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JOURNAL

CONTENTS

EDITOR'S NOTE

The current issue of the *Journal of Indian Education* reflects our continued endeavour to accrue to our anxious and conscious readers and researchers, innovative papers on a variety of themes with rich contents based on experienced reflections and the results of research studies to facilitate and enrich learning in schools and the overall experiences of teachers. The papers reflect on various issues concerning the working of our educational system like appreciation of our rich cultural heritage; language in education; understanding social constructivism; comparison of private and public school system; reading, writing and oratory in relation to students' performance; emerging influence of social media; teachers preparation through Andragogy, issues related to girls, disabled children and education in far flung regions.

The paper titled *Art at Home, School, University and in Public Life* is the written text of NCERT Mahatma Gandhi Third Memorial Lecture delivered by an eminent scholar Professor Jatin Das. Through the lecture he reflected on our rich heritage and culture and shares his experiences about the ways this has remained intermingled in our routine living, family practices and social interactions. This has found expression in different kinds of rituals and art forms like music, paintings, sculpture, murals and writings including poetry. In order to preserve and enrich our heritage and culture, Professor Das suggests that schools need to carry out this responsibility and have to make practical solutions for designing environment and practices to link our heritage and culture with contemporary life.

In her paper titled *Usage of Facebook in Education,* Meena explores the possibilities and makes a case for examining the use of social networking site Facebook as tool for learning. The paper on *Writing Skills in English among School Children* by Raj Kumari Gupta and her colleagues have studied the correlation of writing skill with speaking skills and the class performance among girls and the boys. *A Comparative Study of Students of Governmental and Non-governmental Schools in Reading and Writing of Mother Tongue* by Sweta Dvivedi brings out the factors that differentiate the students' performance in different kinds of schools. S. K. Mishra advocates the use of Andragogy for training of teachers which is more appropriate for adults and suggests to restrict the use of Pedagogy to teach children.

Shankar Sharan shares his experiences which he gathered during his three-month teaching assignment in a Kendriya Vidyalaya located in a small town of Uttar Pradesh in *Quality Concerns in School Education*. In a reflective paper on English Language Education, situation in India, R. Meganathan discusses about the current situation in different types of schools and goes on to suggest measures to improve the quality of English language education in the country.

In the paper *From Monologue to Dialogue: Interpreting Social Constructivism with Bakhtinian Perspective* Rishabh Kumar Mishra provides the background and limitation of the Vygotskian perspective in relation to social constructivist theory

and discusses about the tenets of dialogic pedagogy in Bakhtinian perspective to help transform the pervasive monologic discourse into dialogic discourse. In her paper concerning the disabled children Farzana Shehla has reflected on the behavioural problems of children with different kinds of disabilities in an inclusive classroom and proposed strategies for accepting the challenging role in adverse situations.

The Government of India is making concerted efforts to bring the North-Eastern region at par with other parts of India in the context of education and other developmental parameters. Three papers in the issue are related to NE region. Pathak and Tomar in their paper analyse the overall status of education in different North-Eastern states and suggest strengthening of need-based action for improving the quality of education and to reduce regional disparities. The family socialisation as tool for empowerment of young girls in Manipur has been discussed in the paper by Chakho Kaya Mao whereas Lophro Celina Sapruna talks about the spatial factors causing social exclusion and hindering the inclusive development in Manipur.

The contribution by our learned authors is sincerely acknowledged and it is hoped that the papers on various aspects concerning teacher and school education shall provide some intellectual and aesthetic stimulus to the curious and enlightened readers.

We wish a very happy new year to our readers.

Academic Editor

Art at Home, School, University and in Public Life*

Jatin Das**

Abstract

My generation imbibed the values of Gandhi's thoughts. He impregnated the whole nation with the ideas of dedication, non violence and freedom of speech. With those fervours, while in schools, I joined Seva Dal and did volunteer work.

I grew up in a traditional Hindu family and participated in innumerable festivals, puja and rituals, which inculcated in me, without my knowledge, with a sense of arts and aesthetics as a way of life. My home and the town I lived in had the basic components of various forms of art. Home as such is a sacred place. Art was not a separate entity; it was a way of life, embedded in every activity. While growing up, I painted, drew, swam, gardened, and never thought of art as a profession or career.

I call my 50 years of work, I have done nothing but devote myself to my work and teach. My childhood Boy Scout temperament is still in me somewhere. Hence my indulgence and concern for art at home, in school, in the university and in public life. This is why and how I made the collection of artefacts, antiquities and handfans; to set up museums and collections for the future generations.

I have served in different committees, both governmental and private, raising my voice, giving unsolicited advice for open-ended education, filled with arts and aesthetics, and art in public life. When you look at the interior landscape of Indian culture, there is a rich, holistic upbringing at home and in society. Our rich cultural heritage still survives, but it is unfortunately not linked to contemporary life. My concern is both at the micro and macro levels, beginning at home and extending to public life.

GANDHI: CHARITY AND IDEALISM

India being an ancient country has a rich cultural heritage. Great thinkers and seers who went deep into every aspect of life and then made treaties for high quality of human life, eventually aspiring for salvation. There was a deep concern for all species of life in nature to survive together. Gandhiji imbibed the spirit of India and used it for modern times. People in India lived together in cluster and proximity for sharing, comfort, and safety.

Gandhiji was an evolved soul. My generation was born a little before independence. So, the fervour of the freedom movement and its idealism was embedded in our upbringing. Our parents were immersed in the freedom movement. The stalwarts and the role models such as Gandhi, Tagore, Nehru and earlier Ishwarchandra Vidyasagar, Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Subhash Chandra Bose, Sri Aurobindo, Jaikrishnamurti and Vivekananda were the visionaries who shaped this country.

Way back in mid'50s when I was in school we reverred Gandhiji and Congress Seva Dal. I enrolled as a volunteer in Seva Dal to distribute rice to flood victims. In our mindscape a sense of idealism, commitment, and dedication were engraved.

ROLE MODEL AND PARENTAGE

Art is an integral part of everyday life and not a separate entity. It starts at home.

Home as an institution was very sacred. The parents and grand parents lived together in a joint family, and their knowledge and expertise percolated down and nurtured little children, and the mother was the nucleus. Mothers breastfed children, children were massaged in oil, bathed in water with turmeric powder heated out in the sun. There were ceremonies for the first grain of rice put in the child's mouth and the first time the child held a chalk stick and made a circle on the floor. This was the beginning of the learning process.

India had a tradition of oral learning and very few had access to manuscripts. The intangible intellect was given as much importance as the tangible knowledge. The eldest were role models for the little children who imbibed everything like a sponge or wet clay. Home is where everything stems: sharing with brothers and cousins, sitting together for meals, cuddling, playing with dogs and cats, where the mother keeps a vigilant eye on the child and the child grew up not only with love, care and affection but soaked in various rituals, puja, arati, chanting in the evening and festivals.

My father named his children after Rabindranath Tagore and his brothers such as Rabindranath, Sachindranath, Jatindranath, Dhirendranath, Birendranath and my sister Sarojini. My mother must have got married at 15 and discontinued her studies. She came to Bombay when my daughter Nandita was born and she recollected that she used to draw in school and had been awarded a Japanese doll for it. She

didn't continue drawing but wrote poems instead all her life. At every wedding whether in the family or in the neighbourhood she wrote a poem which was quickly printed and distributed during the reception. She wrote poems on little scraps of paper or on a used envelope and put them under the mattress.

Home

On the walls at home there were prints of gods and goddesses such as Jagannath, Saraswati, Durga, Kali and great men like Vivekananda, Ishwarchandra, etc. Photographs of grandparents also adorned the walls at home. The walls were white-washed every year and nobody brought shoes into the house. The gardens and the fields had all kinds of vegetables, fruits and flower bearing trees and fish in the pond. The rice fields swayed and changed colour from green to golden yellow in the winter. There was enough food for the whole year. Nature, life and art were intermingled, which was a natural way of life.

Today a sea of changes has taken place not only in my home town but in the rest of the country too. The same house and fields are barren. The family buys even green chilies in the market.

In urban living, children are growing up in crammed concrete dwelling units, away from their ancestral homes and open spaces, spending their days with maids, household helps, or crèches and day-care centres. Of course, there is always an option for those who have children to plan to give up their job and stay home until the children start school. Those first five years are crucial to the child's development. Parents are to participate in the children's activities and their wonderland by drawing, dancing, singing with the children or putting them to bed.

Mayurbhanj and the Greenery

We were lucky to be born in a tribal district, and erstwhile princely state. However, a model town is semi-rural with the advantages of both urban and natural ambience. There were acres of land attached to the house, with all kinds of vegetables and fruit bearing trees and groves. I had a fairly sizable garden to myself and I used to look after it. My two younger brothers and I brought buckets of water from the well and watered the plants. I spent all my time in the garden or near the riverbed beyond the mango grove.

There was a Ranibagh– the queen's garden, may be 50 acres of land, with all kinds of fruits and flowers, champa, nageshwar, and magnolia were also there. There were Venetian ceramic stools to sit on and there was a miniature steam engine train for children to ride. This was the childhood of wide range of experience which was a way of life. All of this is gone, the mango grove has become a housing colony, Ranibagh has been plotted and sold.

ACHAAR VYAVAHAR AND SANSKAR (SENSE OF AESTHETICS AND REFINEMENT)

Living in a large joint family with three generations of people, I remember my grandmother saying 'You pluck the flower to offer it to Krishna or for the hair of a lady or to put it in a vase. Otherwise, let the flower be on the plant.' She used to make pickles and badi in the winter, and many women from the neighbourhood joined in. The process takes many, many weeks and the pickle and the badi were dried in the sun in large baskets. So, from the early childhood we had variety of recipes and dishes which have stayed on my palate.

I love cooking for friends and I have done it in many parts of the world though I never learned how to cook. The taste of the dishes I had at home done by mother and sister is retained on my tongue. Incidentally, many artists cook all over the world, and cooking is the greatest art of all. I would even go further and say that anybody who has had tasty food at home will be able to flourish in art. We learned by simple observation to show our respect to the elders by touching their feet and doing pranam. We did not have to be prompted by anybody to do so as children. For example, when my father was talking to his friends; we didn't interrupt and did not walk across between them.

MEALS AT HOME

At meals we sat together on the floor cross-legged on asthna and ate in large kansa thali with bowls and each one of us had our names engraved on water glasses. We had to eat neem leaves with every meal in the summer. In the evening, at teatime suddenly the Chhau drums would vibrate like thunder, sending reverberations and shivers down the spine, and one would leave the snacks and rush to witness the Chhau dancers.

Many of us must have had similar upbringing at home and some of us might have been luckier than the others. In joint family we shared everything and when the relatives visited we shared our blankets. When 20 kg of fish was caught from the pond 10 kg were distributed to the neighbours and relatives. From all this and much more, a sense of creativity stems.

MUSIC AT HOME

We had a large Philips radio and my sister would tune to classical music so everyday in the house there was music. In the evening my sister-in-law would recite bhajans and we would repeat. Wherever we were, we had to rush at a particular time for the evening prayers. At the same time the Jagannath temple aarti orchestra resounded in the neighbourhood. In the town, during Saraswati, Ganesh puja, etc., there would be cultural programmes for the whole week and traditional music and dance performed in front of the diety and we would sit through the night to witness all of it.

In my home town there were many temples, a church and a mosque, all religions living comfortably together. As a matter of fact, my mother adopted Sher Ali, the tailor, as her son, and he would participate in all our functions. This little town had a large library with rare books, a council hall with Italian marbles and light fittings. There was a museum, a zoo, and a municipality more than 150 years old. The raja's marble statues carved in England were in place, and there was a lake full of lotus flowers. The memory of my childhood is still fresh in my mind. Aesthetics was a way of life, it was not studied. We used to have an annual week-long classical music concert to which A.T.Kanan, V.G. Jog and Bade Gulam Ali Khan and others were invited. I think I was ten or twelve years old, and my friends and I would carry musical instruments to the stage for them. Sanjukta Panigrahi was a little girl and did Odissi dance, and Kalucharan Mahapatra was the guru and Hari Prasad Chaurasia would accompany him on the flute.

Even in an urban setting in Delhi, Mumbai and elsewhere, those who do not have land to grow plants can do so living even in a flat.They can grow plants and vegetables in pots and children can see them being watered, grown and flowered. Frankly, plants and trees are very important. Children should be taken to gardens and parks to roll on the grass and see different kinds of trees and flowers. This is where schools can compensate what families cannot provide in smaller dwellings. Hang a rope-swing to a tree and a child will enjoy it immensely, and there are many songs pertaining to jhula a teacher can sing. As a matter of fact, in our country there are folk songs for different seasons and different occasions.

FESTIVALS, CEREMONIES AND RITUALS

Coming from a middle class Hindu family every possible cultural religious festivals of the season were celebrated at home and in town— Ganesh Puja, Saraswati Puja and Jagathdhatri and Durga Puja were celebrated. There were larger than life size murtis, first armature with straw and then cladding different layers of clay and finally painted over and the jewellery and the decoration in solarpit. We had witnessed the celebration of these icons in different seasons. There was a Pujaghar in the house and during the Lakshmi Puja beautiful dhokra brass figurine came out of the bamboo basket and cleaned with tamarind and ash and shine like gold. In the evening we all washed our feet and sat cross-legged for aarti. The Pandit came and opened the pothi on a carved bookstand and chanted *shlokas* from *Upanishads* and *Bhagatwad purana* and my grandmother and mother sat listening and I disappeared to the garden where I spent all my time. Though I didn't understand a word, the music of the chanting still rings in my ears.

My grandmother kept muslin dhoti and angavastra twisted in wrinkles on the ulna and my father and I occasionally went to the Jagannath temple bare feet and witnessed the trinity Jagannath, Balabhadra and Subhadra black, white and yellow bodied minimal large iconic sculptures. During the aarti the musicians played their traditional instruments.

Puja, Paintings and Murals

During the Lakshmi puja all over Orissa and Bengal villages, women do 'Chita' and 'jhuti' with rice paste on freshly applied cow dung on mud walls. They were not formally trained in this art, but picked it up through their growing years. My grandmother, mother and sister embellish the walls till late in the night before the puja. The fist and fingers impression was the symbol of Lakshmi pada and the illiterate people also understood the symbolism. This is a very ancient art form which is now gradually disappearing. The Saura tribals in Orissa and Warli tribals in Maharashtra do similar drawings with earth colours on mud walls with rural stories. The Kachhi in Gujarat embellish their walls including their granary with clay low relief. In Madhubani, people make lovely murals on their walls with fine lines with twigs, narrating everyday village stories.

In a wedding the chittrakar comes and does a mandala within which the bride and bridegroom are drawn with some symbolic designs.

Everyday, all over Southern India, women clean their front verandahs and the entrance floor and put a slurry of the cow dung and make various patterns with rice flour welcoming the Gods and the guests.

Tribal and Folk Architecture

The tribal people in Mayurbhanj and other parts make beautiful mud houses with inner courtyards and terracotta pictures with shining bronze-like bodies. They paint their walls in layers of different earth colours.

The Mayurbhanj district in Orissa, bordering Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar, has large settlements of tribal people and they come to the town for work as daily labour and a large number come on different days of the week, bringing their vegetables, forest produced crafts, basketry and so on for sale and on their way back they play drums and flute and sing.

A farmer comes back from the field and after his meal spends time on the verandah doing a craft work, and in the evening he takes mridhangam and sings. So, life and art overlap and one flows naturally into the other.

In our traditional holistic upbringing, art was not treated as a separate entity from the day-to-day life. Art was not just painting, dance or music. It was all in one. Each form of art shares aspects with the others because poetics and musicality are inherent in all aspects of art and so is it in life. The so called modern

education system has created much division. Today, a dancer is not exposed to sculpture or painting and the architecture student studies Le Corbusier but has not seen different parts of India as per its diverse climatic conditions. So, various forms of arts are disjointed and completely divorced from life. A teacher in school draws a mango instead of taking the student to a mango grove to smell, draw, and then eat the mango.

My Guru

There was a head master who was a sadhu. He was a learned man all in one. He was my guru. He sang bhajans, did clay modelling, painted pictures, and taught yoga. He was the one who taught me yoga. He also cooked wonderful dishes and grew vegetables and herbs in his little lush green garden. I have not met anybody like him since.

A friend of my brother who studied art at Tagore Shantiniketan would return home every summer. In the summer, while everybody had their midday siesta, I would go to him in the scorching sun to learn how to paint flowers and birds. My eldest brother used to study at the university and he used to bring Japanese oil pastels for me. All my brothers and sisters used to draw and paint but somehow they didn't continue.

School Infrastructure

Every school, I believe, should have a sand and clay pit for children to make clay pinched toys and figurines.

Normally schools have a dedicated place for art class and art rooms where there is coloured paper on the walls on which children's paintings are put up, whereas, there should be boards, which have neutral colours on which the paintings stand out.

Many schools that I have visited only had art in their art class whereas all the school walls are naked and hungry for visuals. The schools should be designed in such a way that classes can be held outdoors under the winter sun because the concrete and cement is cold inside, the building instead of being like an army barrack block should be a cluster of rooms around the inner courtyard with a tree in the middle and benches to sit around. The inner courtyard could be used as an extension to the classrooms. There should be a vegetable patch for children to see them grow and if it's a residential school then there could be a cowshed for milk as well as a gober gas plant for cooking and the cow dung can be used as manure for the vegetable garden.

Art Class

Varied forms of art could be taught in the schools. There should be a music teacher, a dance teacher, a painting teacher and also a traditional crafts person should be invited for stone carving, clay modelling, block printing, etc. There should be a carpentry section where children can use pieces of wood to construct and make architectonic structures. When children go to kindergarten they miss

home and the parents as well as their familiar environment. School has to be an extension of home. Amongst the teachers there should be an older woman who the children could go to cuddle and sit on the lap. Schools should pay more attention to art than anything else playfully, like singing on the swing, painting on the floor, and dancing to a rhythm from a dholak. The teachers for painting, dance, and music should work together in structuring the approach in a natural fashion and treating each day and each season differently. Learning could be made a lot of fun. The upbringing at home and in primary school is the most crucial for the child's development. Therefore, as much time as possible should be spent with plants, animals, puppetry and such other creative methods, Teaching methods could be magical so as to hold the child's attention.

SEMINARS AND WORKSHOPS FOR THE ART TEACHERS

The art teachers of different schools should be invited and/or exchange programmes for different schools so that the expertise, experience, observation of teachers can be shared. This alone brings freshness to the approach for the teacher and the school. The music teacher and the mathematics teacher can work together in a structured mathematical, rhythmical cycle. It could be so arranged that while the children are painting there could be soft music playing.

THE ART ROOM

Cheerfulness is the core of an art room. The room should be designed with large windows for natural light. Little children can have low desks with drawers for the art material. Soft pin-up boards should be put up all around the school walls for art work. There should be dedicated boards for the drawings of the day, poems of the week, etc.

THE ART TEACHER IN SCHOOL

Humanities are given less importance than science subjects. Some schools do not have an art teacher. Art as a subject has been abolished in some states. But the fact is that art as a subject can help with the child's development and the child can develop through it more than from other subjects. Art and science are not only both sides of a coin, but also like sugar mixed in coffee. The process is science and the outcome is a piece of art. There is art in nature. Every activity in life involves art and science. The real creator is nature.

The art teacher can help all the other departments for visual aid. Anybody who has done a course on art does not necessarily become a good teacher. The parents' role is taken over by the teachers in school and vice versa. The art teacher in primary school is more important because he has to inspire the children not only to draw, but to dance, sing and play with clay and sand. Little children are natural artists. If you provide them with a blackboard, floor, wall or paper

they draw on it. Whatever comes their way the teacher has to be vigilant, and not to guide them but to provide them with the material and inspiration. A little child puts his hand into the ink, takes his palm impression, and is astonished with the print. That tactile experience is important. Sometimes they even draw on their clothes and get delighted. The teacher should also be careful not to compare the children's work. Instead he or she should inspire and encourage all of them.

Teachers should essentially be a part of the painting group along with the children. As a matter of fact the art teacher should regularly paint, sing, dance, and hold exhibitions every year in the school. Quite often school authorities stop the teachers from continuing their practice whereas, I would like to suggest that teachers have a studio adjacent to their art department. The teacher should never even correct any painting on the surface of the child's work. The teacher should sometimes take children to the garden and show them trees, skies and clouds and encourage the children to draw some objects from memory, some objects by looking at them.

Take for instance objects like banana or mango. The teacher should bring these fruits for the children to draw and offer them to eat so that the experience is complete.

In higher schools, quite often children give up art and more attention is given to science. As a matter of fact, equal weightage to the arts and to science makes the growth of the child holistic. Our education system seems very dry and does not make learning fun. I think visits to museums should be a part of the curricula so that children can be exposed to crafts, sculpture, paintings, etc.

At the university level, the syllabus is very trite and regimented and there is not much input of traditional art form. There is hardly any concept of visiting faculty and study of medium and material. There should be more exposure to our own heritage like visiting museums and drawing after the master pieces. A senior MFA student does not even know how to clean a brush properly. It seems that even the academy institutes have now been commercialised. Most of the institutions in our country do not have a museum, gallery, or archive. Students should be given a forum to exhibit their artwork inside the university and the market forces should not be allowed to enter the educational institutions. The faculty should be practising individuals. There should be dedicated studios within the institutions for them to continue their own work, and even hold exhibitions and display teacher's works. The government should make special funding for faculty to set up the cluster of auditorium, library, museum, gallery and archive as a must for all schools, universities, and colleges.

Maxmuller Bhavan—Children's Art Workshop

I did a workshop some 35 years ago in Maxmuller Bhavan in Delhi where I insisted that with children their parents and all teachers participate. We sat around a mango tree and since it was the season for mangoes, baskets of raw and varieties of ripe mangoes were brought. Everybody had the ripe mangoes and the raw ones with salt. Some were circular and others we scooped with a spoon and the mangoes came in yellow and orange colour. I had asked a folk singer to sing songs of the season so we sat quietly under the mango tree, looking at its branches and leaves, even noticing the bird's nest on its top. Then everybody did the drawing in pastels and water colours. The parents were first hesitant but then they were all suddenly engrossed in painting and drawing. There was pin-drop silence. Even the naughty children were busy and quiet. Recently, I met some of those children's parents and somebody approached me, hugging me, and touching my feet, all the while talking about the taste of mango still retained in their mouth.

When we were children we were given khari, a soft stone like chalk, to draw on the floor. This could be wiped enabling us to draw again. The floor was the space for the child. In the urban setting, with limited space parents can put up a blackboard at a low height with different colour chalk sticks for a child to draw. Every child relishes drawing and even a restless child becomes calm for some time. This is not only true for children but for every human being. Writing is not drawing but still an art and a lot of people do not write letters anymore. They communicate by email and SMS, which to me seems impersonal. This communication system seems mechanical, synthetic and dehumanised.

Toys for Children

Children put everything in their mouths because their experience is tactile. The toy manufacturers in India have copied the western plastic toys and the figuration is not Indian, toy guns are offered to children. The toys these days are not child friendly, in fact they seem to have a negative and violent effect on the children. There are many colours for children that are toxic whereas, in the entire world the art material for children has to be non toxic and the garments for children has to be made in natural fibres. Yet in our country children's clothes are made out of synthetic polyester and the society and government have not paid any attention to it. So, a child is exposed to all kinds of pollution. Now, there are designer clothes for children with all kinds of writings on the front and back, making children look more adult.

In our country there is a variety of traditional toys made out of organic material in different parts of the country, which are very beautiful and child friendly. The Andhra lacquer

wooden toys, Benaras painted toys. The only family left in Benaras who still makes some only sells a few because there are no takers and people have no interest in these traditional toys. The lacquer terracotta toys in Orissa that I grew up with are no longer available. There are only two families in Orissa who still make them. These toys are waterproof, child friendly and harmless. My grandmother used to take me to the fair and festival markets and used to get me terracotta toys which I kept carefully in my almirah and have continued collecting these toys for 40 years and I am working on a book on the subject.

The Barbie dolls, Spiderman, and Superman toys are manufactured in millions and have taken over the markets all over the world. Chinese manufacturers have cleverly designed toys and guns, tanks for children, making it more attractive with lights and mobility, run by battery, which sell in large quantities, not realising their impact on children.

The books that are produced in the west sometimes are sold by Indian publishers mostly have a hard cover. Not only are they more expensive but actually are not child friendly. There are books with drawings of figures or animals with numbers in it to fill with colour into the area. This particular exercise is boring and limits the child from free expression. Frankly, for little children there should be no art books. They should be given borderless space such as a floor or a wall or a drawing board or sheets of used paper and be free to paint and draw what they like. The illustration of children's books should be large and simple with primary colours, local storage, and local flora and fauna. The paper for the books should be thicker. There should be no horror stories for toddlers.

In the early 60s, in Bombay, Leela Naidu – the actress who died recently – and I did art classes for children. I recall one child who painted one page completely black with a dot in the corner saying in Marathi "this is bhoot and that dot is me hiding."

Children are Godly innocent and have no lateral reference. They are spoiled by their environment, parents, society, television, toys and many objects of industrial produce. Mostly a child draws the father or mother or the puppy or draws just from inherited memory.

ART CAMPS— CHILDREN'S ART COMPETITION

I have been to thousands of children's art competitions, art workshops and schools. I have seen beautiful paintings and drawings from the dream world of children up to the age of six or seven. However, older children's painting and drawing become archaic and mechanical simply because the input is given by teachers, parents, and books. Frankly, I think education really destroys the creative pursuit and natural growth of a human being. There are too many do's and don'ts, unnecessary audio, visual, and

intellectual information, and instead of encouraging the natural process we are being regimented to right and wrong, good and bad. Hence 'rubber stamped' human prototypes are produced.

A child draws on whatever surface comes his or her way. Mama scolds a child that he or she is drawing on the sofa and spoiling the walls. Instead they could get a roll of paper and stick it on the entire wall at the child's height that would become the child's universe to draw on. Parents watch adult movies in front of the children and expose them to visual pollution. The child is like a sponge and wet clay, he absorbs everything and gets automatically moulded to not only what he hears but also what he sees.

I smoke a cigarette but I don't smoke inside the house. I smoke in the garden, hiding myself from my child. One day he observed that I was sitting one leg on the other smoking and flipping the cigarette. The next day he sits exactly as I had and flips his fingers, telling me he is smoking a cigarette. When he was five, one day, in my studio he saw me painting with ink. I had a mug of ink, a broad brush and a thin brush. I had wiped the broad brush on the edge of the mug to reduce the ink and painting. The eyes of my child lit up and he wanted to paint. I gave him a sheet of paper and thin brush but he insisted on taking the broad brush and did exactly as I did to squeeze the brush and painted. He is now six and half and I never

teach him anything about painting. I only gave him pastels pencil, crayon, ink, water colour, paper to draw and paint. I don't even disturb him when he is drawing. He is hooked on the Krishna and Ramayana story from television and often he draws the Kalia, the snake and Krishna.

Children should be exposed to nature and all of its elements, the sky, the cloud, birds, animals, trees and flowers and they pick up whatever they fancy.

Once there was an English lady, a friend of mine, who came to my studio with her son who was eight and I gave him some paper to draw and he said 'uncle Jatin I can't draw.' I asked 'Says who?' He said my art teacher told me that my drawing is not good. So, the teachers and parents can be very cruel other than books and television.

Colonial British organised children art competitions with awards. As I have mentioned I have been to many of these but I insisted there should be no awards such as first, second, third, and the horrid consolation prize. Little children's paintings are wonderful. I sometimes envy their naivety, spontaneity and imagination. I have always insisted that all little children who paint should be given a return gift of some art materials.

Now there are thousands of art competitions in India, organised by multinationals and other corporate houses where they give expensive awards such as televisions, watches,

cash, etc. to evade tax and there are some companies who print their logo on three-fourth of the paper and leave one-fourth for the child to draw on. So, everything marketing. Some teachers in school put the name of the child and class on top of the painting and some teachers even sign and give marks to the paintings!

MUSEUMS AND ART IN PUBLIC SPACE

Museums in our country were originally set up by the British and had become merely storehouses of antiquity. They are not connected to our education system even though students of all subjects can refer to museums as a source of information, especially art and architecture students. Sixty-two years after independence, we haven't thought of developing the concept of museum as a learning centre, a resource centre, and how to make it livelier. We have hardly set up five museums and the National Craft Museum has about 10% of the Indian craft. The State Emporium is selling industrially produced figurines and there are not enough publications on the various forms of weaving, painting, architecture, etc. We have economic and political history in our school and university education, yet the cultural history of our tangible and intangible intellectual property has never been exposed in our learning process. Hence, engineers, doctors or politicians have no idea of the ethos and cultural heritage of our country. This is how M.F. Hussein has come

to be threatened by political groups for painting Sita; because the public at large has not been exposed to our sculptures, miniatures, and poetry. In architectural studies, foreign modern architecture is taught and there is not enough input of traditional Indian architecture. During the colonial period, the education system was to make us clerks, and we haven't given enough importance to art and culture as the backbone of our nation. Even today, the folk, tribal, and classical art forms have survived but these rivers are flowing separately and drying up. Traditional artists, we call craftsmen, and the modern artists have taken the centre stage, though there is enough verve, strength and richness in traditional art forms. There was a proposal for setting up district level museums, which has not been implemented, and innumerable artifacts of our country have been pilfered, stolen, and sold abroad. Pandit Nehru promulgated in the Parliament that 2% of the total cost of a building should be set aside for works of art and decorations, which has never been followed. We have the Commonwealth Games, where billions are spent, but there is no concern or any attention given to art in public life, such as murals, sculptures, etc. We erect ugly sculptures of leaders in various parts of the nation leading to no space for piece of art for the public to view, though there are millions of sculptors and painters in the country. The Lalit Kala Academy brings out contemporary artists' books, and

colour reproductions but they are not acquired by schools or colleges. Indra Gandhi National Centre for Arts has numerous publications on art, unfortunately lying in the dark. The Publication Division of Information and Broadcasting Ministry has similar publications. All this should be printed in large quantity, which should reach the libraries of all academic institutions. The metro stations have no works of art. Art students could be asked, to do murals. The walls of all the buildings and facades are hungry for murals in a country where there is such a rich heritage of arts. The new airports are mere reproductions of other airports round the world, without any art in them, or a display of traditional folk art. We must wake up and not only make ourselves visible to the world but conserve our art form by making our next generation interested in it.

Usage of Facebook in Education

Meena*

Abstract

The conventional set up of four walls with three dimensional teaching aids or smart classrooms are shaking under the regime of Social Networking Sites (SNS) where students are making connections with the unexplored outer world. The educational relevance of the Facebook in contemporary educational system is demanding our immediate attention. The undeterred task ahead for teachers, students, policy makers and administrators is to take this challenge on priority basis without ignoring the time gap that education and technology will contour for the education of future generations. The present paper explores the possibilities of usage of Facebook in education for teachers via case studies. The positive results of the cases discussed here in the paper are encouraging and motivating.

The usage of Social Networking Sites (SNS) has become an indispensable thing in the life of youngsters. Now-a-days students are very much familiar with Web 2.0 technologies like Social Network Sites, blogs, Wikis, Twitter, podcasts, virtual worlds, Snap chat, video and photo sharing on Instagram, etc.

Social Networking Sites (SNS)

Boyd and Ellison (2007) describes Social Networking Sites (SNS) as web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users within whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within this system. Hitwise, an Experian Company (2007) explains Social networking websites are online communities of people who share interests and activities of others. They typically provide a variety of ways

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for users to interact, through chat, messaging, email. Twitter, Facebook, Friendster, MySpace, Cyworld, Bebo, Orkut, Skype, SnapChat and many others are some examples of Social Networking Sites (SNS).

Theoretical Perspective

1. On the positive side of Social Networking Sites

Works done by Yang (2003); Silverman (2007); Kord (2008); Helou and Rahim (2010) and Swang (2011) revealed that the college students are frequent users of online social networking sites, however they use the sites more often for general purposes rather than for the academic reasons. Lavleen Kaur (2012), in her study on relationship between Social Networking Sites (SNS) usage and social skills of the pupil teachers, concluded that there exists significant relationship between Social Networking Sites (SNS) and social skills of the pupil teachers.

Walz (2009) suggested the use of Social Networking Sites (SNS) which may benefit college students by increasing their sense of belonging and hence increase their proficiency in offline social and communicative behaviours.

Crook and Harrison (2008) stated that little empirical research has been conducted on the value of Web 2.0 in education. However, few of them have specifically addressed its role in pedagogy (Charnigo and Barnett-Ellis, 2007; Mathews, 2006; Mazer et al., 2007; Selwyn, 2007; Towner and VanHorn, 2007).

2. On the negative side of Social Networking Sites

Raccanello's (2011) study concluded that online social networking texts are superficial and embellished but also representative of identities which are far away from real identities. Rosen (2011) on the basis of the findings of the studies discussed the potential adverse effects of Social Networking Sites (SNS) as under:
- Negative tendencies, anxiety and depression.
- Health issues.
- Distraction.

Facebook as a Social Networking Site

Facebook is perhaps the largest online Social Networking Sites (SNS) for students and the general public. It was created by Mark Zuckerberg of Harvard University in 2004. The site was originally developed for college and university students as a way to connect with one another. Facebook was opened to public in 2006. The number of technological features makes Facebook more user friendly and providing opportunities to share more things frequently.

Facebook and Education

Some Empirical Evidences

- A study by Baylor University (2014) claimed that although some teachers may worry that social media distracts students from legitimate learning, we found that our Facebook group

helped transform students from anonymous spectators into a community of active learners—and this has important consequences for student performance. The research focussed on a class of 218 students in an introductory sociology class. The study found that students, who participated in the Facebook group scored higher on quizzes, wrote stronger papers and performed better in exams than classmates who did not take part. (The Economic Times, 2014).

• A survey conducted by the Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) between July to December 2013 reported that 76% of teenagers spread across 14 Indian cities had a Facebook account in 2014, though the figure was 86% in 2012. It said 87% of the high school students think social media has made them aware of current affairs (Daily Life, 2014).

Need of the Study

The present paper tries to find out whether Facebook can be used as a tool in education.

• The investigator being in-charge of the college Placement Cell wanted a portal where latest job openings and opportunities in the higher education can be shared with students for their benefit.

• The students hardly visited the college website (www.gcechd.nic.in) for information and latest updates of the institution.

• Most of the students remain in touch with their peer group through Facebook or what's App.

Themes of the Cases

The selected theme of the following cases deals with the usage of Facebook in education:-

CASE I: FOR PLACEMENT CELL SERVICES

Time Period: 2012-13 and 2013-14
Target Group: M.Ed. and B.Ed. students of the above said session of Government College of Education, Chandigarh were considered.
Objective: Opening Facebook account and Group Formation for Placement Cell Services.

Initial Phase: Opening personal Facebook account.

In February 2013, a personal Facebook account was created by the investigator. All the aspects concerned with Facebook like Setting, Privacy, Sharing of various Posts, Pictures etc were studied thoroughly till June 2013. The investigator found Facebook, a more accessible tool for providing information related with opportunities in jobs and higher education to the students as compared to other traditional modes like telephoning or putting the information on Notice Boards/ Bulletin Boards etc.

Middle Phase: Personal CLOSE Group Formation.

A CLOSE GROUP was formed under the name of Moving ahead with

Purpose (https://www.facebook. com/groups/movingcandy). Ex students of session 2012-13 joined this group for the information updates about the opportunities available in jobs and higher education in India. The investigator acted as ADMIN of the group whereas the students who joined were MEMBERS of this group. They were clearly informed that anyone who violates this mandatory instruction is liable to lose the membership of the group. The students cooperated positively in this regard by posting only that information which was totally related to the OBJECTIVE of the GROUP FORMATION. Till date the group has 68 members where investigator is acting as an ADMIN.

Final Phase— Opening Facebook account and Group Formation for Placement Cell Services.

The successful formation of the Moving Ahead with Purpose Group and the positive feedback received from the ex students encouraged the investigator to initiate the whole process for the college Placement Cell Services also. The permission for initiating this project was taken from the Head of the Government College of Education, Chandigarh. The members of the assigned committee rigorously gone through the modalities and code of conduct that has to be followed while using Facebook for Placement Cell. Finally the official Facebook account Placement Cell Gcechd (https://www. facebook.com/govcol.educhd) and

a closed group PLACEMENT CELL, GCE CHD (https://www.facebook. com/groups/placementgcechd20/) were open for ex as well as students of the current session on 25 March, 2014.

Any student who wants to join the group is required to send the message regarding their official name, roll no., class and session to ADMIN for the confirmation which will be tallied from the official data base of the college Placement Cell. The members of this group can share or post their queries regarding JOB VACANCY or HIGHER EDUCATION opportunities available in the various educational institutions. The discussions over personal matters or postings are restricted. Malicious and controversial content posting is also strictly prohibited and will lead to the cancellation of membership from the group. At present there are 67 members and the In charge of the Placement Cell acts as an ADMIN in the group.

Outcomes

- Immediate dispensation of the information to all the members of the group.
- Quick disposal of the queries forwarded by the members.
- Various links concerned with employment and Universities are LINKED so that updates are available to members. For example: Government job India, Government Jobs updates, Employment News, Recruitment Govt. Jobs India etc.

CASE II: FACEBOOK AS A TOOL FOR TEACHING

Time Period: 2013-14

Target Group: Since the investigator was teaching the following disciplines to the B.Ed. students:
Philosophical and Sociological Basis of Education (Paper I)
• Teaching of Economics
• Distance Education and Open Learning

The students of the above said disciplines were considered for studying the usage of Facebook as a teaching tool. The students who had either internet connection in their Personal Computers or mobile phones opted to join the specified Facebook group.

Objective: Using Facebook group as a tool for teaching.

Instructions to the Students: The objectives to join the group were made clear by the investigator to all the students along with the following instructions:-

• It is not mandatory to all the students to join the group. They had full discretion over their choice to join the group or not.
• Any student who does not want to use his/her personal Facebook account to join the group, can create another Facebook account so that he/she feel safe in terms of privacy and security.
• Students have to message their Roll No to join the group.
• Bullying in the form of COMMENTS,

POKES is not allowed and will lead to cancellation of the membership from the group.
• Teaching content in the forms of LINKS, UPLOADS, POWER POINT presentations can be posted by the students.
• The privacy of the student will be maintained in terms of messages sent by them to ADMIN.

Outcomes: The name of the group that was formed is RAINBOW (https://www.facebook.com/groups/rainbowsaga) and till date it has 73 members.

• Teaching content in the forms of LINKS, UPLOADS, POWER POINT presentations were shared with students.
• Students put forward their queries related with the teaching content which were followed by the feedback from ADMIN.
• Language was now not a barrier to communicate. Students are free to choose English/Hindi/Punjabi language.
• Students interacted and connected with each other and feeling of WE generated among members. It gave them a comfortable ZONE where students found that they are a part of the learning system. Since privacy of the group was CLOSED, it gave the students, a sense of security.
• Each member student got an opportunity to express his/her opinion/ideas/suggestions in the

teaching learning process which sometimes is not possible in the limited working hours of the time table.

- Over the course of the time, students (members) began to post links, pictures, queries and events they wanted to share.
- The students kept track on the outgoing activities of the classroom even when they inadvertently missed their classes.
- Facebook group acted as an efficient mode of interaction between ADMIN and students on a daily basis.
- The whole activity created a dynamic vitality in teaching methodology of the teacher.
- Facebook group allowed posting images, videos, podcast, links which are directly accessible to students. It also acted as a Bulletin Board and forum for discussions also.

Precautions Taken for Functioning of the Facebook Groups

- No sensitive information like awards or marks scored during internal examinations is to be posted or shared.
- One of the important things is the COMFORT ZONE which the teacher has to provide to the students. They must be given TRUST, FAITH and COURAGE to say the things. They must not be CONDEMNED and RIDICULED for their different opinions or

views. The teacher has to provide LOGIC and RATIONAL ATTITUDE towards their opinion even if he/she disapproves certain things.

- All the activities done on Facebook must be in professional terms and to be used only for teaching related activities.
- FRIEND'S REQUEST and FOLLOW links must be disabled in the privacy settings. COMMENTS, LIKES, SHARE all these should be disabled for general public to avoid unnecessary things which may derail the whole purpose of forming Facebook group for teaching related activities.

Limitations of the Case Studies

- Qualitative methods like case studies and observations were used to analyse the outcomes.
- The cases discussed in the paper were practicable only at higher education level.
- M.Ed. and B.Ed. students of the selected institution (Government College of Education, Chandigarh) were considered.

Educational Implications

- There are number of applications and groups available on Facebook like Courses, Cite Me, Book Tag, Accepty FBap, Calendar, Knighthood, Mathematical Formula, Used Textbooks group, Webinairia, JSTOR Search, Homework Hep, Word of the Day, Zoho Online Office, Notely, Language Exchange, Typing

Test, Quiz Monster, Notecentric, Slideshare, WorldCat, Hey Math ! Challege, Flashcardlet etc which a teacher can use for improving teaching-learning process.

- Facebook usage provides an opportunity for teachers to teach students how to be safe, polite and effective when using social media tools.
- Classroom activities and events can be managed and organised efficiently via Facebook calendar.
- Motivational content can be shared with students as it can boost their morale.
- Facebook can be used for CAREER GUIDANCE and COUNSELLING CELL.
- The Students can FOLLOW OR LIKE various pages which can provide updates and important information. For example:- Newspapers; publications by various agencies like WTO, World Economic Affair; Groups based on various issues/ themes: Government job India, Government Jobs updates, Employment News, Recruitment Govt. Jobs India; Books; Movies; Museums; Motivational Quotes; Films; Songs; Games; Art Galleries; Public Figures; Celebrities; Politicians/Leaders at the local, state and international level.
- Students can get exposure to Facebook group discussions, Brain storming sessions, social media etiquette or skills.

- Improves command over language and communication skills.
- Facebook can be used for RESEARCH purposes as questionnaire or opinionnaires can be get filled easily by the respondents.
- Saves paper and environment.

Suggestions for Teachers

- Different courses or classes must have different GROUPS so that things remain focused to the ideology behind group formation.
- Refraining strategy to be adopted by teachers on unnecessary controversies.
- Make clear cut policies on social media. These must be prepared along with the help from fellow teachers, students, parents, Head of the institution and administrators. All the activities concerned with Facebook must adhere to Code of Conduct.
- Keep personal and professional boundaries space on Facebook separate. Personal information like pictures, videos etc must not be shared either by students or teachers. Teachers must avoid making students in FRIEND'S LIST.
- Never compromise with anyone's privacy. Name calling, sexting, threats, gossip, teasing, insults, rumours, lies, mean words etc must be avoided and students should be made aware about these issues.

- CYBER BULLYING must be dealt with serious consideration from the institution.
- Content filtering and strong malware protection must be there for the computers.
- Teachers must create awareness among students about the Time Management Skill when using Facebook.
- Workshop/ Seminar/ Lectures on IT Acts and CYBER LAWS must be conducted from time to time.

Summing Up

Technology gives the quietest student a voice.--------Jerry Blumengarten (2013)

These echoing lines not only sums up the present paper but also gave the insight to the investigator to initiate the work on these lines in practical terms via usage of Facebook in education. The quietest student will certainly get a voice but teacher will also get an opportunity to touch the cores of the student's heart by removing more barriers of formal structure of education. The platform Social Networking Sites (SNS) are opening to the society will eventually transform social, cultural, political, economical and educational set up of all nations. The usage of social media in education is not a Pandora's box but a WINDOW where a teacher has to act as a guardian and guiding force for their students so that this window can be opened with courage to look at the sky (taming virtual opportunities to achieve the goal of all round development) without losing their firm stand on the ground (ignoring the virtual risks and threats).

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Writing Skills in English among School Children

Gender Differences, Relationship with Class Performance and with Speaking Skills

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Abstract

Present study focuses on gender differences in writing skills, relationship of writing skills with oral skills and with class performance. A sample of 90 boys and 90 girls from fourth grade were selected to study gender differences. A set of 70 students of seventh grade were assessed for relationship of writing skills with oral skills and with class performance. Writing was assessed on a set of familiar topic and spelling and speaking on seven familiar questions. For class performance, scores of half yearly exams and two unit tests were taken. Girls outperformed boys in writing skills and writing skills were significantly correlated with speaking skills and with class performance.

In today's modern world, English has emerged to occupy position of lingua franca in areas of business, education, information sharing, computer work and life in general. Much of literature is written in English. It is the most often spoken language. Even after six and half decades of British rule in India, no regional language or Hindi has been able to replace it. Most Indians get used to a particular style, pronunciation, nuances, phonology, grammar and other emphases laid on various aspects of their mother

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tongue. Confusion begins when they begin to learn English which has a different pattern and set of rules. This happens all the more when they start to learn English late in childhood. Thus, the importance of examining development of learning various aspects of this language viz writing, speaking, spellings, class performance etc. in school life can never be overestimated.

Writing is a complex language skill which requires planning, organizing, recalling spellings, translating and reviewing. These processes involve demands on cognitive processes.

The exercise of writing task begins as early as a child gets admitted to the school. The ability to write correctly and effectively is one such thing, whose foundation is laid in the school. School authorities provide ample opportunities to the pupils so that they develop a capacity to write and express their thoughts independently.

Writing skill is important for life of a person more specially during student life. The National Commission on Writing (2003) points out if students have to learn, they must write.

OBJECTIVES

(1) To identify the gender differences in writing skills in English language among students at school level.
(2) To explore the relationship of writing skills of students with their speaking skills and class performance.

HYPOTHESES

(1) The performance of girls on writing skills will be significantly better than boys.
(2) Writing skills of students in English will significantly be correlated with their speaking skills in English.
(3) Writing skills of students are significantly correlated with their class performers.

Operational definitions of the terms used

Writing Skills: This included expressive writing skills and spelling performance. Expressive writing skills were assessed by having children to write on a number of familiar topics. Spelling performance was assessed by a standard diagnostic tool on spellings.

Gender differences: In this study, gender differences mean differences in performance of boys and girls in both expressive writing and spelling performance.

Class Performance: Class Performance was an average of academic performance in half yearly exams and two unit tests in English.

Speaking skills: These were assessed by having subjects to answer seven questions to obtain around 15-20 spoken sentences.

Methodology

For investigating questions of interest, descriptive research method was used.

Sample

Ninety boys and 90 girls from fourth grade (class IV) of government and private schools from Chandigarh were selected for studying gender differences in writing skills.

Another set of 70 students of seventh grade (class VII) were selected randomly from Government schools of Chandigarh for assessing relationship of (a) writing skills and speaking skills (b) writing skills and class performance. The idea of taking students from a higher class to assess relationship between variables was to have students with reasonably developed speaking skills.

Schools and subjects (students) both were chosen randomly in both the cases.

Tools

- Ten topics familiar to students were used to examine expressive writing among 4th graders.
- These topics are 1. My family, 2. Myself, 3. My School, 4. My friend, 5. My favourite sport, 6. Chandigarh, 7. My favourite actor, 8. My favourite television serial, 9. My teacher, and 10. Morning walk.
- To assess spelling skills, Diagnostic Spelling Test (Gupta and Narang, 2005) was utilised. This test has 35 words' spellings. It has been standardised on third and fourth grades. Discriminating validity and content validity was established in this test. Split half reliability and criterion validity of test are .92 and .82 respectively.
- Another set of ten topics for expressive writing were used for assessing expressive writing in 7th graders. These are; 1. My school, 2. A holiday, 3. My parents, 4. My teacher, 5. Cricket, 6. Trees, 7. My hobby, 8. My country, 9. My best friend, and 10. My favourite animal.
- To know the level of speaking skills, a set of seven familiar questions mentioned in were asked from students. The idea was to get a sample of 15-20 sentences from each of them. These questions are given below:
  - Tell me something about yourself.
  - Tell me something about your school.
  - Briefly narrate your daily schedule from getting up in the morning till going to bed in night.
  - Tell me how will you spend your Sunday.
  - Which subject you like the most and why?
  - Which teacher you like the most and why?
  - Who is your best friend and why?

Scores of half yearly exams and two unit tests were taken into account. An average of these scores was calculated to mark class performance in English.

PROCEDURE

Fourth grade subjects were to select any three topics from Appendix I to write six lines on each of those. Scoring was done by using Developmental Sentence Scoring Key (Lee, 1974).

Seventh grade subjects were to choose any two topics from Appendix II to write about fifteen sentences in all. Scoring was done on a ten point scale keeping in mind the following: number of complete meaningful sentences, spellings and grammatical mistakes. To prevent subjectivity, another scorer also scored the same performance. An average of the two scores was used for analysis which were significantly correlated (r=0.52; p< .01).

For speaking skills, a set of questions suited to class seventh was asked to generate about 15-20 spoken sentences. These sentences were recorded and later transcribed. Scoring was done on a ten point scale keeping in mind the following: the number of complete meaningful sentences, pronunciation and fluency in speaking. Again, to prevent subjectivity, another scorer also scored the same performance. An average of these two scores was used which were significantly inter-correlated (r=0.59; p< .01).

For class performance, scores of students in English were obtained from the school authorities. An average of half yearly exam and two unit tests was calculated to mark class performance in English.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

1. Gender Differences in Writing Skills

Verbal performance and verbal cognitive processing between boys and girls have been found to be different (Emanuelson and Stevenson, 1990; Halpern, 1992). Subsequent to, and prior to this, there have been many researches indicating that differences exist in writing performance as well between both of them (Swan, 1992; Denton and West, 2002; Bannon, 2004;

Justice, Invernizzi, Geller, Sullivan and Welsch, 2005; Hanna, 2005; Mead, 2006; Berninger, Nielsen, Abbott, Wijsman and Raskind, 2008; Parker, 2010).

Levy and Heller (1992) pointed out that language areas in brain which process reading and writing are located in different brain sections among girls and boys. In males, these functions are taken care of primarily by left hemisphere. However, in females they are spread in both the hemispheres. The authors suggested that girls are able to better integrate learning for writing.

Halpern and La May (2000) suggested that gender differences exist in some of the tests of cognitive abilities. While males were found to have an edge over females in their ability to manipulate visual images in working memory, the females had an advantage in retrieving from long term memory store and acquiring and using verbal information.

Gurian and Stevens (2004) inferred from their researches that the girls have, in their temporal lobe stronger neural networks than boys do. These networks facilitate more detailed memory storage and better listening skills. They can discriminate in tones of voice better than boys. Girls can put all this to their advantage for details in writing works.

Mckenzie (2007) mentioned that the differences in writing abilities of males and females was visible in a young age and this difference increased as they grew in years. The girls were ahead in 70% of the tasks.

Beard and Burrell (2010) analysed three aspects viz. imaginative, narrative and persuasive of writing of 9 to 10 year old subjects for gender differences. The texts produced by children were analysed using test guidelines and genre-specific rating scales. Girls were found to be better in writing achievement. Analysis of five parts of writing showed that girls scored significantly higher in four in both the years. A subgroup of the highest-achieving children contained lesser number of boys. Textual effectiveness, content or language use did not reveal any gender variations.

Anthony, Giles, Bradac and Palomares (2013) proposed a new explanation of Gender Linked Language Effect. They tested this explanation that each gender has socialised schema of how s/he normatively communicates by getting subjects to describe five photographs. First one was to be described in simple manner, other four descriptions under two gender guises, each of these guises had further two options— description to a male or to a female. Discriminant analysis showed that words used by respondents in man's guise was different from that in woman's guise, supporting gender linked language schemata. Findings corroborated new gender linked language model.

Serholt (2012) investigated the overall frequency in which Swedish advanced learners of English used epistemic modality to express doubt (hedges) and certainty (boosters) in their academic writing; and if there seemed to be gender-related differences. A comparative analysis of 20 randomly selected C-essays written by Swedish students of English at several universities was therefore conducted. Slight indications were found suggesting that girls offered stronger commitments to the propositional information they produced than boys besides some other findings.

Troia, Harbaugh, Shankland, Wolbers and Lawrence (2013) examined a convenience sample of 618 subjects selected from Class 4th through 10th, except Class 8th. Subjects were administered a measure of writing motivation and activity scale. They also submitted a time bound sample of narrative writing. Teacher's judgment of writing ability of subjects was also obtained. Results indicated that girls and older subjects wrote qualitatively better fiction. This was also true for

subjects having better level of writing skill as per teacher's rating. More frequent writing work was done by girl students, higher level writers, and students younger in age. Path analysis showed that writing activity changed with grade and gender. Gender, teacher judgment, and writing activity had effect on some aspects of writing motivation.

Gurpreet (2013) investigated oral skills and writing skills among fifth graders. She found that there were no gender differences in written word points, written sentence points, written compound sentence points and written errors, though the sample size in this study was small (14 males and 19 females). In this study, significant gender differences in oral skills in English language were found to exist in favour of girls.

Kaur (2014) examined writing skills in Punjabi among boys and girls of urban schools. She found that girls perform significantly better in spelling accuracy, word points and meaningful sentences. Also boys scored significantly higher in spelling errors.

'Girls outperform boys yet again' was the report carried by Indian Express (Goyal and Dhillon, 2014) which indicated results of class tenth exam of CBSE board. All these performances were based on writing of various types, some creative, some based on memory and some on analysis.

It appears certain that males differ from females in writing performance. If Levy and Heller's indication (1992) is to be believed, then females are at an advantageous position for writing. Halpern and La May (2000) and Gurian and Stevens (2004) also suggest similar advantage. More recent findings also suggest quantitative and qualitative differences in boys and girls in favour of latter.

2. Speaking Skills

All individuals learn to speak, whichever language. According to Myklebust (1960), auditory expressive language is evidenced in speech which emerges at around one year of age which is for the language most spoken in presence of child. Speaking is universal and inevitable part of human environment. Everybody (barring children with severe hearing impairment, severe speech impairment and cerebral palsy) can speak at least one language. A child learns speaking with no conscious effort and conscious instruction.

Developing such speaking skills in second language such as English is not that effortless. This requires planned instruction and conscious effort.

Normally audience looks at the speaker while listening to him/her. Standing in front of an audience can often give stage fright to a novice speaker. S/he may be worried about making mistakes, being scrutinised and criticised by listeners or embarrassment in presence of other students. This may

lead to a lot of mistakes or a situation of total silence. Besides learner inhibition, lack of motivation, lack of knowledge of subject matter, lack of good vocabulary, lack of confidence, anxiety, inadequate listening, family background, shy nature etc. (Latha and Patella, 2012) would make or mar a performance in speaking skills.

Research in oral skills has received extensive attention in many areas: achievement and class room talk (Flanders, 1970); oral communication and critical thinking skills (Noblette and Lynette, 2010); oral fluency and dyslexia (Gupta and Randhava, 2012); oral skills and classroom behavior (Singh, 2013); gender differences in spoken English among children with English as a first language (Aquini, 2014) to mention a few.

3. Writing Skills and Speaking Skills

Following is a brief account of literature on relationship of above two aspects of language:

Wilkinson (1965) pointed out that the development of oral skills would lead to enhanced skills in reading and writing as language users become increasingly proficient. Oral language plays a role in literacy development.

According to Cregon (1998) speaking, reading and writing aspects of language depend on each other and on a common set of phonological, semantic and grammatical structures, as well as some common processes or goals.

Dallimore, Hertenstein and Platt (2008) investigated effect of participation practices on development of communication based skills. participation practices were used as an instructional technique. Results showed evidence of effectiveness of instructional technique. Active preparation on part of students and active participation in discussion in class contributed in improvement in both spoken and written communication skills. Findings suggested that class discussion can prove to be beneficial to both types of programmes: cross cultural courses and stand alone courses.

Catherine and Hutchison (2009) predicted about effect of a four week long programme of telephone mediated language intervention, on young children's recontextualisation processes in narrative expression. Findings showed that experience of telephone mediated language intervention affects both written and oral narrative expression.

Hale (2010) examined efficacy of thematic units for struggling readers in oral language in receptive, expressive and written vocabulary areas. They used these thematic units in small groups. The attitudes and effects on students regarding their participation were evaluated. Results depicted positive associations.

Taylor, Greenberg, Daphne and Laures (2012) found that there was a correlation among oral language skills, written language skills and reading comprehension.

Puranik and AlOtaiba (2012) assessed development of beginning writing skills among children studying in kindergarten school. 242 children were administered tests in cognitive, oral language, reading and writing areas. Two elements i.e. handwriting and spelling contributed significantly to expression in writing.. Oral language and reading skills were not found to contribute to writing significantly.

Puranik, Cynthia, Lonegan and Christopher (2012) examined whether children with reading impairments also experience writing difficulties. They worked on a group of 293 pre-schoolers and inferred that children having weak oral skills lagged behind their class peers in terms of their skills related to writing.

Gurpreet (2013) examined oral skills in relation to writing skills among fifth graders. It was found that no co-relation existed in oral and written word points, oral and written sentence points, and oral and written compound sentence points. However, a significant co-relation was found in oral and written errors. These points were earned by subjects in dictated writing of sentences and words, and expressive speaking. The sample in this study as pointed out earlier, since was small, the findings need verification.

Hubert (2013) examined the development of efficiency in speaking and writing in Spanish as a foreign language by carrying out an interview in oral proficiency and writing skills

test for students admitted in courses of three different stages. A correlation was calculated among scores in speaking and writing performance. Results indicated a fairly strong correlation between the two skills among students. A weaker correlation between the two was seen when performance in each of the groups was analysed individually. Some students showed more proficiency in writing as compared to speaking; some others showed an opposite trend, and still others were equally proficient in both the skills.

Majority of researches and literature mentioned above indicate an association in speaking and writing skills.

4. Class Performance

Performance in schools, majority of times, is assessed by writing, few times by oral methods and rarely by methods involving doing. In language subjects, writing assumes more importance because doing is almost irrelevant and oral assessment, though necessary, is individualistic in nature hence time consuming and does not yield complete picture. Hence, it does not find itself used often to evaluate. Based on this practice, class performance in this study is assessed by written component of achievement in English. A comprehensive approach was adopted to get as close as possible to the picture of students' performance in English. Scores of half yearly exams and two unit tests were taken into account. An average

of these scores was calculated to mark class performance. It may be noted here that class performance in this research is on routinely studied matters whereas expressive writing is not done on commonly studied topics (though subjects are familiar with them) and spelling performance is on a standardised test.

5. Writing Skills and Class Performance

Since writing is used in every subject during evaluation in school systems, it appears rational to assume that students, who are adept at writing, will perform well in general in class in English language. Previous literature tends to support this.

Bangert-Drowns, Hurley and Wilkinson (2004) conducted meta-analysis of 48 school programmes. The objective of these programmes was to examine effect of an intervention named 'writing to learn' on academic attainment. The meta-analysis indicated that writing skills can exercise a small, positive effect on dependent variable. The increased length of intervention predicted increased academic achievement. The use of metacognitive prompts also predicted enhanced impact of intervention. When intervention was implemented in Grades 6–8 and longer writing assignments were given, it led to reduced effect on academic achievement. Reasons suggested for the enhancement are as follows: writing approximates human speech, it supports learning strategies used

by subjects, and it functions to elevate academic performance.

Southern Regional Education Board (2008) emphasised the importance of reading and writing skills in both education and career. The objective was to integrate reading and writing skills along the range of curriculum in academic, career and technical courses. It was done in ways that improved student achievement in reading and writing and in the subject content areas. It is mentioned that if students could not read and write for learning, they would struggle and potentially fail. This would obviously affect their academic achievement.

Harrison (2009) examined literacy profiles of undergraduates (UG) having writing difficulties who were academically at risk by administering cognitive, word-level reading, spelling and writing measures. He compared the performance in these areas with their regular counterparts. The areas of lower performance of at risk UG students were: sight reading, lexicon decision, alpha RAN, making rhyming decisions for words which varied in visual and orthographic similarity. At risk learners also wrote miss spellings that were orthographically less plausible, and made more spelling errors. Findings have been discussed in relation to the importance of word-specific knowledge for skilled writing which in turn influenced the class performance.

Prat-Sala and Redford (2012) studied the relationships of performance of subjects in a) essay

writing and b) self-efficacy measures in reading and writing . This was done in an assessed written coursework. 145 freshmen and sophomores studying Psychology formed the sample. The results point out that both self efficacy measures were related to writing performance. Also results demonstrated the significance of self efficacy in reading and writing in relation to subjects' performance.

Kingir, Geban and Gunel (2012) investigated the influence of the intervention named Science Writing Heuristic (SWH) approach on achievement. Four intact classes of grade nine which were taught by 2 chemistry teachers were selected. This yielded two experimental and two control groups. Subjects in the experimental group were told to use SWH approach whereas those in the control group were given routine traditional instruction. Analysis was conducted by using ANCOVA. It emerged that the Science writing heuristic approach contributed to subjects' test performances significantly more than the traditional approach. Also, low and middle achievers in the treatment group performed significantly higher than those in the control group during the post-test stage.

Preiss, Castillo, Flotts and Martin (2013) investigated educational correlates and gender differences of writing and critical thinking in higher education. A group of 452 freshmen from Chile comprised the sample. The question of interest was whether performance in test on augmentative writing was co-related with a) assessments in inferential and argument analysis, b) syllogism and c) academics. The latter was taken from high school achievements and two admission tests' performance. Findings indicated that the data obtained from analysis of writing and thinking performance was in consonance with that obtained from academic assessments.

Many centers around the globe which administer programs to enhance academic achievement, provide training in writing skills, besides other components (www. johnmarshall.edu/ajmls-students/ academicahievement; www.20. csueastbay. edu/ library/scaa/ workshops- wst-info.html both retrieved on June 5th, 2014).

As far as development of language is concerned, proficient writing skill is ultimate among all its aspects. To be able to acquire it would be to enable oneself to communicate any academic ideas to peers, evaluators, teachers, parents and any other consumers, be it any subject-informative, logical and mathematical, or language. The following is hypothesised on the basis of above literature and arguments.

RESULTS

To describe data, mean, standard deviation, have been used. To examine gender differences, t-test has been used. To assess relationships, Product Moment Method of correlation has been used.

Gender Differences

Following table reflects the average, variability, in both girls and boys for expressive writing and spellings performance. It also shows t-ratio to indicate significance of gender differences in both expressive writing and spellings.

This table shows that mean score on expressive writing is higher among girls with higher variability. The mean score on spellings is also higher among girls but the variability is slightly lower as compared to boys.

The gender difference in mean score in expressive writing is significant as shown in table (t=40.38, p<.01 with df of 178). This difference is in favor of girls. This finding is corroborated by findings from other research studies (Swan, 1992; Denton and West, 2002; Bannon, 2004; Hanna, 2005; Mead, 2006; Berninger, Nielsen, Abbott, Wijsman and Raskind, 2008; Kaur, 2014). However, another study (Gurpreet, 2013) does not support

present findings. When details were examined, the sample from the latter (though small) was taken only from one school, where children belong to educated families and extremely caring environments. The scoring has been different also, it counted word points, sentence points and compound sentence points whereas in this part of present study, scoring has been with the help of Developmental Sentence Scoring Key (Lee, 1974). When means were examined, girls do score higher in Gurpreet's study but not significantly. Probably more data in that study would throw more light on this issue.

In case of spellings also, the mean score in case of girls is significantly higher as compared to boys (t=12.4; p<.01 with df of 178). Earlier researches lend support to this finding also (Daisy, 2000; Martin and Hoover, 1987; Allerd, 1990). These findings confirm hypothesis no. 1 of this study.

Table 1

Mean, S.D., t-ratio, Degrees of Freedom, p value in Expressive Writing and Spellings

	Mean		Standard Deviation		t - ratio	Degrees of Freedom	p value
Expressive Writing	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	40.38	178	.01
	34.67	46.38	15.84	21.12			
Spellings	27.56	28.8	7.32	7.02	12.4	178	.01

Table 2

Correlation of writing skills with speaking skills and with class performance

Correlations In	Value of r	Df	p value
Writing skills and Speaking skills	0.67	68	.01
Writing skills and Class Performance	0.60	68	.01

Correlations of Writing Skills with Speaking Skills and with Class Performance

Table 2 presents values of correlations of writing skills with i) speaking skills in English among children and ii) class performance in English and their p values.

The value of correlation found in writing skills and speaking skills is significant (r= 0.67; p<.01 with a df value of 68). This result confirms hypothesis no. 2.

Present finding is corroborated by findings from studies of Dallimore, Hertenstein and Platt (2008), Catherine and Hutchison (2009), Taylor, Greenberg, Daphne and Laures (2012) and Hubert (2013). However, Gurpreet's study (2013) only partly supports present findings; a significant correlation was found by her in oral and written errors but not in oral and written word points and sentence points. Once again this study needs revalidation because of small number of subjects. Puranik and AlOtaiba's study did not find significant contribution of oral skills to written expression. This experimental study's sample was taken from kindergarten class. As the children grow, nature of various aspects of language keeps on attaining more stability. Their measures of writing were also different: handwriting and total number of words. Nature of oral skills examined in study conducted by Puranik and AlOtaiba have not been explicitly stated. Moreover, oral skills of kindergarten children are not as well developed as those of VII grade subjects of this study. Methodology and sample differences could have lead to inconsistency in findings from the two studies.

The correlation in writing skills and class performance has been found to be significant(r=0.60; p<.01 with a df value of 68). This finding gets support from earlier researches (Harrison, 2009; Prat-Sala and Redford, 2012; Kingir, Geban and Gunel, 2012). This finding confirms hypothesis no. 3. It is too natural to expect such a relationship given our system of education and written evaluations in every field of endeavour and at every level. Oral evaluation and evaluation by doing find little scope in evaluation in Indian schools.

General Discussion

Children start developing language by listening to words spoken by others during early years. Oral skills in life develop before commencement of development of writing skills. This applies to languages other than mother tongue also. The process and sequence remain the same. Also, when children join school, where they are required to do serious writing, they have, by and large, already acquired reasonably good skills in speaking. Whenever, there is a need to write, human brain sends instructions for the same. Quality of an instruction issued to write will depend on quality and richness of acquired oral language which has to get translated into written form. This applies to situations where children do not have to write on topics crammed by them. The chosen topics for both writing and speaking in this study have been familiar to children. They have heard about those topics in their environments. The situation required natural attempt, recalling at best, but no cramming. That implies that the correlations obtained in the study indicate natural and real relationship.

The results of this study appear to be very interesting and encouraging for students. The findings suggest that an intervention in the oral skills of the students, who are poor in writing skills, can firstly bring a positive change in oral skills and secondly a concomitant improvement in their writing performance. The latter can induce an improvement in class performance since it is based on writing skills in most of the evaluative situations in class room. Hence, oral skills may have the potential of benefiting in multiple ways. Findings from co relational studies offer immense benefit in planning experimental studies.

This suggests an implication to school teacher and parent that oral skills bear one of important keys to class performance. This study has implications for researchers in the area of language development. An experimental study to this effect will throw light on this. Play time which is so naturally available to children can be utilised for oral skills. Attempt can be made to study inculcation of oral skills via play way method, story method and/or other natural methods since 'Reading and writing float on a sea of talk' according to Britton (1983). If the study is longitudinal, one can examine whether administration of intervention develops better writing and class performance later in comparison to those who were not. If there are any intervening variables, between intervention in oral skills and resultant change in class performance, those can also be identified and examined. This study has also prepared ground for experimental study to know whether boys and girls respond to and utilize intervention in oral skills differently. Do they require intervention of different durations for benefits to accrue? Another question worth

examining is whether children of different age groups, as have been taken in this study, will learn and respond to intervention in speaking skills differently.

Alternatively, simultaneous intervention in written and oral skills may bring improvement in both of

these skills and ultimately also in class performance.

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A Comparative Study of Students of Government and Non-government Schools in Reading and Writing of Mother Tongue

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Abstract

The quality of education and its determinants remain a topic of attention since the beginning of formal education. Though there are a number of factors which determine the quality of education, the most vital one that attracts the attention of all is the level of achievement. For any nation of the world these levels of achievement are so important that they need to be known periodically to keep a tab on the general health of the education system. But there is a big gap in the level of achievement in different types of schools. Factors, such as semi qualified teachers, very high student-teacher ratio, inappropriate teaching-learning materials and out-dated teaching methods result in a low quality of education. As a result, there are many students who even after completing primary schooling lack even in rudimentary reading and writing skills. Governing body of the schools is also other prominent factor for this. In India a large population of children study in the government schools and researches indicate that the outcome of the government schools is not up to the mark. The following paper investigates this perception in the context of reading and writing skills of children in their mother tongue.

INTRODUCTION

In the area of primary education a rapid growth has been seen since the global meeting in Dakar in year 2000. It introduced renewed urgency into the international movement to

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provide basic education for every child in the world. Keeping the appeal of Jomtien, some countries made progress in reducing disparities of their countries in the distribution of educational opportunity which were based on gender, disability, ethnicity, residential area and income of family.

These disparities can be easily seen in developing and undeveloped countries. More well as large numbers of children are out of schools than developed countries. In South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, fewer than three out of four pupils reach Grade 5 (Final Report Dakar, 2000). Situation of education is not very much dissimilar now these days also. Although in the classes number of students has been increased but they are not getting good quality of education. Also in India condition of primary education is not well and maximum numbers of students are getting a poor quality of education. Achieving a real change in the situation of primary education is really a much more demanding task in the country (Drèze and Sen, 1995). Government schools cater education to a large population. But several recent papers point out, private fee-charging schools increasingly cater to a substantial fraction of the primary-schools going population in India (Muralidharan, n.d). The main cause of attraction of parents for private or non-Government schools is poor quality of education in Government schools. A number of researchers believe that private schools provide a better quality of education than the public ones as many findings show that student achievement has been considerably higher in non-Government schools (Bedi and Garg, 2000; Corten and Dronkers, 2006; Braun, Jenkins and Grigg, 2006; Muralidharan, n.d.). The Probe Team sought to answer this question by visiting, unannounced, 195 government schools and 41 private schools in 188 villages of four, educationally backward states. In half of the government schools they found no teaching activity at all at the time of the visit. Moreover, this pattern of idleness 'is not confined to a minority of irresponsible teachers– it has become a way of life in the profession' and is characteristic even of government schools with good infrastructure, adequate books and a relatively low pupil/teacher ratio. In contrast, they found a 'high level of teaching activity in private schools, even makeshift ones where the work environment is no better than in government schools' (Probe Team 1999; Willmore, 2004).

Also in rural areas of country preference for non-government or private schools is increasing. Studies, present results from nationally representative samples of rural India to show that 28% of the population of rural India has access to fee-charging private primary schools (Muralidharan and Kremer 2006, and the Pratham, 2005). At present every parent wishes to enrol his child in non-government schools/private

schools but low income of family is like a barrier for it. Every child is not in position to enrol in private schools (Hawley, 1995).

To uncover the status of quality of education in primary schools of India researcher has done this study. Language is prime factor to understand other subjects. In the absence of language (reading, writing and symbolic) no one can go on smoothly. So the investigator has tried to explore the proficiency of students in their mother tongue. Basically there are nine basic skills in language: listening, speaking, reading, writing, comprehension of ideas (through listening and reading), functional grammar, self-learning, and language use and vocabulary control. First four competencies are related to the four language skills that are universally known and well established. So researcher tried to assess the competencies of students especially in reading and writing which are major two competencies of first four competencies.

Research Questions

- Whether the students of primary schools are proficient in reading and writing of mother tongue?
- Whether the students of Government primary schools differ from students of Non-Government primary schools in proficiency of reading of mother tongue?
- Whether the students of Government primary schools differ from students of Non-government primary schools in proficiency of writing of mother tongue?

Objectives of the Study

- To study the level of proficiency in mother tongue reading and writing at the end of the class.
- To study the differences in proficiency in reading of mother tongue in the government and Non–government primary schools.
- To study the differences in proficiency in writing of mother tongue in the government and Non–government primary schools.

Methodology

1. Tools

As per objectives of this study mainly two tools were developed by the investigator to determine the proficiency of the students in reading and writing of mother tongue. Reading test has two sections; section-A which was related to prose and section-B which was related to poetry. Same as there are two sections of mother tongue writing section-A and section-B which were related to prose and poetry respectively. The last paragraphs and stanzas of the last chapter of prose and poetry were taken to assess the reading and writing competency of students because all types of diacritics (matarayen) were included and the difficulty level increased with each chapter; the last chapter being the most difficult. After selection of the

paragraph for reading the researcher proceeded to select difficult words, for which students face problems in reading and writing. A pilot test of reading ability and a dictation test for writing ability was conducted on 40 students. There were 45 items in the mother tongue reading test and 50 items in the mother tongue writing test, which broadly covered all types of diacritics (matarayen). Test items were made according to the syllabus prescribed by NCERT.

2. Sampling

There were four types of schools selected for the study; these schools were broadly related to the different categories which are as follow;

  (i) Government schools (Hindi medium)

 (ii) Government schools (English medium)

(iii) Non-government schools (Hindi medium)

(iv) Non-government schools (English medium)

For the study an appropriate number of students were selected from these schools. Students of Class IV were selected for the study.

3. Data Collection and Analysis

For the study four types of schools were selected by the investigator for the collection of data. The tests of reading and writing were administered on 80 students of government schools (Hindi medium), 58 students of government schools (English medium), 80 students of non – government schools (Hindi medium) and 44 students of non-government schools (English medium).

The reading and writing mother tongue proficiency test which consisted of 45 and 50 items respectively were scored by allocating 1 mark for each correct answer and 0 mark for each incorrect answer. Subsequently, the mean, SD and 't' values of the scores were computed as per need of the study.

The analysis and interpretation of the results are presented and discussed below:

Table 1 indicates about the performance of students of all

Table 1

Mean Performance of all Students in Reading and Writing of Mother Tongue

N	Reading		Writing	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
262	34.07	10.62	26.54	12.80

schools in reading and writing of mother tongue. There were total 262 students from different types of schools which are government Hindi medium schools, government English medium schools, non-government Hindi medium schools and non-government English medium schools. Total number of words which were read by these students correctly, were 8926 out of 11760 words and total number of words which were written by all students, were 6953 out of 13100 words. These were 75.90 per cent and 53.08 per cent respectively. The mean of reading of mother tongue at the end of Class IV found to be 34.07 with standard deviation 10.62 whereas mean of writing of mother tongue at the end of Class IV found to be 26.54 with standard deviation 12.80. It shows that students were more proficient in reading of mother tongue than writing of mother tongue. We learn speak or read first rather than writing. It may be a factor that students were more proficient in reading rather than writing.

Table 2 indicates about the achievement of students of different type of schools in reading of mother tongue. It shows clear picture of students' achievement in reading. Students who stand between the range of 0-5 were 13, 3 students fall within the interval of 5-10 and 10-15,

Table 2

Scores of Students in Reading of Mother Tongue

Score	Number of Children in Different Types of schools				Total number of Students
	1	2	3	4	
0 – 5	13	00	00	00	13
5 – 10	03	00	00	00	03
10 – 15	03	00	00	00	03
15 – 20	07	00	00	00	07
20 – 25	10	00	00	03	13
25 – 30	08	00	10	01	19
30 – 35	13	03	18	08	42
35 – 40	18	24	24	14	80
40 – 45	05	31	28	18	82
Total	80	58	80	44	262

1. Government Schools (Hindi Medium) 2. Government Schools English Medium
3. Non- Government Schools Hindi Medium 4. Non- Government Schools English Medium

7 students stand between the interval of 15-20. 13, 19 and 42 students fall within the interval of 20-25, 25-30 and 30-35 respectively. 80 students stand between interval of 35-40 and 82 students which were maximum in any range, stand between class interval 40-45.

When we see the reading proficiency of students according to their schools, table 2 indicates that the condition of students of government Hindi medium schools was worst. 13 students fall in the interval of 0-5. The mode of ungrouped data of this category was zero, which shows that in this category maximum number of students scored zero. These students

were unable to read any single word of their mother tongue in the end of the class. In comparison to students of government Hindi medium schools there was not any student of government English medium schools, non-government Hindi medium schools and non-government English medium schools scored zero and stands in the interval of 0-5. As well as there was no any student who stands in the class interval of 5-10, 10-15 and 15-20 whereas, from government Hindi medium schools 3 students scored between 5-10, 3 students scored between 10-15 and 7 students scored between 15-20. Performance of students of government English

Table 3
Scores of Students in Writing of Mother Tongue

Score	Number of Children in Different Types of schools				Total number of Students
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	
0 – 5	23	00	00	01	24
5- 10	08	01	00	01	10
10- 15	10	00	04	03	17
15- 20	12	03	14	05	34
20-25	10	03	07	08	28
25-30	08	08	17	03	36
30-35	04	12	12	09	37
35-40	04	10	12	10	36
40-45	01	17	12	02	32
45-50	00	04	02	02	08
Total	80	58	80	44	262

1. Government Schools (Hindi Medium) 2. Government Schools English Medium
3. Non- Government Schools Hindi Medium 4. Non- Government Schools English Medium

medium schools is best than their counterparts. Students of non-government Hindi medium schools showed better competency in reading of mother tongue than students of government Hindi medium schools and non-government English medium schools.

Reading proficiency of students of different types of schools is not up to the norm of NCERT. : Kurien's (1991); Jangira (1994); also found in their studies that 80 per cent students didn't achieved 80 per cent of their syllabus of Reading. This is also consistent with finding of Shanbhag (1992); UNESCO (2001) and Pratham (2006-10) in which they found poor reading ability of students.

Table 3 shows the writing proficiency of students in mother tongue. Collectively all students performed better in reading than writing. Table also shows overall performance of students in writing of mother tongue of all four type of schools. 24 students scored between 0-5, 10 students scored between 5-10, 17 students scored between 10-15 and 34 students scored between 15-20. There were 28, 36, 37, 36 and 32 students fall in the class interval of 20-25, 25-30, 30-35, 35-40 and 40-45 respectively. Only 8 students scored between 45-50; which is very low than their performance in reading of mother tongue.

When we see students' performance as their schools wise, students of government Hindi medium schools performed worst among all. From government Hindi medium schools 23 students scored between 0-5 and 1 student from non-government English medium schools scored zero. No one student of government English medium and non-government Hindi medium schools was in this group. Between the range of 5-10; 8 students were from government Hindi medium schools, 1 student from government English medium schools, 1 student from non-government English medium schools and none of student was from non-government Hindi medium schools in this group. As reading test of mother tongue students of government English medium schools also performed best in the test of writing of mother tongue than their counterparts. Only 1 student from government Hindi medium schools stands in the range of 40-45, 12 students from non-government Hindi medium schools and 2 students from non-government English medium schools stand in this group. Between the interval of 45-50 no one student is from government Hindi medium schools. In this range two students were from non-government Hindi medium schools, 2 students were from non-government English medium schools and 4 students were from government English medium schools. Table indicates that the students of government Hindi medium schools performed worst and students of government English medium schools performed best in writing of mother tongue.

Table 4

Mean Performance of Student's of Class- IV Studying in Different types of Schools

Type of schools	Groups	Scores	
		Reading	Writing
1	N	80	80
	Mean	24.80	15.26
	SD	13.85	11.65
2	N	58	58
	Mean	40.10	35.48
	SD	2.68	8.48
3	N	80	80
	Mean	37.09	30.05
	SD	5.23	9.48
4	N	44	44
	Mean	37.48	28.86
	SD	5.87	10.6

1. Government Schools (Hindi Medium) 2. Government Schools English Medium
3. Non-Government Schools Hindi Medium 4. Non- Government Schools English Medium

Proficiency of students in writing of mother tongue is not up to the norm of NCERT. Kurien's (1991); Dave (1988); Roy, Mitra, Ray (1995); Bhatia (1997) also found in their studies that 80 per cent students didn't achieved 80 per cent of their syllabus of language. This is also consistent with findings of Shanbhag (1992), Ramkalyani (1993), Ved Prakash et al (1999); UNESCO (2001) and surveys of Pratham (2006, 20007, 2008, 2009 and 2010) in which they found poor performance of students in language. Table 4 specifies about mean performances of students of different types of schools in reading and writing of mother tongue of students in different types of schools. In government Hindi medium schools mean of reading mother tongue is found to be 24.80 and mean of writing mother tongue was 15.26 with standard deviation 13.85 and 11.65 respectively. Scored mean of students of government English medium schools in reading of mother tongue is found to be 40.10 with standard deviation 2.68 and 35.48 with standard deviation 8.48 in writing of mother tongue. Mean proficiency of students of non-government Hindi

medium schools in reading is found to be 37.09 with standard deviation 5.23 and in writing mean is found to be 30.05 with standard deviation 9.48. Mean score of students of non-government English medium schools in reading of mother tongue is found to be 37.48 and SD was 5.87. In writing of mother tongue mean of non-government English medium schools is found to be 28.86 with SD 10.60.

Students of each type of schools showed more proficiency in reading of mother tongue than writing of mother tongue. Before writing a child learns to read first and it may be a cause of better performance of students of all type of schools in reading of mother tongue.

Table 5 indicates towards significant difference between different groups in reading of mother tongue. It is clear by the table that in the proficiency of students in reading mother tongue there was significant difference between government Hindi medium schools and government English medium schools at 0.05 level. A significant difference was also found between government Hindi medium schools and non-government Hindi medium schools as well as non-government English medium schools at the same level of significance. Table exposes that a significant difference was found between government English medium schools and non-government English medium schools. There was also significant difference between government English medium schools and non-government Hindi medium schools. No significant difference was

Table 5

't' Value of Proficiency of Students of Different types of Schools in Reading and Writing of Mother Tongue

't' Value at 0.05 Level of Significance	Competency	Government Schools English Medium	Non-Government Schools Hindi Medium	Non-Government Schools English Medium
Government Schools Hindi Medium	Reading	9.81	7.49	7.12
	Writing	11.69	8.76	6.49
Government Schools English Medium	Reading		4.63	2.92
	Writing		3.49	3.37
Non-Government Schools Hindi Medium	Reading			0.32
	Writing			0.64

found only between non-government English medium schools and non-government Hindi medium schools.

Table 5 also explains about the significant difference in achieved score in writing of mother tongue by students of all four types of schools. This result was same as result of reading of mother tongue. A significant difference can be seen between students of government Hindi medium schools and students of government English medium schools. Same difference can be seen between students of government Hindi medium schools and non-government Hindi medium schools and also between government Hindi medium schools and non-government English medium schools. The significant differences can be seen in

all other cases except between non-government Hindi medium schools and non-government English medium schools.

Table 6 indicates towards difference in reading proficiency in mother tongue of students of government schools and non-government schools. This table presents a clear difference between students of government schools and non-government schools in reading. In the range of 0-5 there were 13 students and in the range of 5-10, 10-15 and 15-20; 3, 3 and 7 students were respectively but there was no one student of non-government schools from the range of 0-5 to 15-20. Between the intervals of 20-25 there were 10 students from government schools and 3 students

Table 6

Scores of Students of Government Schools and Non- Government Schools in Reading of Mother Tongue

Score	Number of Children in Different Types of schools	
	Government Schools	Non-Government Schools
0 – 5	13	00
5- 10	03	00
10- 15	03	00
15- 20	07	00
20-25	10	03
25-30	08	11
30-35	16	26
35-40	42	38
40-45	36	46
Total	138	124

from non-government schools. From government schools, 8 students fell in the range of 25-30 and in the same range 11 students fell from non-government schools. In the next interval which was 30-35; 16 students were from government schools and 26 students were from non-government schools. Maximum numbers of students of government schools were in the interval of 35-40. There were total 42 students of government schools stand in this range where as from the non-government schools maximum numbers of students were in the range of 40-45 which was highest range of mother tongue reading. The number of students of non-government schools in this range was 46 whereas 36 students of government schools were in this highest range.

Students of government English medium schools performed best but due to the performance of students of government Hindi medium schools this result was occurred. The performance of students of government Hindi medium schools was very poor.

Table 7 shows the mean performance of students of government and non-government schools in reading of mother tongue. There were total 138 students from government schools and 124 students from non-government schools. Mean score of reading mother tongue of students of government schools is found to be 31.23 with standard deviation 6.90 and mean score or reading mother tongue of students of non-government schools is found to be 37.23 with standard deviation 5.44. The 't' value of groups was 4.93 at the 0.05 significance level which is clearly indicating that there was significant difference between students of government schools and students of non-government schools in the reading of mother tongue. Students of non-government schools performed significantly better in the reading of mother tongue.

Table 7

Mean Performance of Students of Class IV Studying in Government and Non-Government Schools in Reading of Mother Tongue

Type of Schools	Groups	Scores	't' Value	Level of Significance
Government Schools	N	138		
	Mean	31.23		
	SD	6.90		
Non-Government Schools	N	124	4.93	0.05
	Mean	37.23		
	SD	5.44		

Table 8

Scores of Students of Government Schools and Non-Government Schools in Writing of Mother Tongue

Score	Number of Children in Different Types of schools	
	Government Schools	Non-Government Schools
0 – 5	23	01
5- 10	09	01
10- 15	10	07
15- 20	15	19
20-25	13	15
25-30	16	20
30-35	16	21
35-40	14	22
40-45	18	14
45-50	04	04
Total	138	124

Table 9

Mean Performance of Students of Class IV Studying in Government and Non-Government Schools (Writing)

Type of schools	Groups	Scores	't' Value	Level of Significance
Government Schools	N	138		
	Mean	23.76		
	SD	14.44		
Non-Government Schools	N	124	3.87	0.05
	Mean	29.63		
	SD	09.86		

The main focus of the study was to find out the difference in learning level between students of government schools and non-government schools in terms of reading and writing of mother tongue. Table 8 discloses the remarkable contrast between levels of learning between students of these two types of schools. There is only one student of non-government schools scored marks in the range of 0-5 whereas 23 students of government schools fall in this range. Only one student of non-government schools stands in the range of 5-10 and 9 students of government schools

stand in the range of 5-10. As score is increasing number of students of non-government schools is also increasing whereas with increasing score of writing of mother tongue number of students of government schools is decreasing. It shows that the performance of students of non-government schools is better than the students of government schools. But in the highest interval of 45-50 only 4 students from both type of schools stand in this range.

Table 9 shows the mean performance of students of government and non-government schools in writing of mother tongue. Table indicates that there were 138 students from government schools and 124 students from non-government schools. The mean score of students of government schools is found to be 23.76 with standard deviation 14.44 and mean score of students of non- government schools is found to be 29.63 with standard deviation 9.86.

As per above table the t value of writing test of mother tongue is found to be 3.87 on 0.05 level of significance; which is indicating that there is a significant difference in proficiency of writing mother tongue between students of government schools and students of non-government schools. According to mean and standard deviation of both groups' students of non-government schools performed better than students of government schools in the writing of mother tongue.

FINDINGS

The major findings of this study are as follows:
- Students of Government Hindi medium schools performed least and students of Government English medium schools performed best in reading and writing of mother tongue.
- There was significant difference between students of government and students of non-government schools in mother tongue reading.
- There was significant difference between students of government and students of non-government schools in mother tongue writing.

SUGGESTIONS

The findings of the study show, that the students of government schools Hindi medium performed worst in reading and writing of mother tongue. So many students of these schools were not capable to read or write a single word of their mother tongue correctly. So here is a need of regular inspection of these schools and a mid-term assessment of students of these schools in severely needed. As well as a monitoring committee should be to monitor the teaching style and technique as well as other behaviour of teacher in the classroom. In the absence of ability of reading and writing a child cannot study other subjects also. Thus it should be ensured that students can read or write at the end of primary schooling.

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Training of Teachers – Search for Appropriate Instructional Strategy

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Abstract

Presently the training of both prospective and practising teachers is very weak. One of the main factors contributing to this situation is that teachers are trained in a way that students in schools are taught. This is based on the premise that learning behaviour of both adults and students is the same. This is an erroneous assumption. There are researches which now reflect that children and adults learn in fundamentally different ways. There are now two sciences– Pedagogy and Andragogy. The former is the art and science of helping children to learn and the latter stands for art and science of helping adults to learn. For an effective training of both prospective and practising teachers, Andragogy needs to be used failing which the human and material resources invested would not result in expected dividends. Adults' training needs to be based on six (6) principles. Teacher educators should adhere to these principles while training teachers. One of these principles is that training of teachers should be problem centred rather than subject centred. This is based on the fact that adults possess vast knowledge and experience when they come to the training situation. They want to invest these experiences in the teaching learning process. If they are subjected to lecturing, they hardly take interest in the learning experiences. Further, like children adults also learn in number of ways rather than in one way. Adults also need physical comfort in the learning situation. The relationship between an adult learner and adult trainer has to be different from that of a student and teacher in a school.

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How do Human beings Learn?

How does an individual learns, nobody is certain? This is because that the learning process is invisible. It is possible to assess the learning, i.e. learning outcomes only on the part of an individual. In the pre-service teacher education programme, prospective teachers are exposed to learning theories such as trial and error, operant conditioning, learning through insight, constructivism and 'sit and get' approach. Learning theories describe how the information is perceived, processed and retained by an individual learner. Prospective teachers are equipped with different instructional strategies, methods, approaches and techniques constituting pedagogy – the art and science of helping children to learn.

Do Children and Adults Learn in the Same Way?

Earlier, it was visualised that children and adults learn in the same way. As a consequence, pedagogic methods, approaches and techniques which were used for helping children to learn, have been or are even being used presently in the training of prospective and in-service teachers. Practising teachers undergoing professional development programmes often report overtly that pedagogic techniques used by resource persons for transacting the training.

Children and Adults Learn in Fundamentally Different Ways

Presently, there is thinking among scholars and educational researchers that children and adults learn in fundamentally different ways. The ways in which adults learn has been an area of interest to scholars and educators. This is because that once the way in which adults learn is determined, the quality of training of pre-service and in-service teachers can be improved upon substantially. It would be possible to optimize teachers' (both pre-service and in-service) learning potential. Malcom Knowles has done a lot of work in the area as to how adults learn. If we look into the history as to when the theory of adults learning was developed, we find that andragogy as a study of adult learning originated in Europe in 1950's and was then pioneered as a theory and model of adult learning from the 1970's by Malcolm Knowles - an American practitioner and theorist of adult education, who defined andragogy as "the art and science of helping adults to learn" (Zmeyov 1998; Fidishun 2000).

Principles of Adult Learning

Malcom Knowles identified six principles of adult learning. These are:
• Adults are self-directed;
• Learning through Collegial Problem Solving;
• Learning is facilitated when New Information is connected to the Vast Background of Knowledge and Experience that Adult Learner brings to the Learning Situation;
• Information is Received and Processed in more than One Way;

- Trainees are Provided ample Opportunities to Reflect on Gained Experiences; and
- Experiential Learning

Adults are Self-directed

Adult learners resist learning when they feel others are imposing information/ ideas/action(s) on them (Fidishun, 2000). A teacher-educator in a college of education should not impose information on their learners. She/ He should rather foster among them internal motivation to learn. He/ She should encourage them to use resources such as library, journals and internet. According to Knowles, while children are dependent, adults see themselves as self-directing. Children have questions which they want to be answered by someone else. On the contrary, adults perceive themselves to be capable of answering a part of their questions. Children expect to be told as to what they need to do; adults have their own notions and viewpoints as to what they want to do and learn. Children put a low value on their experience.

Learning through Collegial Problem Solving

According to Knowles, adult learning occurs through problem solving. Most of the adults engage in learning activities with the hope of solving a problem rather than with the intention of learning a particular subject. The training of both pre-service and in-service teachers must therefore, be problem centred rather than subject centred.

Knowles further mentions that adults learn most effectively when engaged collaboratively with peers. Therefore, collaboration is the key for effective training of both pre-service and in-service teachers. Adults learning styles need to be recognised. Teaching/training strategies of adults must match their learning style.

Learning is Facilitated when New Information is Connected to the Vast Background of Knowledge and Experience that Adult Learner Brings to the Learning Situation

It is considered that children come to classroom with blank state. On other hand, adults bring with them vast background of knowledge and experience. The knowledge possessed by an adult is a valuable asset to the learning environment. But a group of adults is more heterogeneous than a group of young students. Adults want their teacher to connect new information to what they already know. Adults want to invest their knowledge and experience into the teaching–learning process. They therefore, like to be given opportunity to use their existing foundation of knowledge and experiences gained from life experience, and apply it to their new learning experiences.

On the other hand, teachers' earlier experience is also a double edged sword. It can be rich resource or an impenetrable defence against

new learning. Trainers therefore, need to focus on gaols, to use effective questioning and counselling skills and to maintain a facilitative relationship with learners. Otherwise, learners may use their experience in defensive ways.

Information is Received and Processed in more than One Way

All over the world, teachers teach in such a way that students, who are endowed with highly developed linguistic and logical mathematical intelligences learn the best. These who are endowed with less developed the said intelligences do not learn properly. These students are often labelled as 'learning disabled'. This was based on the premise that students learn in one way only.

It was believed that intelligence is a unitary concept (g) as advocated by Binet (1914). Now there is thinking that a human being is bestowed with eight intelligences (8gs) instead of one general intelligence 'g'. 'Human beings therefore, possess eight distinct units of mental functioning. Gardner labels these units as intelligences. They spring from different areas of the brain' (Gardner, 1983). Based on these units, there are 8 pathways to learning. As such, human beings learn in 8 different ways rather than in one way. This is based on the theory of multiple intelligences developed in 1983 by Howard Gardner – Professor of Education, Harvard University in USA. Gardner highlights that these intelligences are - Linguistic, Logical Mathematical, Spatial, and Bodily kinesthentic, Musical, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal Intelligence and Naturalist.

Eight Pathways to Learning

Everyone is born with all the eight intelligences. But these are not equally developed in an individual. This means that different individuals are strong in two or three different intelligences and weak in other intelligences. Given below are sketches of brains of two different persons. 'This manifests clearly that
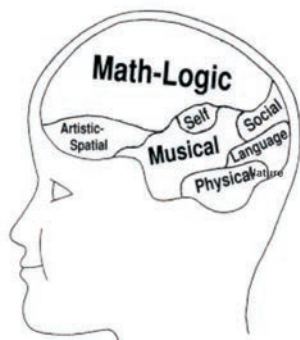
Sketch 1
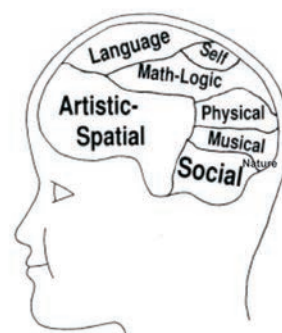
Sketch 2

each person's brain is different'. (Huggins and Others, 1997) Sketch-1 manifests that the person is strong in Logical Mathematical and Musical intelligences and weak in other intelligences. Similarly Sketch-2 manifests that the person is strong in spatial logical mathematical and Linguistic Intelligences and weak in other intelligences.

Gardner claims that these eight intelligences rarely operate independently. Rather these intelligences are used concurrently and typically complement each other as individuals solve problems. For instance, a surgeon undertakes operations. For undertaking operations, he/she requires at least three highly developed intelligences- Bodily kinesthentics, Spatial and Interpersonal to undertake the operations. Similarly a dancer uses three highly developed intelligences- Bodily kinesthentic, Musical and Interpersonal.

Each individual has different sets of developed intelligences. Thus an individual has unique set of intellectual strengths and weaknesses. This is commonly referred to as learning style of an individual. Different strong intelligences of an individual determine his/her learning style. Therefore individuals with many learning styles are in a learning situation. These sets of intelligences determine how easy or difficult it is for an individual to learn information when it is presented in a particular manner. According to Gardner,

there are eight potential pathways to learning. Students do not learn only through traditional linguistic or logical ways of instruction. They also learn through pictures, music, physical experience, social experience, self-reflection and experience in the natural world.

Trainees are Provided Ample Opportunities to Reflect on Gained Experiences

During the period of trainees, trained need to be provided adequate time to reflect on the gained experiences. Each day in the beginning, trainees need to be asked as to what they learnt on the previous day. Reflection throws the light on our experiences back into minds to consider what the experience was and what it meant. It facilitates internalisation of the experiences. There should be a cycle of experience and reflection. The continuous interplay between the learner and what is being learnt by him/her hardly need any emphasis.

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning means that learning through experience. Experiential learning can be defined as process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience. According to the theory of experiential learning, teachers, need to be provided tasks and assignments and engaged in activities through which they should gain the necessary knowledge.

IMPLICATIONS OF ANDRAGOGY FOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS

• Training of both pre-service and in-service teachers needs to be based on the principles of andragogy and not on pedagogic principles. Andragogic techniques include discussion, field experiences, simulation exercises and problem solving cases. Pedagogic techniques such as lectures, audio-visual presentations, and self-reading should not be used.

• Andragogy need to be included in the curricula of M. Ed. and M. Phil in Education courses;

• Skill building is an important aspect of teacher education programme. Training that provides practice, feedback, and reinforcement is more effective in skill building than training that does not provide these opportunities;

• An adult learner needs physical comfort in the learning situation;

• Early activities in a training programme need to allow maximum participation by learners so that they can invest their experiences and values in the learning process; and

• At the school level, the relationship between a teacher and her/his students is that of a dominant teacher and the dependent learner. Such a relationship is not workable between an adult learner and the adult trainer. The adult trainer is required to be friendly and courteous to the adult learner.

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Quality Concerns in School Education

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Abstract

This paper is based on the observations and experiences gathered during a three-month teaching assignment at a Kendriya Vidyalaya in a small town of eastern India. It was precisely the quality concerns that repeatedly troubled this author, since the school being a Kendriya Vidyalaya it had all the necessary amenities that anyone can ask for in a secondary school. It is even more troubling because the prevalent educational discourses devote more time to material requirements for education and little to the quality/ essence of education.

I consider that the great national sin is the neglect of the masses, and that is one of the causes of our downfall. No amount of politics would be of any avail until the masses in India are once more well educated. (Swami Vivekanand)

The first thing that caught the author's attention was the school environment. Nothing was amiss outwardly – beautiful locale, clean surroundings, proper ventilations, safe drinking water, adequate rooms, playground, well-timed assembly, prayers, notices and speeches, school bells, routine wise classes, cultural activities, regular tests and score cards. It was observed that all 1500 odd students in the school looked much happier than their teachers, which points to some serious problems with teachers.

It had something to do with teachers' lackadaisical attitude towards students. Whether all of them are really fit to handle students' needs remained a nagging question during the whole three months observation because the living example of a teacher is more important than his knowledge. Therefore, finding a real teacher is the first task of education. But during selection process the

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schools should carefully take into account the thoughts, mindset and character of the prospective teacher. Many job seekers do merely for a living with little understanding of what it takes to be a good teacher. Worse, many of them show no intent to learn also. As a result after being employed they carry out their duty as an ordinary job with little regard for one of the most crucial tasks for students in the world. The ill-will of many teachers indicates a missing link in our education as many of them lack the character or will to be a good teacher, yet are manning the schools. (Administrative and bureaucratic pressures also affect even a good teacher's conduct, a point we skip for the moment.)

QUALITY OF TEACHERS

One cannot but to recall here the great educational philosopher Rabindranath Tagore. He was not only a great thinker but an active teacher as well. Hence his observations should have been taken even more seriously. Discussing the Problem of Education (1906), he wrote: "When making plans for some work for public welfare that we have undertaken, we concentrate on the preliminaries, such as house and furniture, and we get many headaches over what they will cost, although they are mostly superfluous. The tendency to care more for inessentials than for essentials is now seen in every aspect of our life." He considered finding the real teachers, the *gurus* and the

scholars as the most essential part in educational efforts. Everything else should be done next to it. However, in practice our educational enterprise works the other way round. Budget, infrastructural supplies and other issues remain all through in the centre of almost all discussion and policymaking process. Appropriate selections and ways to find good teachers remain a peripheral concern and hence adversely affect the quality of education.

This is the reason why, when one looks closely at the faces and behaviours of teachers in the school, it gave the impression that something is missing. Do they lack affection, regard, devotion and sensitivity to the needs of children? Such elements have little to do with monetary and material supplies. Somewhat of spiritual nature, it is found only in those people who have the right feelings for being a teacher. Quality concerns for school education have to address this issue in all earnest. Without real teachers, who work more for love than for money, even world class infrastructures cannot ensure good education.

Many incidents in KV proved this assumption right. As already mentioned, the school had no scarcity of material supplies. Teachers were well paid. Sufficient rooms, furniture, toilets, drinking water, games and sports etc. were all there. Yet the copybooks and answer books of students did show many shortcomings. Poor language,

in general, was the most prominent indicator. Even some teachers made glaring mistakes. For instance, a language teacher wrote on blackboard incorrectly even the title of the lesson he was teaching. What he taught was also below the mark. He spent much time scolding the children for not bringing the textbook, being inattentive and so forth. Moreover, copybooks of children had several linguistic errors which were left uncorrected, even after the teachers had gone through and signed it. Either the teacher had seen the copies carelessly or he/she himself has poor command over the language. Some teachers lack in adequate knowledge of English language and literature, English/American life and thought, yet they are the teachers to whom we trust our children's introduction to English learning. A serious concern about quality education is that teachers knowing neither good English nor good Hindi (or Bangali, etc.) cannot do justice with teaching. It results in bad quality of learning for children, many quite talented, in the most important subject. Teachers are expected to have good command over the medium of instruction, most importantly because only through language one learns almost all others.

Then, many teachers were obvious slackers. They go late to class without preparation, talk irrelevant topics, and do not attend the questions of students with due care, etc. Beating children, sometimes quite unnecessarily, was another evidence of poor teacher material. All these are indicators of sub-standard education, despite no lack of funds for a school. Such cases are reported in thousands of other schools in our country. The point here is that such problems have no remedy even after providing more funds or making strict rules for teachers.

WRONG ORIENTATION

Another stumbling block is that teaching and learning in schools has become mainly examination oriented. Despite tall talks about aims and objectives of education or curriculum, the education remains merely score centric. Teachers, parents as well as students all seem concerned mainly with test grades and scores. It was, therefore, no surprise that the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 as such has never figured in their formal or informal talks. The impact of the document must be hidden through the course contents made after it. But there was a snag here too.

For various reasons, many students and teachers do not use standard textbooks. Unavailability of textbooks, occasional use of difficult and complicated language and tendency to study only for writing exams are said to be the reasons for opting for easy question-answer type help-books. Although teachers and parents have high regard for NCERT textbooks yet they were not very enthusiastic and willing to use them, as the whole teaching-learning

being score-centric make guide-books more in demand among the students. Though help-books are not always accurate in contents, yet they contain syllabi based questions and short answers usable for examination purposes. Hence its popularity is on par with, if not more than, the textbooks.

TEXTBOOKS AND HELPBOOKS

Examination centric education and popularity of guidebooks seem interlinked. If abilities like comprehension, capacity of expression, character and personality development are not given due importance, at least in comparison to getting good scores in scholastic subjects, then run of the mill help-books make sense. It helps students obtain better marks with modest effort. It is futile to criticize them. Of course, the examinations and tests can also be so structured as to test the genuine abilities, scholastic and non-scholastic, of a student. But frequent and mass scale testing is not always so arranged. Usually test questions make a set pattern. Publishers and professional writers accordingly produce suitable help-books, thus making it more attractive than the textbooks.

The result is particularly harmful for learning language and social science subjects. A fairly intelligent student of Class X said forthrightly that he never study social science books. He takes up a help-book of the subject and cram for hours only before the examination day. Whatever is retained in memory after this, he writes in the test and then forgets it later. He studies regularly only Maths, Physics, Chemistry and sometimes English. This must be the same case with large number of students. My own experiences there, especially in higher classes, made me think that teaching social science and humanities for the sake of learning and knowledge, not for scoring in exams, is less popular with students. Most of them take social science as extra burden. In other words, social science is studied merely for passing the exam with good grade, and not for developing a sound understanding of the contents.

It means that the whole range of lofty goals set in our discourses and educational documents remain largely neglected in practice. Other than becoming good technicians and professionals in different fields a large part of our new generation lack in their literary, ethical, social and national perceptions. Many of them become good moneymakers but not a poor human being and citizen. They have not received education in true sense, the education in actual sense of the word that cultivates refined sense and thoughts – the qualities developed through reading great books of literature, philosophy and history. (When a boy or a girl reads something for pleasure, such as a story, fable or biography, his/her capacity for reading increases imperceptibly and his/her power of

comprehension, assimilation and retention grows stronger in an easy and natural manner.) But these very subjects, clubbed as humanities and social sciences, are taken as burden by students and parents. Hence, social science teachers are accordingly given less importance than the teachers of natural sciences.

Contents of Social Science

Some reason for this "burden" feeling is also attributed to contents in social science textbooks, as all teachers constantly grumbled. Frequent changing of contents, syllabi and textbooks in social science subjects was also a complaint. "Look, there is one combined book for Science and three for Social Science in class VII. Why make it so burdensome, that too for underage students?" It is sad that even those who campaigned for 'learning without burden' could do little to ease the problem. Sometimes it is just the opposite that happens.

Besides, it is certainly difficult to explain so many complicated concepts to young students who find it beyond their ability to comprehend, especially the concepts that are heard little even in academic discourse and not found in standard dictionaries. For instance: 'majoritarianism'. The term has a derogatory connotation and still has to be accorded a meaning with wide acceptance among scholars. A school textbook has little scope to present it in detail to be understood even by teachers, let alone by children. Even in thousands of small towns and rural locations it would be hard to find anyone or anything helpful to make one understand such unfamiliar issues. It is not used even in media discussion. This, in addition, means it has little to do with fundamental concepts of social science the growing children should learn first. Load of such complex contents makes the subject more burdensome.

As the great Political Scientist Ernest Barker emphasised, we must not expect children to turn out complete citizens from school. We should be content with children to have only rudimentary understanding of political issues – understanding fundamentals of some political concepts and institutions should suffice. 'Learning fewer but better' should be our goal in social sciences. If we aspire prematurely for more, then we are putting the children in danger and leading them to intellectual dishonesty. The young minds would accept and proclaim unrealised generalisations, unrelated to their experience. This should be avoided at all cost while teaching social sciences, especially history and political science.

There is another reason for such caution as political science and history are tricky subjects. Even familiar concepts such as justice, freedom, law, rights, diversity or unity can be taught with entirely different meanings because politics is also a battleground of various interests. Interests of nations, classes, races, parties, groups are part of the subject.

Children must be spared in fighting this battle, otherwise we would do them great harm.

A quality education in social sciences, therefore, must first of all try to generate interest among the learners. Interest is the basis of concentration. Lessons must be taught with child's attention. If interested, he/ she would much prefer to get to the end of the subject rather than leave it unfinished. Starting with terms like 'majoritarianism' does just the opposite. It is not an exceptional case. In a single Political Science textbook for secondary students one can find many terms that is difficult to understand even by teachers. Terms like ethnicity, Maronite Sect of Catholic Christians, Sunni and Shia Muslims, 'coming together' federations and 'holding together' federations, 'regular' rules, Civil Rights movement in the USA, The Black Power movement, Dalit and Dalit activists, Apartheid, Migration, Roma people, Feminist movement, gender division of labour, patriarchy and patriarchal society, caste hierarchy caste system, urbanisation, occupational mobility, Maoism, pressure groups, partisanship, morality and politics, economic growth, etc. are some examples cited from just one book. A secondary stage student is given to handle several social science textbooks. With his/her limited resources even a teacher has great difficulty to fully understand such terms himself / herself, let alone explaining it to children with ease. In this event, all that children could do is rote memorisation of the text without proper understanding, with the same result (in Tagore's words) "as that of swallowing food without chewing it."

In any case, complex notions and phrases are not explained enough in class, thus making it trickier for students. Many do not bring the relevant textbooks in social science class; the reason cited being the heavy weight of all the textbooks required for a day in school. Some students do not even have the textbook. Instead they keep the help-book for a social science subject. In fact, some children did not seem to have any sense of difference between textbook and guide-book. To the command 'open your textbook' in the class some children innocently open their guide-book. These ground realities need to be taken into account while discussing different approaches in education.

The respect for NCERT textbooks in social sciences seems to have lost ground. Though traditional admiration for the NCERT textbooks is still intact, yet they are not always used in social science class. I have seen a teacher consulting an ordinary guide book, not the NCERT textbook, when a question came up about what the 'April thesis' was (another abstruse term!). He did it as a matter of course, not as some provisional recourse. Obviously he too considered textbooks as any other books not different from helpbooks published by sundry publishers.

From informal talks it seemed that repeated controversies and frequent changing of textbooks, replacing whole topics in social science textbooks have not gone well with teachers and parents. Teachers call and compare social science textbooks by the label of 'Congress made' and 'BJP made', lowering the esteem of the contents. It shows that our textbooks, for whatever reasons, are losing respect accorded to precise texts one turns to for authentic knowledge.

A teacher recalling some old books of political science published by NCERT said that he could never figure out why they were discarded. Nor he found any explanation about it. A parent directly accused some passage in a social science textbook of 'blatant prejudice' that is certain to 'provoke quarrel between communities'. Some teachers and parents have the feeling that there is politicisation behind changes in social science textbooks. It reminds one to be careful about the casual, political or bureaucratic approach in making and unmaking educational documents and textbooks. It affects general regard towards our textbooks. Linguistic and printing errors are also a frequent complain to which no explanation would do. Quality is at stake here, and complacency would not help our publications anymore.

Another point against social science textbooks is made about its language. Teachers as well as parents find the language not suitable for students. Sometimes the meaning of a given passage eludes a common reader. New terms and technical phrases are used in the textbook in a way as if they are commonly understood by all. That is also why even some teachers take the easy route to keep question-answer help books to cover the course to prepare students for exams.

No Detention Policy

The practice of 'no detention up to class VIII' is also an issue for quality concerns. From East India to South India similar complaints are made by teachers. That it increases the number of slackers among students. According to a teacher, it helps in turning "good students into average, average into poor and poor into totally careless ones". They have no fear of failing in exams and whether they study or not, they know that they will pass and be promoted to next class. Strange as it is, it also makes little sense for conducting exams. What is the point if all will pass and move to the next class? It cannot be just to ascertain the progress of students because generally teachers and parents have an idea about their charges. Secondly, this practice produces bizarre spectacle as some students in class IX are found with no ability to write even a single sentence correctly in any language. What kind of education they received after spending eight valuable years in a school? Whose fault is this? These questions demand urgent and

thorough consideration. It is time our policy makers and educationists come out of populist/cosmetic measures just to show off progress in education.

Some teachers and students also complained that unscrupulous teachers use CCE as a handle to coerce students to take private tuitions. Some others complained of CCE as another load as it compels them to fill long charts for hundreds of students regularly for which they have hardly any time. Along with completing the course in different classes, checking copybooks and assignments of hundreds of students regularly, conducting extra curricular activities and other duties given by the administration from time to time teachers are hard pressed for time, if they try imparting quality education. On the other hand, some teachers do not even take attendance themselves, and pass it on to monitors or other students. Such teachers would hardly do the additional work for the CCE.

Tuition and Coaching Centres

Burgeoning tuition/coaching centres for high school education in all towns of our country is another point to mull over. Comparative study of these centres vis-à-vis the formal high schools is required to understand the scenario. Also, there are no social science tuition/ coaching at high school level anywhere. Why are the subjects unimportant or everything about it is self-understood? The proliferating tuition centres show

an apparent change in educational development. The tuition/ coaching centres are becoming the new centres of what is now called 'education'. It is no use just denouncing them. Obviously they are providing something for which even most ordinary parents are willing to pay for their children. What is it, and why it is not available in formal schools? Perhaps, the term education itself has undergone some change in the process. To understand these issues systematic studies are required.

Language Education

Education of language and language of education is the most important aspect of quality concerns. In fact, it is the most important aspect. Almost all educational activities are transacted not only through language, but also because language is the medium through which a person find his own self. Therefore, a sound learning of language should be the very core of school education.

However, it is not so in practice. My recent experience in the school was a painful one. According to a teacher, many students in secondary level are not able to write their own names correctly in Hindi. That does not mean that they are better in English, neither had it meant that the students are all stupid. It simply means that we are not adequately careful about the importance of language education. It reflects in the fact that even some printed question papers, in school tests, had spelling, grammatical and

conceptual errors. Such incidents are taken so lightly that teachers and administrators do not always bother to come into the examination room and make corrections for the benefit of examinees. It is natural then that during examining copybooks also a number of linguistic errors committed by an examinee remain unattended. A copybook is checked and marking duly done, but without underlining or correcting all the linguistic mistakes made by the examinee. Resulting in the situation students would never know the difference between correct and incorrect words and sentences. Sometimes students make different errors while writing the same word on the same page. He has little idea of linguistic correctness. This kind of perceptual poverty is not only or always a student's fault. Liability for such a situation also lies with the education planners at large, since they seem not careful enough to ensure best efforts for language education.

English being the medium of school education even in muffasil and small towns it is affecting children's education, neglecting the first language. Close observation reveals painful realities on this score. More and more schools are now being affiliated with the CBSE. It requires them to adopt English as the language of education, even for those schools situated in remote areas. Not only is it a cruel denial of children's fundamental right to receive education in their own language, it also means that children never get to hear even a sentence in English outside classrooms other than for the little time in their classrooms. That is not sufficient because for 'practical' purposes the classroom transaction is done in mixed language. English language is not spoken or heard in the area although it is recognised as the standard language for instruction in school. What a pitiable situation it is for young learners that many educationists, teachers and parents have no idea about it! For one, it means that even otherwise intelligent children are made cripples in the defining ability of a human being, the linguistic ability, for no fault of theirs. I have seen several such students just in one school. They are great in sense, observation and even oral expression. But no sooner they start writing their linguistic deficiency become agonisingly apparent. Worse, they have no idea of their own cripple state. Neither the teachers can do much to alleviate the situation. Because many of them are not able themselves on neither this score nor it is in the priority list they have been handed over by the higher ups.

On this issue, English being the language of instruction even in remote areas the followings are some of the facts which also demand consideration: (i) in local bookshops neither elementary English storybooks are available nor are there any periodical for the young learners. It is difficult to find even good dictionaries; (ii) finding good teachers, capable of teaching in good

English, are difficult in such schools; (iii) curriculum and study design is not conducive particularly for literature studies, which is another barrier in learning good language, because literary interest is essential for knowing good language – any language. Thus from the beginning most children are likely to be affected by language problem which is the very basis of all education. Their personality development and thinking capacity also will be adversely affected for lack of writing and expressive abilities. However, the people are unable to do anything about all of it, as people in general do not even recognise the dire situation. Besides, how can they help about a language that they do not understand?

Policy makers, educationists and government leaders do not seem to be aware of these realities. Their interactions remain largely confined to a narrow circle with metro-centric middle class experiences about the problems of schools. For all practical purposes the rural situations are not taken into account. If at all, it is just imagined to be so and such imaginations hardly match up with the realities. Such conclusion is evident when one compares academic concerns noted in documents and papers with the actual situation, as mentioned above.

Few educationists seem concerned about the language issue, especially if English is helping or hindering the general education of rural and even non-middle class urban children. However, it is evident from the language and illustrations used in textbooks and other reading materials for children. They are almost exclusively metro-centric lingo, illustrated with examples and incidents taken from western scenario also. It betrays a naïve mindset, unconcerned if those examples, illustrations and phrases would be understood by millions of Indian students and even by teachers. If an English Reader for children contains a story about a large ball party or a quarrel that Charlie and Katie had when they were snowballing. These narrations recount incidents familiar to British/American children, interesting and enjoyable to them. Such stories rouse no memories in the minds of our children; unfold no pictures before their eyes. Our children, even those living in Delhi or Bangalore, simply grope about in the dark when reading such books.

Not only in literature but in social science books for children obscure foreign contents are numerous. I have seen teachers baffled by illustrations in textbooks. Why are the examples, illustrations, pictures etc. used in textbooks not taken from common Indian scenario? All kinds of examples, from social to geographical to political, are available in Indian events as well. If school textbook writers seem indifferent in choosing a native or foreign scenario, it shows they are insensitive to its effect on ordinary children. In most cases, such writers cater to the metro-centric

middle class populace, insensitive to the situation of the largest section of students and teachers in semi-urban, rural areas, and their need to learn the basics of social science and humanities. Teachers and students living in a corner of any district in the country can hardly consult anyone to understand a foreign cartoon or an old news item from a Latin American country. They must feel stupid or helpless. How it affects children's education and self-image is a point few elite care to mull over.

There is yet another indicator to perceive the situation on language issue. Many textbooks, help-books and other reading materials meant for children at the same time contain a number of linguistic mistakes, botched expressions and convoluted sentences. This also means that the materials are made and supervised by those who little understand the importance of good, correct and meaningful language for reading material meant for children. The reason is not due to lack of money, but those in charge preparing reading materials are unaware of the fundamental significance of language learning.

Thus, for many known and unknown reasons, even the sensible children are deprived of learning good language itself by so elaborate arrangements of education in English. Luckily a small percentage of children still escape the inadvertently designed fate, thanks to private efforts, family situation and other fortuitous circumstances. If the general damage is not even acknowledged, the reason is that our country being so big, even (say) 5% school children escaping the ill-designed fate ultimately produces a large technical work force for our country and the world. This absolute number of good students, coming out year after year from urban schools and supplied to scientific and business institutions, result in producing hundreds of thousands technical hands regularly. It conceals the poor fate of a huge number of equally or more bright children whose progress suffer from an unfriendly language barrier. They fall behind and remain poorly educated for no fault of theirs. Their immediate society is powerless in helping them precisely because it can do anything in its own language. English thus makes the otherwise concerned society utterly helpless to assist its children. In fact it effectively cuts them off from taking regular care of what the children are learning or not learning in schools. Such issues are hardly ever noticed by our educationists, even though they are very real.

Three Conclusions

In all, from my experiences in the school I have come to three tentative conclusions. Conclusions I could not reach but for the direct experiences I had in a remote school. They are also relevant for the quality concerns in education:

1. One can help in education meaningfully only by directly

engaging in teaching and educational work. No outside effort, howsoever useful, can be a substitute for this.

2. Ground realities at small and far away places are very different from what we imagine at academic places in the metros and high places. Sometimes those realities are not even noticed by higher ups.

3. Language of education is one serious issue we have not adequately addressed so far. It is affecting adversely so many aspects of children's education, sometimes permanently. The power of thought and the power of imagination, indispensable for discharging the duties of life, are dependent on good learning of language and literature. "We cannot do without those two powers if want to live like real men. And unless we cultivate them in childhood we cannot have them when we are grown up." (Tagore)

Therefore, to help quality education a sensible and constant effort is required. Such effort cannot be made only by educational bureaucrats, assorted university professors and highly placed intellectuals. Many of them have never been to a school classroom after leaving their own high schools. It is no big secret that many directives and decisions about school education are formulated and taken by those who are neither a teacher nor a serious educationist. There seem to be a total separation of school teaching community from the actual decision makers. This seems to be a miscalculation going on for a long time. School timings, textbooks contents, syllabi size, examination design, mid-day meal business, engaging teachers for sundry non-educational works, etc. could be examples of such decisions. These issues are decided without taking into account the views of the teachers, and without considering every related aspect of an impending decision.

It is time we stop being self-congratulatory about our own declarations and paper-achievements, without actually taking the trouble of assessing whether it has changed something in practice. Or has it changed for positive or negative results? Educational planners and academics usually devote much time to their pet theoretico-ideological concerns, collecting all kinds of issues and slogans in a document, while some fundamental questions do not get adequate hearing in deliberations. Going through such documents gives an uneasy feeling. Sentences, paragraphs, descriptions, data and box declarations seem quite without harmony, unrelated to one another. The successive sentences, pages and chapters seem like accumulating building materials without building anything. Mere inclusion of phrases, notions and issues seem sufficient, as if just mention of them in a document is like an achievement. Our documents have a long tradition of a self-satisfied attitude.

Phrases like 'neighbourhood school', 'evening school', 'socialistic pattern', 'inclusiveness', 'constructivism' etc. come and go without affecting anything in practice as far as the whole country is concerned. At no time those ideas or jargon-ridden papers chemically fuse with our surroundings or lives.

It appears, social participation in framing educational goals, in finding ways to achieve them, and in curriculum making exercise should be vastly increased. Teachers' involvement in textbook making should also be increased substantially. Before publishing the final version of a reading material for children, comments should be invited from a large number of readers including teachers, students and parents, and discussed honestly.

In any case the making of educational materials should not be a hasty exercise. Social science textbooks should be thoroughly revised in view of our knowledge needs, and not after the political fashion of the time. Finally, there should be serious and multiple studies about the effects of English medium education with all its facets.

Development of Education in the North-Eastern States
A Study in National Perspective

K.N. Pathak* J.S.Tomar**

┤**Abstract**├

The development in education sector in the North Eastern (NE) states of India in the last 67 years since independence needs to be reviewed. Government of India has been providing financial support to North Eastern States through various schemes. However, in spite of that, the pace of development under different sub sectors of education has been uneven. Four NE States namely Tripura, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh and Sikkim have made significant (>25%) improvement in raising the literacy rate. An analysis of Pupil - Teacher Ratio (PTR) in different NE states over the given 20 years period reveals that while the PTR has changed adversely in case of Manipur and Meghalaya, it has improved significantly in Assam, Mizoram and Tripura. Teachers' training scenario at primary stage is very pathetic in Nagaland, Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram. In only three of eight NE States (i.e., Assam, Sikkim and Tripura) more than 50 % primary school teachers are trained. The scenario in case of Middle/ Senior Basic Schools is more or less the same as that of the primary stage. Keeping in view the trend of achievements in terms of GER for girls at upper primary level, the States of Nagaland, Tripura and Sikkim would have to make concerted efforts for success of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan(SSA), particularly through the focus on upper primary level. An encouraging trend is observed in the expansion of colleges in the North Eastern States. However, the States of Mizoram and Nagaland were still not having a single engineering college till 2008-09. Over two decades' period, the number of medical colleges in the NE region grew up to 18. However, the State of Mizoram and Nagaland still remained deprived in term of medical education also. In order to reduce the regional disparity and for mainstreaming of the entire North Eastern region, emphasis should be laid on strengthening the institutions as well as quality of education at every stage of education i.e., from Primary to University level.

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    The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and not of the institution to which they belong.

INTRODUCTION

In last 67 Years of independent India, there has been tremendous progress in the field of education. Beginning with the emphasis on universalisation of elementary education, the Government has stretched its efforts to development of higher and technical education in the country. To ensure a balanced pace of development across the country, the Government of India has been providing financial support to North-Eastern States for various schemes. It may be noted that with a view to provide balanced development, Government of India decided to earmark 10% of the entire Central Government plan fund for the North Eastern States. Setting up of the Department of North Eastern Region (DONER) by Government was an effective step in this direction which mainly aimed at expediting the pace of development in the entire North Eastern region of the country.

From the available data, it is observed that except Arunachal Pradesh and Assam, the other North Eastern States are educationally advanced States of the country as far as the literacy scenario in India is concerned. It is noted that all the North Eastern States have made very good progress in increasing the literacy rate in the period between 2001 and 2011.

It is interesting to observe that the NER is a highly literate region. Except for Arunachal Pradesh (66.95) and Assam (73.18), all the other States have literacy rates of about or above national average of (74.04%) as per 2011 Census, which provides a good pool of educated human resources in the region. It is however observed that in spite of the Central Government's efforts to provide proportionate funding to all the NE states, the pace of development under different sub sectors of education has been uneven. Disparity in educational development among the NE States may have been because of their fiscal constraints or geophysical compulsions. Moreover, inter-state variations in respect of educational developments among NE States may be due to priorities accorded by the respective State Governments to the specific sub sectors of education and allocations accordingly. As it is known, the standard norms adopted by Government of India for funding all the Centrally Sponsored Schemes for all the NE States is in the proportion of 90:10.

Analysis of development in various sub sectors of education among different NE States brings forth interesting observations. By analysing the progress made in different sub sectors of education in NE States over the last two/three decades, we can develop a comparative framework to help us in assessing the outcome of measures taken by respective State Governments and also the impact of central assistance through various centrally sponsored schemes for which 90% of the fund is provided by Central Government. For systematic development, any State

Table 1

States wise literacy rate over 1991 to 2011

Literacy Rate: (as per Census)			
India/NE States	**1991**	**2011**	**% increase over two decades**
India	52.2	74.04	21.84
Assam	52.9	73.18	20.28
Arunachal Pradesh	41.6	66.95	25.35
Manipur	59.9	79.85	19.95
Meghalaya	49.1	75.48	26.38
Mizoram	82.3	91.58	9.28
Nagaland	61.6	80.11	18.51
Sikkim	56.9	82.20	25.30
Tripura	60.4	87.75	27.35

Source: Population Census, 1991, 2011, Office of Registrar General of India and Census Commissioner.

requires its people to be educated. Literacy is the first step towards educational development. To begin with, we could make a comparative study of improvement in literacy rate in these states between two decades i.e.; 1991-2011.

From the above table, it is observed that the four NE States(namely Tripura, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh and Sikkim) have made significant (>25%) improvement in raising the literacy rate in the period over two decades i.e., 1991-2011. However, it is observed that the literacy rate in two States namely, Assam (73.18) and Arunachal Pradesh (66.95) is still below the national average (74.04). Hence these two States need to make additional efforts in this direction.

To ensure that the entire gamut of population in the concerned age group has access to education; the State is required to create basic infrastructure facilities. Pupil-Teacher Ratio is one of the key indicators of educational progress. The available data in this regards is given in the following tables:

Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)

Table 2(a)

Pupil-Teacher Ratioat Primary/Junior Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	42	44	2
Assam	48	36	-12
Arunachal Pradesh	29	22	-7
Manipur	19	33	14
Meghalaya	32	40	8
Mizoram	26	17	-9
Nagaland	24	25	1
Sikkim	14	14	0
Tripura	30	27	-3

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

Table 2(b)

Pupil-Teacher Ratio at Middle/Senior Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	33	34	1
Assam	31	17	-14
Arunachal Pradesh	24	25	1
Manipur	17	22	5
Meghalaya	17	12	-5
Mizoram	11	8	-3
Nagaland	22	17	-5
Sikkim	15	14	-1
Tripura	25	18	-7

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

An appropriate Pupil-Teacher Ratio facilitates a conducive teaching-learning environment. From the point of view of perception of students, a classroom with 30-35 students may be treated as appropriate. Keeping this in view, it is observed from the above table 2(a) that at the All India level, necessary steps are required for having a proportionate Pupil - Teacher Ratio (PTR). However, an analysis of PTR in different NE states over the given 20 years' period indicates that while the PTR has changed adversely in case of Manipur and Meghalaya, it has improved significantly in Assam, Mizoram and Tripura. In fact, the States of Meghalaya, Assam and Manipur would need to take concrete steps for appointing requisite number of teachers for introducing appropriate PTR. Further, it is important to note that the foundation of good education is laid at primary stage. Hence, having appropriate PTR at this stage is all the more necessary.

In case of this segment (i.e. Middle/Senior Basic School Stage) by and large there has been improvement in PTR except for the States of Arunachal Pradesh and Manipur, where it has increased by 1 and 5 respectively.

In case of PTR at High school stage, while the achievement in case of Sikkim and Assam reflect better performance, the State of Arunachal Pradesh has maintained status-quo. However, it has changed adversely in case of Nagaland, Manipur, Meghalaya and Mizoram. In case of these States adequate steps need to be taken to provide quality education keeping in view the fact that a sizable number of young people enter the work force after completing education upto this stage only.

Table 2 (c)

Pupil-Teacher Ratio at High/Post Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	29	32	3
Assam	28	20	-8
Arunachal Pradesh	23	23	0
Manipur	21	27	6
Meghalaya	24	28	4
Mizoram	10	11	1
Nagaland	21	30	9
Sikkim	18	8	-10
Tripura	23	25	2

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

TEACHER'S TRAINING

The outcome of education depends mainly on the content and quality of teaching. To ensure good quality teaching, it is necessary that every teacher at every stage of education is appropriately trained. The proportion of trained teachers in NE States in the two reference years i.e., 1987-88 and 2008-09 in the following tables presents a comparative view.

Through the review of the teachers' training scenario at primary stage, it is observed that the situation is very pathetic in Nagaland, Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram. In only three of the eight NE States (i.e. Assam, Sikkim and Tripura), more than 50% primary school teachers are trained. However, even these States are far behind the national average (i.e.,90%).

The Scenario at Middle/Senior Basic School Stage is more or less the same as that of the primary stage. At this stage also, the percentage of trained teachers in case of Nagaland, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim and Tripura was below 50% in 2008-09. Only the State of Assam(having 90% of trained teacher) was closer to national average.

It is observed that at High/Post Basic School Stage, only the States of Tripura and Sikkim had more than 50% of trained teachers in 2008-09. At this stage also, the percentage of trained teachers is abysmally low in case of Nagaland (25%), Assam (29%), Meghalaya(36%), Arunachal Pradesh (37%) and Manipur (42%).

Thus, a comparative view of the trained teachers at different stages

Table 3(a)

Percentage of Trained Teachers at Primary/Junior Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	88.41	90.00	1.59
Assam	61.00	64.00	3.00
Arunachal Pradesh	41.03	11.00	-30.03
Manipur	67.00	36.00	-31.00
Meghalaya	42.00	45.00	3.00
Mizoram	50.85	39.00	-11.85
Nagaland	88.00	24.00	-64.00
Sikkim	48.46	68.00	19.54
Tripura	38.56	74.00	35.44

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010 .

Table 3(b)

Percentage of Trained Teachers at Middle/Senior Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	90.10	91.00	0.90
Assam	25.00	90.00	65.00
Arunachal Pradesh	38.66	17.00	-21.66
Manipur	51.00	35.00	-16.00
Meghalaya	33.00	36.00	3.00
Mizoram	53.87	50.00	-3.87
Nagaland	51.30	19.00	-32.30
Sikkim	36.80	42.00	5.20
Tripura	40.78	47.00	6.22

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88.
(ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

Table 3 (c)

Percentage of Trained Teachers at High/Post Basic School Stage

India/NE States	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	86.49	89.00	2.51
Assam	23.00	29.00	6.00
Arunachal Pradesh	39.76	37.00	-2.76
Manipur	33.00	42.00	9.00
Meghalaya	31.00	36.00	5.00
Mizoram	45.63	40.00	-5.63
Nagaland	63.00	25.00	-38.00
Sikkim	41.35	55.00	13.65
Tripura	46.92	63.00	16.08

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88.
(ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010 .

of school education in the North Eastern States presents a gloomy picture. For mainstreaming the entire North Eastern India, it is necessary that we train all the teachers at high school level also which will help the youth across these States in availing best possible opportunities in the job market. However, it would be inappropriate or illogical to expect good quality education without having trained teachers. Hence, teachers' training at High/Post Basic School should be accorded top priority in the entire NE region.

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

GER is one of the basic parameters to assess the success of universalisation of elementary education, which Government is trying to ensure through Sarva Siksha Abhiyan(SSA). The GER at the Primary and Upper-Primary stage in NE States in comparison with the all India GER is given in the following tables:

The main inferences drawn from the two above mentioned tables are as follows:

(a) Changes in GER at Primary Stage (Class I-V) 2007-08 over 1987-88 (i.e two decades)

It is observed that the highest achievement, i.e 90.89 in terms of GER, has been in case of Meghalaya, whereas the lowest i.e., -25.77 has been in case of Nagaland.

Table 4(a)

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER): Class I-V(6-10 years)

India/NE States	1987-88			2007-08			%Change over Two Decades in case of Total
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
India	113.13	81.75	97.86	115.26	112.58	113.97	16.11
Assam	112.22	98.78	105.71	106.04	106.15	106.09	0.38
Arunachal Pradesh	110.06	75.54	92.91	149.05	136.62	142.97	50.06
Manipur	125.53	104.79	115.29	175.95	170.30	173.18	57.89
Meghalaya	102.29	99.01	100.64	193.47	189.54	191.53	90.89
Mizoram	139.59	134.17	136.94	176.07	165.66	170.95	34.01
Nagaland	118.82	117.73	118.28	92.50	92.52	92.51	-25.77
Sikkim	127.99	105.42	116.81	149.31	146.71	148.02	31.21
Tripura	142.81	118.09	130.66	149.37	146.15	147.79	17.13

Sources: (i) Selected Socio-Economic Indicators of North-East States of India, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Govt. of Assam, 2007-08. (ii) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88.

Table 4(b)

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER): Class VI-VIII (11-13 years)

India/NE States	1987-88			2007-08			%Change over Two Decades in case of Total
	Boys	**Girls**	**Total**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Total**	
India	68.87	40.62	55.14	81.48	74.36	78.06	22.92
Assam	60.19	44.76	52.75	92.04	90.47	91.27	38.52
Arunachal Pradesh	47.87	26.55	37.47	100.88	87.69	94.36	56.89
Manipur	82.69	60.93	71.96	107.57	100.92	104.31	32.35
Meghalaya	61.95	53.46	57.66	99.71	107.00	103.32	45.66
Mizoram	71.13	70.24	70.69	86.30	84.97	85.65	14.96
Nagaland	60.72	52.44	56.68	58.93	61.34	60.08	03.40
Sikkim	59.06	49.35	54.37	67.63	81.91	74.62	20.25
Tripura	76.51	57.95	67.40	88.01	87.60	87.81	20.41

Sources: (i) Selected Socio-Economic Indicators of North-East States of India, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Govt. of Assam, 2007-08. (ii) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88.

(i) It is also observed that change in the GER in the two States namely Nagaland and Assam have been below the all India average. On the contrary, the GER in all other NE States is above the all India average.

(ii) It has been widely perceived that Sarva Siksha Abhiyan(SSA) can be made successful only if the enrolment of girl children is brought at par with those of the boys. From table 4(a), it is observed that while there has been significant improvement in all India average of GER of girls as compared to GER of boys, it has gone up by 30.83 for girls in comparison to 2.13 for boys.

(iii) Incidentally, in terms of achievement for girls in GER, the states of Nagaland and Assam are lagging behind. However, the highest achievement has been observed in case of Meghalaya (90.53) followed by Manipur (65.51).

(iv) In case of GER for boys also, the achievement has been lowest in case of Nagaland (-25.77) and Assam (0.38).

(b) Changes in GER at Upper-Primary Stage (Class VI-VIII) 2007-08 over 1987-88 (i.e two decades)

(i) It is observed that the achievement in terms of GER at all India level

increased by 22.92;while the four NE States namely Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Assam and Manipur have the GER rate above the all India average. On the contrary, remaining four NE States namely Nagaland, Mizoram, Sikkim and Tripura had the GER rate below all India average. This implies that additional efforts are needed to be made in the said four States having GER rate below the all India average. Those four States need to take necessary steps to enhance the enrolment of students and also strong then the ways and means to ensure their retention.

(ii) It is observed that Arunachal Pradesh has the highest achievement (56.89) followed by Meghalaya (45.66). On the contrary, the States having lowest achievement in terms of GER are Nagaland (3.4) followed by Mizoram (14.96).

(iii) In case of GER for girls at upper-primary level, it is observed that the achievement at all India level has been 33.74 which are interestingly higher than those for boys (12.61).

(iv) In case of NE States the trend of achievement in terms of GER for girls at upper-primary level is same as that of total GER. Here also, the States namely Nagaland, Mizoram, Tripura and Sikkim had the GER rate below all India average. Thus, it leads to inference that before

Table 5(a)

Dropout Rate: Class I-V

India/NE States	1987-88			2008-09			%Change over Two Decades in case of Total
	Boys	**Girls**	**Total**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Total**	
India	43.28	49.42	46.97	26.68	22.90	24.93	-22.04
Assam	51.59	59.47	55.01	NA	NA	NA	NA
Arunachal Pradesh	58.75	58.43	58.63	41.80	39.71	40.84	-17.79
Manipur	71.35	72.04	71.67	39.55	41.19	42.31	-29.36
Meghalaya	31.43	33.40	32.35	60.77	56.95	58.87	26.52
Mizoram	37.28	38.72	37.98	39.98	40.08	40.03	2.05
Nagaland	37.22	33.43	35.45	21.40	15.71	18.70	-16.75
Sikkim	60.19	58.50	59.86	41.97	31.55	36.95	-22.91
Tripura	59.14	58.02	58.63	24.64	20.07	22.49	-36.14

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010 .

taking up the issue of promoting education at secondary school stage these states of NE region would be required to make concerted efforts for making SSA successful, particularly through the focus on upper-primary level.

Dropout Rate

Dropout rate is one of the indicators reflecting the effectiveness of any programme of education. A comparative view of dropout rate at different stages of education in 1987-88 vis-a –vis 2007-08 is as follows:

(i) From the above table 5(a), it is observed that in term of all India average in the above mentioned two decades period, there has

been considerable decline in the drop-out rate (i.e.22.04) at lower primary stage (class I-V).

(ii) In case of Mizoram, the drop-out rate has increased by 2.05% and surprisingly, there has been a steep rise (26.52%) in case of Meghalaya. This needs to be examined meticulously and calls for effective remedial measures for ensuring the success of SSA in these two States.

(iii) It is observed that at Primary Stage, in terms of all India average, there has been considerable decline in the drop-out rate (26.52%) in case of girls. However, the decline in Meghalaya (+23.55), Mizoram(+1.36), Nagaland(17.72)

Table 5(b)

Dropout Rate: Class I-VIII

India/NE States	1987-88			2008-09			%Change over Two Decades in case of Total
	Boys	**Girls**	**Total**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Total**	
India	58.80	67.55	62.29	44.89	38.86	42.25	-20.04
Assam	70.91	74.45	72.44	68.21	68.35	68.28	-4.16
Arunachal Pradesh	75.20	75.91	75.44	44.87	43.31	44.16	-31.28
Manipur	76.58	87.86	77.90	42.92	44.94	43.90	-34
Meghalaya	66.42	61.60	64.22	79.61	75.75	77.69	13.47
Mizoram	45.35	42.49	43.98	64.18	61.61	62.97	18.99
Nagaland	58.15	55.13	56.90	31.81	31.03	31.43	-25.47
Sikkim	63.83	60.11	62.51	52.99	39.41	46.41	-16.1
Tripura	73.95	75.96	74.83	49.49	45.53	47.61	-27.22

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010 .

and Arunachal Pradesh(18.72) is below the all India level and hence requires necessary steps to be taken for bringing it at par with the National average.

(i) From the above table, it is observed that in term of all India average in the above mentioned two decades' period there has been considerable decline in the drop-out rate (i.e.20.04) at elementary stage (class I-VIII).

(ii) In case of Mizoram and Meghalaya the drop-out rate has increased by 18.99% and 13.47% respectively. In case of these two States, effective corrective measures are required to ensure that children reach at least up to the secondary stage of education before they join workforce of the country.

(iii) The decline in dropout rate at elementary stage (class I-VIII) in case of Sikkim (16.10) is below all India average (20.04). However, the same in case of Assam is only 4.16%. It implies that the Government of Assam needs to lay focus on reducing the dropout rate and bring it at least at par with all India average.

It is observed that the dropout rate for class I-X over the said two decades in terms of all India average has declined by 19.42 %. Interestingly, in the entire NE States it is only Arunachal Pradesh where the decline in dropout rate for this stage has been 29.97%.

Table 5(c)
Dropout Rate: Class I-X

India/NE States	1987-88			2008-09			% Change over Two Decades in case of Total
	Boys	**Girls**	**Total**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Total**	
India	72.14	80.06	75.30	55.82	55.95	55.88	-19.42
Assam	78.07	81.88	79.73	78.47	79.55	78.97	-0.76
Arunachal Pradesh	83.03	85.75	83.92	63.39	62.43	62.95	-20.97
Manipur	75.69	77.68	76.61	58.91	57.06	58.03	-18.58
Meghalaya	89.46	89.62	89.53	77.03	75.77	76.40	-13.13
Mizoram	75.95	79.04	77.45	70.16	66.45	68.41	-9.04
Nagaland	81.71	82.90	82.21	68.34	66.84	67.61	-14.6
Sikkim	87.89	91.39	89.37	81.99	82.53	82.26	-7.11
Tripura	77.33	77.55	77.42	71.68	70.33	71.04	-6.38

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education (Abstract) 2008-2009, Bureau of Planning, Monitoring and Statistics, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

However, the decline in dropout rate at this stage in other NE States is below the all India average. The example of Assam, Tripura, Sikkim and Mizoram may be cited as special cases which have less than half of the achievement at all India average. This implies that the larger number of NE States; particularly, the above mentioned four States need to go into the depth of reasons underlying such a lag. The Government of India may consider helping these NE States for taking up necessary corrective measures as per their specific situation.

Development of Infrastructure

A review of institutional development at elementary stage in case of NE States leads to inference that there has been 45.20 % growth in the primary/junior basic schools at the all India level. In case of NE States; Mizoram, Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya and Sikkim have shown the growth rate higher than that of all India average. However, the growth in case of Nagaland, Assam and Tripura has been far below the all India average while in case of Manipur it has been negative. It needs to be examined whether such a wide variation in terms of growth of primary/junior basic schools among the NE States is related to the population of children in the school going age or it is because of the other constraints faced by concerned States.

Table 6 (a)

Development of Infrastructure at Elementary Stage:

India/NE States	Primary/Junior Basic Schools			Middle/Senior Basic Schools		
	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	543677	789444	45.20	141014	336638	138.73
Assam	26670	31042	16.39	5181	13023	151.36
Arunachal Pradesh	1036	1721	66.12	219	813	271.23
Manipur	2777	2579	-7.13	436	792	81.65
Meghalaya	4158	6618	59.16	670	2259	237.16
Mizoram	1033	1783	72.60	477	1253	162.68
Nagaland	1270	1662	30.87	343	465	35.57
Sikkim	489	769	57.26	123	215	74.80
Tripura	1927	2120	10.02	418	1059	153.35

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, 1987-88. (ii) Statistics of School Education, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

In case of middle/senior basic schools, the growth rate at all India level was 138.73 %. While Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Mizoram and Assam had the growth rate higher than the all India level in this segment of elementary education; the performance of Manipur, Sikkim and Nagaland was below the national average. Since this level of education is main link between primary and tertiary sector, it is necessary to strengthen this segment in the three said States.

In an analytical report on elementary education in India conducted by Ministry of HRD in the document "Educational Development Index", it has been observed that among the North Eastern States, Sikkim outperformed the other States in the region at primary and composite primary and upper primary (Elementary) levels of education. Sikkim is placed 13th amongst all the 35 States and UTs of the country in case of composite, primary and upper primary level of education.

In case of infrastructure set of indicators at primary level, it was observed that Sikkim had highest EDI (0.764) and 0.833 at upper primary level. Sikkim was followed by Mizoram with an EDI of 0.653. The lowest EDI (0.350) in this region was observed in Meghalaya. Meghalaya was also found to have lowest infrastructure index (0.490). It was also observed that Arunachal Pradesh having EDI (0.432) at primary level ranked 33 out of 35 States included in the analysis.

The said analysis of Ministry of HRD also informed that like infrastructure, most of the States in the North Eastern Region were better placed at upper primary level with regard to teachers' indicators compared to primary level[1].

ACCESS TO SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

Regarding schooling facilities at secondary stage provided by the Government, the available data indicate that Tripura is the best, where more than 90% schools are Government Schools while Meghalaya is the worst wherein about 95% secondary schools are private schools. It is interesting to note that in Arunachal Pradesh and Sikkim also 80% of secondary schools are Government schools. The NUEPA Occasional Paper also observed that within the North Eastern Region, Mizoram has the best access to secondary schooling facility while Arunachal Pradesh has lowest access to the same and hence the need for opening more secondary schools in Arunachal has been suggested to fill the gap with respect to the demand for secondary education[2].

FEMALE TEACHERS

Regarding the availability of female teachers, it has been observed that at secondary level, the North Eastern Region had about 30.74% female teachers which were quite less than the percentage of female teachers in the country (i.e. 40.69%). Only

two of the States in the NE region i.e. Meghalaya (43.40%) and Sikkim (41.41%) had higher percentage of female teachers than the national average[3].

As regards the trained teachers at secondary stage, it is observed that as against 82% of trained teachers at the secondary level in the country, the NE region had only 27.19% trained teachers. This speaks of the challenge faced by the States of the NE region in terms of the quality of education imparted at secondary level.

To enable our Schools run smoothly, it is necessary to have requisite number of teachers. As per the available information, though 6 North Eastern States were accorded sanction for recruitment of new teachers under Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA), only three states had recruited some teachers by 2012.While Manipur recruited 503 teachers out of 830 (ie about 606%) of the sanctioned number), Tripura recruited 210 teachers out of 415 (i.e., about 50.6% of the sanctioned teachers) and Mizoram could appoint only 180 out of 532 (ie, About 34.6% of the sanctioned number) up till June, 2012[4].

To ensure proper development of education and IT based learning 1775 secondary schools in the North Eastern region were sanctioned computer rooms under RMSA in the 11th Five Year Plan (2007-2012). About half of these schools were in Assam (860) followed by Mizoram (199) and Tripura (186). Similarly, the states of Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur and Nagaland were sanctioned 176,165 and 126 computer rooms respectively. However, while Sikkim was sanctioned 52 computer rooms, Meghalaya was sanctioned 13computer rooms in the said period. In addition to that, it is also observed that in the 11th Five year plan (2007-2012), states were provided financial assistance to procure computers and other ICT related infrastructure. In the 11th Five Year plan (2007-12) a total of Rs 59.79 crore was released to NE states covering 3094 schools under ICT @School scheme. The maximum advantage under this was availed by the states of Assam (1881 schools) and Tripura (682 schools) followed by Meghalaya (316 schools)[5].

Due support was also provided to 1,731 secondary schools of NE states for setting up libraries. While Assam was sanctioned 838 libraries, Tripura and Mizoram were sanctioned 211 and 195 libraries respectively. The remaining three NE states sanctioned less than 100 libraries each were Manipur (95), Sikkim (98) and Meghalaya (14)[6].

The growth of institutions at secondary stage at all India level has been 124.75 %. Interestingly, the states of Arunachal Pradesh, Mizoram, Nagaland and Meghalaya have made better achievements than the national average. On the contrary, the performance of Assam, Sikkim, Manipur and Tripura has been below the national average.

As regards the institutions at

Table 6 (b)

Development of Infrastructure at Secondary Stage

India/NE States	High/Post Basic Schools			Pre-degree/ Junior Colleges/ Hr. Secondary Schools		
	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	54845	123265	124.75	16460	60383	266.85
Assam	2380	5215	119.12	371	755	384
Arunachal Pradesh	55	171	210.91	38	109	186.84
Manipur	349	704	101.72	35	120	242.86
Meghalaya	292	676	131.51	-	98	-
Mizoram	162	502	209.88	-	86	-
Nagaland	111	337	203.60	4	69	1625
Sikkim	54	118	118.52	14	55	293
Tripura	255	430	68.63	126	301	138.89

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education, 1987-88 MHRD, GOI, 1989. (ii) Statistics' of School Education, MHRD, GOI, 2010.

Pre-degree/Junior Colleges/Hr. Secondary Schools, it is observed that expansion has been notable in case of Nagaland. Since the data is not available regarding the number of institutions for education at this level in 1987-88 in Meghalaya and Mizoram, the progress over two decades may not be reviewed. However, from the preliminary observation, it is noted that the expansion at this stage in the North Eastern States has been by and large higher than the all India average.

In terms of infrastructure the situation in NE States is pathetic particularly regarding lavatory facilities and urinals for girls. As sighted in the occasional papers of NEUPA, the lavatory facility is available in more than 60 per cent secondary schools of the country but this facility is provided only in about 38 per cent schools in the northeastern region. In Sikkim, more than 70 per cent secondary schools have lavatory. However, in Assam this facility is available only in 24 per cent secondary schools and that is the lowest in the north-eastern region.

Urinals for girls are available in about 68 per cent secondary schools in the country but in the north-eastern region this facility is available in about 52 per cent schools only. In the North-Eastern states, Nagaland has the highest percentage of secondary schools having girls' urinals while Mizoram has the lowest percentage of such schools. Girls'

lavatories are available in about half of the secondary schools of the country while in the north-eastern region; this facility is available in only about 20 per cent schools. In the north-eastern region, not even a single state has this facility at par with the national average (49.37 per cent)[7].

To deal with the problem of accommodation faced by Teachers, Residential quarters were sanctioned for secondary school teachers in 5 out of 8 NE states. Manipur was sanctioned the highest number of quarters (304) followed by Arunachal Pradesh (203) Nagaland (199), Mizoram (141) and Tripura (30).It is observed that no residential quarters were sanctioned for teachers under RMSA in the states of Assam, Meghalaya and Sikkim. How is the problem of out of station secondary school teachers being addressed in these states needs to be analysed[8].

In the NUEPA Occasional papers, it has been indicated that in terms of availability of building in secondary schools, Tripura is the best performing State where about 87% secondary schools have pucca building, while Nagaland is the worst performing State in the NE region as there are about 94% secondary schools run in kuchha building and a little more than 3% do not have any building at all.

Regarding the facilities of rooms available for various purposes like library, laboratory, boys and girls' common room and indoor games room etc., NUEPA study suggest that secondary schools of Manipur have best facilities followed by Nagaland. The States having least facility on this account in the NE region are Mizoram and Assam.

As regards the availability of electricity connection, generator sets, computers and internet connection etc., study indicate that secondary schools of the NE region are in relatively poor condition as compared to other regions of the country. Only about 50% of the schools have electricity connection compared with 73% schools in other parts of the country. While 26% secondary schools have computers in the country, only 13% of schools in NE region have got computers.

In terms of school library, librarian, the living room also the schools in the NE region are found to relatively less equip than the schools of other regions. It is noted that about 43% of the secondary schools in the NE region have library in comparison with 2/3rd secondary schools of other parts of the country having this facility. Only 3.35% schools of the NE region have librarian while 12% schools in other regions have the same. Similarly, only 7.3% schools of the NE region have a living room as compared with 23% secondary schools in other regions of the country.

DEVELOPMENT OF INFRASTRUCTURE AT THE HIGHER EDUCATION STAGE

Expansion, inclusion and quality are the three corner stones of our national

goals in education. At the higher education level the Government has set a target of 21% GER by the end of the 12th Plan (2017). Keeping in view the present GER which is 12.4% the target of 21% appears to be really challenging. In a study conducted under the aegis of Indian Chamber of Commerce through Price Waterhouse Coopers, it has been observed that Nagaland has the highest GER in the country with Manipur at 7th position while the rest of eastern and north eastern States are much lower down, and in most cases, below the national average[9]. There are two examples of successful expansion of higher education in the NE region. The first is that of Sikkim Manipal University and the second one between the Govt. of Mizoram and New Horizons India (a US – based company) to set up and IT Entrepreneurs Training Centre And Promatric Testing Centre at Aizawal in 2005. The main challenge faced in the region is that of inaccessibility, poor physical infrastructure, law and order problems and limited local employment opportunities.

It is observed that in 1987-88, out of total 166 universities (including Central/State/Pvt./Institutions Deemed to be universities) in the country; only 7 universities were in the NE Region. The States of Mizoram, Nagaland and Sikkim did not have a single university at that time.[10] The positive aspect of the development at the higher education stage in NE States is that all of them had at least

Table 6 (c)

Growth of Universities in NE region

India/NE States	Universities (Central/State/Pvt./Deemed)		
	1987-88	**2008-09**	**%Change over Two Decades**
India	166	371	123.5
Assam	3	6	100.0
Arunachal Pradesh	1	2	100.0
Manipur	1	2	100.0
Meghalaya	1	1	0.0
Mizoram	-	1	100.0
Nagaland	-	1	100.0
Sikkim	-	3	300.0
Tripura	1	2	100.0

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education 1987-88, MHRD, GOI, 1989.
(ii) Statistics of Higher and Technical Education 2008-09, MHRD, GOI, 2011.

Table 6 (d)

Growth of Colleges in NE region (Institutions and Enrolment)

India/NE States	Colleges (Arts/Science/ Commerce)			Enrolment (Arts/Science/ Commerce)		
	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	4329	14147	226.8	1412468	8807870	523.58
Assam	160	337	110.6	64161	193812	202.07
Arunachal Pradesh	3	13	333.3	1080	10600	881.48
Manipur	23	58	152.2	10230	23750	132.16
Meghalaya	23	57	147.8	5615	31546	461.82
Mizoram	12	24	100.0	1692	7132	321.51
Nagaland	16	32	100.0	1942	23440	1107.00
Sikkim	1	4	300.0	607	5128	744.81
Tripura	11	17	54.5	9431	26008	175.77

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education 1987-88, MHRD, GOI, 1989. (ii) Statistics of Higher and Technical Education 2008-09, MHRD, GOI, 2011.

one university by 2008-09. It generates the hope that creation of universities in all the NE States will strengthen higher education in the entire region.

It is interesting to note that at all India level, while the number of college having general degree (Arts/Science/Commerce) increased by 226.8 % over the two decades; the enrolment went up by 523.58 %. Identical or better trend is observed in case of all the NE States except Manipur, where the number of colleges went by 152.2 % whereas the increase in enrolment was 132.16 %. Interestingly there is phenomenal growth (1107 %) in enrolment in the general courses at the college level courses in Nagaland.

It is observed that out of 262 engineering colleges in entire country, there were only 4 colleges in the NE region (3 in Assam and 1 in Tripura) in 1987-88. Over the two decades in the given period, the number of colleges in the NE region increased to 18. However, the States of Mizoram and Nagaland were still not having a single engineering college till 2008-09. It is, hence, desirable that in terms of regional balance and uniform growth of technical education in the country, these two States get due support from DONER to set up atleast one engineering college each. It is observed that so far the State of Assam has got one IIT at Guwahati since 1994 and the

Table 6 (e)

Growth of Engineering and Technology Colleges in NE region (Institutions and Enrolment)

India/NE States	Colleges (Engineering and Technology)			Enrolment(Engineering and Technology)		
	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	262	2466	841.2	190779	1663619	772.01
Assam	3	7	133.3	2669	2998	12.33
Arunachal Pradesh	-	3	300.0	-	1826	-
Manipur	-	3	300.0	-	130	-
Meghalaya	-	1	100.0	-	66	-
Mizoram	-	-	0.00	-	-	-
Nagaland	-	-	0.00	-	-	-
Sikkim	-	2	200.0	-	471	-
Tripura	1	2	100.0	452	383	-15.27

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education 1987-88, MHRD, GOI,1989. (ii) Statistics of Higher and Technical Education 2008-09, MHRD, GOI, 2011.

State of Meghalaya has got one IIM i.e., Rajiv Gandhi Indian Institute of Management since 2008-09. We need to have a streamlined and objective approach for providing technical education to the youth of NE States particularly in view of demographic dividend, which our country is going to have for coming to two decades.

Out of 262 medical colleges in the entire country in 1987-88, the NE region had only 5 medical colleges (3 in Assam, 1 in Manipur and 1 in Tripura). Over two decade's period, the number of medical college in the NE region grew up to 18. However, the State of Mizoram and Nagaland still remained deprived in term of medical education also. Hence, it is desirable that the assistance of DONER is provided to these two NE States for setting up of one medical college each to promote medical education.

Conclusion

From a review of educational development, it is observed that the educational agencies both in the public and private sectors have a big scope for expansion in North Eastern States of the country. Available data indicate that most of the NE states have varying but some number of degree colleges suggesting that the development of education has been starkly uneven from state to state in the region[7]. Following crucial issues need to be addressed for strengthening

Table 6 (f)

Growth of Medical Colleges in NE region (Institutions and Enrolment)

India/NE States	Colleges(Medical)			Enrolment (Medical)		
	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades	1987-88	2008-09	%Change over Two Decades
India	262	2466	841.2	81367	273366	235.97
Assam	3	7	133.3	1958	2556	30.54
Arunachal Pradesh	-	3	300.0	0	144	144
Manipur	1	3	300.0	460	100	-78.26
Meghalaya	-	1	100.0	0	94	94.00
Mizoram	-	-	100.0	0	373	373.00
Nagaland	-	-	100.0	0	0	0.00
Sikkim	-	2	200.0	0	657	657.00
Tripura	1	2	100.0	-	30	30.00

Sources: (i) Selected Education Statistics, Department of Education 1987-88, MHRD, GOI,1989. (ii) Statistics of Higher and Technical Education 2008-09, MHRD, GOI, 2011.

higher education in the NE States of the country; i) college ratio in the NE States is far below that of the national average; ii) the reason is pathetically wanting in terms of availability of the specialised courses such as medicine, veterinary medicine, teacher training, technological college and college offering other vocational courses; iii) lack of proper infrastructure has been a major constraint as a result of these the capable teaching professional shy away from joining the institution in the NE region.

In the past few years there have been considerable efforts at improving the standards and scope of higher education in the region and the role of Indira Gandhi Open University have been pioneering in that direction. Through its Educational Development of North East Region Unit (EDNERU), IGONU has introduced various need based, custom made courses like Public Policy, Community Cardiology, Health Care, Hospital Waste Management and Food Safety- at the Certificate, Diploma as well as Graduate, Post-Graduate and Doctoral Level for the youth of this region8. In her study on higher education in NER Nasakar has found that one of the most successful features of the IGNOU courses has been introduction of Online Distance Learning (ODL) methods to impart the courses by successful usages of the Information and Communication

Technologies (ICTs). She has also observed that in the restive political scenario of NER, ODL holds the promise to attain a greater and wider reach above the conventional class room-based education as it successful crosses of geographical distance. Local universities like Dibrugarh University and other are also introducing many vocational courses to rise above the poor standards of professional skills of the otherwise educated degree holders. Universities of the region are also increasingly trying to meet demand of vocational training. We see thousands of the students from these States moving to universities and colleges in metropolitian cities such as Delhi, Kolkata, Mumbai, Bangalore, and Chennai etc. From the analysis made in the preceding pages, it may be observed that in spite of effective measures taken by the concerned State Government as well as Union Ministry of HRD, the GER has not been very satisfactory in case of Nagaland and Assam. This implies that some State specific measures are required to be taken by these two States in collaboration with the Ministry of HRD and the same could be taken up by DONER through its non-lapsable fund. It is also a point of special concern in case of Nagaland where GER has been observed to be negative in respect of boys as well as girls at primary stage. It needs to be ensured that the enrolment at primary stage has reached saturation point. Otherwise, it needs proactive measures to be taken to bring the GER in the state at least at average level of NE States.

In order to reduce the regional disparity and for mainstreaming of the entire North Eastern region, emphasis should be laid on strengthening the institutions as well as quality of education at every stage of education i.e., from Primary to University level.

It is important to note here that the new Government at the Centre has taken due note of the fact that resource rich North-Eastern states are lagging behind in development due to poor governance, systemic corruption and poor delivery of public services. It may be recalled that NDA government in its earlier tenure had initiated concrete steps to address the issue of development of Northeast by setting up the Ministry of North-Eastern Region. From the past experience, it can be logically expected that the new Government will strengthen its approach towards North Eastern Region and will take necessary steps for expediting the pace of its mainstreaming of this region.

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From Monologue to Dialogue Interpreting Social Constructivism with Bakhtinian Perspective

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Abstract

At present it is a well established idea that the construction of knowledge is a process of co-construction of meanings through participation in socially negotiated and discursive activity. The pedagogic translation of this idea owes its root to Vygotskian perspective of development and learning. It envisages teaching-learning as a dialogic process. However it is identified that the idea of dialogue as used by proponents by social constructivist theorist is limited to its methodological implications as a pedagogic tool. The present paper argues that dialogue is not a pedagogic tool rather it is an ontological construct. Against this backdrop the paper argues that for developing a substantial theory of social constructivist pedagogy Bakhtin's ideas can be deployed. The paper elaborates the vistas of Bakhtin's idea of dialogue. Further with the help of this elaboration it tries to interpret the epistemological assumption of social constructivist approach to learning. This understanding will enable us to see the agency and the voices of individuals in teaching-learning process. Drawing upon the Bakhtinian perspective, the last section of the paper discusses tenets of dialogic pedagogy which help us to transform the pervasive monologic discourse into dialogic discourse.

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At present it is a well established idea that the construction of knowledge is a process of co-construction of meanings through participation in socially negotiated and discursive activity. The pedagogic translation of this idea owes its root to Vygotskian perspective of development and learning and it envisages teaching-learning as dialogic process. However it is worth noting that the idea of 'dialogue' has been conceived by the propagators of social constructivist approach to teaching-learning. It emerges from the reviews of literature and studies that under the umbrella of social constructivism dialogue has been used as a pedagogic tool for more effective teaching-learning in comparison to other forms of pedagogic strategies such as lecture or a demonstration (Werstch, 1991; Wells, 1999; Fernyhough, 1996). Implicitly this assumption carries the meaning that dialogue can be used as an instructional tool which can be turned on and off. It merely sees dialogue in the classroom as a form of interaction and maintains those conditions under which it is a good idea to organise an instruction as dialogue and when it is not (Matusov, 2007). In this sense, this perspective of dialogue is instrumental as it narrows down dialogue to a tool or strategy. It does not matter how the process of education is viewed – transmission of knowledge, acquisition of knowledge, co-construction of knowledge, education driven by the above mentioned instrumental view of dialogue seeks to make all consciousnesses homogeneous (White, 2013). The pedagogy guided by instrumental dialogue aimed at reducing the gap between the community of the educated, to whom the teacher belongs, and the community of the ignorant, to whom the students belong, by making the students more like the teacher. It is evident that although methodologically this perspective talks about dialogic pedagogy but ontologically and epistemologically it is ceased in mongolism. It is essential to address this pitfall of social.

Constructivist Approach to Teaching-Learning

Against this backdrop the present paper proposes that the above mentioned chasm between methodology and ontology of social constructivism can be filled with Bakhtin's ideas of dialogue. Instead of viewing dialogue as a tool or method, Bakhtin views dialogue as an essential condition for being in the world: 'life, itself is ontologically dialogic' (Bakhtin, 1986). Matusov (2011) while discussing the uniqueness of Bakhtin's idea highlighted that for Bakhtin, a gap in the mutual understanding between people is a necessary condition for dialogic, humane communication, and for the entire human relationship. This orientation to the gap in mutual understanding is both a precursor and an outcome of dialogue and dialogic meaning-making. He goes further and elaborates:

"Bakhtin developed a pluralistic, essentially synchronic, dialogic, discourse and genre-based approach to the social, involving the hybridity of co-existing competing and conflicting varieties of logic. Bakhtin's dialogic approach was essentially ontological, defining consciousness through bodily experience, responsibility, addressivity, responsivity, respect, human dignity, and relationship with the other."

The paper explores the vistas of Bakhtin's ideas and tries to interpret the epistemological assumption of social constructivist approach to learning. Doing the same the paper also aims to understand the tenets of dialogic pedagogy from the Bakhtinian point of view.

BACKGROUND OF BAKHTIN

Bakhtin was a literary theorist and a teacher. He preferred to call himself a philosopher. He was born in 1895 at Oryol, Russia to a liberal and educated family of old noble ancestry that encouraged his academic studies. He lived through the same time period in Russia as did Vygotsky, experiencing the Russian Revolution as well as the Stalinist era, a time of both enormous social and economic need as well as extraordinary cultural and philosophical creativity. As a youth, Bakhtin grew up in cities that had a clashing of unusually large amounts of diverse cultures and languages. Holquist (2004) identified it as a fact that influenced his future theories on the nature of language. After completing his studies in philology

at a university in St. Petersburg in 1918, Bakhtin moved to the cities of Nevel and Vitebsk. In both of these locations Bakhtin became a member of a small group of intellectuals who fiercely debated and discussed philosophical, religious, political, and cultural issues. The group was known as Bakhtinian Circle. The discussions that took place in this group influenced and contributed in development of Bakhtin's ideas and scholarship. His academic background in philology and participation in intense debate and discussion in intellectual circles, promoted his engagement in a series of writing projects between 1918 and 1924 that intersected philosophy and literature. As a literary theorist, his writings critically explored the ideological structure of novels. As a philologist he critically analysed the work of authors such as Fyodor Dostoevsky, Franç̧ois Rabelais, and Johann Wolfgang von Goethe. He published his first major work, The Problems of Dostoevsky's Poetics in 1929. Bakhtin wrote his critical analysis of Dostoevsky's work from a more sociological stance. Holquist, (2004) highlights that while Bakhtin was a very active writer his entire life, it was not until after his death in 1975 that the academic world started paying attention to his writings, and their applicability to education.

A BAKHTINIAN APPROACH TO DIALOGUE

Dialogue is a pivotal concept in Bakhtin's writing that informs his

ontology, epistemology and theory of language. Bakhtin uses the term 'dialogue' to characterise a number of planes of human existence. According to him humans engage in dialogue in multiple ways and this dialogic engagement manifests what it means to be human.

"The single adequate form for verbally expressing authentic human life is the open-ended dialogue. Life by its very nature is dialogic. To live means to participate in dialogue.… In a dialogue a person participates wholly and throughout his whole life: with his eyes, lips, hands, soul, spirit… he invest his entire self in discourse and this discourse enters into the dialogic fabric of human life, into the world symposium." (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 293)

It is evident that for Bakhtin dialogue as an ongoing social process of meaning making occurs between people as subjects. He also affirms that dialogic communication takes not only the form of words but also gestures, facial expressions, postures, the whole array of body language, apparel and social behaviour. Dialogue is both ontological—reflecting the way we are constituted as humans—and ethical—the way we should be. Bakhtin points out that people do not take words from a dictionary, but from the mouths of other speakers, and so they carry with them the voices of those who have used them before. Unlike other scholars (particularly Vygotsky) Bakhtin does not consider language only a cultural tool rather he focused on language-in-action as a living source of insight and renewal.

VISTAS OF DIALOGUE IN BAKHTIN'S IDEAS

1. Dialogue: Utterance and Addressivity

Bakhtin identified two forms of Dialogue: external dialogue and internal dialogue. External dialogue is a verbal exchange in which interlocutors take turns to deliver their utterances and responses. This type of dialogue is a compositional form in the structuring of speech, but it ignores the semantic and expressive layers of the dialogue. Internal dialogue was of paramount interest to Bakhtin. For him, any utterance, whether spoken or written, that people use in communication with each other is internally dialogic because of its "dialogic orientations" (Bakhtin, 1986). Bakhtin (1986) considers utterance as the unit of dialogue and insisted that utterance is always directed toward the other utterance or toward the responsive utterance of the rejoinder in dialogue. It means that utterances are always addressed to someone. Further he introduced the concept of Addressivity. Addressivity, according to Bakhtin, is a necessary condition for an utterance, it denotes that each utterance must be addressed to someone and seek response from someone. Bakhtin draws a contrast between an utterance and other units of linguistic analysis such as words and sentences. He points out,

that words and sentences belong to nobody and are addressed to nobody. Moreover, they in themselves are devoid of any kind of relation to the other's utterance, the other's word. He writes:

"In point of fact, word is a two-sided act. It is determined equally by whose word it is and for whom it is meant. As word, it is precisely the product of the reciprocal relationship between speaker and listener, addresser and addressee."

He acknowledges the listener's active role in a dialogue. The listener's participation shapes the dialogue along with the speaker's contribution. The same can be said about the dialogue between the reader and the writer, and meaning construction from the text. This seems to be simply another way of saying that, through their perspective, outlook, and "conceptual horizons," the listener and the reader also have a voice in a dialogue, even when they are silent(Vice, 1997). Thus a communication is always a multi voiced process. Bakhtin (1984) described socio-historical aspect of utterance as follows:

"The life of the word is contained in its transfer from one mouth to another, from one context to another context, from one social collective to another, from one generation to another generation. In this process the word does not forget its own path and cannot completely free itself from the power of these concrete contexts into which it has entered."

By saying this Bakhtin emphasises that as speakers and writers we do not create our own words out of nothing. We use and reuse what others have brought to us, what has been already known and said—now shaping those words differently, reflecting on them, evaluating them, and sending them further in our communication with others. The socio-historical aspect of internal dialogue is characterised by the presence of the others' words in one's utterance, by the words that have "already [been] spoken" (Bakhtin, 1981). Thus Bakhtin understood utterance as the compositional unit of a dialogue formed by at least two voices, occupying a place in a socio-historical space and responding to a concrete social situation.

2. Dialogue: Voice and double-voiced discourse

Utterance, according to Bakhtin, becomes possible only through the use of voice, which he understood as both spoken and written channels of communication. He understood dialogic relationships within an utterance, as a collision of two voices. Internal dialogic relations between these voices result in double-voicing or double-voiced discourse. This is another way by which Bakhtin describes how through an utterance one's voice is linked to the social context of language. As James Wertsch (1991) observes, for Bakhtin, "there is no such thing as a voice that exists in total isolation from other voices. . . . . He insisted that meaning

can come into existence only when two or more voices come into contact. It is crucial to recognise that for Bakhtin voice was not merely an analytic concept but a moral category. In his discussion of Dostoevsky's novelistic poetics, he established a distinction between an authentic and fictive voice within consciousness. The authentic voice is the one that connects the individual with the human community. The fictive voice, on the contrary, obscures this connection. In order for the authentic voice to manifest itself, it needs to overcome the fictive voices that push it into a monologue and prevent it from unfolding its own dialogic nature (Bakhtin, 1984). Wertsch (1991) remarks that, according to Bakhtin, voice is a manifestation of the speaker's or the writer's overall perspective, worldview, conceptual horizon, intentions, and values.

3. Dialogue: Authoritative and internally-persuasive discourse

According to Bakhtin, one's own words are always partially the words of others. The word of the other can be authoritative, monologic, and admitting of no transformation by the interlocutor. In this case Bakhtin refers to it as authoritative discourse. When one reproduces this discourse, one speaks in inverted commas, as it were. Bakhtin calls such speech "quoted." Dialogue breaks down in such cases and communication does not happen. The same word, however, can become one's own,

Bakhtin argues. Thus the words of others can also be assimilated by the interlocutor and transformed into "indirect speech," as it were. In these cases, the words of others become partially one's own, and Bakhtin calls such speech "internally persuasive discourse." Bakhtin (1981) viewed the relation between authoritative and internally persuasive discourses as a dynamic process in which one gradually makes the other's words one's own: 'As a living socio-linguistic concrete thing, language, for the individual consciousness, lies on the borderline between oneself and the other. The word in language is half someone else's.' It becomes "one's own" only when the speaker populates it with his own intention, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention. Bakhtin views the word of internally persuasive discourse in aesthetic, creative terms. Its creativity and productiveness consist precisely in the fact that such a word awakens new and independent words, that it organises masses of our words from within, and does not remain in an isolated and static condition.

4. Dialogue: Value-laden nature of language

In Bakhtin's understanding of language, no utterance is value-neutral. Our entire discourse, according to Bakhtin, is saturated with ethical and aesthetic meanings. This is true of utterances within

political, artistic, and even scientific contexts. Bakhtin (1986) insists that utterances come alive only insofar as they are "true or false, beautiful or ugly, sincere or deceitful, frank, cynical, authoritative, etc." He is quite aware of the fact that such a view of language is not compatible with the traditional linguistic approach in which language is assumed to be value- neutral and to consist of abstract, schematic rules. By contrast Bakhtin (1986) maintains that an utterance is not defined in merely formal terms, but is possesses what he calls "contextual meaning". Furthermore, in Bakhtin's view dialogue in general has an intrinsic ethical dimension. When one engages in a dialogue with another person, Bakhtin believes, one inherently assumes responsibility for what one says to that person and for that person herself. The ethical and humanistic import of Bakhtin's theory has been noted by Holquist (1990):

"Each time we talk, we literally enact values in our speech through the process of scripting our place and that of our listener in a culturally specific social scenario" (p. 63).

5. Dialogue: Heteroglossia and polyphony

Another important dimension of Bakhtin's theory is the idea of multiple dialogues constituting an act of communication. As we engage in a dialogue we bring to it a multiplicity of dialogues among cultures, historical backgrounds, social groups, genders, age groups, various levels of literacy, etc. The multitude of voices in a dialogue creates interplay of discursive forces that Bakhtin (1981) called heteroglossia. Heteroglossia means that a single utterance may be shaped by a variety of simultaneously speaking voices that are not merged into a single voice, but "sing" their respective "melodies" independently within the context of the utterance. Holquist (1990) explains this concept:

"Heteroglossia is a way of conceiving the world as made up of a roiling mass of languages, each of which has its own distinct formal markers."

Further, Bakhtin (1981) spoke of the processes that shape any discourse in terms of the interaction of centripetal (or "official") and centrifugal (or "unofficial") forces. By the former, he meant the forces that aspire toward a norm, standard, and fixed order, whereas by the latter he meant those forces that resist systematic order, lead toward chaos, and result in constant change. Bakhtin (1981) understood language not as a homogeneous unity, but a simultaneous co-existence of many languages—those of social groups, "professional" and "generic," literary languages, languages of generations, etc. Bakhtin also proposes metaphor of polyphony to denote multi voiceness. He sees the desired outcome of dialogue not simply as unrestrained play of centrifugal tendencies, but diversity brought under unity. By polyphony Bakhtin means a multiplicity of

languages that is brought together under a single organising principle. He calls the resulting unity of several languages "the universum of mutually illuminating languages" (Bakhtin, 1981). The centrifugal forces of heteroglossia, must be balanced by the centripetal impulse of a single consciousness in order for polyphony to subsist.

KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING AND PEDAGOGY: A BAKHTINIAN PERSPECTIVE

Bakhtin (1991) argued that any discourse has two forces: centripetal force and centrifugal force. Centripetal force works in uniting, homologising, and monologising the discourse. Centrifugal force works in diversifying, diffusing, and dialogising the discourse. These two forces are representative of monologism and dialogism respectively. Monologic classroom driven by centripetal force of discourse has following dimensions: mono-topic, activity-based, unilaterally owned by the teacher (Sidorkin, 1999; Skidmore, 2000). Critics of conventional pedagogy argue that this type of discourse especially as prolonged and prioritised by the conventional teacher has several problems. It reduces inter subjectivity between the teacher and the students (and among the students) which makes the teacher's guidance blind without access to students' subjectivities and forces the students into passivity

(Gutierrez et al., 1995; Matusov and Smith, 2007; Sidorkin, 1999). Further, it positions some students with regard to class and content that they start feeling unwelcomed due to emerging negative positioning. Implicitly it conveys a message to them and their classmates that they are dumb and/or that academic subjects are not for them (Lampert, 2001). Sidorkin (1999) argues that this monologic type of discourse cannot be naturally sustained because it generates upheaval and rebellion in the students and which in response to provokes the physical and psychological violence of the teacher who is supported by the school institution to suppress it. This violence is often mediated by classroom rules, school policies, and discipline and classroom management techniques.

Traditional approach to learning, influenced by behaviourism, defines the main purpose of education as indoctrination in the universal truth. It is expected from students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills on the authority's demands. Constructivism recognises flaws of such a de contextualised and passive approach and offers an alternative perspective to learning, in which students construct the contextual truth. In this approach to education, students are active in developing their worldviews that collide together in development of unified truth that exists objectively and separately from the participants. From Bakhtinian

perspective both the approaches are monologic, although each in its own different way (Skidmore,2000; Matusov,2009). The first approach dismisses the students' worldviews and imposes ideas from outside. The imposed ideas are rooted in the authority of imposition itself. Thus learning becomes only affirmation or rejection of ideas of others. The constructivist approach is also monologic although it takes into consideration of worldviews of the students. It sees the learning as transformation of the students' worldviews, skills, knowledge, and attitudes into the correct and powerful ones through a serious of guided discoveries that the students will do. This approach essentially manipulates the students into the purely-epistemological truth of the united consciousness. The students' worldviews are seen as erroneous misconceptions that have to be corrected. People's ideas are placed on the scale of their approximation to the truth to be taught through guided discoveries and construction. Thus, the relationship between ideas does not know truly dialogic relations (Matusov, 2009). According to Bakhtinian perspective teaching-learning is a process of engaging students in collective search for their own truth and its testing with others (Roth, 2013). The ontological truths of the participants (their worldviews, knowledge, skills, attitudes), have to be "informed" by dialogue with ontological truths of others. People

do not simply expose their equal truths but address, response, take responsibility, evaluate, and judge each other truths. Individual's idea is neither divorced from a person, like in the transmission approach not rooted in the individual, as in the constructivist approach. Bakhtin express this view as follows:

"The word in language is half someone else's. it become one's 'own' only when the speaker populates it with his own intentions, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adopting it to his own semantic and expressive intention..."

It is evident knowledge is always shaped by a dialogue and in dialogue. To teach means to broaden student's participation in dialogue. In Bakhtinian perspective consciousnesses of the teacher and the students are taken with equal seriousness. It refutes the notion of stable knowledge and affirms that there is no such thing which can be considered as 'final knowledge'. Bakhtin writes:

"Truth is not born nor is it to be found inside the head of an individual person, it is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction."

According to Bakhtinian perspective since learning is the transformation of a student's meaning, it is unpredictable, undetermined, and cannot be designed or controlled by the teacher (Wenger, 1998). It is always discursive, that is, the process and product of a new meaning always

exists among diverse, real or virtual, consciousnesses. It is mediated by the students' questions (explicit or tacit). Thus both curriculum and instruction is genuine information-seeking questions that both the teacher and the students ask of each other.

Unlike the instrumental dialogue, an ontological view of dialogue proposed by Bakhtin envisions education as a dialogic process. It does not assume the 'pedagogy should be dialogic' rather it considers that pedagogy is always dialogic. Further it also highlights that whatever teachers and students do (or not do) whether in their classrooms or beyond it, they are locked in dialogic relations. The dialogic pedagogy based on Bakhtin's idea envisions education as process leading individual to Ideological becoming (Freedman and Ball, 2004) .The term 'ideology' has different connotations here than its popular English meaning. In Russian it implies a set of ideas and their contexts rather than inflexible ideas imposed through the use of propaganda and other coercive mechanisms (Matusov, 2007). Therefore 'Ideological becoming' is the development of ideological subjectivity within the ideological environment in which individual lives. Greenleaf and MIRA-Lisa katz (2004) explains it ideological becoming of students as a transformation of their discourse from authoritative to internally persuasive. Charles Baserman (2004) explains it in terms of pedagogy and insists that pedagogy has to aim at fostering a powerful sense of

authority, agency and texts within the students' internally persuasive discourse around academic subjects. For fostering such attributes a strong discursive community is prerequisite (Matusov, 2007). In a Bakhtinian classroom, pedagogy will open the pathway for ideological becoming. Bakhtin (1991) observes that authority carries an aura that is monologic, absolute, and unquestionable. Authority is fused with demands for allegiance. Therefore dialogic pedagogy also aims at challenging authority. However, as Gary Morson (2004,) suggests, engaging authority in dialogue, asking a question of the unquestionable, challenges the infallibility of authority. Through this dialogic challenge, authority "ceases to be fully authoritative". Thus once the truth of authority is dialogically tested, it becomes forever testable. Enacting a dialogic pedagogy in classroom develops an orientation among students toward justice, suspicions of hegemony and taken-for-granted societal assumption. Cultivating this dialogic capacity prepares students for democratic life where the search for the common good is forged through community, not through authority. As Bakhtin (1984) suggests, "truth is not born nor is it to be found inside the head of an individual person, it is born between people collectively searching for the truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction." Likewise, our classrooms should reflect this ideal

by preparing students to improve on society and recognise the unrealised potential of democracy shrouded by authority and hegemony. Bakhtin's dialogic pedagogy will help students to see and develop their own perspective that is not guided by the centripetal forces. This attempt will be a move to subvert the traditional approach to teaching-learning and challenge to the authority imbued in its various forms. Another element of a Bakhtinian classroom is the development of voice. Teacher and students constructs an environment that welcome diversity through dialogue. Teacher should ask students to position themselves in relation to others—such as the opinions of other classmates, the regime of authority speaking through schooling norms. Through this continual positioning and repositioning through the exchange of ideas, students will develop a voice. In absence of multivoices classroom become a place which resigns the individuality, does not enable any individual to exercise his/her capacity to author his/her self. Unfortunately, in many classrooms, the monologic presentation of content muzzles the voice of students. Avoiding contention and controversy in the classroom neither give students an opportunity to voice an opinion, nor provided them with the chance to be transformed by the perspectives of others. Although the consequences of these actions may not be immediately visible in the classroom, it will contribute in developing critical literacy among them.

Thus this paper is an important lead to reinstate that a dialogic classroom will have a combination of multiple voices (essential condition for ontological dialogue) and its orchestrating (role of the teacher) by the teacher creates a polyphonic environment (classroom discourse)-where every voice is heard (agency of teacher and learners), where melodies (content of learning) are not-predetermined and always surprising for all the voices. Such classrooms can be envisioned keeping the Bakhtinian perspective at the core of the argument.

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Spatial Factors of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Development in Manipur

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Abstract

The present study is an attempt of analytical research on inclusive development and social exclusion of tribal in North-East India with special reference to the state of Manipur. It situates deprivation and exclusion of tribal in both regional and national context. The paper emphasises on the aspects of provisioning and accessibility of tribal communities to different facets of development programmes. Recognising the multiple dimensions of deprivation and vulnerability of the minority groups in contemporary India, this research focuses on the region-specific constraints impeding the process of inclusive growth and development in order to understand the dynamics of exclusive inclusion of the minority tribal communities in Manipur partly as a consequence of spatial disadvantage.

INTRODUCTION

Research on the challenges of inclusive development in contemporary India is important because so little has been done so far in the context of North-East Region (NER), though many scholars have already attempted to address the issue in some other contexts. Inclusive development particularly holds relevance in NER because, for long, the region has witnessed a series of separatist and identity movements partly as a result of prolonged neglect which have perpetuated the process of exclusion in the region. Manipur is a typical example of such manifestations of discontent and unrest in its tribal

areas emanating from social exclusion and systematic exploitation. And the impact of the Tribal Sub-Plan (TSP) is far from satisfactory as it failed to implement in larger interest of the tribal communities given the existing socio-economic and political conditions of the state.

It is evident from literature that the North-Eastern states are lagging behind other parts of the country mainly on account of their peripheral locations, along with large-scale intra-regional, socio-cultural and natural diversities. Thus, it is ironic that these have failed to find adequate importance in the by and large unitary model of development that has been followed by India since Independence under various plans. Yet, apart from that, higher concentration of tribal population in the region has also contributed in perpetuating the process of social exclusion in the region.

In this background, the main objective of the present study focuses on identifying the region-specific constraints impeding the inclusive development process and also map out the spatial character of the overall regional development, which would help one comprehend the factors contributing to process of exclusion and deprivation in a better manner. Furthermore, despite tall talk of an integrated approach in tribal development post independence, socio-economic conditions of the tribal communities have not made any significant headway. On the

contrary, the benefits of economic growth have been seriously affected by adverse redistribution, and in consequence such development attempts have given way to social and economic inequality, further widening the already existing tribal - non tribal gap, and also between the advantaged and disadvantaged among tribal's, which also leads to internal dissension and subsequently impacting the whole development discourse. Here in the paper, the terms 'tribal' and 'Scheduled Tribes' are interchangeably used referring to the same category of people.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of inclusiveness/ inclusion or exclusion has gained more prominence in the country in recent past and it certainly holds relevance in tribal society as well, as many studies already revealed that a sizeable tribal population has not been 'included' in and is, therefore, not benefited from growth process. One may also infer from the following section that social and physical exclusions are the major causes of the continued economic backwardness, insurgency and social tension in the North-East region.

Exclusion is defined as the state or the process of being excluded from the socialisation processes in general and development in particular. There are different processes working dynamically to cause social exclusion. It is understood from the literature that the tribals are marginalised,

neglected and excluded from the development process in the country.

The concept of 'social exclusion' has gained importance in recent years among the intellectuals, social scientists, politicians, policy makers, writers, activists and the public at large. The term has become "so evocative, ambiguous, multi-dimensional and elastic that it can be defined in many different ways" (Silver, 1994). There is no universal definition of 'social exclusion' which is "indicative of the fact that the process of 'social exclusion' is dynamic social reality" (Butola, 2010). Hence, the concept of social exclusion can cover a wide range of dimensions – social, political, cultural, and economic (Sen, 2000; Percy-Smith, 2000; Silver, 1995). The definition of the term differs from person to person and from country to country. Its usage mainly depends on the cultural context but its treatment relies on the paradigm that informs it. This sort of flexibility enables it to be employed in different ways.

The European Union Foundation defines social exclusion "as a process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live" (Bombongan, 2008).

The term 'social exclusion' was originally coined by Rene Lenoir, the then Secretaries d'Etat a l' Action Social in the Gaullist Chirac government, who published Les Exclus: Un Francais sur dix, in 1974. He estimated that the "excluded" made up one-tenth of the French population constituting: mentally and physically handicapped, suicidal people, aged invalids, abused children, substance abusers, delinquents, single parents, multi-problem households, marginal, asocial persons, and other social "misfits" (Silver, 1994). They represented the socially disadvantaged groups, not protected by social insurance initiated by the French government. However, it is noteworthy that social exclusion in this context was not equated with poverty. It rather referred to a process of social disintegration, in the sense of the rupture of a social bond between the individual and society (Gore, 1995). Some argue that it was not about the socio-economic arrangement in society but about certain characteristics and behaviour possessed by certain "marginal" groups making them "maladjusted" to French society (Bombongan, 2008).

Though the French meaning of the term was not properly understood by many yet the concept gained popularity in other countries as well, particularly in academic and policy decisions. For instance, the European Union (EU) was a significant player in the dissemination of the concept. Marked significance was the altering of terminology from 'poverty' to 'social exclusion' in the EU anti-poverty programmes. Social exclusion also became central to British policies and debates which led to the evolution of inter-departmental Social Exclusion Unit under the New Labour

government in 1997. Gradually, the concept became well-known worldwide, both in developed and developing countries alike, as Munck (2005) also considers social exclusion as a powerful and essential indicator to capture the various experiences of polarisation, segregation between the rich and the poor, and the growing inequality between developing and developed countries.

Among the other persons who have contributed in theorizing the concept of social exclusion, Hilary Silver is a prominent one. She propounded three paradigms related to social exclusion, which are called as solidarity, specialisation and monopoly paradigms – solidarity (exclusion as a resultant of the breakdown of social bond between the individual and society), specialisation (referring to exclusion resulting from specialisation of tasks, social differentiation and division of labour) and monopoly (implies the existence of hierarchical power relations in social order) (Silver 1995; Haan 1999; Bombongan 2008).

Besides, Levitas (1998) also identified three contrasting views that have had an impact on government policy namely, distributive, social integration and moralistic view. Distributive perspective regards low income as the main cause of exclusion and the benefit transfer as the only solution, whereas social integration emphasises the problem of unemployment as the main hurdle in the process inclusion. On the other hand, moralistic view focuses on cultural factor which lays emphasis on greater participation.

Bombongan (2008) also provides a general overview of the concept of social exclusion. He reconstructs the specific historical conditions in which the concept gained importance. Percy-Smith (2000) discusses a facet of social exclusion which can be termed 'political exclusion'. In her opinion, this aspect of exclusion is the disempowerment of socially excluded groups and individuals which results in their claims to have their social and economic needs not being voiced, not being heard or not being acted upon.

Butola (2011) attempts to analyse some of the antinomies of social exclusion at various levels and critically evaluates the relevance and justification of the concept at conceptual and level of social practice. He suggests that it should be a conceptual tool for changing the world and emerge as an important concept of social analysis. Haan (1998) and Sen (2000) discuss the concept of social exclusion and its application. Sen tries to critically examine the idea of social exclusion, particularly in the context of deprivation and poverty. He places social exclusion within the broader perspective of poverty as capability deprivation. Social exclusion can, thus, be constitutively a part of capability deprivation as well as instrumentally a cause of diverse capability failures.

Striding for inclusion, Suryanarayana (2008) makes an

attempt to define the concept of inclusive growth and aims to develop measures of inclusion. He proposes to define inclusion/exclusion for an outcome scenario on broad-based growth from three different perspectives, viz. production, income and consumption distribution. By 'inclusive growth', he states that the growth process is such that it has benefited even those sections that are deprived of both physical and human asset endowments and hence, generally belong to the bottom rungs of income distribution and are incapable of participating/ benefiting from the growth process. Thus, the definition of the concept presupposes the identification of the set of deprived that cannot and hence, does not i) participate effectively in the production process, ii) benefit from it in terms of income generated; and iii) experience welfare improvements as measured by consumption. He finds out that the growth process in the country bypassed the majority and was not inclusive in the past and thus created a void between rich and poor, rural and urban.

Likewise, Dev (2008) also argues for more inclusive growth in India for reduction in deprivation and regional disparities and for sustainable economic growth. He treats 'inclusive growth' as synonymous with 'equitable development'. Inclusive development is nothing but the process of including all sections of society in development process in a just and fair manner. On the other hand, Thorat and Kumar (2009) bring together original documents, memorandums and writings of B.R. Ambedkar to highlight his contribution to the development of exclusion and inclusive policies in the country. A comprehensive introduction on both the historical context and the present controversy regarding reservation is discussed in their book.

Thus from the brief literature review, one can understand the significance and relevance of inclusive development in India, especially in the context of North-East states as the region is witnessing a longstanding problem of ethnic mobilisation and marginalisation. In this regard, Butola (2002) rightly points out in his study that in the development discourses in social science research in NER, the British imperialism continues to prevail in every discourse and is all done in the name of development. Singh (2005) puts the blame on coordination failure for divergent development gap specifically between the hills and the valley.

MARGINALISATION AND ETHNIC MOBILISATION

The whole process of ethnic mobilisation, which began in the region during colonial time, got intensified with the process of state building which strengthened the scope for ethnic identity movement. As a consequence, ethnic tension has become more prominent today than ever before; one knows that once

fuelled, clashes between ethnic groups or with the state forces culminate in turbulent environment undermining development aspirations of the people.

Over and above that, in order to understand the issue of insurgency in North-East India it is necessary to trace its root cause and analyse the tale of the rebel groups. Unfortunately, NER is home to over 50 ethnic rebel groups, out of which a few are demanding total secession from Indian union, some striving for ethnic identities and homelands and some regulating the insurgency as an industry, with no distinct political ideologies, but just for making quick money. This way, the struggling ethnicities of the region continued to challenge the nation building process despite concerted efforts made by successive Indian governments for several decades to bring solution to it, rather there is every possibility that their approach has further aggravated the situation or crisis.

The role of ethnic assertion and associated insurgency problem on development discourse in Manipur is deep and massive. More holistically, ethnicity has far reaching implications not only on social and economic aspects, but also in dimensions of urbanisation, household amenities, infrastructural facilities, human resource development, etc. Many studies reveal a large-scale intra-regional disparity in the level of development which is compounded by the problem of insurgency, inefficient governance, political ill-will, ethnic

tensions and other security issues. Furthermore, in the absence of safe environment that is conducive for development activities coupled with well-equipped infrastructure and strong resource base, including human capital, the scope for significant progress in development level in the region is unlikely to take place in near future.

Many studies on ethnic group mobilisation conclude that under a dominant ethnic group, other ethnic minorities become minorities without any claim in the national initiatives unless they could assert themselves politically. (Behera and Sahu) Justifying on this statement, one is convinced that achieving an equitable development in a pluralistic society like India is a daunting task. Experiences also suggest that the achievement of equality has been a cumbersome and slow process. One of the main factors affecting this drawback may be attributed to lack of an egalitarian sensibility in social order coupled with poor sense of social justice. Government schemes to help the poor also failed. This sums up that there are enormous challenges that come in the way of inclusive development in India.

ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

It is evident from the preceding discussion that inclusive development is a complex theme of research. Very few scholars have addressed this theme particularly on the tribals of

North-East India. Therefore, in this background an attempt has been made to fill the missing link and so to make it objective it was necessary to follow a sound research methodology. The first and most important part of it was to select the right indicators.

Yet, there is no universal standard to measure inclusive growth or inclusive development so far. Perhaps, one of the best known measures of development is the Human Development Index (HDI) which embodies three indicators which is not based solely on income but considers other dimensions of well-being as well. Yet, the question arises as how well the HDI captures the inclusive development and social exclusion. The index combines income/living standard (measured by per capita income), education (measured by literacy rate), and health (measured by life expectancy)[1].
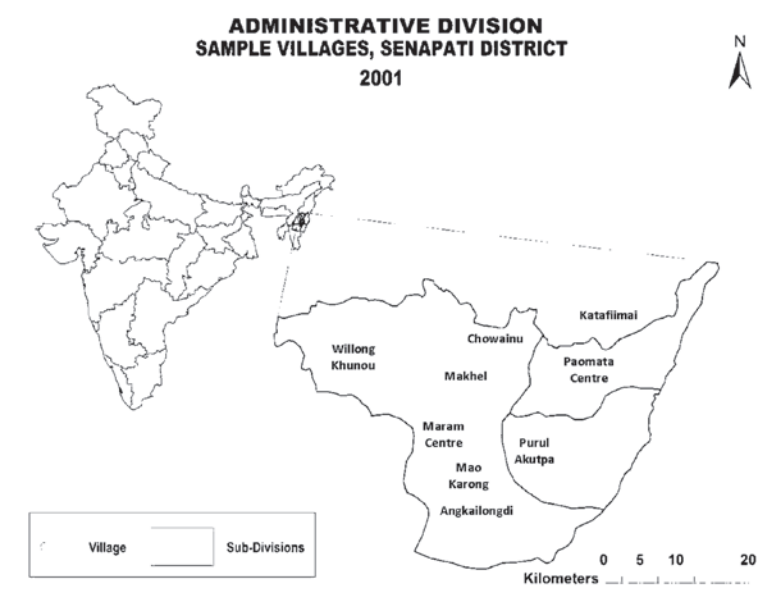
Thus, consistent with the imperative of enforcing inclusiveness as the main thrust in development domain, and since there is no definite research method to measure inclusive development and social exclusion, attempts have been made to measure inclusive development in terms of different processes of inclusion/exclusion indicators– social, economic, political and infrastructure. Thus, a major limitation lies in methodological difficulties while capturing the nature of development.

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[1] 2010 Human Development Report, UNDP.

RESEARCH METHOD

Both qualitative and quantitative methods have been adopted for the present study with the research hypothesis "geographical areas of relative isolation will exhibit lower level of development and hence higher degree of social exclusion compared to areas with better accessibility". Since there is no standard formula agreed upon to measure inclusive growth or inclusive development, the idea of a social responsibility function was used while deciding on the indicators and variables. Considering the specification of the region and the importance of community bond over family and village, the community has been selected as the unit of study. In total, nine villages from three sub-divisions of Senapati district in Manipur have been taken as samples namely, Mao-Maram, Paomata and Purul wherein four tribal groups -- Mao, Maram, Paomai and Thangal -- are predominant. The selected sample villages are given as under (also shown in Map 1):

- Three Poumai Naga villages: Paomata Centre, Katafiimai, and Purul Akutpa;
- Three Mao villages: Chowainu, Makhel and Mao Karong;
- Two Maram villages: Maram Centre and Willong Khunou; and
- One Thangal village: Angkailongdi has been selected for the present study.

Map 1

Primary data collection method has been used to gather information for the research purpose through the medium of interview, questionnaire and group discussion.

A combination of two sampling designs has been used for selection of village samples, namely, simple random sampling (without replacement) and cluster sampling. In simple random sampling without replacement, the unit / sample selected at each draw is not returned to the original population so that the size of the universe/population from which the samples are drawn changes at every draw.

The entire population of 116 villages was stratified into different clusters in order to choose the village samples mainly based on two criteria as given under and also taking into consideration that the villages had to be selected keeping in mind the tribes inhabiting across the region:

a) *area of relative isolation:* those villages which are located in places devoid of easy accessibility such as important administrative centres, main market and highways), and

b) *villages with easy accessibility:* those villages in spatial proximity with the National Highways, State Highways, District/ Sub-Divisional Headquarters.

Based on these criteria, data has been collected from 40 respondents each from village sample, again following the random sampling in selection of household samples. Different sample villages have been

selected corresponding with the four tribes under consideration. Accordingly, three villages each of Poumai Naga and Mao (three from areas of relative isolation and other three from areas of better accessibility meaning the villages are located closer to important centres which could be District/Sub-division headquarters or National/State Highways); two villages of Maram tribe (one from remote area and the other one from near the National Highway); and since Thangal tribe has a very small population and also they are all located somewhat close to areas of better accessibility only one village has been selected for the study.

Information gathered on various aspects of well-being for all of the village samples provides detailed information on demographic and economic characteristics; health status and education of family members; awareness of and participation in development programmes; housing, water, and sanitation conditions of families; availability of credit to finance poor family; family income and expenditures, etc. Basically the approach towards the study of inclusive development in present research is based on development programmes and its implementation. Henceforth, attempt has been made to assess whether the opportunities or benefits of growth and development are either adequate and whether it reaches the target group or not. This exercise was necessitated by the fact that people's participation forms

an important feature of inclusive development.

Social Exclusion and Inclusive Development Indicators

The inclusive development indicators may be broadly organised as under:
  (i) Social
 (ii) Economic
(iii) Political
(iv) Infrastructure

The choice of indicators is made in consistent with the framework of social exclusion and inclusive development discussed in previous section. Data on development indicators are obtained by comprehensive survey where a sample of the population have been interviewed about their access to health care, education, employment and working conditions, economic resources and material standard of living, housing, safety and security, social relations, political resources, infrastructure, etc.

Method of Data Analysis

Findings on level of development were drawn using percentage and represented in the form of tables and dot maps. Besides, methods of composite index and index of remoteness have been employed to map out spatial character of regional development. Thus, the performance of each indicator under the four broad aspects of inclusive development were arranged in a descending order and final score was calculated for each aspect i.e., economic, social, political and infrastructure. To obtain nature

of overall inclusive development the final score of each aspect was added and hence the final z score of overall development aspects of the four important tribal communities was calculated.

(a) Composite index

This method helps in capturing the multi-dimensional aspects in a single dimension; that is, it helps capture the overall regional development. It is interpreted as higher the index, higher is the level of development and vice-versa. To make the indicators comparable with each other, the variables have been standardised by subtracting the mean of every indicator and divided by their respective standard deviation. It is calculated using the following formula:

$$ci = \frac{X - \overline{X}}{SD}$$

where ci is the composite index, x is the unit of observation, $\overline{x}$ is the mean of each variable and SD is the standard deviation.

Thus, the standardised data is added to find out the aggregate development factor score.

(b) Index of remoteness

The main focus of Index of remoteness is to define remoteness in terms of socio-economic parameters influencing the study area. It is basically defined in terms of physical distance separating the base spatial unit from nodes of activity and how distance and ethnic boundaries restrict opportunities for interaction.

INDICATORS OF REMOTENESS

The physiographic and other differences between the hills and plains of Manipur are not only articulated in socio-cultural and politico-economic difference but these also create differences in the nature of spatial interaction which in turn are important for inclusive development. To measure levels of spatial interaction an Index of Remoteness has been used. It is based on the following main features:
  (i) approximate road mileage from the sample village to District HQ (in kilometres)
 (ii) approximate mileage with kutcha road from District HQ to the sample village (in kilometres)
(iii) number of ethnic /linguistic boundaries used to reach the nearest main market
(iv) number of ethnic/linguistic boundaries used to reach the state capital
 (v) number of dialects used between the nearest main market and the sample village
(vi) number of dialects used between the state capital and the sample village

The remoteness has gained importance in explaining the spatial dimension of development as it is defined in terms of physical distance separating the sample villages from nodes of activity and how distance and ethnic/linguistic boundaries restrict opportunities for spatial interaction. In highly accessible areas, there is relatively unrestricted accessibility

to a wide range of goods and services and hence greater opportunities for spatial interaction; whereas in very remote areas, there is very little accessibility of goods, services and opportunities for interaction and hence more subjected to exclusion.

(c) Correlation

Measurement of the degree and direction of correlation between variables is important as it helps particularly the geographers in explaining the variations in various spatial phenomena, and therefore the calculation is carried out in the following manner:[2]

Measurement of Correlation (formula) as suggested by Karl Pearson is given as:

$$r = \frac{\sum XY - \dfrac{\sum X \sum Y}{N}}{\sqrt{\sum x^2 \dfrac{(\sum x)^2}{N}} \sqrt{\sum Y^2 \dfrac{(\sum Y)^2}{N}}}$$

where r is the correlation coefficient between two variables X and Y, and N is the number of observations.

OVERALL DEVELOPMENT AND SPATIAL FACTOR

As previously discussed, development is multi-dimensional in nature. It is the outcome of several processes which may be of social, economic, political, and infrastructure; each of these aspects plays its own role in determining the development level of the region. Therefore, the complexities of interaction among these factors cannot be probed adequately without looking at them in a comprehensive multi-dimensional framework. Thus, for capturing the overall regional development, final composite index has been calculated to determine the overall development level of the sample villages.

Table 1 and Map 2 show a wide spatial variation in overall development composite index values. Angkailongdi village situated close to the well connected centre has obtained the highest composite index scoring 24.6 value. Makhel and Mao Karong villages are at the second and third positions respectively with 9.89 and 7.26 composite index values. These villages enjoy the advantage of linkages whereby it attracts most of the development opportunities and thus helped in acquiring some of the modern socio-economic and infrastructural amenities. However, Maram Centre, which supposedly figure in the same league accounts for relatively low overall development index as the village seems to have weak inter and intra-regional linkages with respect to socio-economic development parameters. The other villages showing relatively developed overall development level include Paomata Centre and Chowainu and the composite index value for these villages are 3.30 and 2.00 respectively. Better accessibility and proximity to service centres

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[2]Mahmood, Aslam. 1998. Statistical Methods in Geographical Studies. Rajesh Publications, New Delhi. pp. 48-53

seem to have led to acquiring the relatively better development index. Paomata centre is situated near the sub-divisional headquarter and located close to the state highways but the road condition is deplorable which adversely affects the smooth flow of traffic and the overall spatial interaction.

Level of overall development is lowest in Katafiimai village scoring as low as -37.14 value of the composite index. Other villages that fall in the lowest rung are Maram Centre and Purul Akutpa with composite index values of -2.86 and -4.50 respectively. Remoteness compounded by low literacy rate and poor transport connectivity is mainly responsible for the low development level at Katafiimai village. On the other hand, relative inaccessibility and weak inter and intra-linkages have contributed to low level of overall development in Purul Akutpa village.

Conclusions can be drawn from the statistical analysis of the correlation coefficient between
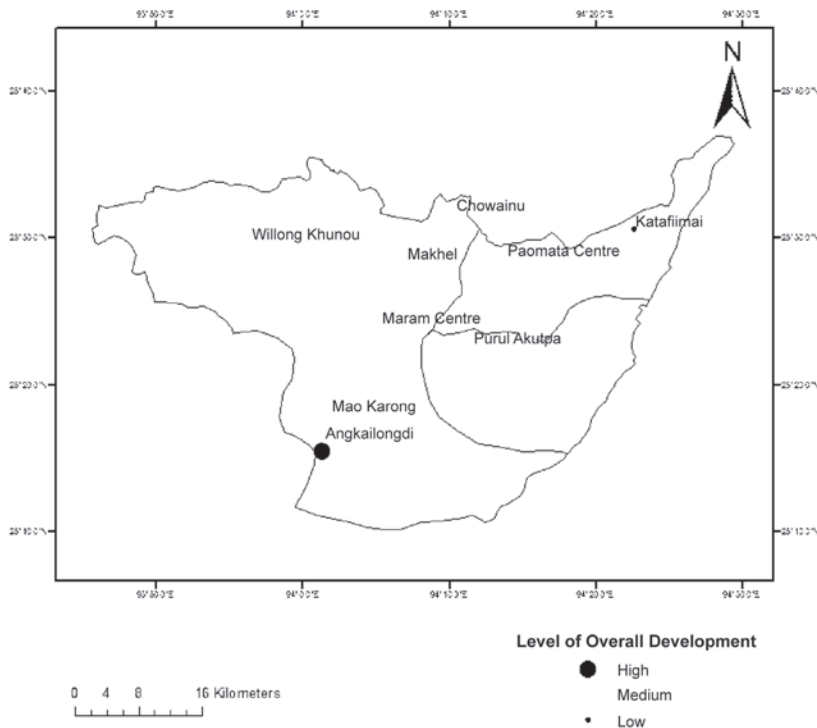
Map 2

Table 1

Correlation Coefficient and t value – Overall Development Indicator and Remoteness Index

	Correlation value of RI and OCI	Calculated t value	Tabulated t (0.05, 7d.f.)*	Result
Result	-0.691	2.531	2.364	Significant Rejects the null hypothesis

where, RI = remoteness index, OCI = Overall development composite index
* Tabulated value with 7 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance is 2.364

the remoteness index and overall development composite index that the two variables are negatively correlated at the value of -0.691. Table 1 shows that the calculated t value is greater than the corresponding tabulated value, meaning thereby that the correlation coefficient is significant. The tabulated value of correlation coefficient at 5% significance with 7 degree of freedom is 2.364 and is lesser than the calculated t value of 2.531. Meaning, there is significant correlation between remoteness index and overall development composite index at 0.05 level (2-tailed) and thus, it rejects the null hypothesis.

The statistical explanation of these t values says that the correlation between the overall regional development composite index and remoteness index is statistically significant. It implies that the unequal spatial interaction processes are related with regional inequality and patterns of regional growth. It is largely due to the components included in the indices of development parameters that these aspects have led to a reduction in territorial disparities, but have not led

to greater polarisation. More remote areas benefit less from growth in terms of its poverty alleviation programmes leading to a divergence in poverty rates across the region.

However, when one looks closely at development parameters individually inferences can be made that not all the villages or households situated in areas of relative isolation exhibited a low level of development in social, economic and political indicators and hence not subjected to greater exclusionary process. And, not all those households or villages situated in areas with better accessibility and spatial proximity to important service centres have always demonstrated a higher level of development in all indicators. Thus, these findings of individual development parameters nullify the hypothesis that "the villages situated in areas of relative isolation will exhibit lower level of development and hence higher degree of exclusion compared to areas with better accessibility. Nonetheless, when taken for overall development composite index, the hypothesis is validated to a considerable extent.

Besides, it is found that there is also weak inter and intra-linkages, limiting the developmental opportunities, for instance inter and intra-tribal disparity in the level of development indicators. This obviously hampers the process of inclusive development as it results in tribal rivalry pertaining to power relation. Thus, it can be said that inter-tribe disparity in the level of development will impede inclusive development. In addition, villages with low literacy rate have predominance of traditional activities and very less proportion of the household population is into market-oriented activities, other than just the traditional activities that is, agriculture. Thus, it is understood that literacy rate also plays a determining role in achieving inclusive growth and development coupled with various support from the state and its agencies.

EDUCATION: INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION DIMENSION

As educational development is a stepping-stone to economic and social development, and the most effective instrument for empowering the marginalised like the tribal, efforts have been made by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs to improve their educational status exclusively by carrying out various development tasks by formulating different Schemes. Post-Matric Scholarship (PMS), Book Bank, Scheme for Construction of Hostels for ST Girls and Boys, Rajiv Gandhi National fellowship and Education among ST girls in Low Literacy Districts etc., are some of the government programmes formulated for promoting education among STs. Nonetheless, these schemes fall short of expectation. From the survey it is found that people are not sensitised about the education schemes and hence ignorant about it. Except for the Post-Matric Scholarship (PMS), both students and parents are not aware of the other programmes which are aimed at enhancing their social mobility.

Even though tribal education was given utmost importance during the plan periods, the planners have failed to even recognise the basic need of the tribal people, for instance, in providing hostel facilities for Scheduled tribe students, both boys and girls. Till recent times, it is for this simple reason that some ST students drop out of schools for lack of adequate accommodation in view of their poor economic conditions. It was only in 2010 that the proposal for setting up hostels for ST boys and girls in the tribal areas of Manipur has been accepted in the hope that no students drop out on grounds of inadequate accommodation.

It is also noticed from the survey that people are increasingly concerned about quality education and so the children are sent to unaided private schools, which is presumably higher in quality, even at the cost of paying higher school fees. So much so that the parents squeeze in their budget

and make sure that their children are enrolled in private schools in their own village or in the neighbourhoods.

It is noteworthy that tracking on the path of inclusive development, Manipur state government in compliance with the RTE Act has taken up various activities during the past years. As part of context specific interventions pictorial charts and textbooks have been introduced in various tribal dialects spoken in hill districts of Senapati, Tamenglong, Ukhrul, Churachandpur and Chandel, and efforts are on for inclusion of all tribal dialects in the school curriculum. The recent development has been the recognition and introduction of three tribal dialects of Poumai, Gangte and Liangmai in school syllabus up to Class VIII. It is reported that text books published by Poumai Literature Committee in 'Poula' dialect (Poumai Naga dialect) is being taught in schools on voluntary basis since a decade back. Mao dialect textbooks have been introduced up to matriculation. Still, the tribal dialects of Seme, Maram, Inpui, Maring, Anal, Chiru, Kharam, Thangal and many others are yet to be brought within the folds of inclusive education in terms of mother tongue. It is significant in the context of Manipur because inclusion of tribal dialects in the school curriculum can act as a unifying force of the people wherein the ethnic mobilisation is active.[3] It is also in this regard that tribal dialect textbooks are introduced not only in government and aided schools but are instituted even for private unaided schools.

Thus from the present analysis, it is understood that greater spatial interaction plays a significant role in spreading awareness among the hill tribes in response to the development benefits. Tribes near the district headquarter have higher level of awareness as compared to tribes located far from it. Thus, taking advantage of linkages, these villages have attracted most of the developmental opportunities including educational infrastructure. Consequently, most of the villages situated in the remote parts remain unaffected by modern developmental influences due to poor spatial interaction. On end note, it can be said that the interaction processes play a determining role in inclusive growth and thus has to be regarded as the basic tenet of development so as to fulfill the objective of inclusive development.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Given that tribal areas lag behind in the development achievements, and that infrastructure is causally linked to improvements in different development parameters, investment in rural infrastructure also holds the key to inclusive development,

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[3]Ragongning Gangmei. May 20, 2013, Chairman of Council of Tribal Language and Literature Societies, Manipur (CTLLSM), doi: http://e-pao.net/GP.asp?src=29..310513.may13.

not only in Manipur but the North East region as a whole. Thus, from this instance, it can be illustrated that the districts which are situated in remote areas suffers more from neglect in development pursuits, in their respective states. On account of these problems also, the frontiers witness a greater ethnic mobilisation, culminating in militarisation.

Furthermore, taking cognizance of development disparity, North-East is the only region in India which has a ministry, called Ministry of Development of North Eastern Region (MDNER), exclusively meant for them that manages the matters relating to the planning, execution and monitoring of development schemes and projects in NER including Sikkim, with a vision to accelerate the pace of socio-economic development to bring at par with the mainstream. Yet, even after many years of economic planning in the country, primary sector continues to dominate the economy of the people, characterised by stagnant economic growth. Industrial sector remains stagnant and the tertiary sector is dominated by government administrative services, and the trade and commerce are mostly in the hands of non-local traders resulting in capital outflow from the region, while the educated unemployed population keeps rising at an alarming rate as the region lacks adequate job avenues to absorb them. Therefore, despite a strong natural resource base, its potentials and generous funding allocations from

the centre, the region still records low level of regional development, while at the same time broadening avenues for political dialogue.

As with regard to school education, the problems faced by children in the tribal areas of the state are often different from that of children belonging to Scheduled Castes. Thus, in conformity with the provisions of RTE Act, there is a need for SSA to provide context specific intervention in the form of hostels, incentives or a special facility as required especially for those in peripheral locations. Some of the suggested interventions, which can be considered, are preparing textbooks in mother tongue for tribal children at the primary education where they do not understand other languages. Besides, efforts can be made to bridge language barriers for non-tribal teachers by teaching them the basics of tribal dialect, and impart special training for them to encourage them to work in tribal areas.

Thus, in order to bridge the development gap there is a need to create a viable environment for private investment, by removing infrastructural bottlenecks and by providing basic minimum services, and by removing impediments to lasting peace and security in the region, as the ethnic identity movement and social unrest has for long been held responsible for impediments of progress in the region. The conclusion is obvious here because economic growth

can be obtained and sustained in a sustainable manner only if the development discourse becomes inclusive and subsequently achieve inclusive development of the needy and the marginalised.

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English Language Education Situation in India

Ramanujam Meganathan*

Abstract

This paper attempts to present the current state of English language education in schools in India through a reflection of policies and practices. Different types of schools in the different school systems, typologies of teaching situations are presented with illustrations and the diverse nature of curriculum, syllabus and materials development and the quality issues related to it. It goes on to suggest measures to improve the quality of English language education in schools.

English Language Education Today

English language teaching in India is a complex and diverse phenomenon in terms of resources for teaching-learning of the language, the teacher, pedagogical practices and the demand for the language. It is an ever-expanding part of almost every system and stage of education in India (Tickoo, 2004). Out of 35 states and Union Territories, 26 have introduced English as a language from class 1, of which 12.98% are primary schools, 18.25% are upper primary schools and 25.84% are schools at the secondary level (NCERT, 2007). A network of secondary schools numbering more than 1.1 lakh, some 11,000 colleges, universities (numbering 221 apart from 40 odd deemed universities) and other institutions of higher learning and research whose numbers and reach keep growing, offer instruction in and through this language at various levels and under different arrangements. The following table shows the increase in the use of English as a medium of instruction at the school level.

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Table 1

English as a medium of instruction in Indian schools

	Primary		Upper Primary		Secondary	
	1993	**2002**	**1993**	**2002**	**1993**	**2002**
English as medium in %	4.99	12.98	15.91	18.25	18.37	25.84

Source: Seventh All India School Education Survey- 2002 (NCERT, 2007)

The near-total achievement of universalisation of elementary education has intensified pressure on secondary and higher secondary education in the country today. This is the stage when the English language attains greater importance as it serves as an additional instrument for undertaking higher education because 90% of higher education is through the medium of English.

English language education is marked by diversity and disparity in terms of provision and resources for teaching of English as a second language as well as a medium of instruction in school education. There are varieties of school systems that exist in the country today — the state-run schools where the medium of instruction is the state language or the vernacular, the English-medium schools known as the 'public schools', which are actually private schools where the medium of instruction is often English, the Kendriya Vidyalayas where the children of central government employees study, and a special category of schools known as the Navodaya Vidyalayas set up as a follow-up to the National Policy of Education (1986) for nurturing rural talents. The last two categories of schools follow a mixed medium of instruction. Children learn Science and Mathematics in English, and Social Sciences in Indian languages. There are schools where one section in each class is English-medium. Mohanty (2010:168) describes how this 'mixed medium within a school and within a classroom' works in these categories of schools.

English is used to teach 'prestigious subjects' like Mathematics and Science, whereas, Hindi or other languages are used to teach the 'less prestigious' subjects like History and Social Sciences. Hindi used to be the second language subject in most of the non-Hindi states in India. Now, it has been replaced by English and it is relegated to the position of a third language subject in most states.

English is a second language in all these categories of schools and the systems of school education. It is also a standard medium of education for the sciences and professional subjects at the university-level across

the country today (Ramanathan, 1999:34). This presents a 'huge linguistic gap' for students who have attended vernacular-medium schools (Anderson, 2012). Their learning English language often becomes a burden for students as they are forced to learn English on their own (Sheorey, 2006:70).

We can also find that the English language teaching situations within and across the school systems present a mixed picture in terms of teacher proficiency (TP) and the exposure of the pupils to the language in and outside the school, i.e. the availability of English in the environment of language acquisition (EE) (Nag-Arulmani, 2000 cb NCERT 2005b). Kurrien (1997) identifies four types of schools as given below:

(a) ↑↑TP, ↑↑EE (e.g. English-medium private/government-aided elite schools): Proficient teachers; varying degrees of English in the environment, including as a home or first language.

(b) ↑TP, ↑EE (e.g. New English-medium private schools, many of which use both English and other Indian languages): Teachers with limited proficiency; children with little or no background in English; parents aspire upward mobility for their children through English.

(c) ↓TP, ↓EE (e.g. Government-aided regional-medium schools): Schools with a tradition of English education along with regional languages, established by educational societies, with children from a variety of background.

(d) ↓↓TP, ↓↓EE (e.g. Government regional-medium schools run by district and municipal education authorities): They enrol the largest number of elementary school children in rural India. They are also the only choice for the urban poor (who, however, have some options of access to English in the environment). Their teachers may be the least proficient in English among these four types of schools. (Position Paper Teaching of English-NCF - 2005- NCERT, 2005b) (p 2)

The difference in the teaching-learning situations, learners' exposure to the language outside the school and parental support further divides each category of students. As Prabhu (1987:3) observes "typologies of teaching situations… should thus be seen as an aid to investigating the extent of relevance of a pedagogic proposal, rather than as absolute categories." The teaching situation decides where a school stands. Most rural schools in India today fall under the fourth category where we have children with almost no exposure to the English language, where the teachers' proficiency in English is in question, and where the parents cannot support their wards in learning the language.

Selvam and Geetha (2010:56) bring out the disparity in English language education in the context of one of the south Indian states, Tamil

Nadu from a 'class perspective'. They describe the schools as type A, B and C in terms of locations and resources. Type 'A' schools are located in big cities and are attended by upper middle class children. English language proficiency of both teachers and learners here are higher than all other categories of schools. Type 'B' schools are also found in big cities and additionally in smaller towns, and cater to the middle class which cannot afford to pay the high fees that type 'A' schools demand. Here the learners are not as easy and confident with the English language as their peer in type 'A' schools. Type 'C' schools are the ones located generally in small and mofussil towns, catering to rural households that want their young to know English. 'Neither the teachers nor the students in these schools move in an English-speaking world in the way that their counterparts in the cities do... But there is a greater anxiety about learning English in these institutions.' (Selvam and Geetha, 2010: 56)

The two categorisations above inform us that the prevalent diversity of English language teaching situations even within a small town poses a serious challenge for an effective planning and implementation of language education. Also, there is a general dissatisfaction about the way in which the language is taught in most of the schools, particularly the government schools run by the states. The general view that India's ELT methodology has been built all along on borrowed methods taken directly from the native English-speaking world or grafted arbitrarily on to whatever existed before is true to a large extent. However, indigenous (Indian) experiments like the Bangalore-Madras Communicational language teaching project (Prabhu, 1987) have made an equal impact in the Western and the Asian ELT scenario. However, these new experiments have not impacted the existing English language curriculum and the practice of English language teaching. Heavy reliance on the grammar-translation and structural approaches, and teacher-centric teaching continues to dominate in most of the school systems. Moreover, English as a school subject is a major cause of students dropping out of school at the end of class X. Disinterested classroom transactions, lack of any meaningful teaching and language proficiency of the teacher, and uninspiring methods and materials are attributed as major reasons for the sad state of English language education in schools. 'Incomprehensibility' of the content as well as treating the language as 'content' subject in terms of materials and classroom transactions increase the burden on the learner. This was recorded with concern by the Yashpal Committee Report, Learning without burden (1993). The National Curriculum Framework -2005 (NCERT, 2005a) aims at reducing the burden on learners by suggesting methodologies

which would connect the classroom with the lives of learners. It believes that the burden on children is one major hindrance in the learning of subjects and as well as the languages. Incomprehensibility of the language of the content subjects (say Science, Mathematics or Social Sciences) and studying through a medium that is not their mother tongue proves to be a double disadvantage for the children. This is compounded when children either drop out of the school or are declared as 'the ones who can't learn' (Jhingaran, 2005). Introduction of English language without adequate resources, particularly English language teachers throws a much greater challenge when it comes to the quality of education. The position paper on teaching of Indian languages (NCERT, 2005c: 38) rightly asserts:

Where qualified teachers and adequate infrastructural facilities are available, English may be introduced from the primary level, but for the first couple of years it should focus largely on oral-aural skills, simple lexical items, or some day-to-day conversation. Use of the languages of children should not be forbidden in the English class, and the teaching should as far as possible be located in a text that would make sense to the child. If trained teachers are not available, English should be introduced at the post-primary stage and its quantum increased in such a way that learners should soon reach the levels of their classmates who started learning English early.

The lack of research inputs for evolving a methodology that would suit the Indian situation is a major concern for researchers, teachers and those involved in the design and development, implementation and evaluation of curricula. In the 1970s, Tickoo argued that what is needed in India is a method, which should grow from research and experiment within the country and in the circumstances of an average schoolroom (Tickoo, 1971).

'Defective language learning is often attributed to defective syllabus design, the student does not learn the language properly because we do not teach the right things or because we recognise what we teach is the wrong way' states Michael Swan (1985:77).

Planning and implementation of English language education in the diverse Indian contexts calls for a flexible approach which suits the diverse needs of the learners. Language education in India is not conceived holistically, wherein languages complement and supplement one another. Fragmentation of the language curriculum in schools in terms of regional languages versus English, and within this space the question of majority and minority languages and tribal languages, has greatly disadvantaged the learners. Language education should be seen as a holistic venture, where the languages available in the school serve as a resource for learning other languages as well as content subjects. In other words the multilingual

characteristic of the Indian classroom should be treated as a resource rather than a problem. Denial of learning through one's mother tongue and unwillingness to use the languages of the children as a resource for teaching-learning of languages as well as content subjects is seen as one major reason for children not learning in schools (Position Paper Teaching of English and Position Paper Teaching of Indian Languages). The National Curriculum Framework– 2005 calls for multilingualism as a language policy in school education and for using the languages of the children as a resource for learning.

Language Policy in Education and the English Language

The national language-in-education-policy for school education, the three-language formula recommended by the National Commission on Education 1964–1966, (GOI, 1968) was incorporated into the national education policies of 1968 and 1986. Accommodating at least three languages in the school education has been seen as a convenient strategy, but concerns have also been expressed from various quarters about its 'unsatisfactory' implementation. India's language policy in education emerged as a political consensus in the chief ministers' conferences held during the 1950s and 1960s. The Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), which consisted of education ministers of all the states, devised the 'three-language formula' in its

23rd meeting held in 1956 with a view of removing inequalities among the languages of India, particularly between Hindi and other Indian languages. It recommended that three languages should be taught in the Hindi as well as non-Hindi-speaking areas of the country at the middle and high school stages, and suggested two possible formulae as given below.

1. (a) (i) Mother tongue or
       (ii) Regional language or
      (iii) A composite course of mother-tongue and a regional language or
      (iv) A composite course of mother tongue and a classical language or
       (v) A composite course of regional language and a classical language.
   (b) Hindi or English
   (c) A modern Indian language or a modern European language provided it has not already taken under (a) and (b) above.
2. (a) As above
   (b) English or a modern European language
   (c) Hindi (for non-Hindi speaking areas) or another modern Indian language (for Hindi speaking areas) (CABE 1956, Item 2)

The other major objective of the formula was to promote mother tongue based multilingualism, where the learner starts school education in the mother tongue and at least two

more languages are added (aiming at additive bilingualism) by the time s/he completes ten years of schooling. The three-language formula was simplified and approved by the Conference of Chief Ministers, held in 1961, to accommodate the mother tongue or regional language, Hindi, the official language (any other Indian language in Hindi speaking regions) and English (GOI, 1962: 67). The CABE also deliberated in detail on the study of English as a compulsory subject as recommended by the education ministers' conference held in 1957:

1. English should be taught as a compulsory language both at the secondary and the university stages, students acquire adequate knowledge of English so as to be able to receive education through this language at the university-level.
2. English should not be introduced earlier than class V. The precise point at which English should be started was left to each individual state to decide. (MOE 1957, quoted in Agarwal 1993:98)

A comprehensive view of the study of languages at school was undertaken and concrete recommendations were made by the Education Commission between 1964 and 1966 (NCERT, 1968). The Commission, having taken account of the diversity of India, recommended a modified or 'graduated' three-language formula:

1. The mother tongue or the regional language

2. The official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and
3. A modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (1) and (2) and other than that used as the medium of instruction. (MOE 1966:192)

The Education Commission went on to comment on the place and role of English in education.

English will continue to enjoy a high status so long as it remains the principal medium of education at the university stage, and the language of administration at the Central Government and in many of the states. Even after the regional languages become media of higher education in the universities, a working knowledge of English will be a valuable asset for all students and a reasonable proficiency in the language will be necessary for those who proceed to the university. (MOE 1966:192)

The English language's colonial legacy has now been lost and the language is seen as a neutral language, much in demand by cross sections of the society. Crystal (1997:139) is confident that 'the English language has already grown to be independent of any form of social control' and 'in 500 years' time everyone is multilingual and will automatically be introduced to English as soon as they are born.' The first part of the statement has to be viewed with much apprehension since the language in the Indian

context has already perpetuated inequalities. The language has been out of reach of millions of people who belong to the lower socio-economic strata of the society. This has been recorded in the report of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) (GOI, 2007:47),

There is an irony in the situation. English has been part of our education system for more than a century. Yet English is beyond the reach of most of our young people, which makes for highly unequal access. Indeed, even now, more than one per cent of our people use it as a second language, let alone a first language. But NKC believes that the time has come for us to teach our people, ordinary people, English as a language in schools. Early action in this sphere would help us build an inclusive society and transform India into a knowledge society.

India's once deprived sections of the society (like the Dalits) now perceive the language as an instrument for progress. The news of a temple for English language in a village in the Hindi heartland (Pandey, 2011) tells its own story and there is a demand for the English language and English medium education for reducing exclusion (Illaiah, 2013). Illaiah (2013) emphasises that it is the right of the Dalits to be exposed to English, 'Within 200 years of its introduction in India it (English) has become the language of easily about 100 million people. Its expansion in future will be several folds faster than earlier. It has become a language of day-to-day use for several million upper middle class and rich people. The poor and the productive masses have a right to learn the language of administration and global communication.'

However, this notion of the empowering role of English language is contested from the points of view of language endangerment and harmonious development of learners. Pattanayak (1981) argues how our education system has consistently weakened the advantages of grassroot multilingualism that characterises our society. As Illich (1981) suggests, we need to make every possible effort to empower the languages of the underprivileged, and tribal and endangered languages. Affirmative action is called for in this domain (NCERT 2005a). To quote Pattanayak (1981), 'if participatory democracy has to survive, we need to give a voice to the language of every child.' Macro level policy planning calls for mother tongue based multilingualism where the use of two or more languages as medium of instruction is seen as beneficial for all languages (UNESCO, 2003). But the developments in the last three decades reveal that the number of languages used as media of instruction in schools in 1973 was 67 (Third All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1975); the number came down to 47 in 1993 (Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT 1995) (cb. Srinivasa Rao 2008). While the promise of education in the mother tongue of the child is

made time and again, we notice that within a period of 20 years at least 20 languages were thrown out of the school system. Though linguistic diversity is recognised at the policy level, its implementation is faulty. There appears to be a language hierarchy, where English and the state languages get privileged and the tribal/minority languages get neglected, often leading to a sense of exclusion amongst its speakers. The language hierarchy could be depicted as shown below.

The many of the tribal and minor languages have not found a place in school even as a language, leave alone as a medium of instruction. The promotion of English language as an instrument for upward mobility and notions relating to development has to be seen from diverse perspectives.

Even within the English language education in practice shows the hierarchy as discussed somewhere above. (Meganathan, 2010)

This brief historical account of the evolution of the language policy in India tells us how the apprehension about the dominance of the English language as a colonial language has been naturally alleviated by the role which the language has attained. This is in spite of the efforts (political and systemic) to contain its spread. Today, every child and parent understands the need of the language. It is a compulsory second language in most of the states. The liberalisation of Indian economy in the 1990s and the impact of globalisation have intensified the spread of the language as an instrument for upward mobility and as a language of opportunity.
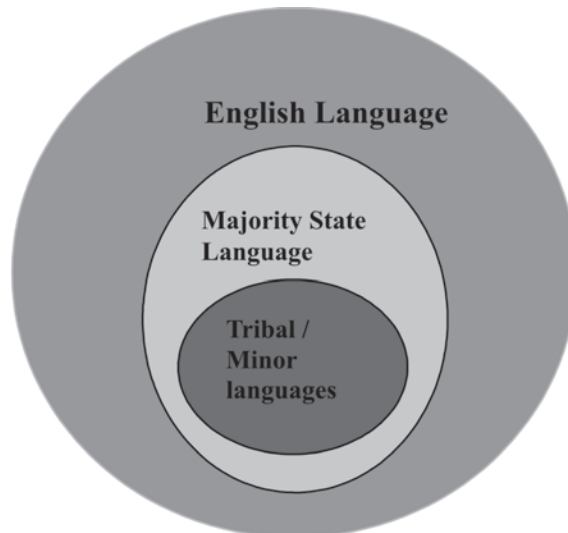

Fig. 1

THE DEMAND FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE

While the diverse nature and quality of English language education in India poses a serious challenge both in terms of access, resources and quality, the demand for English language has been on the increase since independence. The language, which was defined as 'a library language' by the National Commission on Education 1964-66, has broken the walls of the library and the demand is so huge that every parent in India today wants to send his/her child to an English medium school, whatever be its quality and resources for learning. The national curriculum revision carried out in 2005 recognises the growing demand for the language and the position paper of the National Focus Group on Teaching of English for NCF – 2005 (NCERT, 2005b) makes this clear when it addresses the 'English language question'

English is in India today a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and a fuller participation in national and international life. Its colonial origins now forgotten or irrelevant, its initial role in independent India, tailored to higher education (as a "library language", a "window on the world"), now felt to be insufficiently inclusive socially and linguistically, the current status of English stems from its overwhelming presence on the world stage and the reflection of this in the national arena. (P 1) 1.1. Why English?)

The position paper also makes an attempt to find a space for English in today's context in India. Stating that 'English does not stand alone', the position paper argues that

it (English) needs to find its place (i) Along with other Indian Languages (a) in regional medium schools: how can children's other languages strengthen English learning? (b) in English medium schools: how can other Indian languages be valorised, reducing the perceived hegemony of English? (ii) In relation to other subjects: A language across the curriculum perspective is perhaps of particular relevance to primary education. Language is best acquired through different meaning-making contexts and hence all teaching in a sense is language teaching. This perspective also captures the centrality of language in abstract thought in secondary education (p 4).

English today is a 'compulsory' second language in the native / vernacular medium schools and in English medium schools it is making a case to gain the status of a first language. Thus, contradicting the spirit of the three language formula.

Recognising the diversity and enormity of the demand, David Graddol (2010) in his English Next India brings out the divide in the demand-supply business of the English language and the responsibility on the teachers. He says,

Throughout India, there is an extraordinary belief, among almost all

castes and classes, in both rural and urban areas, in the transformative power of English. English is seen not just as a useful skill, but as a symbol of a better life, a pathway out of poverty and oppression. Aspiration of such magnitude is a heavy burden for any language, and for those who have responsibility for teaching it, to bear. The challenges of providing universal access to English are significant, and many are bound to feel frustrated at the speed of progress. But we cannot ignore the way that the English language has emerged as a powerful agent for change in India. (Graddol 2010:120)

The demand for English language education (both as a language and as a medium of learning) is leading to the marginalisation of Indian languages. It is believed that the English language acts as an instrument for exclusion of Indian languages, particularly the minor and tribal languages, some of which are yet to find a place in school education or have been thrown out of the system. The English language acts as 'a killer language' in these situations (Mohanty, 2010). Phillipson (2006, 2008) and Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) believe that there is an uncritical promotion of English language in education. While the demand for English language and English medium education from every quarter makes the English language a 'neutral language' in terms of ethnicity, religion, linguistic groups, region and 'the language that unifies

India, but it has become a medium used to maintain inequalities in society' (Baik and Shim, 1995:123-124). As Anderson (2012) asserts 'the language remains inaccessible to those who are disadvantaged because of their economic situation, their caste, or both.' There are also arguments that it is the state/regional languages, which push the minor and tribal languages to the corner, not the English language. The languages of many tribal communities in the states of Odisha and Andhra Pradesh could be cited as illustrations where the state languages dominate as medium of learning. This demands a relook at the language-in-education policy both at the macro and the micro levels. Stating the policy in terms of number of languages and provisions at the macro level policy planning for mother tongue based multilingualism does not necessarily achieve the objectives of promoting multilingualism. There is a need to understand the learner needs and to foster a cognitively and pedagogically sound language education for the harmonious growth of our children.

Though the governments at the central and state levels through their schemes like the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Rashtirya Madhyamikh Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) have made serious efforts to provide access to education for all children, achieving quality becomes an illusion on many counts. This starts with curriculum planning

at the national and state levels to ensuring quality teaching by the teacher who has to face many constraints. Curriculum planning demands well thought of processes wherein people from different areas of expertise come together to design a pedagogically sound plan of action through curricular statements, defining objectives, suggesting methodologies appropriate to the context and understanding the profile and needs of the learner, chalking out assessment strategies that would support teaching-learning.

ELT Curriculum, Syllabus and Materials

Curriculum and Syllabus

English language curriculum and syllabus which guide materials developers in producing materials to support learners in English language learning and teachers for providing opportunities for language use through interaction and reflection has been a major concern of educational planners and implementers. The development of a 'considered' curriculum and syllabus by stating the aims and objectives in comprehensible and meaningful terms for users, suggesting methodologies and assessment procedures throws a big challenge. Ineffective curriculum and materials add to the misery of the ill-equipped teacher resulting in disinterested classrooms and examination driven

teaching. The process of curriculum development and implementation (from design to evaluation) is highly inadequate in the Indian context. The teacher is central to the process of teaching-learning and has to do her job without clearly stated curricular objectives.

India has in a way three models of curriculum (and materials) development for English language education in schools. First model is adaptation of the national level curriculum developed by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) by the national level boards like the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE). Second model is the complete adaptation of the national curriculum by (some) states boards like the Delhi. The third model is the states or other boards developing their own curriculum taking into consideration the ideas of the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) developed by NCERT (Meganathan, 2010). However, the approach to syllabus design could be stated mostly as 'Forward Design' (Richards, 2013:31), starting from stated objectives and moving on to stating the expected outcomes. Richards, (2013) recent paper describes the existing model of syllabus design. The national level model syllabus based on the *National Curriculum Framework* – 2005 developed by NCERT could be stated as more of 'Central Design'

Table 2

Features of the three approaches to syllabus design compared (Richards, 2013:31)

	Forward design	Central design	Backward design
Syllabus	Language-centred; Content divided into its key elements; Sequenced from simple to complex. Pre-determined; prior to a course; Linear progression.	Activity-based; Content negotiated with learners; Evolves during the course; Reflects the process of learning; Sequence may be determined by the learners.	Needs based; Ends-means approach; Objectives or competency-based; Sequenced from part-skills to whole; Pre-determined prior to course Linear progression
Methodology	Transmissive and teacher-directed; Practice and control of elements; Imitation of models; Explicit presentation of rules	Learner-centered; Experiential learning; Active engagement in interaction and communication; Meaning prioritised over accuracy; Activities that involve negotiation of meaning.	Practice of part-skills; Practice of real-life situations; Accuracy emphasised; Learning and practice of expressions and formulaic language.
Role of teacher	Teacher as instructor, model, and explainer; Transmitter of knowledge; Reinforcer of correct language use.	Teacher as facilitator; Negotiator of content and process; Encourager of learner self-expression and autonomy	Organiser of learning experiences; Model of target language performance; Planner of learning experiences.
Role of learner	Accurate mastery of language forms; Application of learned material to new contexts; Understanding of language rules.	Negotiator of learning content and modes of learning; Development of learning strategies; Accept responsibility for learning and learner autonomy.	Learning through practice and habit formation; Mastery of situationally appropriate language; Awareness of correct usage; Development of fluency.

Assessment	Norm-referenced, summative end-of-semester or end-of-course test; Assessment of learning; Cumulative mastery of taught forms.	Negotiated assessment; Assessment for learning; Formative assessment; Self-assessment; Develop capacity for self-reflection and self-evaluation.	Criterion-referenced, Performance based summative assessment; Improvement oriented; Assessment of learning Cumulative mastery of taught patterns and uses.

MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

The three models which exist at the curriculum and syllabus development level are reflected at the materials development level too. However, there is much to regret when it comes to materials development at the state level. Lack of pedagogical understanding of 'What should materials do?' (Tomlinson, 1998) and 'authenticity' or materials and tasks remain a in question (Meganathan, 2010). The reason for this is there is that materials development is not taken as a professional activity though one can notice commercialisation of materials development in India where private publishing houses also publish text books and other materials in English for mostly English medium schools run by private agencies or individuals. An analysis of the textbooks at the primary level reveals the how textbook development at the primary level does not fully recognise the recent development in pedagogy and our understanding of language and language acquisition and learning (NCERT, 2010).

TO CONCLUDE

English language education has come a long way in India and has started losing its colonial legacy. It is being seen as a language for upward mobility and has been accepted without much contestation. So it has become a 'neutral' language moving beyond boundaries across the states and regions, cross sections of the society as a whole. But the major concern and worry is the way the language is perpetuating inequalities among languages in the country and inequalities within its own realm where the rich and elite get 'good quality English language education and the poor and rural mass get the 'not so good quality English language education'(Mohanty, ; Meganathan, 2010). This 'good quality' (by whatever means we define it) is reflected firstly in the teacher as a resource for learning English and then in materials and methods (strategies and techniques which are adopted). As Graddol (2010) poinst out the huge responsibility of address the demand lies in the hands of people,

teachers who are in a way not so well equipped. Adding the problems is the initiatives of the state governments to introduce English as a medium of teaching in one section of each class. Teachers who are not well equipped to teach through English medium are now to teach in English the subjects, Mathematics and Social Sciences. These are the same teachers who teach the subjects in the medium of Indian languages like Hindi, Urdu, Tamil, Bengali, Punjabi and so on. They are not oriented to teach the subjects in English. The argument is the teachers have studied their subjects at the university level in English medium and this makes them naturally suitable for teaching in English medium. This needs to be understood in a pedagogical perspective of language across the curriculum (LAC) and the role of language in learning any subject. The subject teachers need to an awareness to understand how ideas are covered and qualified when said in a language.

Research in ELT or language pedagogy is another area which needs strengthening. While research is happening in English literature and Linguistics as courses of study at the university level, ELT is the field which is still shaping itself in India. One major reason there are very few universities which run courses in ELT or English language education as applied linguistics. So classroom based researches, research on curriculum development and implementation is very limited. (Meganathan, 2014) The following could be seen as areas which need attention and initiates both the governments at the national and state levels, as also by NGOs and private agencies and schools involved in the business of language education in general and English language education in particular.

- *Professionalisation of Curriculum, syllabus and materials development:* There is an urgent need to develop teams of people who could be described as professional in curriculum, syllabus and materials development in India. The practice in the states now is curriculum development is a once-in-a-while activity where a group of teachers, teacher educators, and other professional come together and do the activity of 'curriculum development' and then it if forgotten. It is necessary to have curriculum and materials development as part of the both pre-service and in-service professional development courses (Meganathan, 2008). This will have both short and long time implications.

- *Courses on English language teaching / education or Language Education:* A country which needs quite a number English language teachers does not have courses on English language education or language education at the under graduate or post graduate level, except a few. Specialised courses

on language teaching / education will equip the young graduate with un understanding of language pedagogy and the pre-service teacher education courses could shape them to be able to deliver when they join schools.

• *Teacher Learning:* Teacher's continuous professional development has not been recognised as a major component for quality improvement of teaching in the classroom. Though many agencies like the NCERT, SCERT, University Departments of Education, NGOs conduct training and orientation programmes for teachers and key resource persons, the content and methodology of such courses remain a question as to whether they really address the classroom day-to-day problems and issues. A typical classroom teacher expects a training to equip him/her to enhance classroom interactions and learner motivations and learning.

• *Research:* ELT world should recognise the need for classroom based and teacher initiated research to understand the classroom problems and to address them at the curriculum revision, materials production, assessment and teacher training levels.

Question of quality will continue to taunt English language education at all the levels and regions. The quality questions pose serious challenge and need attention from curriculum planning level to the classroom level.

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Family Socialisation in Empowerment of Young Girls in Manipur

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Abstract

Women in Manipur are not empowered in true sense and thereby, this article attempts to probe the nature of the role of socialisation of young girls to find some avenues to empower them. It specifically focuses on the process of family socialisation in gender construction among the Christian families in Manipur. This study also examines how the process of family socialisation impacts the empowerment of young girls.

SITUATING THE WOMEN'S POSITION IN MANIPUR

Women in Manipur, both in the hill and in the valley face a paradox. On the one hand, they enjoy a great deal of freedom and on the other hand, they are suppressed by patriarchal system. Manipur women play an important role in domestic affairs, participate in festivals, independent to choose life partner, fight against social cause, etc. However, due to various social restrictions, religious belief, polygamy, gender discriminatory customary laws, gender-unjust social norms and women bodies reinforcing these norms, it elevates the oppression and suppression of women in the society.

In economic domain, Manipur women play a critical role in trade and economy in the state. Their immense contributions in generating the income of the family are visible in the market places, colonies, highways, etc. Many women in urban areas are employed in both

Government and private sectors. Women are represented in the tertiary sector, educated women running weaving cooperative societies, running hostels for girls, self-help group (micro financing, locally called Marup), entrepreneurship, garments business, thereby, earning equally as that of men and deconstructing the stereotypical gender roles in the family. Ironically, there are not many women occupying high position in white collar jobs and no big women traders in the market and there are hardly any owners in the agricultural sectors of our economy. They still stand far below in the power equation in relation to men.

In the political arena, the active participation of Manipur women is laudable by the presence of the powerful women's bodies; Meira Paibis, Naga Women Union Manipur, Kuki Mothers' Association and others. They fight against alcoholism, drug addiction, gender violence, human rights violation, repeal of AFSPA, ethnic-clashes, gender unfriendly customary laws, etc. But one also notices that empowerment of women is inadequate in lieu of the tremendous works done by them. There is dearth of women's representation in Manipur Legislative Assembly, despite female voters outnumber male voters. In the Panchayat, women cross 33 per cent reservation in getting elected as leaders. Nonetheless, they also have not been able to break the patriarchal hegemonising ideology. This constitutional provision has been exempted from the hill areas on the ground that these districts have their own traditional system of local-self-government which are egalitarian in society. On the contrary, women are excluded from the traditional village councils. Learning their position in all aspects, it can be safely argued that Manipur women are not empowered in true sense. It is in this context that the researcher attempts to probe the nature of the role of socialisation of young girls to find some avenues to empower them. This study attempts to delve into the process of family socialisation of young girls with special reference to their empowerment among Christian families in Manipur. On one hand the study explores the gender construction through socialisation and on the other hand it deconstructs the myth of empowered women of Manipur by deconstructing the socialisation roles of family.

Conceptual Framework

Since decades social scientists, policy makers, academicians, social activists and feminists have defined the term 'empowerment' in numerous ways. This concept has been debated at length at global and local levels. It is strongly felt that there is still a room to reassess the means to empower women. Many have written and conducted research on women's empowerment at national and regional level. However, they have in some ways overlooked the fact that to empower women is to provide a gender sensitive environment

through the process of socialisation beginning from the family.

Manipur is a patriarchal society. The discrimination against women in Manipur is not overt but very subtle. Radical feminists argued that as long as there is existence of patriarchal system, women's subjugation will remain. The chief predicament of a woman lies in her very precarious condition of not being seen as a total human being. Deeply ingrained social beliefs, social customs, biased against women and various facets of popular culture such as cinema, TV and popular literature contribute to reinforce these overarching stereotypical images and identity of women. In simple terms, it is present in women's everyday lived experience. This is not to say that not much have been done for the income generation in the family, legal rights and importance of education, health issues, technological innovations, etc. Because of the efforts, many testimonials are heard and seen of women's emancipation both at the macro and micro level.

However, women socialisation under male dominance perpetuates women's age-old oppression. Thus, feminists argued that in order to bring social transformation, the 'mindset' of society needs to be changed. Perception and attitude towards them should be changed; they should be treated equally as their male counterparts in all walks of their life. As a result, this study attempts to unveil the gender

socialisation process during the influential age in a male dominated society. Psychoanalysts like Freud (1964) argued that an individual personality is developed during the formative age and continue as they achieve adulthood.

The study argues that the subordinate/inferior position of women emerges or crystallises because the children, at the initial stage constantly interact in a 'differentiated' pattern in the society. In the patriarchal society, gender often operates through the unquestioned acceptance of power, for example, women internalising subordinate position in power relations with men through the process of socialisation. This is, due to the fact that structural and systematic gender bias exists in many societies and cultures. Thus, women seem to accept and reinforce their own oppression (Alva 1999: 11-14). Hence, the process of socialisation widely impacts the varied roles, identities and stereotypes that gender is expected to perform as they develop into adult. Margaret Mead (1935) observed that what is understood as masculinity and femininity varies across cultures. Feminists have argued that it is child-rearing practices which try to establish and perpetuate certain differences between the sexes. Therefore, sex-specific quality and the value that society attributes to them are produced by a range of institutions and beliefs that socialise boys and girls differently (Menon 2003: 8). As

De Beavoir puts it, "One is not born, but becomes, a woman" (1953: 257). In addition, Oakley observed that the gender identities of children vary with the kind of families they live in, the personalities of their parents and the way their parents behave towards them (1972: 180). Socialisation process is gendered starting from the time the child is in womb. Boys and girls from the age of four years are able to identify their gender (Oakley 1972: 177) from the way they are socialised in an expected role in the society. Gendered socialisation begins from family and thereby other social institutions follow.

It is considerably essential to look into the important agencies as they play a decisive role in a society in the process of socialisation. As Kerckhoff (1972: 2) states that these agencies' task are to prepare new members for their later activities and responsibilities. Bhogle (1999: 296) echoes that the development of gender-role behaviour is a gradual process that begins in infancy and continues throughout the life cycle. Gender roles are quite varied, and the socialising experiences required to prepare individuals to carry them out are also quite varied. The gender roles, gender biases and gender stereotypes are assigned and imbibed through socialisation (Beal 1994; Macrae, et.al, 1996). Thus, since childhood both boys and girls learn their ascribed roles and follow them throughout their lives. Hence, this becomes an impediment in empowerment of young girls in society. However, socialisation is an on-going process that needs to be studied.

The study focuses on the two significant concepts of socialisation and empowerment. Socialisation from the functionalist perspective is functional to the society in terms of inculcating the social norms and values in the young ones to motivate and able to perform role expectations to create a stable society (Durkheim 1965:70-71). Whereas Conflict theorists like Marx views socialisation as a way of perpetuating the status quo (Bottomore and Rubel 1963). It is a process devised by the ruling class for the perpetuation of ruling class ideology especially the patriarchy. The ideology of domination and subordination is found in socialisation process.

In a patriarchal society, women are socialised with norms and values internalising inferior position in the society. As a result they tend to accept their position as normal and natural, right and proper. In this way a 'false consciousness' of reality is produced which helps to maintain the unequal gender relationship. Therefore, it is imperative to understand in what type of social milieu, structure, and processes we can empower women through socialisation. Here, the term empowerment is defined as the process of socialising the young girls in a gender sensitive atmosphere to enable them to internalise positive self image and self confidence, develop

ability to think critically and organise in decision-making capacity enabling them to take control of their own lives against the gender oppressive systems.

Since socialisation is one of the most basic functions of society therefore it is necessary to understand the processes which hinder the empowerment of women. Thus, by intervention at the basic level through socialisation, the process of empowerment can become easier. Since socialisation creates the basic gendered personalities, it can become a potent weapon for empowerment of the women.

Therefore, in the light of the above arguments, this study seeks to understand and examine how family shape gender specific roles. Keeping young girls in the focus the study will analyse the gender difference through socialisation. This is so, because, the process of socialisation creates the gender difference and thus, results in young girl's disempowerment in their adulthood. It is in this context that the study looks at the important questions – how parents treat their children with reference to gender specific roles? How family socialisation hampers women's empowerment and how it effectively facilitates in enhancing their empowerment?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used for the present study. Qualitative research helps to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern such behaviour. This involves a systematic and extensive study to analyse attitudes and behaviours of an urban village towards gender sensitive in the process of family socialisation. While quantitative methods enable the hypotheses to be tested through the primary findings such as the use of observations and interview methods. The aim of this mode of research is accurate understanding and presentation of the phenomena investigated. Furthermore, this research involves case study of the parents in order to present an intensive study of a case such as an event that focus on gender insensitivity in the society. Case studies sharpen the understanding of the researcher on several queries raised over the phenomenon.

Keeping in mind the descriptive nature of the research topic, the study is conducted through personal interview and observation. Open-ended interview schedule was administered to the respondents for the collection of data. The researcher used these methods because it was suitable for both the illiterate and the educated respondents. Respondents were personally interviewed by the researcher to allow comfortable understanding and to make subject's own knowledge/or feelings more meaningful. The basic tools the researcher used during field work were note book, pen, voice recorder and camera. However, personal interview method was time-

consuming; it took approximately 40 to 60 minutes per respondent. Nevertheless, it provided substantive and additional information focusing on the subject, which is vital for the study. Secondary Sources of data like Research works, books, articles and ethnographic accounts were studied.

The study was conducted in Dewlahland, one of the urban villages/ colonies situated in Imphal East district of Manipur. Imphal east has four revenue sub-divisions and covers numbers of colonies. Dewlahland comes under Sub-division Circle, Porompat and the revenue village no. is 25 (A). Dewlahland was established in the year 1962 and is located 2 km away from Imphal ADP (Area Development Program) headquarter. The researcher chose this village as it is a Christian dominated village and is an amalgamation of multi-ethnic groups; tribals, Meities (Manipuri) and Meitei pangal (Manipuri Muslim).

A total sample of 200 respondents was collected through purposive sampling and snowball technique. The researcher interviewed the following respondents: School going children – from classes' I-XII. The respondents were categorised according to their grades: primary (I-V), middle (VI-VIII), high school (IX-X) and higher secondary (XI-XII). 30 respondents from each group were interviewed that include equal numbers of boys and girls. In sum, the respondents in the study attending schools as students were 120. Another category of respondent included in the

present study were the parents. The researcher interviewed 80 parents which included educated, literate and illiterate parents.

The researcher interviewed parents of young children which included combination of both the gender. These parents belong to the age groups 30-55 years. They include both landowners and tenants but focussed on those who are inhabitants for more than 10 years in the researched area. Majority of them are educated and are government employees, self employed (business) and works in private sector. It was found that mostly the students of classes I and II were not reliable as respondents and therefore their respective parents were interviewed on their daily societal interactions in order to substantiate the findings.

The researcher attempted a comprehensive understanding of the problems and tried to present it as objectively and accurately as she can. Three different languages were used to interview the respondents. They are Meiteilon (local-common language) to different ethnic group, English to school goers and Maola/ Emela belonging to Mao community. Most of the respondents' identities are kept anonymous as per their request.

THE STRUCTURE OF CHRISTIAN FAMILY IN MANIPUR/DEWLAHLAND

Family structure in Manipur can be broadly classified into two viz: Joint or Extended family and Nuclear family. On the basis of observation

and informal discussion with the residents of Dewlahland one can easily agree that with changes in the technological and economic structure of society, the traditional joint family structure changed to nuclear family particularly in urban areas. Manipur society follows patriarchal and patrilineal system. Dewlahland comprises of multi-ethnic groups. Some of the ethnic communities are Tangkhul, Mao, Maring, Mizo, Ruangmei, Liangmei, Maram, Kuki, Paite, Paomei, Anal, Chiru and Thangal. They are mostly Christians. There are also Meiteis, Meitei-Pangals (Manipuri Muslim) and other smaller groups. It is found that most of the Christian family follow nuclear system.

Post Independence, due to growth of education and job opportunities, social mobility became rampant and till date, the trend continues. Job mobility is one major reason that landed many senior inhabitants in Dewlahland. Progressively, young boys and girls migrates from hill to valley in search of better education or on demand of jobs and gradually bought land, constructed houses and since then generations have established their own roots in Dewlahland. Today, in this locality, most of the houses are pucca buildings and rooms are leased out to families, students, business persons, Government employees, etc. across communities. By and large, the tenants also exercise nuclear family.

INFLUENCE OF PARENTS ON CHILDREN'S GENDER SOCIALISATION

In Manipur, the role of parents in the family is not different from many patriarchal societies. They teach their children the social values, norms, social mores, beliefs and other traditional cultural practices especially on gender specific roles. Bandura (1973) argues that social learning takes place through observation and modelling. Parents become the role model in the family. The position of mother and father in the family plays a key role for the children at the influential stage to develop the sense of self, gender identity, attitude, behaviour, personality, beliefs etc. which they propagate in their later life.

From the time their children are babies, parents treat sons and daughters differently, showing different attitudes, dressing infants in gender specific colours, giving gender differentiated toys, and expecting different behaviour from boys and girls (Thorne 1993). The preference of son continues to exist in our society for various cultural reasons. The birth of a son is wished in the Christian family in Dewlahland however their attitude towards the birth of a girl child is equally a joyous moment. One of the respondents emphasised "Our way of welcoming the new born, be it a boy or a girl is usually a quiet affair. Unlike Hindu, Christians do not have the culture of distributing sweets or

celebrations which are prominent. Some invite pastors, church leaders and loved ones at home for a meal to bless the baby and the family."

Most of the families expressed the yearning for a boy in the family but young parents disagree that absence of a son in the family faced social stigma in the society. However, it is not to deny the talks of empathy that takes place by the elders mainly in the family including women on families that have no sons especially in regard to property and social prestige. An elderly man stated, "What is the use of buying lands and building houses when there is no son in the family and people do not much regard families that have no sons." The absence of sons in the family lessens self- dignity/ prestige hitherto these feelings are not shared openly especially among the Christians but are usually shared in discrete. This mainly affects the dignity of men in the family. Male chauvinist attitude remain rigid among the elders, although this bias attitude persists among the educated men and women today as well but the perspective towards gender-acceptance has broadened with the embracement of Christianity. Many believe that life and death is in God's control and so human beings do not have the right to blame anyone for things which are beyond human reach.

Parents' Attitude on the Size of Family

Respondents (Parents) were in the age-group, 30-55 years. Majority of them are educated and well established. They are working both in Government and private sectors in Dewlahland. Their minimum monthly income is Rs. 10,000. Some of the respondents are tenants but majority inhabits in their own land. Parents are in professions such as Doctor, engineer, advocate, lecturer and primary teacher in a Government sector. Some are into business such as running lodging, food, and stationary shops and few are social workers. It is found that good numbers of young mothers (occupants) are into business and teaching. Some claim to be housewives but is ambiguous in their claim as they assist their husbands in family business.

In Dewlahland, majority of the parents prefer small family, although it is not confined to two-norm child. The average number of children in the family is three. There is attitudinal change and increasing awareness on family planning among the young couples. Many families remain silent even if they are not so satisfied with uneven sex of children. Besides, the attitude of acceptance is apparently high among the Christians. However, there is preference of at least a son in the family to provide economic security and family line. This desirability of having sons is made explicit by women themselves. Parents who have only daughters are pitied. Their future is bleak for they will have no support or succour in old age. Some of the reasons they shared in regard to sons' preference

are not so uncommon in other patriarchal and patrilineal society. It is in this manner the social worldview has been shaped in Dewlahland, since time immemorial, which is transferred from one generation to another mediated by social change in the system.

ATTITUDE OF PARENTS TOWARDS EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND BOYS

The importance of education is embraced in recent times in urban – rural areas in Manipur. Agriculture is the economic means in Manipur but this is slowly diminishing due to globalisation where there is high demand of educated boys and girls in the larger market. Today, to meet the standards of living, education becomes an essential requirement for all. In Dewlahland, it is found that all families send their children to schools irrespective of gender. Majority of the children are sent to private schools. Gender is not an obstacle for choosing schools. Most of the boys and girls are sent to schools based in their localities. There are also children going to the neighbouring schools.

Today, one is apprehensive to comprehend life without education as most of teaching-learning roles have been taken up by the formal education in the form of schools, colleges, universities and institutions of learning. These days, most of the young and middle-aged parents are educated and therefore, gradually develop competent outlook for children to be independent, upward economic mobility and to carve a niche in the competent world. This is more so in the case of girl child, education is so fundamental to empower them bearing in mind their position in the society. As part of globalisation and modernisation, girls are encouraged to be educated, but personal laws and norms remain within traditions of patriarchal control.

Gender differentiation increases when it comes to higher education. The academic hierarchy remains very firmly masculine (David and Woodward 1998). Generally the attitude of parents towards girls' higher education is "It is more than enough if girls know how to read and write. What is the point of studying so much? Ultimately woman's place is in the household." Nevertheless parents, in Dewlahland do not discourage daughters who aspire to pursue further education but simultaneously, they are not persuasive if she shows disinterest in pursuing higher education. On the contrary, this attitude is not the same in the case of a boy child. Parents can go hundred miles for sons to pursue higher education be it in academic or any professional line. The gender differential treatment is intense in the family when it comes to higher education. As a result, traditional social acceptance - expectations of gender role in society reinforces the prejudices against women's higher education.

Gender Division of Labour within the Family

Different tasks and responsibilities are assigned to girls and boys, women and men according to their sex-gender roles, and not necessarily according to their individual preferences or capabilities (Bhasin 2003:32). This is true in the universe of our research. In Dewlahland majority women performed household chores such as cooking, serving, cleaning utensils, sweeping, mopping floor, dusting off rooms, preparing tea, washing clothes, and assist children in their studies, entertain guests, etc. They also execute outside work like marketing, pay children's school fees in schools, kitchen gardening, attend sick kins and neighbours in hospitals and at home, bank work, postal work etc. There are families who employed helpers to assist the family in their day to day chores. Helpers are common among affluent families or available in homes where both parents are working either in Government or private or in families that have toddlers. In this case, mothers get time to engage in outside work apart from household chores. Nevertheless, majority of the working mothers are not exempted from doing household chores.

Men, on the other hand go to office, manage business and does marketing and sometimes visit sick relatives, friends and neighbours. Normally, when at home, they read newspaper, study, do file work, and when it is necessary handful of them assist family in cooking on occasions when wife is busy or in case of sickness. A non-Christian father[1] cited, "ei thoina yumgi thabak toude, ei karbar oina yengsille. (I seldom perform household chores, I mostly look after the business)." Many respondents mostly women expressed that men's contribution in the domestic chores such as cooking and cleaning is not unacceptable when it is necessary but if it is done on regular basis then wives are often lampooned or ridiculed and are specified by different names such a 'women who dominates husbands', 'lazy', 'not a good wife' etc. In some cases, husbands are also called as henpecked. It is looked down upon as it is regarded as below dignity for a man if he had to do domestic chores on a regular basis and is regarded as shameful on the part of women in the family when their menfolk had to do it. Hence, men seldom do domestic work.

The traditional gender role still takes its own forms in the urban family. Likewise, parents' gender roles are reflected in boys and girls division of work at home. However, today, there are daughters who do not have adequate free time to perform housework because of the hectic schedules during week days. And in families where there are helpers, the amount of household work is less. In the case of boys, majority of them are exempted from doing household chores. However, both boys and girls are allotted household work but the difference between them is boys

perform on an uneven basis and regular in case of girls.

Decision Making in the Family: A Male Bastion

Decision making in the family, prerogative to make a decision and who is given preference to participate in the decision making helps the process of socialisation of youth. In the universe of the study majority of the parents responded that decisions on family issues are taken jointly. But few wives stated that they stay aloof from issues that deal with husband's village. Some uttered that most of the major decisions in the family are taken by husbands especially when the issue is on land, some declared they feel it is the affairs of men. And some women are not interested and expressed "Mapu oibanina loinamak khang-ngi. (Husband knows best)." There are also women who are consulted on family issues but husbands are the ultimate decision makers. In this regard, a non-Christian father stated, "Eigi emungda eina No.1(ahanba) rai louwi. (I am the No.1 in decision making in the family)."

Children are not accorded the full respect to which they are intrinsically entitled as human beings. They are usually understood as "incomplete vulnerable beings" progressing with adult's help through stages needed to turn them into mature adults (Mayall 1994: 3). Their thoughts and deeds are weighed in the balance of "grown up" standard and are found immature and inconsequential (Pfeffer and Behera 1996:2). Young children may be considered immature in decision-making on adult issues but somewhere down the line, special importance is shown to boys in the family, their views are listened with appreciation whether they accept it or not but girls are asked to shut up without giving the room to share her mind. This form of suppression of freedom of speech in the family, young girls imbibe inhibition persona in a natural form in later life. This unequal treatment affects the mindset and demeans the personality of girls in general and in the universe of the study in particular.

Parents' Attitude Towards Gender Health

Health is another sphere which helps in the socialisation of the young persons. Many studies have been conducted in India showing the negligence of girl's health in the family. Feminists have also given numerous reasons on these grounds. According to them, one of the major reasons is due to the importance given to sons in the Indian society. However, in Manipur, the undesirable attitude towards girl child in the family is different. In Christian family, there is no deprivation on health issues on the basis of gender. They are taken care of equally when they get sick, though the level of concerns increases when sons and grandsons are sick, yet it does not deter them from providing medical care equally.

Gender bias is noticeable when it comes to nutrition. Nutrition does not mean daughters are underfed but it means the choicest items are reserved for them. Further, everyone is conscious that their sons should be strong and healthy for which they should be served good food. Though majority of the parents stated that there exists equal treatment in the family. However, girls expressed that their brothers most of the time get to eat their favourite parts of chicken or for that matter other good parts of meat. The girls also emphasised that parents, more often than not remember what their sons' favourites is. Even in sons' absence during the meal time, mothers do not forget to keep aside good pieces of meat for them. A young girl narrated her experience, which is revealing. Her mother keeps reminding her that local eggs are for her brothers saying they need to take care of health because they indulge in physical demanding activity. But these concerns are not visible in case of daughters.

In the light of this, it is not only girls that express the partiality but boys themselves are also aware of the special attention meted out to them. This form of partiality when it comes to equal share still prevails in the family and this is commonly carried out by the women. Women themselves treat motherhood with duality and ambivalence. Due to the dominance and universalism of patriarchal practice, women end up negotiating with patriarchy (Denniz 1988: 274-90).

Daughter's Contributions and 'Housewifisation'

Parents are delighted over children's contributions in the family. But daughters' contributions are normally less acknowledged. Daughters' work at home is considered as their duty, as a natural job, best fitted to the lives of women. They seldom receives acknowledgement. That is what it means to grow up female: to learn to work and live without being acknowledged (Kumar 2010: 79). It is this male exploited ideology that Mies (1986: 110) called the "housewifisation" of women. This means labour is considered as a natural resource, freely available like air and water. Many feminists are also critical because such an attitude affects the dignity of women. It is said that 'invisible', 'unrecognisable' labour is often taken for granted and unappreciated. As Gnanadason writes, what happens in actual practice is that women are taken for a ride, made to do thankless jobs and unrecognised sacrifices (1986: 39). On the other hand, sons' duties are acknowledged through affections, praise and fulfilling their demands. There are cases, parents defend sons even if they are not conducive to family's welfare or are credited for their occasional contribution time to time, just because they are males.

Thus, it is observed that women's works at home are undervalued in most cases be it conscious or subconscious. For this reason, young girls embed their contributions at

home insignificant and internalised acceptance of unequal treatment as normal in the society. As a result, young girls become accustomed to such cultural bias practices and inculcate self-denial and acceptance of a subordinate position since childhood. Self-denial is a special quality if a man possesses it, but defining characteristics of a woman (Wharton 2005: 79). The notion of tolerance and self-restraint are also rooted in a consciously cultivated feminine role which is embedded in and legitimised by cultural ideology (Dube 1988: 180). When they, in turn, grow up and have families of their own, they too implant the same biases in their daughter's psyches, consequently perpetuating this mode of character to generations to come. Differential treatment of female and male children by parents and other socialising agents creates gender differences in behaviour.

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY AND WOMEN DISCRIMINATION

In tribal society in Manipur, as per the custom, women are not allowed to inherit ancestral property. Instead they are given certain moveable domestic articles like almirah, beds, furniture, clothes, shawls, kitchen wares, electronic appliances, etc. for their daily use at the time of their marriage, thereby reinforcing the notion that their role is confined to domestic chores, and her needs should be centred around her family and home.

Daughters' immense contributions are taken for granted. Their affection and concerns for parents, their financial aid and physical care rendered to parents in their old age has no recognition. This can be said first on the basis that when it comes to distribution of land in the family, only sons are considered worthy. Even if the sons do not live with parents. Secondly, the society and parents reinforce and perpetuate gender discriminatory customary law against daughter.

In cases where there are no sons in the family, men of immediate relatives will be requested to intervene in matters of property, even when daughters are capable to handle family property. Parents claimed to treat their children equally but most do not fight against social norms and cultural beliefs and practices that deprived their own daughters from being a complete human being and abstain from equal distribution of property. When asked about the gender-unfriendly cultural practices, one of the mothers, president of a women society replied, "In town, lifestyle and world view is different, beliefs and practices can be reconsidered but when in village it has to be according to the norms whether we want it or not." Most of the parents do not have the strong urge to fight against the gender-unjust social norms but accept traditional gender roles, prejudices against women, gender stereotypes. In Dewlahland, very few respondents

maintained that voice should be raised against the gender unfriendly cultural practices and beliefs.

DAUGHTER AS OUTSIDER

At home, young girls are socialised in a way that they are external. Girls at their young age are imparted the knowledge that the home where one is born and brought up is temporary, both in physical sense and in emotional sense. With this teaching itself, it makes the girls to feel like an "outsider" even at home by their own parents. It also underscores a woman's lack of autonomy with respect to her visits to the natal home. A young married lady [2] narrated, "I used to visit my natal home twice or more times in a year, however parents told me to restrict my visiting to them often. They make me feel like an outsider." Most of the parents do not encourage their married daughters to share the same kind of relationships as they used to share before their marriage, however, many parents do not hesitate to seek their help financially or in sickness more often than sons. On the contrary, in sons' cases, even if they are barely there when parents need them, they are the family's pride and permanent members in the family because they carry the family line. Girls are considered in lesser terms than boys. Patriarchal ideology constructs bias cultural arrangement against women. The ideology of women's subordination requires the precise creation of certain dispositions of mind, and not merely behaviours. Salient among these dispositions are self-denial, lack of autonomy, and acceptance of a subordinate position.

DAUGHTER'S MARRIAGE

In tribal society, there are two types of marriages, firstly, arrange marriage where negotiations are conducted through an elderly lady and secondly, love marriage, here the young boys or girls choose their own life partners. In Dewlahland parents prefer their children to search for life partner when the time is right for they believe that children know what is best for them. One of the mothers[3] said "It is not easy anymore to find alliances for children like it used to be during early times. Today, most of the young boys and girls move out of state for their further studies and we hardly know them." Today, due to change of space and time, it looks like our society is turning into an individualistic society where children are given more liberty to choose one's life partner. However, parents do have certain desires of their children's choice. They prefer endogamous marriage (same community). "I prefer arrange marriage for my children and belonging to the same caste, it might be difficult to find alliance for them but if they are qualified then it won't be difficult" states a non-Christian father[4].

Parents are also concerned for the health of the spouse. A mother

emphasised 'health' as one of the important parameter for the choice of life partners for their adult children. This is because Manipur society today is stricken with social evils such as use of drugs, prostitution, sexual indulgence, alcoholism etc. She narrated the horrendous experience that her sister went through post marriage. Her sister is diagnosed with HIV+ which was transmitted by her husband who was oblivious of dreaded contamination. Thus, because of this reason, the mother stated that health becomes the primary concern factor and foster peruse medical check-up before the commitment.

Children are advised to be 'Shingba (clever)' in looking out for life partner. Clever for parents would mean for instance, boys should look out for girls who have good moral reputation, educated, and responsible and adapt family affairs with tolerance and submissive nature. If she is earning, working either in private and government sectors even in a low rank is a plus point for the family. For girls, the boys have to be economically established. The preference is Government employee or belongs to affluent family. Society is stricken with the awe of Government jobs whereas working in private sectors are yet to receive positive outlook. Government officials are highly respected in the society and therefore to earn social respect is considered imperative

for parents and kins. In the urge to gain social respect, a respondent [5] narrated her excruciating experience. Her mother forcefully marries her away when she was barely 18 years to a man double her age. She was studying in a reputed college and was very ambitious. She wanted to become a Doctor but this dream was short lived when her youth days and dreams were robbed by her mother's merciless insatiability for money and social status. Despite of the persistent protest by the relatives, she was married off to a divorcee man, father to a son. However, his marital status was not a factor for her mother as he was a Government servant in a good position.

According to the findings, it is observed that although the liberty to choose life partner is given to children, yet daughter's choices are more subjected to scrutiny. Their individuality is subdued and suppressed due to the greed of social respect.

IMPACT OF LANGUAGE IN GENDER SOCIALISATION

It is not an attempt to conceptualise and explain how children learn to speak languages but, it is an attempt to investigate the use of language to boys and girls in mitigating their action in order to distinguish gender roles and examine the impact of language usage in emancipation of a girl child. Mead (1934) wrote about the importance of patterns

of language usage, primarily with reference to the implications for the listener. He emphasised the socio-generic origins of the self through interactions with others. According to Mead, the self was not an existential entity, but rather a construction of personhood through habitual interactions. Socialisation is a lifelong process which is accomplished primarily through communicative interactions in the cultural setting. These messages, communicated mainly through language, are the substance from which the child actively constructs a world view. Language is an extremely potent tool for repressing or emancipating any social relations (Cameron 1998: 148). It can play an important role in the development of individual psychology.

As seen in the light of the above, girls are constraints to do things that interest them such as playing outdoor games like football, carpentry work, and visit friends etc. which according to parents are labelled as work of boys. For example, if a girl climbs the tree then she is chided by saying 'Are you a boy that you are climbing the tree?' if a girl is good at playing football and volleyball then 'she plays just like a man', if she is not allowed to meet her friends while her brother can then 'boys are boys, they are different'. According to West and Zimmerman (1987), if we do gender appropriately, we simultaneously reproduce and legitimate patriarchal hegemonic standards that are based on sex category.

Girls are considered vulnerable whereas boys as strong in the socialisation process. Her capability is denounced by bias explanations and therefore, it leads to gradual developing of self denial in her personality. Language is patriarchal and therefore carries and reflects gender biases and gender inequalities. To make the matter worse is the use of abusive language such as Kashubi (prostitute), Hin-cha-bi (witch), which is sexist and directed mostly towards girls/women folk.

On the other hand, the use of gender-neutral language is important for girls in their empowerment. For instance, there was a 7 years old little girl crying bitterly, when enquired by her mother, she so innocently said that her friends (all boys) in a running race left her behind, they didn't wait for her in which her mother replied "why do you have to cry if you can't defeat them, you should have run faster". It is the use of gender just language that boosts the confidence of girl child and which will greatly impact her personality. This kind of gender just language mitigation on children's action needs to be used. From a contextual perspective, feminists claim that gender norms cannot be changed only at the institutional levels but also must be addressed at the interactional level (West and Zimmerman 1987). There are other factors also that restrict their movements in the name of gender and therefore pull girls down to subservient position which affects

not only their personality but also their mindset. It is through language that girls are learning that the relations between the sexes are power relations where men are dominant and in control, while women are subordinated and inferior. This leads to low level of confidence among women and they imbibe inferior complex which affects their everyday lives. Thus, there is a need to provide gender neutral or gender sensitive language so as to impregnate gender equality mindset.

POLITICS: A MAN'S WORLD

Both men and women, in Manipur, believe that politics is a man's world. It is men who occupy centre stage in the politics. At home, political talks are mostly dominated by men and this is more common in rural areas. Male headed society is yet to accept and encourage women to participate in political sphere, and so, women in Manipur still hold abysmal low position in political participation. A handful of women have become MLAs despite of women constituting half the population in Manipur. However, in almost every state election, it is reported that women voters outnumber men. Women actively participate in casting their votes but one should not overlook the adverse activities at the backdrop. Women outnumber men because female voters are the soft targets and are easily lured to perform unfair

means under men's control. These iniquitous practices are mostly instigated by men when it comes to politics. Women in the family are instructed whom to vote for and most importantly young children become aware of political socialisation and thereby young girls internalises that politics is a man's world.

GIRL CHILD: TRADITION AND MODERNITY

Due to emergence of education, social changes have taken place; change of house structure, lifestyle became westernised, local medicines were replaced by scientific medicines, food habits, better infrastructure, etc. A mother in 50s recalls, "We are grateful that Christianity came along with education. Our society has benefited in numerous ways. But, social relations today have become complicated due to the emergence of globalisation and sophisticated technology." Changes occur at fastest pace today, youngster considered the elders thinking belong to school of old thoughts. Moreover, the wide gap of behavioural and attitudinal changes between the girls then and now is conspicuous as many mothers shared their memories of their youth-as young and compared it with young girls of today. The table below shows the behavioural and attitudinal changes of girls in tradition and modern period as told by them to the researcher.

Table 1

Presenting behavioural change among young girls

Behaviour in Traditional society	Behaviour in Modern society
Ignorant	Clever
Performed household chores dutifully	Focus on studies
Less competent	More competent
Conventional in dressing sense	Fashionable
Respect elders	Lack of respect
Less worries	Pressure and tensions
Limited wants	Unlimited
Introvert	Extrovert

Source: Compilation of information collected from 80 respondents (parents), Dewlahland

From Table 1, it is observed that due to urbanisation, modernisation, globalisation and hi-tech era, a shift has taken in the process of socialisation. The table depicts colossal differentiation between the young girls of past days. Conflict and resistance in the family has aggravated because there is an imbalance in the interests, attitudes and behaviour pattern between children and parents. This is evident because gender stereotypes of a girl child continue to withhold traditional mindset. There is constant conflict of self identity and interests of oneself among the younger generation. Due to competitive world, children have become more individualistic and do not have many friends. They have become aggressive by nature and suffer from mental stress. It is found that girl child are becoming bold and independent. It is precisely because of different types of exposure. In sharing the power relations with men, many women have started to share the parallel space, however, due to constant cultural negotiation of gender identity, women still continue to witness the secondary position in family in particular that has a huge impact on women becoming fully empowered. The dynamism of patriarchy is the biggest enemy for women's empowerment in Manipur society, which can be generalised to whole Indian society and the world.

Globalisation and its impact on gender differences in the family

Manipur, as we know is a small state in North East India could not remain unaffected by Globalisation. At the outset, in economic terms globalisation keeps Manipur connected with the rest of the world at large. Due to increased job opportunities in market, the attitude of people has changed towards education, lifestyle, health, fashion, outlook on male and female etc. Everyday there are advertisements for the new jobs on the one hand and government reports on the creation of

new jobs on the other. These media advertisements and reports also highlight specific educational and professional qualification required or necessary for applying. It is found that in Dewlahland, parents give importance to education. They send their young children to schools based in the valley and adolescence children post-higher secondary are sent to other neighbouring states such as Shillong and Guwahati and mostly to metros like Delhi and Bangalore for further studies. The education of girl child in Manipur has been an important issue for a lot of women and progressive minded men.

It is believed that, formal education is clearly one of the strongest assets for the growth and development of confident and progressive women. Education facilitates women to have a better chance in life. However, it is observed that at the primary level of education, there is usually a high female enrolment, but by secondary and tertiary levels enrolment drops. One of the mothers said that "boys education is taken more seriously, we neglect to encourage girls when they do not want to pursue further studies." Thus, many women who have higher education today have either achieved it on their own or were simply lucky to have found themselves in a place, where they could be educated outside their nuclear families. The low level and lack of education seriously disadvantaged many women that they are unable to reap the positive fruits of globalisation, which makes them worse off as they have to survive in an inflation prone economy/society. Economic fluctuation has taken a toll in the lives of people in Manipur. Due to this reason, monetary security has become the central focus for the families. Parents opined that they will want their educated daughter-in-law to earn if there is a need to generate income in the family. Moreover, their attitude towards sending their daughters outside the state has changed. They have started sending their daughters to cities like Delhi, Bangalore and Mumbai to pursue education and to earn.

The impact of globalisation on the young girls has been interesting. On the one hand, it has allowed them to occupy the economic space, with opportunities for higher education means higher pay raising their self-confidence and independence. Globalisation has provided a power to uproot the traditional views about women that have kept them economically poor and socially exploited. The growth of the computer and technology sector has provided middle class young girls the capacity to negotiate their role and status within the household and society. On the other hand, gender traditional roles continue to hinder their movements. For most women, their domestic responsibilities are not alleviated. Additionally, prostitution and abuse are on rise in Manipur despite globalisation and some say that the materialistic greed is one of the main causes. Globalisation

has not improved much the lives of women. It has not been able to bring transformation in the attitude to eliminate gender bias. There is no or less sign of resistance from the women sides against the discrimination and deprivation meted out to young girls in the society. Most of the respondents are happy to perform the role assigned to them since their childhood by their parents and other social agencies.

Conclusion

Differential treatment of boys and girls in the family socialisation is insidious. The practice of traditional gender roles shapes one on the basis of gender stereotype, gender identity and places the young boys and girls in masculine and feminine roles by creating boundaries, for the two, with dos and don'ts. Gender ideologies are frequently hierarchical and sexual inequality is embedded in thought, language and social institutions. The socio-cultural practices and social norms that favour men in turn deprive the freedom of young girls in the family in particular. For this reason, the preference of son is inherent in the male dominated society. Socialisation process in the family is gendered and produces gender inequality. Since childhood, young girls are socialised to internalise certain dispositions of mind vis-à-vis self denial, lack of autonomy, and acceptance of subordinate position, thus depriving of her individuality. Therefore, the whole process stops young girls from becoming an empowered being in their later life. Today, the grave concern is to socialise young girls in a gender sensitive atmosphere for them to inherent the right mindset of gender equality and developed personality that enables them to stand in equal footing with men.

End notes

1. Interview with Mr. Singh, a businessman on 28th September 2010 at his residence, Dewlahland.
2. Interview with Mrs Komuni, an educated housewife on 22nd November 2010 at her residence, Dewlahland.
3. Interview with Areiti, a private teacher on 11th December 2010 at her residence, Dewlahland.
4. Interview with Mr. Singh, op.cit.
5. Interview with Mrs. Kayini, an educated housewife on 12th December 2010 at her residence, Dewlahland.

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Disabled Children in Inclusive Classrooms
Behavioural Problems and Behaviour Management Strategies

FARZANA SHEHLA*

Abstract

Every child is unique and behaves differently in different situations. Most of these behaviours are normal and do not pose any threat for child. But behaviour such as regular temper tantrums or aggressive outbursts may become difficult to handle and often teachers regard these as behaviour problems. These behaviours prove hurdle for children as well as classroom transactions. Generally termed behaviour problems, these difficult behaviours are sometimes considered part of the expected developmental process and sometimes diagnosed as conduct disorders and affect a number of children. These behaviour problems significantly interfere with their ability to learn and develop. It is very difficult for a teacher to handle all sorts of behaviour problems in a classroom. The problem gets intensified if children with disability are included in the classroom as a part of inclusion process. Inclusion provides opportunities to these children to participate in education with non disabled children without any discrimination. But if the class comprises of a good number of children with one or other kind of disability along with normal children in inclusive classroom then the responsibility of teacher increases. Different types of disability bring with it various kinds of associated behaviour problems in the classroom. This complicates the teaching learning process. This theoretical paper focuses on the behaviour problems of children with different types of disability in the classroom after inclusion and also reflects on the challenging role of teachers in making classroom teaching effective. There are many strategies presented in this paper to help teachers succeed in their endeavour.

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INTRODUCTION

Every child is unique and behaves differently in different situations. Most of these behaviours are normal and do not pose any threat for child. But behaviour such as regular temper tantrums or aggressive outbursts may become difficult to handle and often teachers regard these as behaviour problems. Although behaviour problems include range of behaviours, which can be considered part of the expected developmental process, these are also sometimes diagnosed as 'conduct disorders' and affect a number of children and significantly interfere with children's ability to learn and develop.

BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS IN DISABLED CHILDREN

Disabled children like any other children also exhibit many behavioural problems and causes include the direct effect of disability upon the child, the severity of disability, the type of disability etc. The most common of these behaviours are the self-injurious and stereotypic behaviours. Self-injurious behaviours lead to physical harm and include banging head, biting, scratching self and many such responses that inflict direct harm on the individual. This may be the result of higher levels of pain tolerance, or to get attention, or may be organic. On the other hand stereotypic behaviour is the repetitive behaviour that persists for long periods of child and others. The reasons for growing aggression may include fear, anger etc. Refusing reasonable requests, running off instead of coming when called, becoming limp and dropping to the floor, resisting transitions, not performing chores or duties are few of the non-compliant/ disruptive behaviours observed in children. The reason could be attempt to control others or it may be an attempt to exert independence. Disability also causes inappropriate social behaviour which includes failure to have learned more appropriate social skills and rules - stripping, showing affection to strangers, stealing or hoarding, lying, masturbating in public, swearing or shouting. These children also lack self-regulation over bodily functions and show copresis, enuresis, drooling, and tongue thrust like behaviours.

Other than the above, there are other behavioural issues of children suffering from disability. A child become drowsy and has impaired attention due to epileptic seizures. Epilepsy can also become the cause for unusual or challenging behaviour and lead to abnormal perceptions. Children suffering from hearing problems face difficulty in following instructions. Sometimes, not hearing what's been said can be mistaken for not doing what they are told. Tourette's syndrome involves repetitive, involuntary jerking movements of the face or body (motor tics) and sudden outbursts of noise or swearing (vocal tics). Repetitive obsessive behaviour and problems with anger control are sometimes seen. Autism and

Aspergers syndrome are associated with difficulties in verbal and non verbal communication, social skills, imagination and obsessive preoccupations. So, a child with Asperger's syndrome may hide under a desk when becomes overwhelmed from sensory overload due to being in a busy classroom. Depression and anxiety disorders can cause poor concentration, irritability and restlessness. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) children are hyperactive, feel difficulty in concentrating and sticking to tasks. A student with severe attention difficulties or extreme sensory processing disorders might be highly distracted or distressed by the presence of other students while they are at work. Students with behavioural problems may not feel accepted by other members of the class, and this puts them at high risk of academic failure. Children with learning disability may develop anxiety when asked to read in front of others and become very disruptive. A child with an Attachment Disorder may lash out when he feels threatened in any way. Behaviour problems in children are most often referred to as being either internalising or externalising in nature, and can include behaviours that are a danger to oneself or to others, such as self-injury, self-isolating or biting and hitting. A number of studies consistently have reported that children with learning disabilities have behavioural problems. About 39 to 54% of learning disabled children had more behavioural problems than normal children and both internalising and externalising problems are associated with learning disabilities (Epstein et al, 1986). Other studies have found that perceptual motor difficulties, poor concentration, hyperactivity and low self esteem were associated with learning disabled children. Research has also shown that challenging behaviour has negative consequences for children, including rejection from peers, poor academic outcomes and increases in the risk of children becoming recurrent juvenile offenders (Bhavani K., 2007). Children with developmental disabilities often have communication difficulties and so may display challenging behaviour as a way of communicating their needs and wishes. Children perform well in one task while struggle to perform other tasks. This mismatch between ability, expectations and outcomes can cause terrific disappointment and upset resulting in a cascade of emotions and behaviours that can interfere with everyday functioning in school, at home and in the community. Children with disabilities perceive problems for social interactions. Children with neuromuscular diseases (NMDs) may be affected by a range of mental health problems, including personality disorders, social problems, attention deficits, affective disorders, anxiety and depression. (Darkea J., Bushbyb K, Couteurc A.L., McConachied H., 2006)

INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS

Inclusion is not a new term today. Special education for children with special needs emphasises inclusion which, in broader sense, is about the child's right to participate and the school's duty to accept the child. Inclusion rejects the use of special schools or classrooms to separate students with disabilities from students without disabilities. International organisations particularly UNESCO, now see inclusive schooling as an effective approach in the education of this class of learners. Inclusion refers to the "full-time placement of children with mild, moderate and severe disabilities in regular classrooms" (Garuba A., 2003).

An inclusive classroom is comprised of students with special educational needs along with normal children. But all students with disabilities cannot be included in the regular classrooms because of their effect on other students. For example, students with severe behavioural problems, such that they represent a serious physical danger to others, are poor candidates for inclusion, because the school has a duty to provide a safe environment to all students and staff. However, most students with special needs can attend school, are not violent, do not have severe sensory processing disorders, etc and can be selected for inclusion. The students who suffer from physical disabilities that have no or little effect on their academic work, students with all types of mild disabilities, and students whose disabilities require relatively few specialised services are generally included in a normal classroom.

TEACHERS' ROLE IN BEHAVIOURAL MANAGEMENT

Teachers are often faced with great rewards and challenges when supporting children in inclusive classrooms, particularly when problem behaviour may arise. It is very difficult for a teacher to handle all sorts of behaviour problems in a classroom. Different types of disability bring with it various kinds of associated behaviour problems in the classroom. This complicates the teaching learning process. The role of teachers in handling these problems is very crucial and they must know proper ways to manage inappropriate behaviours. First step is responding appropriately to problem behaviour. How should teachers respond when children with problem behaviour are included in the classroom? The most effective tool to handle problem behaviour is to prevent it from occurring in the first place. Teachers should respond by understanding why a child might be engaging in problem behaviour, and then establishing strategies that prevent that behaviour from occurring. Problem behaviour often occurs in children when they try to avoid something/work, demand attention from somebody and some internal reason within the child (e.g. constant

moving in the chair because the child has ADHD). Secondly, teachers should be creative enough to use different strategies for managing problem behaviours in his/her classroom. There are two types of approaches in behaviour management. Eliminating undesirable behaviour is one way while educative approach which encourages adaptive behaviour and promotes maximum participation of individual in meaningful, daily activities is another one. Instruction and process of behaviour control goes on simultaneously.

BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM

There are effective strategies that can support teachers and their students who exhibit challenging behaviour. According to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 1975) children with disabilities must be given education along with children who are not disabled and in the case of a child whose behaviour impedes his or her learning or that of others appropriate strategies including positive behavioural intervention strategies and supports must be used to address that behaviour. Behaviour of children can be shaped by concerted efforts by teachers who are continuously engaged with them. Few of the behaviour management strategies are as follows–

Giving Reinforcement– This is a most commonly used strategy for dealing with classroom behaviours. It includes positive reinforcement (presenting something positive that increases targeted behaviour) and negative reinforcement (taking away something aversive that increases targeted behaviour).

Creating the Behaviour Plan– There is logic behind the behaviours. The challenge is to understand its context. The teacher must observe the behaviour; when does it occur, where does it occur and why he/she think it occurred, Individual differences should be recognised and considered as part of the inclusion process.

Exploring the Consequences– It includes teacher's observation regarding what happened when the behaviour occurred, when did these consequences take place and how did the student respond to these consequences.

Considering Alternatives– Moving student, regrouping class, rearranging environment, changing time of activity, changing class format etc. can help dealing with problem behaviours. In order to facilitate a better understanding of the things the student finds difficult or stressful, open communication between his/her teacher and parent/carer is very helpful.

Understanding Disability and Teaching New Skills– Children's behaviour problems point to the need for an understanding of the child's disability and the behaviours the disability may cause and teaching children new skills such as how to play friendly at recess instead of hitting others can work. Combining easy tasks with hard tasks is another way, as problem behaviour is likely

to occur with more challenging academic tasks. If behaviour escalates and the child is unable to follow the instructions/rules, teacher must minimise the verbal interaction and instructs the child to have some time in the quiet and safe place, and if necessary the child is led to the area. Bringing Change in routine– As it is in the case of all children, following the same routine (though very important) may become monotonous for children with disability very soon. In such situation an excursion or other such activity can work in bringing the child's interest back. For the new situation the teacher must provide the child prior warning as possible so the child has time to mentally prepare; for example allowing the child some time looking at pictures of the place he will be visiting.

Minimising the Stress Level– The cause of increased stress in students (like noisy unstructured activities, new tasks or activities, changes in routine etc.), must be taken care of. Social interaction for a long period of time also overwhelms students who struggle with social skills. Teachers must arrange a screened off area with a bean bag and some boxes with activities that are soothing, such as building blocks, toy cars etc. for children when they are overwhelmed. Another good alternative is to provide a physical outlet for the stress, such as running an errand, or lifting and carrying something heavy in the classroom. It is important to understand the underlying cause of the stress response and work accordingly. The student would benefit from taking part in structured group activities to help consolidate social skills. The student may need teacher explaining the rules and what to expect beforehand, therefore minimising potential anxiety/stress.

Keeping the Expectation Low– Children with disabilities often develop considerable stress or anxiety (about their performance and ability to complete school work) and exhibit difficult behaviours. In these instances, expectations need to be lowered to meet the child's current level of ability in order for him to experience success. This in turn builds confidence and better enables him to attempt harder work. Students must also be explained what exactly is expected of them when participating in some work to reduce their anxiety in relation to completing school work or other activities. Teacher can provide special job that the student can perform at the start of each day can boost the self esteem. Some children like re-ordering materials such as books in the classroom, and this can serve as a stress relieving activity, or having access to things they can fiddle with.

Proper Seating Arrangements– Seating is usually very important to help minimise distractions. The teacher must try to place the student where there are minimal visual and auditory distractions. Sensory processing difficulties cause a child to be either hypersensitive (over

response) or hyposensitive (under response) to various sensory stimuli, with each child vary in their sensitivity to different things and the degree of sensitivity. Due to an uncomfortable seating position, background noise, or even a smell, the child suffers considerable stress and anxiety. Behaviours are then generated in an attempt to reduce the stress or escape from the situation. Students may feel uncomfortable when sitting on the carpet and listening to the teacher. In such instances, alternative seating can be arranged to help minimise the difficulties and therefore help to minimise the distractions. It may be easier for the student to sit in a chair or cushion. Also a stress ball or something tactile may help satisfy

a need for tactile sensation and can help to reduce unwanted behaviours.

Conclusion

Behaviour problems are part of growing up and difficult behaviours are always challenging for teachers. Teachers need diverse thinking when dealing with both types of children (with and without disability). Different types of disability demand different management strategies. It is important for teacher in an inclusive classroom to design activities keeping in mind the requirements of children with disabilities. Understanding the problems and using proper management techniques can help in smooth functioning of all the activities in inclusive classroom.

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