhi's ultimate social ideal of a nation capable of sustaining its population in modest prosperity and governing itself without the help of the state's coercive force.

Furthermore, Gandhi also challenged the pervasive textbook and examination culture of the colonial era as it resulted in the complete subordination of the teacher. He wrote in an article in his newspaper, the Harijan, that a teacher who teaches through textbooks alone “does not import originality to his pupils.” These suggestions were sidelined by the National Planning Committee

of Congress (1938), on grounds of too much focus on vocational education as such a tender age of a child's psycho-physiological development and spiritual wellbeing that it was almost synonymous with child labour (Kumar, 1991).

In the post-independence period, the first major milestone in the field of education was the setting up of the National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in 1961, which later went on to become an advisory body to the Ministry of Human Resource and Development, now known as the Ministry of Education, under NEP 2020. It was the apex institution set up for undertaking researches in varied aspects of schooling, preparing and publishing model textbooks and curriculums, organizing pre-service and in-service training of teachers and developing novel educational techniques and practices. The Nehruvian era, in which phase this body was also instituted, was popular for setting up institutes of excellence promoting advancements in the field of science and technology. This period foresaw the setting up of the Mudaliar Commission or the Secondary Education Commission of 1952, followed by the infamous Kothari Commission of 1964-1966, which culminated into the formulation of the first National Policy of Education of 1968. Thus, a series of educational policies were duly formulated from 1968 onwards, and some of them were supplemented by corresponding National Curriculum Frameworks.

With every successive initiative, there was a gradual shift that was witnessed from how 'quality education' was recognized and how the parameters for ascertaining 'quality of education' were narrowed down upon. Having been influenced and even dominated by the rhetoric set by international donor organizations like World Bank, International Monetary Fund, UNICEF, UNESCO etc., for a long period of time (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004), the criteria for determining quality had been reduced to variables which were easily quantifiable and commensurable. These factors were shallow as they were unable to address the deeper issues facing education like teaching-learning factors, pedagogical concerns, curriculum related problems and other assorted dimensions. There was an obsession with "*ascriptive*" domains of quality, rather than "*descriptive*"⁵ features which were more akin to processes, rather than skirting around them. But, after the launch of the National Curriculum Framework of 2005, the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009 and the Draft National Education Policy of 2006, at the national level, the connotation of quality education expanded tremendously. A gradual shift from

⁵ Chapter II of this thesis introduces the difference between *ascriptive* and *descriptive* features of quality of education.

access related concerns like enrollment, attendance, retention, admission, PTR, SCR, number and types of schools and teachers, availability of infrastructural provisions and basic schooling amenities, to “pedagogic processes” and “teacher quality and performance” (MHRD, 2016) was visible, at least at the discussion and conceptualization level. With the advent of the EFA conference, held in Muscat (2014), the triadic relationship between quality, professionalism in teachers and citizenship education was further acknowledged. This trend took its sweet time to emerge in the Indian context, but the Draft NEP of 2016, formulated under the tutelage of T.S.R. Subramanian, posed an direct query which vividly depicted its connection with citizenship education as well i.e. *What kind of citizens should emerge as an end product of the education system?* Thus, quality of education had overtime become a loaded concept in which pedagogical processes and aspects of citizenship education have become indelible contributors as well as determinants⁶. With the tilt towards learner-centric education pattern, the inquisitiveness about capability of teachers and students to realize and actualize their respective functionings, has gained significance. The processes within the classroom and its impact on the students, not in terms of performance levels of pupils (conventional approach), but rather, what their thoughts and opinions are about these practices (un-conventional approach), seems like the next viable option to understand pedagogy and citizenship education at a closer level. The question that henceforth arises is how should these be evaluated or investigated in order to map the performance of the *descriptive* indicators of ‘quality of education’?

Pedagogy, Citizenship Education and Social Justice

*Schooling is organized so that **educational policies, curriculum, and instruction** are interpreted and enacted by teachers. Teachers are the human point of contact with students. **All other influences on the quality of education are mediated by who the teacher is and what the teacher does.** Teachers have the potential for enhancing the quality of education by bringing life to curriculum and inspiring students to curiosity and self-directed learning. And teachers can also degrade the quality of education*

⁶ All these developments and interrelationships will be discussed in detail in the ensuing chapters, i.e. Chapter II and III.

through error, laziness, cruelty or incompetence. For better or worse, teachers determine the quality of education. (Clark, 1995)

The words highlighted in the above quotation provide a hyperlink to the crux of the objective and intent behind this doctoral thesis, but before delving into it straightaway, a discussion on the meaning and relationship among the three concepts used in the title is necessary. Since time immemorial, quality of education as an indicator, especially in India, has been enumerated by commensurable variables (*ascriptive*) like literacy rates, enrollment ratios, drop-out rates, gender parity ratios, pupil-teacher ratio, classroom-teacher ratio, vacancies, number and types of schools, students and teachers (urban/rural; government/private; trained/untrained; permanent/contractual; male/female; Gen/SC/ST/OBC), mean years of schooling, expected years of schooling, allocation of funds, parent-teacher interactions, availability of basic amenities like drinking water, blackboards and chalk/markers, toilet facilities, playgrounds, teaching-learning materials, mid-day meals, uniforms, books and stationeries etc. Post 1960s, the locus of educational research, in Western nations, shifted to the under-explored domain of teacher thinking and beliefs, and by 1980s and 1990s, pedagogy and its affiliated dimensions, became a burning sensation. Distinguished scholars like Lee Shulman, Christopher Day, Christopher Clark, Prema Clarke, Robin Alexander, John Dewey, M. Frank Pajares, Krishna Kumar, Padma Sarangapani and many more, plunged deeply into a plethora of concerns of pedagogy like teacher's thought processes and action, effectiveness, pedagogical content knowledge, decision making, autonomy, and beliefs, and by doing so they widened the scope of empirical research, both qualitative and quantitative, in the field of education.

Even today, many of the surveys that are conducted by both governmental and non-governmental organizations and enterprises miss out on *descriptive* indicators of quality of education. Be it the Unified District Information System for Education (UDISE), designed by the National University of Educational Planning and Administration, the Annual Status of Education Report of the Pratham Foundation, or the National Achievement Survey and Quality Monitoring Tools of NCERT, all of these primarily tap on *ascriptive* indicators. Thus, pedagogical indicators are undisputedly neglected, especially in the Indian context. There are no scales or indexes for measuring the performance of teachers, their thoughts and feelings, satisfaction levels, belief systems, knowledge levels pertaining to both curriculum and teaching methods, curricular and

non-curricular duties, and other associated skills, against the norms set by the pan-India implemented policies and acts. In pursuit of the same challenging task, this doctoral project borrowed as well as formulated some *descriptive* pedagogical indicators from four nationally implemented policies and programmes, and tried to gauge the responses of both teachers and pupils, through carefully designed surveys and questionnaires⁷. These initiatives were the National Curriculum Framework (2005) along with the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002), and The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009).

The other interrelated dimension was: *against what were these pedagogical indicators measured?* While many of the questions dealt with the teacher thinking and planning techniques, a few were designed specifically to address the issue of curriculum-related facets. Since citizenship education was one of the fundamental variables of this thesis, special care was taken that questions pertaining to it were incorporated in the questionnaires of both, students and educators. These questions were designed with reference to the National Focus Group on *Education for Peace* (2006) document, one of the 21 focal groups that helped in the formulation of NCF 2005, and focused on personality development of students, in terms of inculcation of behavioural habits, cues and values, which would help them in becoming well-rounded, responsible citizens. Thus, without taking curriculum as a benchmark, all the other teaching and learning indicators and measures would have been rendered redundant and facile⁸.

As can be drawn from the discussion above, quality of education is incorporative of three interpenetrating and mutually facilitating realms i.e. pedagogy, curriculum and macro-level educational policies. This linkage uncannily resembles the conceptualization of pedagogy as forwarded by Robin Alexander in *Still no pedagogy? Principle, pragmatism and compliance in primary education* (2004), in which he talks about three dimensions of pedagogy i.e.

- Teaching as an activity, in association with students, their understanding, teaching practices, and planning and execution of the curriculum.

⁷ Annexure I attached at the end of the thesis, deals with the rationale behind the preparation of these questionnaires and conducting the survey.

⁸ Chapter III deals with citizenship education and its relationship with education in general and pedagogy in particular.

- Placement of teaching within a particular context i.e. macro-level policies of a nation.
- Teaching as a value-laden process.

While the above-mentioned discussion sewed together the three already interpenetrating zones of pedagogy, citizenship education and educational policies and initiatives, social justice and its intervention in this discourse was latent. One of the concerns of this doctoral thesis was to analyze the concerns of pedagogy, its *descriptive* indicators and the relationship of these variables with other stakeholders like pupils, with special emphasis on value-based education. Another major prerogative was to understand all these factors, their linkages and internal anomalies, through the perspective of capability approach to justice. The approach gave an in-depth overview of social justice to be understood from an angle where capabilities were defined as the actual opportunities and abilities, present at the disposal of human beings, to accomplish the functionings that they wished to achieve i.e. freedom to be/do what one wants to be/do. The focal variables used in the capability approach were taken up as parameters for decoding the essential *descriptive* attributes of effective or good pedagogy, from the national educational initiatives and statutes. In fact, the differentiation between “comprehensive outcomes” and “culmination outcomes” (Sen, 2009), where culmination outcomes were end results detached from their constituents like internal processes, relations and agencies, and comprehensive outcomes were achievements which took the actions, techniques, agencies and processes into consideration before arriving at conclusion, could be directly linked to how the conventional researches done on quality of education indicators in the past were completely focused of culmination outcomes i.e. availability of infrastructural inputs and staff related resources along with the performance of students on standardized tests on foundational literacy and arithmetic skills e.g. PISA, ASER. These traditional educational researches emphasized more upon “product” i.e. the learning outcomes of pupils, rather than the “process” i.e. the thinking and performance of teachers and administration and the relationship between teachers and pupil, parents and colleagues, respectively. Thus, while product researches were focusing on culmination outcomes, the process approaches were inclined towards ‘comprehensive outcomes’ and this thesis intended to adapt to the latter format. This, eventually posed the question of *whether social justice was maintained within the classroom in terms of pupil-teacher and student-student interactions?*

The focal variables that were selected from the capability approach to social justice were: “conversion gaps” or “conversion capability” i.e. what enables or hinders a person to pursue an activity or desirable functioning; “capability inputs” i.e. the resources at one’s disposal to assist him or her in attaining that related functioning⁹; “exclusionary neglect” i.e. exclusion of individuals from the decision making body, but whose lives are affected by it; and agency freedom built on the idea of “counterfactual choice” i.e. what would one do if one had the choice. These variables served as the background against which pedagogical indicators and questionnaires were created, by methodologically collaborating them with the agendas set by the educational policies mentioned earlier.

Application of capability approach to the questions of social justice and quality of education per se, cannot be reduced to whether the processes within the system are just or not. It also entails indulgence in how justice is taught and maintained within the classroom through teacher-pupil and student-student interactions as well as through the curriculum, in the form of citizenship education. According to Otto and Ziegler in *Capabilities and Education* (2006), the capability approach can provide a formidable framework for promoting social justice in education by enabling individuals to acquire the requisite skills and values to function and responsible and equal democratic citizens. This idea was further pushed by White and Talbert, who said that,

Social justice education moves beyond traditionalist essentialist practice by suggesting that student and teachers are active and equal participants in all schooling ... Advocates for social justice education suggest that our schools are often demeaning and disempowering places where children and their teachers are either bored into submission or where the transmission and socialization techniques destroy any hope for critical-thinking. (Zajda, Majhanovich, & Rust, 2006)

All these debates depict how the concepts of pedagogy, citizenship education and social justice, were inherently interlinked and collectively juxtaposed to the emerging trend of determining quality of education, which in a nutshell forms the foundation of this doctoral research. The

⁹ While Otto and Ziegler in *Capabilities and Education* (2006), said that education was not only a capability but was also a capability input and a personal conversion factor, this thesis has chosen these focal variables to determine the role played by factors affecting the interactive processes in the classrooms.

upcoming section directly delves into the domain of what are the research objectives and questions of this thesis.

Research Objective and Questions

The objective to this thesis is to analyze the role played by pedagogy in determining the status or quality of education, since it has often been neglected in the past. Since antiquity, the collection of statistical information and the conduction of research in this field has been limited to aspects like qualification of teachers, types of teachers (permanent/contractual; male/female; Gen/SC/ST/OBC), their recruitment parameters, attendance or absenteeism, vacancies, pupil-teacher ratio and other such miscellaneous factors. This, subsequently raised the question, what about indicators like generic pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge, the feedback of students and parents, teaching and planning strategies, teacher attrition and the reasons behind it, training (both pre-service and in-service), satisfaction levels, views on curriculum, involvement in meetings, engagement in curricular and non-curricular activities, relationship with colleagues and administration, views on value-based education or citizenship education etc. In conjunction to the same, this thesis proposes to study the interaction between micro (engagements within the classroom and among pupil and teachers) and macro (with reference to the denominators set by national educational policies) level factors influencing learning and teaching at the elementary level, in the states of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. As the focus was on comparative pedagogy of two states, the research deems to collect rich data from a variety of sources or stakeholders of education, in order to provide a nuanced understanding of teaching in the primary (Class V) and upper-primary (Class VIII) level (Rao et al., 2013). Thus, the overall objective is to conduct an inter-state comparison of pedagogical indicators of quality of education in the two states, analyze their repercussions on the students' overall development and understanding, and to collect information about the views of students, teachers and retired teachers on teaching related matters and pedagogical skills and strategies, and their impact, with special reference to citizenship education. In a nutshell, it is an attempt to study the beliefs and practices of elementary school teachers in a comparative format, through the responses of the teachers themselves, and trying to analyze them further with the help of the views shared by their pupils.

All these discussions ultimately lead us to the research question for this doctoral thesis i.e. *what role does pedagogy play as a variable in determining quality of education in Himachal*

Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, with special reference to citizenship education? Besides this principal question, there are certain interrelated sub-questions and these are as follows: -

- i. What are the advisable pedagogical parameters (*descriptive* features) mentioned in SSA, RTE and NCF and NCFTE and what is the status of teaching and learning in the two states with reference to them?
- ii. How are these pedagogical indicators linked to the concept of ‘citizenship education’ and its propagation?
- iii. Do the teachers employ ABL (Activity Based Learning) or do they still prefer traditional or conventional pedagogical practices?
- iv. How do the two states fare in terms of realization of their “prescribed” capabilities¹⁰, by students and teachers alike?

The hypotheses proposed to be validated or invalidated during the course of the research are: -

- a. *Descriptive* pedagogical indicators are a more influential variable than Pupil-Teacher Ratio in determining the quality of education.
- b. Teachers and students in Uttar Pradesh are unable to actualize their “prescribed capabilities”, as compared to those in Himachal Pradesh, and this will help in explaining the abysmal status of education in the former.
- c. Teachers have least cognizance of the various pedagogical methods and strategies at their disposal.

Taking into consideration, these objectives, research questions and hypotheses, this doctoral thesis will try to construct a formidable platform, on the basis of which pedagogy and its affiliated indicators would be analyzed, under the domain of comparative pedagogy, with the help of

¹⁰ Since the parameters for judging and analyzing the performance of teachers and students have been selected from the nationwide-applicable educational policies, the term “prescribed” becomes imperative. Both these groups belong to an institution or system and therefore their agency is to some extent confined, and cannot stand for a license to do anything and everything. The question that henceforth arises is whether they are able to accomplish these prescribed capabilities or not?

criterion set by macro-level educational policies and a curriculum-outline propagated under the agenda of citizenship education.

Research Methodology

Since this research area and problem is still in a nascent-developing stage and has not been deeply engaged with in the past, at least with reference to India, the researcher adopted an *exploratory approach* i.e. research whose primary objective is to find out more about an issue or phenomenon which has been little understood or examined in the past, and this is done by asking ‘what’ questions. To facilitate this process of exploration, a comprehensive set of research strategies have been adopted and they have been systematically laid down in the pointers given below: -

- *Sampling Technique:* After gathering the figures on population size for teachers and students in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, from the UDISE data of 2014-15, the numbers were added to the official formula for determining sample sizes for finite population. Following this, a multi-stage cluster sampling method was adopted, where districts in the two states were first divided into three groups of *left*, *right* and *centre*, on the basis of their geographical positioning, and after randomly selecting one district from each group (ensuring that the capital was already included), the main *tehsil* from each district were finally chosen. Lastly, from these *tehsils*, two private and two government schools each were selected from both rural and urban areas, respectively i.e. 8 schools per district => 3 districts per state => 24 schools per state.
- *Mixed Methods Approach:* The investigator adopted a mixed methods approach as some questions dealt with testing of hypotheses and finding explanations for the answers subsequently arrived at (quantitative approach), while some other questions demanded a more open-ended research where the focus was more on exploring and trying to understand the meanings that people ascribe to a phenomenon or issue (qualitative approach).
- *Data Collection Technique:* Both primary and secondary data were utilized during the course of the study, but the focus was more on the former. Besides this, both hard (numbers, figures and statistics) and soft data (words, sentences, symbols and photos) (Neuman, 2014) were collected.
- *Cross Sectional Research:* Cross-sectional refers to collection of data of multiple cases at one point of time, while longitudinal means research that gathers information about one or few

cases over a period of time (days, months or years). For this particular cross-sectional study, surveys and data gathered from the field, after interaction with the participants, were utilized.

Thus, overall a mixed approach strategy was adopted in order to collaborate the positives of both the qualitative research (through field study, focused-group discussions and usage of semi-structured questionnaires) and quantitative research (survey method and testing of hypotheses), for the benefit of this entire enterprise. Furthermore, triangulation was maintained by clubbing together the data gathered from three sources i.e. teachers, pupils and retired educators.

An Outline of Chapters

According to an American educator, Seymour B. Sarason (1998), who drew upon John Dewey's Presidential address at the American Psychological Association, what was missing from the current researches and deliberations on quality of education, was its lack of conceptualization and embeddedness in the social sciences. Education would benefit tremendously from such researches and the results and findings of such studies must be made available to teachers and other important stakeholders (Kumar, 2004). Collaborating with this concern to some extent, this thesis attempts to perceive the research problem at hand from a political hindsight. In doing so, it proposes to methodologically integrate the three realms of: pedagogical indicators selected from macro-level educational initiatives, citizenship education and realization of the "prescribed" capabilities by both teachers and students, with reference to the former two domains. This would be accomplished by conducting surveys and field works in the elementary schools of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, to provide a factually rich and all-inclusive comparative study of the problem.

Following the trend mentioned above, the thesis has been divided into six chapters and their contents have been highlighted accordingly:

Chapter I deals with the conceptualization of the term 'pedagogy' and its affiliated indicators. It depicts the history of recognition of pedagogy as a research area in the field of education, with reference to the quality of education discourse.

Chapter II provides a glimpse of the historical trajectory of educational development plans in the colonial and the post-independence period, with a detailed analysis of the policies and respective

indicators chosen for this thesis i.e. SSA (2002), NCF (2005), NCFTE (2009), and RTE (2009). This chapter tries to differentiate between *ascriptive* and *descriptive* attributes, and uphold the relevance of the latter when it comes to selecting indicators for measuring quality of education. It thoroughly investigates the official documents of these aforementioned policies, for selecting and carefully crafting the *descriptive* pedagogical indicators, from within them.

Chapter III gives attention to the link between teacher thinking-doing and citizenship education. This chapter talks about the inception of citizenship education during the Greek and Roman traditions and how it spread beyond national boundaries. Apart from studying its rise in India, both during colonial suzerainty and post-independence period, this chapter engaged with the question of how the concept of ‘education for peace’, was gradually developed by the NCERT and incorporated in the National Curriculum Frameworks over a period of time, and how this eventually ended up providing a concrete idea of citizenship education. The variables selected from this chapter became the background against which some of the pedagogical indicators were analyzed.

Chapter IV of the thesis deals with the interrelationship between pedagogy, citizenship education and the capabilities approach to study social justice in education. It outlines how capabilities and its focal variables, rather than functionings or resources alone, help in finding answers to two queries i.e. do teaching techniques assist in ensuring social justice within the classrooms so that there is a joyful environment of learning and the teachers as well as students feel free to communicate their views; and does pedagogy along with citizenship education assist in inculcating an idea of social justice among the students, which would help them in actualizing their “prescribed capabilities” by becoming informed, enlightened and responsible citizens?

Chapter V of the thesis provides a detailed discussion on the types of research design, questionnaires and sampling techniques chosen for conducting the surveys and field works for this doctoral work and the rationale for selecting them.

Chapter VI is the most important chapter of this thesis. It is a comprehensive summarization of all the findings gathered from the surveys conducted. It provides a comparative study of pedagogical indicators of teachers from Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, from the perspective of both teachers and students. Being the heart and soul of this thesis, this chapter provides an overview of

the major findings of the research and the revelations related to the research questions that were posed.

The discussions and problems raised in all these chapters are finally brought together in the Conclusion of this doctoral thesis, which, apart from highlighting the crucial findings and determining the status of hypotheses, discusses the various inherent limitations of the research or problematic issues faced while conducting this research and the recommendations accruing from its findings. With this, the researcher ends her introductory piece, hoping that the following pages and their contents will do justice to the goal set by this doctoral thesis.

CHAPTER I

Beyond Archaic Educational Variables: Pedagogy and Quality of Education

Introduction

If we do not know what counts as being educated, how can we make judgements as to whether we are being more or less successful in our various attempts to educate people?... how on earth can we design research into such things as the most effective methods of teaching or classroom organization, let alone evaluate the significance of our findings except in the light of some notion of educational success. (Barrow & Woods, 2006)

This argument lies at the crux of any research primarily or even remotely dealing with learning, teaching, educational policies and governmental initiatives and other assorted yet affiliated factors. It brings us to the main question of why education is important and who is an educated individual? According to R.S. Peters in *Ethics and Education*, education is a polymorphous, value laden, normative activity as “it implies that something worthwhile is being or has been intentionally transmitted in a morally acceptable manner. It would be a logical contradiction to say that a man had been educated but that he had in no way changed for the better.” The status of being educated, according to Barrow and Woods entails being “transformed or changed and this is not a simple qualitative change in the stock of truths known to an individual but rather a change in the ability to understand the world or particular facets of it, change in the ability to do things in the world.” Education was hence not reduced to dissemination and accumulation of quantitative information to be mugged up or memorized by the pupils. It incorporated learning of values and skills that would assist these participants to formulate their own perspectives of a life worth living and developing notions about the present surroundings and events occurring in the vicinity or globally, and acquiring the ability to analyze them in a coherent manner.

Understanding the role of education will be rendered incomplete if it does not incorporate the views forwarded by John Dewey, in the early 20th century. Dewey was a professor of philosophy and education who believed that “If human nature is unchangeable, then there is no such thing as education and our efforts to educate are doomed to failure. For the very meaning of education is

the modification of native human nature in formation of the new ways of thinking, of feeling, of desiring, and of believing that are foreign to raw human nature” (Simpson, 2006). One of the most intricate purposes of schooling was cultivation of reflective individuals. Reflective thinking meant an “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge” and hence, it inevitably necessitated the inclusion of the three attributes i.e. open mindedness, wholeheartedness and responsibility¹¹.

His propagation and defense of reflective thinking was further firmly established by his critique of dogmatic thinking which believed that certain facts, ideas or assumptions are permanently settled and do not require any further clarification, revision or rejection (Simpson, 2006). Settlement in knowledge was a dead-end as no belief was so settled as not to be exposed to any further enquiry. Many people become dogmatic in their thinking when they stop discussing their views based on their experiences with the vicarious experiences of other human beings. Thus, dogmatism can be considered directly proportional to laziness as the individual stops taking genuine interest and initiative in resolving the doubts and clarifying the issues at hand. Dewey therefore argued that it was the “convergent and cumulative effect of continued enquiry that defines knowledge in its general meaning.”

Having established the meaning of an educated individual and the primary role of education as a phenomenon per say, it becomes inevitable to delve into its various compartments. These components are the pupils or students, the educators or pedagogues, the curriculum and assessment parameters, the teaching-learning materials and infrastructural requirements (classrooms, benches, boards, playgrounds etc.) and the governmental intervention pertaining to the same, be it in the form of policies or schemes or implementation of laws and statutes.

Conventional Educational Indicators and their Repercussions

Since the inception of researches being done on education and its related factors, literacy levels and student academic performance have been at the core. According to the 2016 report of the Ministry of Human Resource Development entitled *Education Statistics at a Glance*, a literate

¹¹ Open mindedness denoted an active disposition to listen, learn and reflect on the ideas, facts and arguments discussed by others; Wholeheartedness meant absorbed interest or sincerity towards a particular problem or issue at hand; and responsibility stood for a commitment towards present and future duties.

individual is a person aged seven years or above, who can both read and write with understanding in any particular language. Based on this, literacy rates began being calculated by dividing the total number of literate persons in a given age group by the corresponding age group population and multiplying the result by 100. This calculation became an indispensable component of the Human Development Index.

In the year 1990, drawing on the capabilities approach¹² of the Indian Nobel Laureate, Prof. Amartya Kumar Sen, Pakistani economist, Mr. Mahbub ul Haq, along with a group of development economists, designed the Human Development Index (HDI). This index was a composite statistic of three indicators i.e. life expectancy at birth, education index¹³ and the gross national income per capita. This method of calculation was adopted post 2010, as before that the HDI comprised of life expectancy, knowledge and education measured in terms of adult literacy rates and gross enrollment ratio and the standard of living calculated through the gross domestic product per capita. Besides literacy rates and gross or net enrolment ratios, researches related to the status or quality of education in India considered easily quantifiable variables like retention rates, drop-out rates, children out of schools, public spending on education and its related infrastructure, performance of pupils in national survey tests, number and types of teachers (public and private; male and female; permanent and contractual), pupil-teacher ratio etc.

In 1962, the UNESCO established the Asian Regional Centre for Educational Planners and Administrators which later, in 1965, became the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration under the ten year agreement signed between the Indian government and UNESCO. The rationale behind setting up such an institute was training of educational planners and administrators. On the expiry of this ten year tenure, the Asian Institute was taken over by the Indian government and was re-designated, in 1973, as the National Staff College for Educational

¹² Capabilities, according to Sen, were the actual abilities or opportunities present to the individual, to achieve a combination of functionings that he or she values and these functionings were either states of beings (what one wants to be) or doings (what one wants to do) or both. A person's capability refers to the feasible set of functionings that the circumstances allow him or her to achieve. It is a kind of freedom - the substantive freedom to achieve alternative functioning combinations (Sen, 2009, p. 19). The achievement of these functionings is based on the notion of conversion factor which takes into account the conversion of resources and raw materials into capabilities.

¹³ Education Index was determined with the help of mean years of schooling (years spent by a person aged 25 years or older on formal education) and the expected years of schooling (total expected years of schooling for children below 18 years).

Planners and Administration. In 1979, it was renamed as the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). Later in 2006, NIEPA was transformed into NUEPA i.e. the National University of Educational Planning and Administration under Section 3 of the UGC Act, 1956, where it was granted the power of awarding degrees.

One of the foremost contributions made by NUEPA to the field of education was the District Information System for Education (DISE). For the effective implementation and monitoring of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)¹⁴ and the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)¹⁵, an equally efficient information system was required. Keeping this in mind, an Education Management Information System (EMIS) by the name of DISE was formulated in 1995. DISE was a computer based system for measuring the aspects of elementary education with reference to four indicators i.e. school, facilities, enrollment and teachers. In the year 2008, the Secondary Education Management Information System (SEMIS) was created to provide data and decision support for planning and management of programme interventions for development of secondary education within the nation. Eventually SEMIS was merged with DISE in 2011, and the scope of this particular EMIS was expanded to cover both primary and secondary education i.e. K-12 (from Kindergarten to Class XII). This EMIS was renamed as the Unified District Information System for School Education (U-DISE). It included all recognized and unrecognized schools which imparted education in across 680 districts of 36 states and Union Territories of the country.

While the DISE collected extensive information pertaining to the former three indicators and their sub-parts i.e. schools, facilities and enrollment, the fourth indicator i.e. teachers' related information was deficient in content. The variables measured under it were cliché like the number of teachers (total, government and private), Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) and the training and nature of job (permanent or contractual). Quantitative data collection was preferred over qualitative

¹⁴ The District Primary Education Programme was a centrally sponsored government initiative launched in the year 1993-1994 with the objective of universalization of primary education i.e. K-5 (from Kindergarten to Class V). Its focus was on providing access to primary education to all children either through formal or informal stream, increasing the average achievement levels by 25 percent, reducing gaps in enrollment, drop-out rates and learning among gender and social groups.

¹⁵ The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was a programme launched in 2001-2002, with the primary objective of universalization of elementary education i.e. K-8 (from Kindergarten to Class VIII). All children falling under the age group of 6 to 14 years were invariably included in this scheme. Overall, this programme focused on improving the quality of education by decentralizing planning and time bound implementation strategies along with focus on universal access, enrollment and retention and bridging of all social category and gender gaps.

indicators, which would have been more fruitful in contributing to further development in teaching research, teacher education and development of effective pedagogical practices.

While U-DISE serves as the official data collection methodology, on the behest of the Indian government, to measure the quality of education and its interrelated factors, there is another measuring parameter developed by a non-governmental organization, by the name of Pratham. Post its foundation in 1996, Pratham primarily focused on helping children in mastering skills in basic reading and arithmetic. The vision of this NGO was “Evidence for Action,” which stood for collection of statistics or knowledge so that it could be utilized for bringing forth extraordinary reforms. From 2005 onwards, the idea of Annual Status of Education Report (ASER)¹⁶ was duly formulated under which the task of the organization was to conduct nationwide surveys for gauging the ability of students to read simple texts and work out basic mathematics. With the mission of the ASER centre being "Measure to understand - Understand to communicate - Communicate to change," the body claimed that -

It focuses on outcomes and processes in education and other social sectors. It builds the capacity of individuals and institutions to measure at scale, understand, communicate and act upon the findings of assessments and research, with the objective of improving the quality of social sector programs. It aims to create a culture where rigorous measurement of outcomes is integral to action, thus bridging the gap between theory and practice, assumption and reality. (ASER, 2018)

As seen from the above rendition, the aim of this report was to measure the reading, writing and arithmetical skills of children, that is the student learning outcomes and achievement levels, with teaching and pedagogical indicators nowhere in sight. Unlike DISE, the ASER report channeled all its energy and resources in finding data about the performance of children at a deeper level by delving into the domain of learning outcomes. The only similarity it shared with DISE was that the role of teachers and the techniques or tools used by them were not a concern. If the two metrics are clubbed together, it is evident that one metric was successful in measuring the basic statistics pertaining to education system of the nation, while the other plunged deeper into

¹⁶ The ASER Centre was formally established as an autonomous body within the Pratham organization in 2008. The word ‘aser’ stands for ‘impact’ or ‘effect.’ in Hindi language.

one of the domains of processes i.e. learning outcomes. What was missing from this amalgamation was a metric associated with pedagogy or teaching related processes!

What these indicators lacked was an in depth understanding of some important questions like: What was the impact of the present curriculum on the overall development of the student? What are the recruitment criteria of the educators and the effect of governmental policies on the same? What are the wide varieties of pedagogical tools and techniques adopted by teachers from time to time to address the pupil related concerns at hand? Are these techniques efficient? Do teachers abide by the parameters set by the macro-level policies of the state? Are their teaching styles synchronized with the political educational agenda?¹⁷

Exemplary Researches on Pedagogy, Teacher Thinking and Practices

Teacher Thinking Research

According to Atkinson and Delamont (1990), the ubiquitous application of qualitative research methods to the study of educational phenomenon especially in areas like teachers' techniques, skills and education, is a relatively recent development and it dates back to the 1980s. The two primary reasons for this development were:

- i. A shift in the discipline of social science from their obsession with grand narratives and laws of social behaviour to the in-depth analysis of processes occurring in their naturalistic settings.
- ii. A rising trend towards the democratization of graduate level study in education, because of which the role boundaries and power relations between the researchers and the researched or the graduate students and their faculty, became more flexible and permeable (Delamont & Jones, 2012)

Prior to 1975, the mainstream research on teaching and its auxiliary activities was the 'process-product' research which was concerned with the classroom behaviour of the teachers and students along with the latter's achievement levels (Clark & Peterson, 1984). But, post this period, the locus

¹⁷ Researches related to education and the political agenda set by the state can be two-fold. They can either focus on the very foundation on which such an agenda is formulated and consequently thrives, or they can instead channelize their energy in determining the relationship between the parameters set by the macro-level national policies and the actual practices within schools. Through the latter format, a link can be created between policy formulation and its implementation.

shifted to more intricate and deeper domains of pedagogy i.e. the thought processes and belief systems of the educators.¹⁸

According to Mani Bhasin Kalra and Bharti Baveja, research on teacher thinking or thought processes in India, can be segregated into three categories i.e. teachers' beliefs and practices, factors that influence these beliefs and lastly, challenging the existing beliefs in order to bring about progressive changes in the practices of the educators. Beliefs were defined as “judgements and evaluations that we make about ourselves, about others, and about the world around us. Beliefs are generalizations about things such as causality or the meaning of specific actions... Beliefs not only afflict how people behave but what they perceive in the environment” (Kalra & Baveja, 2013). A study of teacher beliefs can assist in deciphering the various decisions and judgements made by him or her both within the classroom and outside.

Christopher M. Clark and Robert J. Yinger in their paper, *Research on Teacher Thinking* (1977), moved beyond teachers' beliefs and segregated the studies on teachers' thinking into four sub-parts: teacher planning (related to curriculum and assessment), judgements, interactive decision making and implicit theories. Teacher planning related to the planning done by teachers with reference to the subject matter, the aims of teaching and the evaluation parameters. Judgements pertained to the alternatives chosen by the teachers for resolving the problem at hand. The interactive decision making stood for the decisions made by the teachers during the act of teaching and lastly, the implicit theories were personal perspectives and belief systems of the pedagogues, not only about teaching and learning, but also about the surrounding environment, interpersonal relationships and the world in general.

In their work on *Teachers' Thought Processes* (1984), Christopher M. Clark and Penelope L. Peterson quoted Jackson who was among one of the foremost researchers to conduct a study on teacher thinking. Jackson claimed that “A glimpse at this hidden side of teaching may increase our understanding of some of the more visible and well known features of the process.” In lieu of a

¹⁸ Dr. Lee S. Shulman in his 1992 interview with Ron Brandt, aptly encapsulated the “Process-Product Research.” This term was originally coined by Donald Medley along with Harold Mitzel and was duly expanded by Nathaniel Cage. The research stood for describing in detail all the processes that the teachers and students collectively engage in and then relate them to the outcome or product. These end results are cognitive, attitudinal and affective and can be measured. These process-product researches dominated the policy environment during the 1960s and 1970s (Brandt, 1992).

similar claim, they created a model of teacher thought and action and it resembled something as shown in figure 1 given below: -

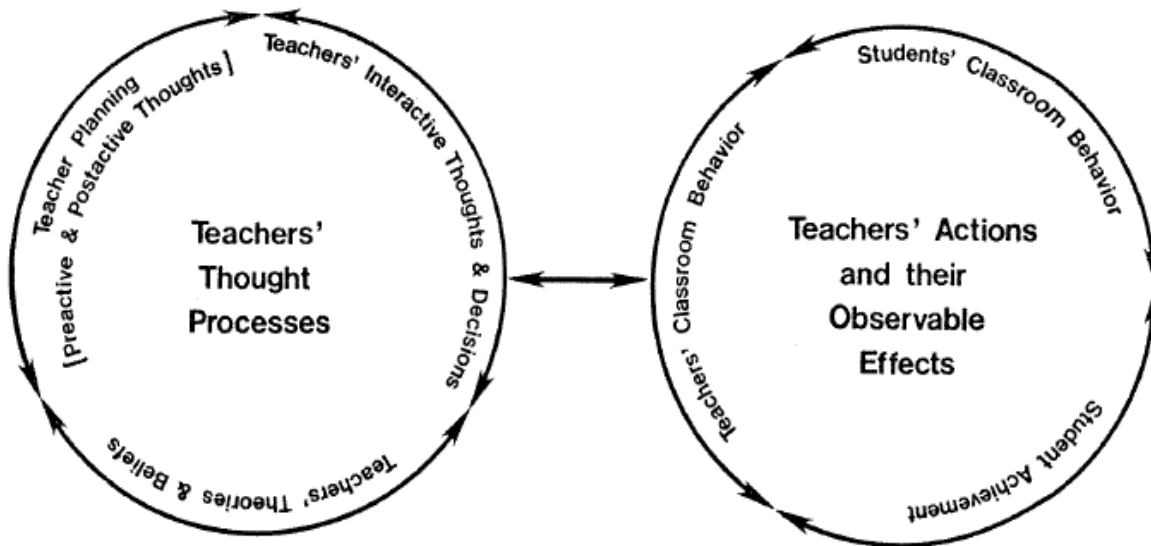


Figure 1: A Model of Teacher's Thoughts and Actions

Source: Christopher M. Clark and Penelope L. Peterson's *Teachers' Thought Processes* (1984); pp. 8

While the former circle dealt with all the unobservable data that occurred inside the minds of the teachers and was hence difficult to measure, the latter focused on the behavioural patterns of both teachers and students and could be measured relatively easily, with the help of empirical research methods. This model had an upper hand over the prior explanations to teachers' thinking patterns as firstly, it challenged the unidirectional or linear progression imbued in the process-product researchers who believed that the behaviour of the teacher within the classroom has a direct repercussion on the students' behavioural patterns and their achievements. This model, on the other hand, adopted a cyclical explanation whereby the teachers' behaviour affected the students' behaviour and vice versa and this ultimately had an effect on the achievement levels of the pupils. Secondly, the domain of teachers' thought processes was inclusive and all encompassing as it incorporated the three paradigms of teachers' planning¹⁹, interactive thoughts and decision making

¹⁹ The planning done by the teacher was further segregated into three categories, as formulated by Jackson (1968) and these were: Pre-active phase, interactive phase and the post-active phase. What the researcher tried to explain with the help of these phases was that the kind of thinking done by the teachers during the classroom, while interacting with his/her pupils, would be different from the one engaged by him/her both before and after the classroom interaction (Clark & Peterson, 1984).

pattern and the implicit theories and beliefs. Judgement as a variable was subsumed within all these three domains.

Under the domain of teachers' thought processes, the attributes of teacher planning and interactive thoughts and decision making were quite evident, but implicit theories and beliefs were covert factors had that to be carefully unearthed. Nisbett and Ross (1980), Nespor (1987), Roehler, Duffy, Hermann, Conley and Johnson (1988), Ernest (1989) and Pintrich (1990) were some of the prominent research scholars who were able to cull out the difference between knowledge and beliefs. Both Ernest and Nespor believed that knowledge was the cognitive aspect of a thought, while belief was an affective outcome which included feelings and emotions too. This difference was given teeth with the help of example of self concept and self esteem, where the former denoted knowledge of the self and the latter dealt with feelings of self worth (Pajares, 1992). Unlike the knowledge systems, beliefs did not require any form of general consensus on their validity or appropriateness and were more or less static in nature and difficult to be changed or transformed. Knowledge systems, on the other hand, were fluid in nature and were hence open to critical evaluation and scientific enquiry and were emotionally neutral as they did not dictate right from wrong.

Despite these differences, knowledge of the teacher regarding the subject matter or content of the syllabus and his or her beliefs were intermeshed into one another and could not be dealt with or studied completely independent of one another. M. Frank Pajares in his 1992 work on *Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a Messy Construct*, put forth the point that knowledge and beliefs were "inextricably intertwined" and the "potent affective, evaluative and episodic nature of beliefs make them a filter through which new phenomenon are interpreted."

The upsurge in the research on the belief systems or teachers' perspectives and implicit theories during the late twentieth century had an upside to it and it was that it helped in gauging their thoughts on the present status of students, their colleagues and heads, the teaching-learning process, syllabus and pedagogy in general. According to Porter and Freeman (1986), these predispositions sometimes also included deeper and introspective questions about the goals of schooling, the multifarious responsibilities of the teachers and the faith that their teachings would

eventually assist their pupils in becoming better human beings and ideal, law-abiding citizens who were capable enough to achieve their desired version of living²⁰ (Pajares, 1992).

Apart from this, research on teacher thinking had substantial benefits accruing to it. While Christopher Clarke and Magdalene Lampert (1986) claimed that research on teacher thinking and decision making capacity was of less use for teacher education, because teaching as an activity was complex, contextual and uncertain and this meant that teachers responded to different problems differently as well as similar problems in different contexts, differently. They believed that any form of research done in this field could not bear results that could be fruitful for teacher education, primarily because these studies would not be able to provide a generalized idea of the types of decisions that the educator should opt for while trying to resolve issues in particular settings. On the other hand, Robert E. Floden and Hans Gerhard Kilnzing in their paper, *What can research on Teacher Thinking contribute to Teacher Preparation? A Second Opinion* (1990), argued that these researches would be valuable for preparing the content of teacher education, for formulating the policies related to the education of teachers and they might also provide insights into the processes of teacher learning and functioning. It is with this optimistic perspective that the researcher herself plans to engage with the question of pedagogy and quality of education.

Pedagogy and Comparative Pedagogy

In 2013, the Department of International Development (DfID) had been commissioned with the responsibility of doing an intensive review of literature on the four closely knitted concepts of pedagogy, curriculum, teaching related practices and teacher education. Their research question was: Which pedagogic practices most effectively contribute to student learning at the primary and secondary level? The most important contribution of this paper was that it was able to select a particular idea of pedagogy and its auxiliary practices and establish its links with curriculum per say. It favoured Bernstein's (1975) and Robin Alexander's (2009) conceptualization, that pedagogy had the ability to amalgamate the macro with the micro domains of education, where

²⁰ The link between teachers' beliefs, effective teaching techniques and its impact on the students' thinking as well as learning and achievement capabilities, along with the added conceptualization of the concept of becoming good citizens and inculcating the virtues necessary for the fruition of this particular goal, is an indelible point that needs to be taken note of from the above review of literature. There is an unbreakable bond between pedagogy and citizenship education (to be dealt in the following chapters) which is one of the supplementary questions that this thesis wants to address.

macro denoted the official educational policies and laws and micro included the very act of teaching, learning and assessment within the classroom environment. Hence, curriculum, pedagogy and assessment were not only in proximity to one another but were closely intertwined.

The idea of pedagogy understood and adopted by the abovementioned body was inclusive of three domains i.e. teacher thinking, teacher doing or action and “visible, observable and measurable impact of the teacher’s pedagogy on the learners themselves, that render those pedagogic practices effective.”²¹ A diagrammatic representation of the same is given below: -

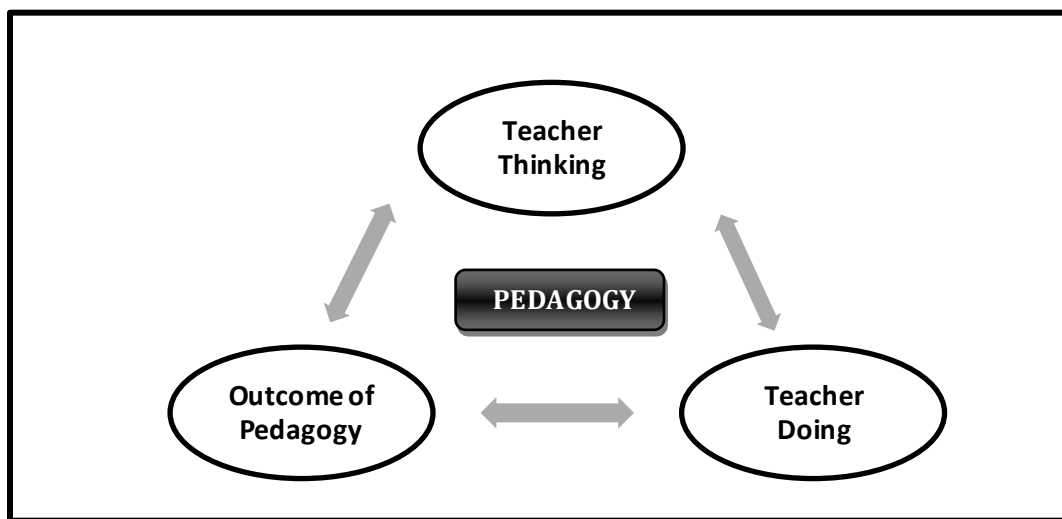


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework of Pedagogy and its Constituents.

Source: Working paper by Department of International Development on Pedagogy, Curriculum, Teaching Practices and Teacher Education in Developing Countries (2013); pp. 16

Before engaging with the interaction between pedagogy and quality of education, one inevitable query that emerges is: what is the etymology of pedagogy? Being derived from a Greek word *paidagogos* where ‘paid’ stands for child and ‘agogos’ for leader, henceforth defined as leader of the child, pedagogy originally pertained to the thinking and action of pedagogues. These pedagogues were individuals who were qualified by age and experience to serve as leaders as well

²¹ This understanding of pedagogy and its internal aspects was borrowed from the work done by a renowned scholar by the name of Robin Alexander, whose definition of pedagogy was utilized as a benchmark for carrying forward the literature review. When it comes to this doctoral thesis, it will primarily rely on the idea of pedagogy as shared by Alexander as well as Lee Shulman, as while the former provides more or less a generic notion of the concept, the latter is able to further bifurcate it into two distinct yet interrelated domains i.e. content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

as caretakers of the children of their masters. These children were placed under their custodianship at the early age of seven years and then onwards these learned members of the society were responsible for their physical, mental as well as moral upbringing. Pedagogues were considered different from subject teachers or *didaskalos* whose main objective was to concentrate on grammar, diction and other curriculum related development (Smith, 2012).

While pedagogy applies to teaching and learning of child (preferably below eighteen years), there is *andragogy*, which according to Malcolm Shepherd Knowles, is the art and science of adult learning. In 1984, Knowles came up with four principles of adult learning and they were as follows:

- Adults need to be actively involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction;
- Experiences provide the basis for learning activities;
- Adults are more inclined towards learning subjects that have an immediate relevance and impact on their jobs or personal lives;
- Adult learning is generally problem-centered rather than content-oriented (Pappas, 2013).

17th century onwards, discussion on education and sometimes pedagogy had been on a rampage in Western political philosophy. In 1648, John Amos Comenius in his *Didactica Magna*, talked about the three fundamentals of education: *omnis*, *omnia* and *omnino* and these meant – to teach everything to everybody with the help of the best possible techniques. The purpose of education was to make all human beings rational, so that they can rule nature along with themselves and try to be in synchronization with the creator. Comenius proposed five principles of teaching and these were: -

- i. Teaching must be in accordance to the stage of development of the pupil. These stages of learning were senses, knowledge and understanding, imagination and memory, and judgement.
- ii. All learning happens through senses.
- iii. Individuals must proceed from specific to general i.e. inductive learning.
- iv. Teachings should avoid engaging with too many subjects or themes at the same time.
- v. Teaching should be slow, steady and systematic (Smith, 2012).

Immanuel Kant in his work, *On Pedagogy* (1803), perceived education as the process of child nurturing along with his or her culture. The first stage includes stern instructing and disciplining, while the second stage deals with guiding the pupil into applying those things that have been learnt and putting them into effective practice. Kant also brought forth the distinction between a private teacher and a governor or tutor. While the duty of the former was to merely instruct the pupil, the latter's duties entailed, guiding the student and training him or her for life and its accompanying challenges ("What is Pedagogy? An Overview," 2004).

One of Kant's successors, as the chair of philosophy at Konigsberg University, was a German philosopher and psychologist by the name of Johann Friedrich Herbart. Herbart viewed teaching as the necessary subset of education and he perceived teaching as being comprised of five activities and these were: -

- i. Preparation: Organizing the new material and preparing the lecture in such a way that it is able to stimulate the interests of learners.
- ii. Presentation: Presenting the new information or chapter by linking it to the actual events happening around the world and thus being able to accentuate the attention of the students.
- iii. Association: Drawing a comparison between the preexisting ideas and the ideas recently imparted and trying to figure out the reasons for why the old ones were regarded to be obsolete in the first place and had to be reformed.
- iv. Generalization: Take teaching and learning beyond impartation and retention of factual data and trying to engage with abstract concepts too.
- v. Application: Encouraging pupils to apply the newly acquired information to their daily lives and tasks and internalize them if they proved fruitful. ("What is Pedagogy? An Overview," 2004)

Like in 1970s, interest in the conceptualization of justice was reawakened with a powerful work of John Rawls in his *A Theory of Justice*, a similar trend was witnessed in discussions pertaining to education and pedagogy. A Brazilian philosopher going by the name of Paulo Freire, who was considered to be an ardent advocate of critical pedagogy, launched his influential work *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1968; Translated and published in English in 1970). As the name suggests, the book was intended to serve as an instrument to both the oppressors and the oppressed, to come to the critical realization that they both were gradually being dehumanized (losing the idea

of the self and failing to recognize and respect oneself as an equal fellow being) under this process. This phenomenon of oppressing someone was comprised of acts like hindering his or her pursuit of self worth and affirmation and hence was no less than violence. This violence had two faces to it: first, the one that prevents the oppressed class from performing their desirable activities and choices, and second, that aggravates their rage and propels them to retaliate back to their oppressors in order to win back their freedoms and rights and supposedly re-humanize themselves.

Freire conceived that in order to attain a stage of self affirmation, the oppressed man had to deconstruct as well as destruct fanaticism. He introduced a new terminology in the parlance on radicalism and this was *conscientizacao*, which meant learning to look for social, political and economic contradictions existing in the society and taking requisite action against oppressive powers and systems. He believed that it was difficult to free the oppressed as there was a “fear of freedom” not only among this category, but also within the oppressors as while the former was afraid to embrace a new form of living involving freedom of choice and opportunity, the latter was afraid of losing its power over the subordinated class. This fear was a result of the gradual process of dehumanization that occurred due to being constantly subdued. An apt representation of the above explanation is given in the quote below:

Sectarianism, fed by fanaticism (strong, irrational views on religion/politics etc), is always castrating. Radicalization, nourished by a critical spirit, is always creative. Sectarianism mythicizes and thereby alienates; radicalization criticizes and thereby liberates. Radicalization involves increased commitment to the position one has chosen, and thus ever greater engagement in the effort to transform concrete, objective reality. Conversely, sectarianism, because it is mythicizing and irrational, turns reality into a false (and therefore unchangeable) reality. (Freire, 2000)

Therefore, the essence behind the usage of the term pedagogy was as instrument, with the help of which the teachers, in this scenario the revolutionary leaders, convince the students i.e. the oppressed classes, to realize the fact that they are equal as human beings to their oppressors and do not have to give in to their subordinated living and treatment. One important outcome of this rendition was that it challenged the “narration sickness” that had encapsulated teaching practices, where the educator is the narrating subject and the student is the object. He argued that “The contents, whether values or empirical dimensions of reality, tend in the

process of being narrated to become lifeless and petrified”²² (Freire, 2000). Thus, because of this the student adopts the detrimental habit of repeating and mechanically memorizing the data that has been narrated, without questioning or any critical analysis. This is what Freire addresses as the “Banking concept of education” where the students were the depositories whose main tasks were to receive, file and store the data imparted to them by the depositors i.e. the teachers, who were regarded to be knowledgeable agents. Communication and reconciliation between the two parties, which are the two parameters of problem posing education, were somewhere misplaced in this entire equation.

A diagrammatic representation of Freire’s understanding of the need for a dialogic pedagogy of the oppressed is given in the figure below: -

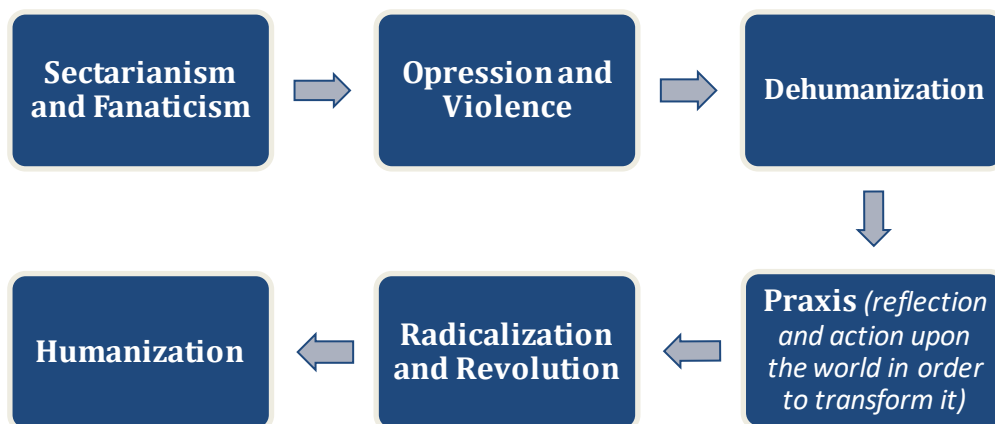


Figure 3: A diagrammatic depiction of Paulo Freire’s understanding of oppression and how to overcome it with the help of pedagogy of liberation.

While Paulo Freire’s framework of problematizing pedagogy circled around the idea of the subordinated sections of the society opening their eyes to their life without freedoms and rights and realizing that this was not status quo and could be challenged and transformed accordingly,

²² This particular notion of pedagogical flaws will come in handy in the later chapters, as the entire purpose of this thesis is to cull out the importance or redundancy of the acknowledgement of the role played by pedagogy in determining quality of education. The explanation of skewed pedagogy given above by Paulo Freire highlights the drawbacks associated with dictation and rote learning and instead argues for a more friendly engagement or dialogue between the teacher and the pupils.

thus relying on the idea of true communication or dialogue among individuals and groups as well as between those in authority and those at the receiving end of it, there was another methodological recurrence of a similar political phenomenon that dominated the late 20th and early 21st century, and it can be seen in the works of Dr. Krishna Kumar. Kumar's work was contextualized on the agenda of the colonial state regarding education and how it deviated from the nationalist discourse.

Tracing the history of the pattern of socialization through education, as formulated by the colonial rule, in order to justify its governance over the colony and the plunder of its economic wealth and resourcefulness, along with its need to train some of the masses to become ideal citizens who can assist them in governing and wipe them of their guilt of not socially uplifting the natives, Kumar argued that despite their differences, the Orientalists and Anglicists worked in tandem. The former relied on education through vernacular and its situatedness in India's foundational philosophical and religious traditions, while the latter envisaged a new curriculum assorted by English education and a curriculum thriving on literature and science (though scientific enquiry was not encouraged until 1900s). What was eventually produced by Orientalists studies on the history, culture, literature and social customs of the native Indian society proved as the backbone for Anglicists to attack the natives' barbarism and uncultured disposition (Kumar, 1991). The education system that emerged as a result of the synchronization of these two colonial forces was highly bureaucratized and controlled. As aptly described by Kumar, "In colonial India, the job of deciding, selecting and shaping school knowledge was performed by the 'enlightened outsider'".

Borrowing Mannheim's analogy (1962) of an "educational ideal" as 'a residue of attitudes, principles and forms of behaviour' which shape educational objectives and planning in a period of history, Krishna Kumar understood the colonial educational agenda as an amalgamation of certain regressive practices which gradually killed the curiosity of children and the eagerness of the pedagogues to teach effectively. Grappling with the question of 'What is worth teaching?', in these state controlled schools, the colonial system of education introduced subjects like history, geography and arithmetic, and the curriculum was completely dissociated from the child's social milieu and reality and there was no teacher participation in its formulation. This led to the rise of a "textbook culture" (Kumar, 2002) where the teacher encouraged the pupils to memorize the factual information imparted in the classrooms via prescribed textbooks. Reliance on usage of English as a medium of instruction further facilitated the rote-memorization culture, as mugging

up seemed easier than questioning and understanding, especially when standardized examination patterns had been instituted to keep a check on how these students were retaining and eventually performing. The meagre salary given to the teacher along with robbing him/her of his/her autonomy to plan the contents of curriculum and decide the pace of pedagogy, reduced the teacher to the position of a “meek dictator.” This oxymoronic adjective stood for how, on one hand, the time-boundation for completion of syllabus along with regular inspections and examinations had curbed the potential of teachers to perform at the best of their capacities, and how, on another hand, they vented out this frustration of powerlessness by exercising control over their students by forcing them to mug up facts and perform well in the impersonal and impartial tests designed by the state authorities. Furthermore, the delegation of miscellaneous clerical jobs to this group, from time to time, proved to be a source of degradation of their earlier revered status, especially in the context of Indian society.

This conclusion is consistent with our understanding that in India the teacher's appropriate job continues to be regarded as that of delivering the prescribed content of textbooks. The student's duty is to ingest this prescribed content. There is no room in this process for genuine inquiry, for it is assumed that all necessary inquiry has already been made; and that the results of the inquiry have been packaged in the syllabus and the textbook. Questions can only be asked to clarify one's understanding of this packaged knowledge. (Kumar, 1991)

In order to surpass this vicious cycle of disempowerment of the teacher and the student alike, under the colonial educational agenda, Krishna Kumar discussed how Gandhi's Basic Education, also known as *Nai Talim*, focused on the introduction of productive handicraft related skills like weaving, pottery, spinning, basket making, metal work, leather work etc., which were historically dominated by lower caste groups. By doing so, the Indian society would not only be socially uplifted by making the differentiation of communities, traditionally done on the basis of their job profiles, redundant, but would also promise economic self sufficiency for schools as these would become the sites for generation of resources and money to ensure their smooth and autonomous functioning. Through this process, the teachers would rise above their subservience to the prescribed curriculum and textbook culture as learning would now fall in the domain of physical

production domains as well. Kumar argued that the conceptualization of an ideal citizen emerging from Gandhian philosophy on education was coterminous with John Dewey's linkage between productive work and education as both propagated the image of a hardworking and self-respecting individual who lived harmoniously in a small (village) community, functioning on democratic principles (Kumar, 1991).

The concerns raised and the mitigation mechanisms proposed by Krishna Kumar in the form of child-centric pedagogy, constructivist teaching and learning processes, autonomy of teachers in areas of decision making pertaining to curriculum and deciding upon what to teach and how to teach, which would further facilitate their genuine professionalization, shared some level of parallelism with Paulo Freire's critique of 'banking education' and Giroux's assertion on 'radical pedagogy', as rightly pointed out in Mary Ann Chacko's reading of Kumar's faith in the capacity of schools to serve as sites for counter-socialization (Pinar, 2015). In order to clean the society of its elitist structures of knowledge and traditional systems of societal relations, Kumar depended on Gandhi's idea of linking classroom activities to the social milieu of the child, through production related tasks and skills and this was a concrete step towards counter-socialization (Chacko, 2015).

Another connection between Freire and Kumar's philosophy on the marginalizing and oppressing role of education systems, can be seen in terms of the latter's depiction of "adult-child relationship" as the heart and soul of colonial enterprise in India. This analogy went as follows: -

The colonizer took the role of the adult, and the native became the child. This adult-child relationship entailed an educational task. The colonial master saw it as his responsibility to initiate the native into new ways of acting and thinking. Like the little elephant Babar in the children's series of that name, some of the natives had to be educated so that they could be civilized according to the master's idea. This may be a simplistic summary, but it does capture the core agenda of colonial rule in education. The agenda was to train the native to become a citizen. (Kumar, 1991)

Thus, for both the thinkers, breaking the cycle of subordination and oppression and assisting education to thrive as an institution, grounded on principles of freedom and autonomy, was imperative. The main insight that can be gathered from the discussion held above is that transformation in pedagogy in collaboration with curriculum was upheld as the cornerstone of

making any true, noticeable and progressive change in quality of education. To delve deeper into the meaning of pedagogy and its internal dimensions, the works of two eminent theorists i.e. Robin Alexander and Lee Shulman, will be engaged with in the upcoming paragraphs.

In 2000, one of the most iconic research works on pedagogy and culture was published, based on a longitudinal as well as cross sectional comparative study done from the period 1994 to 1998, in the area of primary education in England, France, Russia, USA and India. This work attained worldwide recognition as firstly, it utilized the comparative education parameter to tap the unrecognized potential of “the most important part of educational terrain” i.e. teaching and learning; and secondly, it studied these processes in the context of culture and policies, in which they were deeply embedded. This study was written by Robin Alexander and was entitled as *Culture and Pedagogy: International Comparisons in Primary Education*.

According to Alexander, it was Brian Simon who first posed the question that why there was no pedagogy in England (during 1980s). What he really meant by this statement was that though teaching was very much existent, a coherent and effective pedagogic discourse was missing. Simon’s idea of pedagogy was “theory and practice of teaching” (Alexander, 2000). Furthering this argument, Alexander defined teaching as an act and pedagogy as both an act and a discourse. “Pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it.” To explain it more robustly, all the variables that he considered for measurement in his study, ranging from task, activity, routine, organization to interaction, judgement and learning discourse, were very much a part and parcel of the concept of pedagogy.

A vivid picture of what pedagogy is and what it entails was provided in further works of this scholar. In, *Still no pedagogy? Principle, pragmatism and compliance in primary education* (2004), Alexander marked the transition from teaching to pedagogy with three dimensions. In the first dimension, teaching as an activity was associated with four constituents i.e. students, their learning, the planning and execution of teaching practices and the curriculum. The second dimension helped in formalizing and legitimizing it by placing teaching in a particular context i.e. a school system and the policies of the respective regulating authorities, be it the institution, the local bodies or the government. The last dimension depicted how teaching was value laden and

had a purpose and often this was determined by locating it in the time and space it was situated in i.e. culture²³, idea of the self and history.

Among all the activities comprising pedagogy, the most ubiquitous is talk or interaction. Often the classroom environments get dominated by a “recitation script” where the questions posed by the educators are close-ended in nature and demand brief responses and minimal feedback. The consequence of such an interaction is that the children become less effective and lesser engaged in learning and are unable to further develop their critical thinking and questioning capacity. The disrupted feedback loop also prevents the teacher from knowing more about their pupils, their views and difficulties. Alexander henceforth promoted a dialogic form of teaching. After studying the benefits accruing to it, based on the researches done in Yorkshire (2003, 2004) and London (2005)²⁴, Alexander concluded that dialogic teaching was *collective* (working as a group or class), *reciprocal* (teachers and students openly engage with the ideas shared by each other), *supportive* (there is no fear in asking queries or being embarrassed about the wrongs answers and helping each other out in understanding the things that have been taught), *cumulative* (teacher’s capacity to build on his or her own ideas in linkage to the ones shared by the students) and *purposeful* (to abide by a specific educational goal) (Alexander, 2005).

Besides the five principles of dialogic teaching, Alexander created multiple repertoires in order to segregate the different components of talk which were used by the teacher for diverse educational needs and in different contexts, and these were learning talk, teaching talk, talk for everyday life and classroom organization. Dialogic teaching utilized the power of talk to inculcate thinking capacity among the students, develop their learning abilities and train them further for “livelong learning and active citizenship” (Alexander, 2010). The table no. 1 given below is a summarization of these repertoires: -

²³ Culture denoted the “web of values, ideas, institutions and processes which inform, shape and explain a society’s views of education, teaching and learning, and dilemmas for those whose job it is to translate these into a practical pedagogy.” (Alexander, 2004)

²⁴ The two studies revealed that dialogic teaching is beneficial in providing teachers with the insight to construct their questions more carefully and include queries with ‘why’ and ‘how’ and ask more open ended questions. The engagement between the educator and the pupils was lengthened and the children were answering the questions more affirmatively, confidently and loudly.

<u>Repertoires of Dialogic Teaching</u>	<u>Components of the Repertoires</u>	
Talk for Everyday Life	Transactional Talk	
	Interrogatory Talk	
	Expository Talk	
	Exploratory Talk	
	Expressive Talk	
	Evaluative Talk	
Learning Talk	Narrate	Evaluate
	Explain	Discuss
	Analyze	Argue
	Speculate	Justify
	Imagine	Ask questions on their own
	Explore	Children also listen, think about, what they heard, and give others time to think and respond and respect diverse viewpoints.
Teaching Talk	Rote	
	Recitation	
	Instruction	
	Exposition	
	Discussion	
	Scaffolding Dialogue	
Classroom Organization	Whole Class Teaching	
	Group Work (Teacher Led)	
	Group Work (Pupil Led)	
	One-to-One (Teacher-Pupil)	
	One-to-One (Pupil-Pupil)	

Table No.1: Repertoires of Dialogic Teaching as formulated by Robin Alexander

The section on teaching talk is worth discussing in detail as it encapsulated the diverse forms of classroom interaction mechanisms adopted by teachers from time to time: -

- i. Rote: monotonous drilling of ideas and facts into pupils through repetition.
- ii. Recitation: making use of short questions and answers sequences to test the students on whatever is expected to be known by them.
- iii. Instruction: telling children what to do and how to do it.
- iv. Exposition: imparting information and explaining facts and principles.
- v. Discussion: open exchange of ideas and views with the objective of exploring issues at hand and resolving areas of conflicts.
- vi. Dialogue: involves interactions that encourage children to think in their respective ways by asking questions that require much more than simple recalling and taking feedback on the activities done in class in order to improvise on them and make them more inclusive if they are lacking in some fields (Alexander, 2017).

Another eminent figure, who supposedly revolutionized the domain of education, especially by indulging in the obscure realm of pedagogy, was Lee S. Shulman, an educational psychologist. In his 1986 paper, entitled *Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching*, Shulman distinguished between three different knowledge bases with reference to the teacher and these were: -

- a. Content Knowledge: The amount of knowledge and its organization within the mind of the educator. Shulman believed that a teacher must not restrict himself or herself to sharing the accepted truths with the students, but must also “be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing and how it relates to other propositions, both within the discipline and without, both in theory and in practice.”
- b. Curriculum Knowledge: The curriculum and its related materials, tools and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for the teachers.
- c. Pedagogical Content Knowledge i.e. PCK: It is the amalgam of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge where content deals with knowledge of the subject matter without consideration about how to teach it and pedagogical knowledge comprises of the generic knowledge about how students learn, the diverse learning theories, what are the different forms of teaching approaches and methods of assessment etc. PCK hence includes the ways of formulating and representing the subject matter in such a way that it becomes comprehensible to others. Pedagogical or general pedagogical knowledge was defined by

Shulman (1987) as comprising of generic principles and strategies of classroom organization and management, knowledge about learners as well as learning, evaluation techniques and the educational contexts and objectives, that transcend concerns related to just subject matter (Blömeke et al., 2008).

“PCK also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons.....teachers need knowledge of the strategies most likely to be fruitful in organizing the understanding of learners, because those learners are unlikely to appear before them as blank slates.” (Shulman, 1986)

S. J. Magnusson, H. Borko and J. S. Krajcik (1999) gave a befitting example of PCK with reference to the teaching of science and it was comprised of: -

- Orientation to teaching science
- Knowledge of curriculum for science
- Knowledge about student’s understanding of science
- Knowledge of instructional strategies to be deployed and
- Knowledge about assessment of scientific literacy of the students (Enqvist, n.d.)

What can be safely concluded from the above discussion is that Shulman was extremely clear about his proposition that a strong Pedagogical Content Knowledge would be the basis of determining the best teachers and the “missing paradigm” of the process-product researches on teaching- was “content”.

In 2012, Sigrid Blomeke and Sean Delaney in their paper *Assessment of Teacher Knowledge across countries: a review of the state of research*, studied the content knowledge, generic pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of mathematics teachers undergoing the process of teacher training. For them, teacher knowledge could be treated as a dependent variable if one is studying the effect of teacher education and training on the trainees, and on the other hand, it could also be perceived as an independent variable if in case student achievement levels had to be measured. They were able to bifurcate teachers’ professional competencies into two wings: -

- Cognitive Abilities: These were comprised of content knowledge, generic pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge.
- Affective-Motivational Characteristics: Professional beliefs, motivation and self regulation.

The reason for the emphasis on this division is that this thesis will try to confine itself to the assessment of pedagogy on the basis of some of the elements from the former domain (not directly) primarily, and some from the latter, as measurement of both the parameters would be infeasible and more or less impossible to some extent. A more reasonable and potent measurement of the latter domain would be attainable through a longitudinal research study, which is neither an intent nor content of this doctoral thesis.

As mentioned in the beginning of this section, the research conducted by the Department of International Development on curriculum, pedagogy, teacher education and teaching practices was not only able to narrow down to one particular framework for defining pedagogy, but was also successful in selecting seven high rated studies in this field. Two among these were: Prema Clarke's study of the teacher training under District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) in Kolar district of Karnataka (2003) and Coffey's International study of Ability Based Learning (ABL) in Ghana (2012). These two studies are worth mentioning as they served as a benchmark for studying pedagogy and its components along with the policies of the government, implemented in the field of education. Thus, the micro activities in the classrooms were analyzed with reference to the macro-level based initiatives at the national level, a primary focus of this doctoral thesis too.

In *Culture and Classroom Reform: The Case of District Primary Education Project, India* (2003), Prema Clarke picked up four cultural constructs that defined student-teacher relationships and underlie pedagogical practices in Indian classrooms. These four generalized assumptions were deciphered through the previous anthropological and psychological studies done in this field and were as follows:

- i. Shared holistic acceptance of regulation i.e. individuals are not autonomous and are linked together in an interdependent system governed by social rules which are context specific.
- ii. Instruction as duty i.e. objective obligation that tells us what we must or must not do, despite what we really wish to do.

- iii. Cultural hierarchy where the teacher is the expert and the student is the novice and looks up to the former with reverence and gratitude.
- iv. Knowledge is collectively accumulated, attested and transferred i.e. individuals' choices are often derived from the community's will.

The objective of this study was to gauge whether these four cultural constructs had an impact on the practices of the teachers undergoing a ten day intensive in-service training under DPEP. The research consequently revealed that (i) and (ii) were facilitative by nature when it came to teachers imbibing new pedagogical skills like demonstrating with the help of charts, encouraging engagement with music and drama, and being impartial towards pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds. On the other hand, the latter two cultural constructs i.e. (iii) and (iv) acted as barriers when it came to teachers' adoption of activity-based techniques to propagate a child-centered pedagogy. Lastly, this study depicted how these new methodologies made the students relaxed and "without fear." Hence, Clarke argued in favour of teacher training modules which took into consideration the cultural dimensions of teacher thinking so that these educators could be relatively more receptive to the proposed changes in future.

The Synthesis report by Coffey, entitled *Transforming Learning Outcomes Through a Learner Centered Pedagogy: Moving Toward a Ghanaian Activity Based Learning Concept and Framework* (2012), focused on the question: what educational programmes in Ghana incorporated characteristics of ABL and what was the effect of this assimilation on Ghanaian pedagogy? The policies that were finally selected for the study were GES-MESHAV and School for Life.²⁵ ABL or Ability Based Learning is a novel, student centered model of teaching and learning that uses multiple, small-group, task-based activities, that encourage students to engage in questioning, participating in classroom activities or discussions and problem solving. These methods are distinct from the traditional pedagogical techniques which were defined by repetition, rote learning and "recitation and drill" (Coffey, 2012). ABL was therefore different from the previous pedagogical methods as it channeled all its energies in developing the cognitive abilities along

²⁵ GES-MESHAV's primary goal was to facilitate a healthy learning environment accompanied by a flexible curriculum, so that the student could develop their cognitive and creative abilities to the optimum level. School for Life, on the other hand, was a nine month (mother tongue) literacy programme aimed at ensuring that the children in deprived regions, between the age limit of 8 to 14 years, were able to gain access to formal education by bringing them at par with other children through the development of their fluency in mother tongue.

with the behavioural dimensions of the children. While the behavioural domain included activities like participation in indoor and outdoor activities, engagement in group or one to one classroom discussions, actively shaping their respective learning by opting for assignments and events; the cognitive dimension included those mental processes that helped the students in attaining, comprehending, retaining or recalling, analyzing, synthesizing information, as well as evaluating through judgement and reasoning, whatever has been imparted to them.

The report analyzed the intervention of ABL techniques at the systemic and school level, where the former dealt with policy formulation, development of programs, pre-service and in-service training parameters, assessment of teachers and students, development of teaching-learning materials, allocation of resources and evaluation criterion and feedback; and the latter included teaching and learning methods, classroom facilities and amenities, student-teacher interaction, head teacher support, teacher-peer support, student participation and assessment. Besides these indicators at the system and school level, four degrees or intensities of ABL were selected to measure them and these were : -

- Latent: Teachers impart information to the students and the pupils repeat them. Queries by pupils are rarely encouraged.
- Emerging: A mixed method combining ABL with traditional techniques.
- Established: Group activities are given more attention along with increased student participation and questioning frequencies.
- Advanced: The whole class actively engages in classroom activities and the level of participation is high with more scope for student talk. The number of small group activities escalates so that all the students get equal opportunity to voice their opinions and bring forth new ideas.

An example of how these four trends were clubbed with the above eleven parameters of systemic and school related indicators is:- Teaching–Learning Materials were described as ranging between emerging and established categories, while resource allocation was assigned the latent tag. Thus, overall the report clubbed the macro-level policies of GES-MESHAV and School for Learning, with the micro-level classroom environment and its auxiliary activities through the four scales of ABL intervention and was successfully able to identify the level of achievements and distress in the application of Ability Based Learning pedagogical methods and tools.

Apart from researches in teacher thinking, belief systems and a grander narrative of pedagogy, another field of study that gained merit was comparative pedagogy. Robin Alexander realized the amount of dedication that was required for a noteworthy study on comparative education as he mentioned that it required “engagement with several distinct literatures and modes of analysis, simultaneously.” Alexander was absolutely hell bent on the conceptualization of pedagogy as not merely teaching, but teaching along with its contingent discourse i.e. theories, values and debates. According to Alexander, comparative pedagogy had three requirements and these were: -

- a. An unparalleled and rational methodology for making comparison among nations, regions or cultures.
- b. Empirical study of teaching along with the values, ideas and debates that inform it.
- c. Macro and micro relationships that link classroom interactions and activities to curriculum and national policies (Alexander, 2009).

An exemplary study that has been done with reference to comparative education, apart from Robin Alexander’s Five Cultures, is *Teaching in Primary Schools in China and India: Contexts of Learning* (2013), by Nirmala Rao, Emma Pearson, Kai-ming Cheng and Margaret Taplin. Maximum studies on effective teaching and learning and educational policies are parochial in nature and content as they are often restricted to the calculation of performance or levels of achievement of students, academically. What these data lack, is an intensive research of teaching and learning processes within as well as without the classrooms. This particular research was able to do justice to the latter to a considerable degree.

This research on comparative education initially documented the national and local educational schemes and policies in both the nations, selected six schools each in India and China (two each in urban, semi-urban and local regions) focusing on classes III and V, interviewed not only the educators but also principals, policy formulators and parents on schooling, teaching practices, availability of resources and their dissemination, learning and achievement levels of the pupils and lastly, conducted tests for children to measure their performance in understanding of language and mathematics. It arrived at the conclusion that quality of education in the countries was determined by a complexity of factors rather than just one i.e. achievement of students in tests. These variables ranged from materials and human resources to pedagogical skills and techniques, the interaction between student and teachers and among teachers and the administration, classroom environment,

feedback by teachers, students and their parents, homework assignments and class based assessments (Rao et al., 2013).

Borrowing from the literature and studies reviewed above, this thesis will try to adhere to the definition of pedagogy and the dimensions of comparative pedagogy as conceptualized by Robin Alexander. The interlinkage between processes in terms of classroom practices, teaching methods, views and opinions of the teacher and their respective pupils, with the parameters ascertained by nationwide implemented educational policies, which is an indelible product of Alexander’s understanding about pedagogy, will be the primary concern of this thesis. The subsidiary questions of which processes and what policies will be dealt with in the proceeding chapters.

Quantification of Quality of Education: Misdirected, yet not Mislead

The Education for All (EFA) movement was the brainchild of five international institutions i.e. the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), the World Bank, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). In the year 1990, the *World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs* was adopted by delegates from 155 countries and representatives of around 150 governmental, non-governmental and inter-governmental organizations. Since it was organized in Jomtien, Thailand, it is also referred to as the *Jomtien Declaration*. The primary objective of this declaration was to aim for the achievement of the basic learning requirements of individuals, in terms of both learning content and acquiring skills, so that these human beings could develop faculties necessary for leading a life of dignity and improving their respective standard of living.

The declaration was comprised of ten articles and these are depicted in table no. 2 given below: -

<u>Jomtien Declaration’s Fundamental Principles and Goals</u>	
<u>Article No.</u>	<u>Content</u>
Article 1	Meeting the Basic Learning Needs of Children, Youths and Adults
Article 2	Need for an Expanded Vision
Article 3	Universalizing Access to Education and Promoting Equity

Article 4	Focus on Actual Learning rather than mere Enrolment and Completion of Certification Programmes
Article 5	Broadening the Scope of Basic Education
Article 6	Enriching Learning Environment by focusing on Interrelated Factors like Nutrition and Health and Emotional Balance and Support
Article 7	Strengthening of Partnerships at the National, Regional and Local Levels which assist in the formulation and implementation of Educational Policies and Schemes
Article 8	Supportive Policies in the Social, Cultural and Economic Sectors
Article 9	Mobilization of Adequate Resources
Article 10	Strengthening Solidarity at the International Level

Table No. 2: World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs (Jomtien, 1990)

The cumulative essences of these articles are often captured within the six dimensions of the Jomtien Declaration and these are: -

- i. Expansion of Early Childhood Care and Development
- ii. Universal Access to and Completion of Primary (Basic²⁶) Education
- iii. Improvement of Learning Achievement Levels and Outcomes
- iv. Reduction of Adult Illiteracy Rate with sufficient emphasis on Female Literacy and Reducing Gender Disparity in Education.
- v. Training in Essential Skills
- vi. Imparting Knowledge, Values and Skills for Better Living

Following the Jomtien Declaration, in the year 2000, the Institute for Statistics of UNESCO prepared a *Statistical Document* based on the quantitative data provided to it by 167 nations, so that the progress achieved by them with reference to the 1990 Jomtien goals, could be analyzed accordingly. Preceding this document was the Mid-Decade Conference held in Amman, Jordan

²⁶ Basic education referred to “the competencies, knowledge, attitude, values and motivations that are deemed necessary in order for people to become fully literate and to have developed the educational foundations for a lifelong learning journey. Basic education commences at birth and can be achieved through formal or non-formal means and agencies.” (UNESCO, 2000a)

(1996), where 18 core indicators for this assessment were duly decided upon and adopted and these were gross and net enrolment ratio, percentage of new entrants in Grade 1, gross and net intake rate, repetition rates, pupil-teacher ratio, literacy and adult literacy rates, literacy gender parity index, public current expenditure on primary education and the percentage of schools having achieved the required acquired qualifications and certification to teach (refer to appendix I). The *Global Synthesis Report*, a more concise and comprehensible format of the same document, further proclaimed that around 113 million children had no access to primary education; about 80 million adults were illiterate; and around 800 million children (below 6 years) were still not benefitting from early childhood care and education. This assessment became the launching pad for another conference that was organized in the same year and was an improvised extension to the Jomtien Declaration.

While all these measuring parameters were indications of quality of primary education in the various countries, where the surveys were eventually conducted, 'quality' as a variable was given undue significance in the World Education Forum held at Dakar, Senegal, from 26th-28th April, 2000. *The Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*, was a report comprising of six targets and twelve strategies for its participant nations and organizations. The six goals were: -

- i. Improving and expanding comprehensive childhood care and education, especially for the most disadvantaged sections of the society.
- ii. Access to complete, free and compulsory primary education to all children by the year 2015, with special focus on girls and ethnic minorities.
- iii. Fulfilling the learning needs of youths and adults through learning and life skills programmes.
- iv. Achieving more than 50 percent improvement in adult literacy levels by 2015.
- v. Achieving gender equality in education by 2015.
- vi. *Improving quality of education so that measurable learning outcomes are achieved by everyone with regards to literacy, numeracy and basic life skills.* (UNESCO, 2000b)

The Dakar Conference also propagated a list of twelve methodological strategies for the achievement of these six objectives mentioned above and these were: -

- Mobilizing strong national and international political and economic commitment for education for all
- Promoting EFA policies within a framework which is well equipped and sustainable
- Encouraging the participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation as well as monitoring of educational policies and schemes
- A responsive, accountable and inclusive system of educational governance and management
- Meet the requirements of calamity struck education systems and conduct programmes that assist in maintaining and promoting peace, non-violence and mutual understanding
- Targeted educational programmes to tackle HIV/AIDS pandemic
- Create a safe, healthy, inclusive and equitable learning environment with clearly defined levels of achievement for all
- Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers
- Tap the novel and advanced information and communication technologies to promote and achieve EFA goals
- Monitor the progress of these goals at the regional, national and international level
- Build on the existing programmes and make them more conducive towards EFA

What can be taken away from these strategies is the fact that teachers, but not teaching and pedagogy, as a variable was highlighted by mentioning the enhancement of status and professionalism of educators as an inevitable strategy for ensuing quality education for all. Moreover, the term professionalism had a very vague and ambiguous connotation and therefore it would be difficult to transform it into a measurable indicator.

Post Dakar conference, another significant meeting was organized, between May 12-14, 2014, in Muscat (Oman), which like the previous two declarations upheld education as a “fundamental human right.” The preliminary outcome of this enclave was to “ensure equitable and inclusive quality of education and lifelong learning for all by 2030” with special emphasis on gender equality and the uplifting of the marginalized sections. Provision of quality childhood care and education or basic education of at least 9 years was not its only prerogative. It was further extended to incorporate a much larger goal of establishing peaceful and sustainable societies, by disseminating knowledge and inculcating values, attitudes and skills among the pupils through global citizenship

education²⁷. Like the Dakar conference on Education for All, the Muscat meeting upheld the notion of the foremost role of schools being the usage of their curriculum and pedagogical methodologies for propagating democratic values among the learners and to help them become productive citizens and efficient workers. It was in the latter meeting that the linkage between quality of education, citizenship education and “qualified, professionally trained, motivated and well supported teachers” was formally acknowledged for the first time (Refer to Appendix II: Targets 5 and 6).

Before delving into the domain of other initiatives or bodies dealing with analysis of quality of education, the indicators evaluated by UNESCO’s Institute of Statistics as well as the Dakar Conference, need to be further engaged with. The 18 indicators selected for measurement based on the targets of the Jomtien Declaration, were primarily inclined towards calculating the enrolment, intake, retention, literacy rates, gender parity index and allocation of public resources towards the same. The variables related to teachers were restricted to pupil-teacher ratio, percentage of teachers who were eligible to teach based on their academic qualifications and certification through national standards. The lacunae in this statistical data analysis was that pedagogy and its affiliated dimensions were sidelined. Like all the previous endeavours, this particular document was also restricted to focusing more on students’ learning competencies and achievements alone, and not the plethora of angles dealing with teaching and its interrelated indicators. Similarly, the idea of quantifying quality primary education at the Dakar conference was confined to evaluating the learning outcomes achieved by the pupils in terms of numeracy (mathematics), literacy (reading/language) and basic life skills, and the little importance that was given to the teaching domain was restricted to the proficiency and academic acumen of the teachers, with pedagogical methods, distribution of classroom timings, decision making, type of teaching, assessment techniques etc, nowhere to be gauged.

In the year 1998, two years before the Dakar initiative, the *World Education Report: Teachers and teaching in a changing world*, was brought forth by UNESCO. According to the report, out of 100, 8 percent were pre-primary teachers, 43 percent were primary, 38 percent were secondary and 11 percent were tertiary. The report was able to indulge with some of the dimensions of pedagogy as it accorded advancement of education to be directly proportional to the “qualifications

²⁷ Citizenship Education is the personality and behavioural development of pupils and the inculcation of those skills and values that would facilitate them in becoming responsible citizens in the near future.

and ability of the teaching staff' along with the pedagogical, technical and human qualities of the individual teachers and it also prompted at upholding the areas of teacher training, preparation, recruitment and working conditions, for ensuring better outcomes in terms of the performance of the learners. A unique variable that was considered in this report was teacher attrition i.e. the percentage of teachers who resign from the profession every year. Indulging in this analysis could cull out various dimensions like the problems that teacher's face or the inefficiency of the administration to address the concerns of educators, which instigates them to leave and join other vocations or the same job but in different locales and institutions.

Teacher quality was indulged at a deeper level by a project under OECD entitled *Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge and the Teaching Profession* (2003), where pedagogical knowledge was associated with not only student achievement levels and outcomes but also teacher professionalism. The project suggested more engagement with general pedagogical knowledge rather than pedagogical content knowledge (both conceptualized by Lee Shulman), where the former denoted strategies of classroom management and principles of organization, and the latter meant the amalgamation of content knowledge possessed by the teacher with reference to a particular subject and the pedagogical knowledge for teaching the contents of that particular subject. General pedagogical knowledge was deemed to be more essential for determining the quality of teachers and their teaching patterns because it garnered information about classroom management, teaching methods, types of assessments, structure of lessons, knowledge about different learning processes and the individual characteristics of the students and adaptivity i.e. ability to deal with heterogeneous groups within the classroom, in an impartial manner.

Five years post the Dakar conference, the *Education for All Global Monitoring Report, 2005: The Quality Imperative*, was released. The report outlined the two main components of determining quality and these were: -

- Cognitive development of the learners
- Creative and emotional development of the learners by propagating values of peace, equality, security and citizenship along with "passing global and local cultural values down to future generations." (UNESCO, 2005)

One upside of this report over the preliminary reports or conferences was that it was directly able to address the fact that teachers are one of the key factors associated with quality of education imparted. In the same light, it recommended the formulation of recruitment standards for better selection, improving and innovating teacher training programmes, upgrading remunerations and perks and ensuring enhanced working conditions. But, like the other EFA initiatives, this report was also confined to the superficial and procedural realms of teaching and not the anatomy of teaching and its allied practices, henceforth addressed as pedagogy.

The *Teachers and Educational Quality: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015*, (2006), was a report prepared by UNESCO's Institute for Statistics, Montreal. In this study, the organization tried to examine the recruitment, training, demand and supply of teachers, their deployment, working environment and conditions, remuneration, instructional hours, class sizes, pupil-teacher ratio, in-service training, direct measure of their knowledge in subjects like mathematics, science and their academic skills, with the sole objective of determining the quality of teachers worldwide. A commendable recommendation by this particular report was to strike a balance between teacher quality and quantity and this could be achieved through measures like: recruiting more teachers on the basis of reformed qualifications and standards so that the quality was not compromised with and formulating specific policies to target the deployment and working conditions of teachers.

With special reference to India, a report was prepared by the Institute for Studies in Industrial Development, entitled *Final Report on Quality in School Education*, with the goal of analyzing the differences and similarities among different boards i.e. CBSE, ICSE, Delhi Government and International Baccalaureate, with reference to seven parameters: curriculum, syllabus, exam, evaluation, affiliation, accreditation and pedagogy. It surveyed nine schools (2-ICSE, 2-CBSE, 2-Delhi Govt. and 3-IB) across Delhi. The report defined pedagogy as the scientific teaching or instruction method through which knowledge was imparted among the pupils within the classroom; a "correct use of teaching strategies" (Quality Council of India, n.d.). Based on this conceptualization, it tried to segregate teaching practices in schools, into classes I-V, VI-VIII and IX-XII and subjects ranging from languages, social sciences, science, mathematics and environment to arts and crafts, and tried to determine their effectiveness by evaluating whether they were learning-centered activity-based approaches, child-centered approaches or practical works, projects and exhibitions. Apart from this, the quality indicators for determining the status

of schools within different boards ranged from school routines (morning), school safety/vigilance processes, governance and monitoring activities, health and hygiene, co-curricular activities, extra-curricular activities, teaching-learning processes, sanitation and garden activities, learner's performance and hobbies' development activities, and all the nine schools were graded on these grounds. One issue that can be highlighted about this report was that it adopted a generic notion of pedagogy and the criteria for comparing pedagogical practices among schools and boards were loosely defined, overlapping and not clearly bifurcated. E.g. both child-centered approaches and activity based learning approaches had overlapping dimensions. A more comprehensible and well-structured attempt at the same could be made if the institute provided a list of the meanings of the various pedagogical styles (and their core differences) and practices it tried to measure and used for differentiating among schools of diverse boards.

Robin Alexander in *Teaching and Learning for All?? The quality imperative revisited* (2015), brought forth the ingrained problems in the quality indicators selected in EFA initiatives. All the indicators that were measured were preoccupied with "input and output" and not the "process" in totality. Process would incorporate the teaching and learning activities and the factors governing them e.g. teaching-learning materials, teaching methods, active or passive teachers/students, traditional or ability based learning, attitude of teachers, evaluation or assessment techniques etc. Alexander claimed that even when the latter was considered in a few reports, it was still devoid of an objective criterion for its measurement. Most of these indicators were the prevailing conditions and contexts, rather than processes. Besides this, another major problem was the selection of variables which acted as "proxies" and were not apt and pin-pointed measuring yardsticks e.g. survival rate till class V was an unnecessary calculation as drop-out and repetition rates were already being analyzed. Alexander considered these proxies as indicators rather than measures and raised the concern of how these were often misconceived to be adequate measures for determining the quality of education²⁸.

²⁸ A measure is a procedure, unit or a device for calculating the quantity, while an indicator is a variable and complex clue to depict as to whether something is happening and if it is, then to what extent or magnitude. With reference to the distinction between the two, Alexander said that "If some indicators are not measurable, we should not give into measuring proxies and we should leave the immeasurable indicators in place, develop and refine them, in their own terms as qualitative devices for making qualitative judgements, and look for appropriate ways of using them to support our tasks of monitoring development and improvement." (Alexander, 2015)

Based on these claims, Alexander aptly acknowledged that “Pedagogy is a very deep pool,” of which UNESCO is afraid of falling into. Both quality and pedagogy as a variable were not properly explored in any of the initiatives or documents and reports. He therefore proposed: -

- The perception of learning as a process variable also, rather than just an outcome indicator.
- Defining terms more clearly and vividly and in an objective manner.
- Opting for creative researches over doctrinal ones (Alexander, 2015).

These challenges mentioned by Alexander were not only directed towards the EFA endeavours organized by UNESCO [(Jomtien Declaration (1990), Dakar Conference (2000), GMR (2002 2004, 2005, 2014)], but were also channelized towards other quality defining and measuring attempts made by Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Department for International Development (DfID) and NCERT’s Quality Monitoring Tools (QMT). One example that should get elaborate attention here should be the EFA Development Index (EFA-DI). Unlike the Human Development Index which measures life expectancy at birth, education index in terms of mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling, and a decent standard of living calculated as Gross National Income per capita, the Education Development Index was comprised of four components i.e. total primary net enrolment ratio; adult literacy rate; survival rate till grade V; and average of the three gender parity indexes for primary, secondary and tertiary education levels. Its primary goal was to focus on “not only the outcome indicators, but at the input and process indicators too,” (“Educational Development Index,” 2005) but what it was deeming to measure did the exact opposite. It measured quantity rather than quality, and claimed it to be a manifestation of the latter.

In India, post the inauguration of DISE data (as discussed before), NUEPA in collaboration with the MHRD computed the Education Development Index (EDI). It created a Working Group on EDI in 2005-06 which aimed at identifying 23 indicators ranging from the category of inputs and outputs to processes as well. The lacunae in the same can be unearthed when the indicators are discussed in detail. These indicators are mentioned in table 3 given below: -

<u>Computation of Education Development Index</u>	
Component	Indicator
Access	Percentage of Habitations not served
	Number of schools per 1000 Child Population
	Ratio of Primary to Upper Primary Schools
Infrastructure	Average Student-Classroom Ratio
	Schools with Student-Classroom Ratio more than 60
	Percentage of schools without drinking water
	Percentage of schools with common toilets
	Percentage of schools with girls toilets
Teacher	Percentage of Female Teachers
	Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)
	Percentage of schools with PTR more than 60
	Percentage of schools with less than 3 Teachers
	Percentage of Single Teacher Schools with Number of Children less than 15
	Percentage of Teachers without Professional Qualification
Outcome	Overall Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)
	GER of Scheduled Castes
	GER of Scheduled Tribes
	Gender Parity Index
	Repetition Rates
	Dropout Rates
	Ratio of Exit Class over Class 1 Enrolment
	Percentage of Appeared Children Passed
	Percentage of Appeared Children Passed with more than 60 % Marks

Table No. 3: Computation of Education Development Index

Source: Education Development Index, 2005, pg. 169

Like the DISE data, the data collected under the category of teachers was limited in nature. It only calculated the pupil-teacher ratio, the school-teacher ratio, their professional and academic credentials and the number of teachers (female). Pedagogical parameters were still missing and left untouched, which can be addressed in Alexander's terminology as an "empirical myopia."

Borrowing from Harlen and adding one criteria of his own, Alexander suggested a list of four tests for selecting the best indicators for measuring pedagogy and these were: validity, reliability, impact and responsibility. Validity depicted how closely the indicators corresponded to what they were deemed to indicate in the first place; Reliability meant the consistency with which the same indicator could be applied in diverse settings; Impact denoted the consequences (intended and unintended) of the use of that indicator; and Responsibility meant "who, at each level of the system, needs to know what in order that quality can be measured." If responsibilities of determining pedagogy are shared by different levels, then the input, output and process indicators should address all the levels of the particular system in question. All these premises can come in handy while selecting, defining and designing the various variables to be measured for this particular thesis.

This section on the archaic variables for determining quality of education would be rendered incomplete, if educational discourses from the Indian perspective are not engaged with. In *History of the quality debate* (2004), Krishna Kumar and Padma M. Sarangapani, argued that the terms 'quality' of education was popularized during the 1950s and 1960s, and had two meanings: "essential character" or "essential attribute" with which something is identified, and superiority or rank of one thing over the other. With the passage of time that latter comparative meaning of quality gained currency and goals associated with universal access to education, especially in terms of admission and retention, were popularized. Furthermore, aid-driven interventions by international organizations in determining the criteria for quality of education in Third World Nations like India and Africa, and prescribing dates for the achievement of these targets, led to detrimental effects on the overall quality of education in these regions, in terms of schooling as well as professionalism of teachers (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004).

Besides access related targets, schooling was perceived as a model with the help of which literacy rates are multiplied and learning outcomes of students are enhanced accordingly. This restrictive definition had its implications on the corresponding conceptualization of the term

‘quality of education,’ as tests began being formulated to measure the performance level of students in linguistic and arithmetic skills e.g. Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), Annual Status of Education Report (ASER), National Achievement Survey (NAS) etc. This obsession with the input-output analogy or the “blackbox” model of education (Kumar & Sarangapani, 2004), depicts how there was a visible gap between ‘quality education’ and ‘quality of education’. The parameters mentioned for attributing ‘quality education’, ranging from accessibility and learning abilities to provisioning of infrastructural resources and teaching and learning practices and environment within the classroom, were not adequately represented in the designing of variables for indicating ‘quality of education.’ The latter were often comprised of those indicators which were easily quantifiable and face-value based, and lacked the acumen to describe what was happening at a deeper, process-based level of education²⁹, merely because there was a mismatch between the objectives and the yardsticks designed for tabulating them.

Besides raising concerns about the monumental challenges faced with reference to ascertaining quality of education, and making progressive claims about engaging with non-traditional variables which were more process-oriented than output-based, attempts were made to dissect the term ‘quality’ itself. According to J. P. Naik, in *Equality, Quality and Quantity* (1975), quality of an educational system was a ‘master concept’ and was comprised of five elements i.e. ends and means, capacity, level of performance, efficiency and comprehensive evaluation. Christopher Winch (1996), on the other hand, believed that quality was comprised of: aims or goals, curriculum, standards, practice and accountability in relation to different interest groups or stakeholders (Sarangapani, 2018). On conducting a comparative analysis of the idea of quality of education as deciphered by Naik, Winch, Alexander, Kumar, and Dhankar, Sarangapani argued that a wider and inclusive concept of quality of schooling would entail five assessable dimensions and these were: aims of education; provisioning or availability of infrastructural resources and curriculum; standards and assessment; pedagogy; and accountability. The all-encompassing nature of these variables surely expands the purview of quality of education, but keeping in mind the objective of this doctoral thesis, only pedagogical indicators will form the central area of research in this study. Thus, aligned with the aforementioned objective of expanding the criteria for

²⁹ Chapter II will discuss this issue in detail by highlighting the difference between ‘*ascriptive*’ and ‘*descriptive*’ features of quality of education.

assessing quality of education, this thesis will try to focus primarily on the role played by pedagogy in determining quality of education, along with special reference to citizenship education.

Conclusion

What can be gathered from the discussions in this chapter, is that pedagogy and its auxiliary activities as a variable have been missing from the realm of determining the quality of education, both nationally (pan-India level) and internationally. Though attempts have been made to address the issue of late, they are still less copious and not well directed or focused, especially with reference to the macro-level educational policies. The prerequisite of any research in such a field is a well-defined list of indicators that need to be duly assessed, and majority of the conferences and initiatives which tried to incorporate pedagogical indicators or claimed to do so, lacked in this particular sphere. In concurrence to this concern, Barrow and Woods, in *An Introduction to Philosophy of Education*, proactively mentioned that research in teaching requires the fulfillment of three preliminary conditions: -

- i. A vivid and lucid understanding of education and the system pertaining to it.
- ii. A well-defined list of variables that need to be measured.
- iii. Particularities of the local factors and context e.g. curriculum, groups of subjects to be surveyed (detailed sampling), types of schools, types of locales: urban or rural etc.;

An inevitable take away from this chapter in totality, is to avoid, to the best of one's ability, giving in to the limitations of quality of education researches and to abide by the principles deemed to be necessary for a research on pedagogy. Such principles would be devoid of lack of clarity or non-precision, or obsession with input and output, rather than processes themselves. Furthermore, inclusion of quality judgement parameters laden in national policies and their respective official documents, especially with reference to pedagogical requirements and concerns, would provide a solid head start to any research in this direction, which this thesis proposes to abide by and duly indulge in.

CHAPTER II

Pedagogy and National Educational Initiatives: An Imperative Shift from Ascriptive to Descriptive Domain

Introduction

*In theory there is no difference between theory and practice.
In practice there is.*

- Yogi Berra

This particular statement made by the renowned professional baseball player Lawrence Peter Yogi Berra more or less grasps the essence of the age old debate on determining the prospective superiority between the normative and the empirical: ‘what ought to be’ and ‘what is’; and most importantly between theory and praxis. As time passed, the discussion altered from establishing relative hierarchy to acknowledging the truth, that the existence of one is futile without the other.

Indulging in this discourse from a related but different angle was none other than the Nobel Laureate, Prof. Amartya Kumar Sen. In his 2009 work, *The Idea of Justice*, Sen bifurcated the approaches to social justice into ‘transcendental institutionalism’ and ‘realization-focused comparison’. The former school believed that a set of sound principles and institutions would make the environment conducive for the upbringing of a just society e.g. the two principles of justice by John Rawls or the principles of utilitarianism by Jeremy Bentham and subsequently, J.S. Mill. Contrary to this, the latter approach attended to the actual behaviour of individuals and groups, as well as the reality of social, political and economic institutions, in analyzing the prevalent inequalities and injustices and trying to mitigate them. He further linked the second approach to his holistic idea of justice as ‘Nyaya’ which moved beyond the conceptualization and realization of a just society based on some pre-established criterion, to a deeper examination of socio-cultural evils, political upheavals, economic discrepancies and environmental crises, as well as taking remedying steps to gradually overcome them.

A simplified view of this distinction between the two approaches is nothing other than the comparison between theory and praxis or practice. While transcendental institutional approaches to justice focused on a normative idea of a just society, guided by certain principles, its counterpart, that is the realization-based comparison approaches, delved into the empirical domain and encouraged engagement with the discrepancies, unfreedoms and inequalities existing in the society and devising strategies to get rid of them completely.

The problem with the above argument is that sometimes not having milestones or prospective desirable end results, makes the completion of a process cumbersome and even clueless. According to Debra Satz, the distinctions drawn by Sen between the transcendental justice and comparative judgments were ‘overdrawn’ and ‘less sharp’. She said that ‘there are times when a person cannot figure out what constitutes a move to a superior, more just position without reflecting upon and working out her personal conception of what “perfect justice” entails.’ She is disillusioned by the idea of keeping unquestioning faith on comparative approaches for resolving injustice, as they are not guided by ‘optimum points’ (Satz, 2012). Thus, for a journey the most important thing is the destination, no matter which route one is trying to consider as though some routes might be influenced by the mood of the riders, without a milestone there will be constant dilemma and stress. Similarity, a theory of justice without a landmark is a lost cause ! (Tripathi, 2020).

The whole point behind raising this concern here is to highlight the argument that theory without practice and vice-versa is redundant and devoid of value. In the field of education, the normative i.e. the ideals or principles of learning, teaching, optimum classroom environment and interaction among the students, between the teachers and pupils and their parents or the administration and the teaching staff, as often formulated by philosophers as well as administrators in the form of educational policies and schemes, will be incomplete, if it is not effectively synchronized with its implementation. With reference to this particular dissertation and its objectives, this chapter will immerse itself into the theoretical and normative domain of pedagogy and its determinants, with special reference to educational initiatives at the national level. In continuation to the previous chapter which dealt with the question of ‘what is pedagogy’ and the paucity of pedagogical indicators in the measurement of quality of education at the national as well as the international domain, this chapter will carry the discussion forward into culling out the multifarious determinants of pedagogy in national or central policies and schemes, so that they can

serve as prospective indicators for the same, and move beyond the realm of archaic teacher-related indicators as discussed earlier.

An Indispensable Synthesis of *Ascriptive* and *Descriptive* Attributes

In 1936, an anthropologist by the name of Ralph Linton, published his work *The Study of Man: An Introduction*. He formulated two concepts for determining the positioning of individuals and groups within the social structure. These were “ascribed status” and “achieved status”. The former denoted the status accruing or “assigned to individuals without reference to their innate differences or abilities.” Hence it included those characteristics which were attained at birth or by lineage and the individual had negligible control over them e.g. race, gender, ethnicity, caste etc. Achieved status, on the other hand, was determined by the effort or performance of the individual (Foladare, 1969).

Methodologically borrowing from the above analogy, two similar yet slightly distinct categories can be created for understanding the indicators formulated and subsequently used by the organizations to determine the status of teachers in relation to determining the quality of education. These bodies claim to incorporate holistic variables which have aptitude for not only analyzing nominal aspects like pupil-teacher ratio, male or female teachers, vacancies, teachers in private/public schools, permanent or contractual teachers etc., but also meaningful teaching-related aspects. Despite these claims, the focus has primarily been on *ascriptive* features! Though, recently more and more efforts are being made to conduct research on pedagogical indicators, their proportion is nevertheless miniscule.

The two categories that have been derived from the aforementioned analogy are “*ascriptive*” and “*descriptive*” attributes. *Ascriptive* attributes incorporate those features of pedagogy, with reference to quality of education, which are judged on grounds of face-value and can easily be reduced to numerical data. These are nominal in value and content because they capitalize on those indicators which are more inclined towards inputs or outputs like infrastructural and administrative concerns, rather than focusing on the quality of teaching within the country, e.g. number of permanent or para-teachers, government or private teachers, teacher attendance, vacancies, PTR, trained or untrained. *Descriptive* attributes, on the other hand, are those which delve into deeper and more holistic concerns pertaining to the teaching-learning processes, like

teaching methods and strategies opted, performance levels, teacher satisfaction levels, teacher attrition, teacher training, satisfaction with remuneration and curriculum, the relationship between the students, fellow teachers as well as parents and the equation between the teachers and administration. Unlike *ascriptive* attributes, the *descriptive* features are more detailed and illustrative in nature, process-oriented, and are well-equipped to act as indicators of quality of education. They take the attention away from mere achievement levels of students, availability of resources or teaching-learning materials and conventional educational denominators like enrollment ratios, retention rates, attendance, drop-outs, survival rates etc, as done by numerous state-wide surveys and institutions in the past, to yardsticks related to pedagogy.

One method of systematically unearthing *descriptive* attributes, for analyzing pedagogy per se, is by going through the national acts, policies and schemes formulated and nationally implemented by the government. These documents often deem to contain a plethora of criterion and rules to be followed by or standards to be maintained, pertaining to the autonomy exercised by teachers, but are left unaccounted for as no counter-surveys are done to see their adoption and respective implementation. Often, as discussed before also, the variables that are selected by researchers from these initiatives are adorned with *ascriptive* values and not *descriptive* ones. This entire process renders the system ineffective in addressing the problem of teaching and poor learning at the grassroots level. Thus, for a more in-depth analysis, interception of *descriptive* attributes is inevitable, as like the achieved status of Linton, these are based on the performance and actual practices of the teachers within the classroom and their impact on the students. Nonetheless, this thesis in no way suggests that researches done on *ascriptive* attributes are futile or unnecessary. Rather it puts forward the argument that there needs to be a synthesis between the two attributes, for getting rid of the problematic issues ailing the education system and formulating not only a holistic policy towards sustainable education, but also a formidable yardstick for determining its quality in a relatively nuanced manner.

Keeping this segregation in mind, the following section will do a thorough reading of the policies and schemes, implemented centrally by the Indian government and will try to select variables from them – variables that are *descriptive* rather than *ascriptive* in nature and content. The rationale behind selecting national-level initiatives is that the study proposes to work in the field of comparative pedagogy and these schemes or policies will be adopted by all states, with

variations nonetheless. Selecting the implementation of the same schemes in two different states and then analyzing their consequences can yield more reliable and profound data, than comparing the respective state-level initiatives of different states or studying the same schemes only in one region i.e. a case study method. Though the latter two forms of research are neither redundant nor ineffective, the intent of this particular dissertation demands the former method of inter-state comparison.

National Educational Policies and their Pedagogical Criterion

The Indian Standard Classification of Education (InSCED) classifies the education system on the basis of: -

- i. Level of Education: It organizes the system on the basis of the gradation pattern and the multiple stages of learning and acquiring skills and competencies, based on the educational programme operative at particular levels e.g. Pre-Primary (Nursery, Kindergarten, Anganwadi, Balwadi, Play schools), Primary (Class I- V), Upper Primary (Class VI- VIII), Secondary (Class IX-X), Senior Secondary (XI-XII), Under-Graduate, Post-Graduate, M.Phil, Ph.D., Diploma, Post Graduate Diploma including Advanced Diploma, Integrated (two or more programmes e.g. Bachelors and Masters), Certificate Courses, In-service Training, Adult Education and Education not elsewhere classified (Education n.e.c.).
- ii. Field of Education: A field is the content or subject matter covered by an educational programme. There are 35 broad and 188 detailed fields. The former incorporate: Area Studies, Arts, Commerce, Cultural Studies, Defense Studies, Disability Studies, Foreign Language, Gandhian Studies, Indian Language, Linguistics, Oriental Learning, Religious Studies, Science, Social Sciences, Social Work, Women Studies, Agriculture, Criminology and Forensic Sciences, Design, Education, Engineering and Technology, Fashion Technology, Fine Arts, Fishery Sciences, Home Science, IT and Computer, Journalism and Mass Communication, Law, Library and Information Science, Management, Marine Science and Oceanography, Medical Science, Physical Education, Veterinary and Animal Science and Not Known or Specified (MHRD, 2014).

One unavoidable take-away from this document is that its basis of making the above mentioned classification is the educational programme which is presently running throughout the nation. An

educational programme is “a coherent set or sequence of educational activities designed and organized to achieve pre-determined learning objectives or accomplish a specific set of educational tasks over a sustained period.” This programme may also be grouped into sub-parts like courses, modules or subjects.

Besides this method of classification, the British Council mentioned three grounds for segmenting the Indian education system and these were as follows: -

- a) Levels of Education (Primary, Secondary, Higher and Adult Education)
- b) Ownership of Educational Institutions (Public, Private or Public-Private Partnership)
- c) On the Basis of Educational Board Affiliations (ICSE, CBSE, State Boards and International Boards) (Parruck Chanda & Ghosh, 2014).

Having established the structure of the Indian education system and the meaning of educational programmes, it is now safe to move towards the main content of this chapter i.e. the prospective *descriptive* pedagogical indicators that can be unearthed from within the official documents pertaining to educational programmes, in terms of national policies, schemes and legislative acts. The upcoming section of the chapter will not only discuss the basic objectives of the four primary national initiatives i.e. the National Curriculum Framework (2005), the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002) and The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, (2009), with reference to teachers and their requisite skills and practices, which will eventually be selected as *descriptive* indicators for this thesis, but will also delve into the domain of how they were so designed that their structures overlapped with one another and were intricately intermeshed. Chronology will better be able to depict how the government was working with these four programmes or policies simultaneously, though not at the same point of time, yet taking cognizance of the fact that the preceding initiatives and their goals should be carried further and perfected according to the needs of the generation in question. This is one of the basic reasons why every document, especially belonging to the 21st century, addressed the concerns mentioned in the preceding policy as well as the other educational schemes that were being implemented at that particular time interval. Keeping these factors in mind, the next section has been divided into five compartments, four primarily dealing with the national policies or schemes and one with the 1999 PROBE report. The National Education Policy of 2016 (draft) and 2020 and the PROBE Report (1998-99) will only serve as intervening and

connecting pointers to the other four main chosen policies and would not be considered for picking out the prospective *descriptive* pedagogical indicators. The reason behind including them in the forthcoming analysis is to see the trajectory of how teaching, to some extent, did become a variable, in terms of being regarded as a plausible factor for not only determining quality education but also being evaluated and reviewed at periodic time intervals.

I. National Policy of Education (Draft Report of 2016 and NEP 2020)

The report submitted by the sixth education commission of India³⁰, popularly known as the Kothari Commission (1964-1966), led to the formulation of the first National Policy on Education (1968). This policy focused on the “radical restructuring” of education for ensuring the socio-economic and cultural development of the nation, attainment of national integration and for “realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society”. Besides aiming for compulsory education for all children till the completion of 14 years, implementation of a three-language formula and the proposed spending on education should not be less than 6 per cent, this document conferred on teachers the utmost responsibility of maintaining and uplifting the quality of education. It rooted for the freedom of educators to conduct independent researches and publish them accordingly, as well as laid special emphasis on remodeling of teacher education.

In the year 1986, the second National Policy on Education was launched, under the tenure of Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi. This policy was entitled, *Special emphasis on the removal of disparities and to equalize education opportunity*. Following the passage of this policy, two committees were subsequently created i.e. Acharya Ramamurthi Committee (1990) and N. Janardhana Reddy Committee (1991), to review and recommend modifications to the 1986 policy. These suggestions were duly inserted and subsequently the Programme of Action was launched in 1992, under the Narsimha Rao government. The salient features of the 1986 policy as well as the Programme of Action, especially with reference to pedagogical issues and concerns, has been cumulatively mentioned here: -

³⁰ The Kothari Commission (1964-1966) was the third education commission, during the post-independence period. Its predecessors were - University Education Commission (1948-1949) and Secondary Education Commission (1952-1953).

- Education played an “acculturating role” as it redefined “sensitivities and perceptions that contribute to national cohesion, a scientific temper and independence of mind and spirit—thus furthering the goals of socialism, secularism and democracy enshrined in our constitution.”
- The National System of Education would incorporate a common structure i.e. 10+2+3; a National Curriculum Framework (NCF) comprising of language, mathematics, science and environment, social sciences, work experience, art and physical education; Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL).
- Education for Equality: - Removing disparities and trying to equalize access to education, by specifically attending to the needs of the groups that have been deprived so far e.g. women, scheduled castes and tribes, other backward sections, handicapped and religious minorities.
- Different Stages of Education and their Re-organization: Early Childhood Care and Education, Elementary Education (Class I-VIII), Secondary Education, Higher Education and Adult Education. Besides universal enrolment and retention, this section of the policy envisaged a “child centered and activity-based process of learning,” also known as a paedocentric approach, accompanied by elements like remedial instruction, no detention policy, abolition of corporeal punishment, and provisioning of non-formal education for children who dropped out of schools or were residing in no school areas or were engaged in paid labour.
- Vocationalization of Education: In order to train pupils for different occupations, vocational courses would be offered from +2 stages, with exclusive emphasis on self-employment.
- Higher Education: Creation of autonomous colleges and redesigning of courses and programmes in colleges to meet the demands of specialization. Establishment of Open universities for distance learning opportunities and rural universities for addressing the concerns pertaining to agriculture.
- Teachers and Teaching Education: With regards to the professional competence and the service conditions of teachers, the policy clearly stated that the criterion for selection and recruitment of teachers would be reorganized, so that merit and objectivity are not compromised with, under any circumstance. It further proposed up-gradation in the pay scales, removal of grievances and safeguarding of teacher associations, by preparing a code of ethics for teachers, so that professional misconduct could be avoided. The Programme of Action specifically mentioned that the status of teachers had a direct correlation with the quality of education. Furthermore, it

promoted the active participation of teachers in policy making, implementation as well as management.

From 1968 to the early 21st century, various other programmes were launched at the national as well as state levels. But post the 1992 Programme of Action, the equivalent nation-wide policy that was drafted was the draft of National Policy of Education 2016, followed by the most recent development i.e. the National Education Policy of 2020. Regardless of the fact that whether the targets mentioned in these policies would be monitored during this doctoral research or not, the primary reason for discussing these educational programmes is that they are the latest governmental initiative towards ensuring good quality education for all and are deemed to be an improvised version of their predecessors.

On 30th April, 2016, a committee constituted by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, under the chairmanship of T.S.R. Subramanian, submitted its report on the evolution of a new policy of education. Unlike the previous national policies, this document was procedural enough in linking the purpose of education to not only the development of the nation's socio-economic stance and human capital, but also the nurturing of citizens with certain desirable qualities. It said that the policy "reiterates the role of education in cultivating value, and to provide skills and competencies for the citizens, and in enabling them to contribute to the nation's wellbeing; strengthen democracy by empowering citizens; acts as an integrating force in society and fosters social cohesion and national identity." The fundamental objectives of this national policy were laden within two questions, as stated in the draft: -

- a. *What kind of citizens should emerge as an end product of the education system?*
- b. *What attributes should an educated citizen possess in order to be able to function as an informed and enlightened member of the society?*³¹ (Subramanian, 2016).

In the section on teacher management, the report analyzed that the main factors responsible for low quality of education, especially in relation to the teaching cadre, were vacancies, absenteeism, grievances and lack of teacher accountability. It recommended the NCERT to make substantive changes in the curriculum and the pedagogical styles of the teachers (through the National Curriculum Framework formulated by it), so that the pattern could be reformed from the traditional

³¹ The relevance of these questions will become more plausible in the next chapter dealing with the relationship between citizenship education and the role of pedagogy.

rote-learning method to an environment that encourages a spirit of enquiry among the pupils and demands greater involvement of their cognitive and creative faculties.

The draft of the 2016 National Education Policy clearly stated that the major challenges to the achievement of optimum standards in education were overburdening curriculum, paucity of trained teachers and ineffective pedagogy. Variables like teacher quality, motivation, training, involvement in non-teaching activities and their performance were also held responsible for the unsatisfactory quality of education. It also drew a parallel between how these factors were responsible for the resultant low levels of learning outcomes among students, as indicated in the latest National Achievement Surveys that covered grades III, V, VIII and X. Thus, unlike the preceding educational programmes, the orientation of this policy was to establish a strong connection between teaching and learning processes and their role in determining quality of education. The mission of this policy was to: -

Ensure equitable, inclusive and quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all.....inculcate an awareness among children, youth and adults of India's rich heritages, glorious past, great traditions and heterogeneous culture and promote responsible citizenship, peace, tolerance, secularism, national integration, social cohesion and mutual respect for all religions, as well as universal values that help develop global citizenship and sustainable development. (MHRD, 2016)

The term “quality education” was understood as an end product of the adequate performance by a conjunction of variables like curriculum, teaching and learning materials, infrastructural development, comprehensive assessment patterns, “pedagogic processes” and “teacher quality and performance”. Formally, the direct proportionality between quality of education and pedagogy was recognized for the first time in this particular national policy. Though teaching-related factors were considered before also, in bits and pieces, this particular document solidified the relationship. While recommending the periodic assessment of teachers and not only students, the document clearly emphasized on an assessment test that would gauge the subject knowledge along with the pedagogical skills of the educator. This bifurcation was to some extent synonymous with the distinction that Lee Shulman (1986) established between pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge, where the former included generic principles about the teacher’s mechanisms and tools of assessing, knowledge about different learning theories and how students grasp a subject and

strategies for classroom organization or management, while the latter dealt with the teacher's command over subject matter.

The most recent intervention in the field of education, by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, is the National Education Policy of 2020. This policy is so far the most apt manifestation of holism, when it comes to understanding the importance of interconnections between the different segments of an education system i.e. pedagogy, learning techniques and outcomes, infrastructural availability and development and a value-based curriculum. It defined a good education institution as “*one in which every student feels welcomed and cared for, where a safe and stimulating learning environment exists, where a wide range of learning experiences are offered, and where good physical infrastructure and appropriate resources conducive to learning are available to all students.*” The italicised part of the definition provides a non-subtle yet an indirect hint to the role played by the educator in ensuring such engagements. Apart from this, the policy made a direct reference as to how the orientation of pedagogy must be such that it makes education more learner-centric, experiential, enjoyable, integrated, flexible, discussion-based, and inquiry-driven.

A simplistic way of understanding the provisions and the salient principles of this policy have been shared in the pointers laden below: -

- a. Education is a public service. Universal access to quality education must be considered a basic right of every child.
- b. Education must develop both the cognitive capacities (the ‘foundational capacities of literacy and numeracy’ and ‘higher-order cognitive capacities’, such as critical thinking and problem solving), and the emotional capacities and dispositions of the students.
- c. No hard separations between curricular and extra-curricular activities, arts and sciences (multidisciplinary), vocational and academic streams, in order to eliminate the hierarchies existing among these divergent areas of learning.
- d. A shift from 10+2 model to 5+3+3+4 structure i.e. ECCE and 2 years of primary education (Anganwadi/Balvatika/Play-School/Kindergarten and Class I and II) + 3 left over years of primary education (Class III, IV and V) + 3 years of upper primary education (Class VI, VII and VIII) + 4 years of secondary education (Class IX, X, XI and XII).
- e. Emphasis on conceptual clarity rather than rote learning or exam oriented learning.

- f. Getting rid of the coaching or tuition culture.
- g. Focussing on the acculturation of constitutional values like spirit of service, responsibility, empathy, respect for others, pluralism, respect for public property, cleanliness, courtesy, scientific temper, democratic spirit, liberty, equality, and justice.
- h. Promotion of multilingualism and use of mother tongue, preferably till elementary level.
- i. Focus on regular formative assessment rather than summative assessment, while evaluating student's performance.
- j. Extensive, yet judicious use of technology in teaching and learning, and increasing access for Divyang (specially challenged) students.
- k. A 'light but tight' regulatory framework to ensure transparency and resource efficiency, through audits and public disclosures.
- l. Six per cent of gross domestic product to be utilized for educational purposes.
- m. Teachers, their recruitment, service conditions, continuous professional development and positive working environments.

In relation to the last principle i.e. teachers and their affiliated factors, the policy document had some forward-looking and unconventional recommendations. Besides mentioning issues like teacher vacancies be filled and pupil-teacher ratios be maintained (at 30:1), reforms catering to the upgradation of teaching and learning processes were duly suggested. With regards to recruitment, provisions for incentives for teachers opting for jobs in rural areas; compulsory B.Ed degrees as an essential qualification parameter; extension of coverage of Teacher Eligibility Tests (TETs) across all stages i.e. Foundational, Preparatory, Middle and Secondary; interviews along with classroom demonstrations and proficiency in local language(s), as the criteria for final selection of teachers; were formally proposed.

The other teaching and work-related reforms were: hiring of local experts or 'master instructors' across various subjects to promote local knowledge as well as professions; more involvement of teachers in School Management Committees and School Complex Management Committees; less engagement by teachers in non-teaching and non-curricular activities to prevent them from becoming overburdened and disoriented; more autonomy to teachers in terms of teaching methods and building of classroom environments, accordingly; continuous professional development opportunities at the disposal of educators, in the form of national and international

workshops and development modules (at least 50 hours annually); due recognition and promotion of faculty for incentivizing teachers with outstanding performance levels; assessment of the performance of teachers on the basis of a National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST) (to be developed by 2022); format for training of special educators to teach Divyang children with disabilities; shutting down of substandard Teacher Education Institutions; and finally, a comprehensive National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE), formulated by the NCTE in consultation with NCERT, to be produced by 2021.

Thus, aligning itself with the provisions associated with a curriculum, which would not only enhance the cognitive and learning abilities of the students but also inculcate ethical values among them, the National Education Policy of 2020, emphasized upon the exponential potential of teachers and pedagogy in fulfilling this dream. It is on these grounds that this policy was able to overcome, to some extent, the inadequacies of the policies of the past. But, a methodological and rational action at this point would be to wait and assess the implementation of the above provisions, in the coming years, rather than exaggerate about its potential to bring forth progressive alterations and generate promising returns, by acknowledging the fact that many of these reforms have already been made and pushed for in some of the previous educational programmes and are still awaiting implementation.

II. National Curriculum Framework (2005) and National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009)

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF) is an official blueprint prepared by the National Council for Educational Research and Training, for formulating the principles of a sustainable syllabus and learning designs for all grades or levels of education, as well as guidelines for the educators for implementing them efficiently. These frameworks have been prepared four times i.e. 1975, 1988, 2000 and 2005. This section will briefly consider the first three and will then lay special emphasis on the fourth and final document and try to identify the pedagogical indicators laden within it. The possibility of locating *descriptive* rather than merely *ascriptive* aspects in this document as well as the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), is higher, as both have been designed to recommend adequate teaching patterns and mechanisms to the educators, in order to fulfill the proposed curriculum goals at different stages of schooling.

In 1973, a committee led by Prof. Rais Ahmed was constituted to develop a curriculum for class I-X. The end product of the meetings of this committee was the NCF 1975, entitled as *The Curriculum for the Ten-Year School: A Framework*. This NCF defined curriculum as the “sum total of all the deliberately planned set of educational experiences provided to the child by the school.” It dealt with the general goals of education at a particular class or stage, the subject-wise content and instructions, courses to be studied along with the time allocation, instructional aids and materials, the overall teaching-learning experience, evaluation of the outcomes and student’s achievements and feedback from and to the pupils, teachers and parents. Besides laying down the curriculum, the document also talked about the role of a teacher. This particular entity was referred to as a “guide”, “helper” and a “wise friend” to whom the students looked up to for guidance and counseling. The teacher shows these children how to learn a particular subject and how to create one’s own methods for understanding and mentally organizing the knowledge imparted in classrooms. He or she should do this by not rebuking or callously passing derogatory remarks which can hurt the morale of the child. Hence, active participation of students was dependent upon the teacher for he or she had the capacity to provide space to the students to move beyond the passive rote learning method to a more engaging, enquiry-driven and self-learning mode.

In April 1988, *National Curriculum for Elementary and Secondary Education*, was prepared and it realized the fundamental principle of an education system to be a mechanism that would prepare individuals to discover their skills and talents and realize their emotional, physical and intellectual capabilities to their fullest potential, to build character and inculcate values that can help them evolve as responsible citizens. This NCF envisaged a “child-centred” and “activity based” approach where the teacher would act as a facilitator and stimulate the curiosity and independent thinking capability of his or her pupils so that they can develop their respective set of skills to collect and process data, engage in problem solving and planning and execution of projects. The teachers were also authorized to devise diverse ways of teaching, to ensure that the students were gradually “learning how to learn.” The introduction of continuous and comprehensive form of evaluation on the part of the teachers, further gave them the authority to evaluate their pupils on scholastic as well as non-scholastic parameters, thus preventing the reduction of education to impartation of information from one end to another without any critical sifting and questioning (NCERT, 1988).

In the beginning of the 21st century, the *National Curriculum Framework for School Education*, was prepared and launched by the committee led by Professor J.S. Rajput. Before immersing oneself into the nitty-gritty of NCF 2000, one important thing that should be brought forth is that these curriculum frameworks were always linked to the national policies of education preceding them. They were not estranged to one another and were rather intermeshed in such a way that the objectives of one overlapped with the other. This is one of the reasons why this NCF constantly reverberated with the core principles laden in NPE 1986, like acculturating among the students a staunch spirit of national unity, identity and non-sectarianism, by educating them about the country's cultural heritage and freedom struggle and propelling them to internalize social values like peace, love, non-violence, sense of duty and responsibility, punctuality, cleanliness, creativity, scientific temper and work on not only the development of cognitive acumen of the child but emotional intelligence as well.

Teacher education and training (both in-service and pre-service) in terms of teaching methods and evaluation techniques were formally recognized and their involvement in the curriculum development process was encouraged so that they would have a sense of ownership of the curriculum in question. A shift from teacher-centred education to a “process-centred” and “learner friendly” education pattern was also discussed, where an understanding of how learners were not passive recipients of the information exchanged in the classrooms, but were rather active and inquisitive beings with their own pre-conceived ideas which they acquired through inter-personal experiences and socio-cultural practices and norms practiced in the communities they reside in. This resulted in an idea that students' knowledge was governed by various factors apart from classroom teaching and this made them and their learning abilities and information processing habits, unique and personalized.

In 2005, the members of the National Steering Committee led by Prof. Yash Pal, designed the National Curriculum Framework. This initiative will henceforth serve as one of the documental base for determining *descriptive* pedagogical indicators. Following the footsteps of the 1993 report on *Learning Without Burden*, and gaining insights from 21 National Focus Groups, this National Curriculum Framework was guided by five fundamental principles: -

- *Connecting knowledge generated in classrooms to life outside school*

- *Shifting away of learning from the traditional rote method (transmission of facts and their memorization through repetition)*
- Enriching the curriculum so that it ensures the overall development of children and does not remain confined to textbooks
- Examination patterns should be more flexible and integrated to classroom life
- *Nurturing an over-riding identity of students informed by caring concerns within the democratic Indian polity*³²

In this NCF, J. P. Naik’s “elusive triangle” of the Indian Education System was dissected. The three dimensions of this metaphorical triangle were: equality, quantity and quality. While the former two predominated the market in terms of the research and surveys conducted in the field of education, the lattermost domain i.e. quality, was their base or starting point as quality or status of education was the premier yardstick on which everything else was balanced and calculated or judged. The problem with this particular variable, as rightly captured by Naik, was that its theoretical understanding was minimalistic and parochial in nature and content. Its expanse, if reframed in the words of the researcher of this thesis, was restricted to *ascriptive* rather than *descriptive* features of education i.e. drop-out rates, enrolment, retention, literacy rates, gender parity ratios, attendance, infrastructural aspects, pupil-teacher ratio etc. The inevitability of the correlation between pedagogy and quality was previously not properly addressed or realized to this extent, by any other National Curriculum Frameworks. But this very document clearly stated that no education system can prosper without laying due emphasis on teacher quality which was dependent on their recruitment and deployment criterion, training and maintenance of accountability. Despite these improvisations, still more relevant and sound pedagogical variables needed to be included and studied.

Another *descriptive* variable that can be picked up from the NCF is *child-centred pedagogy*. It perceived students as active participants in the classroom and not passive recipients of knowledge. *Such pedagogy provides pupils with a safe space where they feel free, valued and have no stress or fear* (NCERT, 2005). This gives them the impetus to engage in classroom activities and

³² The three italicized principles give more weight to teacher’s approach and teaching mechanisms and can be taken up as components of descriptive pedagogical indicators.

interactions, clarify their doubts by asking questions without hesitation and come up with innovative plans and ideas for their respective projects.

If instead of ignoring children's comments or sealing their tongues with strict rules of silence and restriction on the language to be used, teachers encourage children to talk, they would find that the classroom is a more lively place and that teaching is not predictable and boring, but rather an adventure of interacting minds. Such an environment will facilitate the self esteem of learners of all ages; it will also go a long way in improving the quality of learning itself. (NCERT, 2005)

Apart from child-centred pedagogy, the need for critical pedagogy was also emphasized. This form of pedagogy facilitates collective decision making through open, democratic forms of discussion and interactions and by acknowledging the coexistence of multiple viewpoints. In accordance to this principle, the teachers need to “step out of the role of moral authority and learn to listen with empathy and without judgement, and to enable children to listen to each other” in an unprejudiced way.

The relationship between the teachers and their heads and principals, as mentioned in the NCF, should be such that there is provision for open debates and dialogues, based on mutual respect, and such staff interactions can further help in reviewing the old state of affairs and planning new ones. *Resolution of conflicts must be done through collaborative efforts and discussions*, without taking resort to administrative hierarchies and privileges. *The involvement of teacher in curriculum renewal programmes*³³ should be ensured so that they could help out in suggesting reforms dealing with the personal needs and context of the learners as well as the community.

Though teacher education is not one of the concerns of this particular doctoral thesis, a discussion on the *National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education: Towards Preparing Professional and Humane Teachers*, 2009, designed by the National Council for Teacher Education, is worth mentioning. This official framework understood teacher quality as a combination of several factors like status, conditions of work, remunerations, academic know-how

³³ These italicized principles along with the ones mentioned in the section on child-centred pedagogy, have been selected as descriptive indicators of pedagogy and prospective elements for determining quality of education and will be dutifully incorporated in the questionnaires for teachers.

and professional education. Teacher education, according to this document, had to be reformed so that it could assist teachers in helping realize the goal of inclusive education, where diversity within the classroom doors is respected, especially by paying attention to the needs of the pupils with disabilities or those belonging to the economically and socially deprived communities; equitable and sustainable development by training teachers to impart information on mutual respect and cooperation, values of peace, work ethic, respect for all and opting for sustainable consumption patterns so that the environment and its resources are not exploited beyond repair; attainment of local community knowledge by the teacher and ensuring its usage during class activities; utilization of ICT in professional growth of teachers, especially during their pre-service and in-service training.

The NCFTE clearly stated the types of teachers and pedagogy that were required in the contemporary schooling scenario. These pre-requisites were: -

- *Caring for children and treating them equally. Trying to understand them, their needs and concerns, within their respective socio-cultural and political contexts.*
- *Making teaching and learning a joyful and non-burdensome activity, by treating pupils as active participants and avoiding rote learning and memorization-based methodologies.*
- *Critically examining the curriculum and textbooks so that the pedagogical tools could be chosen accordingly and localized.*
- Knowledge should no more be treated as something ‘given’ and beyond questioning.
- *Pedagogy should be learner-centred, activity-based and full of participatory learning activities like discussions, dialogues, plays, projects, visits etc.*
- *Teachers must try to inculcate and promote internalization of values of peace, equality, freedom, justice, secularism, fraternity and overall a democratic way of life³⁴.*

Based on the above chronological mapping of the National Curriculum Frameworks and their basic parameters related to the descriptive aspects of pedagogy, either directly or remotely, the idea of desirable pedagogical practices as mentioned in the two latest official documents i.e. NCF 2005 and NCFTE 2009, will be considered for the survey in this thesis. The questionnaires for

³⁴ These italicized parameters were selected from NCFTE (2009) for preparing questions dealing with pedagogy which had to be posed to the teachers and their students, during the course of this research.

teachers and students will be designed, keeping these variables in mind. These have been discussed in detail in Annexure No. I, which provides a systematic, point by point rationale for the selection of the variables, and the formulation of interrelated questions, for effectively conducting this doctoral research.

III. Public Report on Basic Education i.e. PROBE (1998-1999)

From the time period, September to December 1996, a survey was conducted in 1376 households of 234 villages, selected through random sampling, in the states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh. The outcome of this field research was the PROBE report. While discussing the relevance of universal elementary education and proposing its incorporation as a fundamental right in the constitution, which was eventually achieved through the 86th constitutional amendment, this report talked about the concept of “joy of learning”. It clearly stated that right to education denoted a right to education of a certain quality. “Who would aspire the right to get crushed, bored, humiliated or punished day after day?” This very rhetorical statement brought the onus of quality education on teachers and their classroom interactions and pedagogical styles, thus starting the report on a belated yet necessary conjecture.

The report demarcated two reasons for the inefficiency and lethargy among teachers, also known as “teacher inertia”, and these were: firstly, the demotivating environment in schools which brought down their morale and secondly, lack of accountability on the part of schools to keep a tab on the performance of their educators. Besides this, the concerns highlighted by the teachers themselves were also studied by the report. These ranged from poor infrastructural facilities and under-equipped classrooms, lack of enthusiasm on the part of parents, the overburdening curriculum, difficulty in handling some of the students who were either unable to cope up effectively or indulged in notorious activities, unnecessary and excessive paperwork and administrative duties, undesirable postings and transfers, unsupportive staff and school management and distracting or non-teaching duties performed by teachers. The data generated, with reference to the latter most concern, as depicted in the table no. 4 below, is an eye-opener as it showed the amount of crucial classroom engagement-time being wasted.

<u>Involvement of Teachers in Different Types of Non-Teaching Duties*</u>	
Non-Teaching Duties	Percentage of Teachers
Panchayats / Community Related Work	38 %
Health Related Work	33 %
Administrative Work	17 %
Mid-Day Meal Related Work	10 %
Training Related Work	10 %
Incentive Related Work	8 %
Family Planning Related Work	7 %
Others	9 %

Table No. 4: Relative Incidence of Different Types of Non-Teaching Duties of Teachers. Source: PROBE, 1998

*** Proportion (%) of Class 1 teachers who performed the stated duty among those who spent one day in non-teaching duties during the 4 weeks preceding the survey. (PROBE, 1998)**

The PROBE became the first such state-led survey that largely focused on pedagogical issues and concerns. After discussing the problems laden within the teaching sector, it narrowed down the mitigation techniques to two processes i.e. a supportive work environment and accountability. These two recommended cures were not mutually exclusive. Furthermore, the difficulty with measuring accountability, let alone maintaining it, was a grave issue. The report mentioned that “a teacher’s performance is difficult to observe, his/her work has no clear-cut output, though some indirect indication of teaching standards can be obtained from spot-check inspections, pupil’s exams scores and so on...there is no obvious way of linking performance with a fair and effective system of rewards and sanctions.” Judging the efficiency of teachers and their pedagogical skills on the basis of learning targets e.g. Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL), as decided upon by the government, was equally flawed as initially when the teachers were required to attain 80 per cent competence level within the classroom by 80 per cent of the students, they reported the same, and when it was reduced to 60 per cent due to its unrealistic nature, the teachers started reporting likewise (PROBE, 1998).

Lastly, one major claim that was made by this report with reference to the teaching methods in private and government schools was that they were very much alike as both adopted archaic

teaching and learning practices like recitation, memorization and rote learning. The real differences between public and private schooling stood in terms of the relatively close monitoring of student achievement in private schools; high attendance and small-scale multi-grade teaching in private schools; better PTR and more emphasis on decorum in private schools than public schools; and lastly, better interaction between parents and teachers in private schools. These were some vital findings of the report and a revaluation of the same can bring about some crucial insights to the underexplored pedagogical domain of education within the nation.

IV. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002)

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is a government of India's flagship intervention for the achievement of universalization of elementary education in a time bound manner, as has been mandated by the 86th constitutional amendment³⁵, thus making free and compulsory education to all children belonging to the age group of 6-14 years, a fundamental right. The fundamental objectives of this programme are as follows: -

- All children should be in school – ‘Back to School Camp’ – by 2003
- All children must complete 5 years of primary education by 2007
- All children must complete 8 years of elementary education by 2010
- *Focus on elementary education of a satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life*
- Bridge all gaps related to gender and other social categories at the primary and elementary stage by the years 2007 and 2010, respectively
- Attain universal retention by 2010

The terms ‘satisfactory quality’ of education, as have been italicized above, were not confined to access, enrolment and retention as has been done previously. The Department of School Education and Literacy under the Ministry of Human Resource Development, in its *Manual on Planning and Appraisal* of the programme (April, 2004), talked extensively about how quality as a variable should be given exclusive attention. It identified some crucial components for determining quality of education in schools and classrooms and they were: *teaching-learning*

³⁵ The 86th amendment of 2002, inserted a new article i.e. 21A into the constitution, which clearly stated that “The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 6-14 years in such manner as the State may, by law, determine.”

materials, curriculum renewal, *teaching-learning process*, teacher training and academic resource support structure. Furthermore, teachers were adorned with a pivotal status in the teaching learning process and their subject knowledge along with pedagogical practices and decision making were given equal weight-age while assessing it. According to the Manual, some of the vital aspects that were deemed to be necessary while gauging teaching and learning processes were: -

- *Classroom environment*
- *Classroom organization and management*
- *Teacher Pupil Ratio*
- *Teaching methodologies and strategies*
- *Teaching learning materials*
- *Student's classroom participation (verbal/non-verbal)*
- *Facilities available within classroom for teaching and learning*³⁶ (MHRD, 2004)

A *Manual for District Level Functionaries*, under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, was taken out recently, in the year 2017. It depicted the relationship shared between the programme and other different ministries like Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Ministry of Women and Child Development, State Public Works Departments, Department of Science and Technology, Ministry of Tribal Affairs and Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. The implementation of this programme and its structure at the centre, state and district level as well as the grassroots, can be seen in the diagram given below. Though meeting with and conducting one-to-one interview with the authorities, especially at the school, block and district level would have provided crucial insights about the current functioning of the programme and its lacunae, the research objective of this thesis required interaction with grassroots level stakeholders like educators and students, from the perspective of the pedagogical yardsticks mentioned in the blueprint of this educational policy.

³⁶ All these interrelated pedagogical categories, along with the views on teachers on PTR, have been incorporated in the research framework and the questionnaires of this doctoral research.

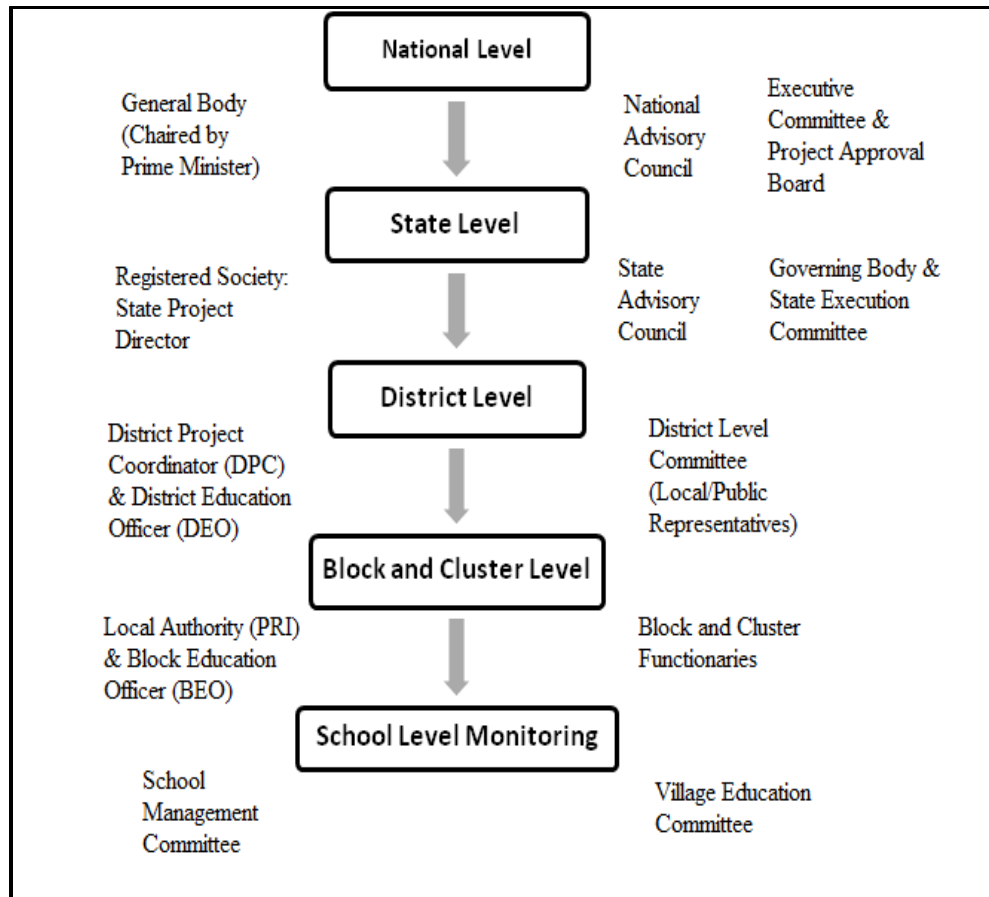


Figure 4: Project Monitoring Structure of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
Source: Manual for District Level Functionaries (2017); pp. 13

In May, 2010, the Programme Evaluation Organization of the Planning Commission conducted an evaluation study to review the progress of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, from 2003 to 2007. This survey was conducted in about 11 states, covering both rural and urban districts. The indicators that were assessed with reference to teachers and their pedagogical styles were comprised of their academic profiles, training, involvement in non-teaching practices and activities, engagement of teachers in curriculum renewal programmes, satisfaction level with regards to remunerations, teacher attendance and lastly, punishment. The survey also included the perception of parents about teachers, where 84 per cent unanimously claimed to be satisfied and the remaining 16 per cent stated poor quality of teaching, teacher absence and resorting to physical punishment tactics as serious concerns. Table no. 5 (a) and 5 (b) given below provide a summary of the important findings of the research. These variables and their accompanying figures are worth mentioning here as some of them will be indulged into, at a deeper level, and reanalyzed, during the course of

field surveys within this thesis. One essential take away from the indicators mentioned in these tables was that they were more *descriptive* than *ascriptive* in content, unlike the previous surveys and evaluation parameters adopted by the governmental bodies or even non-governmental organizations.

<u>Planning Commission's Evaluation Report on Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan:</u>			
<u>Teacher Related Indicators</u>			
<u>States</u>	<u>Trained Teachers</u>	<u>Schools in which Teachers are involved in NTA*</u>	<u>Schools in which Teachers are Disinterested in NTA</u>
Himachal Pradesh	99.6 %	61.5%	38.46%
Uttar Pradesh	69.5%	93.7%	53.15%
All	63.8%	74.3%	53.6%

Table 5 (a): Teacher Indicators by Programme Evaluation Organization of Planning Commission, May 2010.

* NTA – Non-Teaching Activities like election duties, census surveys, pulse-polio programmes etc.

<u>States</u>	<u>Schools in which Teachers were consulted in Curriculum Design</u>	<u>Schools in which Teachers were Satisfied with Salaries</u>	<u>Students who reported Teacher's Attendance being Regular</u>	<u>Students who Reported being Punished by Teachers</u>
Himachal Pradesh	15.3%	76.9%	91.4%	26.2%
Uttar Pradesh	25%	65.6%	88%	16.2%
All	31.1%	72.9%	96.5%	9.49%

Table 5 (b): Teacher Indicators by Programme Evaluation Organization of Planning Commission, May 2010.

In March 2011, a committee was set up under Anil Bordia, former Union Education Secretary, under the Ministry of Human Resource Development, to revamp Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, according to the Right to Education Act. While talking about the components of quality education, the report emphasized upon pedagogic approaches also and how the teacher-dominated approaches were redundant and treated children as passive recipients of knowledge. It forwarded the idea of a child-centred pedagogy which was based on cooperative learning pattern, problem solving skills and critical thinking. Examples of such initiatives were: District Primary Education Programme (Kerala), Rishi Valley Trust, Nali Kali Programme (Karnataka), Ability Based Learning Programme (Tamil Nadu), Hoshangabad Science Teachers Programme by Eklavya (Madhya Pradesh) or the Integrated Kaliyatna Approach by Prajatatna (Karnataka). Table no. 6, given below, provides a more comprehensive outlook of what the committee was actually trying to aim for. These aspects were more *descriptive* rather than *ascriptive*, and widened the scope of understanding pedagogy and the changes it was deemed to undergo under these two national level educational endeavours i.e. SSA and RTE.

<u>Shift in Perspectives and Practices: SSA and RTE Combined</u>	
<u>FROM</u>	<u>TO</u>
Teacher Directed	Learner Centric
Fixed Process	Flexible Process
Learner's Receptivity	Learner's Agency (participation is learning)
Knowledge as given and fixed	Knowledge as constructed and evolving
Learning as an individual act	Learning as a collaborative process
Disciplinary focus	Multidisciplinary
Narrow achievement measuring assessments based on competitive tests and ranking	Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation along with self-assessment by students

Table No. 6: A Shift in the Practices and Perspectives on Teaching and Learning
Source: Implementation of RTE and Resultant Revamp of SSA (2011)

V. Right to Education (2009)

Following the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and the National Curriculum Framework of 2005, a major step that was taken by the government was the approval and implementation of *The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009*. As is evident by its name, the act was formulated to provide free and compulsory education to all children within the age group of 6 to 14 years. Under this act, no child was liable to pay any kind of expenses or fees that would prevent him or her from pursuing elementary education.

The terms “compulsory education,” on the other hand, had a wider agenda at hand. It put the onus on the appropriate government to fulfill the following objectives: -

- i. Provide free education to all children belonging in the age group of 6 to 14 years and ensure compulsory admission, attendance and completion too.
- ii. Ensure availability and accessibility to a neighbouring school.
- iii. Ensure no discrimination towards children belonging to weaker sections or disadvantaged groups.
- iv. Provide adequate infrastructure, including school building and amenities, teaching staff and learning equipments.
- v. Provide special training facilities for teachers and staff.
- vi. Monitor education to ensure that every child is able to complete elementary education.
- vii. Timely prescription of curriculum and courses of study.
- viii. Ensure “good quality” of elementary education.

Besides these clauses substituting the goal of compulsory education, there were certain other pre-requisites, as stated by the act, to maintain stability in the working of education system at a pan-India level, with the exception of the erstwhile state of Jammu and Kashmir (now designated as two separate union territories of Jammu and Kashmir and Ladakh) on which the act was earlier not applicable. These were: -

- No expulsion or holding back of child from/in a particular class, till the completion of his or her elementary education. This was also known as no-detention policy.
- No subjection of a child to physical punishment or any form of mental harassment.

- A school shall constitute a School Management Committee, which would comprise of the elected representatives of local authority, parents/guardians and teachers. The job profile of this body would be to monitor the working of the school, the utilization of grants, preparation of a School Development Plan and performing other prescribed functions.

This entire chapter commenced with a premise that denoted how pedagogical indicators that had been engaged with in the past, were mostly *ascriptive* in nature and there was a dire need to club them with *descriptive* parameters. Keeping this distinction in mind, four consecutive sections of the RTE act will be discussed, where the former-most was mostly *ascriptive* in nature and the latter three were more or less *descriptive* in their content and approach. These sections i.e. 23, 24, 28 and 29, primarily dealt with the recruitment and functions of the teacher. Section 23 clearly stated that any individual, who possessed the minimum qualifications, as laid down by the academic authority, as authorized by the central government, shall be eligible to be appointed as a teacher and a teacher who did not possess them, shall be given 5 years to do likewise. On the other hand, section 24, 28 and even 29 of the Act stated that the duties of a teacher were comprised of:

-
- i. *Maintenance of regularity and punctuality in class attendance*
- ii. Complete the curriculum within a specified time frame, keeping in mind subsection (2) of Section 29. This subsection envisaged a list of criteria that the academic authority as well as the educators should adhere to, while preparing the curriculum and the evaluation procedures. These included: *congruity with the values enshrined in the Indian constitution*, all-round development of children i.e. their knowledge base, talents and potential, cultivating the physical and mental abilities of the child to the maximum limit, using mother tongue as a medium of instruction within the classroom, *encouraging learning through participation in a child-friendly and child-centred manner, assisting the student in expressing views freely without any fear or anxiety* and lastly, a comprehensive and continuous evaluation technique to measure the growth and performance of the child.
- iii. *Assess the learning potential or ability of each child and accordingly supplement additional instructions that are favourable.*
- iv. *Organize regular meetings with parents and guardians of the child and appraise them about his or her progress and learning capabilities.*

v. *No engagement in private tuitions*³⁷.

Lastly, the act also stated the norms and standards that all schools had to adhere to. These were mentioned in a separate section of the act altogether i.e. the Schedule, provided at the very end of the act. These parameters included areas like number of teachers per class (depending upon the strength of the class), school building, working days and instructional hours (both yearly and weekly), and provision of teaching learning materials, library and availability of games or sports equipments. These areas were not selected as potential variables for determining quality of education, as pedagogy was the main concern of this thesis.

Conclusion

The rationale behind writing this chapter was to emphasize on the bond as well as the difference between *ascriptive* and *descriptive* attributes, when it came to analyzing pedagogical variables. While *ascriptive* features were commensurable in nature as they dealt with nominal aspects which could be easily quantified, *descriptive* attributes, on the other hand, were inclusive of those features which were more explanatory and illustrative in nature and were at the same time symbolic of the quality of teaching as well as the status of education imparted, at large, as they delved deeper into the processes of the schooling system. The relationship between the two domains was such that they were not antithetical to one another and were mutually reinforcing.

Majority of the surveys and policy evaluation done in the field of education and pedagogy, primarily capitalized on *ascriptive* features. Neglecting *descriptive* attributes did come at a high cost, as the quality of education system as a whole started dwindling, especially when elements like educational goals, pedagogy, curriculum and accountability were taken into consideration. Research in *descriptive* variables can expand the horizon of understanding the essentials of a particular process, highlight the myriad forms of troubles and lacunae being faced by it and subsequently, can result in formulation of strategies that would help in mitigating them.

In the hope of achieving this end result, the chapter selected four national level initiatives i.e. the National Curriculum Framework (2005) along with the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002) and The Right of Children to Free

³⁷ These italicized parameters of pedagogy have been incorporated in the questionnaires designed for the respondents in this thesis.

and Compulsory Education Act (2009), and critically dissected them in order to unearth the *descriptive* pedagogical indicators laden within them. It indulged in those sections of these official documents, which thrived on discussions pertaining to teaching processes and pedagogical objectives, duties and functions of educators, and the variables for ascertaining the overall classroom environment. Table no.7 given below provides a comprehensive overview of these indicators. A staunch manifestation of this entire process will be seen in the chapters to follow, especially the chapters on research methodology and findings, as well as the Annexure I-V, comprising of the questionnaires used during the survey and field works.

<u>National Policies and their <i>Descriptive</i> Pedagogical Variables</u>			
Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2002	Right to Education, 2009	National Curriculum Framework, 2005	National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009
<p><i>1. Manual on Planning and Appraisal of the programme (April, 2004) mentioned the following aspects as essential for gauging teaching and learning processes and maintaining quality: -</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Classroom environment</i> • <i>Classroom organization and management</i> • <i>Teacher Pupil Ratio</i> • <i>Teaching methodologies and strategies</i> 	<p><i>1. Organize regular meetings with parents and guardians of the child and appraise them about his or her progress and learning capabilities.</i></p>	<p><i>1. Connecting knowledge generated in classrooms to life outside schools.</i></p>	<p><i>1. Making teaching and learning a joyful and non-burdensome activity, by treating pupils as active participants and avoiding rote learning and memorization-based methodologies.</i></p>
	<p><i>2. Encouraging learning through participation in a child friendly and child centred manner, assisting the student in expressing views freely without any fear or anxiety.</i></p>	<p><i>2. Shifting away of learning from the traditional rote method (transmission of facts and their memorization through repetition).</i></p>	<p><i>2. Pedagogy should be learner-centred, activity-based and full of participatory learning activities e.g. discussions, dialogues, plays, projects, visits etc.</i></p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Teaching learning materials</i> • <i>Student's classroom participation (verbal/non-verbal)</i> • <i>Facilities available within classroom for teaching and learning (MHRD, 2004)</i> 	<p>3. <i>Maintenance of regularity and punctuality in class attendance.</i></p>	<p>3. <i>Nurturing an overriding identity of students informed by caring concerns within the democratic Indian polity</i></p>	<p>3. <i>Teachers must try to inculcate and promote internalization of values of peace, equality, freedom, justice, secularism, fraternity and overall a democratic way of life.</i></p>
	<p>4. <i>No engagement in private tuitions.</i></p>	<p>4. <i>Child-centred pedagogy. It perceived students as active participants in the classroom and not passive recipients of knowledge. Such pedagogy provides pupils with a safe space where they feel free, valued and have no stress or fear.</i></p>	<p>4. <i>Caring for children and treating them equally. Trying to understand them, their needs and concerns, within their respective socio-cultural and political contexts.</i></p>
	<p>5. <i>Assess the learning potential or ability of each child and accordingly supplement additional instructions that are favourable.</i></p>	<p>5. <i>Resolution of conflicts must be done through collaborative efforts and discussions, without resorting to administrative hierarchies and privileges.</i></p>	
	<p>6. <i>No subjection of a child to physical punishment or any form of mental harassment.</i></p>	<p>6. <i>Involvement of teacher in curriculum renewal programmes.</i></p>	

Table No. 7: Descriptive Indicators of Pedagogy Selected from National Level Policies

Source: (MHRD, 2004; Ministry of Law and Justice, 2009; Mondal, Saha, & Baidya, 2015; NCERT, 2005)

Though the evolution, chronological development and outcomes of the National Educational Policies as well as the PROBE Report (1998) were also discussed in this chapter, respectively, the objectives highlighted in the former were not taken up as parameters for formulating *descriptive* indicators of quality of education. The sole reason for the analysis of these national education policies was to depict how other national initiatives were encouraged and reinforced by them and how they served as an umbrella under which the miscellaneous educational programmes were designed and forwarded e.g. The NCF 2005 was representative, to some extent, of the objectives

of NPE-POA 1992! Some level of inspiration along with pointers for deciding upon a methodology for designing questions for the field research was nevertheless drawn from the latter report. The intent behind discussing the PROBE report was to depict how it was the first such governmental exercise where a visible shift was made from *ascriptive* to *descriptive* indicators (related to pedagogy) and this could serve as a crucial learning mechanism for future creative engagements and researches in the field, like this doctoral thesis, for example!

CHAPTER III

The Underexplored, Yet Unassailable Bond: Pedagogy and Citizenship Education

Introduction

If the parched field of Indian politics and administration has to get fresh, green life and grow, we need the monsoon of purity in national character.

- Justice J.S. Verma on Significance of Ethics in Education, 2003

As laid down distinctly in the previous chapter of the thesis, there exist two variants of measurable attributes when it comes to pedagogy and its auxiliary variables. These two categories are “*ascriptive*” and “*descriptive*” features. While the former incorporated those features which were easily discernible i.e. could be judged on grounds of face value and be reduced to numerical data e.g. pupil-teacher ratio, teacher attendance, category of vocation: contractual, ad-hoc or permanent and private or public etc; the latter swam into more illustrative and detailed waters of pedagogy, by dealing with more intricate aspects like teaching methods and strategies opted for, performance levels of educators, satisfaction levels, teacher attrition, teacher education and training, remuneration and other affiliated perks, the relationship between the students, teachers as well as parents and the equation between the teachers and administration. These, *descriptive* attributes as a category were relatively more difficult to quantify, yet were nevertheless adjacent to conceptualizing a holistic framework for gauging the quality of education.

The rationale for the layout of the previous chapter was to consciously unearth *descriptive* attributes from within the policies, programmes and acts formulated by the government and implemented at a pan-India level. These nationwide applicable initiatives were National Curriculum Framework (2005) along with the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002) and The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009). These documents contained a plethora of criterion and rules to be followed by teachers as well as administrations while recruiting and training the former as well as maintaining a joyful learning environment within the classroom, but were left unaccounted for

as no counter-surveys were done to see their adoption and respective implementation. Keeping this very statement as the objective of the entire doctoral research work, chapter II delved into the intricacies of these legislations, schemes and policies, in order to select pedagogical indicators for the study.

Though, the blueprint adopted above was well framed, the entire enterprise of the research work would be rendered futile if an adequate curriculum programme against which some of these variables would be measured, was not taken into consideration. Pedagogy and curriculum are two primary wheels which act as the driving force for any education system and one is rendered worthless without the other. Evaluating indicators related to pedagogy, inevitably involves a counter curriculum platform against which these indicators are designed and measured. In the past, researchers have selected specific subjects like mathematics and languages to evaluate teaching, given that these are the two subject matter which comprehensively underline elementary education, at a global level. All the prevalent nationwide surveys repeatedly opt for these subjects as the primary yardstick for evaluating their respective variables. Similarly, this doctoral thesis also plans to take up teachers from both languages (English or Hindi) and social sciences subjects, from classes V and VIII, and an additional, specific curriculum related parameter for mapping the performance of teachers. This particular benchmark is 'Citizenship Education'.

Citizenship education at the outset is a tricky and esoteric domain of an education system. It comprises of those subject matter and teaching mechanisms which assist in formulating a framework which can promise the acculturation of young minds of the pupils in such a way that they can eventually grow up to be intelligible, critical thinkers along with being responsible citizens. Such form of curriculum framework can be criticized on the grounds of indoctrinating the nascent minds of the children with a specific set of values and belief systems from infancy to adolescence, without providing them adequate space to imbibe those norms which they critically acclaim themselves. But this accusation will not hold its ground for long. The objective behind any citizenship education is to not only help the students in imbibing some core values, but also so inculcate in them some habits like active classroom engagement, critical thinking patterns and being curious and questioning the various issues and events occurring in the surrounding environment, so that the students do not succumb to any form of blind allegiance to a particular set of norms and can re-evaluate them and choose not to follow them as and when they feel so.

The objective of this chapter is to review the past, relevant literatures on the subject and the question of its evaluative capacity; to understand the genesis of citizenship education, from Greek history till present; its gradual development in India and lastly, the study of the latest report by National Focus Group on “Education for Peace” (2006), which primarily deals with the issue at hand. One fundamental reason behind considering citizenship education rather than just relying only on particular subjects as the basis for judging pedagogical variables, is the fact that this curriculum program involves the role played by the educator at a much deeper level. Teachers are not only assigned to abide to the impartation of the knowledge as outlined in the text books, but are also provided with the utmost responsibility of acculturating values and social etiquettes among their pupils, through their personalized teaching mechanisms. Hence, the body of this particular curriculum plan is so vast that it takes the entire elementary and secondary education system, from Kindergarten to class XII, to help the students in developing these normative values and practices. But this research work will restrict itself to elementary education while evaluating these indicators i.e. class V and class VIII.

Citizenship Education: A Question of Evaluability?

In 1998, the UNESCO, in one of its manuals, talked about *Citizenship Education for the 21st Century*. Citizenship education, according to this manual, is concerned with the creation of good citizens who are enlightened and aware about the social and political issues in the society and their responsibilities towards the community, recognize equality and respect for all human beings and the human rights accruing to all, practice a spirit of tolerance and non-discrimination and engage in critical or open-minded thinking before arriving at judgements. Thus, this concept tries to penetrate into all domains pertaining to the life of the citizen i.e. the relationship between individual and society, between citizens and government, between citizens and democratic life and lastly, between citizens and the international community.

Helen Lawson in *Active Citizenship in Schools and Community*, 2001, enunciated how, in the past, citizenship has tended to be equated with membership of, and relationship with the nation-state. Consequently, the main aims of citizenship education have been to build a common identity and a shared history, and to encourage patriotism and loyalty towards the nation. However, with the change in manner of how the nations related to one another, a new definition of both citizenship and citizenship education was required, which acknowledged the fact that the civil, political, socio-

cultural, economic and environmental rights and obligations or duties of the citizens transcended national borders. Thus, citizenship was no more treated as a static principle and was continuously redefined in sync with the altering needs and rights of the people and hence had implications on citizenship education as well as now the latter incorporated the idea of educating students about respecting diversity, understanding social justice and other kindred concepts and imbibing the idea of the world as a global community.

Lawson distinguished among three variants of citizenship in a chronological fashion: -

- **Liberal Individual Citizenship:** The main function of the polity is to protect the civil and political rights of the citizens who are atomized and obsessed with the fulfillment of one's personal interests.
- **Communitarian Citizenship:** The citizens do not only have access to certain rights, but are also obliged to the community at large and are expected to act accordingly so that they do not hamper the wellbeing of others, understand the value of sacrifice and compromise and do not, blatantly, put their self-interest above others.
- **Republican Citizenship:** It is a variant of the communitarian notion and the public good or community is upheld as absolute.

As outlined in the classification above, it is quite visible that the government was attempting to engender a paradigm shift from an understanding of citizenship as rights and privileges to one which was based on mutual obligation towards others and the interests of the state at large. This idea was underpinned in the notion of active citizenship (Lawson, 2001). Thus, citizenship education was seen as service-based learning which entailed the gaining of those skills which dealt with personal development along with the inculcation of the idea of community participation and wellbeing. The students were mostly exposed to these skills through their active participation in the community services, organized by the schools.

While Helen Lawson talked about active citizenship, Nick Clough and Cathie Holden in their work *Education for Citizenship: Ideas into Action: A Practical Guide for Teachers of Pupils aged 7–14*, 2002, discussed the rationale behind citizenship education and the plausibility of active learning. It required the budding citizens to develop confidence and skills to freely voice their opinions, use critical thinking to develop their arguments, uphold democratic participation and

peaceful resolution of conflicts, try to work cooperatively with others, respect differences and diversity and inculcate values of social justice and human rights. All these values were inherently, positively predisposed to the idea of the essentiality of democratic principles in sustaining a system where the above-mentioned skills could be garnered by the pupils and freely exercised. The book reiterated the beliefs sets by the Council of Europe (1985), that “democracy is best learned in a democratic setting where participation is encouraged, where views can be expressed openly and discussed, where there is freedom of expression for pupils and teachers, and where there is fairness and justice.” Participation of pupils in the school council³⁸ meetings and discussions, mock or ad-hoc school-level parliaments and peer mediation programmes, would aid them in attaining political literacy about how to propose and oppose motions, debate issues, represent their class, vote, work collaboratively with the staff and administration, and try and find out their own solutions to the prevalent problems, both within and without the classroom.

Clough and Holden further emphasized on the role of language (both verbal and written skills) and exposure to media in the later stages, and how they should be focused at in schools, as they are central to adaptation of independent judgement that assist the pupils in making informed and unprejudiced decisions about the current scenario and events. Texts that plan to extend English curriculum for the facilitation of citizenship education would include principles of social justice, equality, freedom of thought and expression, democracy and respect for diversity.

Besides language, social and moral education also needed to be imparted as it would teach the students how to differentiate the right from wrong, cooperate with others and respect their opinions and backgrounds, uphold human rights of one-self as well as others and help others by engaging in community service activities. Effective teaching would thus entail fostering of such social and moral skills as these were fundamental in the formation of identity i.e. the way pupils see themselves, perceive others and how they are, in turn, perceived by others. According to Pollard and Finer, fostering of self-esteem and positive self-identity among the students was a prerequisite for attaining self-confidence and in becoming effective learners and active participants in the classroom (Clough, Holden, & Seddon, 2002).

³⁸ A school council is an elected body, constituted of representatives from each class (known as councillors) and a chairperson who is usually an adult (principal, head of department, teacher, governor, etc.).

In the years 2004 and 2005, two studies were conducted by EPPI-Centre. The EPPI-Centre is a specialist centre in the Department of Social Science, within the University College London. While the 2004 study was *A Systematic Review of the Impact of Citizenship Education on the Provision of Schooling*, the 2005 study entailed *A Systematic Review of the Impact of Citizenship Education on Student Learning and Achievement*. The 2004 study aimed at analyzing the type of impact that citizenship education had on the provision of schooling. The latter, when understood through Robin Alexander's spectrum meant: teaching and learning, school ethos, leadership management, curriculum development, community relations and knowledge and practices of the teacher. Based on the National Curriculum Document of 2000 (Britain), the three broad educational aims of citizenship education that were identified for the study were: -

- Moral and Social Development: Develop moral and social attitudes, behavioural patterns, values and beliefs in the learners.
- Political Literacy: Equip learners with the skills and knowledge base required for engaging in public life and understanding the democratic methods of participation.
- Community Development: Engage the learners in the practices of dutifully serving the wider community or even the school community.

The findings of this research were as follows: -

- i. The quality of discourse or dialogue within the school premises is central to learning and it should be *conversational, transformative, facilitative, dialogical and participatory*.
- ii. The relationship between the teacher and pupils should be *inclusive and respectful*. The students should be empowered to openly voice their opinions and share life experiences within the classrooms, and the teachers should *'let go of control'*.
- iii. Contextual knowledge can prove helpful in promoting civic engagement among students as it promoted problem-based thinking and decision making.
- iv. A fundamental basis for leadership within the framework of citizenship education is a coherent *whole-school strategy* including a *community owned value framework*. Schools should not restrict the learners from participating in shaping of institutional norms and practices as these democratic processes would assist in the development of the confidence of the promising educational leaders and would further encourage the pupils in adhering to the policies formulated at the national level.

The 2005 study, on the other hand, tried to analyze the impact of citizenship education on three parameters associated with student learning and these were: -

- **Learning Processes:** These comprise of those cognitive and affective activities and behavioural cues that facilitate the learning capacity of pupils.
- **Learning Outcomes:** Refers to the knowledge gained, ascertained and utilized by the pupils. This can be evaluated wither through formative assessments or summative ones.
- **Achievement:** It denoted the level or standard of competence attained in a particular domain of the teaching-learning process; be it knowledge or understanding in a particular subject of the curriculum or a skill pertaining to personal, social or moral growth of the student concerned.

The findings of this particular study put onus on pedagogy and its affiliated processes for the resultant incremental changes in the knowledge reception and academic performance of students. It depicted how pedagogy's conversational or dialogical and discussion-based character was facilitative in enhancing the academic achievement of students, by improving their cognitive and intellectual understanding and communication skills. This form of cooperative learning environment resulted in building up of an atmosphere of trust and safety within the classroom and a stronger bond between the educator and learners, and this provided ample space for the latter to attain self-confidence, self-reliance, a positive self-image and an all-encompassing and compassionate behaviour towards other individuals and diversified communities.

All the above research studies not only depicted the invariable pedestal at which citizenship education as a curriculum was placed, but also, to a considerable extent, depicted the relationship between it and pedagogy. What India needs is a similar study where the principles of citizenship education enshrined in the national policies are verified at the ground level, by tapping at the grassroots of the issue i.e. the pedagogical techniques used by the teachers, their understanding and beliefs of values necessary for educating students to become good citizens and the learning or outcomes of the pupils.

A Narrative of Education for Citizenship

The discourse on the idea of an ideal polity, the good life, virtues to be inculcated in order for the man to addressed as a good citizen or member of the community, has been an ongoing debate

in the domain of political philosophy since time immemorial. According to Leo Strauss, classical political philosophy was primarily concerned with questions pertaining to the political life, best political order, form of rule and value judgements essentializing the idea of what ought to be as opposed to what is. These queries owed their emergence to the lived experiences, associations and civic engagements of the individuals and depicted an inclination towards the daily political life of the community. This focus on the normative was deeply rooted in the works of Greek philosophers, Plato and Aristotle, who meticulously engrossed themselves in the inquiry of what is a good life and who is a just man. Unlike them, modern political philosophers envisaged the values of liberty and equality, under the pretext that these will serve as the basis for the conceptualization of a society or order where individuals were free to develop their respective ideas of a good life and just behavioural pattern. Regardless of these differences, a commonality that could be perceived between the two periods, was a planned agenda to train and educate the young minds in order to inculcate in them a certain list of virtues along with a feeling of brotherhood for the fellow citizens and a faith in their respective nation-state.

The genesis of citizenship education in the Greek tradition, owes its emergence to Spartans. During the 8th Century BC, Sparta undertook the herculean task of expanding its dominion by conquering the neighbouring provinces of Messenia and Laconia and eventually Athens, in the Peloponnesian War (431-404 BC). The captured civilians of the rival states were subjected to slavery, called *helotry*. Eventually, after multiple conquests, the magnitude of the conquered community became difficult to manage and in lieu of that, Sparta focused on evolving an elite military known as the *Spartiates*. This class of citizens had to undergo rigorous physical fitness training and practices in military skills, along with an underlying psychological development where they were taught to unquestionably worship the polis and its inherent laws and pledge allegiance to the fellow Spartiates (Heater, 2004).

The training of these youths began from the age of 7 and lasted till they were 20, and all this began from mid-6th century BC onwards. Each boy was duly assigned to a pack known as *agela*. Like most houses or clubs in modern day schools have prefects, each *agela* was led by a senior resident (aged 20 years) known as the *eiren*. The trainer in chief of the entire programme was called the *paidonomus*. Xenophon in his work explained that the *paidonomus* had “the authority to assemble the boys and to punish them severely whenever any misbehaved while in his charge.

He also.... (had) a squad of young adults equipped with whips to administer punishment when necessary.” Sometimes the flogging was so hard and remorseless that it resulted in the death of the trainee there and then (Heater, 2004). This training stage was followed by the election process where these youths were subjected to a process whereby, they first became quasi-citizens and performed military duties for the polis and eventually were inducted into citizenship if they were elected by the other members and were, at the same time, able to pay their dues.

Unlike the Spartans, the Sophists began their respective teaching module during the 5th century BC. Rhetoric as a medium of teaching and learning remained the basis of civic education during this period. This art had a political and moral purpose and that was to “improve civic consciousness and Pan-Hellenic unity” (Heater, 2004). A system of *epebeia* was popularized, where youths belonging to the age group 18 to 20 years underwent two years of compulsory military training for serving the nation and learning the affiliated duties and rights of citizenship.

When it came to Spartan and Athenian philosophers, the polis was perceived as a community comprising of a dominant group i.e. citizens, who enjoyed the privileges of wealth and leisure and were deeply engrossed in governance of the polis, at the expense of the foreigners, mercenaries, women and the slaves who performed all the other so called unimportant, menial, domestic chores. A major thrust to citizenship education was given with the entry of Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle, who in their respective works delved into the concerns of the *polis*, ranging from education and schooling, conjugal relations, property ownership to the domains of governance of the civic body either under a monarch, *philosopher king* or an elected representative body.

In *The Republic*, Plato conjectured that his design of the structure of educational training of the children in the city state was such that it would eventually result in an arrangement where justice as a cardinal virtue would prevail when the three virtues of temperance, courage, and wisdom (corresponding to the threefold division of the human soul i.e. appetite, spirit and reason) would be manifested in a division of society into three classes of artisans, soldiers and philosopher kings, respectively. The grand scheme of education included subjects ranging from musical training and gymnastics to arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and dialectical reasoning. This form of academic training was devoid of mimetic arts and imitative poetry and paintings as they were thought to be the reason behind the corruption of the soul.

The Laws by Plato, on the other hand, understood *paideia* (education of the individual) as the process of developing the mind and the character of the pupil. It said that: -

Any training which has as its end, wealth, or perhaps bodily strength, or some other accomplishment unattended by intelligence and righteousness, it counts vulgar, illiberal, and wholly unworthy to be called education. (In contrast, true education is)...that schooling from boyhood, in goodness which inspires the recipient with passionate and ardent desire to become a perfect citizen, knowing both how to wield and how to submit to righteous rule. (Heater, 2004)

This statement clearly depicts the unparalleled pedestal at which education for citizenship was placed by Plato. It was not merely a process of disseminating knowledge among the pupils (both girls and boys) about various incidents and events occurring in the physical environment, but was also an exercise comprising of physical and mental training for ensuring that these individuals develop those virtues for which they have an aptitude for cognitive development and eventually contribute to the society either by being producers and artisans, soldiers or philosopher kings. The paradox of the entire enterprise was, it deemed to be a system for inducting students to learn about their civic rights and duties and to respect the Athenian laws and regulations as well as safeguard the liberties of their fellow citizens, but at the same time segregating the society into three classes, based on their respective achievements in the educational system, and propelling them to abide by the duties entailed in those particular communities to which they now belong.

Following the footsteps of his tutor Plato, yet deviating from his principal beliefs at the same time, Aristotle conceptualized education for citizenship in his own unique manner. But in order to have a holistic understanding of his notion of citizenship education, a discussion in passing about his views on social justice is unavoidable.³⁹ Unlike Plato, Aristotle defined virtue as a ‘mean’ or intermediate between the two extremes of excess and deficiency e.g. liberality in giving money was a midway state between prodigality and meanness or courage was a mean between rashness and cowardice. In book II of *Nicomachean Ethics*, Aristotle distinguished between moral and

³⁹ There is an inherent and formidable link between citizenship education and social justice. A systematic formulation of the former, is based on the larger idea of how that particular society understands justice, and its familial concepts i.e. liberty and equality. A simpler way of understanding this is to consider social justice as the base on which the superstructure of citizenship education is constructed. This correlation will be the central theme of the following chapter (IV) where the relationship between the two will be discussed in detail.

intellectual virtues. While the former was developed through rigorous practice sessions and habits of the individual, the latter was imbibed through subjective experiences.

Aristotle's viewpoints in favour of justice over injustice were premised on the lacunae or the degrading element he perceived within unjust behavioural cues and patterns. He defined an unjust man to be someone who broke laws and indulged in illicit activities and took unfair advantage of others. Contrary to this, just behaviour stood for fairness and lawfulness of anything which tried to conserve the happiness of a political association, happiness being the supreme good. This perception of justice was relational as it dealt with how parties behaved in relation to one another and not in isolation. Thus, justice as a virtue was adorned by attributes of fairness in exchanges and lawfulness in individuals' actions towards one another, and out of these only voluntary actions were liable to be categorized as just or unjust as they incorporated elements of choice and intention. He further differentiated between distributive and rectificatory justice, on the grounds of the multifarious exchanges among individuals in matters relating to honour, money and security.

Keeping these conditionalities in mind, Aristotle forwarded a subtle idea of citizenship education which was defined by two mutually reinforcing characteristics. Firstly, he believed that there was no point in educating children about the constitutional foundation, laws and policies of a nation, if they were unable to grow up to "behave in harmony with the political culture of their particular polis" (Heater, 2004). The young adults of the polis had to be so taught that they would develop tempers that would gradually accustom them to the nature of the polity they were residing in e.g. democracy or oligarchy. Secondly, like Plato, Aristotle also believed in fostering virtues among individuals from a young age by encouraging them to cultivate good habits and an enduring reasoning capability. Both these pre-requisites to the idea of a good citizen were established on a substructure of civic virtue, which was comprised of five attributes: trustworthiness, moderation, judgement, goodwill and the spirit of security and protectiveness. According to Derek Heater, John Dewey, the American philosopher who wrote extensively on education (as discussed in chapter 1), praised Aristotelian framework of attaining civic virtues through constant practices, habits and experiences rather than the dialectical method of attaining knowledge through constant questioning and answering.

Besides Greek political philosophy, the Roman counterpart had its own distinctive take on citizenship education. While both Roman and Greek cultures promoted the ideas of inculcation of

desirable virtues and *arête* among their citizens, respectively, Rome emphasized further on ownership of legal rights by both Plebeians (the general public comprising of producers, craftsmen, artisans, labourers and soldiers) and Patricians (the ruling class) alike. The Roman education pattern, unlike Greek, was extremely wary of teachings comprising of arts like music and dance. They were fixated on the belief that interpretation of law was the fundamental task of any education system within the polity e.g. Cicero in his work, *On the Laws*, propagated the rote learning of twelve tables by all the children and these were a codified list of public, civil and criminal laws. They understood education to be an essential familial responsibility where parents belonging to the citizenry class were bestowed with the task of educating their children. While the female members trained the child from infancy till the age of seven years, post that the male members educated their children about the empire and its laws they were a part of, the religious customs, festivals and ceremonies and their personal familial heritage (Heater, 2004).

From 200 BC onwards, there was an advent of Greek practices like the usage of pedagogues or private tutors, construction of public schools for ensuring mass education and the teachings in rhetoric. Cicero in another work, *On the Orator*, exclaimed that an orator must be well versed in history, laws, as well as philosophy. Apart from Cicero, another Roman philosopher, Quintilian, in *Education of the Orator*, said that:

The man who can really play his part as a citizen and is capable of meeting the demands of public and the private business, the man who can guide the state by his counsels, give it a firm base by his legislation and purge its vices by his decisions as a judge, is assuredly no other than the orator. (Heater, 2004)

The time period between 16th and 18th centuries was an age of continuous civilian revolts and revolutions, especially the American and French revolutions. These two nations witnessed a challenge posed by the subjects against the rights and powers possessed by George III and Louis XVI to exercise their suzerainty and tutelage over the American colonies and the French nation, respectively. Post their downfall, what arose was a republican form of governance and under its jurisdiction, citizenship education was redefined. Religious education and faith schools were replaced by secular form of education and the primary objective of education was to familiarize the citizens with their rights as well as duties towards the state, its institutions and other citizens. The problems laden within these faith schools was aptly captured by Amartya Sen in his article,

What clash of civilizations? Why religious identity isn't destiny, where he argued that faith schools constrained the reasoned identity choices and the agency of children as “young children are placed in the domain of singular affiliations well before they have the ability to reason about different systems of identification that may compete for their attention.” Henceforth, what developed in these nations was a system of education for citizenship for every individual, without any discrimination on the grounds of class, creed, caste, colour, sex, religion and region. This new strand of citizenship education for liberal democracies, which was carried further into the 19th and 20th centuries, was not only guided by the archaic principles like allegiance to the laws of the state or obligation to exercise certain civil duties, but also extensively envisaged some novel values of freedom and agency, equality among human beings, political consciousness and civil and moral duty towards others being (human, plants and animals) and the nation as a whole.

Since the intent of this chapter is to understand the emergence, meaning and attributes of citizenship education, with reference to India, this section will now move to the colonial legacy and the subsequent rise of an education system in India along with citizenship education. The entire enterprise of colonialism was grounded on the fact that the colonizers brought along with them unparalleled benefits in the form of teachings and learnings from a better and more advanced civilization, to a community that was extremely backward and bereft of it. John Stuart Mill, a renowned English philosopher of the 19th century, who went on to become the champion on the doctrines of individual liberty, laissez faire economy, representative government, utilitarianism and the denouncer of women's subordination and repression, consciously defended liberal imperialism and colonial suzerainty, proposed that: -

Despotism is a legitimate mode of government in dealing with barbarians, provided the end be their improvement, and the means justified by actually effecting that end.....The conquered have to be governed by despotism, a mode of government ... as legitimate as any other, if it is the one which in the existing state of civilization of the subject people, most facilitates their transition to a higher stage of improvement' - not only that, 'such is the ideal rule of a free people over a barbarous or semi-barbarous one. (Mill, 1859)

According to Mill, the despotic rule had the capacity to maintain social order by training and disciplining the people of that community. The road from no rule (anarchy) to self-rule (democracy) ran through undemocratic rule (despotism) because this undemocratic authority i.e.

‘super-induced from without’, could provide the barbarians with the idea of obedience which was considered to be the ‘first lesson of civilization’ (Urbanati & Zakaras, 2007). Mill further argued that these modern civilizations were equipped with three outstanding features and these are the rights to property, dissemination of education to the masses (both minorities and majorities) and cooperation or associationalism. Thus, education was regarded as a significant tool to move towards development and innovation and pose challenge to ‘despotism of custom,’ where the latter thrived on the traditional norms and dogmatic belief systems and therefore, provided no space for the expansion of rationality.

Though Mill had a very optimistic perception of imperial rule and its intent to use Western education to help the subjects to rise from their drudgery and move out from a stagnant society into a more progressive one, the imperialists faced a dilemma while making a move in this direction. Educating the indigenous elite subjects of the colony was ridden with complexities as it might threaten their position, especially when these individuals would read about the principles of equality, liberty, fraternity and national self-determination from the native literature of their so-called masters. Nevertheless, the British rule in India, did take a step in the direction of educating the Indian subjects. One such initiative was the *Minute on Indian Education* given by Thomas Babington Macaulay on 2nd February, 1835, where he envisaged the usage of English rather than a vernacular, as a medium of instruction in schools and administration. He personally believed in the supremacy of European literature when he mentioned that ‘a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia,’ and this propelled him to favour Western education over an oriental one. His prototype of the education system was such that it would impart knowledge only to a few Indians who would be loyal to the British Empire. This educated class would be ‘Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect’ and would be responsible for teaching the rest of the masses i.e. the *downward filtration* policy.

Following, yet at the same time diverging from Macaulay’s footsteps, Charles Wood, who was the President of the Board of Control of the East India Company, sent a dispatch to Lord Dalhousie (Governor General) in 1854, popularly known as the Wood’s Despatch, where he proposed a more systematized education system where an education department was established in every province, along with a government school in every district. He further proposed the adoption of vernacular

in primary schools, Anglo-vernacular medium of instruction in high schools and English as a language to be used in colleges and universities.

The intent of all these programmes was to ‘cement a conception of citizenship of the Empire’, but it was failing as education of the British subjects was subsequently resulting in the realization of their pathetic status and treatment under the suzerainty and this resulted in an unavoidable and long due political upheaval. The co-founder of the Indian Home Rule League, Mrs Annie Besant, was a relentless advocate of a national educational programme over a British manufactured and imparted alternative and she said that “Nothing can more swiftly emasculate national life, nothing can more surely weaken national character, than allowing the education of the young to be controlled by foreign influence, to be dominated by foreign ideals” (Heater, 2004). Thus, a burning desire for national education established on the principles that were native in origin and content started spreading.

During the Round Table Conference of 1931, Mahatma Gandhi vocalized his views on the low literacy levels in the country and the ineffectiveness of the present education system to address the issue. He said, “I am convinced that the present system of education is not only wasteful but positively harmful.” It was in this context that the concept of Basic Education or *Nai Talim* emerged in his mind, which later came on to be addressed as the *Wardha Scheme of Basic Education* (1937). For discussing the diverse aspects of this scheme, an All India Education Conference was held in Wardha from 22nd-23rd October, 1937 and it appointed a committee of nine members, led by Dr. Zakhir Hussain, to prepare a detailed blueprint along with a syllabus based on the resolutions consensually taken in the conference. The fundamental resolutions of the committee were as follows: -

- i. Free, compulsory and universal education to all boys and girls belonging to the age group of 7 to 14.
- ii. Education should be imparted in the mother-tongue of the child.
- iii. A craft centred educational scheme where teachings should revolve round some basic craft selected on the basis of the diverse capacities of the children and the needs of the community. This would help the children in acquiring sensor and motor co-ordination and in appreciating the value of honest labour along with the latent concept of self-supporting one’s livelihood.

These crafts were: spinning, weaving, agriculture, fruit and flower cultivation, carpentry, leather work, culturing of fish, pottery making, home-science for girls etc.

- iv. The subjects proposed to be taught were: mathematics, general science, geography, history and civics, painting, music and engagement in sports and other physical activities.

In 1944, Sir John Sargent, the Educational Advisor to the Government of India, prepared a comprehensive report on an Indian Education system. This *Sargent Scheme of Education* was regarded as the first attempt to develop a National System for Education for a soon to be independent India. The recommendations of this report were: -

- i. Pre-primary education for all children belonging to the age group of 3 to 6 years.
- ii. Universal, compulsory and free primary or basic education for all children between the ages 6-11 years (junior basic) and 11-14 years (senior basic).
- iii. High school education of the selected children belonging to the age group of 11-17 years and degree courses of 3 years commencing after clearing the higher secondary examinations.
- iv. Advanced training in commercial, technical, agricultural and art education for both full-time and part-time students.
- v. Provision for the proper training and education of teachers.
- vi. Special educational improvisation for the physically and mentally handicapped children.
- vii. Compulsory physical education along with participation in other social and recreational activities.
- viii. Creation of employment or placement bureaus.
- ix. Establishment of departments of Education at the centre and the states.

While the Wardha Scheme of Education was accompanied by a tinge of citizenship education in the form of craft-oriented knowledge system, which wanted the children to imbibe a healthy and open-minded attitude towards vocations involving physical labour, by not belittling them in any way, along with the idea of being self-employed and self-supporting towards one life, the Sargent Scheme, though focusing on the creation of a national educational programme, was bereft

of it. A proper plan towards “citizenship education” per say had not been intercepted by anyone till yet. But, post-independence, a remarkable change was witnessed in this field as certain governmental schemes and committees had started consciously and systematically venturing in that area as well.

Citizenship Education and the Indian Education System

Since citizenship education categorically belongs to the curriculum part of the education system, this section of the chapter will commence with the National Curriculum Frameworks and the intermittent committees that were specifically designed to cater to the need of planning education in such a way that it would ensure acculturation of those values and beliefs which were akin to the idea of active and responsible citizenship. While Chapter II was largely engaged with the agenda of understanding how teachers, their responsibilities and desirable skills and activities and other pedagogical concerns were streamlined in the various national level initiatives like the National Curriculum Framework (2005), the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002) and The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009), this chapter intends to take up a somewhat similar trajectory, only deviating in the sphere of selecting one and not multiple schemes and policies i.e. the National Focus Group on Education for Peace (NCERT, 2006). But before discussing the intricacies of the latter in detail, a historical trajectory about how it evolved, in the first place, is necessary.

The very first National Curriculum Framework, known as *The Curriculum for the Ten-Year School: A Framework* (1975), distinctly outlined that the Education Commission (1964-66) wanted an ‘*internal transformation*’ of the education system so that the values enshrined in the constitution could be replicated in the school curriculum and this could eventually ascertain the creation of a polity which was secular, pluralist, socialist and democratic in nature. One of the salient recommendations of this document was inculcation of human values and character building of the students and this focused on “cultivation of such basic qualities as compassion, endurance, courage, decision making, resourcefulness, respect for others, the team spirit, truthfulness, faithfulness, loyalty to duty and the common good” (NCERT, 1975). It further highlighted the concerns like social justice and national integration and for the promotion of the same it encouraged no discrimination on the basis of class, caste, colour, sex, region and religion and

development of a spirit of scientific humanism. The NCF, while talking about the elementary stage of education, mentioned that the children should: -

- a. Express themselves freely, without fear and acquire habits of self-learning.
- b. Acquire a scientific method of enquiry, along with a propensity to respect national symbols like the anthem, flag and the various institutions of the nation.
- c. Acknowledge the diversified and plural culture of community and disregard the degenerative practices of communism, untouchability and casteism.
- d. They should cooperate with other pupils and work towards the common good of the community and should develop a healthy attitude towards human labour and dignity.
- e. Develop healthy habits of cleanliness and practice hygienic and sanitized living.

Like the NCF 1975, *The National Curriculum for Elementary and Secondary Education* (1988), had its own mechanism of penetrating the field of citizenship education. It emphasized upon how the main purpose of an education system was character building and not just dissemination of knowledge. Such a body would enable the pupils to realize their talents and “physical and intellectual potentialities to the fullest,” develop their character with the help of various social and human values so that they can contribute to the society by acting as responsible citizens and lead a happy and productive life. The citizenship education parameters laid within this document were: -

- i. Strengthening national identity by educating children about their cultural heritage, the freedom struggle and constitutional obligations towards the nation and one another.
- ii. Believing in equality for all and practicing non-discrimination.
- iii. Developing scientific temper by imbibing values like a spirit of curiosity and enquiry and the courage to pose questions when in doubt. The children should keep an open mind in terms of arriving at judgements and should be willing to revise their assumptions and hypotheses based on the fresh evidences that come to light.
- iv. Observance of small family norms and protection of the biodiversity.

The National Curriculum Framework for School Education 2000, like its previous two predecessors, began with the point of ensuring that the curriculum and education system as a whole primarily focused on the unity and integrity of the nation. The period between NCF 1988 and 2000

was fraught with various ethnic clashes and genocide like the Anti-Sikh Riots (1984), post the assassination of Prime Minister Indira Gandhi by her Sikh bodyguards; the demolition of Babri Masjid (also known as the Ayodhya dispute) (1992); and the Bombay riots between the Hindus and Muslims (1992-1993) following the demolition of the mosque and the bombings by the D-company, along with various other small-scale incidents. Thus, the creation of a pan-India curriculum which believed that it was “essential that the cultural heritage, traditions and history of the different ethnic groups and regions of the country and their contributions, are understood and appreciated in the right perspective.....(i.e.) pluralist society.” This National Curriculum Framework mentioned that for the development of an *Education for Value*, a reference to the two reports was imperative as they shifted the focus to fundamental duties of the citizens to be taught from primary education and paved the way for citizens to develop “basic human values and social justice” (NCERT, 2000). It reaffirmed the core principles that were enshrined in the previous NCFs and the National Policy for Education (1986) and its Programme of Action (1992) and these were:

-

- History of India’s struggle for independence along with its cultural heritage and core principles of secularism, democracy and egalitarianism
- Our obligation to respect and follow the constitution and its fundamentals
- Imbibing a spirit of scientific temper and impartial enquiry
- Removal of social cleavages and hatred
- Respecting the small family norm and the environment and all its inhabitants

An analysis of the gradual evolution of the concept of citizenship education, with reference to the Indian context, is incomplete without the mention of two committee reports that were formulated and proposed in the year 1999. These reports were value-driven and hence were theoretically closer to the rationale behind designing an education for citizenship. The relevance of these documents was so farfetched that they were reiterated in not only the National Curriculum Framework of 2000 and 2005, but also the Draft National Policy of Education of 2016.

The first of these reports was the 81st Report on *Value Based Education* (1999), by a Parliamentary Standing Committee led under the chairmanship of S. B. Chavan. The S.B. Chavan committee propagated the relevance of values and how they were interwoven in not only the individual character but also the social fabric, in such a way that without them, the deterioration

of the society and the nation would be unavoidable. There was a concurrence with a multi-faceted development of the child i.e. a well-rounded personal growth by focusing equally on intellectual, physical, ethical and spiritual facets of the personality. This way the students would form their respective ideas of what is 'good' and how to do it.

The committee highlighted the lacunae in the preceding commissions and committees on value-based education like the Radhakrishnan Commission of 1948-1949, the Kothari Commission of 1964-1966, the National Policy on Education of 1986, the Ramamurti Committee of 1990, the Central Advisory Board of Education Committee on Policy of 1992 and the Planning Commission's Core Group on Value Orientation of Education of 1992; to implement their recommendations and achieve the prospective end results. Learning from their shortcomings, the committee tried to formulate a plan that was realizable and would create human beings par excellence if duly committed too. This plan for a value-based education programme, identified five core universal values of "*Truth (Satya), Righteous Conduct (Dharma), Peace (Shanti), Love (Prema) and Non-violence (Ahimsa)*." These principles were correspondingly aligned to the five aspects of human personality i.e. *intellectual, physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual*, respectively, and to the five objectives of the education system i.e. *knowledge, skill, balance, vision and identity*.

The committee believed that, since primary education was the time when all these values could be subtly and carefully implanted in the impressionable mind of the child, by the teachers, children belonging to this stage of education should be taught values like respecting one's elders, punctuality, cleanliness, gender sensitization, self-dependence, dignity attached to manual labour etc. It further held that imparting of value education was largely linked to pedagogy. Everything ranging from the personality, character and personal beliefs of the educator, to the teaching methods adopted in classroom, was responsible for ensuring the smooth dissemination of values among the pupils, as the latter considered the former as role model. It was for this reason that maximum of the documents during this period, talked extensively about a departure from rote learning or memorization capability towards ability-based learning and process-oriented teaching and learning pattern which was more learner or child-centric and not teacher-centric.

Thus, the objective of the committee was not to design an entire new subject for the purpose of imparting value education as that would increase the curriculum load for both the students and

teachers and would again reduce the entire process to a memorization and marks procuring exercise. “The ideal situation would be that various aspects of value education are suitably incorporated in all subjects of school education. Thus, every subject teacher would be a teacher of values” (Chavan, 1999) e.g. morning assemblies can impart values through hymns, prayers, national anthem and presentation or plays on subjects like love, compassion, patience, brotherhood, environment, service to the nation, gender parity; meditation can be taught to encourage children to sit calmly and reflect on their behaviour and subsequently learn about the benefits of concentration; stories, documentaries, folk tales and songs can also be utilized for acquainting children with important figures and incidents and the values that can be drawn from them.

The second committee which was appointed the same year was the Justice J.S. Verma Committee of 1999. The report forwarded by this body expounded how besides acknowledging the various fundamental rights accruing to individuals on grounds of their citizenship, these individuals should also be familiarized with the plethora of fundamental duties as discussed in part IV A of the constitution. It further said that schools and teachers should inculcate certain behavioural cues and habits in the students like cleanliness, friendliness, self-discipline, punctuality, a sense of duty and service towards others, industriousness, entrepreneurship, respect for elderly and women, creativity and a responsibility towards maintaining the democratic temper and preserving the environment. Thus, the report enthusiastically suggested that “familiarity with the basics of the constitution of India, particularly its preamble and the chapter of fundamental rights and duties must also form the part of the education of every citizen” (Subramanian, 2016).

In 2013, Justice J.S. Verma delivered a lecture, entitled *Significance of Ethics in Education*, on the occasion of UGC’s Golden Jubilee Lecture Series. In his lecture, he prophesized that the chief component of “true education” is the “operationalization of fundamental duties, so that full human resource development is achieved and the nation’s richest asset is augmented. Thus, imparting ethical values as a significant constituent of education is no longer merely persuasive but a constitutional imperative.” Justice Verma believed that emotional and cultural integration of the citizens in India can be achieved only when each and every citizen performs his or her duty towards promoting harmony and maintaining brotherhood. Thus, education’s primary objective is

to ensure that the budding citizens are well aware of their fundamental duties towards the nation, its institutions and its inhabitants.

While NCFSE 2000 experienced a direct impact in terms of incorporation of some key suggestions made in the above two committee reports, the *National Curriculum Framework 2005*, provided an even better molding of the concept of citizenship education into its fold, along with emphasis on quality of education and social justice. The maneuvering done within the NCF 2005, combined the three domains of centrality of pedagogy, in the entire process of citizenship education and training along with maintenance of social justice. This can be seen more vividly in the diagram shared below: -

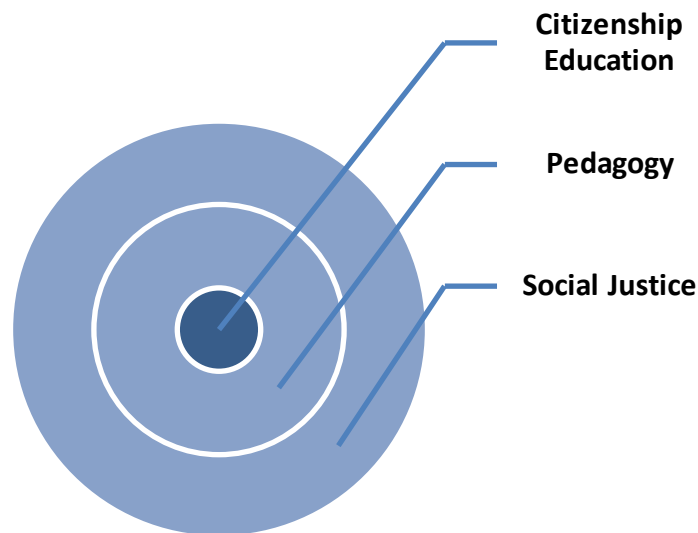


Figure 5: The Inter-relationships between Citizenship Education, Pedagogy and Social Justice

The basis for this interrelationship between the three domains of education system is self-explanatory. Citizenship education in the form of curriculum will be futile if it is devoid of a strong pedagogical structure in terms of teachers' effectiveness in imparting information, garnering the views of the students and engaging them in a process that would assist them in inculcating those virtues and values that are deemed to be desirable in an enlightened and responsible citizen of the nation. Furthermore, as stated in NCF 2005, quality of education (in this case a combination of pedagogy and curriculum) and social justice need to be perceived as the central themes of formal education as well as curricular and pedagogical reforms. It distinctly mentioned that: -

Quality in education included a concern for quality of life in all its dimensions. This is why a concern for peace, protection of the environment and a predisposition towards social change must be viewed as core components of quality, not merely a value premises.
(NCERT, 2005)

Thus, the relationship among the three domains of the education system was encapsulated in this doctrine.

A contention might arise as to what are the values that need to be acculturated and internalized and how these norms might differ from nation to nation based on their respective ideologies and principles. What needs to be remembered in this unending debate is that every country, based on its holistic approach toward the polity e.g. democratic, socialism, communist, capitalist, totalistic, military rule etc., conceptualizes a list of favourable attributes that need to be inculcated among the young adults of the nation to ensure a secure and promising future. As depicted in the history of citizenship education earlier, different societies had different notions of education for citizenship training and henceforth a completely different, and in some occasions, even similar, take on the desirable virtues for mankind's mental, physical and over all personality-wise proliferation. Since we are concerned with Indian education and its version of citizenship education, we will restrict our discussion to it.

Thus, keeping the content of citizenship education India centric, a more thorough dissection of the National Curriculum Framework of 2005 is required. It talked extensively about the concept of *Education for Peace*, which stood for empowering the pupils to choose peace as a way of life and further enabling them to become active participants in terms of voicing their opinions or actively participating in protests and social movements. This principle of education for peace was linked to citizenship and democracy as a way of life rather than merely a system. It said that: -

Citizenship in a democracy involves many intellectual, social and moral qualities....a democratic citizen should have the understanding and the intellectual integrity to sift truth from falsehood, facts from propaganda and to reject the dangerous appeal of fanaticism and prejudice...dispassionately examine both (the old and new) and courageously reject what arrests the force of justice and progress.

Like all the previous national policies of education and curriculum frameworks, the NCF 2005 likewise advocated the incorporation of the study of core constitutional components, so that the students would learn about liberty, egalitarianism, secularism, justice and fraternity, and the capacity to act as agents of change rather than be reduced to passive recipients of knowledge. One unique and less travelled path chosen by this initiative was to incorporate a new curriculum domain in its plethora of already established conventional curriculum i.e. languages, mathematics, social sciences, science, work and education, art and craft and physical education. This novel field was *education for peace*. Education for peace sought to nurture and ethically develop among the learners or inculcate in them those values and attitudes which would encourage them to live in harmony with oneself, other human beings as well as with nature. It inherently embodied the idea of personality development with qualities like love, tolerance, hope, courage, cooperation, compassion, responsibility and duty and respect for human rights and cultural diversity. Thus, undeniably, social justice was an aspect of this education for peace as it entailed practicing nondiscrimination on grounds of sex, colour, caste, religion and region, respect for human rights and creation of a non-violent social system. All these proposed norms were reiterated in NCERT's National Focus Group's Report on *Education for Peace* (2006) which will be discussed in detail in the following section.

NCERT'S National Focus Group on Education for Peace (2006)

The National Focus Group on *Education for Peace* 2006, under the chairmanship of Dr. Valson Thampu, envisaged a curriculum plan under which the focus would be on nurturing the pupils in social values and skills as well as attitudes that would encourage them to live together in harmony and reinforce social justice, national integrity and the mutually reinforcing spirit of secularism and democracy. It did not propose a separate subject, like peace education, as it would further augment the curriculum load. It rather considered it to be a perspective from which all the subjects would be taught.

Under the jurisdiction of this form of citizenship education, education for peace proposed reforms for all levels of the school education system: -

- i. At the primary level, the focus was on the development of those social skills among the students which would propagate the idea of living together with one another in harmony and peaceful resolution of conflicts.
- ii. At the upper primary level, the pupils would be taught the culture of peace and its evolution in Indian history and philosophy.
- iii. Thereafter, the focus of education for peace would primarily be on citizenship education where the basic components of the constitution along with an attitude of respecting diversity and differences in views and cultures within the nation, would be taught to the students.
- iv. At the plus-two level, the locus of education for peace would be on understanding the rationale behind the modes and expression of violence from an objective viewpoint and developing a global perspective on peace.

According to the report, the success of this educational plan was very much localized on the role of the teachers i.e. not only their skills and methods, but also their vision, personality, motivation and personal traits, from which the students could benefit. The primary responsibility of the teacher was to help students become ‘good human beings’ who are capable and motivated enough to fulfill their true potential, as well as to care about others and work for the achievement and betterment of the societal needs and welfare, respectively. The term ‘good,’ though being ambiguous, did have certain specific attributes attached to it, which will be discussed in detail towards the end of this section. Since the goal in education was not memorization or retention of facts, but rather on learning how to share, care about others, reflect on one’s actions and behaviours and collaborate with each other, the methods of teaching that were proposed were child-centred, creative, participatory and experiential in nature, which would involve discussions, debates, group projects, seminars, audio-visual shows, role plays and dramas, song-hymns and poems, and celebrations or presentations of days of national importance or the life and struggles of national personalities. All these techniques would only be fruitful if they were driven by the objective of making the entire teaching and learning process more joyful and less burdensome, competitive or stressful.

The Education for Peace Report emphasized on the significance of teacher education programmes as well. It distinctly mentioned how the present programme promoted ‘trained incompetence’ rather than ‘pedagogic preparedness or motivation’ and how the whole system was

destined to fail, if the educators were ‘culturally prejudiced, intolerant, and pedagogically unequipped’ to impart knowledge in such a way that it promoted peace and other kindred values associated with it. What this initiative demanded of the pre-service and in-service training that the teachers undergo was: -

- Free from any prejudice associated with any social group, based on caste, religion, class and ethnicity
- To promote art of living together and renouncing those societal structure and practices which were divisional in nature and lead to discord and hatred e.g. gender disparity, caste and class discrimination, violation of human rights, degradation of environment, bullying and harassment, verbal and physical abuse etc.
- Possessing knowledge about the political system and culture of one’s own nation as well as others
- *Being committed to teaching and abiding by the ethical code of conduct*
- *Develop warm and cordial relations with not only the students, but also the parents, fellow teachers and the administration*⁴⁰

As mentioned earlier, Education for Peace prescribed a list of values that would facilitate the acculturation of individuals who were ‘good’ and ‘responsible.’⁴¹ Table no. 8 given below is a systematic summarization of some of the skills and values that were duly envisaged by the report.

<u>Education for Peace: Values and Skills</u>		
<u>Personality Formation</u>	<u>Shared Spirituality</u>	<u>Indian History and Culture</u>
1. Love	1. Inner Peace	1. Positive and Negative Understanding of Peace
2. Truth	2. Freedom of Thought,	2. Diversity, Plurality and Co-existence

⁴⁰ These italicized parameters will be incorporated in the questionnaire to decipher whether the present pedagogical practices within the nation are abiding to these norms for ensuring the nurturing of students in values of citizenship education that would assist them in becoming good and responsible citizens.

⁴¹ While designing some of the open-ended questions pertaining to citizenship education, posed to both students and teachers, a cross-reference to these enshrined values will eventually be done.

	Conscience and Belief	
3. Purity	3. Freedom of Religious Practice	3. Integrative Vision (Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam)
4. Beauty and Harmony	4. Mutual Respect for Religious Observances of Others	4. Teachings on Peace i.e. Gandhi's Views (Ahimsa, Truth and Hospitality)
5. Spirit of Appreciation	5. Equal Treatment of all Religions by the State	5. Peace Movements in India
6. Sense of Responsibility	<u>Human Rights and Democracy</u>	<u>Lifestyle</u>
7. Ahimsa or Non-violence	1. Dignity	1. Sensitivity to Nature
8. Humility	2. Equality	2. Respect for Life in all its Forms
9. Spirit of Service	3. Justice	3. Simplicity
10. Leadership	4. Protection of Human Rights	4. Responsibility
11. Optimism	5. Participation	5. Consumption Habits
12. Discipline	6. Freedom of Speech and Expression	6. Gandhi's Idea of Utilizing Earth's Resources to meet everyone's needs
13. Growth – Personal and Neighbour's	7. Freedom of Belief	
14. Orientation towards Others	8. Indian Constitution: Preamble, Fundamental Rights and Duties and Directive Principles of State Policy	
<u>Violence</u>		
Modes of Violence	Frontiers of Violence	

1. Verbal	1. Caste	
2. Psychological	2. Gender	
3. Physical	3. Religion	
4. Structural	4. Corruption & Advertisements	
5. Vulgarity in Popular Culture	5. Poverty	
	6. Media and Violence	
	7. Peaceful Resolution of Conflicts	
<u>Peace Skills</u>		
Thinking Skills	Communication Skills	Personal Skills
• Critical Thinking	• Presentations	• Cooperation
• Creative Thinking	• Active Listening	• Adaptability
• Dialectical Thinking	• Negotiation	• Self Discipline
• Information Handling	• Non-Verbal Communication	• Responsibility
• Reflections		• Respect

Table No.8: Values and Skills mentioned in Education for Peace Document (2006); Page. 28-30

Conclusion

According to the National Education Policy of 2020, the fundamental objective of the education system, as a public service, was to “develop good human beings capable of rational thought and action, possessing compassion and empathy, courage and resilience, scientific temper and creative imagination, with sound ethical moorings and values. It aims at producing engaged, productive, and contributing citizens for building an equitable, inclusive, and plural society as

envisaged by our Constitution.” By doing so, the policy envisioned to formulate a curriculum and its corresponding pedagogical framework, such that the students would develop a sense of reverence towards constitutional values and fundamental duties, and would eventually grow up to become well-rounded, responsible citizens of the nation.

This vision of NEP 2020 is more or less synonymous to the Education for Peace agenda of NCERT, 2006. The latter, visualized a curriculum strategy, which would try to acculturate such social values and behavioural cues among pupils, which were in sync with the salient features of the constitution and would facilitate the upbringing of a society which was inherently peaceful, secular and democratic.

This chapter provided the historical trajectory of the evolution of citizenship education in the West, and its gradual spread to other continents. With reference to India, it portrayed how the concept took shape through events like Macaulay’s Minutes, Wood’s Despatch, Gandhi’s Nai Talim and Sargent Scheme of Education. Since citizenship education was primarily concerned with curriculum, than any other aspect of education (not disregarding its interrelation and mutual dependence upon pedagogy), this chapter also provided an exhaustive analysis of the National Curriculum Frameworks of 1975, 1988, 2000 and 2005, along with the special emphasis laid upon value based education in the S.B. Chavan Committee and the Justice J.S. Verma Committee reports of 1999. These discussions subsequently built the background for the conceptualization of a National Focus Group on Education for Peace (2006), which has been selected as the primary document for determining the parameters against which pedagogical variables and students’ thoughts and beliefs about being ‘good’ citizens, would also be analyzed during the course of this doctoral research.

CHAPTER IV

Citizenship Education, Pedagogy and Capabilities: Understanding Social Justice in Education

Introduction

Before the incorporation of The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009, into the Indian constitution, the positioning of literacy in the ladder of human progress and development of the nation, was indisputable. As discussed earlier in the first chapter, one repercussion of this was the formulation of the Human Development Index by three prominent economists i.e. Mahbub ul Haq, Gustav Ranis and Meghnad Desai. There is no denying the fact that this development index, which comprised of three indicators i.e. life expectancy at birth, education index and the gross national income per capita, upheld the supremacy of these three variables in determining the respective level of development of different states and their positioning or ranking among other nations. These indicators focused on the ends of development rather than the means or process. The UNDP, in 1990, laid down emphatically that the HDI was unique in its composition as it emphasized on the widening of human choices, rather than just tabulating the expansion of resources or wealth at their disposal (Saito, 2003). The only lacuna in the above statistical data collection and tabulation, with regards to education per say, was that it only measured the mean and expected years of schooling and neglected other valuable indicators.

One important take away from the above paragraph is that the entire enterprise was based upon the human development approach, conceptualized by Amartya Sen, which in turn was established on a strong foothold i.e. the capabilities paradigm. Before delving into the domain of what is capability approach to social justice and how it is relevant to the field of education and pedagogy, it is important to understand how its curator perceived a scenario where the children were devoid of education and the population was doomed to widespread illiteracy. In 2003, at a Commonwealth Education Conference in Edinburgh, Amartya Sen prompted upon the insecurities that were bound to prevail, if basic education was not promised to all. The first among them was a sense of insecurity and lack of self-worth, that would result from being unable to read, write and communicate properly in any given language. This would further render these individuals,

incapable of attaining gainful employment opportunities. Secondly, illiteracy prevents individuals from attaining the ability to understand and even invoke their legal rights, when these are being constrained. This happens mainly due to their inability to comprehend the rights that they are entitled to and how to utilize them to their benefit. Thirdly, there is an undeniable link between education and healthcare. Basic education can provide means for the children and their parents to realize the importance of sanitation, timely medication and immunization, as well as gain knowledge about the prevalent diseases and epidemics. Fourthly, maintenance of gender parity, while attaining education, can empower women in making informed decisions and participating in the decision making, both within and outside the family. E.g. women literacy is directly correlated to the reduction in fertility rates as well as children mortality rates (Sen, 2003). Fifthly, illiteracy can inhibit the availability of political opportunities to the underdogs of the society to participate in deliberations and decisions making, put forth their demands with confidence and voice their opinions freely. Lastly, schooling can deeply impact the identity of a person, in terms of both self-worth and self-respect and also how one perceives oneself in relation to other members of the community. In continuation with the same argument, Sen criticized Samuel Huntington's Clash of Civilization analogy and the existence of faith schools as both worked on the idea that religion decided the primary identity of individuals or groups, thus robbing human beings of their capability to determine their own identity.

Thus, unlike the previous theories of justice⁴², the capabilities approach did not provide a catalogue of fundamental principles that needed to be abided by so that a just society could be imagined and practically realized. Instead, it provided the conceptual tools with the help of which injustices could be addressed and rectified accordingly. These tools have been dealt in detail in the section about capabilities approach and what does it entail. This chapter will focus on the latent yet obvious link between quality of education, capabilities and social justice. Apart from this, it will also try to analyze the applicability of this approach in specific contours of the education system i.e. pedagogical instruments and methodologies utilized by the teachers.

⁴² The alternative views on justice have been segregated by Ingrid Robeyns, borrowing from Amartya Sen's bifurcation of transcendental institutional and realization focused comparison approaches, into theories and approaches respectively. While a theory is a set of principles or fundamentals that assist in nurturing a society which is just, an approach, on the other hand, comprises of a scale of indicators that are used for comparing the wellbeing, standards and patterns of living of individuals and groups, both within a given society as well as, across nations. Thus, based on this differentiation, the capability perspective falls under the category of an approach rather than a theory.

Capability Approach to Determining Social Justice in Education

Focal Variables and their Applicability in Educational Research

Justice is invariably a highly contested and kindred concept, linked to the ideals of liberty and equality, and the relationship between these two differs across theorizations. It combines the forces of equality and freedom to determine the just from unjust and vice versa, and the equation shared between the two varies from one theory or approach of justice to another. Apart from this, justice has a relative disposition, which means that it engages in intra-state as well as inter-state comparisons. While the former domain compares the life situation of a person at different points in his/her life, the latter engages in analyzing and comparing the living standards of different individuals. Thus, while intra-state comparisons are longitudinal, inter-state comparisons are cross-sectional in their approach. The inter-state comparisons are also comprised of inter-regional comparisons, where the wellbeing and living standards of individuals are compared across communities and nations.

A stronger comparison between the multifarious conceptualizations on justice was aptly manifested in Amartya Sen's 2009 work, *The Idea of Justice*. Sen divided the approaches to social justice into two distinct streams, "transcendental institutionalism" and "realization focused comparison" and these were interlinked to the two notions within India jurisprudence i.e. "nit" and "nyaya." Transcendental institutionalism concentrated on devising and sincerely following a set of politically sound principles that would make the environment favourable for the development of a perfectly just society, assisted by just institutions. It emphasized upon an arrangement-focused notion of justice, which dealt with teleological concerns like right behaviour or just institutions, rather than devising techniques to mitigate the prevalent injustices in the society.

Karl Marx in his *Theses of Feuerbach*, 1945, wrote, "The philosophers have only interpreted the world, in various ways; the point however, is to change it." Through this statement, Marx challenged the technique used by philosophers to engage in questions pertaining to equality, freedom and the all-encompassing domain of justice. He believed that a more practical approach to understanding and mitigating the different types of injustices present in the society, would entail a critical engagement of what was wrong and unjust, in the first place, and how this condition

occurred i.e. a historical study of the issue. Borrowing heavily from the above methodology, Sen's second category of approaches to justice i.e. realization focused comparison, concentrated upon the actual behavior of individuals or groups and the performance of social, political and economic institutions. By doing so, it followed a comparative method where it dug out the injustices prevalent in the society, by contrasting it to the behaviours and institutions of other regions whose performance was comparatively better in terms of socio-economic and political indicators of well-being. Thus, for Sen, a "diagnosis of injustice does not demand a unique identification of a just society."

The true spirit of justice as *Nyaya* was witnessed in realization focused comparison approaches. It was a comprehensive form of justice which moved beyond ideal principles of a perfectly just society i.e. *Niti*, and subsequently focused on deeper examination of economic discrepancies and inequalities, socio-cultural evils, political unrest and upheavals and environmental degradations. This justice as *Nyaya*, as celebrated by Amartya Sen, was based on a foundation of focal variables⁴³ which were mutually facilitating, inter-penetrable and co-existent in nature. These variables were public reason and social choice over rational choice theory; open impartiality rather than closed impartiality; comprehensive outcomes over culmination outcomes; freedom as both opportunities and processes rather than achievement or mere possession of resources; global justice over international justice; and democracy based on free and open public discussions and deliberations rather than a procedural affair comprising of just ballots and elections⁴⁴.

This approach that incorporated all these variables while determining liberty from ill-liberty, equality from inequality and justice from injustice, was the capability approach of Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum. It disregarded the conventional social indicators and instead argued that justice would holistically persist and be ensured, only when, individuals and groups were able to fulfill their set of desired functionings which they had reason to value. Capabilities were the "actual abilities or opportunities present for the individual, to achieve a combination of functionings that he or she values" and these spectrum or vector of functionings were regarded as states of beings

⁴³ Focal variables were denominations which compared a specific aspect of one individual or group with the same aspect of another individual or group (Sen, 1992).

⁴⁴ Some of these focal variables will be discussed in detail while drawing the link between citizenship education, pedagogy and the capability approach to social justice.

(what and where one wants to be or situated) and states of doings (what one wishes to do) (Agarwal, Humphries, and Robeyns, 2006).

The uniqueness of Sen's capability approach to justice lay in the fact that it provided an alternative "evaluative space" for determining equality and freedom and was not oblivious of the fact that due to human diversity i.e. differences among individuals in terms of external-environmental factors or their internal attributes, equality or inequality experienced in one focal variable could be different from equality or inequality in another variable. This meant that equality in one domain could not guarantee equality in other domains of the lives of people, owing to their diverse lifestyles, living conditions, customs and norms, socio-cultural and economic environment, mental and physical characteristics etc. It was for this specific reason that Sen believed in the inadequacy of ownership in the same amount of primary goods as the basis for determining whether a particular set-up was just or not and did the members have freedom to pursue what they had reason to value. This is because the interpersonal variations affected the ability of individuals to transform the resources, at their disposal, to actual functionings.

An interlinked variable to the above explanation was "conversion gap." It meant the inability to convert one's resources into desirable living or functionings. Sen used this concept to challenge John Rawls' theory of distributive justice based on a hypothetical social contract called the "original position," where members behind the "veil of ignorance" would consensually agree upon two principles of justice, dealing with the distribution of social primary goods within a society. These goods were liberties, rights, opportunities, wealth, income, power and self-respect. In Sen's understanding, the obsession with the distributive pattern of social primary goods in the society, was nothing more than commodity fetishism and could not yield the true status of just relations and institutional working. For him, what was more durable for determining whether something was just or not was the presence of agency and actual opportunities of conversion of these resources into beings and doings. Thus Sen said, "since the conversion of primary goods and resources into freedom of choice over alternative combination of functionings and other achievements may vary from person to person, equality of holding of primary goods or resources can go hand in hand with severe inequality in actual freedoms enjoyed by different persons" (Sen, 1992).

There is a possibility of a plausible synchronization of the concept of conversion capability and conversion gap with the process-based approaches or researches on education, which can further lead us to derive an inevitable correlation between the former and the objective of this doctoral research i.e. pedagogy as a variable in determining the quality of education. Indulgence in conversion gaps can pose an efficient question in determining whether a process is just or not and that is: What is stopping or enabling a person to do or pursue an activity or be someone? This very question when applied to pedagogy and its affiliated domains, can construct sub-queries that subsequently bring forth the dynamics of the relationship between educational processes and social justice. Examples of these are: Q1. Are pupils actually able to voice their opinions freely in the classroom? Q2. Are the opinions of the teachers incorporated in the curriculum design and renewal initiatives? Are they allowed to participate in such meetings? Q3. Are decisions in board meetings arrived at consensually through democratic voting?⁴⁵ A negative answer to these queries can result in seeking the reasons behind them, in order to determine what is preventing these individuals from converting the resources, at their disposal, to actual functionings, which they have a right to!

While conversion gaps were one way of addressing the concern of whether an individual was actually able to attain real freedoms and exercise his freedom of choice, an interrelated and more direct way of colliding capability approach with the education system was through “capability inputs” and “conversion factors.” Otto and Ziegler, in *Capabilities and Education* (2006), said that education was not only a capability but was also a capability input and a personal conversion factor. Over here, capability input stood for the conditions that make it possible for the individuals to develop and realize their respective capabilities e.g. income, education, fair legal systems etc. Conversion factors, on the other hand, determine how well can individuals transform the capability inputs at their disposal into realizable capabilities and these were divided into three categories: -

- Personal Conversion Factor: e.g. skills and talents, literacy, physical abilities, mental acumen etc.

⁴⁵ Since the thesis is focusing on the pedagogical indicators subtly or in some cases even vociferously mentioned in the national policies and their official documents, these three queries have been designed keeping their propositions in mind. Similarly, questions will be framed for the student community, keeping conversion gaps as a variable in mind while formulating them.

- Socio-cultural Conversion Factor: e.g. religious views and customs, societal norms, gender equation, power relations within the society, discriminatory practices like caste and class discrimination etc.
- Institutional Conversion Factor: e.g. welfare policies, legal systems, law making and executing bodies, education system etc.

Thus, education was considered as both as a capability input and a conversion factor⁴⁶. It was also regarded as a capability in itself. Being considered as a capability, it had two dimensions: -

- In the first scenario, capability theorists like Martha Nussbaum and Ingrid Robeyns provided separate yet quite analogous and overlapping lists of fundamental capabilities and education was a part of both of them. During the Fifth Annual Hesburgh lecture on Ethics and Public Policy (1999), Nussbaum in her paper, *In Defense of Universal Values*, made a case for universal values and their subsequent role in the formulation of policies, laws and the principles for the governance of various governmental institutions. These were a set of cross-cultural, interrelated and interdependent norms which were created for making inter-personal comparisons among individuals and groups alike, in terms of their status of living, and for ensuring that each individual was granted the status of being 'valuable and worthy of respect'. Thus, unlike Sen, Nussbaum believed that a list of central capabilities would be more efficient and effective in separating just situations from unjust ones and for determining the different forms of inequalities and injustices prevalent in the society and its institutions. These fundamental entitlements were as follows: - Life (a long and happy life which is worth living); bodily health (good physical bodily makeup); bodily integrity (freedom of mobility, reproduction, no sexual assault etc); *senses, imagination and thought (use senses, imagine, think rationally)*; emotions; *practical reason*; affiliation (self respect, non-humiliation, social bonding and interaction); relationship with other species i.e. plants and animals; play (recreation); control over one's environment, both political and material⁴⁷ (Nussbaum, 2003). Unlike Nussbaum, Ingrid Robeyns provided a non-universalized and more contextualized list of

⁴⁶ While education was often regarded as a personal conversion factor, its impact on socio-cultural and even institutional factors could not be negated. Its placement in these categories was either in the form of its impact on the decision making and perspective framing capabilities of individuals or the impact of national educational policies or laws on the capabilities of students and teachers.

⁴⁷ All the lines in italics, in this paragraph as well as the following one, are the ones which are either directly or indirectly proportional to education and its outcomes.

capabilities which were especially designed to measure gender-based inequalities in the post-industrialized Western societies. This list was comprised of fourteen elements i.e. life and physical health, mental well-being, bodily integrity and safety, social relations, political empowerment, *education and knowledge*, domestic work and non-market care, paid work and other projects, shelter and environment, mobility, leisure activities, time autonomy, respect and religion (Robeyns, 2003a).

Since this thesis will strictly abide to Sen's version of the capability paradigm, it is important to mention that Sen did not completely agree to the abovementioned ideas of a predetermined, canonical list of fundamental capabilities, as he believed that they posed a threat to democratic ethics, as they were chosen by the theorist without adequate public reasoning and discussions. He also denied the fact that there were good and bad forms of capabilities. Instead he believed that to decide whether a particular capability was good or bad, it was necessary to see what end results it generated and how was it put into action e.g. education would be consensually regarded as a good capability; but faith schools and the teachings imparted by them were considered restrictive, by Sen, as they inhibited individuals from reasoning objectively, since they were predisposed to such an orthodox form of teaching and learning environment, from childhood⁴⁸. Apart from this, another basis for him to sideline this bifurcation was that these good and bad freedoms were often contextual and socially determined and their perception and reception could vary from one social environment to another. Hence, while Robeyns' and Nussbaum's lists had education as a direct or indirect capability (developing reasoning capacity; thinking rationally; learning values for building social bonds and relationships etc), respectively, Sen left the debate open for each society or nation to tabulate their own (neither universal nor absolute in content and application), through public deliberation of course.

- b. The second dimension of counting education as a capability in itself was the differentiation between basic or simple and complex capabilities. Unlike good or bad capabilities, Sen did agree to this particular distinction. Martha Nussbaum distinguished between basic and combined capabilities where the former were the minimum requirements of individuals that

⁴⁸ According to Amartya Sen, "*Education is not just about getting children, even very young ones, immersed in an old inherited ethos. It is also about helping children to develop the ability to reason about new decisions any grown-up person will have to take. The important goal [in thinking about the introduction of faith schools] is not some formulaic "parity" in relation to old Brits with their old faith schools but what would best enhance the capability of the children to live "examined lives" as they grow up in an integrated country*" (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007).

were further utilized for developing more advanced and complex capabilities. These were internal capabilities that were dependent on the personal, physical, mental, socio-economic and political growth of the person. In opposition to these, combined capabilities were more complex in content as they were an amalgamation of internal capabilities and suitable external circumstances that were required for the achievement of a particular functioning (Nussbaum, 1999).

Lorella Terzi (2004) argued that education was a basic or a fundamental capability as it promoted reflective thinking and understanding and gave the individuals the capability to have reasons for valuing particular beings and doings over others (Otto & Ziegler, 2006). Apart from this, Madoka Saito (2003) believed that education led to the expansion of a person's capability, both internally and externally, the latter denoting the opportunities that now became available to the pupil after undergoing the educational process. He further reasoned that education also inculcated some values among the learners which in turn impacted their reasoning pattern and logic. Thus, basic capability stood for a capability which ensured the personal development of an individual and enhanced the opportunities present for him or her, to exercise his or her freedom of choice in terms of choosing one set of functionings over another, and education or literacy was definitely a basic one.

Rather than manifesting education system, as a whole, as a capability input or a personal or institutional conversion factor, the researcher decided to symbolize the infrastructural constituents and teaching-learning resources of this system as capability inputs. Resources like teaching learning materials, benches and chairs, playgrounds, toilets, libraries, laboratories, audio-visual aids etc. were considered as capability inputs for the schools and capabilities of both teachers and students were researched upon on the basis of the availability, efficiency and usage of these basic amenities and aids.

Besides conversion gaps and factors, there were other focal variables that were used within capability approach for challenging the utilitarian and Rawlsian theories of justice. According to Sen, the level of freedom enjoyed by a person and his relative positioning within a social organization could be judged either through "achievement" i.e. what he or she achieves and is able to accomplish, or through "freedom to achieve" or "agency" i.e. the real opportunity available to an individual to do what he or she has reason to value. The latter variable was a stronger and better

alternative as it was associated with “comprehensive outcome” rather than “culmination outcome” (Sen, 2009). While culmination outcomes were end results detached from their constituents like internal processes, relations and agencies, comprehensive outcomes were achievements which took the actions, techniques, agencies and processes into consideration before arriving at conclusion. This point is akin to the one made about traditional educational researches which emphasized upon “product” i.e. the achievement of students, rather than the “process” i.e. the performance of teachers and administration and the relationship between teachers and pupil, parents and colleagues, respectively. Thus, while product researches were focusing on culmination outcomes, the process approaches were inclined towards comprehensive outcomes and this thesis intends to forward and implement the latter while framing its questionnaires and conducting the field work.

A third focal variable that has been used by Sen for challenging the “original position” construction of John Rawls was “exclusionary neglect.”⁴⁹ This concept stood for exclusion of individuals by not including them in the decision-making body, but whose lives were affected by it. Often curriculum upgradation and renewal programmes and teacher education and training programmes do not include the views of teachers, parents and even retired teachers (who might have valuable insights due to their years of experience in teaching), whose lives are definitely affected to some extent by the abovementioned meetings and propositions accepted in them. Keeping this variable in mind, a more comprehensive and holistic research on pedagogy should include questionnaires specifically designed for the aforementioned parties in order to understand their inputs and suggestions⁵⁰.

⁴⁹ Amartya Sen also made use of other critiques entitled “inclusionary incoherence” i.e. the conflicting views of the participants of the original position which has an indelible effect on the size and composition of the body itself; and “procedural parochialism” i.e. the shared biases and prejudices among the members of the social contract. To ensure that the questions that are to be formulated for this research work are less complex, these two focal variables have been deliberately kept at bay and this does not in any way denounce their importance.

⁵⁰ Deeply associated with the exclusionary neglect variable was the variable of “closed impartiality”. Sen distinguished between closed and open impartiality. Closed impartiality denoted judgements consensually agreed upon by members of a particular group or society, something akin to Rawlsian social contract scenario. On the other hand, the focal variable of “open impartiality,” was derived from Adam Smith’s formulation of an ‘Impartial Spectator’, from his book *The Theory of Moral Sentiments*, and it denoted incorporation of views and opinions of those who were outside the focal group, so that parochialism and prejudice could be avoided. The methodology of open impartiality was entirely opposite of its closed counterpart as it included impartial scrutiny and reason, in order to sideline the defective and primitive reasoning induced by orthodox norms and dogmas and also to ensure that the probability of “disengaged toleration” i.e. you are right in your community and I am right in mine, could be

All these three focal variables, along with the concept of agency freedom built upon “counterfactual choice”, served as the fundamental base, for unearthing the multifarious pedagogical indicators, that were to be assessed through this doctoral research. The application of capability approach to the questions of social justice and quality of education per se, cannot be reduced to whether the processes within the system are just or not. It also entails indulgence in how justice is taught and maintained within the classroom through teacher-pupil and student-student interactions, as well as through the curriculum, in the form of citizenship education. According to Otto and Ziegler in *Capabilities and Education* (2006), the capability approach can provide a formidable framework for promoting social justice in education by enabling individuals to acquire the requisite skills and values to function and responsible and equal democratic citizens. The next section of the chapter will specifically deal with the link between education and the enhancement of “agency freedom” and the capacity for “objective reasoning”, along with the concept of “ethical individualism”, and the section following that would engage with questions of how justice is taught and maintained within the classroom, with special reference to citizenship education.

Capability Approach and the Intrinsic and Instrumental Worth of Education

The capability approach in the most simplistic manner is explained as freedom to do or be what one wants to do or be. Sen distinguishes between achievement and freedom to achieve, and he further adds the categories of wellbeing and agency into the same distinction, thus resulting in four distinct types of freedom i.e. “wellbeing achievement”, “wellbeing freedom”, “agency achievement” and “agency freedom”. In this analysis, the concept of achievement stands for a state of being accomplished or an end result (a functioning that has already been achieved) and wellbeing is understood as realization of freedom with the assistance of others, be it a government or non-government organization or a good Samaritan. Hence, out of the four types of freedom, what the capability approach values optimally is agency freedom, as it focuses on the processes, agents and the institutions involved in the accomplishment of a task. The “agent” is described as

avoided altogether. A proper representation of this procedural variable in the thesis would have been done by including the perspectives of all the relevant stakeholders i.e. parents, head teachers, representatives of administrative bodies and school management committees. But, in order to keep the research methodology simplistic, the researcher decided otherwise. Nonetheless, views and opinions of the retired teachers were incorporated in order to meet the criteria of an impartial spectator to a certain extent.

“someone who acts and brings about change and whose achievement can be judged in terms of her own values and objectives” (Sen, 2000). This notion of “counterfactual choice” i.e. what an individual would choose if he or she had the choice, was relevant for both freedom and equality considerations. Agency freedom is therefore a positive freedom as it is guided by the logic of “freedom to” rather than “freedom from,” and is also a deontological concept giving preference to comprehensive outcomes over culmination ones.

Agency freedom denotes the ability to make decisions based on the set of functionings that one has “reason to value”. In this statement, reason stood for something that was objective yet inclusive of feelings and emotions and was opposed to the conventional dogmas and ideologies. It was the ability to make decision and judgements without yielding to socio-cultural or any other forms of biases. To bring in more objectivity and impartiality, Sen invoked Adam Smith’s analogy of an “impartial spectator” i.e. a scenario under which a person from beyond the focal group can easily intervene and scrutinize the decision making process in question. This would eventually result in the possibility of a fair arbitration where contrasting views would be considered for analyzing a particular situation and would also clean reasoning of parochialism and skewed objectivity, making comparison of alternative lifestyles realizable and possible⁵¹ (Sen, 2006).

While objective and unbiased form of reasoning was regarded as one of the fundamental requisites of the capability approach, its dependence on inclusion of impartial spectators in the decision-making process seemed to be a secondary requirement. The primary was inculcating in individuals a habit of reasoning objectively and this could be done through two ways: the education process and the vicarious experiences of individuals due to their interactions in life, the former being a more potent denominator indeed. The exposure of the child to the curriculum content as well as the classroom environment, in totality, subsequently assists in the development of his or her personalized form of reasoning. The classroom environment stands for the interactions between the students and teacher and among students themselves and the values imparted by the teacher (either in the form of personal anecdotes or the syllabus) which have a huge impact on one’s reasoning capacity.

⁵¹ It was keeping in mind this particular variable, that the views and perspectives of retired teachers were incorporated in the study.

Regardless of this, the applicability of the capability approach to children is a bit restrictive in nature and cannot be presumed. This is because of their situation i.e. they are still in a nascent, learning period, and are unaware about a lot of things and their spectrum of experiences and exposure to diverse settings is limited. Madoka Saito (2003) asked an interesting question of whether capability approach can be applied to children or not? The answer to it was affirmative and the reason Sen used for supplementing it was: when it comes to a child, one should consider the freedom that he or she will possess in future and not at present, thus taking away some part of their agency and placing in the hands of their parents, guardians and teachers, so that they can momentarily exercise it on their behalf till they come of age and are able to do so themselves. Education along with parenting plays a major role here as it helps the child to decide which functionings to opt for and what capabilities to exercise. Saito used John White's argument to explain the catastrophe that might incur by letting children decide for themselves. The quote goes as follows, "Letting children learn what they wanted in this way might restrict the range of possible things which they might choose for their own sake." Thus, temporary restriction in the decision-making capacity of a child is imperative for the building and maintenance of his or her autonomy in future. The conclusion that one can arrive at from the above explanation is that educational institutions, processes and policies can be evaluated with the help of capabilities approach by analyzing their impact on the pupils' present and future capabilities (Otto and Ziegler, 2006), which have been termed as 'prescribed capabilities' in this particular research.

Apart from inculcating in students, the habit of reasoning objectively, which was an indispensable variable in realizing and expanding their capabilities, there is another valuable input made by the capability approach, which can be associated with quality of education imparted. This approach is often criticized for being obsessed with an individualistic notion of capabilities and disregarding the collective idea of capabilities of groups or communities. The critiques perceive it as a self-interested version of human existence, that is solely focused on the accumulation of as much resources as possible, and the fulfillment of all their functionings, with no regards or compassion for other beings. One such critique was forwarded by Thomas Pogge, who argued from a communitarian perspective that the capability approach was too individualistic and neglected the groups and associations in its evaluative strategy. In response to this, Ingrid Robeyns, a curator of capability paradigm herself, argued that there was a difference between 'ethical individualism' and 'methodological or ontological individualism' and the capability approach was

favourably disposed towards the former principle. According to her, ethical individualism viewed individuals as socially embedded beings who were connected to other beings i.e. humans, plants and animals (thus, thwarting Pogge's additional criticism of neglecting impersonal values). On the other hand, methodological individualism believed that the society was composed of atomized individuals who were self-interested and self-seeking in demeanour and that all social phenomenon, entities and properties could be explained in terms of individuals and the properties accruing to them (Otto & Ziegler, 2006; Robeyns, 2003b). Thus, the notion of ethical individualism within Sen's evaluative methodology was broad enough to take into consideration, other social, cultural, political, economic, and environmental factors, while making inter-personal as well as intra-personal comparisons. Apart from this, Sen himself claimed that capabilities, by their very nature, were non-commensurable and did not indulge in methodological individualism and therefore were equally valid for application in cases of individuals as well as groups (Sen, 2009).

The relevance of differentiating between ethical individualism and methodological individualism and bringing forth that contrast in this section of the chapter lies in two things: firstly, by recognizing the impact that the diverse social-cultural, political and economic and even environment institutions and factors, in general, have on the lives of individuals, it acknowledges the fact that it is impossible to avoid an indulgence to the query of how do institutions function and affect the lives of people (Otto & Ziegler, 2006); secondly, it has the ability to adequately address concerns of values imparted to the students and the pedagogical tools used by the teacher, by referring to the curriculum guided by the larger framework of citizenship education. Since ethical individualism does not perceive individuals as disassociated beings or atomized by nature, a study of the values inculcated in them through the education system, and the methods used for teaching the same, by the educational instructors, becomes imperative. The role played by education in the way a child is being nurtured, the relationship that he or she will gradually develop with humans, plants and animals and the individual he or she will become in future is paramount (if not absolute), and this particular variable of ethical individualism is able to imbibe this logic in its skeleton, as for it, social relationships are an indispensable component.

Besides agency freedom, development of the faculty to have objective reasoning skills for valuing one's preferred set of functionings and propagating an ethical form of individualism rather

than a disinterested and a disconnected variant, the capabilities approach brought forth a significant discussion relating to the difference between human capital and human capabilities. Scholars like Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen (2002, 2013) and other facilitators and discussants of the capability approach and its relation to education, like Modoka Saito (2003), Otto and Ziegler (2006), Kwangsu Mok and Wongyu Jeong (2016) and others, have associated the capability approach rather than the human capital paradigm with education. This idea was primarily adjacent to the Kantian principle of “kingdom of ends” i.e. treating individuals not as means but as ends in themselves. Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen argued that a good quality of education would go a long way in providing a good standard of living to the people and not just reduce them to instruments or capital used for production purposes only. While the human capital approach capitalizes on the economic production and earning capacity of humans, the human capabilities approach focuses on a much deeper question i.e. agency freedom – their ability to exercise real freedoms and convert these resources into actual functionings.

Trying to do justice to this variable of agency freedom, while conducting the comparative pedagogical study, the researcher prepared survey questions and formats for focused-group discussions, making sure that these queries perceived and treated its respondents, i.e. both educators and pupils, as agents, and not merely ‘disseminators or instructors of knowledge’ and ‘recipients of factual data’, respectively, as had been done by various process-product researches in the past. Queries and discussions, formulated around *descriptive* pedagogical indicators, on the grounds of ascertaining counterfactual choices, were further facilitative in pushing forward the concerned doctoral research towards the intended direction. Though the researcher preferred using the terms *prescribed capabilities* of teachers and students, over capabilities, the concept of agency freedom laden within them, remained undiminished or un-thwarted. The clubbing of the term ‘prescribed’ with ‘capabilities’, denoted that the respondents belonged to a particular institution i.e. the formal schooling system, and therefore, their agency was circumscribed to some extent, in the sense that they did not have the license to do anything and everything. Certain rules and provisions had to be duly followed or invariably abided by. Secondly, since the research was based on variables selected from the criterion and objectives mentioned in educational policies and statutes, the prescribed nature of agency of teachers as well as students, could not be sidelined. This recognition, instead, built a strong foothold, on the basis of which, a true realization-based-comparison study could be conducted (due to its focalized approach), and render some valuable

insights from the primary stakeholders, about justice being maintained within the system under question.

Since education has the inherent attribute of enhancing not only the production capacity of an individual, but also the ability of individuals to realize and live the lives that they have reason to value, understand and form their identities and imbibe values that can assist them in leading their lives with certain principles (and questioning these teachings and learnings, through objective and even public reasoning, as and when it seems feasible and necessary), it has both “instrumental value” and “intrinsic value.” This focus on intrinsic value means recognizing that something is valuable as an end in itself and education has this quality as it enhances the substantive freedom of the people. It further helps them to come out of their “adaptive preferences” (an essential pondering factor for Sen) i.e. conditions and situations to which human abide by or get used to with time and are unable to question their authenticity (Mok & Jeong, 2016). Thus, education focusing on capabilities rather than human capital will have very distinct and divergent educational strategies relating to pedagogy and curriculum parameters. Unterhalter (2003) supplemented this thought by putting forth the argument that lack of “ethically engaged pedagogical strategies” would result in a schooling system where students as well as the teachers would fail to recognize and practice substantive freedoms, where the relationship between them would be mechanical and where the classrooms would be devoid of an environment of equality and a culture of recognition (Mok & Jeong, 2016). This discussion will serve as the centerpiece for the variables considered in the next section of the chapter, dealing with pedagogy, citizenship education and the capabilities approach.

A Plausible Affiliation between Citizenship Education and the Capability Approach

In the previous section, one less common reference that was used for citing the role of education in relation to the capability approach was given by Madoka Saito. Saito envisaged the idea that education not only had the capacity of enhancing the capabilities of an individual undergoing the process, in terms of personal development and the vector of opportunities at his or her disposal, but was also responsible for one more development and that was ethical enhancement i.e. inculcation of values among pupils. The debate between which values to choose and are their good and bad capabilities is a long-drawn tussle. But what is undeniably the most important

outcome of the entire enterprise is that values are taught and values are learnt (not just skills and ability to read and write).

Now the question arises, how are teaching and learning of values imperative for the capability approach to education? The answer to this lies in three propositions: Firstly, through value-based education, the child gains the knowledge about how to reason in an unbiased and objective manner, keeping the subtle clause of ethical individualism alive in his decision-making endeavours at the present as well as in the future. What a student imbibes in the childhood often stays with him or her through lifetime and thus, inevitably impacts his or her reasoning. Thus, the primary clause of the capability approach i.e. being able to do what one wants to do and be what one wishes to be and have reasons for valuing both, is easily encapsulated in the entire teaching and learning process.

Secondly, the impartation of values through education system often has a tinge of what is right or wrong. The teachers and the curriculum together give preference to certain values over others and completely discard some bad ones. E.g. swearing and smoking are considered as vices and are seriously discouraged but washing one's hands before meals or knocking and taking permission before entering a room or respecting elders are regarded as good practices. Though these are examples of some really basic functionings, there are some complex ones which also get influenced by one's exposure to schooling e.g. the career path we wish to pursue, identity formation, non-discrimination on grounds of class, caste, gender and religion, a nascent yet sometimes even undying idea of self-respect and self-worth etc. Thus, education not only empowers an individual in terms of making him/her autonomous, but also encourages them to make judgements about which functionings to pursue or exercise.

The third proposition lays in the fact that citizenship education is any knowledge imparted to the students in lieu of making them good and responsible citizens is akin to the capability approach to justice. According to Amartya Sen, social justice would prevail in a society where citizens made judgements and decisions based on impartial scrutiny. He further claimed that the idea of individualism (ethical and not methodological) laden in his conceptualization was symbolic of a social choice theory rather than a rational choice counterpart. While rational choice theories believed that people made those choices that were in synchronization with the maximization of their self-interests, the social choice theorists argued that decision making should be both rational

and democratic in character and should try to incorporate the interests and preferences of all the members of the group⁵². Sen's capability approach to justice therefore depicted an interlink between the variables of positive liberty, objective and unprejudiced reasoning, social choice and democracy i.e. a government by discussion in which dissents and disagreements helped in generating "informed and reflective choices." This was the *Nyaya* based view and not the *Niti* based view of democracy in which the latter thrived on the idea of processes of voting and elections, henceforth disregarding the role played by independent media and press, forums for unhampered interactions and discussions and a promise of multifarious civic, legal and socio-economic rights available to the citizens in a democratic polity (Sen, 2009). This more comprehensive idea of a democratic society entailed a conceptualization of a citizen who was literate, enlightened about what was happening and was capable enough to use his faculties and values for acting as a responsible citizen and fulfilling his duties to oneself as well as others. One way of ensuring this was through the education system where infants and adolescents alike usually garnered fruitful habits, ability to enhance their mental and physical capabilities, imbibed values or principles for leading one's life and also gained perspective about a lot of issues and concerns occurring in the environment they were a part of.

While this was one method of showing the relationship between a value-based education, in the form of citizenship education, and the capability approach, Martha Nussbaum in *Education and Democratic Citizenship: Capabilities and Quality Education*, talked about the three capacities that were essential for democratic citizenship and a good quality of education and its teaching and learning practice. These capacities were: -

- i. Capacity for critically examining oneself and one's traditions and cultural practices through logical and impartial questioning and reasoning.
- ii. Multicultural education by acquainting the students with lessons on the diverse cultures and ethnic groups that constitute the nation, through subjects like history, political science and other social studies.

⁵² Kenneth Arrow, a renowned political scientist, through his "Impossibility Theorem," shared that it was impossible to attain social choice, 'given the heterogeneity of preferences and values that different people have, in a given society', which made it impossible to have a 'coherent framework for reasoned social assessment.' Sen refuted this claim on the ground that the social choice practice would provide a suitable framework for democratic decision making through public discussions and deliberations and this would subsequently assist institutions in formulating decisions, laws and policies through consensus (Sen, 2000).

- iii. Capacity for *Narrative Imagination* i.e. ability to place oneself in other's shoes and try to understand that person at a deeper level before making judgements about the same. This form of imagination could be cultivated through arts and literature. The idea of educating pupils to practice sympathy, as envisaged by Rabindranath Tagore, was invoked here by Nussbaum.

All these three capacities were inclusive of three forms of freedoms and these were: freedom to question and engage critically the traditions one was brought-up in, freedom to imagine being a part of a nation or world in the form of national and world citizenship (this idea was surprisingly adjacent to the grand Indian narrative of *Vasudhaiva Kutumbakum* – the world is a global village and we are all interconnected) and freedom to be sympathetic and empathetic to the life situations and experiences of other human beings. These could be attained by students through meaningful education in the form of effective pedagogical practices and a curriculum focusing on citizenship education. Keeping the objective of development of these three capacities or freedoms among students in mind, Martha Nussbaum argued in favour of a humanities and arts-based educational pattern, over a scientific and technological one. She said, “I shall argue that abilities connected with ‘humanities’ and ‘arts’ are crucial for the formation of citizenship. They must be cultivated if democracies are to survive, *through educational policies that focus on pedagogy as least as much on content*” (Nussbaum, 2006).

A crucial take away from the above statement is that development of democratic citizenship through education was not completely based on the syllabus or curriculum, but was equally dependent on pedagogy and a comprehensive research on the same would be a true showcase of quality of education of a nation. While Nussbaum was adamant about selecting humanities or arts as subjects for making such analysis, the idea of citizenship education (as discussed earlier in chapter three) in the *Education for Peace* (2006) document of the NCERT, clearly portrayed how all subjects ranging from mathematics, languages to sciences and humanities were somewhere or the other essential contributors to making of good and responsible citizens out of pupils, and therefore a separate subject was not required for this purpose. Thus, following this premise, this thesis would not be completely mistaken or misled in selecting subjects other than social sciences and humanities for gauging the impact of citizenship education and the relationship between it, pedagogy and the quality of education at the elementary education level.

Conclusion

According to Emma Smith in *Key Issues in Education and Social Justice* (2018), Ruitenberg and Vokey segregated the theories of social justice into three strands on the basis of what kind of relationship they shared with education. These three notions were: -

- Justice as Harmony: Education should support individuals in realizing and developing their desirable talents and skills which would enable them to reach their optimum potential and would eventually assist in strengthening the community at large.
- Justice as Equity: Educational policies and pedagogical practices should be such that the least advantaged sections of the society are given more attention and benefits.
- Justice as Equality: Equal treatment to all irrespective of the outcomes.

All these three notions were inevitably linked to pedagogy and they brought forth the importance of teaching as a variable in ensuring social justice within the classroom as well as having repercussions beyond it (outside the classroom), when linked to the knowledge imparted under citizenship education (how to create socially and morally responsible citizens), as talked about in the preceding chapter of the thesis. This idea was further pushed by White and Talbert, who said that,

...we must prepare children for active participation as global citizens; and this means that we have a responsibility to teach for social justice ... Social justice education moves beyond traditionalist essentialist practice by suggesting that student and teachers are active and equal participants in all schooling ... Advocates for social justice education suggest that our schools are often demeaning and disempowering places where children and their teachers are either bored into submission or where the transmission and socialization techniques destroy any hope for critical-thinking. (Zajda et al., 2006)

Tabitha Dell'Angelo in *Creating Classroom for Social Justice* (2014), argued that a teacher has the capability of bringing about positive and progressive changes in the world, by discussing real world problems, creating classroom community i.e. a space where pupils can openly voice their opinions, connecting lectures and activities to the lives of the students and lastly, incorporating authentic assessments to gauge the level of understanding attained by their protégés.

The relationship between the capability approach of social justice to pedagogy, as discussed in this chapter, was twofold: firstly, it dealt with how teaching techniques can assist in ensuring social justice within the classrooms e.g. maintaining equality within the classroom in terms of teacher's behavior towards students and students relationship with each other, no discrimination, joyful environment so that the students feel free to communicate or share their thoughts and concerns⁵³, active participation rather than passive reception by pupils etc. Secondly, it focused on how pedagogy along with citizenship education would assist in inculcating an idea of social justice among the students, which would help them in developing an empathetic attitude towards other beings, and help them in growing up to be informed, enlightened and responsible citizens. These two questions had the idea of capabilities inbuilt in them as they were inquisitive about whether the teacher and students were able to practice freedom of choice when it came to the provisions specifically designed for them, in the form of national educational policies and laws. Since these freedoms were a part of a specific system i.e. the education system, that had its own norms and protocols of functioning, the capabilities available for both teachers and students were limited to some extent i.e. they didn't have the license to do anything or everything within the domains of the classrooms or school premises and while interacting with one another and their respective peers. It is for this reason that this doctoral thesis prefers to address them as "*prescribed capabilities*", keeping in mind that they have been derived from the policies discussed in chapters II and III. This sanctioned demeanour of these capabilities, does not in any way thwart the very nature of agency freedom inscribed in them, as they are a part of an institution which runs on the basis of national policies and schemes, but whether the educators and pupils are able to realize them through teaching and learning processes, is something that can be put to test. It is for this reason that one of the subsidiary research questions of this doctoral thesis was: *how do the teachers and students in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh (comparatively) fare in terms of realization of their "prescribed" capabilities?*

The bond between capabilities and quality of education can be further strengthened by posing the exact question that was used by V. Bozalek and A. Dison, who used the human capabilities approach as a normative framework for evaluating teaching in the University of Western Cape

⁵³ These parameters and more were decided upon by referring to the official education policies and initiatives like the NCF (2005), NCFTE (2009), RTE (2009), SSA (2002) and NCERT's Education for Peace (2006), as discussed earlier in chapters II and III.

(2013). The question was: how policies impact the lecturer's academic wellbeing i.e. what are they able to do or not to do as a result of the social arrangements and interventions interwoven in the policies? The only difference between the primary question of this thesis and Bozalek and Dison's approach is that, this particular research will also delve into the opinions and views of the learners, who are the direct beneficiaries or recipients of whatever is taught within the classroom.

Unlike the traditional product-based approaches to educational researches and surveys which tabulated the performance of students in language and mathematics, this research will dive deeper and try to shift the focus to processes instead, by designing questionnaires and interview patterns directly dealing with the pedagogical techniques and tools used by the teachers as well as their thinking to some extent. Thus, by focusing on process (*prescribed capabilities* of teachers and students) rather than product (functionings in terms of learning outcomes or infrastructural amenities), this doctoral thesis will try to provide a holistic vision of the dynamics between quality of education and the capability approach to social justice. The traditional characteristic of the present researches on education, from the perspective of social justice, lies in the fact that these researches dealt with questions of universal enrollment, gender inequality in cases of drop outs and literacy levels, discrimination in universal access to education on the basis of caste, class and gender, etc. Unlike them, this doctoral thesis deems to shift the focus towards questions of whether social justice is maintained within the classroom in terms of interactions between teacher-student, teacher-teacher, teacher-administration and student-student; and how or through what mechanisms does the teacher impart knowledge about social justice and values associated with it (citizenship education), among his/her pupils?

CHAPTER V

Research Methodology

Introduction

Recognizing that all methods have limitations, researchers felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods. Triangulating data sources - a means for seeking convergence across qualitative and quantitative methods - was born. (Jick, 1979)

According to Lee Shulman (1986), any research programme that evolves from one particular perspective tends to “illuminate some part of the field.....while ignoring the rest.” It was keeping this enlightening point in mind, that the VITAE Research, which was trying to understand how teachers become more effective over time, tapped the potential of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a mixed methods approach while designing the teacher case studies and relied on three main sources of data collection i.e. interviews, teacher-pupil questionnaires and pupil assessment information (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kington, & Gu, 2007).

From the year 1989 to 1997, the PACE (Primary Assessment, Curriculum and Experience) Project was conducted in England to assess the effects of the 1988 Education Reform Act on the attitudes and practices adopted by English primary teachers. This longitudinal study conducted an intensive survey in 48 schools and designed questionnaires for all the stakeholders concerned i.e. head teachers, teachers and pupils. The questions pertaining to teachers were primarily concerned with four areas i.e. their academic priorities, non-academic engagements, views on curriculum changes and the new assessment or national testing pattern. The methodology used in the study was a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods, with more inclination towards the former and this was able to provide a holistic understanding of the research area with greater mapping and deeper analysis of the problem at hand.

One of the most apt examples of using the mixed methods approach within the triangulation paradigm was the Synthesis Report by Coffey, entitled *Transforming Learning Outcomes through a learner centered pedagogy: Moving towards a Ghanaian Activity Based Learning Concept and Framework*. The study carried out a triangulated research which involved both qualitative and

quantitative techniques i.e. literature review, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, classroom observations and student assessments. It classified 22 indicators of Ability Based Learning at system level and school level and then used a four point scale of teaching methodologies ranging from latent to emerging, established and advanced methods and measured the placement of all these indicators on this four point scale (Coffey, 2012).

The three studies mentioned above provide a hint as to what methodology this doctoral thesis wishes to adopt and why. This chapter will not only engage with the specific research methods and design that this thesis deems to abide by, but also the multifarious interrelated domains of conducting research like sampling, data collection techniques, types of questions used in the questionnaires and the criterion for selecting the states, districts and schools for the study.

Mixed Methods Research and Triangulation

Research methodology or research design is the proposal or plan to conduct a research and it involves the intersection of three domains i.e. philosophical worldviews, strategies of enquiry and methods (Creswell, 2009). The meanings of the former were automatically linked to the types of research methods they endorsed.

- i. Philosophical worldviews or paradigms: - These are the fundamental set of beliefs held by the researcher, guided by his or her area of discipline, the beliefs of the faculty advisors and the past experiences in research which propel the researcher in selecting one of these four paradigms. These are: -
 - a. Post-positivism: It is a scientific method in which the researcher begins with theory and then collects data that either refutes or supports the theory (deductive). While positivists believed in the idea of absolute truth, post-positivists instead held that knowledge was conjectural and the evidences collected, while trying to decipher the behaviour and actions of human beings, were imperfect and fallible. This worldview was more in favour of a quantitative method.
 - b. Constructivism: The stakeholders in research hold multiple viewpoints and have subjective meanings of their experiences based on their interactions with others and the effects of historical and cultural factors. Thus, rather than starting with a theory and collecting data to prove or disprove it (deductive), the researcher relies on the participant's opinions on the

subject of study and develops a theory or pattern of meaning from the data collected (inductive). Thus, it relied more on qualitative methods or approach.

- c. Advocacy or Participatory: This type of action research contains an agenda to either change the life of the participants or reform the institutions in which they work or live e.g. critical theory, feminism, Marxism, queer theory, disability theory etc.
- d. Pragmatism: The researcher emphasizes on the research problem to be studied and uses all the possible approaches to understand it. He/she applies the mixed methods approach and draws liberally from both quantitative and qualitative strategies (Creswell, 2009).

From amongst all these philosophical worldviews, this doctoral thesis subscribed to the pragmatic paradigm. This is because, the nature of the research problem and its subsidiary questions was such that, on one hand it was open to testing certain hypotheses and proving or disproving a particular assumption or preordained viewpoint, while on the other hand, it wanted to keep an open-minded, explorative approach to unearth some new and unforeseen and underexplored dimensions related to the topic under examination.

- ii. Nature of Research: - *Exploratory* i.e. research whose primary objective is to find out more about an issue or phenomenon which has been little understood or examined in the past, by asking 'what' questions. It is different from explanatory and *descriptive* researches as the former deals with explaining 'why' a particular phenomenon occurs and the latter focuses on describing it, through 'how' and 'who' queries.'
- iii. Mixed Methods Approach: - As the name denotes, it is an amalgamation of qualitative and quantitative approaches to study a research problem, but the proportion of the combination of the two strategies varies from one study to another, depending on the requirements of the study. The investigator collects both forms of data either at the same time or one after the other (sequential format) and then integrates the information gathered in the interpretation of the results. He or she may also use a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective within a research design that consists of both qualitative and quantitative data sets.

This doctoral thesis adopted a mixed methods approach for multiple reasons. Firstly, the type of research questions taken up by the researcher asked for both deductive and inductive strategies. Some questions dealt with testing of hypotheses and finding explanations for the answers subsequently arrived at (quantitative approach). While some other questions demanded a more

open-ended research where the focus was more on exploring and trying to understand the meanings that people ascribe to a phenomenon or issue (qualitative approach); Secondly, the scope of triangulating a problem from multiple angles and providing a holistic and in-depth study was more viable and conducive in a mixed methods approach; and thirdly, since the mixed methods research involves the usage of both qualitative and quantitative studies, its overall strength is greater than the other two, individually. The liberty this approach provided to mix and match specific yet diverse methods, to bring out a research plan that would address the problem from multiple angles, was unparalleled.

- iv. Triangulation is a process of combination of two or more theories, data sources, methods or investigations in one study of a single phenomenon. *‘It is metaphorically related to the laws of trigonometry used in geography, where the surveyor gets a fix on the position by carrying out three measurement to determine the exact position of a point in the landscape’* (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012). The purpose of this research method is to increase the validity and credibility of the results as well as improve accuracy. A glimpse of the triangulation⁵⁴ followed in this doctoral thesis is as follows: -

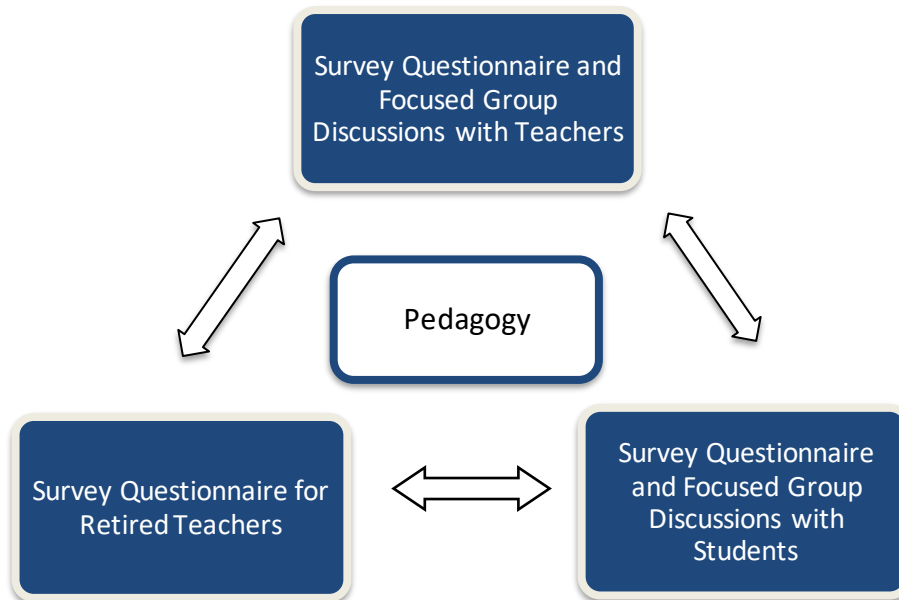


Figure 6: The Triangulation of the Research Problem from Three Different Perspectives

⁵⁴ This is also representative of *responsibility* i.e. one of the parameters suggested by Harlen and Alexander, to select effective indicators in a study. Refer to page 64.

Variables and Indicators

Two of the fundamental prerequisites of a social science research are conceptualization i.e. a process of developing a clear, unambiguous and specific meaning of an idea that is being assessed; and operationalization i.e. the process of developing specific activities or measures for empirically studying a phenomenon (Neuman, 2014). Since pedagogy is the primary concern of this thesis, an explicit definition of the same becomes imminent.

According to Robin Alexander, pedagogy is both the theory (discourse) and practice (act) of teaching. “Pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it.” All those variables which range from classroom environment, classroom interaction, to teaching methods and strategies, teaching learning materials or tools, routine, assessment parameters are part of pedagogy. Thus, it was a culmination of teacher thinking, teacher doing and its impact on the learners.

Alexander created a coherent plan for understanding pedagogy in a more contextually imbedded format. He clubbed three dimensions of pedagogy together to propagate a holistic framework for studying it and these were: -

- i. Teaching as an activity in association with students, their understanding, teaching practices and planning and execution of the curriculum.
- ii. Placement of teaching in a particular context i.e. macro-level policies and the parameters set by them for effective pedagogy;
- iii. Teaching as a value-laden process (Alexander, 2004).

It was on the basis of this conceptualization (as discussed extensively in chapter I), that the questionnaire and focused-group discussion techniques prepared for the research incorporated all the aforementioned ideas associated with pedagogy. The questions were prepared keeping in mind the criterion for effective teaching and healthy learning set by the national level policies and curriculum frameworks along with some other affiliated variables and indicators like prescribed capabilities and coordinates of citizenship education.

Thus, the nature of the research was such that pedagogy and its indicators⁵⁵ and the quality of education and its relative indicators (selected on the basis of SSA, RTE, NCF and NCFTE), along with the viewpoints of the students concerned (against which these *descriptive* pedagogical indicators were analyzed), were simultaneously treated as both independent and dependent variables of this study. Sometimes pedagogical indicators were studied from the point of view of how they were impacted upon by contextual factors (independent variable), while at other times, their effect on students and their respective capabilities was respectfully analyzed (dependent variable). The study made use of multiple indicators for the two variables so that the reliability of the study could be enhanced. Since, the character of the research was more qualitative than quantitative, concrete and fixed measures were not chosen. Instead, a mixture of open-ended queries combined with close-ended scales was preferred.

Data Collection

- i. Both Primary and Secondary Data: - The data utilized in the research was both primary and secondary in content, but the focus was more on gathering the former. Primary sources refer to those information and materials which are collected and shared by individuals who had actually witnessed the events which they described in their writings or oral renditions. These sources provide direct and first-hand evidence about a person, object or an event, and show minimal or no discrepancy between the document/artifact and its creator e.g. newspaper, journals, magazines, letters, manuscripts, diaries, interviews and speeches, memoirs, governmental records or statistics etc. On the other hand, secondary sources are materials which are produced after the occurrence of the event. Hence, they comprise of information which has either been interpreted, commented upon, objectively analyzed, or processed. Since, the research engaged with data collection through field research and survey questionnaires and also tried to imbibe

⁵⁵ The term *indicators* rather than *measures* have been used, consciously and deliberately, as both have different connotations, despite seeming synonymous. While a measure is a procedure or unit for determining the proportion or amount of a particular variable, an indicator, on the other hand, depicts the present status of whether something is happening and if so, then to what extent e.g. approaching dark clouds give an indication of rain but this cannot help us in measuring the rainfall (Alexander, 2015).

the meanings of certain variables and their conceptualizations⁵⁶ from secondary sources; it focused on the collection and utilization of both primary and secondary data, respectively.

- ii. Both Hard and Soft Data: - According to Neuman in *Social Research Methods* (2014), the data deemed to be collected can be bifurcated into hard (numbers, statistics) and soft data (words, sentences, symbols and photos). This research incorporated both as its research design was mixed in nature.
- iii. Cross Sectional and Not Longitudinal Research: - Cross-sectional refers to collection of data of multiple cases at one point of time and longitudinal means research that gathers information about one or few cases over a period of time (days, months or years), and this thesis abided by the former strategy for comparing *descriptive* pedagogical indicators in two states.
- iv. Field Survey along with Qualitative tools like Focused-Group Discussions and Open-ended questions: - Surveys are a part of quantitative research methods and they denote usage of structured questionnaires, interviews and observation techniques to provide a numeric description of the backgrounds, trends, attitudes or beliefs of a population, by studying a sample of that population. Focused-Group Discussions, on the other hand, are often associated with qualitative research methods and are strategies in which the investigator gathers subjects from similar backgrounds or with overlapping experiences, and urges them to engage in specific questions/topic, raised by him/her. This particular research, henceforth adopted a mixed methods approach, by collaborating field surveys with qualitative discussions with the respondents.
- v. Semi-Structured Questionnaire: - The questionnaires for teachers, students as well as retired faculties, were comprised of both open-ended and close-ended questions, and hence were semi-structured in nature.
- vi. Nature of Questions: - Use of *Vignettes* (Martinez-Rizo, 2012) or *Policy Capturing* (Clark & Peterson, 1984) (a variant of questions that describe a scenario within a particular context and then provide a list of options as to how the teacher would have responded in that hypothetical situation. These vignettes can denote either how the respondent would have acted or how likely he/she would have responded in the way described in the options provided. To maintain the

⁵⁶ Conceptualization is the process of developing a clear, systematic and refined theoretical or conceptual definition of abstract idea or concept. These conceptual definitions should be 'explicit' and should have a 'specific meaning' and 'no ambiguity or vagueness' (Neuman, 2014).

level of genuinity in the research and avoid inconsistent answers, the same vignettes were used in the student questionnaires, indirectly)⁵⁷; Use of *Contingency Questions* or *Fun-Filter Questions* (a two part survey question in which the respondent's answer to a first question directs him/her to the more specific and related sub-part); Use of *Partially Open Questions* (respondents are given a fixed set of responses to select from, along with a category of 'other(s)', in case they wish to specify a different answer altogether); Use of *Standard Format Questions* (A survey research question format in which the answer categories do not include an option of 'no opinion' or 'do not know') (Neuman, 2014).

Number of Questions per Questionnaire: -

- Teachers' Questionnaire: 48 questions on pedagogy and 8 questions on citizenship education, along with focused group discussion sessions with the group.
 - Students' Questionnaire: 26 questions along with focused group discussion sessions.
 - Retired Teachers Questionnaires: 38 questions along with online interviews.
- vii. Scales rather than Index: - A scale measures the level of intensity of response of the interviewee about a particular variable e.g. strongly agree/disagree or yes/no or rank in order of preference. On the other hand, indices compile one score from a variety of questions or statements that represent a belief, feeling or attitude. They are usually a result of summing up of simpler measurements. E.g. marks obtained by a student on one subject will be a scale, while the G.P.A. score will be an index. Thus, the questionnaire is designed as such that it incorporates scales rather than indices for measuring attitudes, opinions and beliefs of the respondents.

Sampling Technique

- a. A sample is a small set of cases that a researcher selects from a large pool of cases, called the population and the results from this sample are then generalized.
- b. One of the best ways to avoid errors and biases while sampling is to select probability sampling techniques which ensure that all the individuals in the target population have an equal chance of being represented. Thus, this research opted for probability sampling rather than non-probability sampling.

⁵⁷ Such queries had been prepared to ensure that "counterfactual choice" scenarios were included in the study (Chapter IV).

- c. Since this thesis dealt with a comparative study of pedagogical indicators, in the schools of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, it was necessary to narrow down the study to a feasible number of schools to maintain the authenticity and the possibility of generalizability i.e. the external validity of a research, checked by applying the results to a new setting and sample.
- d. Calculating the Sample Size: - The formula for calculating the sample size of the sample size of a finite population involves various statistical measurements and these are as follows: -
- Confidence Level: It is the probability that the true value being studied falls within a specified range of values. E.g. 90 per cent confidence level would mean that if the experiment was repeated 100 times, then 90 times out of 100 it would have similar results. Each confidence level has a corresponding z-score. E.g. 90 per cent confidence level has a z-score or z-value of 1.645.
 - Margin of Error: It is a way of depicting the sampling error in a measurement or survey. It is a small amount of error that is allowed for in case of change of circumstances or miscalculation. It will therefore depict how many percentage points the results will differ from the actual population value. E.g. 6 per cent margin of error with a 90 per cent confidence level would mean that the statistic will be within 6 percentage points of the real population value, 90 per cent of the time.
 - Population Proportion: A percentage of the population value associated with the survey i.e. what do you expect the sample proportion to be? E.g. a population proportion of 50 percent would mean that there is an equal chance of the measured value being either lower or higher than the true value
 - Population Size: Total number of subjects in the study. The population size for teachers and students of both Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh was 11,02,469 and 3,77,97,451 (NUEPA, 2015a), respectively. According to the latest statistics mentioned in the State Report Cards of 2015-16, the data for teachers was provided only for the year 2014-15. To maintain parity between students and teachers for calculating the sample size (for the same year), the population size for both the students and teachers was restricted to the 2014-15 and not the 2015-2016 report cards.
 - Thus, keeping the confidence level at 90 per cent, the z-score at 1.645, the margin of error at 6 per cent, the population proportion at 50 per cent and the population sizes as highlighted

above, the sample size for both the groups was calculated, accordingly, by the following formula⁵⁸: -

Unlimited population: $n = \frac{z^2 \times \hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{\epsilon^2}$

Finite population: $n' = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{z^2 \times \hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{\epsilon^2 N}}$

where
 z is the z score
 ϵ is the margin of error
 N is population size
 \hat{p} is the population proportion

Figure 7: The Formula for Calculating the Sample Size for a Finite Population of Teachers and Students

➤ The Resultant Sample Size was: -

- i. Teachers - 190
- ii. Students - 190

In order to do justice to these statistical numbers, while conducting the field research, the researcher selected classes 5 and 8 from each school, as elementary education was the primary concern of the study, and from amongst these two classes, 5 students were randomly selected from fifth class and 5 from class eighth. Two teachers each were selected from the two classes from both language (Hindi or English) and social science subject. An easier way to understand this sampling technique is depicted in the Table no. 9 give below: -

<u>Districts</u>	<u>Schools</u>		<u>Teachers</u>		<u>Students</u>	
	Urban	Rural	Class 5	Class 8	Class 5	Class 8
District 1	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
District 2	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5

⁵⁸ The researcher took help from the *Calclater.net* website, in order to do these calculations error free.

	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
District 3	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Government	Government	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
	Private	Private	2*2	2*2	5*5	5*5
Total	24 Schools		96 Teachers		240 Students	
Final Total (6 Districts: 2 States)	48 Schools		192 Teachers		480 Students	

Table No. 9: Number of Teachers, Students and Schools per District

(* Multiply –Urban Government and Rural Government Schools calculations are done simultaneously. Therefore, 2*2 means Two Teachers from Urban Government School and Two Teachers from Rural Government School, each, and so on.)

- e. Multistage Cluster Sampling: - In order to select the sample objectively, the research used a multistage sampling method, where the prospective sample was divided into different stages and probability sampling methods were used in each stage. A graphic description of the same is shared in Figure no. 8 below. Besides this, a non-probability sampling method i.e. snowball sampling, was also followed, solely for the purpose of getting in touch with the retired teachers.

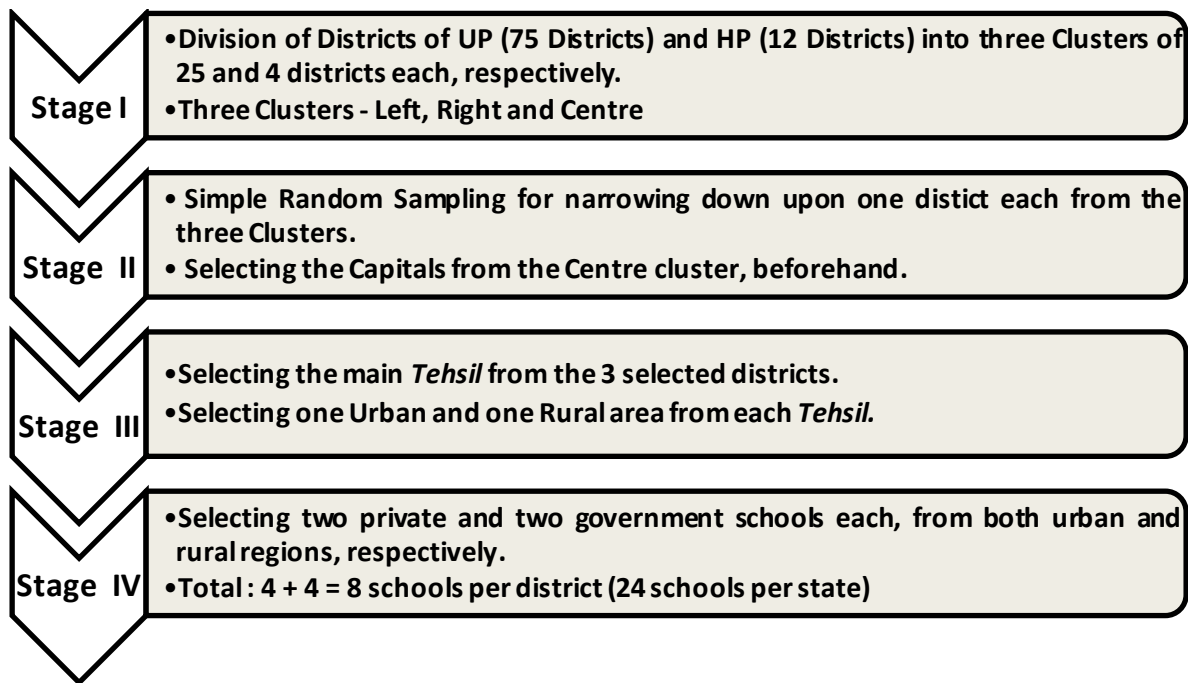


Figure 8: Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts, *Tehsils* and Schools

Conclusion

This chapter is a manifestation of the soul of this doctoral research thesis. It is a comprehensive outlay of the conduction of a field research, but under the framework of mixed methods strategy. The rationale behind selecting a research design characterized by mixed methods and triangulation techniques was to leave no stone unturned in analyzing the problem at hand and cornering it from all possible angles, for providing a deeper and wholesome understanding.

Since the work was primarily on pedagogical variables and indicators, formulated on the basis of the national educational policies and initiatives like the National Curriculum Framework (2005) along with the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (2002) and The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009), and in contextual reference of the curriculum associated with Citizenship Education, the questionnaires were designed such that they would be incorporative of them. This was done to maintain validity i.e. a judgement parameter that sees how well an empirical indicator fits into the definition of the construct. Attempts were deliberately made to address the content validity of the research i.e. the

measures selected should represent all the aspects of the definition of the construct, in this case pedagogy. E.g. pedagogy was the main construct and its indicators were generic pedagogical knowledge of teachers, teaching methods, actions of teachers in specific hypothetical scenarios, views of teachers on remunerations, curriculum revisal or redesigning meetings, tuitions, punishment mechanisms, relationship with colleagues and administration, involvement in specific non-curricular activities etc. Scales were used, wherever possible, to gather information about the opinions of teachers on respective teaching related issues.

The nature of the research was exploratory as it delved into an unexplored field with questions which were determined to find out ‘what’ was happening. The semi-structured questionnaires designed for teachers, students and retired faculties, included vignettes, contingency questions, partially-open questions and standard format questions. Both primary data and secondary data were collected and incorporated in the study. The purpose of the former was to explore a novel domain of education which had been less researched upon in India i.e. pedagogy, while the latter provided valuable inputs in terms of what all indicators could be gathered in the form of primary data.

Lastly, due emphasis was laid upon the sampling technique in order to ensure that the research design was objective and reliable. Proper sampling formula was used to calculate the sample size of the population of teachers and students in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, collaboratively. Apart from this, three districts each were selected from the two states through multi-stage cluster sampling and therefore, non-probability sampling was avoided to keep sampling errors at bay and multiply the prospect of generalizability.

Thus, overall a mixed approach strategy was adopted in order to bring forth the positives of both the qualitative research (through field study and focused-group discussions) and quantitative research (survey method, usage of semi-structured questionnaires and testing of hypotheses), to the benefit of this entire enterprise.

CHAPTER VI

A Comparative Study of Pedagogy and Citizenship Education in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh

Introduction

In order to do justice to the primary research objective of '*what role does pedagogy play as a variable in determining quality of education in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, with special reference to citizenship education?*', this chapter has been divided into two parts. Part A will deal with pedagogical indicators and students' perspectives regarding the same, and has been divided into XI sections dealing with different dimensions of pedagogy. Part B, on the other hand, will concern itself with pedagogy in relation to citizenship education. This chapter will strictly restrict itself to the findings of the study, after first giving an educational overview of the two states which were under study.

Educational Profile of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh

As stated before, this research will focus on conducting a comparative pedagogical and citizenship education study between Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. One of the prominent queries that would occur in the mind of the readers after reading the section on research methodology, would be, why these two states specifically? This section of the chapter would not only address this question, but would also provide an insight into the coeval school, student and teacher related statistics of the two states, respectively.

The decision of selecting two states and opting for comparative pedagogy is based on the premise that a comparative approach is able to provide data which is richer and much more beneficial and insightful in terms of policy recommendations. Such data is fruitful in providing a holistic understanding of the issues at hand and is sometimes even able to help the researcher in deciphering the reasons for the various systemic loopholes and the factors behind - why and how one state is performing better than the other? This would not only provide a description of the status and quality of education in the two states, with special reference to pedagogical skills and strategies, as well as the attempts made at imparting citizenship education, but would also provide a cross-sectional view of the same.

According to Prof. Amartya Sen, in his realization-focused comparison idea of differentiating just situations and actions from unjust ones, a Nyaya based notion of justice would prevail when the locus of study is the actual behaviour of individuals and groups, as well as the reality of social, cultural, political and economic institutions. This approach was different from transcendental theories of justice which were obsessed with how perfectly just principles and institutions would ultimately create just societies. The former approach thus, concentrated on how to reduce inequalities and unfreedoms by challenging those factors and variables that were stifling justice. Adhering to this analogy, a comparative study on pedagogy and its interrelated factors in two states would have the same implications. Such a research would highlight the present status of pedagogical indicators, with special reference to citizenship education, their strengths and weaknesses, students' perspectives, as well as, what can be learnt and adopted from the successful examples.

The strength of a comparative study lies in the selection of drastically contrasting cases. Himachal Pradesh, being one of the highest performing states with reference to learning outcomes of students, in terms of their reading and arithmetic problem-solving skills, especially as depicted in the ASER report of 2016 and 2018, would have proven to be a worthy competitor to Uttar Pradesh, whose educational indicators were in a deplorable condition, based on the reports produced by various governmental and non-governmental institutions. Table No. 10 given below brings out some of these contrasts: -

<u>Indicators (%)</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>All States and UTs</u>
Annual Average Dropout Rate (2014-15)	0.73	6.81	4.10
Human Development Index	0.670	0.542	0.624
GER*	100.89	86.15	96.91
Literacy Rates (2011)	83.78	69.72	74.04
Male Literacy Rates	90.83	79.24	82.14
Female Literacy Rates	76.80	59.26	65.46

NER**	89.56	79.86	88.94
Professionally Trained Teachers	90.23	63.55	79.15
Per-Student Expenditure on Elementary Education (2011) in Rupees	21,442.41	6,020.25	9117.26
Pupil Teacher Ratio (Students per Teacher)	11	35	20
Retention Rates	98.92	81.03	84.21

Table No. 10: Educational Indicators in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh for Elementary Education (2015-2016)⁵⁹

* GER = Ratio of persons in class groups to the number of persons in the corresponding official age group;

** NER = Enrollment in primary education (I-V) of the official primary school age group (6 to 10 years) expressed as the percentage of the corresponding population.

In 2010, the Programme Evaluation Organization of the Planning Commission, now NITI Aayog, compiled an evaluation report on Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and some of its essential findings on quality of education are depicted in Table no. 5 (a & b) of Chapter 2. The statistics shown in Table no. 5 and 10 depict the drastically contrasting figures of educational indicators in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. Though the states shared some similarities, when it came to having same proportion of teaching-learning materials, multi-graded schools, average number of teachers per school, provisions for para-teachers and model schools, three boards (CBSE, ICSE and UP/HP Board), their level of performance with reference to other indicators, varied considerably. This doctoral thesis proposes to find out the reasons for the same by bringing in pedagogy into the picture, as a variable, for determining quality of education.

As has been mentioned earlier in the section on sampling techniques, three districts (inclusive of the capitals) were randomly selected from both the states, through the multi-stage cluster sampling technique. The two maps given below i.e. Figure 9 and 10, are a representation

⁵⁹ Three Sources of the Table: - (NUEPA, 2015b) ; ("Indian States Ranking by Literacy Rate," n.d.); (Dongre et al, 2014)

of the same as to how three divisions (Left, Right and Centre), of the states, were made and then one district was randomly picked from each division, making sure that the capital of the state was one amongst them.

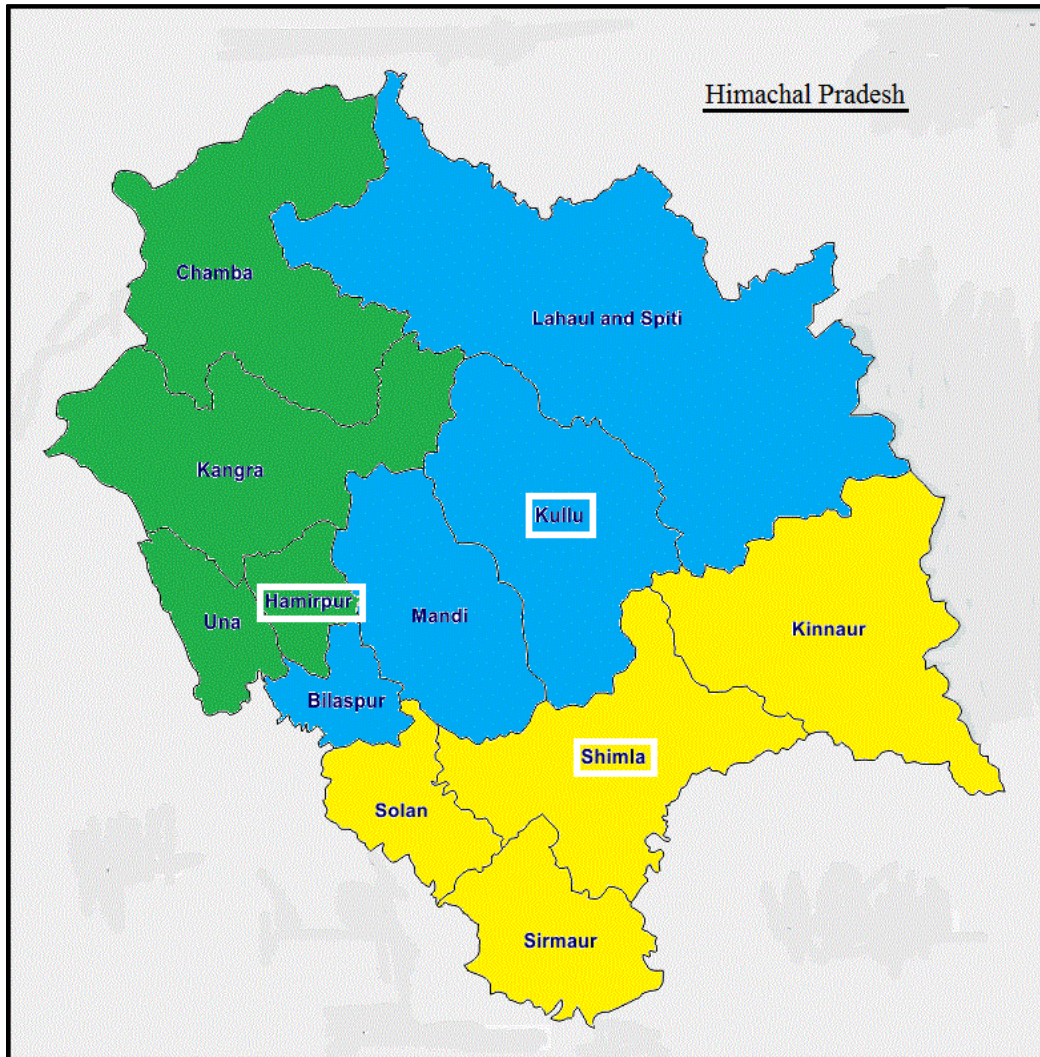


Figure 9: Map of Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts in Himachal Pradesh



Figure 10: Map of Multi-stage Cluster Sampling for Selecting the Districts in Uttar Pradesh

Some statistical information about the three districts of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh is given in the tables below: -

District (Blocks)	Number of Schools 2015-16			Total Enrolment 2015-16			Total Teachers 2014-15		
	Total	Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private
Lucknow (9)	4,840	1,876	2,850	10,99,270	1,80,542	9,04,053	18,707	9,367	9,455
Saharanpur (14)	4,136	1,962	2,033	5,62,658	1,82,823	3,59,599	19,378	7,195	10,673
Sonbhadra (8)	2,955	2,495	437	3,74,055	2,59,152	1,11,574	9,162	5,487	3,767

Table No. 11: Three Districts of Uttar Pradesh ; Source: (Mehta, 2015b)

<u>District</u> <u>(Blocks)</u>	<u>Number of Schools</u> <u>2015-16</u>			<u>Total Enrolment</u> <u>2015-16</u>			<u>Total Teachers</u> <u>2014-15</u>		
	Total	Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private	Total	Govt.	Private
<u>Hamirpur</u> <u>(6)</u>	988	769	219	58,091	28,641	29,450	6,316	3,999	2,444
<u>Kullu</u> <u>(6)</u>	1,185	1,010	175	65,171	44,023	21,148	5,467	3,813	1,781
<u>Shimla (20)</u>	2,687	2,318	369	1,13,391	67,611	45,780	13,351	9,854	4,187

Table No. 12: Three Districts of Himachal Pradesh ; Source: (Mehta, 2015a)

Phases and Details of Towns and Villages Surveyed

The field work and survey for this thesis was conducted in three phases, as three districts had to be covered in two states each. These phases and the names of towns and villages visited have been depicted in Figure No. 11 and Table No. 13 given below: -

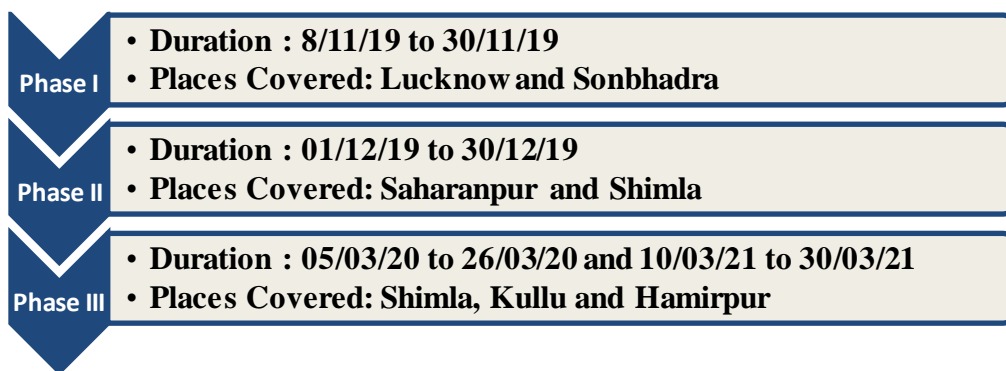


Figure 11: Phase-wise Depiction of the Fieldwork and Survey conducted by the Researcher

<u>Towns and Villages Surveyed</u>			
<u>States</u>	<u>District</u>	<u>Urban Towns</u>	<u>Rural Villages</u>
<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Lucknow</u>	Lucknow Cantt.	<u>Chinhat (Hasemau)</u>
		Sadar	
		Mohanlalganj	

	Saharanpur	Saharanpur	Pilakhni
			Sarsawan
			Sorana
	Sonbhadra	Robertsganj	Churk (Madehi)
<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	Hamirpur	Hamirpur	Chamarari
			Matahni
			Mohan
	Kullu	Kullu	Bhuntar
			Mohal
	Shimla	Shimla (Bemloi)	Naog

Table No.13: Towns and Villages Surveyed by the Researcher⁶⁰

Preliminary Profiling of Educators and Students Surveyed

The teachers and students of schools located in the above-mentioned towns and villages were duly surveyed and the basic information regarding them has been shared in Tables 14, 15 and 16, along with Figure no. 12 (a) and (b) given below: -

<u>Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh</u>					
	Rural		Urban		Total (96)
Age Group (Years)	Government	Private	Government	Private	
20 – 30	3	10	2	6	21
31 – 40	9	9	11	10	39
41 – 50	11	5	8	6	30
51 – 60	1	0	3	2	6
60 +	0	0	0	0	0
Gender					

⁶⁰ The list of schools covered, have been provided in Annexure VI and some of the photographs of the same have been shared in Annexure VII.

Male	5	7	6	4	22
Female	19	17	18	20	74
Nature of Job					
Permanent	19	17	24	12	72
Contractual	5	7	0	12	24

Table No. 14: Basic Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh

Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Himachal Pradesh					
	Rural		Urban		Total (96)
Age Group (Years)	Government	Private	Government	Private	
20 – 30	0	1	1	5	7
31 – 40	10	8	11	8	37
41 – 50	13	15	7	10	45
51 – 60	1	0	5	1	7
60 +	0	0	0	0	0
Gender					
Male	5	3	9	5	22
Female	19	21	15	19	74
Nature of Job					
Permanent	22	23	23	17	85
Contractual	1	7	2	1	11

Table No. 15: Basic Profile of Teachers Surveyed in Himachal Pradesh

<u>Profile of Students Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh</u>					
States	Rural		Urban		Total
<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	Government	Private	Government	Private	
Gender					
• Male	21	22	18	19	80
• Female	39	38	42	41	160
Himachal Pradesh					
Gender					
• Male	39	24	14	40	117
• Female	21	36	46	20	123

Table No. 16: Basic Profile of Students Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh

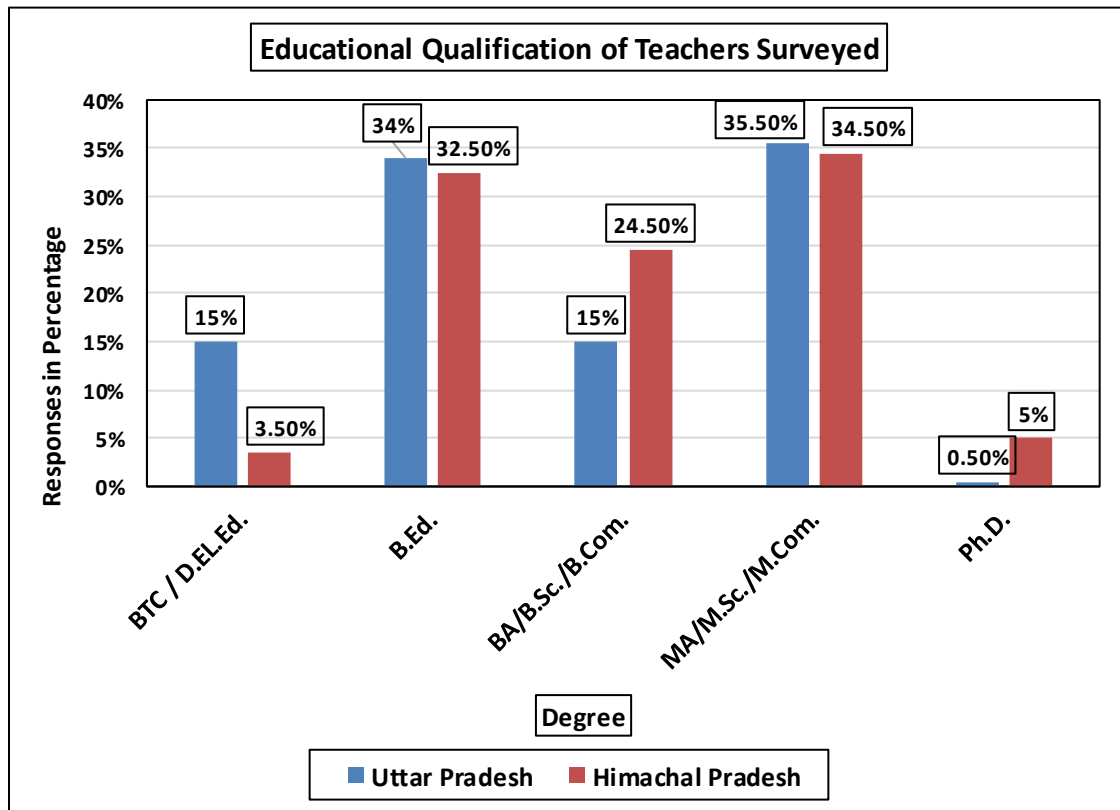


Figure 12 (a): Educational Qualification of Teachers in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh

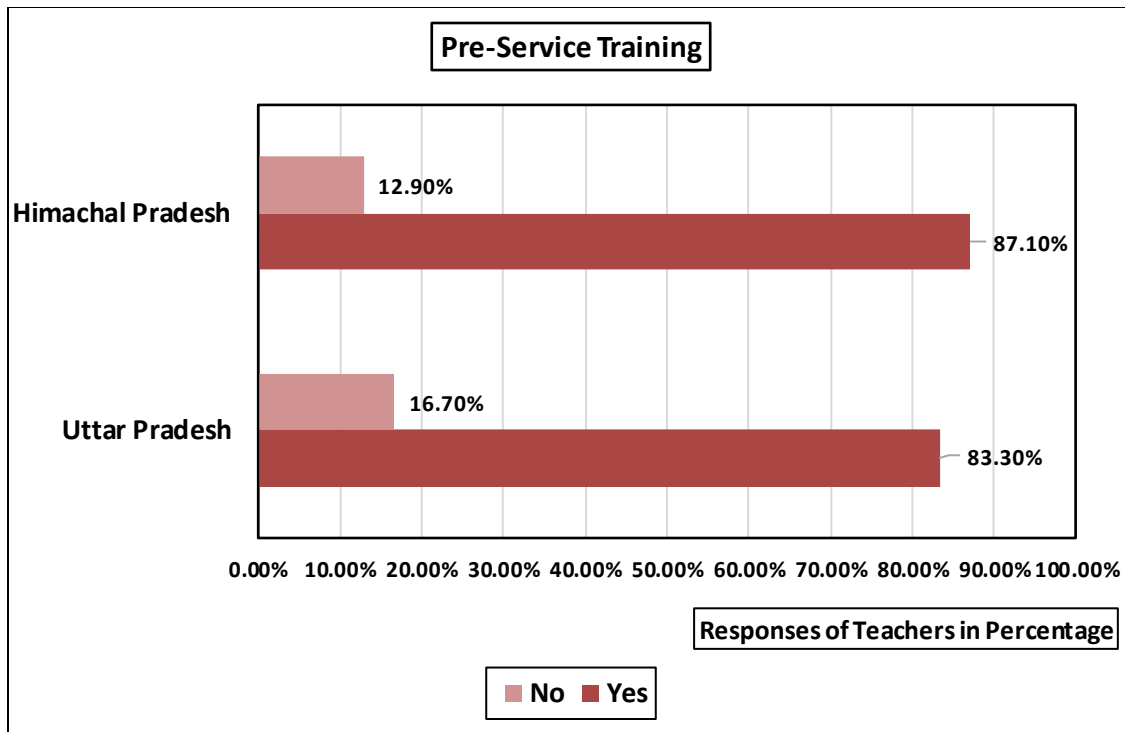


Figure 12 (b): Pre-Service Training Received by Teachers of Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh

In the figure given above, all the respondents who answered *yes* to having undergone pre-service training before being inducted into the service, also answered positively to the related query of the training being helpful for them.

A rudimentary comparison of the educational qualification of the teachers, of classes 5 and 8, in the two states (Figure 12 a), clearly depicts that overall, the teachers in Himachal Pradesh had attained higher educational qualification. While around 51 percent of the respondents in Uttar Pradesh had qualifications ranging between Bachelors and Doctorate, the figure for Himachal Pradesh was 64 percent. Besides this, the educators in Uttar Pradesh were comparatively more in proportion when it came to having acquired Basic Training Course or Diploma in Elementary Education i.e. a diploma course of two years for teaching at the elementary level, which is the most basic requirement for teaching in any government or private school in India (15% in UP and 3.5% in HP).

Part A: Descriptive Indicators of Pedagogy

With the objective of including *descriptive* variables or attributes within the scope of quality of education debate and trying to decipher their relative positioning in the two states of Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, the researcher opted for a very unconventional methodology for collecting the data concerned. Based on the provisions of four national initiatives i.e. the NCF (2005) along with the NCFTE (2009), the SSA (2002) and RTE (2009), the researcher prepared two simultaneous questionnaires for educators and students, from classes five and eight, in the hope of representing elementary education. To maintain symmetry among the respondents, teachers from only language (either English or Hindi) and social science subjects were incorporated. Hence, each school had two teachers from language department (one each from classes 5 and 8) and two from social studies (again one each from classes 5 and 8), amounting to a total of four educators per school surveyed. Similarly, five students were randomly selected from any one section of classes 5 and 8 each, resulting in a total of ten pupils per school⁶¹.

The questionnaire designed for educators was comprised of forty-eight (plus eight) questions, while the one formulated for students included twenty-six and both of them had overlapping queries, so that a synchronized format of tabulating and comparing the data was conceivable. This section of the chapter will try to bring forth the resultant data and revelations, henceforth deciphered by the researcher.

I. Desirable and Undesirable Attributes of an Educator: -

According to the sample surveyed, the pre-requisites or attributes of a good teacher, as shared by the teachers themselves, was dominated by these five attributes: *content knowledge or command over the subject, dedication of the teacher, understanding his/her students, punctuality and patience*. A comparative overview of the teachers of the two states reveals that teachers in Himachal Pradesh valued three specific characteristics like *kindness, positive outlook and organizing activities to engage students in the process of learning*, which were not mentioned by their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh. Refer to figure 13 (a) for more information on the subject.

⁶¹ Table No. 9 in Chapter V, provides a detailed version of this sampling method.

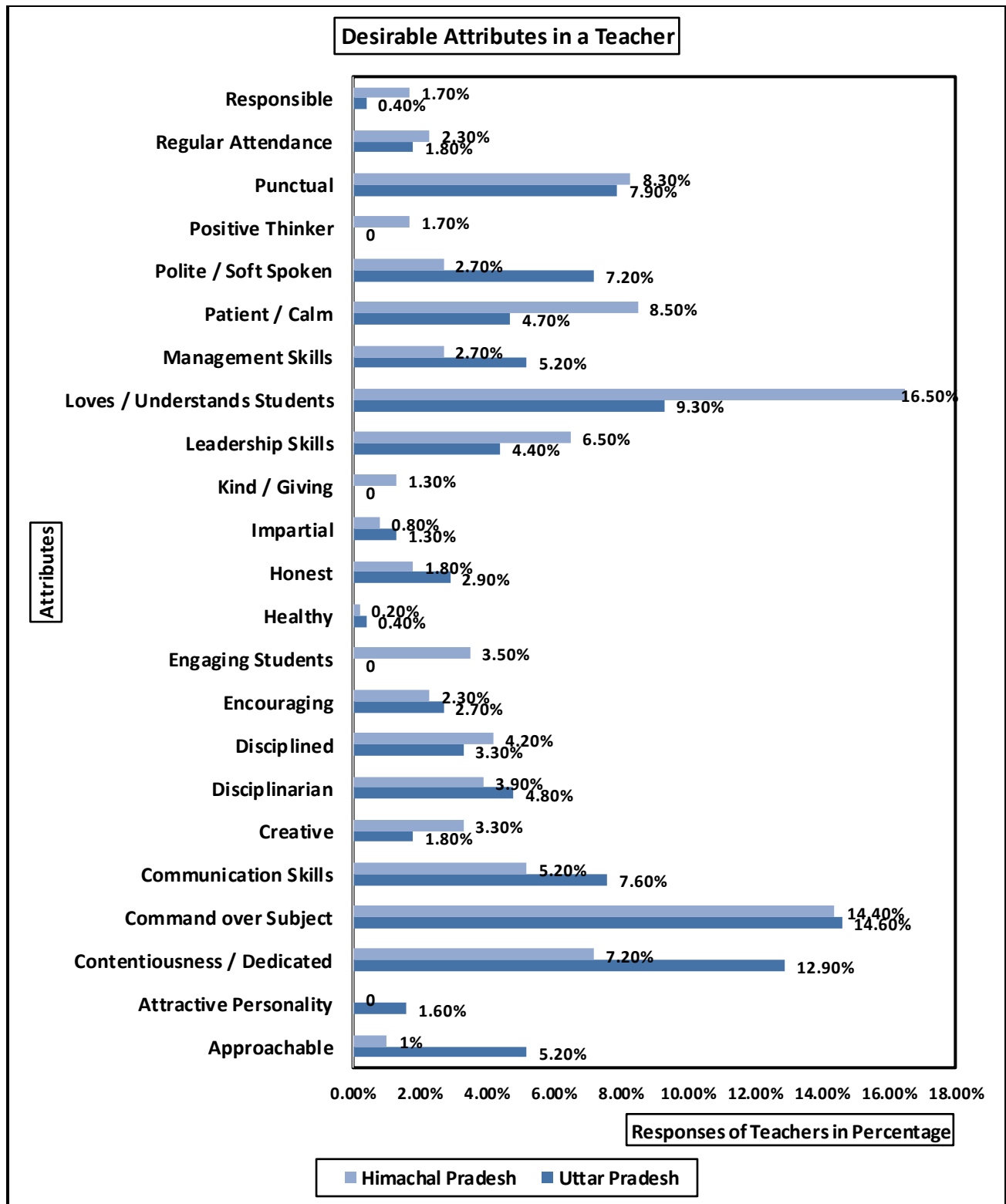


Figure 13 (a): Desirable Attributes of a Teacher

On the other hand, the undesirable qualities in a teacher were dominated by attributes like: *lack of content knowledge or command over the subject, being uninterested in teaching, unpunctual, short tempered and partiality or discriminating among students*. Teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned four particular aspects which were either unreported or minimally reported by teachers in Himachal Pradesh and these were *usage of foul language* (5.4% in UP and 0% in HP), *being uninterested in teaching* (12.9% in UP and 2.7% in HP), *indecent behaviour of educators* (3.9% in UP and 0.2% in HP), and *beating or hitting pupils* (2.7% in UP and 0.2% in HP). Likewise, the respondents in Himachal Pradesh believed that *inability to understand students* (10.2% in HP and 0% in UP), *being lazy* (5.3% in HP and 0% in UP), *having a demotivating or demoralizing attitude* (4.7% in HP and 0% in UP), *being impatient* (5.1% in HP and 1.9% in UP) and lastly, *having bad communication skills* (4.7% in HP and 1.7% in UP), were some other noteworthy negative traits that must be rectified. Besides these, *too much leniency, substance abuse, being fashionable and lack of awareness* were some other distinctive characteristics highlighted by the teachers in Himachal Pradesh and all these revelations mentioned above, have been shown in Figure no. 13 (b) given below, which provides an overview of characteristics that were devalued by the teachers in the two states, and their respective proportions.

Undesirable Attributes in a Teacher

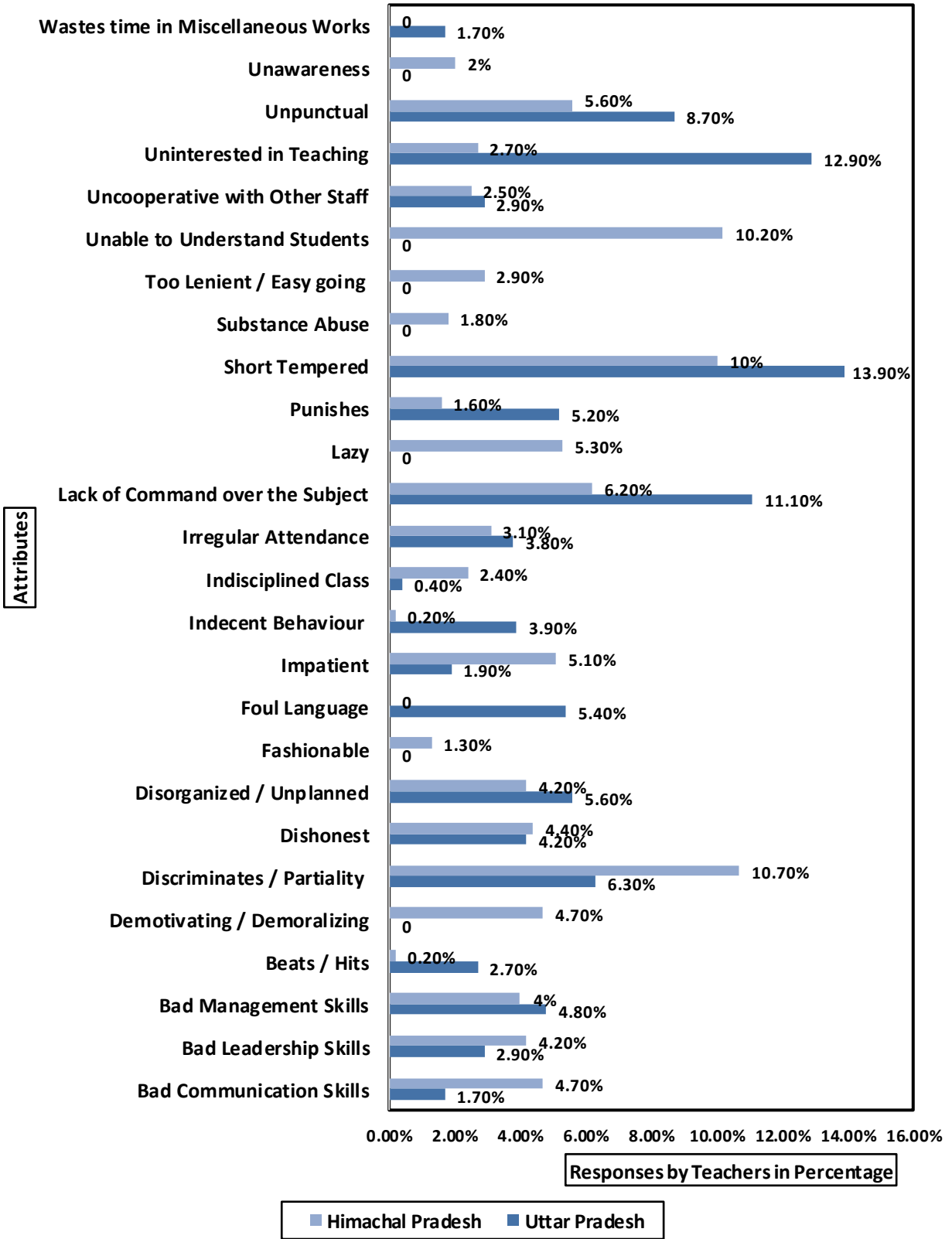


Figure 13 (b): Undesirable Attributes of a Teacher

When the same queries were put across to the students of these teachers, their responses were quite engrossing. While *good teaching and explanation skills* of the teacher topped the list for students from both the states, the pupils of Himachal Pradesh highlighted some other attributes of teachers, which were not reverberated by those in Uttar Pradesh. These qualities were: *allows questioning, hardworking, is a little strict and respects his or her students*. Figure no. 13 (c) provides a vivid depiction of all the responses.

On the other hand, with reference to the qualities they didn't like or admire about their teachers, the students of Uttar Pradesh mentioned *beating* (15.3% in UP and 7.8% in HP) and *scolding* (12.6% in UP and 7% in HP) as their principal reasons. Apart from these, they also mentioned some other characteristics which were unappreciated by them, and these were not resonated by their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh. These attributes were: *perfectionism or inability to accept mistakes or let them go, talking on mobile phones during class, being non-creative, not checking homework or classwork and having an illegible handwriting*.

The respondents in Himachal Pradesh had more or less similar take when it came to disliking attributes like anger, punishment, scolding and beating, but they raised some other novel and dissimilar concerns like *inability to manage classrooms, being egoistic, non-dedicated and unencouraging*, and lastly, *giving difficult tests or problems to solve*. Table no. 17 given below mentions all the related statistical data about what qualities of educators were disliked by their pupils.

Qualities of a Teacher you Admire

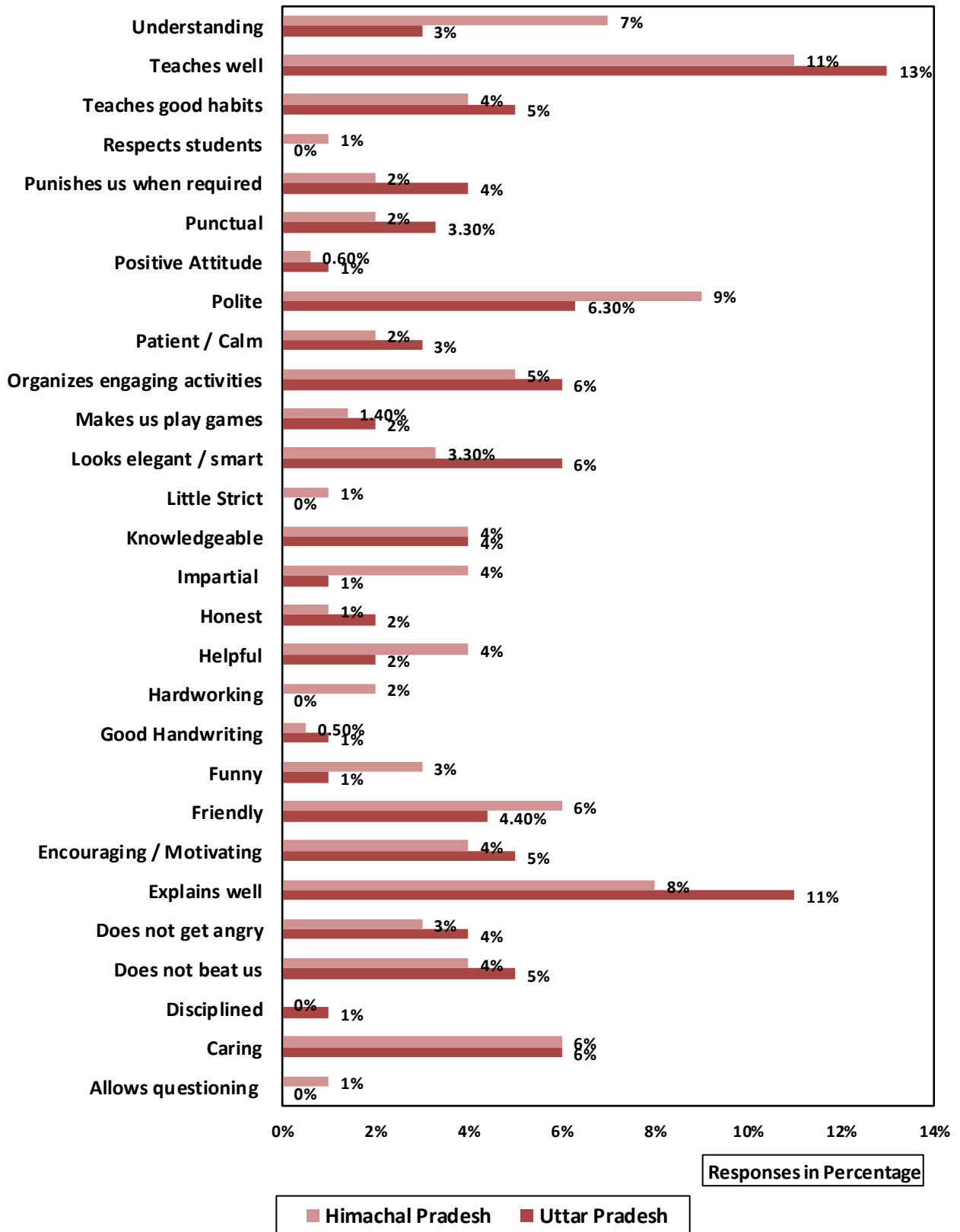


Figure 13 (c): Appreciable Qualities of the Teacher as denoted by Students.

<u>Qualities you Dislike in your Teacher</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
Angry	128	11 %	114	10.2 %
Ask us to sit down when we ask questions	47	4%	20	1.7 %
Bad / Foul Language	18	2 %	12	1 %
Bad Handwriting	4	0.3 %	0	0 %
Beats / Hits	177	15.3 %	87	7.8 %
Cannot manage class	0	0 %	6	0.5 %
Does not check H.W.	10	0.8 %	0	0 %
Does not let us laugh	20	2 %	12	1 %
Does not let us play	10	0.8 %	21	1.8 %
Does not teach	66	5.7 %	30	2.6 %
Does not explain	74	6.4 %	74	6.6 %
Does not understand our problems	21	2 %	79	7 %
Dressing Style	12	1 %	5	0.4 %
Egoistic	0	0 %	24	2 %
Gives difficult tests / problems	0	0 %	18	1.6 %
Gives lots of H.W. /C.W.	9	1 %	43	3.8 %
Non-creative	17	1.5 %	0	0 %
Non-dedicated	0	0 %	20	1.7 %
Non-encouraging	0	0 %	9	0.8 %

Partial / Favouritism	68	6 %	84	7.5 %
Perfectionist	12	1 %	0	0 %
Punishes	118	10 %	87	7.8 %
Scolds	145	12.6 %	78	7 %
Talks on mobile	33	2.8 %	0	0 %
Rude / Sarcastic	15	1 %	65	5.8 %
Strict	88	7.6 %	100	9 %
Teaches Fast	2	0.2 %	18	1.6 %
Unpunctual	13	1 %	26	2.3 %
Unkind	46	4 %	95	8.5 %
Total	1150	100	1115	100
*Did Not Answer	10		17	

Table No. 17: Qualities of Teachers Disliked by the Student

While these were the responses to questions that were a little less-direct in nature, a separate question was designed to enquire pupils directly about how they perceived or identified their teacher. In order to maintain synchronization, the students were requested to restrict their answers to either their language teacher or their social studies teacher, as surveys of these teachers had been conducted simultaneously. As depicted in Figure no. 13 (d) below, the students of both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, rated *strict yet understanding* (62.1% in UP and 50.4% in HP) as their foremost choice in characterizing their educator, but *the propensity of identifying one's teacher as friendly was higher in Himachal Pradesh as compared to Uttar Pradesh*.

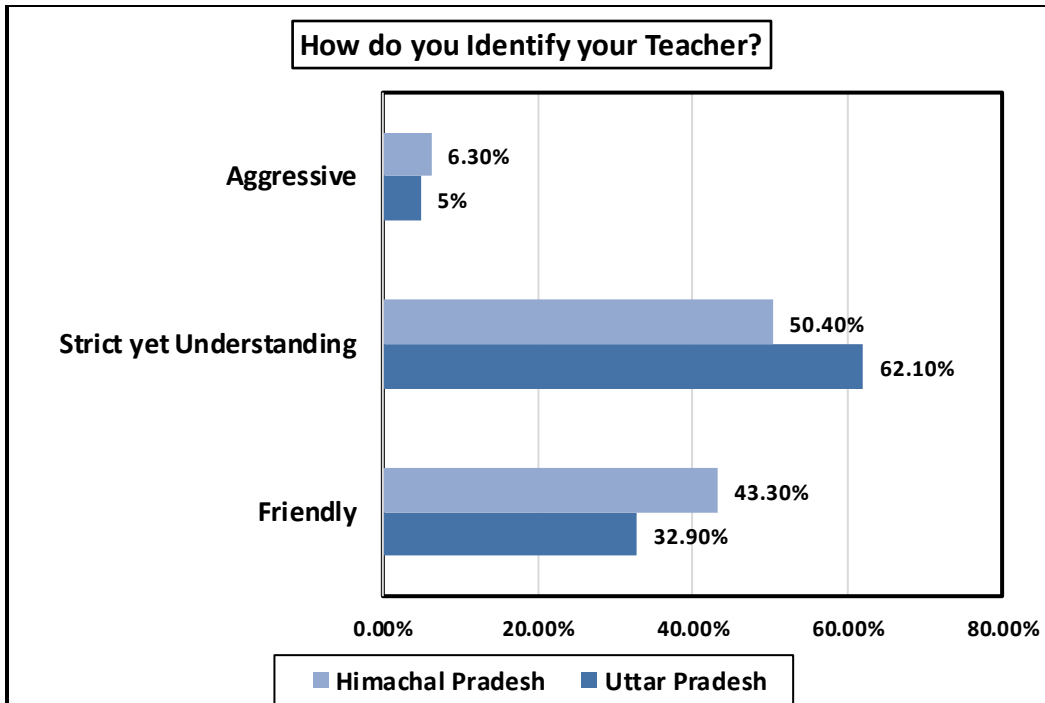


Figure 13 (d): How do you identify your teacher?

II. Foremost Goals or Duties of a Teacher

According to Figure no. 14 (a) shared below, teachers in Himachal Pradesh ranked higher in terms of variables like *nurturing an overriding personality in the pupil* (12% in HP and 9% in UP) and making the *teaching and learning process joyful* (17% in HP and 15% in UP). This selection on their end invariably portrays their proximity to the pedagogical objectives highlighted in the National Curriculum Framework of 2005 and the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education of 2009. The respondents in Uttar Pradesh, on the other hand, preferred *organizing of regular parent-teacher meetings* and *completing the syllabus on time*, over their counterparts in the other state, thus tending more to the *ascriptive* features of pedagogy than *descriptive* ones. Nevertheless, both the states ranked equally high in rooting for *effective learning and memorization by the pupils*, *maintaining decorum within the classroom*, and *enabling students to discover their talents and develop their character along with certain other social values*.

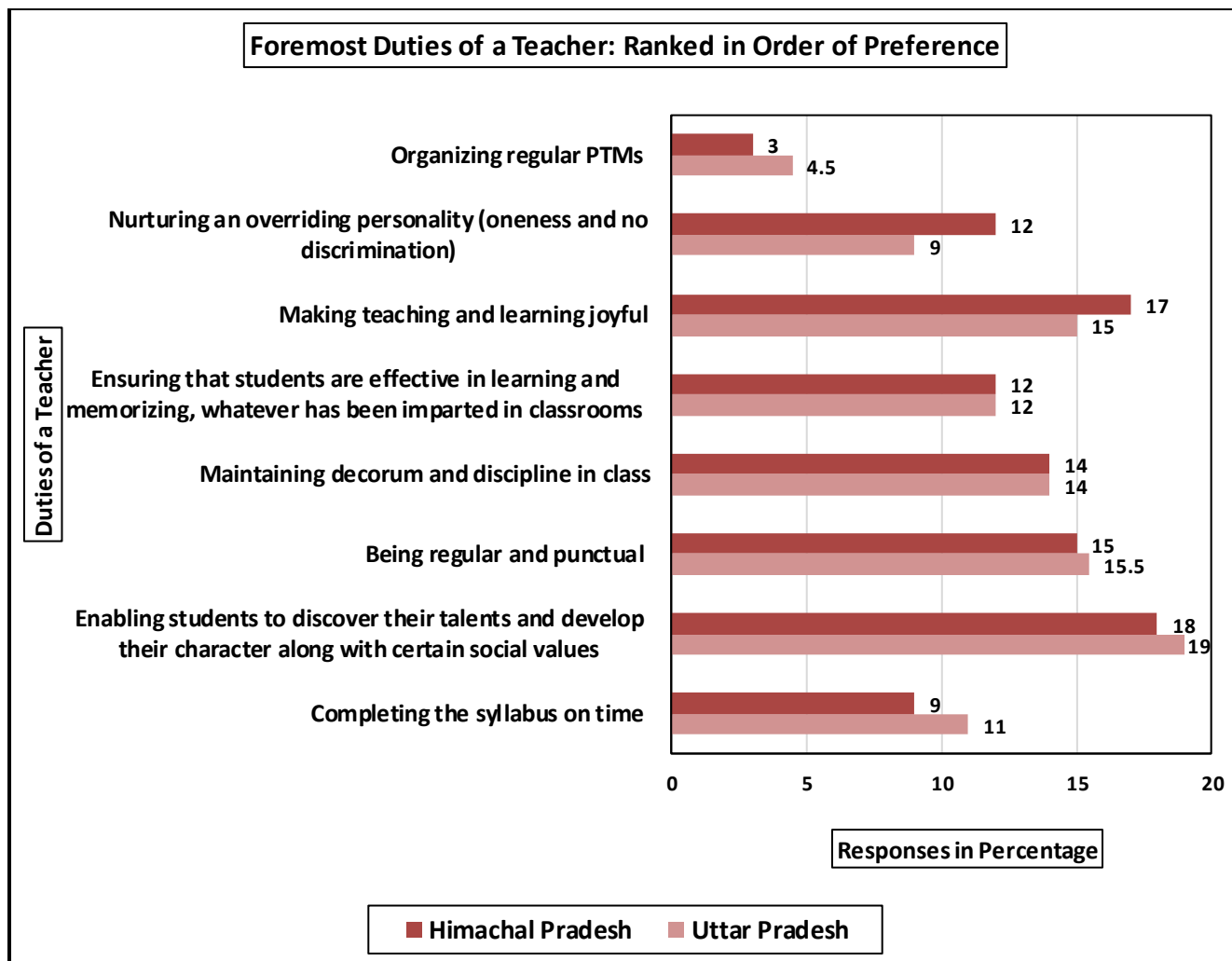


Figure 14 (a): Foremost Duties or Responsibilities of a Teacher as perceived by teachers themselves

When the students were asked to describe who is a teacher, apart from mentioning their basic activity of teaching and explaining, majority of them said that he/she is someone *who imparts values among his/her pupils and tells them the difference about good and bad behaviour* (35 % of the student respondents). Figure No. 14 (b) given below provides a diagrammatic view of the collective responses given by students from both the states.

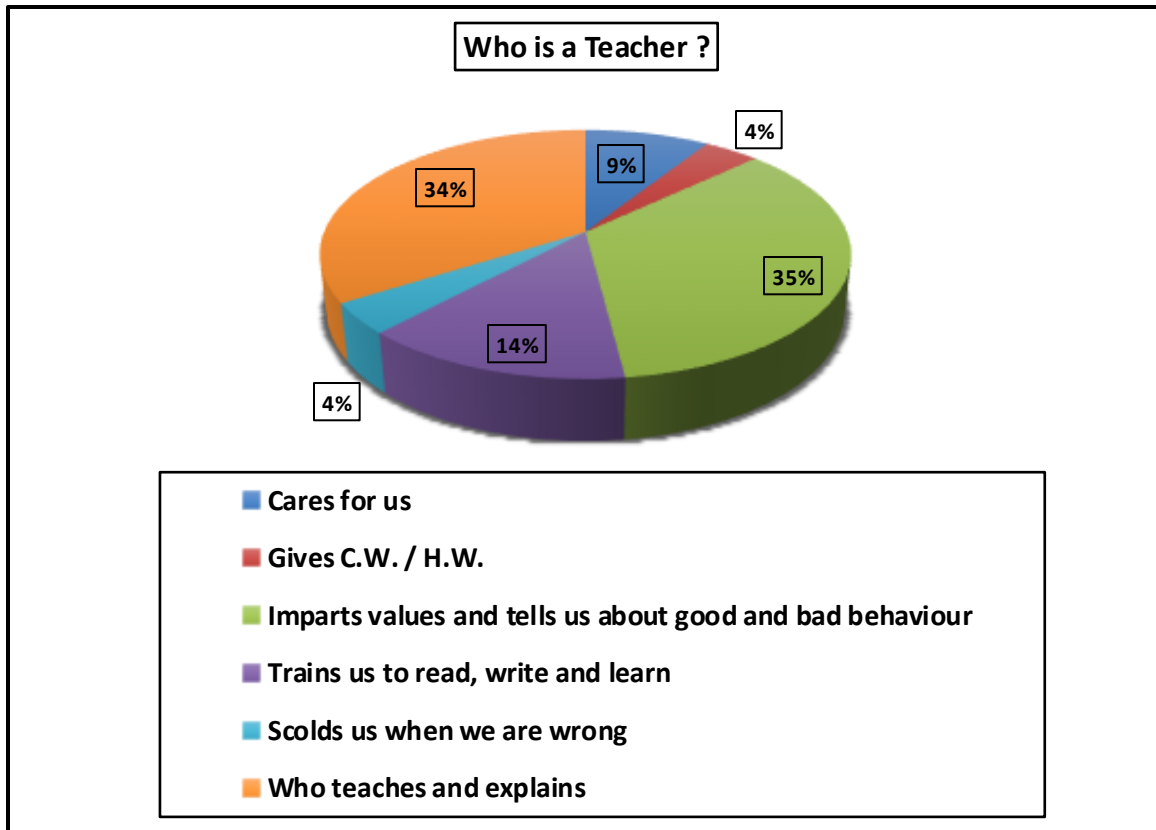


Figure 14 (b): Who is a Teacher? : Students' Responses

III. Desirable and Undesirable Qualities of a Student

Trying to ruminate upon the qualities that were appreciable in a student, the one that ranked highest in both the states was *active participation* (17% in UP and 14.4% in HP). The students' willingness to learn, engage with other pupils and ask questions when in doubt, was the quality that was admired the most by the teachers. Apart from this, attributes like *being disciplined, obedience, punctuality* and *regularity* were also graded higher in the scale.

The teachers in Uttar Pradesh preferred certain characteristics among their pupils over their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh. *Completion of class-work and homework on time* (11% in UP and 2.8% in HP), *being humble and polite* (10% in UP and 0.9% in HP), and *having a regular attendance record* (10% in UP and 4.7% in HP), fared considerably high ratings. On the other hand, the respondents in Himachal Pradesh mentioned some particular traits like *being a good listener, curious, goal orientation, creative* and *self-awareness* among students, which were not mentioned by teachers in the other state. The understanding of the latter set of respondents about

how a student should conduct himself/herself was distinct and far away from the routine responses. Figure no. 15 (a) provides a clearer picture of the aforementioned contrasts.

Apart from these positive traits, there were also some negative attributes of the students which were detested by their educators. *Passive participation* (14.2% in UP and 10/4% in HP) in class received the most criticism, followed by *indiscipline, disobedience, being a fighter or abusive, unpunctuality* and *irregular attendance*. While *late submission of class-work and homework* and *having a blaming or complaining attitude*, featured as some of the popular disagreeable traits in the responses of Uttar Pradesh's teachers, Himachal Pradesh's educators instead mentioned *being careless and irresponsible, bad listener or inattentive, overconfidence* and *lack of goal orientation* among pupils. Refer to Figure no. 15 (b) for more details on the subject.

While conducting the field survey, the researcher posed the same question to the student respondents. According to their answers, there were four attributes which rated high and were similar across the two states and these were *helpfulness, active participation, obedience* and *respectful behaviour*. Thus, a synchronicity can be witnessed between the responses of teachers and their pupils, especially with reference to the latter three attributes. The students from Uttar Pradesh upheld *intelligence and attainment of good marks* (10.3% in UP and 5.5% in HP), as a significant milestone. Their contemporaries in Himachal Pradesh, instead rooted for *disciplined demeanour* (12.4% in HP and 3.6% in UP), *being attentive in class* (6.2% in HP and 3.1% in UP), and also *being good in sports* (1.8% in HP and 0% in UP). Figure no. 15 (c) provides a graphic depiction of these responses along with accompanying statistics.

Lastly, in connection to these queries, an interrelated question was posed to the student respondents about the most important duty of a student. They were asked to rank the four options provided in an order of preference. According to the data henceforth generated, the responses collected from both the states were more or less alike. *Obeying the directions given the teacher* was accorded the highest ranking in both the states (30.6% in UP and 34% in HP), followed by *learning and putting the knowledge to better use; scoring well* and lastly, *memorizing whatever knowledge that has been imparted within the classroom*. Table no. 18 shared below provides an overview of the same.

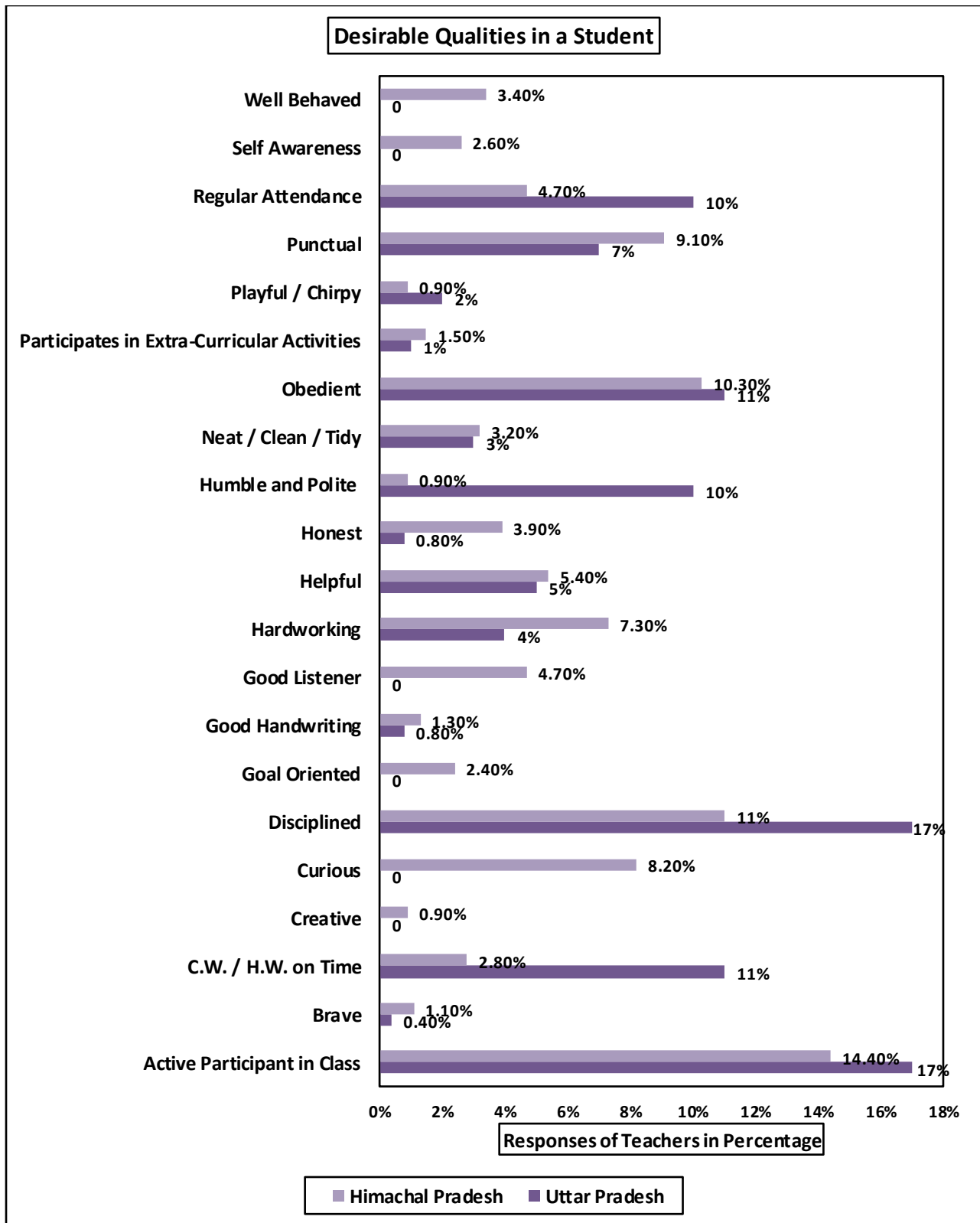


Figure 15 (a): Qualities of a Good Student: Responses of Teachers

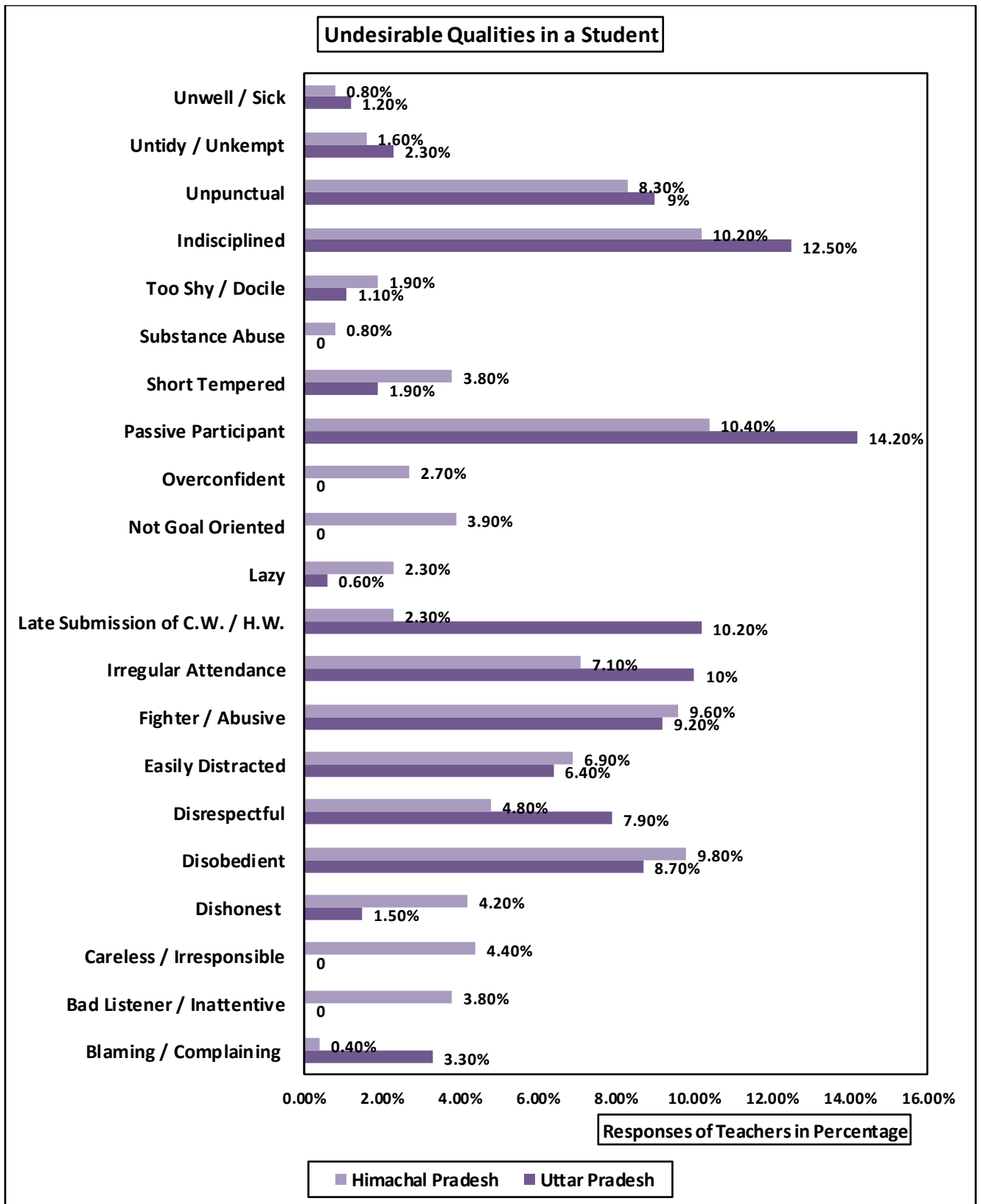


Figure 15 (b): Undesirable Qualities in a Pupil: Responses of Teachers

Qualities of a Good Student

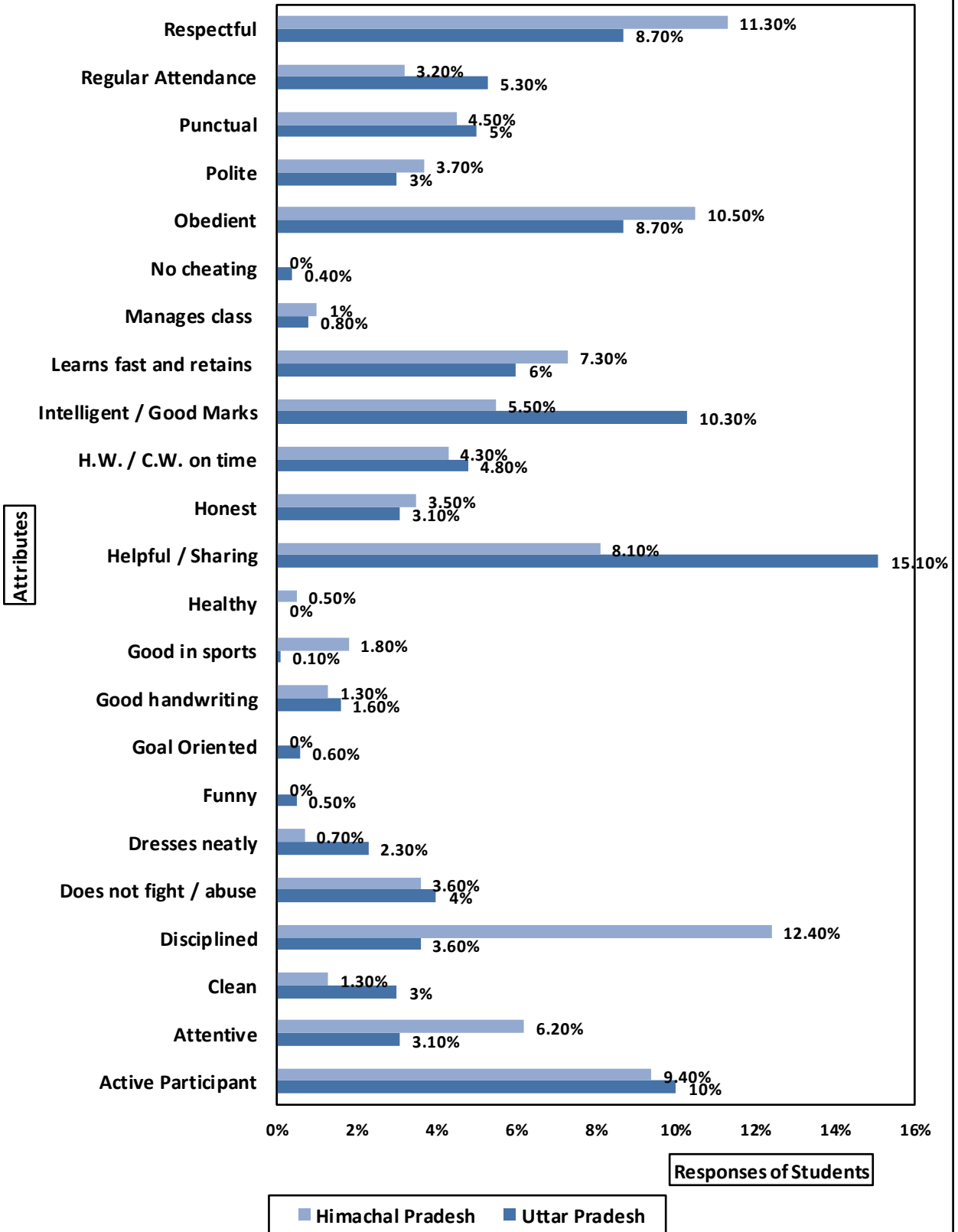


Figure 15 (c): Qualities of a Good Student: Students' Responses

S. No.	<u>Important Duty of a Student</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
1.	Scoring good marks	22 %	20 %
2.	Memorizing what has been taught in class	21.7 %	19 %
3.	Obeying the teacher	30.6 %	34 %
4.	Learning and putting that knowledge to better use	25.7 %	27 %
5.	Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 18: Duties of a Student: Responses of Students in Percentage

IV. Teaching Methods and Practices

Apart from teacher thinking, one inevitable part of pedagogy as a process is teacher doing; and teaching methods and practices form its crucial sub-part. This section will delve into the various domains of teaching as a practice, ranging from the methods adopted, to the different types of teaching practices. The first question that was posed to the respondent group, regarding teaching methods was the number of methods they were aware of. While the majority in Uttar Pradesh had knowledge about 0-3 methods (65% in UP and 24 % in HP), in Himachal Pradesh the maximum proportion of respondents fell in the category of 4-6 methods (63.5% in HP and 20.6% in UP). Some of the educators in elementary education, belonging to Uttar Pradesh were not aware of any methods (7%). This problem was not faced by Himachal Pradesh as all the teachers there had some sort of awareness about the multifarious teaching approaches. Table no. 19 (a) given below is representative of the said data.

<u>Number of Teaching Methods</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage

0	7	7.2 %	0	0 %
1-3	62	65 %	23	24 %
4-6	20	20.6 %	61	63.5 %
7+	7	7.2 %	12	12.5 %
Total	96	100 %	96	100 %

Table No. 19 (a): Number of Teaching Methods Known to the Educators

When asked about which teaching strategy, they perceived to be the best one, *majority of the responses were positively disposed towards Ability Based Learning Methods* (53.1% in HP and 46% in UP). Many of them addressed it as the “*learning by doing method*”, where students were encouraged to work upon and further develop a skill, they had aptitude for or either had inclination towards; to participate in activities designed by the teacher (either individual or group-based); and to ask as many questions they felt like asking and clearing their doubts. These methods are distinct from the traditional pedagogical techniques which were defined by repetition and rote-learning method. The other popular responses were usage of *audio-visual aids* (16% in UP and 15.6% in HP) and *group-based discussion* (24% in UP and 11.5% in HP) methods. As is clearly visible from these statistics, teachers in Uttar Pradesh rated *questioning and answering session as well as group discussions higher* than their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, who gave preference to *utilization of technology for effective teaching and learning continuum*. Another distinct take-away from the information garnered was that about 5% of teachers in Uttar Pradesh believed in an *authoritative style of teaching*, which stood at 0% for teachers in Himachal Pradesh. Lastly, 7.3% respondents in Himachal Pradesh, specifically, were unwilling to state any one strategy to be the best, as they believed that *different subjects required their respective teaching pattern*, and 10.4 % of teachers exclusively mentioned that *daily life correlations*, by discussing prevalent social issues or giving examples from society and the current social milieu that the children were coming from, were representative of a well-structured teaching strategy. Figure no. 16 (a) provides a diagrammatic view of the aforementioned analysis.

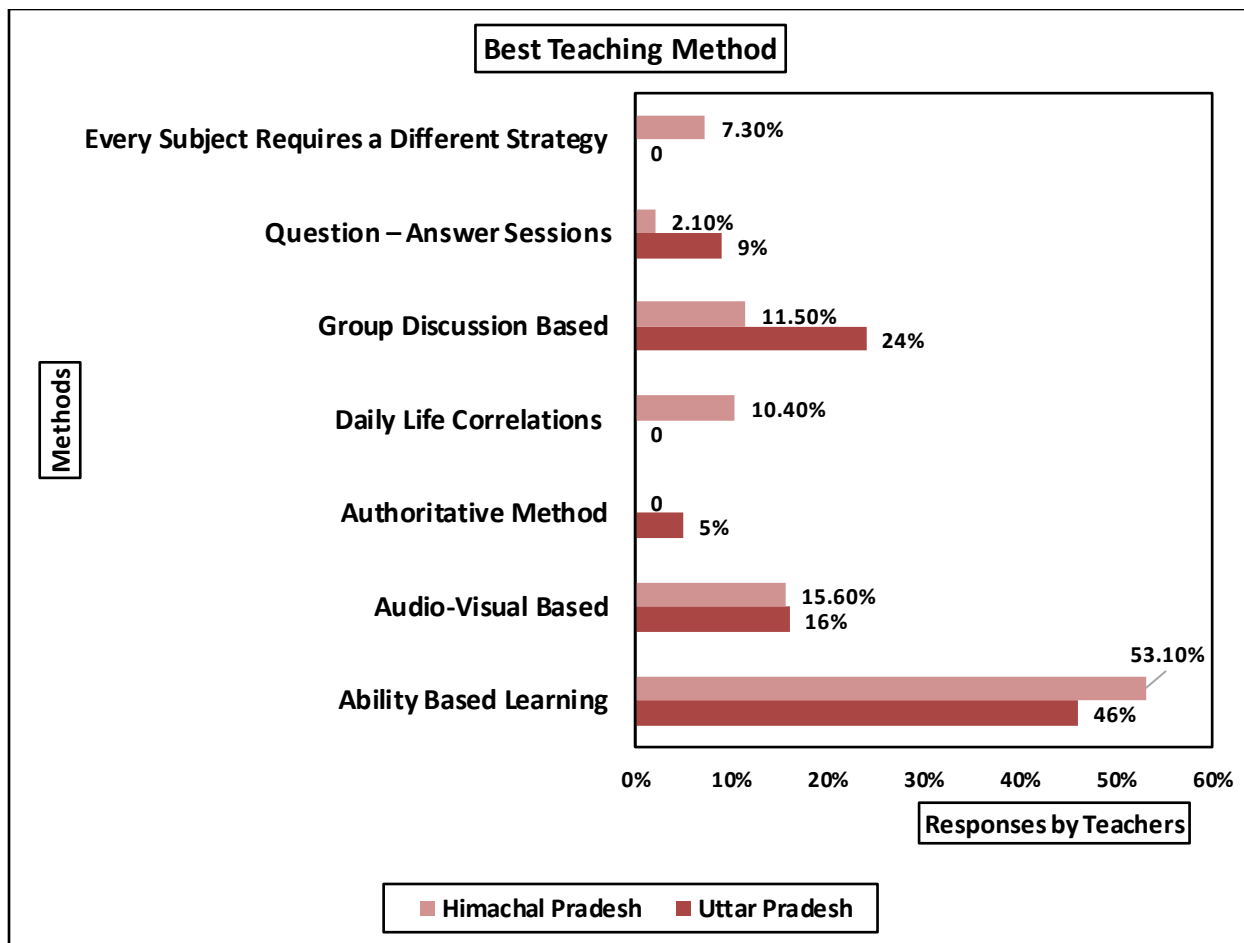


Figure 16 (a): Best Teaching Method According to Teachers

Since ability-based learning (ABL) methods along with their interrelated techniques i.e. question-answer sessions and group discussions, were given majority preference in terms of the best teaching method, it is imperative to club this inference with the data collected on rote learning. Contrastingly 55.2% of elementary education teachers in Uttar Pradesh, who earlier rated high on giving preference to ABL methods, regarded *rote learning method to be beneficial* for kids with the primary reason behind this being - a *faster learning technique* (64.2%). Teachers of Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, *believed rote learning to be non-beneficial* (80.2% as compared to 44.8% in UP), and they cited *fast forgetting of the information formerly learnt* to be the primary factor (64.9%) followed by *lack of conceptual clarity* (32.5%). Refer to Table no. 19 (b) for further details.

<u>Is Rote Learning Beneficial?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
<u>Yes</u>	53	55.2 %	19	19.8 %
Become Attentive	2	3.7 %	0	0 %
Better Vocabulary	1	1.9 %	0	0 %
Learn Faster	34	64.2 %	8	30.8 %
Retain Longer	16	30.2 %	18	69.2 %
<u>No</u>	43	44.8 %	77	80.2%
Forget Fast	16	37.2 %	50	64.9 %
Less Conceptual Clarity	15	34.9 %	25	32.5 %
Less Inquisitive	1	2.3 %	0	0 %
Less Mental Growth	11	25.6 %	2	2.6 %

Table No. 19 (b): Is Rote Learning Beneficial?

In the query pertaining to personal teaching style of the teacher, *organization of engaging activities* (26% in UP and 30.2% in HP) and *group discussions* (18% in UP and 16.1% in HP) stood out to be the most desirable choices for both the states' respondents, followed by *individual attention to students* (17% in UP and 13.1% in HP). With reference to *completion of syllabus on time*, Uttar Pradesh (7%) scored outrageously high than Himachal Pradesh (1%). Out of the two states, Himachal Pradesh, was the only one where teachers reported *experiential learning* (9.4% in HP and 0% in UP) and *effective utilization of TLM* i.e. teaching learning material (3.1% in HP and 0% in UP) as a personalized teaching style. Figure no. 16 (b) below provides these factual data in detail.

In connection to the above question, the teachers were also asked to mention a change that they would like to bring about in their teaching style. The two practices which gained the maximum number of favorable responses, in both the states alike, were organization of *more engaging activities* (42.7% in UP and 32.2% in HP) and usage of *more audio-visual aids* (37.5% in UP and

16.6% in HP). Besides this there were four changes exclusively mentioned by the teachers in Himachal Pradesh and these were: *change in explanation style, individual attention to all pupils, more creativity and more current affairs or discussion on contemporary social issues*⁶². Refer to Table no. 19 (c) for further details.

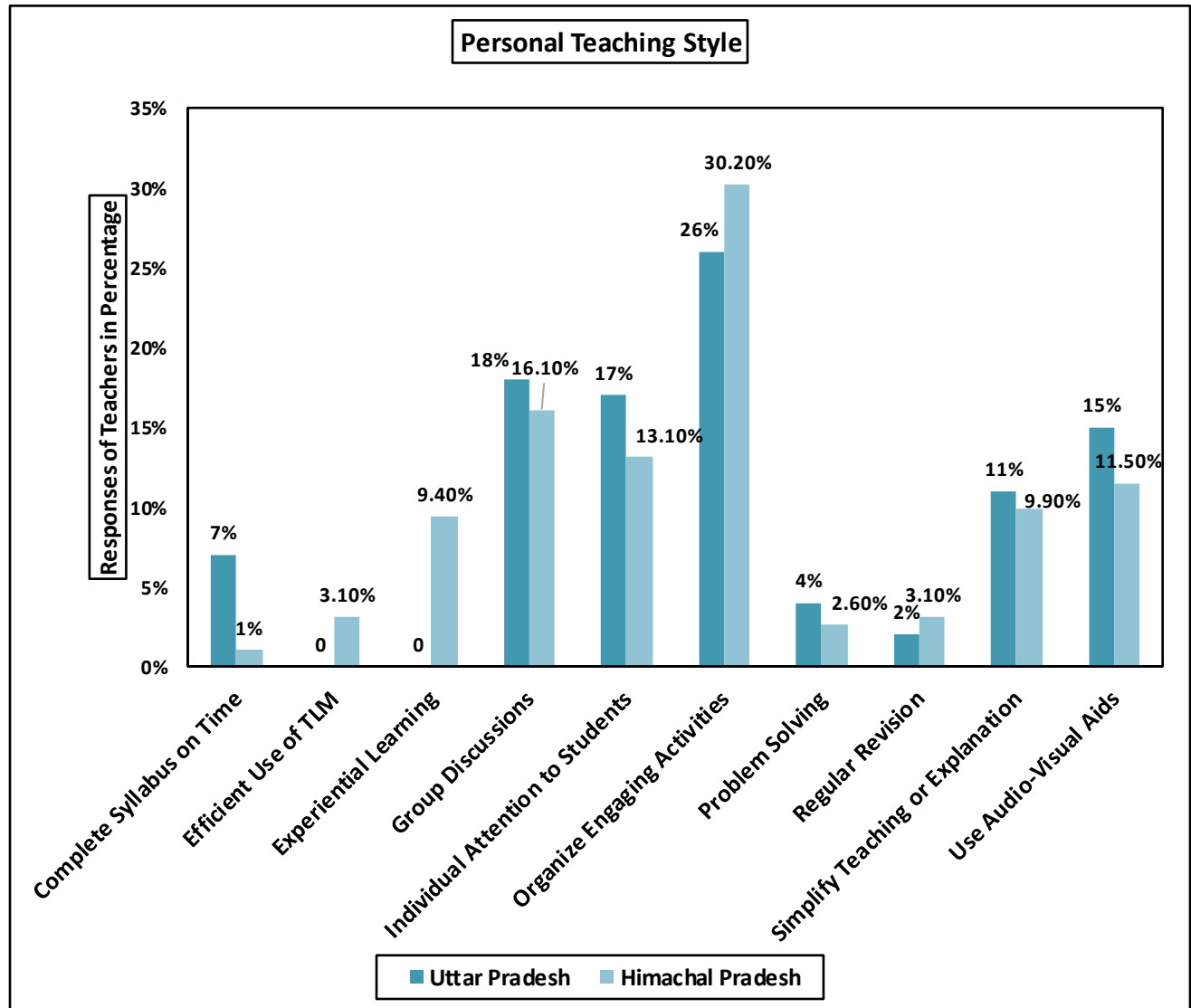


Figure 16 (b): Personal Teaching Style of Teachers

⁶² Since the list of changes mentioned by the respondents of the two states, included a lot of factors that were exclusive to a particular state, a comparative study was avoided (with reference to this particular query), and instead the findings were considered and analyzed collectively.

<u>Change in Teaching Style</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
Change in Explanation Style	0	0 %	4	4.2 %
Focus on Communication Skills	10	10.4 %	4	4.2 %
Individual Attention to all Pupils	0	0 %	11	11.5 %
More Creativity	0	0 %	7	7.3 %
More Current Affairs / Social Issues	0	0 %	11	11.5 %
More Engaging Activities	41	42.7 %	31	32.2 %
More Group Assignments	5	5.2 %	4	4.2 %
More Time to Weak Students	4	4.2 %	8	8.3 %
More Usage of Audio-Visual Aids	36	37.5 %	16	16.6 %
Total	96	100 %	96	100 %

Table No. 19 (c): Change in One's Personal Teaching Style

The teachers were also asked to respond to what they regarded as the three core principles of teaching as a practice. The principle that topped the list was *making class exciting or engaging, for the learners* (17.7% in UP and 17.5% in HP). The respondents in Uttar Pradesh stated that *motivating students* was their favourite principle (26% in UP and 7.2% in HP), but for their contemporaries in Himachal Pradesh, it was *having command over subject knowledge* (17.1% in HP and 7.2% in UP). One interesting feature that was seen among the responses given by the teachers in Himachal Pradesh was *teaching in an age-appropriate fashion* i.e. adopting those methods or techniques which were easily grasped by the learners in their respective age groups (5.3% in HP and 0% in UP) or *teaching according to the level of students* depending upon their cognitive abilities (7.9% in HP and 0% in UP). They even gave preference to *good communication skills* (13.6% in HP and 0% in UP), *maintaining discipline in class* (10.4% in HP and 0% in UP), *using teaching-learning material efficiently* (3.9% in HP and 0% in UP) and *feedbacks system* (1.8% in HP and 0% in UP), over their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh, rather than focusing on basic norms like punctuality, planning classes beforehand, not discriminating among students and

checking class-work and homework. Figure 16 (c) given below gives a graphic overview of these contradictions.

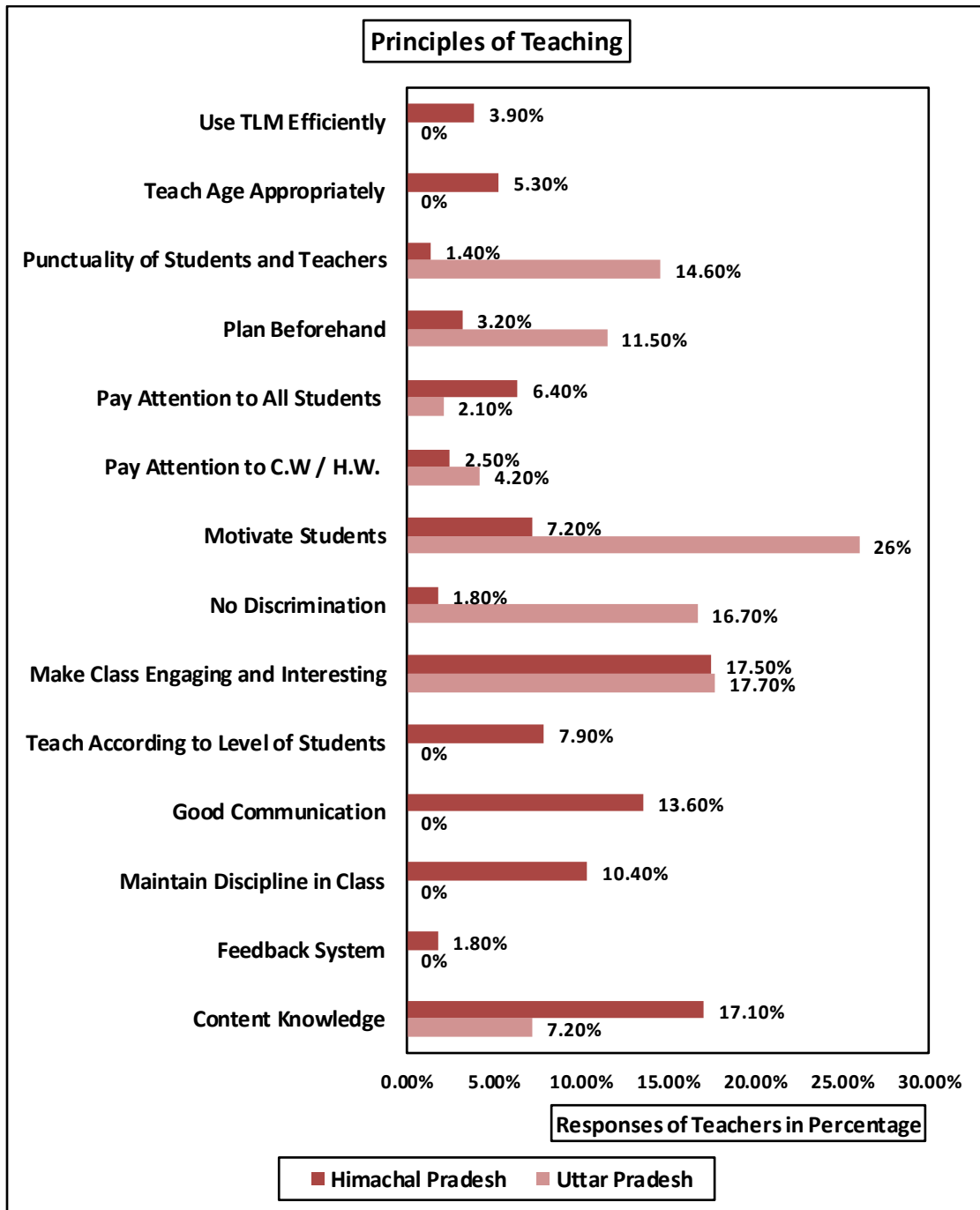


Figure 16 (c): Core Principles of Teaching: Responses of Teachers

One of the fundamental elements of teaching method is their planning and distribution of time in class so that they can cater to multiple functions in the time allotted. While asking the teachers

to divide their time among the five given activities, they were asked to imagine that the total time allotted to them per class was 40 minutes. This figure was arrived at after the fieldwork done in the first set of schools in Lucknow, as the timings ranged from 35 to 45 minutes. To maintain a certain level of synchronicity, the average of 40 minutes was finally decided upon. Based on the responses given by the participants, and as can be seen from Table no. 19 (d) given below, the answers given by teachers from both the states were approximately similar. *The maximum duration of time was allotted to teaching a new lesson, followed by attending to the queries of the children and revising what had been taught in the previous lecture. Attendance and assigning of homework were given the least share of minutes.*

<u>Allocation of Time in Class</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Time (Minutes)	Time (Minutes)
Teaching a new chapter	17.3	19.5
Attendance	3.9	3.5
Revision of previous class lecture	6.1	5.5
Attending to student queries, if any	7.3	7.0
Giving and explaining homework	5.4	4.5
Total	40 mins	40 mins

Table No. 19 (d): Allocation of Time within the Classroom

Another essential dimension of teaching method that was included in the questionnaire was giving teachers examples of some situations and asking them how they would have responded. All the scenarios provided were the acts done or committed by their pupils. The open-ended nature of these queries resulted in a diverse set of responses, which were methodologically assigned into respective categories and have been depicted in Table no. 19 (e) given below. If we consider the seven scenarios differently in accordance with the responses from the two states, the following comparison in pedagogical styles can be witnessed: -

- i. **Cheating:** Teachers in Uttar Pradesh preferred *confiscation of answer sheets and punishing the wrongdoers* (39.6% in UP and 17.7% in HP), while teachers in Himachal Pradesh chose *educating children about values like honesty* as their high rated mechanism (35.4% in HP and 25% in UP).
- ii. **Eating in class:** While *warning the pupil and telling them not to repeat the act again* seemed to be the popular choice for educators in Uttar Pradesh (39.6% in UP and 21.9% in HP), their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh instead opted *for trying to know their reasons for doing so* (41.7 % in HP and 22.9% in UP), followed by *teaching them about class manners* (31.2% in UP and 28.1% in HP).
- iii. **Abusing or using foul language:** Both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh had one response as highly graded i.e. *trying to encourage behavioural change among these pupils*, but their proportion varied by a considerable amount i.e. 42.7% in HP versus 33.3% teachers in UP. There was a numerical discrepancy in the second most preferred response as well. For UP it stood at *punishing the infiltrators* (27.1% in UP and 5.2% in HP), while for HP it was *warning the offenders and asking them not to do it again* (22.9% in HP and 22.9% in UP).
- iv. **Being disrespectful:** Like the previous question, this situation also garnered the same response of teachers from both the states i.e. *trying to explain the students and encouraging behavioural change in them* (50% in UP and 42.7% in HP).
- v. **Beating classmates:** The teachers in both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, selected *bringing about behavioural changes among their pupils* as their favourite response i.e. 44.8% in UP and 30.2 % in HP. Besides this, while *informing the principal* was the next preferred course of action for teachers in Uttar Pradesh, for Himachal Pradesh 's teachers it was *trying to know the reason*, followed by *counselling*.
- vi. **Late for class:** In this circumstance, the teachers in Uttar Pradesh opted for *teaching the students about punctuality* as the most preferred mitigation strategy (32.3% in UP and 33.3% in HP), followed by *warning students and asking them not to repeat it again* (27.1% in UP and 16.7% in HP). The foremost (recurring) measure selected by teachers in HP was *trying to know the reason behind their lateness* (42.7% in HP and 12.5% in UP), followed by *teaching students about punctuality*.

- vii. **Bringing mobile phones:** Lastly, in this scenario, *informing the parents* stood out to be the highly favoured response of the teachers from both the states i.e. 48.9% in UP and 34.4% in HP.

What can be duly concluded from the above responses is that the educators in Himachal Pradesh proactively opted for milder measures like warning, trying to know the reason, encouraging behavioural changes or educating pupils about values and counselling them as and when deemed fit, as compared to teachers in Uttar Pradesh. By doing so, the former group naturally aligned itself with the salient pedagogical objectives and criterion set by national educational policies and initiatives.

<u>Dealing with Situations in Class</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
Cheating		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	33.3 %	28.1 %
Teach them about honesty	25 %	35.4 %
Confiscate their notebook or answer sheet and punish them	39.6 %	17.7 %
Inform Principal	2.1 %	5.5 %
Try to know the reason	0 %	13.3 %
Eating in Class		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	39.6 %	21.9 %
Teach them about class manners	31.2 %	28.1 %
Punish them	2.1 %	2.1 %
Scold them	4.2 %	5.2 %
Try to know the reason	22.9 %	41.7 %
Inform Parents	0 %	1 %
Abusing or Using Foul Language		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	22.9 %	22.9 %

Try to explain them and encourage behavioural change	33.3 %	42.7 %
Punish them	27.1 %	5.2 %
Inform Principal	4.2 %	6.3 %
Inform Parents	12.5 %	7.3 %
Counselling	0%	15.6 %
Being Disrespectful towards the Teacher		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	16.7 %	17.7 %
Try to explain them and encourage behavioural change	50 %	42.7 %
Punish them	12.5 %	3.1 %
Inform Principal	8.3 %	9.4 %
Inform Parents	12.5 %	16.7 %
Counselling	0 %	10.4 %
Beating Classmates		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	10.4 %	25 %
Try to explain them and encourage behavioural change	44.8 %	30.2 %
Punish them	25 %	4.2 %
Inform Principal	14.6 %	4.2 %
Inform Parents	5.2 %	6.2 %
Try to know the reason	0 %	15.6 %
Counselling	0 %	14.6 %
Late for Class		
Warn and tell them not to repeat it	27.1 %	16.7 %
Teach them about punctuality	32.3 %	33.3 %
Punish them	17.7 %	2.1 %
Try to know the reason	12.5 %	42.7 %
Inform Parents	10.4 %	5.2%
Bringing Mobile Phones to Class		

Warn and tell them not to repeat it	26.1 %	18.7 %
Punish them	5.2 %	5.2%
Confiscate the device	10.4 %	23.9 %
Inform Principal	9.4 %	7.3 %
Inform Parents	48.9 %	34.4 %
Try to know the reason	0 %	6.3 %
Separate Counter for Cell-phones	0 %	4.2 %
Total	100	100

Table No. 19 (e): How do teachers respond to certain situations?

The authenticity of the aforesaid claims of the teachers can be properly analyzed, only when they are measured against the responses provided by their students. Keeping this objective in perspective, the researcher formulated a specific query for the student respondents: regarding punishments, their types or how they were administered by the teachers, and for what wrongs committed? As is clearly visible from the responses of students in Table no. 19 (f), *around 90 percent students in Uttar Pradesh and 74.2 percent in Himachal Pradesh, admitted to having faced punishment by their teacher.*

<u>Have you ever been Punished?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
YES	216	90 %	178	74.2 %
NO	24	10 %	62	25.8 %
TOTAL	240	100 %	240	100 %

Table No. 19 (f): Have you ever been punished?: Responses by Students

Out of these pupils who were punished, the reasons revealed by them depicted that *making noise or taking in class* (21.3% in UP and 16.3 % in HP) and *not completing one's home assignment* (22.2% in UP and 15.4% in HP), were the two most common grounds. Besides this, answers like *did not bring copy* and *giving wrong answers in class*, stood really high for students in Himachal Pradesh, as opposed to their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh, who mentioned *being late*, *running/playing during class hours* and *having Tiffin in class*, as relatively stronger reasons. Refer to the column chart in Figure no. 16 (d) for further details.

In conjunction to this information, the students further revealed the form of punishment they received. The choice of punishment reveals that the teachers in Uttar Pradesh preferred *corporeal punishment i.e. beating / hitting with hands or sticks* (48.2% in UP and 10.4 % in HP), to other tactics like scolding, making the student stand outside or stand with hands raised in the air. This revelation goes against the statistics depicted in the aforementioned Table no. 19 (e), where teachers from UP revealed seldom usage of punishment as a redressal technique. The teachers in Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, depended more upon verbal communications like *warning and scolding* (50.5% in HP and 18% in UP), followed by *making pupils stand with arms raised or hold their ears* (26.2% in HP and 23.6% in UP). Thus, corporeal punishment was used as a punishment technique in the schools of UP and HP but its concentration was more in the former state. Refer to Table no. 19 (g) for more related information on the subject.

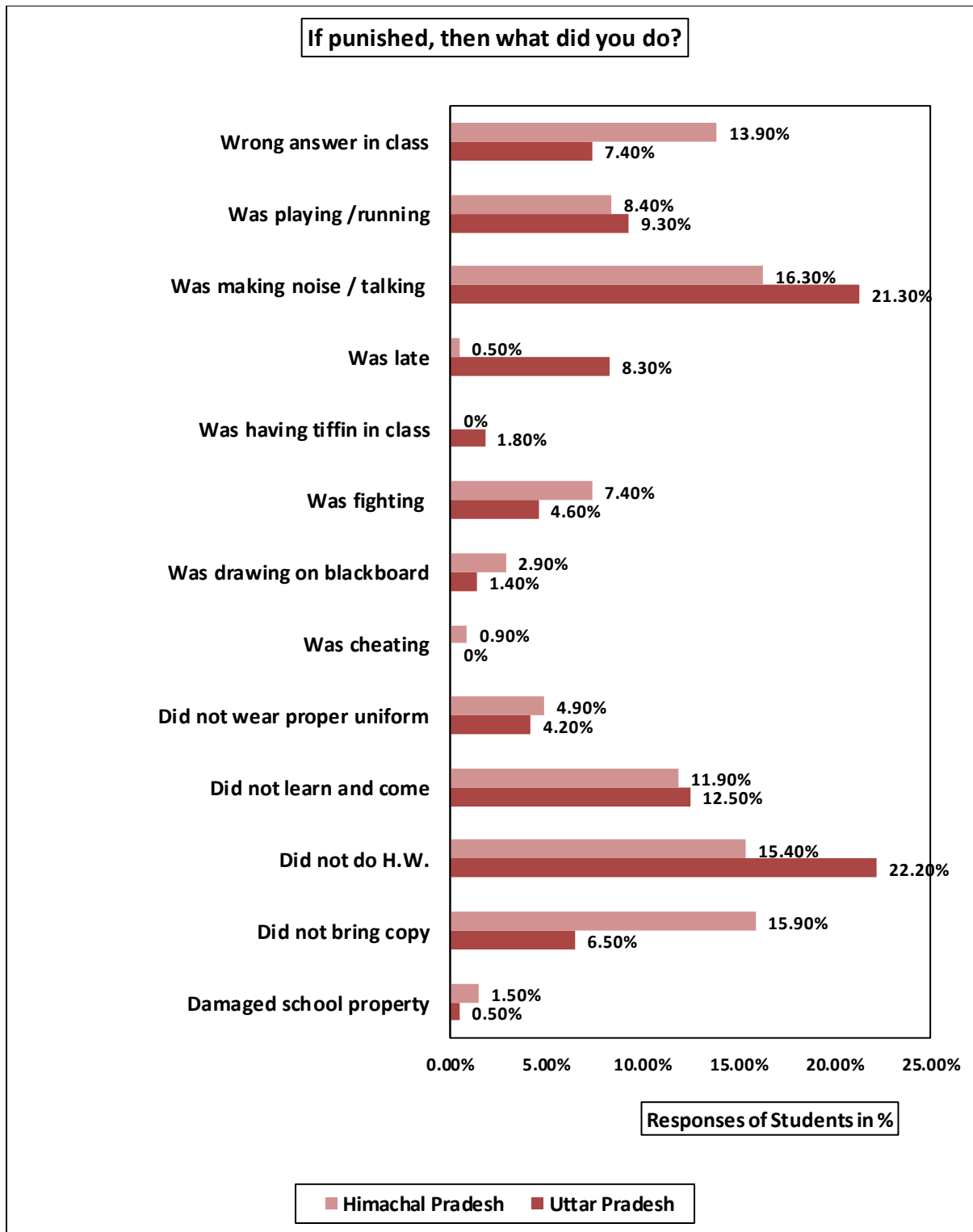


Figure 16 (d): Why were you punished? : Responses by Students

<u>What was the punishment?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
Warned and Scolded	39	18 %	102	50.5 %
Stand with hands raised / hold ears	51	23.6 %	53	26.2 %
Stand outside the class	22	10.2 %	26	12.9 %
Hit / Beaten with hands or stick	104	48.2 %	21	10.4 %
Total	216	100 %	202	100 %

Table No. 19 (g): What was the punishment you received?

Out of all the questions in the questionnaire prepared and served, there was one particular question that dealt with teaching methods and aids combined. This pertained to what mechanisms were used by educators to ensure maximum student participation. In Table no. 19 (h) depicted below, the data set for Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh depicted how the sample in the former state preferred mechanisms like *asking students questions* (18.3% in UP and 16.5 % in HP), *demonstrating experiments* (18.2% in UP and 14.5% in HP) and *reprimanding the non-enthusiastic pupils* (8.2% in UP and 5.6% in HP). Teachers in Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, were relatively more in favour of tactics like: *organizing group activities* (17.4% in HP and 13.8% in UP) and *making use of audio-visual aids and projectors* (17.5% in HP and 14.2% in UP) for ensuring maximum participation of students.

<u>Ensuring Maximum Class Participation (Ranked in Order of Preference by Teachers)</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Asking them questions	18.3 %	16.5 %

Making them read aloud	12.8 %	12.8 %
Demonstrating experiments	18.2 %	14.5 %
Through role playing	14.5 %	15.6 %
Reprimanding the non-enthusiastic participants	8.2 %	5.6 %
Making them work in groups	13.8 %	17.4 %
Making use of audio-visuals aids and projectors	14.2 %	17.5 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 19 (h): Techniques for Ensuring Maximum Participation of Pupils in Class

Lastly, in relation to the theme of teaching methods, the teachers were asked to highlight the problematic areas in the teaching methods adopted or practiced by their peers in their respective classrooms, which they might have observed. According to the responses gathered, the concerns raised by the two parties were contradictory to one another, either in terms of proportionality or in terms of the factors mentioned. Refer to Table no. 19 (i) for an overview of the associated findings.

The teachers in Uttar Pradesh acknowledged *lack of proper knowledge of the subject* and *short tempered or rude behaviour* (19.1 % for both variables) as the most common flaws. These were followed by issues like *wastage of time in gossiping or mobile phones* (9.2%), *boring lectures or paucity of engaging activities* (7.9%), *lack of discipline in class or noisy classroom* (6.6%) and *discriminatory behavior of the teachers towards their students* (6.1%). There was one factor which was exclusively mentioned by teachers of this state and not replicated by their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh and this was *untidy or unkempt office*.

The teachers in Himachal Pradesh believed that the most disturbing teaching associated attributes of their peers were *being short tempered or rude behaviour* (15%) and having a *Stagnant Approach / Not Changing One's Pattern of Teaching* (14.2% in HP and 3.1% in UP). These were followed by four other disturbing traits and they were: *discriminatory behaviour of the teacher* (9.8%), *unpunctuality* (9%), *lack of proper knowledge of the subject* (6.7%), and *boring lectures with no/less engaging activities* (6 %).

One factor that received more mention by the educators in Himachal Pradesh, than their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh, as depicted earlier, was the *Stagnant Approach / Not Changing One's Pattern of Teaching* (14.2% in HP and 3.1% in UP). This, if clubbed with the affiliated concern of *less use of technology by educators* (4.5% in HP and 0% in UP) and the data given in Table no. 25 (b), on the problems associated with teaching as a profession, or Table 19 (b) about rote memorization and its benefits or drawbacks, signifies how the educators in Himachal Pradesh were more vigilant in acknowledging that traditional teaching methods e.g. “lecture method” or “rote memorization”, “dictating method” or “chalk and talk method”, were still being practiced and they had to be disposed of and replaced with ‘modern’ or ‘progressive’ methods of pedagogy (in the words of Dr. Krishna Kumar in *What is Worth Teaching?*), making sure that advanced technological aids of teaching and learning are duly assimilated.

<u>Noticeable Flaws in the Teaching Mechanism of Colleagues</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Boring Lectures / No Engaging Activities	7.9 %	6 %
Communication Skills	0 %	5.9 %
Discriminatory Behaviour	6.1 %	9.8 %
Doing Personal Chores in Class	4.9 %	2.9 %
Gives too much Punishment	2.5 %	5.2 %
Irregular Attendance / Too Many Leaves	3.7 %	0.7 %
Lack of Discipline in Class / Noisy Classroom	6.6 %	4.5 %
Lack of Proper Knowledge of Subject	19.1 %	6.7 %
Less Use of Technology	0 %	4.5 %
Not Giving Extra Time to Weak Pupils	4.9 %	1.5 %
Not Using TLM Properly	3.1 %	1.5 %
Short Tempered or Rude Behaviour	19.1 %	15 %
Stagnant Approach / Not Changing One's Pattern of Teaching	3.1 %	14.2 %

Overfriendly Behaviour	0 %	5.9 %
Unplanned	6.1 %	4.5 %
Untidy Office	1.2 %	0 %
Unpunctual	2.5 %	9 %
Wastage of Time in Gossiping and Mobile Phones	9.2 %	2.2 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 19 (i): Noticeable Flaws in the Teaching Mechanisms of Colleagues: Responses by Teachers

*** No. of Teachers who did not respond to this question: - 51 in Uttar Pradesh and 38 in Himachal Pradesh (out of 96 in each state).**

V. Teaching Aids

The correlation and co-dependence between teaching methods and aids cannot be disputed. Keeping this bond in mind, some of the questions directly addressed the concerns and viewpoints of both teachers and students associated with teaching aids and this section will pursue them in detail.

The first direct question that was posed to the participants in the survey, regarding teaching aids and resources primarily, was related to their availability, sufficiency and efficiency. According to the responses received, around 47 percent and 40.6 percent teachers in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, respectively, said that the resources at their disposal were *feasible and could be better*. While 0 percent of the participants in Himachal Pradesh reported on these teaching-learning materials and other associated resources, being *inefficient and inadequate*, the figure in Uttar Pradesh was 14.5 percent. Thus overall, the level of satisfaction with the resources available was higher in HP than UP. Table No. 20 (a) provides the aforesaid figures in an elaborated yet comprehensive format.

The respondents who replied that the resources available were either inefficient, inadequate or could have been better, were further asked to elucidate upon the reasons for the same. The data tabulated for the two states depicted a plethora of differences in viewpoints of the educators. The teachers in Himachal Pradesh cited *lack of audio-visual aids* (36% in HP and 16% in UP), *lack of*

teaching-learning materials (24% in HP and 32% in UP), followed by *paucity of classrooms and toilets* (12% in HP and 18% in UP) as the major loopholes. Though teachers in Uttar Pradesh had synonymous viewpoints when it came to the three resources stated above, they *highlighted lack of TLM and no-upgradation of the existing resources and infrastructure* as the major areas of concern. An interesting take-away from the factors stated by the sample is that 16 percent of the teachers in Himachal Pradesh (0% in UP) cited *scarcity of trained teachers* as a major drawback. Figure no. 17 (a) provides a diagrammatic representation of these factors and concerns.

The participants in the survey and focused group discussions were further asked to mention the resources they thought should be made available to them. In response to this, the teachers in Uttar Pradesh put *more TLM* (31.9% in UP and 9% in HP) as the foremost item on their priority list, followed by *audio-visual aids* (19.8% in UP and 29.5% in HP), *more tables and chairs* (12.5% in UP and 4.9% in HP) and *smart boards* (7.6% in UP and 13.5% in HP). For Himachal Pradesh, *audio-visual aids* and *smart boards* ranked the highest, followed by *internet and wifi services* (11.5% in HP and 1.7% in UP). They even mentioned certain other resources which were not reverberated by their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh and these were: *more opportunities for teacher training* (4.5%), *more non-academic staff* (3.8%) and *feedback systems* (2.4%). Even the teachers from UP had some respective concerns about resources and these were: *more electricity* (3.1%), *more model schools* (2.8%), *libraries* (1.1%), *computers* (4.2%), and *more excursions or trips* (1.7%). Refer to Figure no. 17 (b) for further details.

<u>How Efficient and Adequate are the Resources provided to the Teachers?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Efficient and Adequate	38.5 %	59.4 %
Feasible / Could Be Better	47 %	40.6 %
Inefficient and Inadequate	14.5 %	0 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 20 (a): How Efficient and Adequate are the Resources provided to the Teachers?

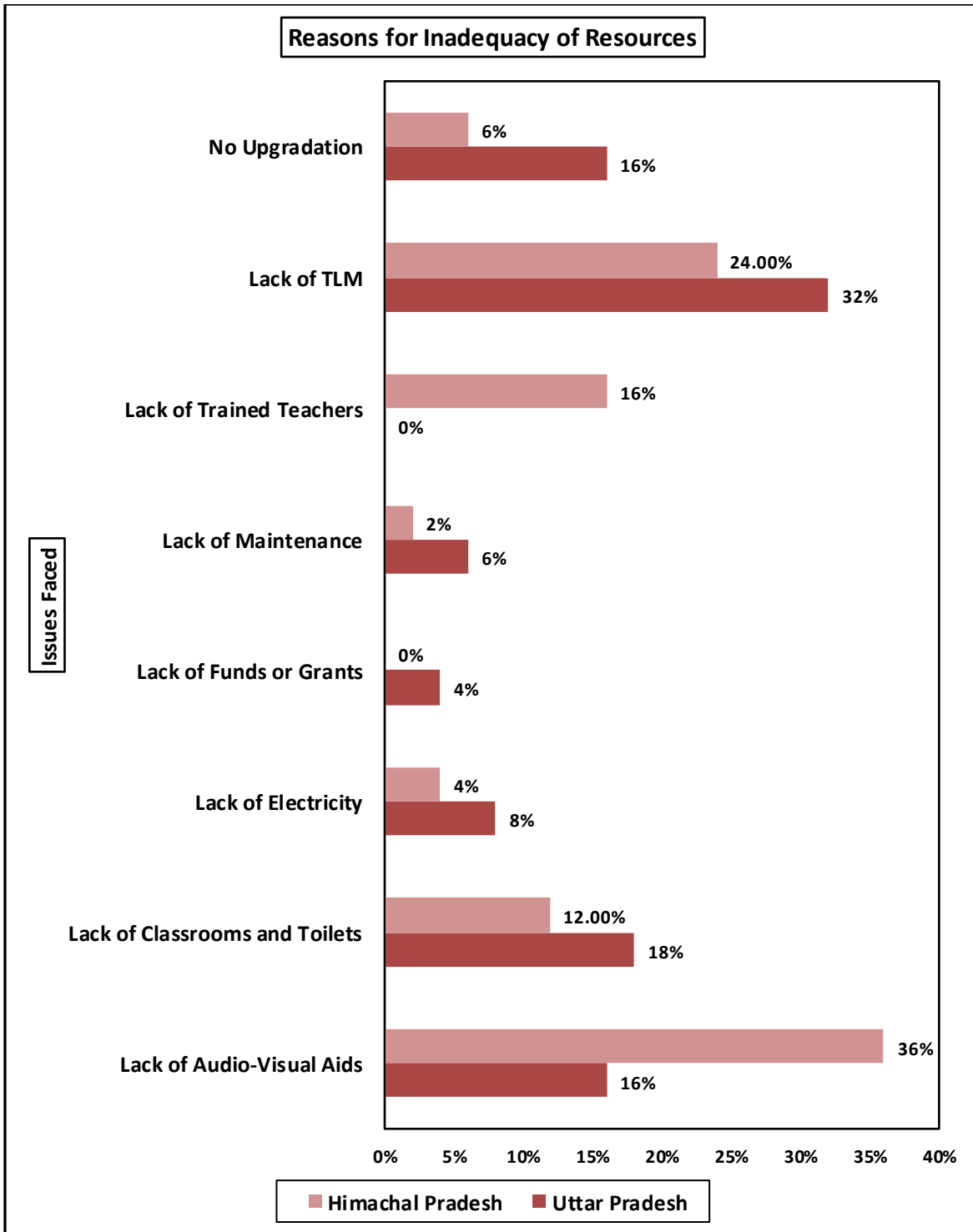


Figure 17 (a): Reasons for Considering Resources as Inadequate or Inefficient: Responses by Teachers

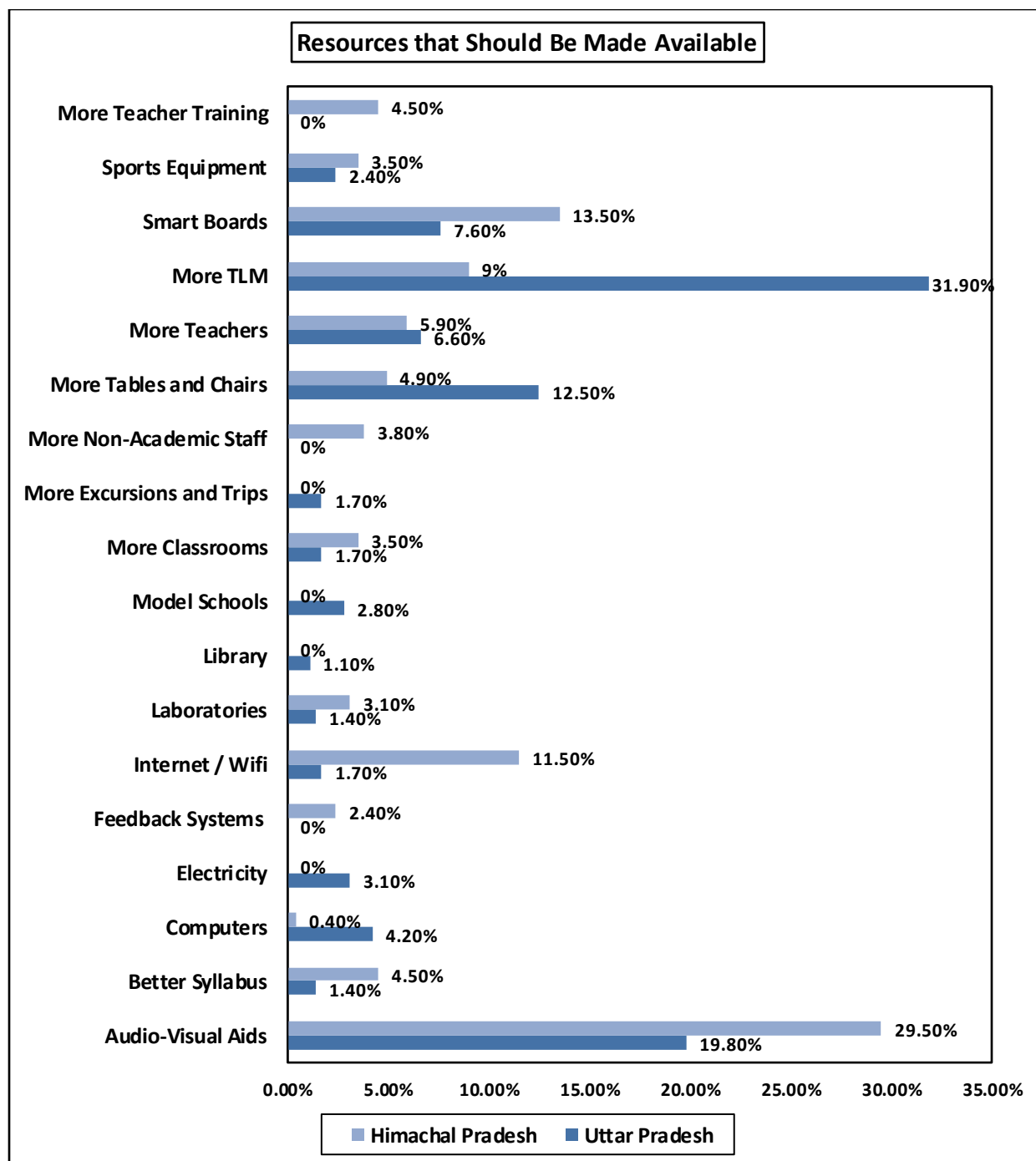


Figure 17 (b): Resources that should be made available: Responses by Teachers

During the conduction of field work, the teachers as well as their students were asked, via questionnaires, to rank the teaching aids in order of usage. Based on the responses received, it can be emphasized that according to the educators in Uttar Pradesh, *blackboards-chalks* (28.5% in UP and 25.8 % in HP) were the most desirable option, followed by *audio-visual aids* (21.6% in UP

and 18.2% in HP). In Himachal Pradesh, despite the high prevalence of smart classes and smart boards, especially in urban schools, their adoption of *group discussions* (22.8% in HP and 18.3% in UP) and *role play/poems/hymns/dramas* (20.9% in HP and 16.3% in UP) remained intact. The fourth and fifth most opted options were *audio-visual aids* (18.2% in HP and 21.6% in UP) and *PowerPoint presentations* (12.3% in HP and 15.3% in UP). This data, as depicted in Figure no. 17 (c), bears uncanny resemblance with the one shown in the previously mentioned Table no. 19 (h), where Himachal Pradesh stood solid in terms of teachers' affirmative stand on role plays, audio-visuals aids and group discussions as useful aids for accelerating and maintaining pupils' active participation in classroom tasks and activities. Thus, rather than following the traditional route of depending upon blackboards and lecture methods, Himachal Pradesh tried to break the norm through the induction of these unconventional practices and teaching aids.

Though the resultant claim is based upon only the answers provided by the teachers, a thorough investigation into the responses given by the students, would unveil the reality of the situation. With this objective in mind, the pupils were asked to rank the same teaching aids in terms of their frequency of utilization by the teacher. The learners from Uttar Pradesh denoted that apart from the conventional *blackboard-chalk* (40.2% in UP and 33.3% in HP), *role play/drama/hymns/poems* (22.8% in UP and 19% in HP) and *group discussions* (19.6% in UP and 19.9% in HP), were also amongst the popular choices. Students of Himachal Pradesh schools, revealed that *blackboards-chalk-duster* remained the main aid, followed by *group discussions* and *audio visuals* platforms of teaching. When asked specifically about the latter most technique, majority of students from both the states i.e. 71.3% in UP and 87.1% in HP, answered in affirmative as to having been introduced and exposed to it by their teachers in some form or the other. But, it were the students in Himachal Pradesh who were more enthusiastic about elucidating how smart boards and smart classes were being duly conducted in their respective schools. All these figures and linked data have been depicted vividly in Figure no. 17(d) and Table no. 20 (b), given below.

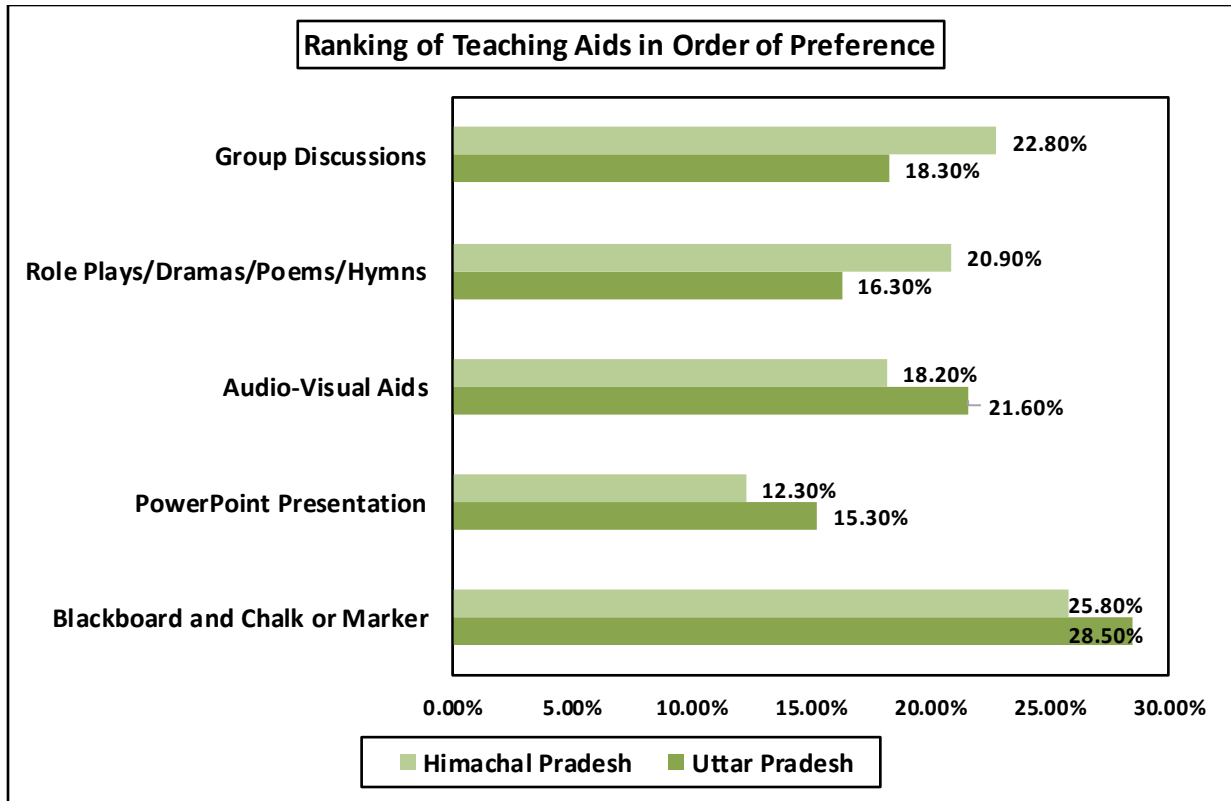


Figure 17 (c): Teaching Aid preferred the most in Classrooms: Responses by Teachers

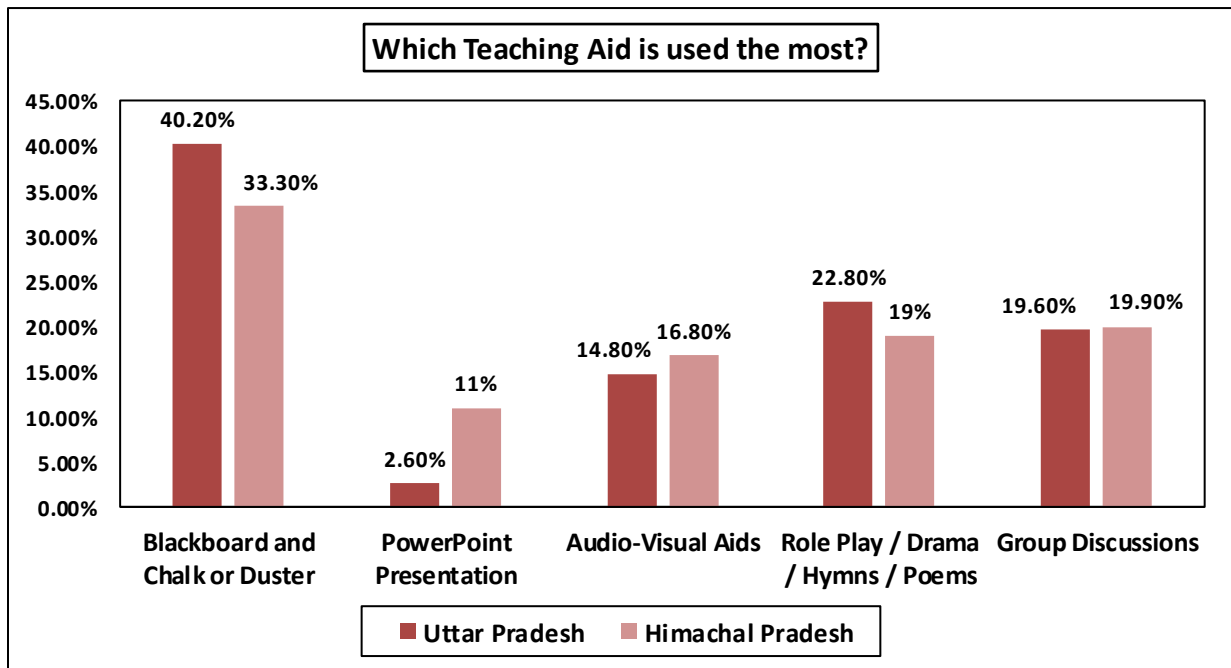


Figure 17 (d): Teaching Aid used the most in Classrooms: Responses by Students

<u>Have you been shown Movies/Videos/Audio- Visual Clips in class?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
Yes	171	71.3 %	209	87.1 %
No	69	28.7 %	31	12.9 %
Total	240	100 %	240	100 %

Table No. 20 (b): Shown movies/videos/audio-visual clips in the classroom? : Responses by Students

VI. Classroom Environment and Management

An indelible and undisputed *descriptive* attribute of pedagogy, apart from teaching methods and aids, is the classroom environment maintained under the tutelage of the teacher. From mere description of one's classroom environment to other interconnected domains of maintenance of discipline and reasons for distraction of students, this section primarily intends to deal with some of these factors associated with the general environment within the class premises.

The first query posed to the educators in this regard was a closed question of how they would describe their classroom environment. Out of the four options given, around 60.5 percent and 79.2 percent teachers in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, respectively, selected *interactive, question-answer sessions* within the classroom as their foremost description, followed by the *reasonably disciplined atmosphere within the classroom* (32.3% in UP and 17.7% in HP) as the next most favoured response. An interesting revelation from the data gathered was that the teachers in Uttar Pradesh agreed to having experienced more instances of *complete silence* as well as *chaotic and haphazard environments*. Refer to Table no. 21 (a) for further details.

<u>How do you describe your Classroom Environment?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Reasonably Disciplined	32.3 %	17.7 %
Complete Silence	4.1 %	2.1 %
Recurrent Questioning and Answering Sessions	60.5 %	79.2 %
Chaotic and Haphazard	3.1 %	1 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 21 (a): How would you define your classroom environment?

The teachers in both the states were asked to select among the various strategies for ensuring the maintenance of a disciplined classroom environment. Two interrelated questions were duly formulated and posed to the respondents and the answers received have been tabulated in Table no. 21 (b) and Figure no. 18 (a) given below. The facts and figures shown in the table clearly depict that the educators from both the states had more or less the same stance in terms of tactics adopted for ensuring a disciplined classroom environment. For both, *providing stars or credits to students for apt behavior* (35.6% in UP and 37.3% in HP), stood at the utmost pedestal, and this was followed by *appointment of student representatives and class monitors* (30.5% in UP and 31.5% in HP).

<u>Best Method of Maintaining Discipline in Class</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Strict Demeanour	18.8 %	19.6 %
Appointing a Student Representative or Monitor	30.5 %	31.5 %
Providing Stars or Credits for Apt Behaviour	35.6 %	37.3 %

Threatening to Give No Attendance or Deduct Marks	15.1 %	11.6 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 21 (b): Best Method for Maintaining Discipline in the Class

In comparison to this, the diagram 18 (a), on the other hand, shows that while Uttar Pradesh's teachers rated *appreciation of appropriate student behaviour in order to encourage others* (29.2%) as the better strategy for maintaining discipline, their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, opted for *engagement of students in some form of class activity* (31.4%) as a worthy tactic, followed by *appreciation of good behavioural pattern* (28.2%).

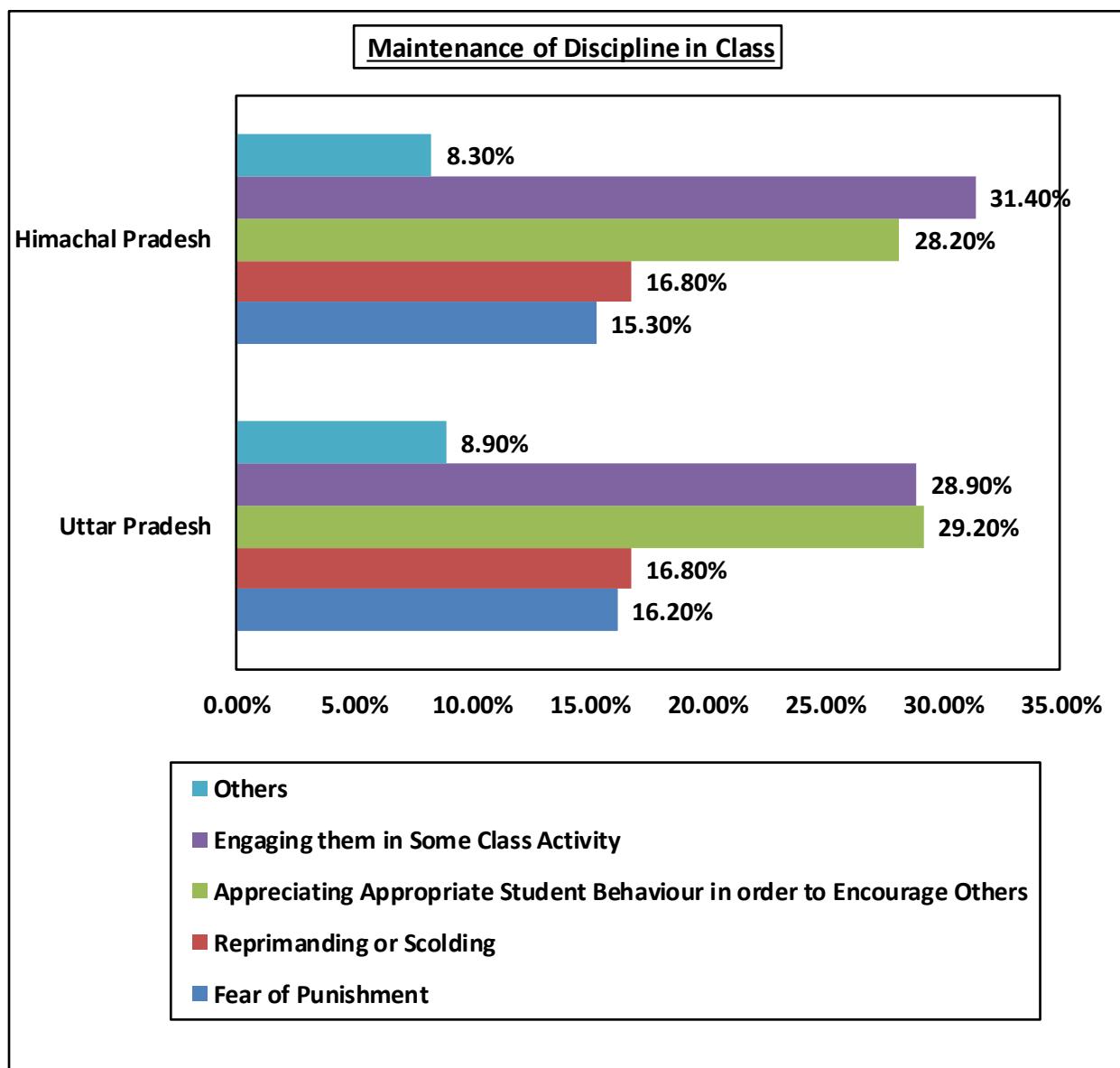


Figure 18 (a): Methods of Ensuring Classroom Discipline

Along with discipline, another essential domain of the classroom environment is the focus or distraction level of the pupils. The teachers were asked to mention the factors that were responsible for the distractedness among students. Based on the answers received, the two states shared proximity with reference to the three primary reasons stated by them and these were as follows: - *peer group or friend circle of the student concerned* (15.9% in UP and 13.4% in HP); *usage of mobile phones or obsession with social media* (14.9% in UP and 9.4% in HP); and lastly, *home environment* (13.9% in UP and 9.4% in HP). The next crucial reason for Uttar Pradesh was the *lack of attention by teachers* (13.6% in UP and 8.5% in HP), but for Himachal Pradesh it stood at *lack of interest in studies by the pupil* (9% in UP and 8.5% in HP). There were some factors which were only mentioned by the educators in Uttar Pradesh and these were *lunch or mid-day meals* and *failures*. For Himachal Pradesh, these original and unique issues were *health of the student*, *unclean surroundings*, *lack of ambition in the pupil*, *too much syllabus* and *not understanding what is being taught in the classroom*. The lattermost variable was also the second highest rated by the teachers of that state, at 11.1%. Table no. 21 (c) provides a comprehensive statistical information about all the possible reasons that distract a student.

<u>What Distracts a Student?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Bad Habits of the Student	1.7 %	2.2 %
Failures	1.1 %	0 %
Health of the Student	0 %	4.9 %
Home Environment	13.9 %	9.4 %
Lack of Ambition	0 %	2.2 %
Lack of Attention by the Teacher	13.6 %	8.5 %
Lack of Interest in Studies	9 %	8.5 %
Lack of Parental Support	2.4 %	1.3 %
Lack of TLM	3.5 %	0.9 %
Low Concentration Levels	2.2 %	5.8 %
Lunch / MDM	4.9 %	0 %
Mobile and/or Social Media	14.9 %	9.4 %

Negative Attitude	1.7 %	0 %
Noisy Environment	8.3 %	8.5 %
Peer Group	15.9 %	13.4 %
Sports /Playtime	3.1 %	6.7 %
Too much Syllabus	0 %	1.3 %
Too much Strictness of Teacher	3.8 %	5 %
Unclean Environment	0 %	0.9 %
Unclarity / Not understanding what is being taught	0 %	11.1 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 21 (c): Factors the Distract a Student

When asked about whether they had lost temper within the classroom, majority of the teachers in both states responded in *affirmative i.e. 'yes'* (59.4% in UP and 54.2% in HP). Figure no. 18 (b) provides a graphic depiction of the same. The main factor behind such a behavioural pattern, as denoted by the respondents, was a *noisy or undisciplined classroom environment*. When the students were posed a similar query about how often their teachers lost their temper, the propensity of *often* as a choice remained higher for Uttar Pradesh (57.5% in UP and 35.8% in HP). The teachers in Himachal Pradesh ranked higher than Uttar Pradesh in terms of both patterns i.e. *losing temper rarely or never*. Table no. 21 (d) provides these figures in an elongated version.

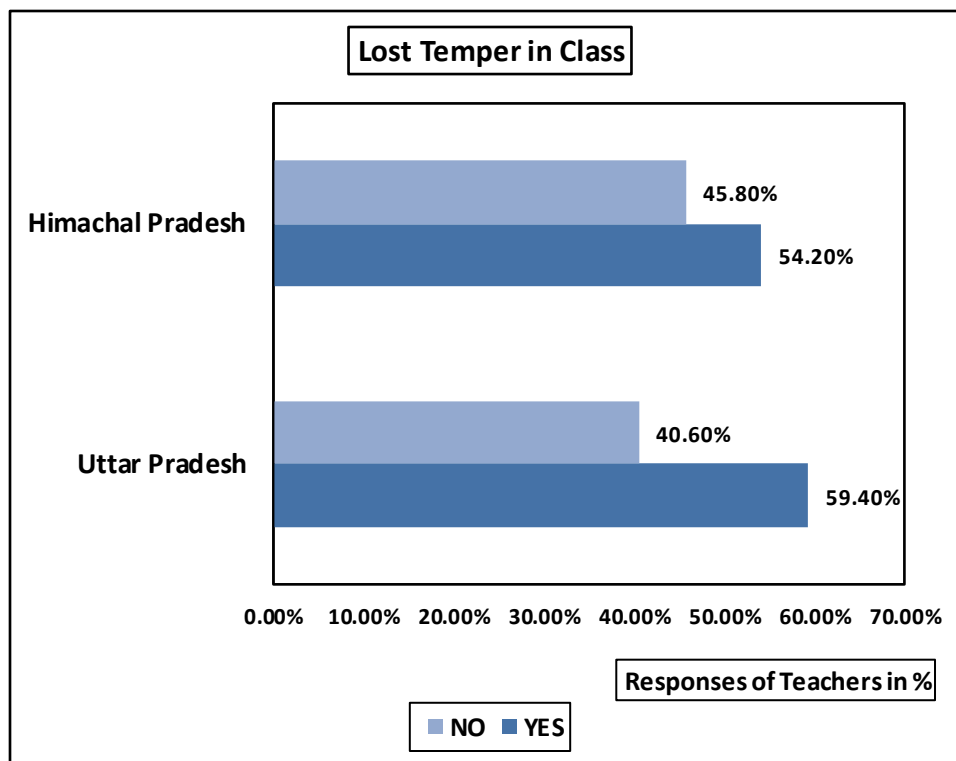


Figure 18 (b): Lost Temper in Class

<u>How often does your teacher lose temper?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
Often	138	57.5 %	86	35.8 %
Rarely	86	35.8 %	125	52.1 %
Never	16	6.7 %	29	12.1 %
Total	240	100 %	240	100 %

Table No. 21 (d): How often does your teacher lose temper or get angry?

The teachers were asked to address a specific query dealing with the attributes of a healthy classroom environment. On the tabulation of the responses thus received, it can be seen that for Himachal Pradesh, the factor that gained utmost response was *active participation by students* (25.4% in HP and 15.6% in UP), and this was followed by *good or cordial relationship between teachers and students* (18.3% in HP and 9.7% in UP). In Uttar Pradesh, the responses which had the highest frequency was also *active participation in class*, followed by *adequate provisioning or availability of TLM* (13.5% in UP and 2.1% in HP). A major contrast can be seen when the third and fourth highest responses are compared. The educators in Himachal Pradesh mentioned *organization of engaging activities* (14.6% in HP and 10.1% in UP) and *joyful or stress-free environment* (13.3% in HP and 7.9% in UP), while their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh believed in *skilled teachers* (12.9% in UP and 11.3% in HP) and a *disciplined classroom* (11.1% in UP and 6.3% in HP) to be the inevitable characteristics. Refer to Figure no. 18 (c) for further details.

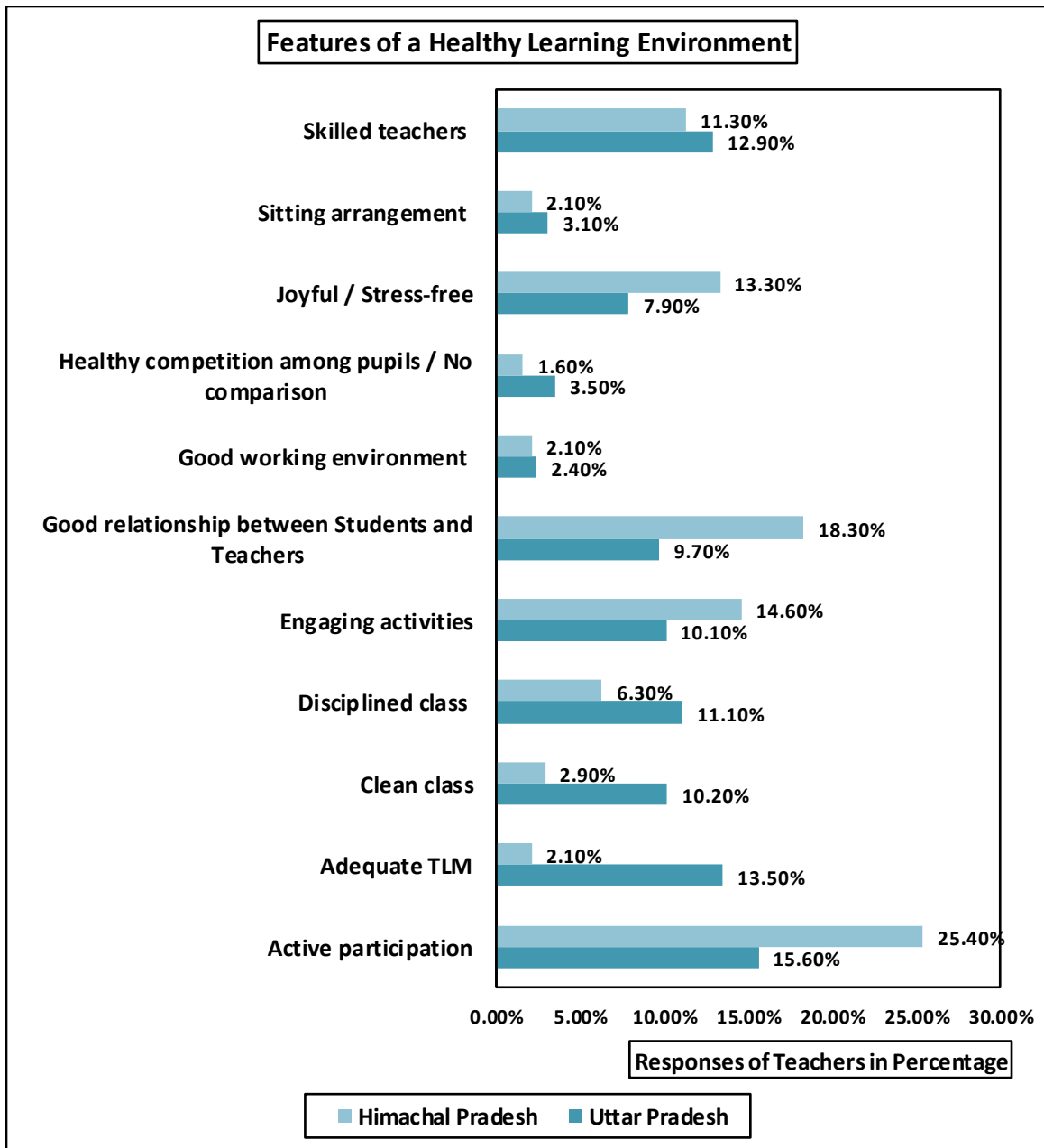


Figure 18 (c): Attributes of a Healthy Classroom Environment

With reference to classroom environment and the intermediary factors associated with teaching and learning per se, the student respondents were asked to answer a few questions related to the same. While both the states witnessed approximately equal percentage of responses with reference to *punctuality of teachers* (83.8% in UP and 87.9% in HP), their answers varied considerably with regard to other variables. Uttar Pradesh ranked lower than Himachal Pradesh when it came to *students not being scared of their teachers* (44.2% in UP and 58.2% in HP) and students perceiving

their *teachers not being strict* (41.2% in UP and 55.9% in HP). Besides this, the percentage of students *being hesitant in asking questions or giving answers in class* was lesser in Himachal Pradesh than Uttar Pradesh (37.1% in UP and 27.9% in HP). Lastly, when it came to the larger question of whether *students were enjoying learning or not*, Himachal Pradesh ranked higher in the ‘yes’ category of answers (97.1% in HP and 87.9% in UP). Table no. 21 (e) provides all these figures in a simplified format.

<u>Questions about Classroom Environment and Students’ Responses to them: -</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
Is your teacher punctual?		
Yes	83.8 %	87.9 %
No	16.2 %	12.1 %
Are you scared of your teacher?		
Yes	55.8 %	41.8 %
No	44.2 %	58.2 %
Is your teacher strict?		
Yes	58.8 %	44.1 %
No	41.2 %	55.9 %
Are you hesitant about asking questions or answering in class?		
Yes	37.1 %	27.9 %
No	62.9 %	72.1 %
Do you enjoy learning?		
Yes	87.9 %	97.1 %
No	12.1 %	2.9 %

Table No. 21 (e): Questions about Classroom Environment and Students’ Responses to them

In collaboration with the last query in the aforementioned table, of whether the students enjoyed learning or not, which the majority respondents from both the states answered in the affirmative, the pupils were further asked to specify the one reason for when they both – liked and

disliked studies. Learners from both the states mentioned *learning new things* as their preferable response (51.8% in UP and 40.7% in HP), and this was followed by *studies helping in fulfilling one's dreams* for Uttar Pradesh (14.5%) and *increasing one's knowledge* for Himachal Pradesh (20.6%). The role played by teachers as a variable was not readily cited. But the data associated with what students disliked about studies had some meaningful insights to offer. The students from the two states had contradictory responses. Pupils from Uttar Pradesh mentioned *unclarity or not understanding what is being taught in the classroom* (23.8% in UP and 10% in HP) as their popular choice, to be followed by *rote learning or memorization* (16.1% in UP and 9.2% in HP), and the *teacher does not teach well* (14.2% in UP and 4.6% in HP). Apart from these, *being hit by the teacher* was also mentioned as a factor and its intensity was more in Uttar Pradesh than Himachal Pradesh i.e. 7.9% in UP and 2.9% in HP. The statistics attained with reference to Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, revealed that the students of this particular state disliked *too much homework* (22.9% in HP and 7.1% in UP) and this was followed by *unclarity or not being able to understand what is being disseminated within the classroom by the educator* and *rote memorization*, the propensity of which was lower than what was experienced in Uttar Pradesh. Table 21 (f) given below, provides a tabular overview of the students' responses.

<u>What do I like and dislike about studies?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
What do I like about studies?		
Helps in fulfilling our dreams	14.5 %	10.7 %
Helps in getting a job	13.1 %	5.1 %
Homework	2.3 %	7.9 %
Increase one's knowledge	6.1 %	20.6 %
Learn new things	51.8 %	40.7 %
Solve tests or problems	1.9 %	4.2 %
Teacher is good	7.5 %	7 %
Teacher makes us play games	2.8 %	3.7 %
Total	100 %	100 %

What do I dislike about studies?		
Bad classmates	5.8 %	1.3 %
Competition	1.8 %	5.4 %
Discrimination	0.4 %	1.7 %
Expensive	0 %	2.5 %
Lack of Interaction	0 %	3.3 %
Less play time	2.1 %	5.8 %
Rote learning / memorization	16.1 %	9.2 %
Tests or Exams	3.3 %	7.1 %
Teacher doesn't teach well	14.2 %	4.6 %
Teacher hits us	7.9 %	2.9 %
Teacher scolds us	2.5 %	8.3 %
Teacher is unpunctual	5.4 %	5.8 %
Too hard or overburdening	9.6 %	9.2 %
Too much H.W.	7.1 %	22.9 %
Unclear / not understood	23.8 %	10 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 21 (f): Questions about Likes and Dislikes about Studies in General: Student Responses

VII. Tuitions

One of the prerequisites of the Right to Education Act of 2009, was ensuring that the educators adhered to classroom teaching and refrained from engaging in private tuitions. When the respondents in the study were posed with a similar query, the majority in both the states answered 'no' (81.3% in UP and 95.8% in HP), but the proportion of those who replied 'yes' were more in Uttar Pradesh (18.7%) than Himachal Pradesh (4.2%). The participants in the survey were further asked to denote the reasons for the growing trend of tuitions. Teachers in Uttar Pradesh reported *parental apathy or neglect towards their respective wards* as the primary factor (38.5% in UP and 27.1% in HP), as opposed to teachers in Himachal Pradesh, who accorded additional importance to *increased competition and high ambition of students* (50% in HP and 10.4% in UP). Overall,

these two factors were given highest preference. For further details, refer to Table no. 22 (a) and (b).

<u>Engagement in Private Tuitions</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
YES	18.7 %	4.2 %
NO	81.3 %	95.8 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %

Table No. 22 (a): Do you engage in private tuitions? : Responses by Teachers

<u>Why have private tuitions become so rampant?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Desire for extra-income due to insufficient salary	11.5 %	4.2 %
Increased competition / High Ambition	10.4 %	50 %
Parental Apathy / Neglect towards their wards	38.5 %	27.1 %
Teachers' Apathy / Neglect towards students	23.9 %	5.2 %
Teachers do not teach well	11.5 %	6.3 %
Weak students need assistance	4.2 %	7.2 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 22 (b): Why have private tuitions become so rampant? : Responses by Teachers

In order to ensure some level of authenticity in the data captured, the students of these teachers were posed with an interrelated query of whether they attended any coaching or tuition classes? Around 54 percent of pupils in Uttar Pradesh did agree to going for tuition classes, as opposed to 46 percent in Himachal Pradesh. This difference of 8 percent among the two states only depicts that the proliferation of coaching or tuitions in Uttar Pradesh. Besides this, approximately 39 percent of the respondents i.e. 51 out of 130 respondents, who answered yes to attending tuitions,

in Uttar Pradesh, reported having *the same individual as their class and tuition teacher*. Thus, this was a clear depiction of how some of the teachers were stealthily indulging in malpractices, the repercussions of which would not only fall on their pedagogical practices within the classroom (either due to the excess workload or the inherent, threatening tendency to be partial towards those who took their tuition classes) but also on their students (in terms of experiencing favouritism or impartiality, inking to expect undue favours from these respective educators, paying less attention in the classroom thinking that the lesson would be covered later, and many other such related, depreciating concerns). Table 22 (c) depicts the aforementioned statistics.

<u>Do you attend tuitions?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
YES	54.2 %	46.2 %
NO	45.8 %	53.8 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %

Table No. 22 (c): Students' Responses to Attending Tuitions

The students who answered 'yes' to attending tuitions, were further asked to choose between their class teachers and tuition teachers in terms of who is better and why? The responses received have a lot to offer in terms of the faith these pupils have in the pedagogical capabilities i.e. both content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, of their respective teachers. The proportion of students who preferred the teaching style of their class teachers over tuition teachers, was more in Himachal Pradesh than Uttar Pradesh (60.4% in HP and 42.3 % in UP). Even in terms of intra-state dynamics, students in Himachal Pradesh rooted considerably high for their classroom educators (60.4 % for class teacher and 39.6% for tuition teachers). The popular responses among the sample of 240 respondents covered throughout the state of Himachal Pradesh, in favour of class teacher were: their classes were *"more exciting"*, *"we do more activities in the classroom"*, *"acche se samjhati hain"* (she explains well) and *"subject ki acchi knowledge rakhti hai"* (they had good knowledge of their subject). Contrary to this, those who chose tuition teachers relied more on reasons like *less physical punishment and scolding*, which if stated verbatim from one of the questionnaires of the students read: *"no maar / no daat"* (no hitting, no scolding) and *"pyaar se padhate hai"* (teaches in a friendly manner).

But, when it came to the intra-state situation in Uttar Pradesh, majority of the respondents opted for tuition teachers being better than their classroom counterparts (57.7% for tuition teachers versus 42.3% for class teachers). The responses which were frequently stated for this choice were that the tuition teachers *explained “slowly” or took more time to explain the subject matter*; they got *“less angry”* and were *“patient” by nature*; they *“explain better”* and *did regular “revisions”*; they were more *“friendly”* and *“funny”* and lastly, school teachers were *“not regular”* i.e. they were often absent.

<u>Who is better?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
CLASS TEACHER	42.3 %	60.4 %
TUITION TEACHER	57.7 %	39.6 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %

Table No. 22 (d): Students Responses to Who is Better: Class Teacher or Tuition Teacher?

VIII. Examinations

Both the teachers and their students were posed specific questions pertaining to how they perceived examinations, but while the former was given a close-ended question with four in-built choices that had to be ranked from highest to lowest, the latter was offered an open ended one. On reviewing the answers given by the teachers of both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, it is not difficult to denote that the option that received maximum priority, when asked about the purpose of exams, was: *to maintain a check on whether the students are learning whatever is being taught* (31.8% in UP and 31.6% in HP), and this was followed by the second most popular response i.e. *to attach a purpose to education in general* (23.6% in UP and 25.9% in HP). The responses that received the least preference, coincidentally in both the states, were: *to examine the rank and memorizing capacity of students* (21.2% in UP and 19.9% in HP). Figure no.19 illustrated below, provides a diagrammatic view of the abovementioned findings.

When the students of the two states, were asked to mention their views about examinations or tests, the response that received the most mention was: *We come to know about our learning and retention ability* (49.1% in UP and 49.6% in HP). This was followed by two other significant yet not so popular responses i.e. *We come to know about whether we have passed or failed* (17.9% in UP and 13.8% in HP) and *We come to know where we stand in comparison to others* (17.1% in UP and 12.5% in HP). Thus, the response that was the least favourite of teachers, was surprisingly given the most preference by the students. Majority of the students perceived the purpose of exams to be either determination of their retention or learning ability, their mere status in terms of passing or failing or how they performed in comparison to their peers. The former two responses were intertwined with the age-old associated objective of education⁶³ that the latest educational policies and national curriculum frameworks were trying to ward off i.e. reducing it to mere retention or rote memorization.

When it came to having more unconventional views about exams, than the ones previously highlighted, the students of Himachal Pradesh, as opposed to their counterparts in Uttar Pradesh, did not shy away from mentioning how *exams made them nervous*, how *exams should be made easier* and some even pointed out how *exams were not so important*. Thus, they were comparatively more upfront in voicing out their opinions on examinations and how it personally affected them. Table no. 23 provides a clearer picture of the claimed revelations.

⁶³ Refer to Krishna Kumar's *Political Agenda of Education: A Study of Colonialist and Nationalist Ideas* (Second Edition); 2005; Sage Publications: New Delhi for further information on the subject.

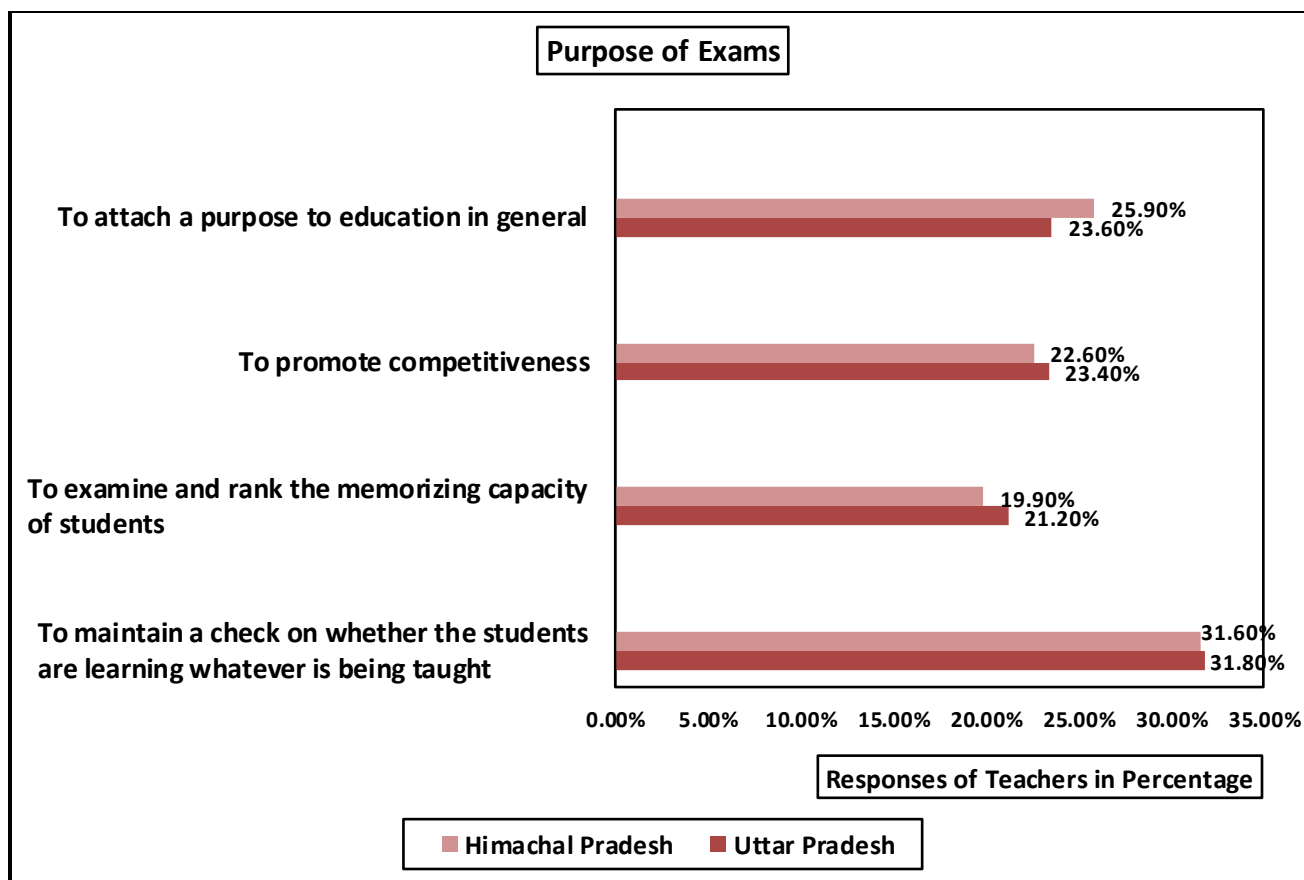


Figure 19: Purpose of Exams: Responses by Teachers

<u>Views of Students on Exams: -</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Exams make me nervous	1.3 %	5.4 %
Exams should be easier	3.3 %	4.6 %
Exams are not so important	0 %	1.6 %
Recognition / Praise	2.5 %	7.1 %
We come to know about our learning and retention ability	49.1 %	49.6 %
We come to know about our marks, which will help us in getting jobs	8.8 %	5.4 %
We come to know about whether we have passed or failed	17.9 %	13.8 %

We come to know where we stand in comparison to others	17.1 %	12.5 %
Total	100 %	100%

Table No. 23: Students' Views on Exams

IX. Participation of Teachers in Non-curricular Activities, Parent-Teacher Meetings and Curriculum Renewal Programs

The PROBE report of 1998-1999, laid down the grounds for a stimulating discourse on incorporation of processes while studying the interaction among three principal stakeholders of education i.e. parents, teachers and students. These processes, in terms of the teaching and learning, happening within the classroom, and the factors determining them, gave due significance to some teaching-related indicators. Though its approach was comparatively more indirect, than direct (i.e. in lieu of formulating a set of variables directly representative of pedagogical concerns), it designed questions which were able to address at least some of the deeper realms of educational quality, with specific reference to pedagogy e.g. accountability of teachers in government versus private schools; peer teaching (older children teaching younger pupils); discriminatory attitude of teachers; concerns raised by teachers with reference to school infrastructure and facilities, remunerations, leave entitlements, funding, parental apathy towards their wards, burden of non-academic duties, unwanted postings to villages and remote areas, unsupportive school management structure, difficulty in teaching first generation learners, tussle with village heads or *Sarpanch*; working status of parent-teacher association (PTA) and village education committees (VEC); and working pattern of *Shiksha Karmis* i.e. para-teachers.

Taking cue from the PROBE report, the researcher designed a specific dedicated question which asked the teacher respondents to rate their level of participation in non-curricular activities, among the four options given. From the responses thus gathered, it was evident that teachers from both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh mentioned their involvement in *Other Miscellaneous Extra-Curricular Activities (Debates, Meetings, Festivals, Sports, Annual Events, Competitions, Fairs etc.)* as the most potent factor (70.8% in UP and 80.2% in HP – rated their participation as *High*). In areas of *administrative work*, around 40.6% of teachers in Uttar Pradesh denoted having high level of engagement, as opposed to 37.9% in Himachal Pradesh. A parallel trend was also

witnessed with reference to participation in *Panchayats / Community Related Work* (e.g. *Health Camps, Mid-Day Meals, Family Planning, Pensions*), where teachers in Uttar Pradesh rated a slightly higher level of engagement, contrary to their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh (38.6 % in UP and 21.9% in HP).

Besides miscellaneous extra-curricular activities, the one area where teachers of Himachal Pradesh highlighted having greater level of participation, was *training and invigilation related work* (58.3% in HP and 39.6% in UP – rated their participation as *High*). Though any form of involvement by teachers in any activity, besides classroom teaching, deems to hamper their pedagogic responsibilities in some form or the other, their contribution in training sessions and invigilation works, somehow, still seems like an area of work which is coterminous with their primary duties as an educator. Thus, it won't be outright unjustified to safely assume that the proportion of participation of teachers in Himachal Pradesh in non-teaching activities, was more inclined towards activities which were an indelible part of their job profile, as opposed to what was happening in Uttar Pradesh. Table no. 24 (a) provides a summarized format of the level of teacher participation figures.

<u>Level of Participation in Non-Teaching Activities</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>			<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>		
	Percentage			Percentage		
	High	Low	Negligible	High	Low	Negligible
Panchayats / Community Related Work (e.g. Health Camps, Mid-Day Meals, Family Planning, Pensions)	38.6%	40.6%	20.8%	21.9%	51%	27.1%
Administrative Work	40.6%	46.9%	12.5%	37.9%	49.5%	12.6%
Training and Invigilation Related work	39.6%	52.1%	8.3%	58.3%	37.5%	4.2%

Other Miscellaneous Extra-Curricular Activities (Debates, Meetings, Festivals, Sports, Annual Events, Competitions, Fairs etc.)	70.8%	27.1%	2.1%	80.2%	11.5%	8.3%
---	-------	-------	------	-------	-------	------

Table No. 24 (a): Teachers' Level of Participation in Non-teaching Activities

Rather than making the assumption (as done in the paragraph above) about whether the teachers were facing problems in performing their day-to-day tasks or how they perceived their participation in non-curricular activities, the teachers were directly enquired about it. Based on the data gathered, while majority of teachers in Uttar Pradesh (54.5%) did not perceive it as a disturbing element, the teachers in Himachal Pradesh (57.3%) did see it as a hampering factor; refer to Table no. 24 (b). Ironically, the first group i.e. UP, which was comparatively more engaged with non-teaching activities like administrative work or community related work, apart from the regular extra-curricular activities, was undeterred by it and considered it to be relatively less hampering or inhibiting, than the educators in Himachal Pradesh. This is reflective of either of these three possibilities: their uncanny fondness for such activities or duties, their relatively developed capability for multitasking or their gradual socialization into the norm that these tasks are as much fundamental as their curricular responsibilities.

Despite having a larger share in terms of participation in non-curricular duties and also not considering them as a hindrance, the teachers in Uttar Pradesh when asked to declare the ideal ratio of involvement in curricular: non-curricular activities, responded 70:30 as the optimum distribution (59.3% of the responses). Their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, gave preference to a 50:50 equation (58.3% of the responses). Table no. 24 (c), given below, provides all the other related responses.

<u>Does participation in non-teaching activities, hamper your pedagogical activities?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage

YES	45.5 %	57.3 %
NO	54.5 %	42.7 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %

Table No. 24 (b): Effect of Participation in Non-curricular activities on Pedagogical Duties

<u>Ideal Ratio of Involvement in Curricular: Non-Curricular Activities</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
50:50	26.1 %	58.3 %
60:40	5.2 %	15.6 %
70:30	59.3 %	21.9 %
80:20	9.4 %	4.2 %

Table No. 24 (c): Ratio of Involvement of Teachers in Curricular: Non-Curricular Activities

Apart from participation of teachers in curricular and non-curricular activities, there were two other domains where their involvement was encouraged, and in one case even non-negotiable. These were curriculum renewal programmes and parent-teacher meetings.

In his work, *Political Agenda of Education: A Study of Colonialist and Nationalist Ideas* (1991, 2005), Dr. Krishna Kumar, a former Director of NCERT and pioneer of the National Curriculum Framework of 2005, talked about several problems associated with the education system, in the colonial and pre-colonial times. Two among these were: the dissociation between the curriculum and the life of the child and his/her 'social milieu'; and secondly, the lack of involvement of teachers in curriculum planning, which ultimately resulted in their 'meek status'. Based on these concerns raised by the author, it should not be hard to decipher that the National Curriculum Framework of 2005 encouraged the active participation of teachers in curriculum renewal programmes, so that they could assist in suggesting reforms which closely dealt with the personal needs of the learners as well as addressed the social milieu they came from. Keeping this respective criterion in hindsight, the teachers were asked reflect upon their level of involvement in curriculum

renewal programmes. Out of the three options provided to them i.e. never felt like participating, never asked to participate and have participated, 40.6 percent and 59.4 percent of teachers in Uttar Pradesh responded never asked to participate and have participated, respectively. Himachal Pradesh's teachers, on the other hand stood proportionately higher in terms of never asked to participate i.e. 53.2 percent, rather than have participated, which was 46.8 percent. Thus, the participation by teachers in curriculum renewal programmes was relatively poorer in Himachal Pradesh. For further details, refer to Figure no. 20.

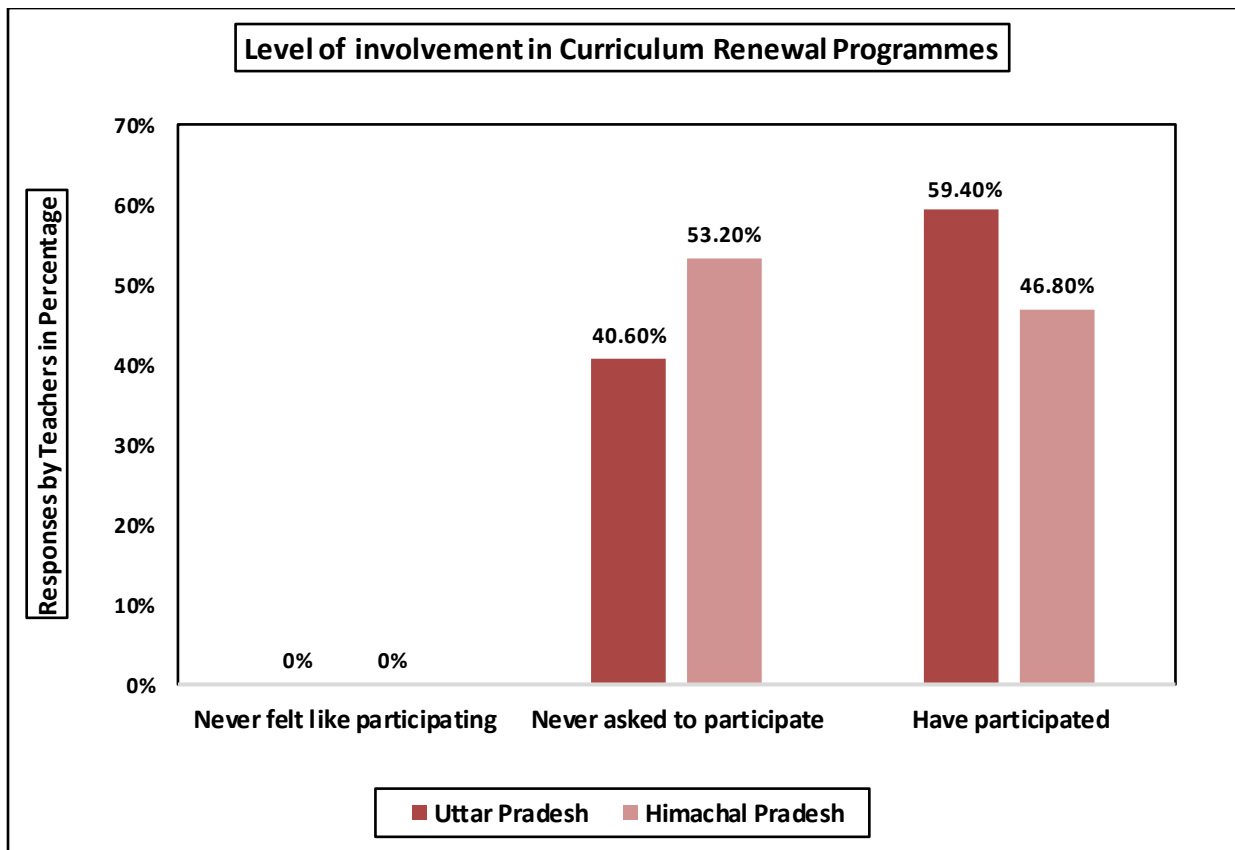


Figure 20: Teachers' Level of Involvement in Curriculum Renewal Programmes

Lastly, when asked about the number of parent-teacher meetings or associations organized by their respective school authorities, Uttar Pradesh ranked higher than Himachal Pradesh in terms of organizing more than ten parent teacher meetings annually (37.5% in UP and 26% in HP). But there were four teachers in Uttar Pradesh, who responded having attended or held no PTM that year. Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, had higher responses for 4-6 meetings (37.5%) and

this was followed by 10 + meetings (26%). Table no. 24 (d) provides this data in a comprehensive fashion.

<u>Parent-Teacher Meetings</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
0	4.2 %	0 %
1 – 3	19.8 %	27.1 %
4 – 6	30.2 %	37.5 %
7 – 9	8.3 %	9.4 %
10 +	37.5 %	26 %

Table No. 24 (d): Number of Parent-Teacher Meetings Held

X. Teacher Attrition and Related Concerns

The *World Education Report: Teachers and teaching in a changing world* (1998), by UNESCO, talked about the lack of effectiveness of the contemporary researches, conducted in the field of education, to address issues and concerns associated with teaching, one of them being teacher attrition i.e. the percentage of teachers who resign from their profession every year. Borrowing this nascent variable from this report and collaborating it with the idea of capability of teachers, the researcher prepared an array of interrelated questions dealing with the reasons behind teachers deciding to leave or abandon their jobs and the problems faced by them in general.

On directly being enquired about, whether the thought of leaving their jobs had ever crossed their mind, majority of the teachers in both the states had responded 'no' (90.6% in UP and 85.4% in HP). From the group that answered 'yes', respondents in Himachal Pradesh were relatively higher than Uttar Pradesh. Table no. 25 (a) gives a gist of the data gathered.

<u>Ever thought of leaving the profession?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage

YES	9.4 %	14.6 %
NO	90.6 %	85.4 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %

Table No. 25 (a): Ever thought of leaving your profession? Responses by Teachers in Percentage

On further enquiring into the possible reasons for teacher attrition or educators deciding to abandon their jobs, a varied number of factors were highlighted, but some of them evidently stood out. Teachers in both the states gave the highest preference to two variables and these were: *less salary* (27% in UP and 16.2% in HP) and *too much workload* (26.6% in UP and 31.9% in HP). In terms of the third most important possible reason for this decision of abandoning one's teaching job, the teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned *unhealthy/uncooperative school environment* (15.7% in UP), while their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh opted for *family or personal issues* (13.1% in HP), followed by *lack of recognition or praise* (11.2% in HP).

There were some factors that were unique to a state and not mentioned by the teachers in the other region. With reference to Himachal Pradesh, these variables were *inadequate infrastructure* and *poor training of the faculty*. A conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the tensions bothering the teachers from the latter state (possible factors for resignation), were akin to factors which were already a crucial part of the education system as a whole, as opposed to issues like bribery and corruption, which more like an unexpected and unpredictable infestation. Refer to Figure no. 21 for additional facts and figures.

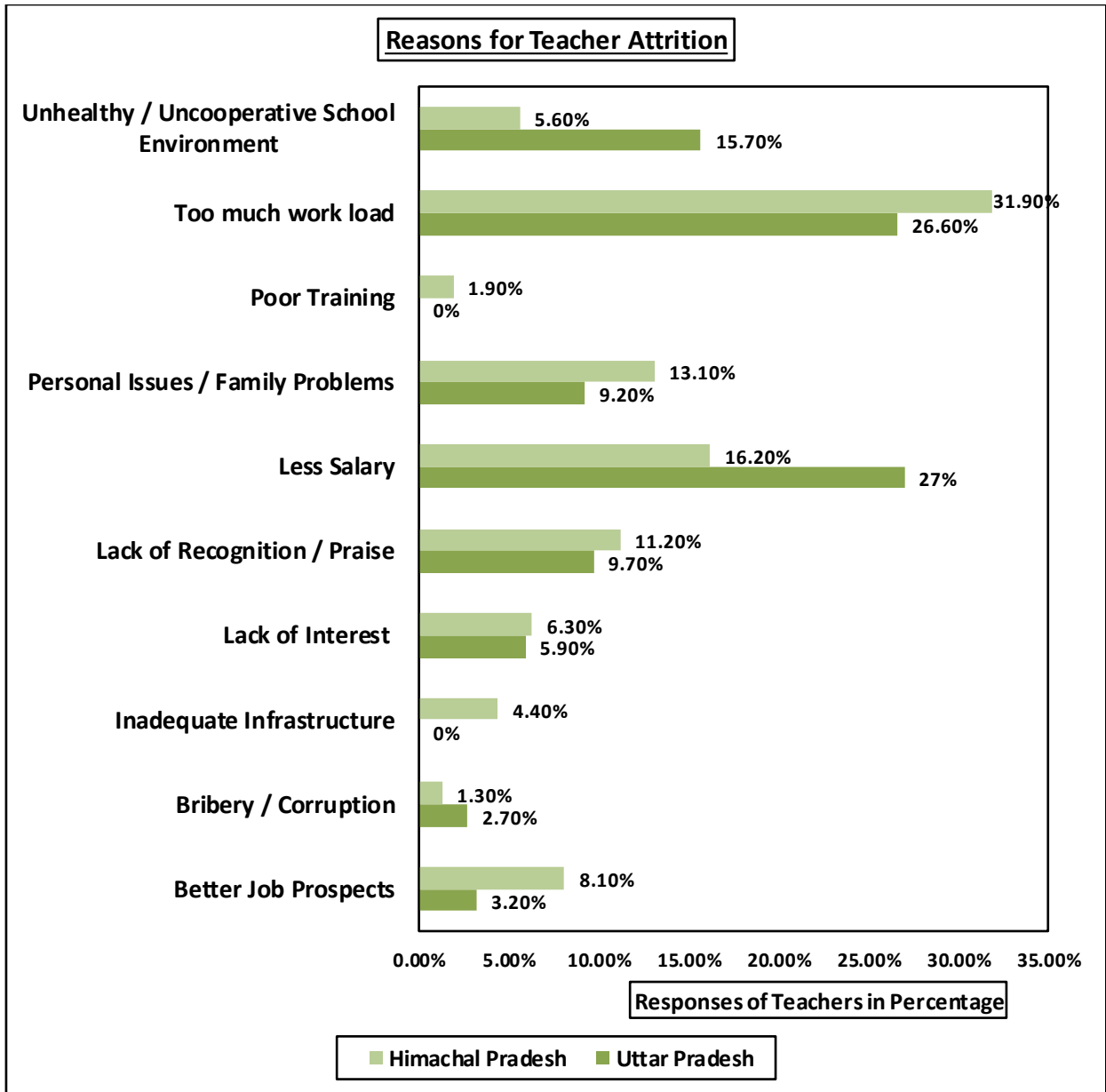


Figure 21: Reasons for Teachers Attrition or Leaving from Jobs

Another related query to the abovementioned concern was about the problems related to teaching as a profession. The one variable that stood foremost for the teachers from both the states was *too much workload* (28.8% in UP and 31.2% in HP). While excessive workload stood out to be a common factor, the intensity of other problems as well as the types of concerns themselves, varied across the two regions. Teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned how *irregular attendance of teachers*, followed by *less salary*, *inadequate teaching-learning materials* and *lack of trained teachers* were some major areas of worry. It must be noted how *irregular attendance*

and *lack of interest in teaching* featured as variables, in the responses provided by educators of Uttar Pradesh, thus depicting the laxity on their part towards the fulfillment of their pedagogical responsibilities.

The respondents of Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, highlighted *lack of recognition and respect* and *parental apathy* as some of their prominent concerns, but there were four elements in particular that were exclusive to them and these were: *transfers* (6.9%), *different level of kids in class* (4.7%), *no-detention policy* (5.3%), and *high dependence on traditional methods of teaching i.e. lecture method* (11.1%). The latter revelation depicts that a considerably decent number of teachers in this particular state were concerned about the teaching style or method popularly being practiced within the classroom, and recognition of a problem is the first step towards its remediation. Aligning this with one of the conceptual themes used in this doctoral thesis, it wouldn't be completely unjustified to conclude that generic pedagogical knowledge was henceforth a critical area of concern for teachers of Himachal Pradesh.

<u>Problems Associated with Teaching as a Profession</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Different Level of Kids in Class	0 %	4.7 %
Distracted / Misbehaved Students	3.8 %	4.2 %
Inadequate TLM	8.8 %	5.7 %
Irregular Attendance of Teachers	10.6 %	0 %
Lack of Government Initiative	2.7 %	0 %
Lack of Interest in Teaching	6.1 %	1.1 %
Lack of Recognition / Respect	7.2 %	10.1 %
Lack of Trained Teachers	8.2 %	4.9 %
Lengthy Syllabus	4.3 %	3.2 %
Less Salary	9.5 %	1.6 %
No Detention Policy	0 %	5.3 %

Parental Apathy towards their wards	6.7 %	7.4 %
Too much workload	28.8 %	31.2 %
Traditional Lecture Method	0 %	11.1 %
Transfer	0 %	6.9 %
Unhealthy Work Environment	3.3 %	2.6 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 25 (b): Problems Related to Teaching as a Profession: Responses by Teachers

It goes without saying that one of the interrelated yet at the same time a counter-question associated with the theme of teachers' reasoning for leaving or abandoning their jobs, in their current level of satisfaction with teaching as a profession. In relation to the same, the teachers were asked to mark their present status in terms of satisfaction with their jobs, from the three categories of *High*, *Medium* and *Low* and state the possible reasons if they opted for any of the latter two choices.

On the basis of the answers received and analyzed, majority of the teachers in Uttar Pradesh said that their level of *satisfaction with their teaching jobs was medium* (neither high nor low) (52.1%), as opposed to Himachal Pradesh, where maximum teachers responded to having *high level of job satisfaction* (54.2%). While approximately 3 percent teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned their level of satisfaction as low, the corresponding percentage in Himachal Pradesh was nil. Therefore, overall, the teachers in Himachal Pradesh were comparatively more satisfied with their jobs.

When asked about the factors responsible for their medium/low level of job satisfaction, the teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned *unsatisfactory remuneration* (21.3%) and *too much of non-teaching workload* (19.8%) as their two most popular responses. Surprisingly, the foremost reason mentioned by Himachal Pradesh's teachers coincided with Uttar Pradesh's i.e. *too much non-teaching workload* (37.9%), and this was followed by *hectic working hours*, *unsatisfactory remuneration*, *inadequate teaching-learning materials* and lastly, *inadequate training opportunities* and. Refer to Table no. 25 (c) for further details on the question.

<u>Satisfaction with Teaching as a Profession</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
<u>Level of Satisfaction</u>		
HIGH	44.8 %	54.2 %
MEDIUM	52.1 %	45.8 %
LOW	3.1 %	0 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %
<u>Reasons for Medium or Low Level of Satisfaction</u>		
Hectic Working Hours	15.6 %	19.8 %
Unsatisfactory Remuneration	21.3 %	17.3 %
Unfriendly Staff	15.6 %	7.8 %
Too much Non-teaching Workload	19.8 %	37.9 %
Inadequate Training Opportunities	13.1 %	6.9 %
Inadequate TLM	14.6 %	10.3 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 25 (c): Satisfaction with Teaching as a Profession

XI. Miscellaneous Questions Associated with Teachers' Views and Beliefs

This section is an amalgamation of a plethora of questions pertaining to teacher's beliefs and perspectives on some vital aspects of the education process and system. The first among these is their views on the current syllabus being taught by them. A comparative analysis of the answers given by the educators of the two states reveals that satisfaction with it was higher in Uttar Pradesh (68.8%), than Himachal Pradesh (60.4%). A more comprehensive view of these opinions can be attained by delving into the reasoning behind their choices. Though majority of the teachers in Uttar Pradesh upheld the present syllabus as being either "*well designed*" or

“comprehensive”⁶⁴ (47.9% in UP and 18.7% in HP), the other issues mentioned by educators from both the states combined depicted an opposite picture and stood stronger when clubbed together (52.1% in UP and 81.3% in HP). For Uttar Pradesh, the second most opted response was that the syllabus was “exhaustive” or “lengthy” (15.6%), while for Himachal Pradesh the foremost was, “too theoretical” or “factual” (27.1%), followed by *syllabus not being related to the social milieu or being non-contextual in nature and content* (13.6% in HP and 0% in UP). Thus, while the former group was more concerned with the length of the curriculum and the difficulty faced by it in its timely completion, the teachers in Himachal Pradesh vociferously challenged its deep orientation towards fact-based content rather than conceptual knowledge, and how the syllabus was non-comprehensible and non-relatable for the pupils, thus making explaining by educators and understanding by students challenging. Though teachers from Uttar Pradesh did share similar concerns to some extent, their priority lied elsewhere.

Besides these, both the states ranked almost equal in mentioning that the syllabus “could have been made more interesting” and “engaging” (11.5% in UP and 12.5% in HP) and further raised the concern of “lack of focus on vocational studies” (5.2% in UP and 10.4% in HP). Table no. 26 (a) provides the aforementioned information and other related statistics.

<u>Views on Syllabus</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
<u>Satisfied with Syllabus</u>		
YES	68.8 %	60.4 %
NO	31.2 %	39.6 %
<u>Views on Syllabus</u>		
Could have been made more interesting and engaging	11.5 %	12.5 %
Exhaustive / Lengthy	15.6 %	12.5 %
More English Based or Oriented	2.1 %	3.1 %

⁶⁴ These terms have been mentioned within quotation marks as they have been directly selected from the terminologies used by the respondents, as filled by them in their questionnaires.

Lack of focus on Vocational Studies	5.2 %	10.4 %
Not Related to Social Milieu / Non-Contextual	0 %	13.6 %
Too Theoretical or Factual	12.5 %	27.1 %
Tough / Pressurizing	5.2 %	2.1 %
Well Designed / Comprehensive	47.9 %	18.7 %
Total	100 %	100%

Table No. 26 (a): Satisfaction with Syllabus and Associated Concerns

There have been innumerable reports and policy documents that have contemplated about the ideal pupil teacher ratio for schools. The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act of 2009 mentioned 30:1 as the admissible ratio. In order to gain some insight into what was the actual strength of the class of the teacher's surveyed, and what were their views on an ideal PTR, the questionnaires consisted of some interrelated queries. According to the responses gathered, 31.2 percent of teachers (highest) in Uttar Pradesh mentioned the range of 41 to 50 students in class as their class strength, to be followed by 51+ students in class as the next most favoured answer (at 23.9 percent). As opposed to this, 36.4 percent of the respondents in Himachal Pradesh answered 21 to 30 students. Thus, Himachal Pradesh was very much within the prescribed PTR.

On further being enquired about the manageability of such a class, 94.8 % of the teachers in Himachal Pradesh found their class to be manageable, strength-wise, contrary to Uttar Pradesh where the proportion stood lower at 71.9 percent.

Lastly, while revealing their views on what should be an ideal PTR for schools, majority of the participants in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh i.e. 55.2 and 57.3 percent, vouched for the national average of 30:1. Table 26 (b) provides all these figures in a consolidated form.

<u>Strength of the Class</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
<u>Present Class Strength</u>		

0 – 10	2.1 %	0 %
11 – 20	12.5 %	4.2 %
21 – 30	12.5 %	36.4 %
31 – 40	17.7 %	29.2 %
41 – 50	31.2 %	22.9 %
51+	23.9 %	9.3 %
<u>Manageable</u>		
YES	71.9 %	94.8 %
NO	28.1 %	5.2 %
<u>Ideal Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)</u>		
10:1	4.2 %	4.2 %
20:1	23.9 %	21.9 %
30:1	55.2 %	57.3 %
40:1	15.6 %	16.6 %
50:1	1.1 %	0 %

Table No. 26 (b): Class Strength and PTR

In this third question, the teachers were asked to select among the three options depicted in Table no. 26 (c) given below, to show how the conflicts emerging between the staff and the administrative authorities were resolved. For Uttar Pradesh apparently, the top most choice was *Board Meetings where the Director or Head usually has the last say* (50% in UP and 41.6% in HP). With respect to *collective decision making through democratic voting*, the two states fared 39.6% in UP and 54.2% in HP, respectively. Thus, maximum respondents in Himachal Pradesh opted for *democratic means for resolution of conflicts*. A major contradiction between the functioning mechanism of the two states can also be seen in the third option of *conflicts are rarely resolved or looked into* where Uttar Pradesh stood higher (10.4%) than Himachal Pradesh (4.2%).

<u>Resolution of Conflicts between Teaching Staff and Administration</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Board Meetings where the Director or Head usually has the last say	50 %	41.6 %
Collective decision making through democratic voting	39.6 %	54.2 %
Conflicts are rarely resolved or looked into	10.4 %	4.2 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 26 (c): Resolution of Conflicts between the Teaching Staff and School Administration

In one of the queries posed to them, the teachers were asked to rank in order of preference, the reasons they thought were responsible for the *underperformance by educators* in general. Based on the responses given, the ranking for both Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh was synonymous. It was in the following order (from highest to lowest):

Overburdened with work > Too much involvement in non-curricular activities > Lack of pre-service or in-service training > Too many students > Less pay or incentive

These answers depict that rather than the pupil-teacher ratio or students-classroom ratio or salary, what bothered the teaching staff more was that they were often overworked, especially by engagement in non-curricular activities⁶⁵ and that there was lack of opportunities for them in terms of training and professional advancement. Figure no. 22 (a) provides the data for these responses.

⁶⁵ Refer to Table 24 (a) for further information on the type of non-curricular activities that were performed by teachers and the intensity of their effect on their regular pedagogical responsibilities.

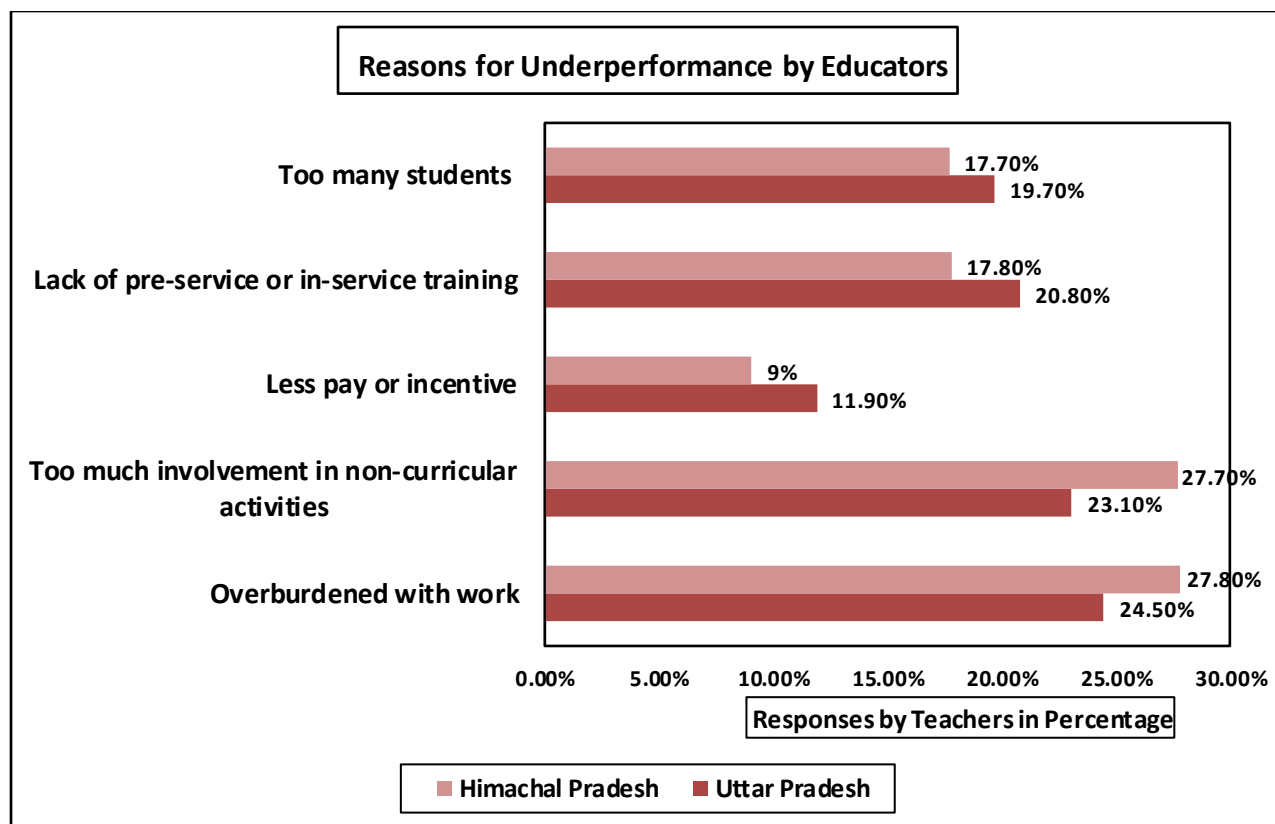


Figure 22 (a): Reasons for Underperformance by Educators: Responses by Teachers

One generic yet inevitable area of the field work was to ask the teachers as to how they perceived teaching i.e. whether it was a joyful activity for them or serious one? Majority of the participants, as can be seen in Table no. 26 (d) given below, viewed it as a joyful activity (96.9% in UP and 97.9% in HP). Nevertheless, there were 3.1 % teachers in Uttar Pradesh and 2 % in Himachal Pradesh, who believed it to be a serious activity. These findings synchronize perfectly with the findings in Table no. 21 (e) where majority of students, in both the states, replied affirmatively to the question of enjoying learning, but the proportion for this was higher for Himachal Pradesh.

<u>Is Teaching a Joyful or Serious Activity?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
JOYFUL	96.9 %	97.9 %
SERIOUS	3.1 %	2 %

TOTAL	100 %	100 %
-------	-------	-------

Table No. 26 (d): Is Teaching a Joyous or Serious Activity? : Responses by Teachers

Lastly, when asked about which they considered as more important among the three options, where one symbolized ‘*generic pedagogical knowledge*’ (*knowledge about the various strategies of teaching and how they should be put to their respective uses*), the other ‘*content knowledge*’ (*having command over the subject matter of the syllabus*) and the last one ‘*pedagogical content knowledge*’ (*both are equally important*), teachers in both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh primarily chose the lattermost (88.5% in Uttar Pradesh and 94.8% in HP). A discrepancy was witnessed in the command over the subject option as a higher percentage (7.3%) of teachers in Uttar Pradesh, as compared to Himachal Pradesh (2.1%), prioritized it over the other two variants. Refer to Figure 22 (b) for further details.

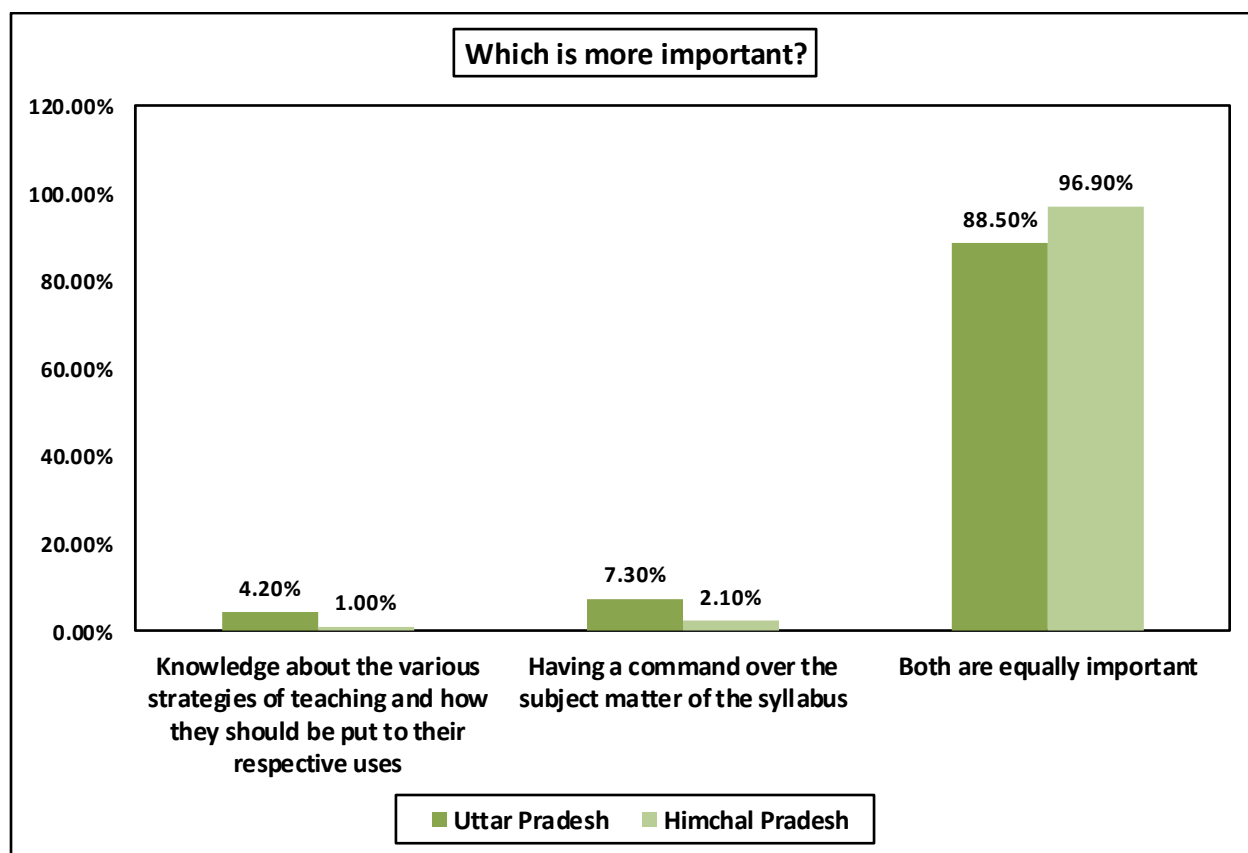


Figure 22 (b): Which among the three is more important? : Responses by Teachers

Part B: Descriptive Indicators of Pedagogy with Reference to Citizenship Education

A separate mini-questionnaire, comprising of eight questions, was prepared for the educators, to ask them about citizenship education. The foremost query among them was about *whether they were taught about citizenship education during their training*. On the basis of the responses received, as shown in Table no. 27 (a), it can be said that majority of the teachers in both the states agreed to having received such training (73.9% in UP and 75% in HP). These participants were further asked to explain what the term citizenship education entailed and majority of them were able to define it as a form of value-based education where qualities like honesty, kindness, helpfulness, patriotism, tolerance, no-discrimination and many more, were duly inculcated. Some eye-catching responses from the two states are given below: -

“Bacchon ko accha nagrik banne ki shiksha deni hi, nagrikta shiksha hain. Is Shiksha ke madhyam se bacche mein deshhit aur samaajhit ki bhaavna jaagrit hoti hain....”

“Giving children education about becoming good citizens, is citizenship education. Through this education, children inculcate feelings favouring the nation and society...”

- (Neeleema Sharma, 23 years, Sonebhadra)

“Parikshan mein humein nagrikta shiksha ke baare mein padhaya gaya tha. Chatra ko accha nagrik banne ke liye emaandaar, deshbhakt, anushasit aevam bhedbhav rahit rahna aadi, mulya nagrikta shiksha ke madhyam se kiya jata hain....”

“During training, we were taught about citizenship education. For making the student a good citizen, honesty, patriotism, self-disciplined and discrimination-free etc., citizenship education is the medium of doing so....”

- (Geeta Rani, 43 years, Saharanpur)

“Nagrikta shiksha acchi nagrikta ka addhyan hain. Ismein nagriko ke kartavyon tatha adhikaron ka addhyan kiya jata hain. Aaj ke samay mein iski prasangikta badh gayi hain. Acche nagrik ke liye zaroori hain ki vah desh ke vikas ke prati chintit rah kar kuch na kuch yogdaan karein.

“Citizenship education is the study of good citizenship. In this, the duties and rights of citizens are studied. In today’s times, its relevance has increased. For being a good citizen, it is imperative to

worry about the progress of one’s nation and contribute something or the other into it.”

- (Rashmi Yadav, 42 years, Saharanpur)

“Citizenship Education enabled the children to become patriotic and learn about unity, cultural diversity and respect for others. It also develops sustainability.

- (Elizabeth Robinson, 42 years, Shimla)

<u>Were you taught about Citizenship Education, during training?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
YES	71	73.9 %	72	75 %
NO	25	26.1 %	24	25 %
TOTAL	96	100 %	96	100 %

Table No. 27 (a): Were you taught about citizenship education during training?

Continuing with the theme of citizenship education, the teachers were asked to enumerate five qualities that would help a student become a good citizen and likewise the students were posed a similar query. The findings of the two sets of respondents have been tabulated and depicted in Table no. 27 (b) and Figure no. 23 (a). To make the analysis more comprehensive, from a comparative viewpoint, Table no. 27 (c) has been created. As per the answers given by the educators, teachers in Uttar Pradesh believed being *patriotic, respectful* and *respecting one’s national symbols, constitution and leaders* were the top three behavioural traits of a prospective good Indian citizen. Teachers of Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, prioritized *responsible or dutifulness, honesty* and *discipline* behavioural attributes. The students of both Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh had *helpfulness, kindness* and *patriotism* within their three most preferred responses, and it did strike a chord with the responses of teachers of Uttar Pradesh, in terms of patriotism being a desirable characteristic of a good citizen.

<u>Five Qualities inculcated in a child to assist him/her become a good citizen</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
		Percentage		Percentage

	No. of Responses		No. of Responses	
Aware	18	3.8 %	5	1.1 %
Cleanliness	18	3.8 %	12	2.5 %
Courageous	8	1.7 %	7	1.5 %
Dependable / Trustworthy	3	0.6 %	2	0.4 %
Disciplined / Well-Behaved	22	4.6 %	40	8.4 %
Caring	25	5.3 %	20	4.2 %
Fights against Injustice	8	1.7 %	10	2.1 %
Follows Law and Order	23	4.8 %	21	4.4 %
Hardworking	10	2.1 %	27	5.7 %
Helpful	30	6.3 %	38	8 %
Honest	30	6.3 %	43	9.1 %
Importance of Education	8	1.7 %	12	2.5 %
Kind / Compassionate	22	4.6 %	29	6.1 %
Non-discriminatory	17	3.6 %	12	2.5 %
Non-violent	11	2.3 %	4	0.8 %
Patient	4	0.8 %	8	1.7 %
Patriotic	40	8.4 %	27	5.7 %
Polite	8	1.7 %	2	0.4 %
Protects Environment	7	1.5 %	3	0.6 %
Protects Public Property	8	1.7 %	0	0 %
Punctual	14	3 %	7	1.5 %
Reasoning Capacity / Critical Thinking	0	0 %	9	1.9 %
Respectful	37	7.8 %	24	5.1 %
Respects National Symbols / Anthem / Freedom Fighters / Constitution	32	6.7 %	23	4.8 %
Responsible / Dutiful	30	6.3 %	53	11.2 %
Secular	23	4.8 %	10	2.1 %
Self-discipline	19	4 %	27	5.7 %
Total	475	100 %	475	100 %

Table No. 27 (b): Qualities to inculcate in a child to assist him/her become a good citizen: Teachers' Responses

Five Qualities of a Good and Responsible Citizen

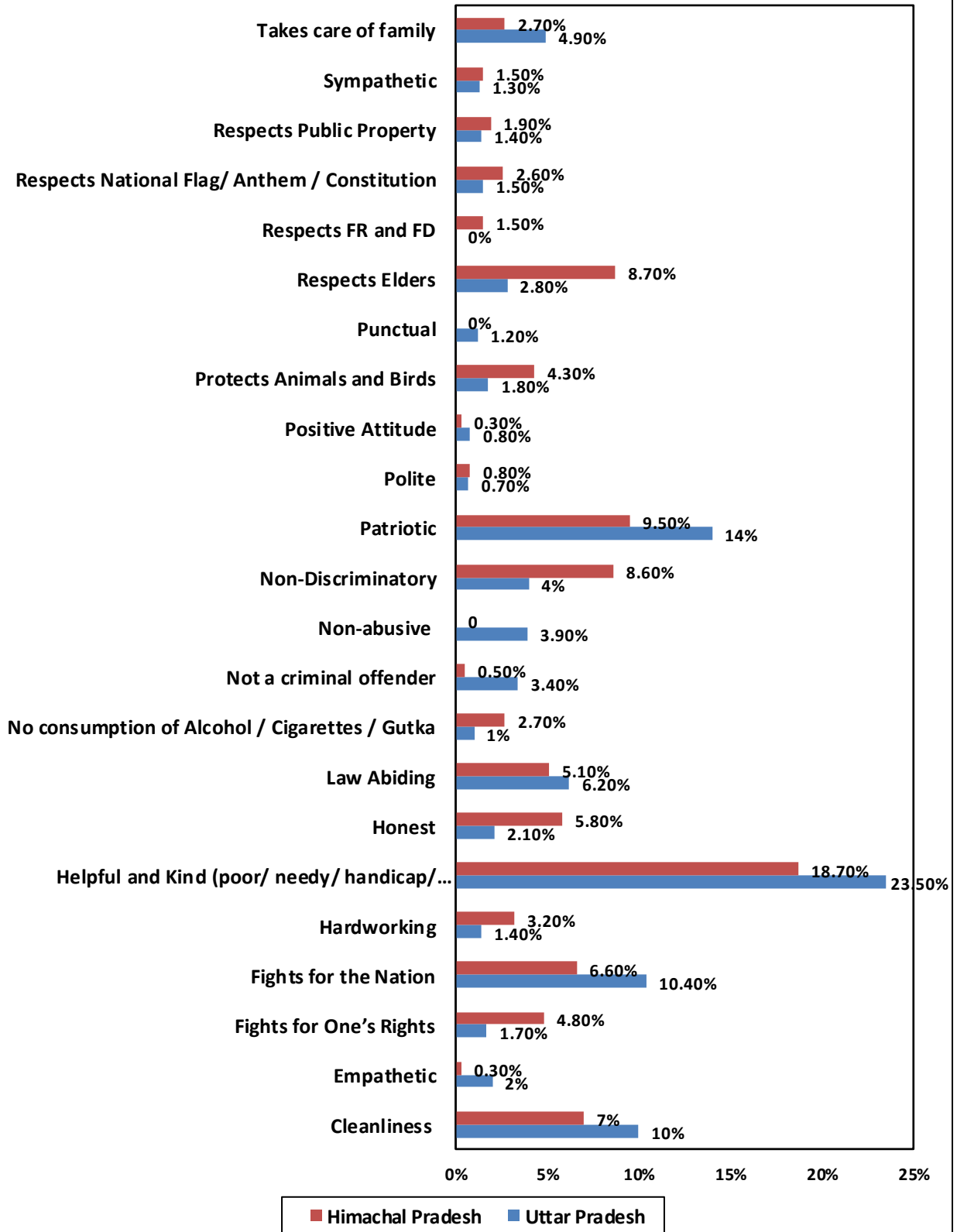


Figure 23 (a): Qualities of a good and responsible citizen: Responses by Students

<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
<u>Qualities inculcated in a Student to make him/her a Good Citizen</u>	Percentage	<u>Qualities inculcated in a Student to make him/her a Good Citizen</u>	Percentage
Responses by Teachers			
Patriotic	8.4 %	Responsible / Dutiful	11.2 %
Respectful	7.8 %	Honest	9.1 %
Respects National Symbols / Anthem / Freedom Fighters / Constitution	6.7 %	Disciplined / Well-Behaved	8.4 %
Responsible / Dutiful	6.3 %	Helpful	8 %
Helpful	6.3 %	Kind / Compassionate	6.1 %
Honest	6.3 %	-----	-----
Responses by Students			
Helpful and Kind (poor/ needy/ handicap/ elderly)	23.5 %	Helpful and Kind (poor/ needy/ handicap/ elderly)	18.7 %
Fights for the Nation	10.4 %	Patriotic	9.5 %
Patriotic	14 %	Non-Discriminatory	8.6 %
Cleanliness	10 %	Respects Elders	8.6 %
Law Abiding	6.2 %	Cleanliness	7 %

Table No. 27 (c): Qualities inculcated in a Student to make him/her a Good Citizen: Responses by Teachers and Students

With the objective of addressing the *descriptive* features of pedagogy, especially with reference to citizenship education, the teachers were asked to respond about the methods they thought were fruitful in ensuring effective teaching of the same. On analyzing the responses, it was evident that *incorporation of specific subjects in the curriculum and teaching with the help of lessons enshrined*

in them was amongst the best choices for teachers from both the states (28.1% in UP and 21.8% in HP), but the highest preference in Himachal Pradesh was given to *activities like role-plays, excursions, community work etc.*, (30% in HP and 22.9% in UP). Besides these, teachers in Uttar Pradesh gave tertiary preference to *imitation of teachers or practicing with the teacher in the classroom* (21.9% in UP and 12.4% in HP) while for their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, *talking about role models* (15.5% in HP and 0% in UP) was the next viable course of action. A noteworthy difference can be noticed between the teachers of the two states in areas of *audio-visual aids*, where Himachal Pradesh stood at 9.2 percent as opposed to Uttar Pradesh's 5.2 percent, and *story-telling* as a medium, where teachers in Uttar Pradesh surpassed Himachal Pradesh by approximately a 14 percent difference (20.8% in UP and 6.1% in HP). Lastly, besides *role models*, there was one more strategy that was exclusively highlighted by teachers in Himachal Pradesh and this was *counselling of students* (5% in HP and 0% in UP), on a regular basis. Refer to Figure no. 23 (b) given below for further insights.

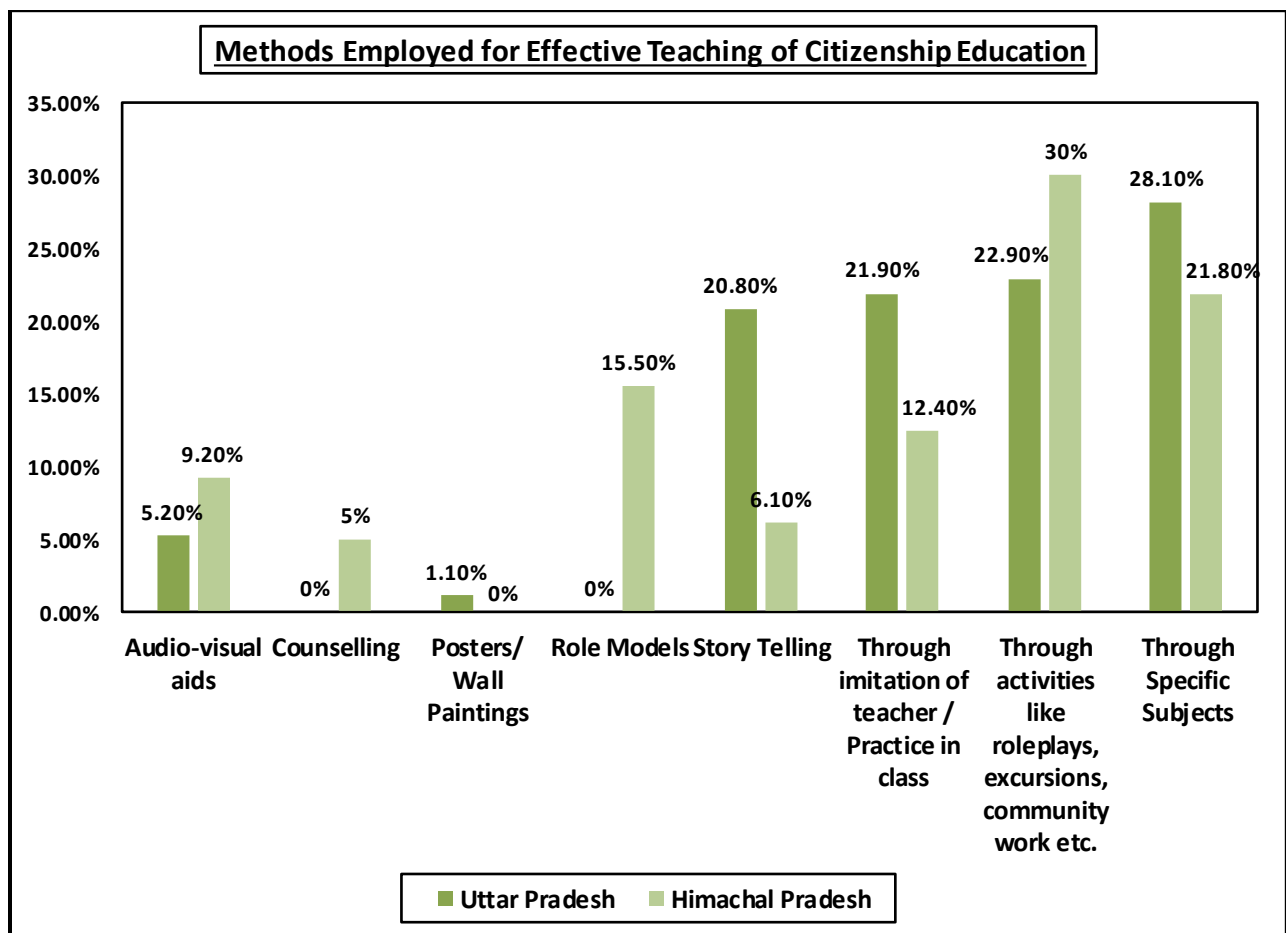


Figure 23 (b): Methods that can be employed for effective teaching of citizenship education

The teachers were also asked to comment on the type of curriculum that would facilitate citizenship education among students. Though the responses received for this open question made references to extra-curricular activities as well, they were incorporated nevertheless. As can be seen in Figure no. 23 (c) given below, the answer that achieved maximum preference was *inclusion of chapters on constitution, fundamental rights and duties*, but there was a huge gap between the two states, as while 34.4 percent of teachers in Uttar Pradesh mentioned it, the figure for Himachal Pradesh stood at 26.1 percent. The two states shared commonality in terms of their second preference, which were *incorporation of examples from the society or inclusion of social issues within the syllabus*. A distinction emerged in the third preference of the teachers, as Uttar Pradesh vouched for *trips or excursions related to social work or activity* (13.5 % in UP and 10.4% in HP), while Himachal Pradesh opted for *inclusion of biographies of leaders and freedom fighters* (21.9% in HP and 9.4% in UP). About 13.5 percent of the teachers in Himachal Pradesh, exclusively, rooted for the *introduction of moral science as a subject*. The similar form of exclusivity in the responses given by Uttar Pradesh teachers was in terms of *induction of students into either National Cadet Corps or National Social Service* (3.1% in UP and 0 % in HP).

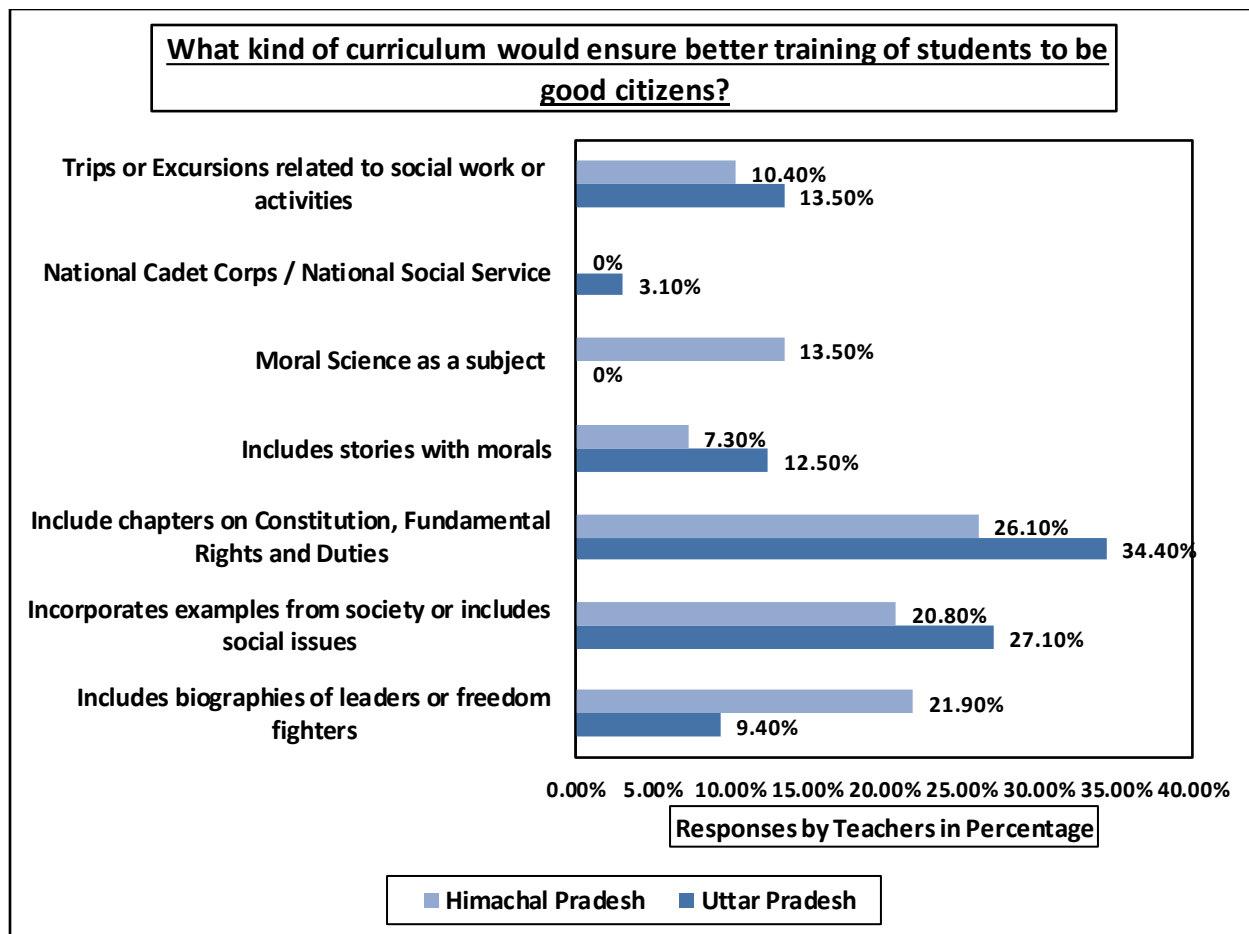


Figure 23 (c): What kind of curriculum would ensure better training of students to be good citizens? -Responses by Teachers

A generic question posed to the teaching community was the benefits they saw in value-based education. Since it was an open-ended question, the teachers cumulatively gave 30 responses, as have been depicted in Table no. 27 (d). The value with the most responses was similar for both the states i.e. acculturation of *better citizens and society* (16.5% in UP and 10.9% in HP). While for the teachers of Uttar Pradesh, the second and third most important benefit of value education was *imparting central principles and values among future citizens* and creation of *responsible citizens* (11.9% for both), for Himachal Pradesh’s respondents, it was *responsible citizens* (8%) and building of *consensus, teamwork or cooperation* (7.6%). The responses that were only mentioned by teachers from Uttar Pradesh were: *better environment, low crime rate, no terrorism, and obedience*. For Himachal Pradesh, these were *democratic decision making, fighting for one’s rights and punctuality*.

<u>Five Benefits of Value Education</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
	Percentage	Percentage
Aware citizens	3.7 %	3.5 %
Better citizens and society	16.5 %	10.9 %
Better environment	2.1 %	0 %
Brotherhood / Fraternity	1.9 %	2.9 %
Cleanliness	1.2 %	0.8 %
Consensus / Team work / Cooperation	5.1 %	7.6 %
Courageous	0.8 %	1.2 %
Democratic decision making	0 %	3.5 %
Difference between right and wrong	1.9 %	1.6 %
Disciplined	0.8 %	4.1 %
Fight for one's rights	0 %	1.6 %
Goal oriented	3.5 %	2.7 %
Healthy mind and body	1.6 %	1.9 %
Helpfulness	3.7 %	2.9 %
Honesty	4.3 %	5.6 %
Imparting central principles and values among future citizens	11.9 %	7.2 %
Increased standard of living	2.9 %	3.1 %
Kindness	2.1 %	4.3 %
Low crime rate	1.6 %	0 %
No corruption	1 %	0.8 %
No discrimination	6.4 %	3.9 %

No terrorism	0.6 %	0 %
Obedient	3.5 %	0 %
Optimism	1.2 %	2.1 %
Patriotism	4.7 %	1 %
Punctuality	0 %	2.9 %
Respect elders	2.3 %	3.1 %
Responsible citizens	11.9 %	8 %
Self confidence	0.8 %	6.8 %
Strength to face challenges / Self Dependence	1.9 %	5.9 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 27 (d): Five Benefits of Value Education: Responses by Teachers

The teachers were further asked to denote whether the *present syllabus was responsible for inculcating values among pupils so that they could become productive and dutiful citizens*. While majority of the participants in both the states answered yes, the proportion for Himachal Pradesh's teachers was as high as 97.9 percent. For further information, refer to Table no. 27 (e).

<u>Is the present syllabus responsible for inculcating values among pupils so that they can become productive and dutiful citizens?</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>		<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>	
	No. of Responses	Percentage	No. of Responses	Percentage
YES	84	87.5 %	94	97.9 %
NO	12	12.5 %	2	2.1 %
TOTAL	96	100 %	96	100 %

Table No. 27 (e): Is the present syllabus responsible for inculcating values among pupils so that they can become productive and dutiful citizens? - Responses by Teachers

Lastly, the teachers were provided with a list of four options to rank the techniques used for imparting citizenship education. As shown in Table No. 27 (f) depicted below, the option that received the highest and second highest percentage of responses from both the states alike, was *applauding or rewarding correct behaviour in class* and *organizing trips to community centers / old age homes/ shelters*. A difference was visible in the third choice, where teachers from Uttar Pradesh opted for *narrating an anecdote or a story*, while teachers from Himachal Pradesh selected *showing movies or audio-visual clips*. Clubbing this last answer with the findings from Figures 16 (a), 17 (a) and 23 (b), it can be aptly derived that, audio-visual aids were a preferable mode of teaching for teachers in Himachal Pradesh

<u>Best Technique for Imparting Citizenship Education</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
Narrating an anecdote or a story	23.1 %	23.6 %
Applauding or rewarding correct behaviour in class	31.1 %	27.6 %
Showing movies or audio-visual clips	22.5 %	24.3 %
Organizing trips to community centers / old age homes/ shelters	23.3 %	24.5 %
Total	100 %	100%

Table No. 27 (f): Best Technique for Imparting Citizenship Education: Responses by Teachers

Thus, with this last finding, the present chapter can be successfully concluded. All other relevant information like limitations of the study, problems faced while conducting the field surveys and focused group discussions, status of the research questions and their answers, status of the hypotheses and the suggestive comments that can be derived on the basis of these findings or the recommendations that can be made, will be covered in the adjoining chapter i.e. the conclusion of this doctoral thesis.

CONCLUSION

Fried (1995) argues that there is a clear connection between passionate teaching and the quality of students' learning:-

- *When students can appreciate their teacher as someone who is passionately committed to a field of study and to upholding high standards within it, it is much easier for them to take their work seriously. Getting them to learn then becomes a matter of inspiration by example rather than by enforcement and obedience.*
- *Without a trusting and respectful relationship among students and teachers, everyone's ability to work collaboratively and to take the kind of risks that learning requires is minimized.*
- *Unless students are able to see the connection between what they are learning and how they might put such learning to work in a real life context, their motivation to excel will remain uneven at best.*

(Fried, 1995, p.47)

Who is a teacher? What duties do students attribute to this figure which plays an important part in their initial stages of life and learning, besides their parents? A research on pedagogy and its variables, with reference to determination of quality of education or understanding its relationship with citizenship education, inherently succumbs to the need of posing this very question to the student community. When the 480 student respondents of this doctoral research endeavour were asked this question, the answers ranged among a list of six functions. Their description and proportion are as follows: -

- Imparts values and tells us about good and bad behaviour (35%)
- Who teaches and explains (34%)
- Trains us to read, write and learn (14%)
- Cares for us (9%)
- Gives class work and homework (4%)
- Scolds us when we are wrong (4%)

What one can make out from these preliminary responses is that the students perceived their educators as figures who were more than just information disseminating bodies and were entities

with which they shared an intimate bond and got to learn about both skills and values. This question is a miniscule representation of what this doctoral thesis proposed to accomplish. Making student responses and opinions, rather than learning outcomes, as one of the focal points of the study, along with *descriptive* pedagogical indicators unearthed from the domains of educational policies like SSA (2002), RTE (2009), NSF (2005), NCFTE (2009), as well as National Focus Group on Education for Peace (2006), this thesis tried to triangulate the problem of pedagogy from three different angles i.e. teachers, students and even retired teachers. While the perspectives of the former two groups have been dealt with, in detail, in the previous chapter, the concerns raised by the latter will be incorporated in this conclusion.

Henceforth, this last part of the thesis will indulge in the status of answers to the research questions which are at the core of this thesis, followed by the status of the three hypotheses, the limitations faced during the course of the study and the scope for future research in the associated field. The suggestive comments or recommendations derived from the findings of this research along with the viewpoints of the retired teachers interviewed will also form a part of this particular chapter.

Status of Research Questions and Hypotheses

The preceding chapter i.e. chapter VI, pursued the task of engaging with the former two research questions i.e. *what are the advisable pedagogical parameters (descriptive features) mentioned in SSA, RTE and NCF and NCFTE and what is the status of teaching and learning in the two states with reference to them? ; and how are these pedagogical indicators linked to the concept of 'citizenship education' and its propagation?* The focus of this concluding chapter will be on the remaining subsidiary research questions and the status of the hypotheses that had been duly proposed at the inception of this research quest.

► Do the teachers employ ABL (Activity Based Learning) or do they still prefer traditional or conventional pedagogical practices?⁶⁶

- Foremost duties of a teacher: - Though educators in both the states equally prioritized the area of *enabling their pupils to discover their respective talents and develop their character*, teachers

⁶⁶ Refer to Annexure I for further information on the various variables selected and questions framed for determining AbilityBased Learning and Traditional Teaching practices.

in Himachal Pradesh ranked higher than teachers in Uttar Pradesh with reference to other ABL techniques like *making teaching and learning joyful* (17% in HP and 15% in UP) and *nurturing an overriding personality* of the children (12% in HP and 9% in UP).

- Best Teaching Method: - Majority respondents in both the states mentioned that ABL methods were the best strategy of imparting knowledge and engaging students.
- Personal teaching style: - Out of the multifarious responses provided to this open-ended query, majority of the teachers in both the states identified their teaching style as *organizing engaging activities*, followed by *group discussions*, but Himachal Pradesh surpassed Uttar Pradesh in terms of the proportion of responses related to *experiential learning* (9.4% in HP and 0% in UP).
- Is Rote learning beneficial or not? : - 55.2% of the teachers in Uttar Pradesh said *yes* to this question, as it helped students in learning faster and retaining the information longer, as compared to 80.2% in Himachal Pradesh, who disregarded it as a memorization pattern, because children forgot fast whatever they learnt through rote learning and lacked conceptual clarity. Thus, rote learning or memorization, which was foundationally antithetical to ABL, gained considerable support in UP than HP.
- Noticeable flaws in the teaching mechanisms of colleagues: - While *lack of proper knowledge of the subject* and *being short tempered or having a rude behaviour* were the popular responses in UP and HP, respectively, 14.2% teachers in HP as compared to 3.1% in UP, mentioned that *stagnant approach or not bringing any changes in one's pattern of teaching* was a major concern. This depicts that, educators in Himachal Pradesh were vigilant in ridiculing the prevalent dependence on traditional teaching practices.
- Description of classroom environment: - Majority teachers in both the states described the classroom environment as being filled with *recurrent questioning and answering sessions*, but its magnitude was higher in Himachal Pradesh (60.5% in UP and 79.2% in HP).
- Methods of ensuring classroom discipline: - Based on the responses received, while Uttar Pradesh's teachers rated *appreciation of appropriate student behaviour in order to encourage others* (29.2%) as the better strategy for maintaining discipline, their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, opted for *engagement of students in some form of class activity* (31.4%) as a worthy tactic, followed by *appreciation of good behavioural pattern* (28.2%). Besides this, both the

states gave least preference to traditional teaching methods like infusing *fear of punishment* or *reprimanding and scolding students*.

- Ensuring maximum participation within class: - Based on the responses given, UP teachers preferred traditional teaching practices like *asking questions, making students read aloud* or *reprimanding non-enthusiastic participants*, than their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh, who ranked slightly higher in ABL strategies like *organizing group activities* (17.4% in HP and 13.8% in UP) and *making use of audio-visual aids and projectors* (17.5% in HP and 14.2% in UP).
- Response to particular situations or wrongdoings committed by students: - When asked as to how they would have responded if they found their students in any of these situations e.g. cheating, eating in class, being disrespectful, abusing or using foul language, being late for class, beating classmates or bringing mobile phones, the teachers in Himachal Pradesh prioritized strategies like *encouraging behavioural changes, inculcation of values like honesty, punctuality and companionship, counselling* and *trying to know the reason for such an action committed by students in the first place*. What can be duly gathered from these responses is that the educators in Himachal Pradesh picked milder reparative measures, as compared to teachers in Uttar Pradesh, whose favourable responses were ranged between *encouraging behavioural changes, warning and punishing*. By doing so, the former group naturally aligned itself with the salient dynamics of joyful teaching and learning experience and effective ability-based learning. When the students were asked a similar query, 90 % in UP, as opposed to 74.2 % in HP, answered affirmatively to having received punishment. Out of these students, majority i.e. 48.2 % in UP mentioned that they were either *hit or beaten with hand or sticks* by their teachers, while the majority in Himachal Pradesh responded being *warned or scolded* (50.5%). This depicts that traditional pedagogical practices, of administering corporeal punishment on learners, was still prevalent in UP. Though Himachal Pradesh was not completely devoid of it, but its concentration was almost negligible (10.4%).
- Teaching aids preferred: - While ranking teaching aids in order of preference, teachers in Himachal Pradesh scored higher than Uttar Pradesh in moving beyond traditional aids like *blackboards* and selecting *group discussions* (22.8% in HP and 18.3% in UP) and *roleplays/dramas/poems/hymns* (20.9% in HP and 16.3% in UP). Students' responses, on the other hand, ranked Uttar Pradesh higher in the category of *roleplays/dramas/poems/hymns*, but lesser in

the utilization of modern technologically advanced aids like audio-visuals and PPTs. Furthermore, Himachal Pradesh also fared better than Uttar Pradesh, in showing audio-visual clips and movies to students, for educational purposes, by a margin of 16%.

- **Healthy Classroom Environment:** - Teachers in Himachal Pradesh proportionately had higher rankings for variables either associated with or mutually facilitating Ability Based Learning, and these were: *active participation of students* (25.4% in HP and 15.6% in UP), *good relationship between students and teachers* (18.3% in HP and 9.7% in UP), *stress-free and joyful environment* (13.3% in HP and 7.9% in UP), and lastly, *organization of engaging activities* (14.6% in HP and 10.1% in UP).
- **Problems associated with teaching as a profession:** - A crucial finding from this particular query was that 11.1% of the teachers in HP, as opposed to 0% in UP, mentioned *traditional teaching methods* and practices as a major concern that had to be done away with, though *too much workload* remained as the foremost problematic area for both the states alike.
- **Purpose of Exams:** - Teachers in both Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh ranked the four options given in the following order: *To maintain a check on whether the students are learning whatever is being taught* > *To attach a purpose to education in general* > *To promote competitiveness* > *To examine and rank the memorizing capacity of students*. This prioritization depicts that both the states showed divergence from traditional teaching, especially with reference to perspectives on examinations, as examining the memorization capacity of students was the least opted variable among all the options provided.
- **Most important duty of a student:** - Students in Himachal Pradesh, as compared to Uttar Pradesh, gave more preference to ABL variables like *learning and putting that knowledge to better use* (27% in HP and 25.7% in UP), and less preference to *scoring good grades* (20% in HP and 22% in UP) or *memorizing what has been taught in class* (19% in HP and 21.7% in UP), which were representative of traditional teaching and learning patterns.
- **Students' responses to questions about teachers:** - Majority students in Uttar Pradesh said that they were *scared of their teachers* and the *teachers were strict*, while majority in Himachal Pradesh responded otherwise. When asked as to whether *they were hesitant in asking questions or answering in class*, 37.1% students in UP responded *yes*, as compared to 27.9% in HP. Lastly, when asked about whether they *enjoyed learning* or not, maximum respondents from

both the states responded *yes*, but the proportion was comparatively higher in Himachal Pradesh (97.1% in HP and 87.9% in UP).

- What I dislike about studies? : - While *not understanding what is being taught in class* and *too much of homework* stood as the popular responses by students of UP and HP, respectively, the second most prioritized response for Uttar Pradesh was *rote learning or memorization* (16.1% in UP and 9.2% in HP), thus, raising a concern about preference of traditional teaching-learning practices in the former state.
- How do you perceive your teacher?: - 43.3% students in Himachal Pradesh responded that their teachers were *friendly*, while only 32.9% students in Uttar Pradesh felt so.

A cumulative analysis of all these responses by the teachers and students of the two states, depicts that teachers in Himachal Pradesh propagated and practiced ability -based learning strategies, while teachers in Uttar Pradesh preferred ABL but had some remaining favouritism towards traditional teaching and learning practices, which was depicted in their current teaching practices and management styles and also among the answers given by their students. Besides this, it can also be safely concluded that Himachal Pradesh performed better than Uttar Pradesh in terms of proximity to the attainment of pedagogical standards and goals mentioned in the four educational policies, that were selected at the onset of this research.

Since this section primarily deals with teaching methods and practices, the status of two of the hypotheses dealing with generic pedagogical knowledge or pedagogical methods and *descriptive* pedagogical indicators pitched against pupil-teacher ratio, should also be analyzed.

- **Hypothesis 1: - ‘Descriptive’ pedagogical indicators are a more influential variable than Pupil-Teacher Ratio in determining the quality of education.**
- **Status of Hypothesis: - Validated**
- **Reasons: -**
 - i. Since majority of teacher respondents in Uttar Pradesh denoted 41 -50 students as their present class strength (31.2%), followed by 51+ students (23.9%), and of the same teachers, majority (71.9%) responded the present class strength was manageable for them, it can be safely assumed that pupil-teacher ratio was a lesser concern for them. Similarly, 36.4% (majority) teachers in Himachal Pradesh mentioned 21-30 students as the current class strength, followed by 31-40

(29.2%) and 41-50 (22.9%) students, respectively. 94.8% of the total teachers agreed that the class strength was manageable for them. Though these figures positively denote that the strength of the class was not a major worry for these educators, a discrepancy does emerge while considering their answers to the next interrelated query of ideal PTR according to them, where majority teachers from both the states landed in the category of 30:1.

- ii. When the teachers of both the states were asked to rank the reasons for underperformance by teachers in order of preference, the resultant arrangement of the variables was: - *Overburdened with work* > *Engagement in Non-curricular activities* > *Lack of pre-service or in-service training* > *Too many students* > *Less pay*. This hierarchy is a clear representation of the fact that PTR was a lesser concern for them.
- iii. Lastly, while commenting on the various reasons associated with teaching as a profession (open ended query), around 16 factors (shown in Table No. 25 (b)) were mentioned by the respondents and none of them was related to class strength or PTR or SCR.

- **Hypothesis 3: - Teachers have least cognizance of the various pedagogical methods and strategies at their disposal.**

- **Status of Hypothesis: - Invalidated**

- **Reasons: -**

- i. 85 and 81 teachers in Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, collectively, out of a total of 192, acknowledged recognizing 0-3 and 4-6 methods, respectively. Besides this, 19 teachers also fell in the category of having knowledge about more than 7 methods.
- ii. The generic pedagogical knowledge of teachers in Himachal Pradesh surpassed that of educators in Uttar Pradesh, not only in terms of the number of teaching methods, but also their personal teaching styles and the changes desired by them.

Besides the ultimate choice between Ability Based Learning and Traditional methods, the other crucial question posed by this thesis was about the comparative analysis of the actualization of *prescribed capabilities* by students and teachers in the two states. The upcoming section will first focus on the comparative analysis of the *prescribed capabilities* of students, followed by teachers, and the status of the last hypothesis which is associated with it.

► **How do the two states fare in terms of realization of their “prescribed” capabilities, by students and teachers alike?**

- i. Majority of the students in Himachal Pradesh claimed that they were not scared of their teachers and the teachers were not strict, while the majority in Uttar Pradesh reported otherwise.
- ii. 37% students in Uttar Pradesh felt hesitant in asking questions or giving answers in the class, while the figure for Himachal Pradesh was only 27.9%.
- iii. 87.9% of students in Uttar Pradesh, as opposed to 97.1% in Himachal Pradesh responded that they enjoyed learning.
- iv. 32.9% of students in Uttar Pradesh found their teacher friendly, while the figure for the same variable in Himachal Pradesh was 43.3%.
- v. Instances of corporeal punishment administered on students were higher in Uttar Pradesh (48.2%) than Himachal Pradesh (10.4%).
- vi. Students in Uttar Pradesh responded *not understanding what is being taught* and *rote learning/memorization* as their popular answers for disliking studies, while for Himachal Pradesh the primary factor was *too much homework* followed by *not understanding what is being taught*. Furthermore, with regards to not liking studies due to the *teachers not teaching well* and *hitting them*, students in Uttar Pradesh ranked higher than Himachal Pradesh.
- vii. 57.7% of the students in Uttar Pradesh preferred tuition teachers to class teachers as opposed to 60.4% in Himachal Pradesh, who preferred class teachers to tuition teachers.

Based on these responses, it can be positively ascertained that ‘prescribed capabilities’ of students, in terms of providing them an environment where they are less stressed and fearful, are able to engage actively, have freedom to be and do what they want, are provided with adequate resources in terms of both learning materials and skilled, friendly, less aggressive and patient teachers, and are free from corporeal punishment, were *more realizable for students in Himachal Pradesh than Uttar Pradesh*.

The ‘prescribed capabilities’ of the teachers can be indicated with the help of the *descriptive* pedagogical indicators that have been selected during the course of this doctoral thesis, since these variables have been selected on the basis of the aims, objectives and even policy recommendations mentioned in the four national educational initiatives i.e. SSA (2002), NCF (2005), NCFTE (2009)

and RTE (2009). Based on the findings of the study, the following observations can be utilized for determining whether ‘prescribed capabilities’ of the teachers were actualized or not.

- i. 14% teachers in Uttar Pradesh, as opposed to 0% in Himachal Pradesh, rated the resources available for them as inadequate and inefficient. 38.5% and 59.4% of teachers in UP and HP, respectively, claimed that the teaching-learning materials and infrastructure made available to them was efficient and adequate. Thus, in terms of capability inputs and conversion factors, educators in Himachal Pradesh, were relatively blessed.
- ii. Uttar Pradesh showed higher percentage of involvement by teachers in Non-Teaching Activities like Panchayats, other community related work, and administrative work, than their counterparts in Himachal Pradesh. Teachers in HP, on the other hand, reported high concentration in activities like invigilation, training and organization of extra-curricular activities and events, which were already an indelible part and parcel of their pedagogical duties.
- iii. When asked about the ideal participation ratio of educators in Curricular: Non-Curricular Activities, the majority in Uttar Pradesh responded 70:30, while Himachal Pradesh teachers adhered to 50:50. This depicts that despite their claim of involvement in such activities was not having a detrimental impact on their teaching time and other affiliated responsibilities, teachers in Uttar Pradesh did feel that their capabilities were not being actualized in the current pattern of work allocation.
- iv. Both the states ranked almost equal in terms of stating *too much workload* (28.8% in UP and 31.2% in HP) as the major problem faced by them and responsible for inhibiting their professional growth, as well as, physical and mental wellbeing.
- v. With reference to level of one’s satisfaction with their profession, Himachal Pradesh’s teachers fared better, as majority of them said it was *high* (54.2%), as opposed to majority in Uttar Pradesh which opted for *medium* level (52.1%).
- vi. Uttar Pradesh performed slightly better than Himachal Pradesh in the category of satisfaction of teachers with reference to the curriculum being taught by them (68.8% in UP and 60.4% in HP).
- vii. The majority teachers in Uttar Pradesh responded 41-50 students as the average class strength, while the numbers for Himachal Pradesh was 21-30 students. Though both the groups regarded the strength to be manageable, the latter state stood at proximity to the nationally endorsed PTR of 30:1.

- viii. Uttar Pradesh witnessed better performance as a state in the area of participation of teachers in curriculum renewal programmes (59.4% in UP and 46.8% in HP).
- ix. 54.2% of the teachers in Himachal Pradesh, as opposed to 39.6% in Uttar Pradesh, claimed that conflicts between them and the administration staff were resolved through collective decision making and democratic voting. Besides this, the former also performed better in terms of having lesser instances of issues remaining unresolved.

Based on the cumulative analysis of these factors, it can be said that as compared to teachers in Himachal Pradesh, *Uttar Pradesh's teachers had weaker prospects of actualizing their 'prescribed capabilities.'* Though they did have exceptional outcomes in one or two regions, their overall performance was dismal. Teachers in Himachal Pradesh, on the other hand, not only received positive reviews in terms of teaching, understanding capacity and behaviour, by their respective students, but were blessed with adequate capability inputs, were relatively more satisfied with their profession, and had less pressure in terms of engagement in non-teaching activities. This, eventually leads us to the status of the last and final hypothesis of this doctoral thesis: -

- **Hypothesis 2: - Teachers and Students in UP are unable to actualize their prescribed capabilities, as compared to HP.**
- **Status of Hypothesis: - Validated**

Thus, a comparative analysis of *descriptive* pedagogical indicators in the two states, formulated with the help of the focal variables underlying the capability approach to social justice, was able to provide a sturdy framework of determining quality of education. The intermingling of the perspectives of the two groups of stakeholders of education i.e. teachers and students, was able to render a wholesome view to the problem at hand i.e. determination of quality of education by incorporating pedagogy into its domain.

Though arguments in favour of a comparative study, rather than a focalized case study of one state, were entertained in the beginning of the doctoral thesis, an area that remained under-deliberated was the question of whether the capability approach was genuinely indispensable for the research or could *descriptive* pedagogical indicators be selected from the policies, without the intervention of focal variables of the capability approach? The answer to this introspecting

question lays in the fact that implementation of norms and provisions associated with educational policies and schemes, does not only pertain to the responsibilities that the school, its administration and staff has to abide by. It simultaneously adheres to the autonomy and agency of these institutions and personnel, to experience the rights, autonomy and privileges granted to them by the very initiatives E.g. in order to ensure experiential and joyful learning within the classroom, the proportion of amenities, TLM and aids provided to the educators or their agency to organize impromptu trips without hindrances, or their ability to engage in some form of in-service training associated with this form of teaching-learning strategy, are some unavoidable interrelated factors. A study of *descriptive* pedagogical indicators, without the necessary perspective lens of the capability approach, would lack content and credibility, as it would be nothing but amalgamation of teaching related variables picked up from the official documents of the policies. With the due incorporation of the capability paradigm in understanding the problem of pedagogy and quality of education, the discussion was shifted from mere implementation status of the educational policies and programmes, to the agency of teachers and students and their respective capabilities to meet these targets, by inducting variables like conversion factors, capability inputs, counterfactual choice, comprehensive outcomes and even impartial spectators (retired teachers) into the research methodology. The inclusion of these variables provided a lens with the help of which many of the questions were framed and the status of teachers and students was not reduced to ‘service providers’ or ‘recipients of information’, respectively. Thus, considering them as agents, changed the dynamics of approaching the issue of pedagogy and quality of education.

Besides this, the whole concept of citizenship education, training and teaching students in such a manner that they would eventually inculcate and imbibe desirable values of good citizenship, was very much linked to the idea of freedom to be what one wants to be. As has been formerly argued in chapter IV, by Madoka Saito, children cannot be treated as a completely independent category as they lack experiences and knowledge of the plethora of options available to them, and therefore the decisions made by adults for them cannot be regarded as lack of freedom. Krishna Kumar, in his work, *What is Worth Teaching?* (1992), made a congruent claim that children were incapable of determining what is worth learning because: firstly, they were interested in many things at one point of time; secondly, they were inherently ignorant about multifarious issues, and lastly, their wants and desires fluctuated erratically. It is because of these reasons that reliance upon a state initiated and popularized notion of ‘good citizen’ and its accompanying values, was

acceptable, and capabilities of both teachers and students with reference to its attainment could be analyzed accordingly.

Limitations Experienced during the Course of Study

The researcher witnessed the following two issues during the data collection process. Firstly, the researcher had prepared a class observation module in order to ensure that triangulation was successfully attained, but during the course of pilot study and the first round of data collection in Uttar Pradesh, it was realized by her that, many schools were unwilling to permit this method of data collection. Since the researcher had to meet the target of 48 schools (24 per state), with a high probability of rejection, especially because of this particular strategy, the researcher decided to forfeit the strategy and instead opted for simultaneous interviewing and questioning of student respondents and conducting focused-group discussions among them. This helped the researcher to not only gauge the opinions of the pupils in general, but also to determine the authenticity of the answers given by teachers during the course of the survey. Thus, what seemed like a point of dejection and lacuna in the beginning, turned out to be a blessing in disguise. Nevertheless, the researcher still holds the view that an intensive study on pedagogical indicators can further be executed (by a single researcher) only if the numbers of schools and respondents are reduced, and there is availability of more time or no limitation of expenses.

Secondly, sometimes, rather than covering 8 schools per district, the researcher ended up surveying 9-10 schools. This was due to hindrances like: -

- i. A head teacher or principal being present in the same room where the interaction was being held in order to monitor their responses or hint them about possible choices of answers. Their mere presence made both the respondents and researcher uncomfortable and not at ease to discuss questions like availability of resources, relationship with administration, satisfaction with job and curriculum and their views about problems with teaching as a profession or reasons for underperformance of educators.
- ii. Since the collection of data required two days per school, sometimes three since the teachers were quite busy, some teachers became absent the next day despite making a commitment and when they were contacted, some of them said that they wouldn't be coming for two-three days, thus stalling the surveys and interviews there and then.

- iii. There were two specific instances where the head teacher allowed the surveys and interviews in the absence of the principal and vice principal, and when the latter returned, they stopped the process midway, thus rendering the data already collected incomplete and redundant. Thus, the fear of disclosing integral information about/by teachers and students, incited these gatekeepers to get their schools excused from the research concerned.

Besides these two issues, there was another major concern that was realized by the researcher during the course of the study. Some of the questions formulated for the three groups of respondents could have been perfected if they were supplemented by sub-questions, because without these affiliated queries, the responses rendered were lacking in some form or the other and formidable conclusions couldn't be arrived at e.g. while asking about whether the teachers were aware of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation strategy, the teachers could further be given examples of summative and formative assessments techniques and asked about which ones they preferred. Similarly, supplementary questions could be attached with the queries associated with examinations, parent teacher meetings and curriculum renewal programmes, to gain deeper insight into these realms of pedagogy.

Overall, these were the three limitations or hiccups faced by the researcher, but they were nevertheless satisfactorily checked and addressed, barring the last one.

Recommendations and Policy Reforms

Before engaging directly with the educational and pedagogical reforms that can be suggested, based on the findings of this doctoral thesis, a discussion on the views generated by the retired teachers on the same issues, needs special attention. 11 retired teachers (7 from Uttar Pradesh and 4 from Himachal Pradesh) were contacted for the purpose and the questionnaires duly filled by them were incorporated in the study. Coincidentally, all the retired teachers approached through snowballing sampling method, were females, and five were from private schools and six from government schools. The primary focus was on their opinions regarding teaching methods, problems faced by teachers and the major modifications required in the pedagogical styles as well

as the education system in general⁶⁷. Based on the responses given, the following discoveries were made: -

- The three aspects of a healthy classroom environment that gained the highest preference were *engaging classes, encouraging atmosphere* and *interactive classroom sessions*.
- The factors affecting the performance of teachers mentioned in a descending order were: *Too much involvement in non-curricular activities* (33.3%) > *Overburdened with work* (24%) > *Lack of pre-service or in-service training* (22.6%) > *Less pay or incentive* (10.7%) > *Too many students* (9.4%). The parity that this hierarchy shared with the responses given by teachers of Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh was that the top three reasons remained the same. Too many students or PTR as a factor was moved further down the priority list.
- When inquired about the resources that should be made more available to teachers in the present context, the top most choices of the retired teachers were: *audio-visual aids* and *pre-recorded lectures*.
- Ranking of the major problems faced by the Indian education system was as follows: *Poor infrastructure* (20%) > *Lack of trained teachers* (18.8%) > *Poor quality of teaching style* (16.6%) > *Deplorable state of teacher education and training* (15.3%) > *Numerous vacancies or unfilled positions* (15.1%) > *Lack of funding* (7.1%) > *Overburdening syllabus* (7.1%). Thus, besides poor provisioning, the following three issues that were ranked the highest were directly related to teacher education, training and pedagogy.
- Lastly, when asked to mention any one particular reform that they would like the education system to undergo, the retired teachers mentioned factors like: *proper training of teachers in methods, curtailing rote memorization, collaboration with foreign schools and encouraging vocational education*.

Apart from these concerns raised by the retired educators, the primary recommendations that can be made on the basis of the findings of this research study, have been encapsulated in the pointers enumerated below: -

i. Teacher Education and Training

⁶⁷ Refer to Annexure V – Questionnaire for Retired Teachers.

- The present teaching staff can undergo in-service training or attend workshops regarding the attributes they should inculcate and the undesirable characteristics they should dispose of, based on the combined responses generated by the teachers and students of the two states e.g. teachers should be encouraged to be *dedicated, loving and understanding, polite, patient, punctual, impartial*, and should be warned against qualities like *being short tempered, strict, beating or hitting students, and administering punishment*.
- Teachers in Himachal Pradesh ranked higher in the two categories of: - *academic qualification* and the *number of teaching methods known to them*, which can be the possible reasons behind their pro-activeness in organizing engaging activities, acknowledging the drawbacks of traditional teaching methods like rote learning and lecture method, utilizing audio-visual aids, indulging more in ability based learning and child-centric teaching practices, and their pupils having more faith in them in terms of their teaching abilities and subject knowledge. Thus, adequate measures can be taken in terms of recruitment of teachers in the states, so that these two qualifications are enhanced and promoted, either through training of educators in generic pedagogical knowledge, or raising the educational bar (qualification), not only for their recruitment, but also for their promotion or accessing career-related incentives.
- The discrepancy between the answers given by teachers and students with reference to the punishments administered by the teachers, calls for a rigorous training of the staff in promotion of non-corporeal punishment tactics, which were already being successfully adhered to by teachers in Himachal Pradesh. These strategies are: *counselling of students by a professional, warning them rather than punishing them straight away, informing parents, trying to know the reason behind the act and inculcation of values among the wrongdoers to bring about lifetime behavioural changes among them*.
- In Himachal Pradesh, majority students preferred the class teacher over their tuition teachers, while in Uttar Pradesh it was vice versa. It was discovered that *command over content knowledge, better communication and explanation skills, lack of physical punishment and scolding and having a friendly demeanour* were the reasons for these choices and therefore during the pre-service and in-service training of the teaching staff, these properties should be given extra attention.

ii. *Teaching Methods*

Though maximum teachers in both the states envisaged Ability Based Learning methods and organization of engaging activities, as best teaching practices, in practice their reliance was more on traditional teaching-learning methods like rote memorization and less usage of exciting and engaging activities in the class to facilitate active participation by students (Table 19 b & i), especially when it came to the pedagogical indicators pertaining to UP teachers. Thus, appropriate training can be delivered to teachers in these areas as well so that they are able to expand their *generic pedagogical knowledge* associated with multifarious methods of teaching, classroom management, organization tactics, understanding of pupils' learning patterns and their subsequent evaluation. Some of the pedagogical methods that can be learnt from the better performing state (in this case Himachal Pradesh), in terms of actualization of "prescribed capabilities" of educators and students alike, are: - more reliance on audio-visuals aids as it enhances students' engagement and attention; being creative and thinking out of the box in order to organize activities which are engaging and thrilling for the learners; linking the static course content with the current affairs and contemporary social issues, so that the students can grasp better and relate to whatever is being conveyed; and installation of feedback systems for both teachers and students, so that their concerns can be duly addressed. Similarly, the methods that can be pursued and propagated for effective teaching of citizenship education are: role-plays, excursions, community work and trips to animal shelters and old age homes; inclusion of a new subject e.g. moral science, through which the pupils can attain preliminary information about the constitution, fundamental rights and duties; incorporation of social issues and daily life correlations while teaching; using eminent role models (freedom fighters or contemporary leaders from multifarious fields e.g. sports, business, academics, philosophy and spiritual wellbeing), and their speeches and acts as a medium for inspiring the younger generation; and inclusion of a zero period of 15-20 minutes each day (for all classes from I to VIII), before starting any lecture, where the teachers can decide about a 'value of the day' and explain it to the students and then the students can share relatable examples or personal anecdotes and experiences regarding the same (inspired from HIM Academy School in Hamirpur, Himachal Pradesh). These methods, if adopted, can bring forth monumental changes in the education system.

iii. Teaching Aids

Besides equipping the educators with basic teaching aids like blackboards, tables and chairs, textbooks and stationery, the three resources that should be readily made available to them, based on the responses are: *audio-visual aids, recorded lectures, smart boards and smart classes, more basic teaching learning materials, and training opportunities for teachers*. These requests coincidentally are congruent to the majority responses given by retired teachers, as discussed earlier. Besides provisioning interventions by school authorities, adequate training should also be provided to teachers to utilize the technologically advanced aids efficiently e.g. ability to connect the projector to the laptop and play content.

iv. Covert Investigation Tools

Covert researches and investigations can be conducted by bodies set up by the Ministry of Education, on random dates, either through class interviews or household surveys, to focus on the problem of private tuitions. This way genuine information can be gathered about which school teachers are stealthily engaging in private tuitions. Secondly, the same strategy can also be used for questioning students about the types and forms of punishments given to them, in order to see which schools and teachers are still practising traditional corporeal punishment methods and stringent actions can be taken against them. This research, in itself, is a manifestation of how the students experienced joyful and stress-free learning, when less stringent measures were adopted by teachers, and therefore the whole premise behind corporeal punishment, be it to discipline the class or the mere impatience on the part of the teacher, stands redundant and must be replaced by milder mechanisms.

v. Miscellaneous Policy Interventions

- The Ministry of Education can take steps to formalize the proposed ratio between curricular and non-curricular activities of teachers as 70:30. This can be achieved by hiring more non-academic staff for these clerical responsibilities, especially the administration and panchayat related works. Since *too much workload* was repeatedly cited as the main concern faced by educators, active reforms in the concerned areas should not be sidelined. Besides hiring non-academic staff, allotment of a Zero Period of 30 to 40 minutes, for the teachers, to deal with

some of these tasks, every single day, can reduce their burden to some extent, and not hamper their primary pedagogical prerogatives (personally recommended by some respondents).

- In order to maintain punctuality and discipline in terms of regular attendance within the classroom, a universalized biometric system, for determining the time of arrival, along with the dates of presence and absence of teachers and students alike, can be installed in all schools (successfully being used in certain schools of South India already).
- Furthermore, mobile phones of both students and teachers must be deposited before entering the school premises and returned only during recess or after school hours, except for emergencies. By this method, the concerns of safety, accessibility, discipline (for both teachers and students), and distraction, can all be addressed simultaneously (recommended on the basis of practices being followed by two of the well performing/ranking private schools in Himachal Pradesh i.e. Auckland House School and HIM Academy).
- Besides hectic workload, lack of remuneration or salary was a major concern among the teaching faculty. Though government school teachers get a stipulated salary, private school teachers or contractual teachers do not share this privilege. Official norms denoting the least level of salary or pay scale, according to the level of education, can be formulated and implemented in all schools (private, government or government-aided), so that salaries disbursed below that level would not be permissible. Besides this, an audit system (either overt or covert) is also required to ensure that such provisions are being implemented. Help can also be taken from Grievances Cells in schools or Feedback Systems, as talked about earlier.
- Rules for resolution of conflicts between the teaching staff and administrative staff can also be formulated so that there is less dependence on directors and head of departments and more on collective decision making and redressal of grievances through democratic voting. Small ballot boxes can be instituted for this purpose and their maintenance would not require much investment. Besides this, since these groups are not very large, decisions through this method can be tabulated and made that very day, in front of the respective audience.
- Political influence in transfers of teachers, in the government sector, was cited by teachers in both the states, as one of the major problems experienced by them in this profession. They believed that this not only hampered their pedagogy, but also the rapport built by them with their students, over the period of 3 years, which was eventually thwarted due to such practices, and these transfers would further disrupt their personal lifestyle which would have an impact

on their teaching responsibilities. These teachers collectively mentioned that increase of duration of teaching in one location, from 3 to at-least 6 years would be a progressive reform in the direction.

vi. Curriculum Reforms: -

- One of the major issues pointed out in relation to the curriculum, especially in Uttar Pradesh, was that it was *lengthy or exhaustive*. In *What is Worth Teaching (1992)*, Krishna Kumar talked about how colonial policies had reduced the education system to a “textbook culture” dominated by rote learning, impartial examinations patterns, curriculum not attached to the linguistic and socio-cultural milieu of the learners, and reduction of the status of teachers from autonomous decision makers to “meek dictators” whose sole objective was to complete the syllabus on time along with performing some other miscellaneous administrative works. The Yashpal Committee of 1993, entitled *Learning Without Burden*, raised a similar concern about schoolbags getting heavier with every passing generation, and the Right to Education Act of 2009 surprisingly complimented the archaic-colonial instruction of sticking to the syllabus, by stating that one of the prerogatives of the teacher was to ensure that the syllabus was completed in a time-bound manner. Kumar, henceforth, aptly characterized that what would eventually manifest from such a culture was the blame that the curriculum was lengthy and tiresome, rather than the fact that there were problems with its very bureaucratic conceptualization which discouraged the teaching staff from adopting any exciting or engaging pedagogical tools as everything had to be eventually mugged up by the pupils and lecture method accompanied by recitation and rote memorization seemed like the easier way out. Thus, this called for a deliberative recalibration of the curriculum so that viewpoints of all the stakeholders were adequately represented and the textbooks were more connected to the social milieu of the learners so that they could easily relate to it (Kumar, 2002). A similar concern is raised in the ensuing point when the concerns of HP teachers, regarding the curriculum, are taken into consideration.
- The teachers in Himachal Pradesh pointed out that the syllabus was *too theoretical or factual, was not related to the social milieu or was non-contextual in nature and content and could have been made more interesting and engaging*. They vociferously confronted its deep orientation towards fact-based content rather than conceptual knowledge, and how the syllabus

was non-comprehensible and non-relatable for the pupils as the examples and stories laden within it were from different countries, thus making explaining by educators and understanding by students difficult. Furthermore, the claim that the content of the textbooks was boring and not engaging enough, was also a major point of concern. These views should be acknowledged by National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and other curriculum planning and formulating bodies, so that fruitful alterations can be expected in the new National Curriculum Framework, that is undergoing formulation at the present moment.

These recommendations and suggestions are a direct manifestation of the findings of the research and if taken care of, can bring forth some commendable progressive modifications in the field of elementary education, in both private and public sector.

Scope for Future Research and Studies in the Area

With the advent of debates on conceptualization of quality of education, pedagogy has subsequently occupied a predominant space in these discussions. Scholars from not only the field of education, but also multidisciplinary backgrounds like sociology, economics, political science and philosophy, have delved into the discourse from time to time. This doctoral thesis was one such engagement with the problem of theorization of quality of education, by focusing on *descriptive* pedagogical indicators selected from public policies. The capabilities approach to justice, as envisaged by Amartya Sen, was used as the political lens through which the abovementioned problem was dissected and analyzed. The uniqueness of this study further lies in its methodology where rather than focusing on learning outcomes of pupils, the perspectives of students were taken into consideration and the questions posed to them were congruent to the ones addressed to their teachers. This very procedure converted the perception of students and teachers from “receivers of information” and “disseminators of information” respectively, to active participating agents and decision makers within the classroom. Rather than adhering to quantification of pedagogical indicators only dealing with the achievement of educational objectives, the thesis expanded the domain of research by utilizing open-ended questions, vignettes and counterfactual choice based queries, to ask educators about their opinions on effective pedagogical styles and necessary modifications required, classroom management and organization strategies, utilization of teaching aids and their take on the various aspects of teaching-and-learning in particular, and education in general.

The realization-based-comparison approach i.e. studying the teaching and learning processes, through the perspectives of teachers and students, in two different states, who had stark differences in terms of their past performances in educational indicators, that formed the backdrop of this research endeavour, and was adjunct to the capabilities paradigm, further provided a strong foothold to the objective of this doctoral thesis. The inter-state comparison of *descriptive* pedagogical indicators provided a platform for determining not only how the two states were performing, but also whether this performance in pedagogy and citizenship education was aligned with their performance in archaic educational variables, and what could be learnt from the data gathered. Thus, the observation of the problem from a political lens, broadened the horizon of intercepting quality of education by studying *descriptive* pedagogical variables from the perspective of two primary stakeholders of education. The opinions of ‘impartial spectators’ i.e. retired teachers, was also included, in order to enrich the comparative angle by trying to understand what were the major concerns perceived by them and whether they were similar or distinct to the ones raised by the present generation of educators.

The political observation of pedagogy as a variable for determining quality of education in the two states of Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, through the capability approach, has opened up a plethora of domains that need to be explored. By incorporation of class observation strategies, followed by interviewing of other stakeholders of education like government officials in education department, parents, head-teachers and principals, and channelizing all these methods towards observation of different aspects of pedagogy i.e. teaching methods, classroom organization and management, beliefs and thought processes of educators, online classes, advent of technologically advanced aids and their accruing advantages and drawbacks etc., more intensive and breakthrough studies, with promising prospects, can be conducted. With the concoction of triangulation methodology and multidisciplinary approach to understanding quality of education and expanding the notion of social justice in the field of education from universal accessibility, equal right, no discrimination and adequate provisioning, to treating its primary stakeholders i.e. teachers, students and parents as agents and taking their opinions and perspectives into consideration during policy formulation and official decision making, a whole new possibility of conducting creative and pragmatic researches (as advocated by Robin Alexander and W. Lawrence Neuman, respectively) can be opened up. Furthermore, the interaction between macro-level educational policies and the micro-level processes occurring within the premises of schools and classrooms,

an area which this particular doctoral research did try to delve into, in itself provides a good launching pad for indulging in such out of the box research domains pertaining to the problem of the widening gap between ‘quality education’ and ‘quality of education’.

The researcher believes that neglecting pedagogy while studying about the problems of education and while determining quality of education would come at a high unprecedented cost to the entire nation, especially when parental apathy towards the wards (as cited by a majority of respondents) and the rising dependence on tuition or coaching classes are perceived as the prevalent trends. One of the questions posed to the students during the survey was what was their favourite subject and why? Based on the answers given by them, as depicted in the table no. 28 given below, majority of students i.e. 39.7% in Uttar Pradesh and 42.4% in Himachal Pradesh, said that *the teacher and his/her teaching style* was the primary reason for their affinity towards the subject mentioned. What this denotes is that when seen from students’ perspectives, the role played by their educators in building their interests towards a particular subject, if not studies in general, held utmost significance. Thus, research on pedagogy, especially its *descriptive* indicators, is inevitable and undeniably has a lot of scope and untapped potential, waiting to be explored and subsequently contributed to.

<u>Like my Favourite Subject because:</u>	<u>Uttar Pradesh</u>	<u>Himachal Pradesh</u>
I get good grades	32.6 %	35.8 %
It is easier than other subjects	27.7 %	21.8 %
The teacher for this subject is quite good	39.7 %	42.4 %
Total	100 %	100 %

Table No. 28: I like my favourite subject because?: Responses by Students

With the coming up of the National Education Policy of 2020, a lot has been theorized and verbalized about the interrelations between the different segments of the education system i.e. availability of infrastructural amenities, inquiry-driven and discussion-based pedagogy, learning techniques and outcomes, and a value based curriculum. Like the previous two policies of 1968

and 1986 (1992- Programme of Action), this document also propagated the idea of acculturation of values among students so that an inclusive, equitable and a plural society functioning on democratic principles would eventually sustain. It described a “good education system” as a space where students felt secure, cared for and where a stimulating learning environment existed along with adequate infrastructural resources. Thus, pedagogy and learning processes, rather than merely the accessibility to basic learning amenities, teaching tools or learning outcomes of students, formed the essence of an education system, and an inquiry into the same would result in a well-institutionalized plan for ascertaining quality of education. It was with this intent that the researcher conducted research in the domain of *descriptive* indicators of quality of education, with special reference to pedagogy, the variables for which were selected from four national-level educational initiatives, and with this note, she ends her thesis, hoping that the preceding pages and their contents did justice to the goal set at the onset of this quest.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Agarwal, B., Humphries, J., & Robeyns, I. (Eds.). (2006). *Capabilities, Freedom and Equality*. Oxford University Press.
- Aggarwal, Y. (n.d.). *Quality Concerns in Primary Education in India Where is the Problem ?* New Delhi.
- Alexander, R. (2000). *Culture and Pedagogy*. UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Alexander, R. (2004). Still no pedagogy? Principle, pragmatism and compliance in primary education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 34(1), 7–33.
- Alexander, R. (2005). Culture, dialogue and learning: notes on an emerging pedagogy - keynote. *Education, Culture and Cognition: Intervening for Growth*, (July), 10–14.
- Alexander, R. (2008). *Education for All: The Quality Imperative and The Problem of Pedagogy*. Institute of Education. London.
- Alexander, R. (2009). Towards a Comparative Pedagogy. *International Handbook of Comparative Education*, 923–942.
- Alexander, R. (2010). Dialogic Teaching Essentials. *Singapore: National Institute of Education*, 1–7.
- Alexander, R. (2014). Evidence , Policy and the Reform of Primary Education : a cautionary tale. *Forum*, 56(3), 349–376.
- Alexander, R. (2015). Teaching and learning for all? The quality imperative revisited. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 40, 250–258.
- Alexander, R. (2017a). *Dialogic Teaching in Brief*.
- Alexander, R. (2017b). Towards Dialogic Teaching: Rethinking Classroom Talk. *Metamorphosis*, 91, 399–404.
- Aristotle. (1999). *Nicomachean Ethics: Translated by W.D. Ross*. Batoche Books.

Bakkenes, I., Vermunt, J. D., & Wubbels, T. (2010). Teacher learning in the context of educational innovation: Learning activities and learning outcomes of experienced teachers. *Learning and Instruction, 20*(6), 533–548.

Banerjee, R., Bobde, S., & Vagh, S. B. (2014). *Aser Assessment and Survey Framework*. New Delhi.

Barrow, R., & Woods, R. G. (2006). *An Introduction to Philosophy of Education*. London: Routledge.

Batra, P. (2015). Curriculum in India: Narratives, Debates, and a Deliberative Agenda. In *Curriculum Studies in India: Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances* (pp. 35–64). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Berry, A., Loughran, J., & van Driel, J. H. (2008). Revisiting the Roots of Pedagogical Content Knowledge. *International Journal of Science Education, 30*(10), 1271–1279.

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (2006). *Research in Education*. New York: Pearson Education Inc.

Bhargava, R., & Acharya, A. (2008). *Political Theory: An Introduction*. New Delhi: Pearson.

Bhattacharya, Saptarshi. (2017). India has not taken education seriously since independence : Prof . Krishna Kumar. *The Hindu Centre*.

Bhattacharya, Swapna, Tiwari, K. K., Gautam, V., Das, C., & Dey, J. (2016). *Educational Statistics At A Glance. Ministry of Human Resource Development*.

Blömeke, S., & Delaney, S. (2012). Assessment of teacher knowledge across countries: A review of the state of research. *ZDM - International Journal on Mathematics Education, 44*(3), 223–247.

Blömeke, S., Paine, L., Houang, R. T., Hsieh, F. J., Schmidt, W. H., Tatto, M. T., ... Schwille, J. (2008). Future teachers' competence to plan a lesson: First results of a six-country study on the efficiency of teacher education. *ZDM - International Journal on Mathematics Education, 40*(5), 749–762.

Bozalek, V., & Dison, A. (2013). Using the human capabilities approach as a normative framework to evaluate institutional teaching and learning interventions at UWC. *South African Journal of*

Higher Education, 27(2), 383–400.

Brandt, R. (1988). On Assessment of Teaching: A Conversation with Lee Shulman. *Educational Leadership*, (November), 42–46.

Brandt, R. (1992). On Research on Teaching: A Conversation with Lee Shulman. *Educational Leadership*, 14–19.

Chacko, M. A. (2015). Schooling as Counter-Socialization: Krishna Kumar's Contributions to Curriculum. In *Curriculum Studies in India: Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances* (pp. 65–82). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Chavan, S. B. (1999). *81st Report on Value Based Education*.

Citizenship Education for the 21st Century. (1998).

Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1984). Teachers' Thought Processes. *Institute for Research on Teaching*.

Clark, C. M., & Yinger, R. J. (1977). Research on Teacher Thinking. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 7(4), 279–304.

Clarke, P. (2003). Culture and Classroom Reform: The Case of the District Primary Education Project, India. *Comparative Education*, 39(1), 27–44.

Clough, N., Holden, C., & Seddon, H. (2002). *Education for Citizenship: Ideas into Action*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Coffey. (2012). *Transforming Learning Outcomes through a Learner Centred Pedagogy: Moving Toward a Ghanaian Activity Based Learning Concept and Framework*.

Comparison of ASER and NCERT's National Achievement Survey (NAS) – Class V. (2012).

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. California: Sage Publications.

Crick, R. D., Coates, M., Taylor, M., & Ritchie, S. (2004). *A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on the provision of schooling*.

Crick, R. D., Tew, M., Taylor, M., Ritchie, S., Samuel, E., & Durant, K. (2005). *A systematic review of the impact of citizenship education on student learning and achievement*.

Day, C. (2004). *A Passion for Teaching*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Day, C., Pope, M., & Denicolo, P. (Eds.). (1990). *Insight into Teachers' Thinking and Practice*. London: The Falmer Press.

Day, C., Sammons, P., Stobart, G., Kington, A., & Gu, Q. (2007). *Teachers Matter*. Open University Press.

Delamont, S., & Jones, A. (2012). *Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education*. USA: Edward Elgar.

Dell'Angelo, T. (2014). *Creating Classroom for Social Justice*.

Department of Economics and Statistics Government of Himachal Pradesh. (2015).

Dongre, A., Kapur, A., & Tewary, V. (2014). *HOWMUCH DOES INDIA SPEND PER STUDENT ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION? Centre for Policy Research*.

Dreze, J., & Sen, A. (2013). *An Uncertain Glory: India and Its Contradictions*. London: Penguin Books.

Drèze, J., & Sen, A. (2010). *India : Development and Participation*. Oxford University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof>

Earl, K., & Swanson, C. (2017). Teaching is Political. *Teachers and Curriculum*, 17(1), 3–5.

Educational Development Index. (2005).

Enclave, S. (2017). The eleventh Annual Status of Education Report (ASER 2016) was released in New Delhi , 18 January 2017, (January), 2014–2017.

Enqvist, J. (n.d.). Pedagogical Content Knowledge. *HAMK University of Applied Sciences*.

Floden, R. E., & Klinzing, H. G. (1990). What Can Research on Teacher Thinking Contribute to Teacher Preparation? A Second Opinion. *Educational Researcher*, 19(4), 15–20.

- Foladare, I. S. (1969). A Clarification of “Ascribed Status” and “Achieved Status.” *The Sociological Quarterly*, 10(1), 53–61.
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Bloomsbury.
- Ghosh, S. C. (2015). An Intellectual History and Present Circumstances of Curriculum Studies in India. In *Curriculum Studies in India Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances* (pp. 83–110). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guerriero, S. (2003). *Teachers’ Pedagogical Knowledge and the Teaching Profession*. OECD.
- Hackman, H. W. (2005). Five Essential Components for Social Justice Education. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 38(2), 103–109.
- Hardman, F., Abd-Kadir, J., Agg, C., Migwi, J., Ndambuku, J., & Smith, F. (2009). Changing pedagogical practice in Kenyan primary schools: The impact of school-based training. *Comparative Education*, 45(1), 65–86.
- Hattam, R. (2016). Citizenship, Schooling, and ‘Educational Disadvantage.’ In *The Palgrave International Handbook of Education for Citizenship and Social Justice* (pp. 27–48). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Heater, D. (2002). The History of Citizenship Education: A Comparative Outline. *Parliamentary Affairs*, 55(3), 457–474.
- Heater, D. (2004). *A History of Education for Citizenship*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Henze, I., van Driel, J. H., & Verloop, N. (2007). Science Teachers’ Knowledge about Teaching Models and Modelling in the Context of a New Syllabus on Public Understanding of Science. *Research in Science Education*, 37(2), 99–122.
- Hinchcliffe, G., & Terzi, L. (2009). Introduction to the Special Issue ‘Capabilities and Education.’ *Stud Philos Educ*, 28, 387–390.
- Holmes, S. (2007). Making Sense Of Liberal Imperialism. In *J S Mill’s Political Thought* (pp. 32–325). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Husbands, C., & Pearce, J. (2012). What makes great pedagogy? Nine claims from research. *National College for School Leadership*.

Implementation of Quality Monitoring Tools for Northern and Western Regions. (2013). New Delhi.

Jabbarifar, T. (2009). The Importance of Classroom Assessment and Evaluation in Educational System. In *2nd International Conference of Teaching and Learning (ICTL)* (pp. 1–9).

Jahn, B. (2005). Barbarian Thoughts: Imperialism in the Philosophy of John Stuart Mill. *Review of International Studies*, 31(3), 599–618.

Kalra, M. B., & Baveja, B. (2013). A Review of Teacher Thinking Researches. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, 2.

Kohn, M., Neill, D. I. O., & Kohn, M. (2006). A Tale of Two Indias: Burke and Mill on Empire and Slavery in the West Indies and America. *Political Theory*, 34(2), 192–228.

Kumar, K. (1991). *Political Agenda of Education: A Study of Colonialist and Nationalist Ideas* (Second). New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Kumar, K. (2002). *What is Worth Teaching?*

Kumar, K. (2004). *Quality of education at the beginning of the 21st century : lessons from India*.

Kumar, K., & Sarangapani, P. M. (2004). History of the Quality Debate. In *Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2005 The Quality Imperative* (pp. 1–16).

Lawson, H. (2001). Active citizenship in schools and the community. *Curriculum Journal*, 12(2), 163–178.

Liston, D., Borko, H., & Whitcomb, J. (2008). *Teacher Educator's Role in Enhancing Teacher Quality* (Vol. 59).

Loiwal, M. (2018). Govt needs to improve public schools: Amartya Sen at Shantiniketan. *India Today*.

- Loughlin, V. O. (n.d.). An Introduction to Pedagogy and Learning Styles.
- Loughran, J., Berry, A., & Mulhall, P. (2012). *Understanding and Developing Science Teachers' Pedagogical Content Knowledge*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Madan, A. (2003). Old and New Dilemmas in Indian Civic Education. *Economic and Political Weekly*, (November), 4655–4660.
- Martinez-Rizo, F. (2012). Procedures for Study of Teaching Practices . *Relieve*, 18(1), 1–20.
- Mehta, A. C. (2015a). *Elementary Education In India: Where do we stand? District Report Cards 2015-16 Volume I. NUEPA* (Vol. 1). New Delhi.
- Mehta, A. C. (2015b). *Elementary Education in India: Where do we stand? District Report Cards 2015-16 Volume II*. New Delhi.
- MHRD. (1968). *National Policy of Education*.
- MHRD. (1986). *National Policy of Education*.
- MHRD. (1992a). *National Policy on Education 1986: Programme of Action*.
- MHRD. (1992b). *National Policy on Education 1986: Programme on Action 1992*.
- MHRD. (2004). *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Manual for Planning and Appraisal*.
- MHRD. (2014). *Indian Standard Classification of Education*. Department of Higher Education. New Delhi.
- MHRD. (2016). *Some Inputs for Draft National Education Policy*.
- MHRD. (2019a). *Draft National Education Policy 2019*.
- MHRD. (2019b). *Unified District Information System for Education Plus: Data Capture 2019-20*. New Delhi.
- MHRD. (2020). *National Education Policy*.
- Mill, J. S. (1859). *On Liberty*. Batoche Books.

- Mill, J. S. (1861). *Considerations on Representative Government*. London.
- Mill, J. S. (1863). *Utilitarianism*. London: Parker, Son and Bourn.
- Mill, J. S. (1869). *The Subjection of Women*. A Penn State Electronic Classics Series.
- Ministry of Law and Justice. (2009). The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009.
- Mishra, P. (2017). Right To Education: An Overview. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences and Humanities*, 7(2), 1–19.
- Mok, K., & Jeong, W. (2016). Revising Amartya Sen’s capability approach to education for ethical development. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 17(3), 501–510.
- Mondal, A., Saha, A., & Baidya, M. N. (2015). National curriculum framework for teacher education , 2009 : A review of its perspectives and relevance. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 1(9), 776–778.
- Mulhall, P., Berry, A., & Loughran, J. (2003). Frameworks for representing science teachers pedagogical content knowledge. *Asia Pacific on Science Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 1–25.
- NCERT. (1975). *The Curriculum For The Ten Year School: A Framework*.
- NCERT. (1988). *National Curriculum for Elementary and Secondary Education: A Framework*.
- NCERT. (2000). *National Curriculum Framework for School Education*.
- NCERT. (2005). *National Curriculum Framework*.
- NCTE. (2009). *National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education: Towards Preparing Professional and Humane Teachers*. New Delhi.
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Harlow: Pearson.
- Nicoll, K., Fejes, A., Olson, M., Dahlstedt, M., & Biesta, G. (2013). Opening discourses of citizenship education : a theorization with Foucault. *Journal of Education Policy*, 28(6), 828–846.

- NUEPA. (2015a). *Elementary Education in India: State report cards 2015-16*. New Delhi.
- NUEPA. (2015b). *School Education in India: U-DISE 2015-2016* (Vol. Flash Stat). New Delhi.
- Nussbaum, M. (1999). *In Defense of Universal Values* (The Fifth Annual Hesburgh Lectures on Ethics and Public Policy).
- Nussbaum, M. (2003). Capabilities as Fundamental Entitlements: Sen and Social Justice. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2–3), 33–59.
- Nussbaum, M. C. (2006). Education and Democratic Citizenship: Capabilities and Quality Education. *Journal of Human Development*, 7(3), 385–395.
- Oluniyi, O. (2011). Country Report: Citizenship Education and Curriculum Development in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Science Education*, 10(4), 61–67.
- Ostveit, S. (2014). The Jomtien Conference in 1990 was a game changer for education.
- Otto, H., & Ziegler, H. (2006). Capabilities and Education. *Social Work and Society*, 4(2), 269–287.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307–332.
- Pappas, C. (2013). The Adult Learning Theory - Andragogy - of Malcolm Knowles.
- Parruck Chanda, R., & Ghosh, A. (2014). Indian School Education System An Overview. *British Council*, (December), 44.
- Pedagogy, curriculum, teaching practices and teacher education in developing countries. (1986). In *University of Sussex* (pp. 1–8).
- Pinar, W. F. (2015). The Exchanges. In *Curriculum Studies in India Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances* (pp. 163–206). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Planning Commission. (2013). *Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012–2017): Social Sectors* (Vol. III). New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Pradesh, H., Education, P., Shiksha, S., State, A., Authority, M., & Pani, L. (2009). Annual report 2009-10.

Priyadarshini, M. (2014). Mukul Priyadarshini (MP) talks to Krisna Kumar (KK). *Language and Language Teaching*, 3(5), 49–54.

PROBE. (1998). *Public Report on Basic Education In India*.

Promising EFA Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region: India Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. (2015). France.

Quality Council of India. (n.d.). *Final Report On Quality in School Education*. New Delhi.

Rajan, S. C. (2017). A minute for Macaulay. *The Hindu*.

Rao, N., Pearson, E., Cheng, K., & Taplin, M. (2013). *Teaching in Primary Schools in China and India*. New York: Routledge.

Robeyns, I. (2003a). Sen's Capability Approach and Gender Inequality: Selecting Relevant Capabilities. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2–3), 61–92.

Robeyns, I. (2003b). The Capability Approach : An Interdisciplinary Introduction, 1–57.

Saito, M. (2003). Amartya Sen's Capability Approach to Education : A Critical Exploration. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 37(1), 17–33.

Sangai, S., & Singh, P. (2018). *A Study of the Functioning of Quality Monitoring Mechanism in States and UTs*. New Delhi.

Sarangapani, P. (2011). Soft Disciplines and Hard Battles. *Contemporary Education Dialogue*, 8(1), 67–84.

Sarangapani, P. M. (2010). Quality Concerns. *Contemporary Education Dialogue*, 7(1), 41–57.

Sarangapani, P. M. (2018a). Hyderabad's education market. In *School Education in India: Market, State and Quality* (pp. 161–190). New York: Routledge.

Sarangapani, P. M. (2018b). Notes on quality of education. In *School Education in India: Market,*

State and Quality (pp. 139–158). New York: Routledge.

Sarangapani, P. M., Mukhopadhyay, R., Jain, P., & Jain, M. (2018). Teaching, Recovering the practice and profession of teaching. In *School Education in India: Market, State and Quality* (pp. 123–138). New York: Routledge.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Universalization of Elementary Education. (2001). *Shodhganga*, (January), 74–140.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Framework for Implementation. (2011). Ministry of Human Resource Development.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Manual for District-Level Functionaries. (2017).

Satz, D. (2012). Amartya Sen's The Idea of Justice: What approach, which Capabilities? *Rutgers Law Journal*, 43(227), 277–293.

Saxena, A., & Behari, A. (2013). Educational Change and Teachers' Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) - Integration for Professional Development. *Indian Educational Review*, 51(2), 43–62.

Scheerens, J., & Hendriks, M. (n.d.). *Benchmarking the Quality of Education Contributors* :

Scheerens, J., Luyten, H., & Ravens, J. van. (2011). *Perspectives on Educational Quality: Illustrative Outcomes on Primary and Secondary in the Netherlands*. New York: Springer.

Sen, A. (1992). *Inequality Reexamined*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Sen, A. (2000). *Development as Freedom*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Sen, A. (2003). The importance of basic education : Amartya Sen. *The Guardian*.

Sen, A. (2006). What do we want from a Theory of Justice? *The Journal of Philosophy*, 103(5), 215–223.

Sen, A. (2009). *The Idea of Justice*. London: Penguin Books.

Sharma, N., & Sarangapani, P. M. (2018). Teaching because it matters: beliefs and practices of

government school teachers. In *School Education in India: Market, State and Quality* (pp. 281–298). New York: Routledge.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4–14.

Simpson, D. J. (2006). *John Dewey*. New York: Peter Lang Publications.

Smith, E. (2012). An Introduction to Education and Social Justice. In *Key Issues in Education and Social Justice* (pp. 1–17). Sage Publications.

Smith, E. (2018). *Key Issues in Education and Social Justice* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Smith, M. K. (2012). What is pedagogy?

Staff-Reporter. (2011). Amartya Sen criticises neglect of elementary education. *The Hindu*.

Subramanian, T. S. R. (2016). *National Policy on Education 2016: Report of the Committee for Evolution of the New Education Policy*.

Sullivan, E. P. (1983). Liberalism and Imperialism: J. S. Mill's Defense of the British Empire. *Journal of the History of Ideas*, 44(4), 599–617.

Suresh, U. (2010). *Evaluation Report on Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*. New Delhi.

Swidler, L. (1997). Review Symposium: Culture and Pedagogy: International Comparisons in Primary Education. In *Horizons* (Vol. 24, pp. 100–104).

Tell, C. (2001). Appreciating Good Teach: A Conversation with Lee Shulman. *Educational Leadership*, 6–11.

Thampu, V. (2006). *National Focus Group on Education for Peace* (Vol. 5th Editio). New Delhi.

Thapan, M. (2015). Curriculum and Its Possibilities Schooling in India. In *Curriculum Studies in India: Intellectual Histories, Present Circumstances* (pp. 141–162). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

The Muscat Agreement: New proposed post 2015 global education goal and targets announced

today. (2014).

The Praxis Series. (2011). Content Knowledge for Teaching : Innovations for the Next Generation of Teaching Assessments. In *The 2011 Praxis Client Conference* (pp. 1–10).

Tripathi, C. (2020). Capability as “Samarthya” and “Sakshamta”: exonerating the discourse on justice. *Asian Journal of Political Science*.

UNESCO. (1990). *World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs*. Jomtien, Thailand.

UNESCO. (1998). *World Education Report 1998: Teachers and teaching in an changing world*.

UNESCO. (2000a). *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Global Synthesis*. Dakar, Senegal.

UNESCO. (2000b). *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Statistical Document*. Dakar, Senegal.

UNESCO. (2000c). *The Dakar Framework for Action*. Dakar, Senegal.

UNESCO. (2000d). *World Education Forum: Final Report*. Dakar, Senegal.

UNESCO. (2005). *Education for All: The Quality Imperative*. Paris.

UNESCO. (2006). *Teachers and Educational Quality: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015*. Montreal.

UNESCO. (2014). *2014 GEM Final Statement: The Muscat Agreement*. Muscat, Oman.

UNESCO. (2015). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Unterhalter, E., Vaughan, R., & Walker, M. (2007). The Capability Approach and Education. *Prospero*, (November).

Upadhyaya, A. (2014). Urgency of imparting Education for Citizenship in Schools : An analysis in Indian context. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 1(3), 15–20.

Urbanati, N., & Zakaras, A. (2007). *J. S. Mill’s Political Thought: A Bicentennial Reassessment*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Verghese, J. (2018). Developing a questioning mind. *The Hindu*.
- Verma, J. J. S. (2003). Significance of Ethics in Education. In *UGC Golden Jubilee Lecture Series* (pp. 1–8).
- Vermeulen, R. (2011). *A Capability Approach towards the Quality of Education*. University of Amsterdam.
- Voss, T. (2004). Teachers' General Pedagogical / Psychological knowledge: Conceptualization and Test Construction. In *Teachers as Learning Specialists - Implications for Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge and Professionalism* (pp. 1–28).
- Vyas, A. (2018). The power of a nudge. *The Hindu*.
- Walker, M. (2005). Amartya Sen's Capability Approach and Education. *Educational Action Research, 13*(1), 103–110.
- Walker, M., & Unterhalter, E. (Eds.). (2007). *Amartya Sen's Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Westbrook, J., Durrani, N., Brown, R., Orr, D., Pryor, J., Boddy, J., & Salvi, F. (2013). *Pedagogy, Curriculum, Teaching Practices and Teacher Education in Developing Countries*.
- “What's the use of education?” Nobel Prize-winner Professor Amartya Sen launches IOE Centre for Education and International Development. (2017). *University College London*.
- What is Pedagogy? An Overview. (2004).
- Wheeler, S. (2013a). Hey, teacher, leave them kids alone!
- Wheeler, S. (2013b). The meaning of pedagogy.
- Wolfe, S., & Alexander, R. (2008). Argumentation and dialogic teaching : alternative pedagogies for a changing world. *Beyond Current Horizons*, (December), 1–18.
- Yadav, A. K., Srivastava, M., Pal, C., & Saxena, V. K. (2001). *Educational Development Parameters and the Preparation of Educational Development Index*. New Delhi.

Yadav, R. (2016). Quality School Education: Capability Approach.

Yadav, S. K. (2012). *Impact of In-service Teacher Training on Classroom Transaction*.

Yeasmin, S., & Rahman, K. F. (2012). 'Triangulation' Research Method as the Tool of Social Science Research. *BUP Journal*, 1(1), 154–163.

Zajda, J., Majhanovich, S., & Rust, V. (2006a). Education and Social Justice: Issues of Liberty and Equality in the Global Culture. In *Education and Social Justice* (pp. 1–12). Springer.

Zajda, J., Majhanovich, S., & Rust, V. (2006b). Education and Social Justice. *International Review of Education*, 52(1/2), 9–22.

Zajda, J., Majhanovich, S., & Rust, V. (2006c). Introduction: Education and Social Justice. *International Review of Education*, 52(1/2), 9–22.

Core EFA Indicators

- Indicator 1 Gross enrolment in early childhood development programmes, including public, private, and community programmes, expressed as a percentage of the official age-group concerned, if any, otherwise the age-group 3 to 5.
- Indicator 2 Percentage of new entrants to primary grade 1 who have attended some form of organized early childhood development programme.
- Indicator 3 Apparent (gross) intake rate: new entrants in primary grade 1 as a percentage of the population of official entry age.
- Indicator 4 Net intake rate: new entrants to primary grade 1 who are of the official primary school entrance age as a percentage of the corresponding population.
- Indicator 5 Gross enrolment ratio.
- Indicator 6 Net enrolment ratio.
- Indicator 7 Public current expenditure on primary education a) as a percentage of GNP; and b) per pupil, as a percentage of GNP per capita.
- Indicator 8 Public expenditure on primary education as a percentage of total public expenditure on education.
- Indicator 9 Percentage of primary school teachers having attained the required academic qualifications.
- Indicator 10 Percentage of primary school teachers who are certified to teach according to national standards.
- Indicator 11 Pupil teacher ratio.
- Indicator 12 Repetition rates by grade.
- Indicator 13 Survival rate to grade 5 (percentage of a pupil cohort actually reaching grade 5).
- Indicator 14 Coefficient of efficiency (ideal number of pupil years needed for a cohort to complete the primary cycle, expressed as a percentage of the actual number of pupil-years).
- Indicator 15 Percentage of pupils having reached at least grade 4 of primary schooling who master a set of nationally defined basic learning competencies.
- Indicator 16 Literacy rate of 15–24 year olds.
- Indicator 17 Adult literacy rate: percentage of the population aged 15+ that is literate.
- Indicator 18 Literacy Gender Parity Index: ratio of female to male literacy rates.

Targets of EFA Muscat Meeting (12th -14th May, 2014)

- Target 1 By 2030, at least X % of girls and boys are ready for primary school through participation in quality early childhood care and education, including at least one year of free and compulsory pre-primary education, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.
- Target 2 By 2030, all girls and boys complete free and compulsory quality basic education of at least 9 years and achieve relevant learning outcomes, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.
- Target 3 By 2030, all youth and at least X % of adults reach as proficiency level in literacy and numeracy sufficient to fully participate in society, with particular attention to girls and women and the most marginalized.
- Target 4 By 2030, at least X % of youth and Y % of adults have the knowledge and skills for decent work and life through technical and vocational, upper secondary and tertiary education and training, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.
- Target 5 By 2030, all learners acquire knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to establish sustainable and peaceful societies, including thorough global citizenship education and education for sustainable development.
- Target 6 By 2030, all governments ensure that all learners are taught by qualified, professionally trained, motivated and well supported teachers.
- Target 7 By 2030, all countries allocate at least 4-6% of their GDP or at least 15-20% of their public expenditure to education, prioritizing groups most in need; and strengthen financial cooperation for education, prioritizing countries most in need.

Appendix III:

Education for Peace Report (2006): Values and Skills

<u>Personality Formation</u>	<u>Shared Spirituality</u>	<u>Indian History and Culture</u>
15. Love	6. Inner Peace	6. Positive and Negative Understanding of Peace
16. Truth	7. Freedom of Thought, Conscience and Belief	7. Diversity, Plurality and Co-existence
17. Purity	8. Freedom of Religious Practice	8. Integrative Vision (Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam)
18. Beauty and Harmony	9. Mutual Respect for Religious Observances of Others	9. Teachings on Peace i.e. Gandhi's Views (Ahimsa, Truth and Hospitality)
19. Spirit of Appreciation	10. Equal Treatment of all Religions by the State	10. Peace Movements in India
20. Sense of Responsibility	<u>Human Rights and Democracy</u>	<u>Lifestyle</u>
21. Ahimsa or Non-violence	1. Dignity	1. Sensitivity to Nature
22. Humility	2. Equality	2. Respect for Life in all its Forms
23. Spirit of Service	3. Justice	3. Simplicity
24. Leadership	4. Protection of Human Rights	4. Responsibility
25. Optimism	5. Participation	5. Consumption Habits
26. Discipline	6. Freedom of Speech and Expression	6. Gandhi's Idea of Utilizing Earth's Resources to meet everyone's needs
27. Growth – Personal and Neighbour's.	7. Freedom of Belief	<u>Violence</u>

28. Orientation towards Others	8. Indian Constitution: Preamble, Fundamental Rights and Duties and Directive Principles of State Policy	Modes of Violence	Frontiers of Violence
<u>Globalization</u>	<u>Peace Skills</u>	1. Verbal	1. Caste
1. Peace in Global Context	Thinking Skills	2. Psychological	2. Gender
2. Peace Movements	• Critical Thinking	3. Physical	3. Religion
3. Caring for Nature and Sustainable Development	• Creative Thinking	4. Structural	4. Corruption & Advertisements
4. Peace and Sexuality	• Dialectical Thinking	5. Vulgarity in Popular Culture	5. Poverty
5. Globalization and Democracy	• Information Handling		6. Media and Violence
6. Implications of Liberalization, Globalization and Privatization	• Reflections		7. Peaceful Resolution of Conflicts
7. Generation Gap	Communication Skills	Personal Skills	
8. Drugs and Alcohol Abuse	• Presentations	• Cooperation	
9. HIV/AIDS	• Active Listening	• Adaptability	
10. Terrorism	• Negotiation	• Self-Discipline	
	• Non-Verbal Communication	• Responsibility	
		• Respect	

The section on peace skills, in the table mentioned above, can be further expanded to denote, what each thinking and personal skill stands for. The meanings of these terms are: -

- i. Critical Thinking Skill: Ability to differentiate between facts, opinions and beliefs and to recognize prejudices
- ii. Creative Thinking Skill: To try and devise novel solutions or answers to a given problem
- iii. Dialectical Thinking Skill: Considering more than one viewpoint or perspective
- iv. Information Handling: To be able to formulate hypothesis and devise a method to test it; to know how to select relevant information and reject non-beneficial information; to weigh up evidence efficiently
- v. Reflections: To identify the various components of a problem and effectively manage and monitor one's reflections
- vi. Cooperation: To work collaboratively and effectively with others, towards a common goal
- vii. Adaptability: To be open and willing to modify one's opinions in the light of new evidence and reasons
- viii. Self-Discipline: Conduct oneself appropriately and manage time effectively
- ix. Responsibility: Complete the task in an appropriate manner
- x. Respect: Listen sensitively and open mindedly to others and judge or evaluate their views on fair and impartial grounds

ANNEXURE I

Rationale behind the Questions Selected for Teachers/Students

This annexure deals with the logic for selecting the questions posed to both teachers and students based on the *descriptive* pedagogical indicators that have been selected by the researcher for her doctoral research work. It will provide a detailed overview of how the questions were carefully crafted and the purpose behind the same. For further simplification, the following abbreviations have been used as the end of each query. These abbreviations are: -

<u>Abbreviated Terms</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
ABL	Ability Based Learning
CE	Citizenship Education
CK	Content Knowledge
NCF	National Curriculum Framework, 2005
NCFTE	National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PC	Prescribed Capabilities
PK	Pedagogical Knowledge
RTE	The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2002
S	Questions Addressed to Students
T	Questions Addressed to Teachers
TT	Traditional Teaching

Rationale behind the questions and variables selected: -

- A. During the late 1900s, Lee Shulman talked about a new conceptual tool designed by him i.e. the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). It was the confluence of content knowledge and

pedagogical knowledge, where the former was the command of the teacher on the subject and its corresponding syllabus, and the latter was the generic principles and strategies used by him or her to organize and manage the classroom, to understand the learning and grasping capacity of the pupils and plan the teaching accordingly and make use of comprehensive evaluation techniques. PCK therefore entails the ways of formulating and representing the subject matter in such a way that it becomes simple and understandable for the pupils in question. Based on this discussion, the questions directly posed to the teacher were: -

Q1. What are the different types of teaching methods that exists? (PK)

Q2. What is the best method of teaching, according to you, and why? (PK)

Q3. How would you define your teaching style? (Highlight any three characteristics) (PK) (ABL or TT)

Q4. If you had to bring about one change in your teaching style, what would it be? (PK)

Q5. Are there any benefits of the rote learning method? If yes, then what are they and if no, then why not? (PK) (ABL or TT)

Q6. If you had to highlight any one major flaw in the teaching mechanism of your colleague, what would it be? (PK)

Q7. What are your views on the present syllabus being taught by you? (CK)

Q8. Are you satisfied with it? If yes, then why and if no, then why not? (CK)

Q9. What is the best method for maintaining discipline in class? (PK)

Q10. What is your understanding of a healthy learning environment? (PCK)

Q11. What distracts a student? Give five reasons. (PK)

Q12. What is the purpose of exams? (PK)

Q13. What according to you is more important? (Tick your pick) (T)

- Knowledge about the various strategies of teaching and

how they should be put to their respective uses. (PK)

- Having a command over the subject matter of the syllabus (CK)
- Both are equally important (PCK)

Q14. What should be the foremost goals or duties of a teacher? Rank it in order of preference from 1 to 8 (1 being highest). (T)

- Completing the syllabus on time (TT)
- Enabling students to discover their talents and develop their character along with certain social values (ABL)
- Being regular and punctual
- Maintaining decorum and discipline in class (TT)
- Ensuring that students are effective in learning and memorizing, whatever has been imparted in classrooms (TT)
- Making teaching and learning joyful (ABL)
- Nurturing an overriding personality (oneness and no discrimination) (ABL)
- Organizing regular PTMs

Q15. How would you define the environment in your classroom? : - (Tick your pick) (T)

- Reasonably Disciplined
- Complete Silence (TT)
- Recurrent Questioning and Answering Sessions (ABL)
- Chaotic and Haphazard

Q16. How do you ensure maximum participation by students? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 7 (1 being highest). (T)

- Asking them questions (TT)
- Making them read out loud (TT)
- Demonstrating experiments (ABL)
- Through role playing (ABL)
- Reprimanding the non-enthusiastic participants (TT)

- Making them work in groups (ABL)
- Making use of audio visual aids and projectors (ABL)

Q17. What is the best technique of maintaining discipline in class? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest). (T) (PC)

- Fear of punishment (TT)
- Reprimanding or scolding (TT)
- Appreciating appropriate student behaviour in order to encourage others (ABL)
- Engaging them in some class activity (ABL)
- Others

Q18. What is the purpose of exams? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being the highest). (T)

- To maintain a check on whether the students are learning whatever is being taught (ABL)
- To examine and rank the memorizing capacity of students (TT)
- To promote competitiveness (TT)
- To attach a purpose to education in general (TT)

Q19. What is the most important duty of a student : - (Tick your pick) (S)

- a. Scoring good grades (TT)
- b. Memorizing what has been taught in class (TT)
- c. Obeying the teacher (TT)
- d. Learning and putting that knowledge to better use (ABL)

Q20. Tick 'Yes' or 'No': - (S)

- | | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| i. Is your teacher punctual? (PC) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii. Are you scared of your teacher? (TT or ABL) (PC) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- iii. Is your teacher strict? (PC)
- iv. Are you hesitant about asking questions or answering in class?
(TT or ABL) (PC)
- v. Do you enjoy learning? (TT or ABL) (PC)

Q21. Have you ever been punished by your teacher? If yes then why and how? (S) (TT or ABL- Based on the form of punishment) (PC)

Q22. Have you been shown any movies/videos/audio-visual clips in class? What was it about? (S) (ABL)

Q23. How do you identify your teacher : - (Tick your pick) (S) (PC)

- a. Friendly (ABL)
- b. Strict yet understanding (ABL)
- c. Aggressive (TT)

B. Ralph Linton distinguished between ascribed and achieved status of human beings for determining their positioning in the society or social hierarchy. Borrowing from this, the attributes determining educational quality in this thesis were divided into *ascriptive* and *descriptive* attributes⁶⁸. While the former were notional and quantitative in nature, the latter were more detailed, illustrative and qualitative in content and character. The variables that the multifarious surveys, done within the nation for determining the quality of education in India, focused more on *ascriptive* attributes e.g. literacy rates, pupil-teacher ratio, number or percentage of private and government teachers or male and female teachers etc. With the intent to overcome this lacuna, this thesis proposes to shift the focus from *ascriptive* features (input or output/product oriented) to *descriptive* attributes (process oriented) and for doing so it utilized the parameters mentioned within national policies' documents for determining these indicators e.g. NCF (2005) and NCFTE (2009), SSA (2002), RTE (2009) and Education for Peace (NCERT, 2006), the lattermost being the determinant for citizenship education related variables.

⁶⁸ Refer to Chapter II for a detailed overview.

a). NCF (2005) and NCFTE (2009): Unsurprisingly, there is a substantial degree of overlap between the *descriptive* attributes about pedagogy in these two policies. Maximum of the maxims forwarded in these two policy documents were synonymous with active learning and ABL as they dealt with active participation by learners rather than passive reception, joyful learning, shifting away from traditional and rote learning, overall development of the child rather than just measuring his or her reception and retention capability, absence of fear in the classroom and freedom to ask questions, and the ability of teachers to listen with empathy and without judgement⁶⁹.

Q24. What are your views on the present syllabus being taught by you? Are you satisfied with it? If yes, then why and if no, then why not? (T) (NCF, 2005) (PC)

Q25. If you had to highlight any one major flaw in the teaching mechanism of your colleague, what would it be? (T) (NCF, 2005)

Q26. If you had the opportunity to decide the ratio of pupil involvement in curricular: non-curricular activities, what would it be? E.g. 70:30, 50:50 etc

Q27. What is the level of your involvement in curriculum renewal programmes, if any? Tick the right box: (T) (NCF, 2005) (PC)

Never Felt like Participating

Never Asked to Participate

Have Participated

Q28. How are conflicts between colleagues or the teaching staff and the administration resolved? (NCF, 2005) (T) (PC)

- Board Meetings where the Director or Head usually has the last say
- Collective decision making through democratic voting
- Conflicts are rarely resolved or looked into

Q29. According to you, teaching should be a joyful or a serious activity? Give reasons to support your answer. (T) (NCFTE, 2009) (TT or ABL)

⁶⁹ Since questions and classroom observation indicators dealing with Active and Passive Learning and Traditional Teaching and Ability Based Learning have already been mentioned in section C of this appendix, this part will only deal with those questions that have been unaddressed so far.

b). PROBE Report (1998-99): - Though the Probe Report was discussed in the chapter dealing with national policies, it has not been incorporated in the thesis other than the fact that the attributes or indicators selected in it were more *descriptive* in nature. One question that has been derived from it is nonetheless is: -

Q30. i). What is your level of participation in non-teaching activities? (T) (PC)

	High	Low	Negligible
• Panchayats/Community Related Work (Health Camps, Mid-Day Meals, Family Planning, Pensions)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Administrative Work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Training and Invigilation Related work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Other Miscellaneous Curricular Activities (Debates, Meetings, Festivals, Sports, Annual Events, Competitions, Fairs etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ii). Would you say that involvement in these non-teaching activities hamper your pedagogical responsibilities? (T) (PC) Yes No

c). SSA (2002): - There were multiple overlapping episodes between the NCF and the SSA objectives and pedagogical indicators. Examples of these are: engagement of teachers in curriculum renewal programmes, involvement in non-teaching practices etc. Despite these confluences, there were instances of departures between the two documents and based on them the following questions have been designed: -

Q31. How would you define the environment in your classroom? : - (Tick your pick) (T)

- Reasonably Disciplined
 - Complete Silence (TT)
 - Recurrent Questioning and Answering Sessions (ABL)
 - Chaotic and Haphazard
-

Q32. a). What is the strength of your class? Is it manageable? (T)

b). If you were given the opportunity to determine the strength of your class, what would it be and why? (T)

Q33. Which one of these is the ideal Pupil:Teacher Ratio? (Tick your pick) (T)

- 10:1
- 20:1
- 30:1
- 40:1
- 50:1

Q34. Do you receive your salary on time? Do you have any concerns associated with pay scales? (T) (PC)

Q35. What is your understanding of a healthy learning environment? (T) (TT or ABL)

Q36. How would you deal with a situation where a student is found to be: - (T) (TT or ABL)

- Cheating
- Eating in class
- Abusing or using foul language
- Being disrespectful to you
- Beating classmates
- Late for class
- Bringing mobile phone to class

Q37. What do you understand by the Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation Technique? (T)

d). RTE (2009): - The two unique parameters highlighted in this act were private tuitions as it completely forbade them, and parent teacher meetings. Based on these criteria, the following questions were incorporated:

Q38. Do you engage yourself in private tuitions? If yes, then why and if no, then why not? (T)

Q39. What is your take on private tuitions? Why have they become so rampant? (T)

Q40. Do you take any tuition classes? If yes, then by whom and for what subject? (S)

Q41. Are tuition teachers better than school teachers? If yes then why? (S) (PC)

Q42. How often are Parent-Teacher Meetings held by you or your school and what is the primary objective of these meetings? (T)

C. The National Focus Group on Education for Peace (2006), formulated the concept of Citizenship Education, which coincided with the principle of Education for Life as mentioned in the SSA and NCF-NCFTE. Based on this document and curricular framework, the following questions have been included in the questionnaires: -

Q43. According to you, what are the five pre-requisites or attributes of a good teacher? (T)

Q44. Mention any five bad qualities that can be found in a teacher. (T)

Q45. Who is a good student? Mention any five characteristics in order of preference (from most to least). (T)

Q46. If these were the attributes of a good student, then how would you perceive bad or appalling student behaviour? Mention five features for the same in order of preference. (T)

Q47. During your training, were you ever taught about citizenship education or given any training on value based education dedicated to the cause of educating students to become good citizens? If yes, then what was it? (T)

Q48. What according to you is citizenship education and what is its relevance? (T)

Q49. What are the qualities that should be inculcated in a child to assist him/her become a good citizen? Mention any five in order of preference (1 being the highest). (T)

Q50. What methods do you or can you employ for an effective citizenship education? (T)

Q51. What kind of curriculum would ensure a better training of students to be good citizens? (T)

Q52. What are the benefits of value education? Mention any five. (T)

Q53. What is the best technique of imparting value based education? (Mark in order of preference from 1 to 4). (T)

- a. Narrating an anecdote or a story
- b. Applauding or rewarding correct behaviour in class

- c. Showing movies or audio visual clips
- d. Organizing trips to community centres / old age homes / shelters

Q54. What are the qualities of a responsible citizen? (S)

Q55. What are the qualities of a good human being? Mention any five. (S)

D. The link between quality of education and social justice, as discussed extensively in chapter IV of the thesis, through the lens of capability approach, is twofold: Firstly, it analyzes the idea that whether the curriculum (under the vestiges of citizenship education) is able to ensure the acculturation of pupils showing signs to be responsible citizens; Secondly, it uses the focal variables designed by the capability theorists, primarily Amartya Sen, to decipher whether the teachers and students are actually able to realize their *prescribed capabilities* by accomplishing the functionings which they have reason to value. Since this research work focuses on the functionings that are predetermined by the state, through its macro-level policies, it tries to question the availability of social justice within the classroom and in reference to the exchanges between the educators and their pupils, their colleagues as well as between the teachers and the administration, by subtly delving into variables like conversion of resources into actual functionings, capability inputs, freedom to achieve or agency freedom (process) rather than achievement (product), counterfactual choice, prevention of exclusionary neglect and open impartiality (e.g. interviews of retired teachers). All this is done with the help of the questionnaires specifically designed keeping these focal variables as the determining factors. E.g. Asking the students about whether they are able to ask questions freely in the classroom or if they are afraid of the teacher, is symbolic of the whole conversion factor logic of the capability approach which argues that despite the availability of resources, the protagonists are still unable to exercise their choice and fulfill their functionings due to various other factors involved. Thus, indulging in such queries will not only reveal the presence or absence of agency exercised by the various actors of the education system, but would also reveal the reasons behind their existing unfreedoms or inability to realize their *prescribed capabilities* in the first place.

ANNEXURE II

Questionnaire for Educators/Teachers

Sr. No.	Preliminary Information	Answers
1.	Name of the School	
2.	District	
3.	Block	
4.	Board (CBSE/ICSE/State Board)	
5.	Government/Government Aided or Private	
6.	Urban or Rural	
7.	Name of the Teacher	
8.	Age	
9.	Gender	
10.	Qualification	
11.	Year of Joining	
12.	Teaching Experience	
13.	Standard and Subject	
14.	Language of Instruction	
15.	Total Number of Students	
	Officially Enrolled:	
	Present:	
	Girls:	
	Boys:	
16.	Permanent or Contractual	
17.	Stipulated Duration of Class	

PEDAGOGY

1. Why did you choose teaching as a profession or why did you wish to become a teacher?
2. According to you, what are the five pre-requisites or attributes of a good teacher?
3. Mention any five bad qualities that can be found in a teacher.
4. What should be the foremost goals or duties of a teacher? Rank them in order of preference from 1 to 10 (1 being highest).
 - Completing the syllabus on time
 - Enabling students to discover their talents and develop their character along with certain social values
 - Being regular and punctual
 - Maintaining decorum and discipline in class
 - Ensuring that students are effective in learning and memorizing, whatever has been imparted in classrooms
 - Making teaching and learning joyful
 - Nurturing an overriding personality (oneness and no discrimination)
 - Organizing regular PTMs
5. Who is a good student? Mention any five characteristics in order of preference (from most preferable to least).
6. If these were the attributes of a good student, then how would you perceive bad or appalling student behaviour? Mention five features for the same in order of preference.
7. What are the factors that can affect a student's achievement or performance level? Mention any 3.
8. What are the different types of teaching methods that exists?
9. What is the best method of teaching, according to you, and why?
10. How would you define your teaching style? (Highlight any three characteristics)
11. If you had to bring about one change in your teaching style, what would it be?
12. Are there any benefits of the rote learning method? If yes, then what are they and if no, then why not?

13. What are the three core principles that a teacher should focus at while teaching in the classroom?

14. If you had to highlight any one major flaw in the teaching mechanism of your colleague(s), what would it be and why?

15. How do you allocate your time in class? (Answer in minutes: Total 40 minutes)

- Teaching a new chapter
- Attendance
- Revision of previous class lecture
- Attending to student queries, if any
- Giving and explaining homework
- Total

16. How would you define the environment in your classroom? (Tick your pick)

- Reasonably Disciplined
- Complete Silence
- Recurrent Questioning and Answering Sessions
- Chaotic and Haphazard

17. Have you ever lost temper in class? If yes, then why and if no, then why not?

18. Did you receive any pre-service training? If yes, then was it helpful?

19. Do you engage yourself in private tuitions? If yes, then why and if no, then why not?

20. What is your take on private tuitions? Why have they become so rampant?

21. How often are Parent-Teacher Meetings held by you or your school and what is the primary objective of these meetings?

22. What are your views on the present syllabus being taught by you?

23. Are you satisfied with it? If yes, then why and if no, then why not?

24. a). What is the strength of your class? Is it manageable?

b). If you were given the opportunity to determine the strength of your class, what would it be and why?

25. Which one of these is the ideal Pupil:Teacher Ratio? (Tick your pick)

- 10:1

--

- 20:1
- 30:1
- 40:1
- 50:1

26. If you had the opportunity to decide the ratio of pupil involvement in curricular: non-curricular activities, what would it be? E.g. 70:30, 50:50, 60:40 etc.

27. What is the best method for maintaining discipline in class? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest)

- Strict Demeanour
- Appointing a student representative or monitor
- Providing stars or credits for apt behaviour
- Threatening to give no attendance or deduct marks

28. How would you deal with a situation where a student is found to be: -

- Cheating
- Eating in class
- Abusing or using foul language
- Being disrespectful to you
- Beating classmates
- Late for class
- Bringing mobile phone to class

29. How do you ensure maximum participation by students? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 7 (1 being highest).

- Asking them questions
- Making them read out loud
- Organizing Co-Curricular Activities
- Through role playing
- Reprimanding the non-enthusiastic participants
- Making them work in groups

- Making use of audio-visual aids and projectors

30. Do you receive your salary on time? Do you have any concerns associated with pay scales?

31. What is your understanding of a healthy learning environment? Mention any three features.

32. What distracts a student? Give five reasons.

33. What is the best technique of maintaining discipline in class? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest).

- Fear of punishment
- Reprimanding or scolding
- Appreciating appropriate student behaviour in order to encourage others
- Engaging them in some class activity
- Others

34. What do you feel is the main reason for the under-performance of educators? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 5 (1 being the highest).

- Overburdened with work
- Too much involvement in non-curricular activities
- Less pay or incentive
- Lack of pre-service or in-service training
- Too many students

35. How effective and efficient are the resources provided to the teacher in classrooms by the school authorities? Tick the correct box and give reasons for the same.

Efficient and Adequate

Feasible/Could be Better

Inefficient and Inadequate

(Reason:.....)

36. Teaching Aids: Rank in order of preference from 1 to 5 (1 being the highest): -

- Blackboard and Chalk/Marker
- PowerPoint Presentation
- Audio-Visual Aids
- Role Play/Dramas/Poems/Hymns
- Group Discussions

44. What is your current level of satisfaction with teaching as a profession?

High	Medium	Low
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Which among these are the possible reasons for your answer: -

- Manageable/Hectic Working Hours
- Satisfactory/Unsatisfactory Remuneration
- Friendly/Unfriendly Staff
- Manageable/Too Much Non-Teaching Workload
- Proper/Inadequate Training Opportunities
- Adequate/Inadequate Teaching Learning Material

45. How are conflicts between colleagues or the teaching staff and the administration resolved?

- Board Meetings where the Director or Head usually has the last say
- Collective decision making through democratic voting
- Conflicts are rarely resolved or looked into

46. What are the problems associated with teaching as a profession? Give reasons for each.

47. According to you, teaching should be a joyful or a serious activity? Give reasons to support your answer.

48. What according to you is more important? (Tick your pick)

- Knowledge about the various strategies of teaching and how they should be put to their respective uses.
- Having a command over the subject matter of the syllabus
- Both are equally important

ANNEXURE III

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Questionnaire for Teachers

1. During your training, were you ever taught about citizenship education or given any training on value-based education dedicated to the cause of educating students to become good citizens? If yes, then what was it?
2. What according to you is citizenship education and what is its relevance?
3. What are the qualities that should be inculcated in a child to assist him/her become a good citizen? Mention any five in order of preference (1 being the highest).
4. What methods do you or can you employ for an effective citizenship education?
5. What kind of curriculum would ensure a better training of students to be good citizens?
6. What are the benefits of value education? Mention any five.
7. Do you think that the syllabus taught by you is responsible for inculcating values that can ensure the nurturing of the students in such a way that they can grow up to become productive and dutiful citizens? Give reasons to support your claim.
8. What is the best technique of imparting value based education? (Mark in order of preference from 1 to 4).
 - e. Narrating an anecdote or a story
 - f. Applauding or rewarding correct behaviour in class
 - g. Showing movies or audio visual clips
 - h. Organizing trips to community centres / old age homes / shelters

ANNEXURE IV

Questionnaire for Students

PEDAGOGY, CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Sr. No.	Preliminary Information	Answers
1.	Name of the School	
2.	Name of the Student	
3.	Standard	
4.	Age	
5.	Gender	

1. Who are you and who do you want to be?
2. Who is a teacher?
3. Mention any five qualities of a teacher that you admire.
4. Mention any five qualities that you do not like about your teacher.
5. What is your favorite subject?
6. You like this subject because : - (Tick your pick)
 - a. I get good grades
 - b. It is easier than other subjects
 - c. The teacher for this subject is quite good
7. What is your favourite part about going to school?
8. What, according to you, are the qualities of a good student? Mention any five.
9. What is the one thing that you like and dislike about studies?
10. What is your favourite classroom activity and why?
11. What is the most important duty of a student: - (Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4)
 - e. Scoring good grades
 - f. Memorizing what has been taught in class
 - g. Obeying the teacher

h. Learning and putting that knowledge to better use

12. Tick 'Yes' or 'No': -

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
vi. Is your teacher punctual?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
vii. Are you scared of your teacher?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
viii. Is your teacher strict?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
ix. Are you hesitant about asking questions or answering in class?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
x. Do you enjoy learning?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. Have you ever been punished by your teacher? If yes then why and how? If no, then why not?

14. Why do you think students get punished?

15. How often does a teacher lose his/her temper or get angry?

<u>Often</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Have you been scolded by your teacher? If yes, then for what?

17. Have you been shown any movies/videos/audio-visual clips in class? What was it about?

18. What are your views on exams? What is the purpose of exam/test?

19. Which among these are used by your teacher the most? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 5 (1 being the highest).

- Blackboard and Chalk/Marker
 - PowerPoint Presentations
 - Audio-Visual Shows
 - Role Plays/Dramas/Hymns/Poems
 - Group Discussions
- | |
|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |

20. How do you identify your teacher : - (Tick your pick)

- d. Friendly
- e. Strict yet understanding
- f. Aggressive

21. Do you take any tuition classes? If yes, then by whom and for what subject?

22. Are tuition teachers better than school teachers? If yes, then why?

23. Who is an Indian?

24. What are the qualities of a good and responsible citizen?
25. What are the qualities of a good human being? Mention any five.
26. Are girls and boys similar or different? Why?

ANNEXURE V

Questionnaire for Retired Teachers

Sr. No.	Preliminary Information	Answers
1.	Name of the School	
2.	District	
3.	Block	
4.	Board (CBSE/ICSE/State Board)	
5.	Government/Government Aided or Private	
6.	Urban or Rural	
7.	Name of the Teacher	
8.	Age	
9.	Gender	
10.	Qualification	
11.	Year of Joining	
12.	Year of Retiring/Leaving	
13.	Teaching Experience (years)	
14.	Standards and Subjects	
15.	Language of Instruction	
16.	Permanent or Contractual	

Pedagogy

1. Why did you choose teaching as a profession or why did you wish to become a teacher?
2. According to you, what are the five pre-requisites or attributes of a good teacher?
3. Mention any five bad qualities that can be found in a teacher.
4. What should be the foremost goals or duties of a teacher? If you select more than one answer then rank them in order of preference from 1 to 10 (1 being highest).

- Completing the syllabus on time

- Enabling students to discover their talents and develop their character along with certain social values
- Being regular and punctual
- Maintaining decorum and discipline in class
- Ensuring that students are effective in learning and memorizing, whatever has been imparted in classrooms
- Making teaching and learning joyful
- Nurturing an overriding personality (oneness and no discrimination)
- Organizing regular PTMs

5. Who is a good student? Mention any five characteristics in order of preference (from most preferable to least).

6. Did you enjoy your tenure as a teacher? If yes, then why? If no, then why not?

7. Did you ever think of leaving the job? If yes, then why?

8. Has any of your former fellow-mates or colleagues left this profession? If yes, then what was the reason behind it?

9. How would you describe your teaching style or method? (Highlight any three characteristics)

10. If you had to bring about one change in your teaching style, what would it be? (Retrospectively)

11. What is the best method of teaching, according to you, and why?

12. What are the three core components that a teacher should focus at while teaching in the classroom?

13. Are there any benefits of the rote learning method? If yes, then what are they and if no, then why not?

14. How did you allocate your time in class? : (Answer in minutes: 60 minutes in total)

- Teaching a new chapter
- Attendance
- Revision of previous class lecture
- Attending to student queries, if any
- Giving and explaining homework
- Total

15. How would you define the environment in your classroom? : - (Tick your pick)

- Reasonably Disciplined
- Complete Silence
- Recurrent Questioning and Answering Sessions
- Chaotic and Haphazard

16. Did you engage yourself in private tuitions? If yes, then why and if no, then why not?
17. What is your take on private tuitions? Why have they become so rampant?
18. Have you ever lost temper in class? If yes, then why and if no, then why not?
19. What is the current level of your satisfaction with teaching as a profession?

High	Medium	Low
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Which among these are the possible reasons for your answer: -

- Manageable/Hectic Working Hours
- Satisfactory/Unsatisfactory Remuneration
- Friendly/Unfriendly Staff
- Manageable/Too Much Non-Teaching Workload
- Proper/Inadequate Training Opportunities
- Adequate/Inadequate Teaching Learning Material

20. What is the best method for maintaining discipline in class? : - Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest)

- Strict Demeanour
- Appointing a student representative or monitor
- Providing stars or credits for apt behaviour
- Threatening to give no attendance or deduct marks

21. How do you ensure maximum participation by students? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 7 (1 being the highest).

- Asking them questions
- Making them read out loud

- Organizing co-curricular activities in class
- Through role playing
- Reprimanding the non-enthusiastic participants
- Making them work in groups
- Making use of audio visual aids and projectors

22. What is your understanding of a healthy learning environment? Mention any three features.

23. What is the best technique of maintaining discipline in class? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest).

- Fear of punishment
- Reprimanding or scolding
- Appreciating appropriate student behaviour in order to encourage others
- Engaging them in some class activity
- Others (.....)

24. What do you feel is the main reason for the under-performance of educators? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 5 (1 being the highest).

- Overburdened with work
- Too much involvement in non-curricular activities
- Less pay or incentive
- Lack of pre-service or in-service training
- Too many students

25. Teaching Aids: Rank in order of preference from 1 to 5 (1 being the highest): -

- Blackboard and Chalk/Marker
- PowerPoint Presentation
- Audio-Visual Aids
- Role Play/Dramas/Poems/Hymns
- Group Discussions

26. Mention any three resources which you would have liked to be made available to you for better teaching purposes.

27. a). What was your level of participation in non-teaching activities?

	High	Low	Negligible
• Panchayats/Community Related Work (Health Camps, Mid-Day Meals, Family Planning, Pensions)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Administrative Work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Training and Invigilation Related work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

b). Would you say that involvement in these non-teaching activities hampered your pedagogical responsibilities? Why? Yes No

(Reason:.....)

28. What was the level of your involvement in curriculum renewal programmes, if any? Tick the right box:

Never Felt like Participating	Never Asked to Participate	Have Participated
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

29. If you had the opportunity to decide the ratio of pupil involvement in curricular: non-curricular activities, what would it be? E.g. 70:30, 50:50 etc

30. How effective and efficient were the resources provided to the teacher in classrooms by the school authorities? Tick the correct box and give reasons for the same.

Efficient and Adequate	Feasible/Could be Better	Inefficient and Inadequate
(Reason <input type="checkbox"/>)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>)

31. What is the purpose of exams? Rank in order of preference from 1 to 4 (1 being highest).

- To maintain a check on whether the students are learning whatever is being taught
- To examine and rank the memorizing capacity of students
- To promote competitiveness
- To attach a purpose to education in general

32. What do you understand by the term Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation Technique? Have you ever practiced it?

33. What are the problems associated with teaching as a profession? Give reasons for each.

34. According to you, teaching should be a joyful or a serious activity? Give reasons to support your answer.

35. What according to you is more important? (Tick your pick)

- Knowledge about the various strategies of teaching and how they should be put to their respective uses.
- Having a command over the subject matter of the syllabus
- Both are equally important

36. Do you think that the syllabus taught by you was responsible for inculcating values that could ensure the nurturing of the students in such a way that they could grow up to become productive and dutiful citizens? Give reasons to support your claim.

37. What is the main problem faced by the Indian education system today? Rank in order of preference (1 being the highest)

- Poor infrastructure
- Lack of funding
- Numerous vacancies or unfilled positions
- Lack of trained teachers
- Poor quality of teaching style
- Deplorable state of teacher education and training
- Overburdening syllabus
- Other (.....)

38. Given a chance, what is one reform you would like to bring in the present education structure?

ANNEXURE VI

Schools surveyed in Himachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh

Glossary

U – Urban

R – Rural

G – Government

P – Private

RNR – Requested not to be revealed

List of Schools in Uttar Pradesh

1. Kendriya Vidyalaya Lucknow Cantt (UG)
2. Bappa Sri Narayan Vocational Girls (BSNV) Inter-College, Lucknow (UG)
3. Children's Academy, Lucknow (UP)
4. Loreto Convent Intermediate College, Lucknow (UP)
5. Ideal Public Inter-college, Lucknow (RP)
6. St. Xavier's Convent School, Lucknow (RP)
7. Primary and Upper Primary School Hasemau and Laulai, Lucknow (RG)
8. RNR (RG)
9. Primary and Upper Primary School Sarsawan, Saharanpur (UG)
10. Jai Mangla Junior High School, Saharanpur (UG)
11. Bluebells School, Sharanpur (UP)
12. NDA Publi School, Saharanpur (UP)
13. Primary and Upper Primary School Sorana, Saharanpur (RG)
14. Primary and Upper Primary School Brahman Majra, Saharanpur (RG)
15. Future Vision Public School, Sharanpur (RP)
16. RNR (RP)
17. Government Girls Inter-College Robertsganj, Sonebhadra (UG)
18. Primary and Upper Primary School Robertsganj, Sonebhadra (UG)
19. Prakash Genius Public English School, Sonebhadra (UP)
20. Maa Vaishno Modern Public School, Sonebhadra (UP)
21. Primary and Upper Primary School Raup, Sonebhadra (RG)
22. Primary and Upper Primary School Musehi, Sonebhadra (RG)

23. Navjyoti Intermediate College, Sonebhadra (RP)
24. Unity Public Junior High School, Sonebhadra (RP)

List of Schools in Himachal Pradesh

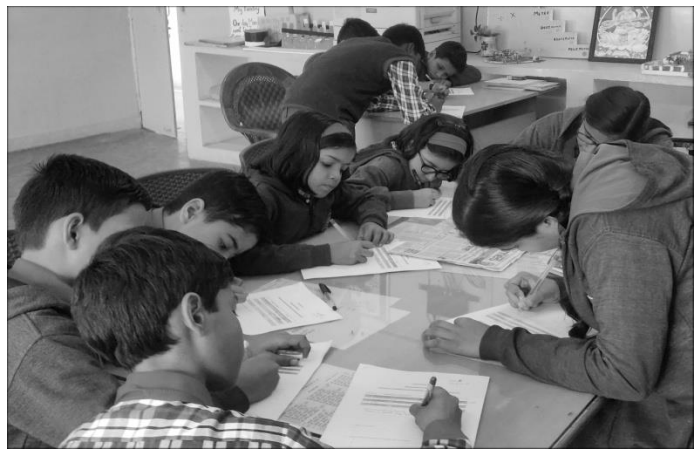
1. Girls Senior Secondary School, Portsmore, Shimla (UG)
2. Kendriya Vidyalaya, Shimla (UG)
3. Shimla Public School, Shimla (UP)
4. Auckland House School (Boys), Shimla (UP)
5. Savitri Public School, Shimla (RP)
6. RNR (RP)
7. Rajkiya Kendriya Prathmik Va Uchha Prathmik Vidyalaya, Jhakhu, Shimla (RG)
8. Government High School, Jhakhu, Shimla (RG)
9. Girls Senior Secondary School, Hamirpur (UG)
10. RNR (UG)
11. HIM Academy, Hamirpur (UP)
12. DAV Public School, Hamirpur (UP)
13. Magnet Public School, Hamirpur (RP)
14. Bluestar Senior Secondary Public School, Hamirpur (RP)
15. Government High School, Jhanwallan, Hamirpur (RG)
16. Kendriya Vidyalaya, Jhanwallan, Hamirpur (RG)
17. Rajkiya Girls Central Primary and Upper Primary School, Kullu (UG)
18. Rajkiya Primary and Secondary School, Akhada Bazaar, Kullu (UG)
19. Arya Adarsh High School, Kullu (UP)
20. Bharat Bharti Senior Secondary School, Dhalpur, Kullu (UP)
21. Rajkiya Varishtha Prathmik Va Madhyamik Shiksha Vidyalaya, Mohal, Kullu (RG)
22. Government Senior Secondary School, Bhuntar, Kullu (RG)
23. Trinity School, Mohal, Kullu (RP)
24. Cambridge School, Mohal, Kullu (RP)

ANNEXURE VII

A Few Glimpses of the Field Survey



B.S.N.V. Girls Inter College, Lucknow



Kendriya Vidyalaya Lucknow Cantt



Prathmik Vidyalaya, Hasemau, Lucknow



Prathmik Vidyalaya, Sonebhadra



Upper Primary School, Musehi, Sonebhadra



Future Vision Public School, Saharanpur



Bluebells School, Sharanpur



Government High School, Jhaku, Shimla



DAV Public School, Hamirpur



Magnet Public School, Hamirpur



Rajkiya Primary and Secondary School, Kullu



Government Senior Secondary School, Kullu