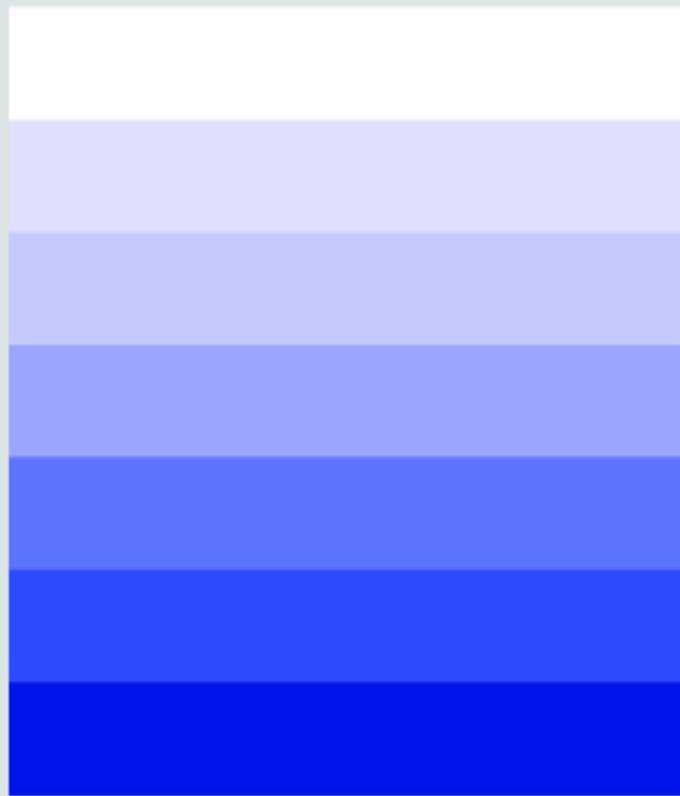


SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Volume 10 . 2013



SAARC

**SAARC JOURNAL
OF
EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH**

Volume, 10. 2013

ISSN 1391-1880

Editor

DAYANANDA KEPPEGODA

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

SRILANKA

SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Volume 10, 2013

© All Rights Reserved

ISSN 1391 - 1880

Printed by :

Press
National Institute of Education
Maharagama
www.nie.lk

SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

SAARC Journal of Education Research is an annual publication. It is published by the National Institute of Education, Maharagama, Sri Lanka, the Regional Co-ordinator for Educational Research for SAARC countries for dissemination of research findings. The editor will be happy to receive a feedback on papers published in the journal. All correspondence should be addressed to:

The Editor
SAARC Journal of Educational Research
National Institute of Education
Maharagama
Sri Lanka
Tel. 0094-1-7601601 Ext. 785
Fax 0094-1-7601778
e-mail: dkeppetigoda@nie.lk

SUBSCRIPTION RATES

The Subscription price for a single issue including postage is,

Local - Rs. 140.00
Foreign - £ 1.50

ORDERING INFORMATION

Subscription orders and requests for sample copies should be sent to:

Director (Publications)
National Institute of Education
Maharagama
Sri Lanka
Tel. 0094-1-7601670
Fax 0094-1-7601622
e-mail: nie.lk@hotmail.com

The views expressed by the authors are their own and not necessarily reflect the policies of the N.I.E (Sri Lanka)

Copyright; National Institute of Education, Maharagama, Sri Lanka.
ISSN 1391-1880

It is a condition of publication that manuscripts submitted to this journal have not been published and will not be simultaneously submitted or published elsewhere. By submitting a manuscript authors agree that the copyright for their article is transferred to the publishers, if and when the article is accepted for publication. The copyright covers the exclusive right to reproduce and distribute the article, including reprints, photographic, microforms or any other reproductions without permission in writing from the copyright.

SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Vol 10. 2013

Editorial Board

Prof. W. M. Abeyrathna Bandara, Sri Lanka

Prof. N. K. Ambasht, India

Dr. M. Chaudhry, Pakistan

Prof. W. A. De Silva, Sri Lanka

Dr. S. A. Ghaffar, Pakistan

Prof. Chandra, Gunawardena, Sri Lanka

Prof. Swarna Jayaweera, Sri Lanka

Dr. S. Lamichhane, Nepal

Prof. M. L. Raina, India

Prof. S. Sandarasegaram, Sri Lanka

Editor Dayananda Keppetigoda, NIE, Sri Lanka

Former Editors

L. A. Abeyratne

M. A. P. Munasinghe

Manjula V. Vithanapathirana

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

1. **Ms. Fereshteh shirzad** is a PhD student of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran. She has recently published an ISI article in International Journal of Academic Research and a book in Lambert Academic Publication. Both are about 'Gender Differences in EFL Academic Writing'. She has also attended two conferences in TELLSI 11. She is interested in doing research about CALL, CAT, SET, assessment, psychology, motivation, feedback, uptake, etc.

Email : fereshteh.shirzad.66@gmail.com

2. **Dr. Geetika Dutta** is a lecturer in the Faculty Development and Research Centre (FDRC), Army Welfare Education Society(AWES) Headquarters, Shankar Vihar, New Delhi, India. Her research interests are Business Education, Curricular issues, Instruction and Instructional Technology, Assessments and Evaluation and Teacher Education. She has published number of Research papers in National and International Journals.

Email : geetikamehtadutta@gmail.com

3. **Ms. Nazua Idris** is a lecturer in Stamford University since January 14, 2012. Her areas of interest are cultural studies, postcolonial literature, film and adaptation studies, gender studies, comparative literature, teacher education, and teaching language through literature. She has presented papers in eight International Conferences in Malaysia, India and Bangladesh.

Email : nazuaidriskanta@gmail.com

4. **Dr. Narendra Kumar** is the Assistant Professor of the Department of Education, S.G.P.G. College, Meerut, India. He is the Co-author of the article "Psychological Stress and its Relationship with Achievement of Science Students of Army Schools"

Email: dmnarendra09@gmail.com

5. **Dr. Rajive Kumar** is the Assistant Professor of the Department of Education, N.A.S. College, Meerut, India. His field of research interests is Educational Administration and Science Education. He is the Co-author of the article "Psychological Stress and its Relationship with Achievement of Science Students of Army Schools"

Email: drrajive@gmail.com

6. **Ms. Swaleha Sindhi** is a Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education & Psychology, The M.S.University of Baroda, Gujarat, India. Her Research Area is Educational Management, Economics of Education, Quality Assurance in Education, Secondary Education. She is the Vice President of Indian Ocean Comparative Education Society (IOCES).

Email: ms.swalehasindhi@rediffmail.com

SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Volume 10. 2013

Content	Page
Orientations and Motivation in English Language Learning: a Study of Iranian Students at Undergraduate LevelFereshteh Shirzad	01
Analyzing the Dichotomous Relationship between Societal Needs and Market Demand for Business Education: An Indian PerspectiveGeetika Dutta	16
Traditional Culture of School Education vs. Changing Teacher-Student Authority Relationship: A Bangladeshi ELT Classroom ScenarioNazua Idris	43
Psychological Stress and its Relationship with Achievement of Science Students of Army SchoolsNarendra Kumar & Rajive Kumar	67
Inspections: A Measure of Quality Assurance in State Board Secondary Schools of GujaratSwaleha Sindhi	84

Orientations and Motivation in English Language Learning: a Study of Iranian Students at Undergraduate Level

Fereshteh Shirzad

Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran

Abstract

This paper analyzes and determines the various socio-psychological orientations of the undergraduate students at State universities of Iran towards learning English. The study focuses on what is considered as the two most important social psychological variables: attitude and motivation. Domain use is also investigated to know the present linguistics reality of Iran and features important in describing the motivational orientations of students. In effect, the research ultimately shows that students focus on English for its 'functional role' (i.e. its utilitarian value) in limited and discrete domain areas where knowledge of English is required. The author contends, therefore, that the Iran linguistic reality impacts these important socio-psychological factors of the learners and ultimately shapes their idea about learning 'English'. The investigation also demonstrates that the learners learn English for 'instrumental' reasons as opposed to previous research conducted in Iran, which concluded that 'integrative motivation' as being the dominant motivational orientation for the students to learn English. This study of the social-psychological variables of the students will possibly provide additional insights in better identifying existing motivational challenges and in taking a more realistic perspective about the ELT (English Language Teaching) situation in the country. Finally, some recommendations on future directions for this research area in Iran have been highlighted.

Key words : motivation, orientation, English language

Introduction

During the different educational eras in Iran, education has worn different costumes matching with the political, economic, and religious trends of the time. Before the mid-nineteenth century, it was common in Iran for education to be associated with religious institutions. The clergy assumed responsibility for instructing the youth in basic literacy and the fundamentals of religion. Knowledge of reading and writing was not considered necessary for the whole population, and thus education generally was restricted to the sons of the economic and political elite.

During the Pahlavi era (1925-79) the government implemented a number of policies aimed at modernizing the country and so expanded the education system. The entire public system was secular and for many years was based upon the French model. Its objective was to train Iranians for modern occupations in administration, management, science, and teaching languages.

Learning a new language depends on so many factors such as the learners, the teachers, the environment in which the learning event is taking place, the purpose of learning, and more importantly the textbooks. There is no doubt that motivation is an important stimulus to learn a language. For the EFL learners, the textbook is the major source of contact learners have with the language apart from the input provided by the teacher.

Iranian students study English for nearly seven years (3 years in secondary school, 3 years in high school and 1 year in Pre-university), yet the education they receive neither enables the students to attain full competence in using the English language nor helps them to interact with confidence. Nowadays, there are some private English institutes that teach conversation helping students have good fluency and accuracy in speaking English.

A substantial amount of research has been conducted in the study of motivation in second/foreign language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1959) Clement, Gardner, and Smythe. 1977; Gardner, Smythe, and Clement (1979) conducted extensive research on attitude and motivation and their correlation with linguistic performance of learners. They proposed that the successful learner of an L2 must be psychologically prepared to acquire symbolic elements of a different ethno-linguistic community, and to impose elements of another culture into one's own life space (Khanna & Agnihotri, 1994).

The primary purpose of this study is to examine individual and social variables in learning English as a foreign language and to investigate the domains of English of

relevance to the undergraduate students of the State universities in Iran. A socio-psychological investigation of the learner is important in both understanding the learning situation and the learners' mindset towards English. This paper highlights that Iranian students learn a foreign language mainly for its utilitarian value rather than integrative motivation. In this context, the work of Gardner and Lambert is highlighted to show that the very definition of instrumental and integrative orientation is debatable and problematic in regard to the motivation for Iranian students toward English language learning. Whereas Gardner's socio-educational model may still hold true for certain countries, it may not be applicable for Iran, considering the country's linguistic realities including domain usage.

With the present learner-centric teaching process where the teacher is the only monitor, the most effective way to get insights into the learning process is to study the learner's attitude towards learning English language. The learner's attitudes relate immediately to the language-learning situation and the environment as a whole. It is generally agreed that positive attitudes facilitate the learning process, though attitudes do not necessarily determine behavior. After all, attitude is one of the variables which affect behavior. An investigation into learner's attitudes is a means by which language teachers, education planners, syllabus designers and researchers can gain greater insight into the language learning /teaching process. Kachru (1994) mentions, 'Attitude concerning the ontological status of the verities of English is one of the keys to understand the role of English in its world context'.

For an obvious reason adult learners at the university level have been selected. The fact is that young children, especially in schools are more ambivalent in terms of job objective. As well as they may not have a genuine interest in acculturation. It is more appropriate to investigate the attitudinal and motivational level of graduate students, as the issue of psychological maturity comes into the fore. As they are expected to have a better understanding of their future careers, their attitude would obviously be different and that would influence their learning process.

Attitudes, Motivation and Second Language Learning

There is a wide variety of factors such as: *age, attitude, motivation, aptitude, amount of exposure, and anxiety, etc.* in second language learning. These are also responsible for individual differences in learning a second (L2) / Foreign Language (FL). In social psychology, it is a widely accepted fact that learner's individual differences have significant impact on the learner's overall L2/FL performance. That is why the major focus of the recent research in social psychology has been on various social psychological

variables like, attitude, motivation, age, aptitude, anxiety, intelligence etc, and their impact on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Gardner (1985) proposes that second language acquisition is 'truly a socio-psychological phenomenon. It is concerned with the development of communication skills between an individual and members of another cultural community'.

Surely, the degree of success in acquiring a second or foreign language (L2) is to a large extent determined by learners' individual differences such as aptitude, attitudes, and motivation. This remains an established fact in research (Baker 2001; Gardner 2001; Gass & Selinker 2001). Through undeniably psychological phenomena, these differences cannot be explained on purely mental grounds. "The original impetus in L2 motivation research comes from the social psychology since learning the language of another community simply cannot be separated from the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question (Moiinvaziri, 2008, p.126)". This is because an ESL/EFL learner's motivation in language learning is affected by his/her attitudes towards learning the language. The relation between motivation and attitudes has been considered a prime concern in language learning research. Gardner and Lambert (1972, p.3) state that "his (the learner) motivation to learn is thought to be determined by his attitudes towards the other group in particular and by his orientation towards the learning task itself". Besides, Lifrieri (2005), emphasizes that "attitudes are important, but insufficient conditions for linguistic attainment (ibid, P.14)". Only when works together with motivation proper do attitudinal tendencies related to the levels of student's engagement in language learning, and to attainment". Stephen Krashen (2002) hypothesizes the 'affective filter' that consists of various psychological factors, such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence, which can strongly enhance or inhibit second language acquisition. An input rich environment is required where the learners can be relaxed, motivated and self-confident in acquiring the second language successfully. Krashen (2002) contends that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are well equipped for success in second language acquisition. Ellis (1997) emphasizes reasons that individuals who are motivated to integrate both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience will attain a higher degree of L2 proficiency and more desirable attitudes.

Several studies about motivation of second/foreign language learners usually distinguish between two main types of motivation namely, instrumental versus integrative motivation. Researchers (e.g. Gardner, 1983, p.203; Wilkins, 1972, p.184) have explained and clarified what is meant by an 'integrative motivation' as: "learning a language because the learner wishes to identify himself with or become integrated into the society of the

target language”. In other words, a learner is integratively motivated when s/he learns a language because s/he wants to “know more of the culture and values of the foreign language group... to make contact with the speakers of the languages...to live in the country concerned. It is believed that students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used. This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation, which is believed to underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation (Finegan, 1999, p.568).

In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. Gardner defines instrumental motivation as “learning a language because of someone e or less clearly perceived utility it might have for the learner (ibid, 1983, p. 203)”. In other words, a learner is instrumentally motivated when s/he wants to learn a language “in order to pass an examination, to use it in one’s job, to use it in holiday in the country, as a change from watching television, because the educational system requires it, (Wilkins, 1972, p.184)”. Instrumental motivation is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often a characteristic of second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired. Many researchers (e.g.Spolsky, 1989, p. 160) agree that a language might be learned for any one or any collection of practical reasons.

This paper will analyze and determine the various socio-psychological orientations of the undergraduate students at State universities of Iran towards learning English. The study will focus on what is considered as the two most important social psychological variables: attitude and motivation.

Methodology

Subjects: For the study, 94 students (56 male and 38 female) of 19-23 age group (Mean age 22 years) were randomly selected from Kermanshah State University. The reason for selecting this university is mainly two fold: firstly, since I have been associated with the university, as MA student, this not only gives me a first hand experience of the

students' psychology and attitude towards the learning of English, but also makes my stance more credible, while giving me an opportunity to access the students easily and comfortably. The respondents were the native speakers of Farsi and learned English as a foreign language. The students came from different academic areas (40% from Bachelor of Business Studies, 24.04% from Computer Science, 20.43% from Computer Engineering and 15.53% Electric and Electronics Engineering department). The informants had already received English language instruction for 7 years (right from class one of junior high school to pre-university, English is taught as a compulsory subject).

Procedure: The questionnaire was divided into two major parts to find out the socio psychological and socio-linguistics background of the respondents. The first part was designed to elicit the different domains of English and students' exposure. Part 2 was designed to look into the linguistic attitudes and different types of motivational orientation of students. Since, the students come from different academic and socio economic backgrounds with different levels of proficiency in English, the questionnaire was administered in the mother tongue along with the English original. The purpose and different terms of the questionnaire were explained before the distribution. It was not specified to the respondents that their attitude towards use of English was being investigated. During the completion process of the questionnaire, I was present physically to monitor and also to help the respondents to understand certain parts.

Semi-structured Interview: Five questions were designed to elicit respondents' opinion on major issues concerning English learning. For the interview 20 students were selected on a random basis from 175 students from different English courses. Interviews were conducted in a separate session and were tape- recorded.

Variables investigated

In this study, the major focus was on various socio-psychological variables rather than language proficiency levels which were not tested. The questionnaire was adopted from Gardner's AMTB (1985), and more items were added considering the Iranian sociolinguistic and socio-psychological reality in general and in regards to English in particular.

Following are the variables that were assessed using Likert scale (modified 7 point to 5 scale point) ranging from agreement to disagreement:

- a. Exposure and domain analysis:** Many items are included to find out the students exposure, patterns of language used, etc. to find out the domain of English in the informants day to day life.

- b. Instrumental orientation:** On this scale, there are four items and the respondents are asked to measure their utilitarian reason for learning English; the items indicate the attitude of the learners, where a maximum score (maximum =20) would show their interest for learning English to use it as a tool or utilitarian purpose.
- c. Integrative orientation:** The scale includes four items to find out how much the learners learn English with a genuine interest to assimilate with the target language, culture, community, their way of life, literature etc; this would show their integrativeness toward the target language. A high score (maximum =20) indicates that a student endorses integrative reasons for studying English.
- d. Orientation index.** This sub-test consists of one item. Students are presented with four possible reasons for studying English, two of which stress its instrumental value and other two stress the integrative value. The sub-test is scored dichotomously. Students selecting either instrumental reason are scored 1; those selecting either integrative reason are scored two.

Result and Discussions

The raw data was fed into the computer and then was analyzed by using SPSSXI.5. The results are discussed below.

Instrumental orientation leads

The respondents were asked to indicate on a five point scale to show how important each reason was for their learning English as a foreign language. The focus was on two types of motivational orientation: *Integrative and Instrumental* following Gardner and Lambert's (1972) definition. Eight statements were designed to find out the dominant reason among the undergraduate students of Iran in general and the students of different State Universities in particular.

Table 1: Instrumental motivation (Frequency Distribution and Mean Score)

Score	Q1:English For Graduation		Q2:For Higher Studies		Q3:To become knowledgeable		Q4:To get High Ranking job	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	3	3	0	0	1	1.1	0	0
2	3	3	0	0	5	5.3	2	2.1
3	2	2.1	1	1.1	5	5.3	4	4.3
4	8	8.5	7	7.4	15	16.0	16	17.0
5	78	83.0	86	91.5	68	72.3	72	76.6
Total	94	100	94	100	94	100	94	100
Mean	4.65		4.9		4.53		4.68	
Overall Mean: 4.69								

Q1: Need of English for Graduation

Q2: English will help me to go for higher studies abroad.

Q3: English is important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable

Q4: English will be useful for me in getting a good and high-ranking job in Bangladesh.

Table 2: Integrative motivation (Frequency Distribution and Mean Score)

Score	Q1: Behave like Native Speakers		Q2: Appreciate Literature		Q3: Understand Native Life		Q4: Emulate Native Speakers	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	21	22.3	18	19.1	7	7.4	31	33
2	12	12.8	12	12.8	3	3.2	12	12.8
3	18	19.1	10	10.6	6	6.4	15	16
4	26	27.7	26	27.7	27	28.7	18	19.1
5	17	18.1	28	29.8	51	54.3	18	19.1
Total	94	100	94	100	94	100	94	100
Mean	3.1		3.4		4.2		2.8	
Overall Mean: 3.38								

- Q1: English helps me to think & behave like the native speakers
- Q2: Must learn the necessary English to understand English novels and story books and appreciate English movies; otherwise my English learning will be useless.
- Q3: English will help me to understand better the native English speakers (USA/UK/Aus/NZ) and their way of life.
- Q4: I really like to emulate the native English speakers (USA/UK etc.).

Table 1 and 2 show the respondents' clear inclination towards instrumental orientation. Whereas, only 18.1% of the informants accept that they learn English '*to think and behave like the native speakers of English*', 30% agree with the statement that '*they must learn the necessary English to understand English novels and story books and appreciate English movies; otherwise their English learning will be useless*'. 54.3% of the students agree that '*English will help them to understand the native speakers and their way of life*'. A higher percentage of the students: 83%, 91%, 72% and 77% agree with the respective statements that they learn English because, '*English is needed to complete the graduation successfully*', '*for higher studies abroad*', '*to become a knowledgeable person*', and '*to get a good and high ranking job*'.

With the overall mean score of 4.69, *instrumental* leads compare to the overall mean of *instrumental orientation* that is 3.98. A closer look at the mean scores shows that the two highest scoring questions are *English will help me to go for higher studies abroad* (4.9) and *English will be useful for me in getting a good and high-ranking job in Iran* (4.68). Both are strongly instrumental in nature. The negligible integrativeness the learners show could be termed as instrumentally integrative. Only one statement that falls under integrative orientation shows an interesting finding *i.e.* 54.3% of the respondents agree that they learn English '*to understand better the native English speakers' culture and their way of life*.' Though according to Gardner and Lambert's theory this is integrative orientation. But in Iran's context this could overlap to know other nations' culture through English as a tool to know more about others and could be very much an instrumental orientation for Iranian students. However, the remaining dominant and primary objective to learn English is for its utilitarian value that means to get a good job, to go abroad for higher studies and to complete graduation successfully. The present study further proves that integrativeness is very much negligible for the undergraduate students in Iran's context. Even a country like India, where English is used and taught as an official second language, Agnihotri and Khanna, Lukmani (1972) show instrumental orientation as the dominant trend in India. In Iran there is no scope and place to use English to interact with the native English speakers, and Farsi solely is used as a medium of interpersonal communication. English is only learned and taught for its utilitarian value.

The dominant domain of English usage in Iran seems to be watching English movies in DVD/VCD (37% of the informants accept watching movies *all the time*), Watching Sports program (45% watch sports program *all the time*), and letter writing (only 40% use English *all the time* for letter writing), listening to English songs (35% always). The findings indicate that the respondents hardly read English newspapers, magazine, fiction and non-fiction books; only 36% read English newspapers *sometime*. Only 20% read English newspapers *all the time*. Interestingly 60% do not listen to radio news *at all*, not even a foreign channel (57% do not listen to English news on radio *at all*). One thing is clear that exposure of English through English literature is negligible (28% and 31% never read English non-fiction and fiction books), 38% never writes Diary in English, 18% of the respondents never read English magazines. It is evident that the informants use English only for *entertainment* like watching movies, sport programs or listening to English songs, but they do not take much interest in English books, stories, newspaper or even in reading magazine.

Motivational Orientation

Table 3 further proves that the students' motivation for learning English primarily is instrumental. Where 73% show inclination to instrumental orientation only 27%, show that they are integratively motivated.

Table 3: Orientational Index

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Instrumental	69	73
Integrative	25	27
Total	94	100

Figure 3 explains that females are more integratively motivated than males. 21% of the male informants seem to be integratively motivated, whereas 34% of the female informants seem to be integratively motivated (13% more than the male counterpart). 79% of the males show strong instrumental orientation, whereas 66% female respondents show (13% less than the male counterpart) that they are instrumentally orientated.

N=94 ; Male :56 Female:38

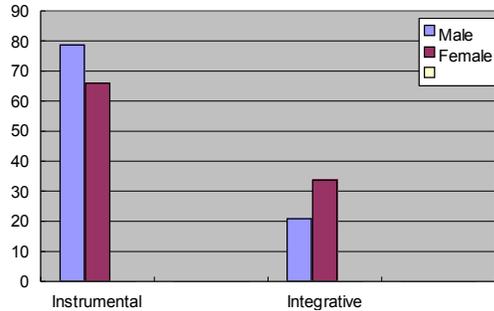


Figure 3: Distribution of Orientation Index by Gender

Semi-structured Interview:

20 students from different disciplines were invited to appear for a semi-structured interview to find out students' opinions about following five relevant issues.

a) Reasons for poor performance in English:

When asked to identify the reasons for the apparent fall of English proficiency level: All of them identified that in the schools and colleges, *English teachers lack competence to teach English*. However, they also identified other reasons along with that, *i.e. tendency for the students to memorize without understanding, limited use of English*. Interestingly, 5 students think *excessive use of Farsi* is the main reason for the deteriorating standard of English.

b) Rationale for learning English:

All the respondents think that English is learned for its utilitarian value, *i.e. getting good job, going abroad for higher study, reading books, traveling etc.* Only one respondent claimed that he learns English so that he can interact with the native speakers comfortably.

c) English course at the university level:

All the respondents believe that they need to continue learning English, even at the university level. When asked the need for English courses at the university level, even after studying for 12 years, all confirmed that *teaching English at the school and college level focused mainly on the Grammatical rules rather than the functional use of English*. All 20 students in the interview, when asked about English courses at the university, express their satisfaction with the English teaching at the university level. Also, when

asked to compare with the courses taught at school and colleges, they deemed the university courses as useful and better taught than that at schools and colleges. It shows the instructional factor plays a vital role on shaping their attitude towards English.

d) Learning other foreign languages:

15 students think that they need to learn *only English*, no other foreign languages is required. However, the remaining 5 suggests that in the globalization context, learning other dominant foreign languages will ensure a better future career. When asked which are the foreign languages that should be learned apart from English, they suggested German, French and Chinese. But when asked about Arabic, they categorically rejected the idea. It is interesting to note that, even in a country where 83% are Muslim, students do not think that it is necessary to learn Arabic as a foreign language.

e) Introducing English

Almost all respondents suggest that English should be taught right from class one (tertiary) along with mother tongue. But according to two respondents, English may be introduced at class five.

Conclusion

The findings present a consistent picture which establishes that the instrumental motivation is the major motivational orientation for the undergraduate students to learn English as a foreign Language in Iran. The study here is able to show that in Iran, the students learn English primarily for instrumental reasons. Iran being a predominantly monolingual country where English is learned more as a foreign language, how far one can apply Gardner's dichotomous definition of instrumental and integrative is debatable. Usually, Iranian students do not have a chance to interact in any form with the native speakers of English. The apparent idea of native speaker is gotten mainly from both electronic and print media that may not give an authentic picture of native speakers. Unlike, a multilingual country such as India, where native speakers are frequent because of a blooming Tourism industry, missionary work, NGOs, spiritual seekers and as a part of globalization process, it may not be unusual for the students to interact with the native speakers. But Iranian students seldom interact with the native speakers. Hence forth, the future research is important to define the integrative motivation in a monolingual country like Iran. For an Iranian student, integrative motivation may mean to integrate and becoming part of the English educated privileged part of the society. A student might want to become a part of English-educated society of Iran and to emulate that way of life rather than

becoming a native speaker of English, culturally and linguistically and about whom they have limited concrete ideas possibly in the first place. For this reason many questions from Gardner's AMTB that are irrelevant were not considered for the present research. The study proves that English is very much domain specific and English is used only for specific purposes; especially limited and restricted within the academic domain. The reason for the findings can be explained as: Iran being a predominantly monolingual country, *Farsi* can serve most of the purposes, English is learned only for its utilitarian value. i.e. to get a good job, to have a successful career, and to go abroad, etc. There are few places to interact with or to befriend those within the target language community. Many of the informants never had a chance to know the native English speaker or even to have a clear idea about their culture. Their knowledge about the target language community is very much limited to books, novels or English movies. So, an integrative orientation may be harder to foster as an important driving force for learning English.

The study did not aim to find out the link between varieties of motivational orientations and the language proficiency of the learners. The future study could aim at these findings that could give more insight into the linguistic realities of Iran. Also, the question may address to whether the instructional role can be designed to increase the integrativeness of the learners to a significant level and whether that could help to elevate the English standard of Iran. The study in the end does not reject or undermine Gardner's theory, rather it tries to find out the reliability and applicability of such theory in a strong EFL country like Iran. The results of the present study though show that instrumental orientation is the major driving force for learning English at the undergraduate level, but the presence of integrativeness also needs to be noted. The mixed findings do not allow one to conclude that in general all students are purely instrumentally motivated. More research in this area needs to be conducted. The language proficiency of integratively orientated students and as well as students with integrative orientation, if investigated further in future research, might give us new insight into Iranian EFL situation.

References:

- Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Banu, R. & Sussex, R. (2001). English in Bangladesh after Independence: Dynamics of Policy and Practice. In B. Moore (Ed.), *Who's Centric Now? The Present State of Post-Colonial Englishes* (pp. 123-157). Oxford: OUP.
- Banu, R. & Sussex, R. (2001). Code-Switching in Bangladesh. *English Today*, 66(17), 51-61.
- Choudhury, I. S. (2001). Rethinking the Two Englishes. In F. Alam, N. Zaman, and T. Ahmed, (Eds.), *Revisioning English in Bangladesh*. Dhaka: The University Press Limited.
- Ellis, R. (1997) *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, (1997), Oxford University Press.
- Finegan, E. (3rd ed, 1999) *Language: Its Structure and Use*, Harcourt Brace.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition, In Z. Dörnyei and R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*, (2001), Honolulu.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and Second Language Learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., & Clément, R. (1979). Intensive second language study in a bicultural milieu: An investigation of attitudes, motivation and language proficiency. *Language Learning*, 29, 305-320.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 13, 266-272.
- Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. (2nd ed., 2001) *Second Language Acquisition, An Introductory Course*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Z. Ghazawi, *Development of Child's Values and Attitudes at Pre-Schooling*, (1993), Publishers and Distributors: Dar Al-Al-Mubtada', Beirut, Lebanon.
- Gumperz, J.J. (1964). Hindi-Punjabi code-switching in Delhi. In *Proceedings of the Ninth International Congress of Linguists*. London: Mouton. As quoted in Verma,
- Kachru, B. (1986). The power and politics of English. *World Englishes*, 5 (2-3), 121-40.
- Kachru, B. (1994). World Englishes and Applied Linguistics in Second Language Acquisition. In R.K. Agnihotri and A.L. Khanna (Eds.), *Socio-cultural and Linguistic Aspects of English In India*. New Delhi (pp. 13-40). Thousand Oaks/ London: Sage Publications.

- Krashen, Stephen.(1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergammon Press.
- Krashen, Stephen.(2002-First Internet edition, December 2002). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. University of Southern California.
- Lifrieri, V. (2005) A sociological perspective on motivation to learn EFL: The case of Escuelas Plurilingües in Argentina, M.A. Thesis, (2005), University of Pittsburgh.
- MacIntyre, P., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.
- Maniruzzaman, M. and Haque, S.M. F. (2000). Attitudinal and motivational impact on EFL proficiency of undergraduates: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of the Institutes of Modern Languages*, 5-30.
- Moiinvaziri, M. (2008). Motivational orientation in English language learning: A study of Iranian undergraduate students, Global practices of language teaching, Proceedings of International Online Language Conference (IOLC), Universal Publishers, Boca Raton, Florida, US.
- Shivendra, K. (1994). Teaching English as Second Language in India: A Socio functional View. In R.K.Agnihotri and A.L. Khanna (Eds.).(1994). *Second Language Acquisition: Socio-cultural and Linguistic aspects of English In India*. New Delhi: Thousand Oaks/London: Sage Publications.
- Siddiqui, Zillur Rahman.(2003, 14 August). English in the Education system: Policy and Strategy. *The Daily Janakantha*.A 3.
- Spolsky, B. (1989) Conditions for Second Language Learning, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spolsky, B. (1969) Attitudinal Aspects of Second Language Learning. *Language Learning*, 19, 271-283.
- Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding The Motivation Construct in Language Learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 505-518.
- Wilkins, D. (1972) Linguistics in Language Teaching, Cambridge: CPU.
- Verma, M.K. (1994). English in Indian Education. In R.K.Agnihotri and A.L.

Analyzing the Dichotomous Relationship between Societal Needs and Market Demand for Business Education: An Indian Perspective

Geetika Dutta

Faculty Development and Research Centre (FDRC), Army Welfare Education Society
(AWES) Headquarters, Shankar Vihar, New Delhi, India

ABSTRACT

The overarching purpose of the paper is to understand the scenario of Business Education in India in its entirety and to examine the relationship between the needs of the contemporary Indian Society with respect to Business Education and the demand for being trained as Business Professionals. Is there a dichotomy between the two? The field of Business Education in India has been expanding at an exponential pace ever since independence in 1947; but is Business Education meeting the needs of the coming of age Indian society? What is the real gain of students in Business Education in terms of gained competencies at various levels? Keeping in mind the choices which students have to make in the Indian education set-up, there is a need to examine the opportunity cost of studying Business at an early stage vis-a-vis other options at various levels. This paper attempts to examine the above curricular issues from a critical perspective in the Indian context.

Key words : Business Education, Curricular issues

Introduction

Business Education in India has had a chequered career. It is comparatively of a recent origin and is one of the younger members of the fraternity of higher education. The origin of commerce education can be traced to the 19th century. In India, traditionally, the dominant indulgence of a specific social group, dynastically and vocationally, in mercantile operations of trading (domestic or cross borders), money-lending, banking, farmer's

financing, etc. has tended to be perceived as commercial concerned with wealth making. Since it remained dynastic process of making wealth and profit on inherited resources, patterns born out of traditions and knowledge/skills coming out of “cottage industry kind” system, it was accorded occupationally a low social rating. (Adapted from: Report of the Empowered Committee to Review the Course Structure of B.Com (H) and B.Com (P) Courses in University of Delhi, 2003). During the colonial environmental, in the initial stages, Business Education had a limited objective of providing clerical and accounting personnel from the local resources to British traders and industrialists with emphasis on training in typewriting, shorthand, letter-writing, accounting and general business methods.

If we go through the historical development of Business Education in India, it appears that it started to play its role as early as 1882. But nothing was seriously done for Business Education at the secondary stage till the Secondary Education Commission in 1953 recommended the diversified courses and commerce stream was included as one of them and in 1977 vocational commerce courses at the post secondary stage were implemented for the first time. Some state boards of Education provide teaching of commerce at the Secondary level but majority of the states start Business Education only at the senior Secondary level i.e. at the +2 stage.

Starting as a vocational course in the initial years, the focus changed with an increase in commercial activities and expansion of Banking, Insurance, Transportation and other related services, to providing liberal Business Education. It began at the University level in 1913 in Mumbai (Sydenham College) and was soon followed by another in Delhi in 1920 (Commercial College, later renamed Shri Ram College of Commerce); but emerged as separate academic discipline with its identity only after independence. With the focus of the economy on industrilization and modernization, Business Education which lacked social acceptability because of its association with lower-rung jobs (babuism), started gaining momentum. Many universities started courses in Business Education and these business colleges imparted basic skills about the principles of trade and commerce to clerks and supervisors from fields such as Banking, Transport and Accounting. On the basis of the recommendation of Indian Education Commission 1962, popularly known as Kothari commission, a distinct stream of education, called vocational stream was introduced at the +2 stage of senior secondary education in the country, with a view to intercepting goalless climb up of youth on the educational ladder and diverting them to a productive path. The focus was put on providing skill-based education and training so that the employability of the pass outs could be improved.

A shift in the social status of Business Education began occurring during the 1980's: distinction was made between commerce and management aspect of Business Education. The focus of Commerce Education was on building a strong foundation about the knowledge of business transactions and processes, primarily from the economics and accounting perspectives. In contrast, Management Education focused on building knowledge about overall business and its various functions, given its stakeholders and the market landscape. It was felt that one needed some disciplinary background, especially in the science or commerce streams, or some work experience to effectively learn management principles (Gupta; Gollakota and Sreekumar; 2005).

Thus, at present there are two distinct streams of education prevailing in the country at the senior secondary level viz. the Academic stream and the Vocational stream. Commerce is being taught both in the academic and the vocational stream. The academic stream is of course dominating as over 95 per cent of all the students of higher secondary pursue academic courses. Of the vocational courses, commerce based courses are quite popular in most states and Union Territories as about 25 per cent of all the vocational students in the country are studying some or other of the 16 different commerce based courses, being offered by the schools running vocational programme (National Council of Educational Research and Training, NCERT, 2008). The focus of the vocational stream, quite clearly is on providing occupation specific education and training to improve employability of the pass out students. Business Education in the academic stream in India at school level is started by many state boards at the secondary school level i.e. IX and X classes (e.g. U.P., Uttarakhand, Bihar, Jharkhand etc.) and others at the senior secondary school stage. The CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education) provides for teaching of Commerce as a subject of study from class XI onwards where papers such as Business Studies, Economics, Accountancy and Entrepreneurship are included. The CBSE does not put any restriction on the students that all these various subjects are to be chosen by the students in tandem. The students are free to choose any subject combination in the elective courses they want i.e. they can choose one subject as Physics along with Economics and Geography. But most of the schools do not allow these kinds of combinations. They generally put a restriction on students to take subjects pertaining to a particular stream like Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, Commerce or Humanities stream.

In recent years business education in India has grown phenomenally. The number of commerce students in 1950 was about 17,900 and this number jumped to 2.5 lakhs in 1970 and to 4.89 lakhs in 1978. By 1980 it approached about 8 lakhs and by 2001 the number had exceeded the figure of 16 lakhs. It is indicated that during the decade 1961-

1971, expansion in business education was faster in rate than rate of the expansion of University Education as a whole. It was the highest among all the faculties. At the undergraduate level in 1971, the enrolments in the commerce stream stood at 17.66% of the total enrolment which increased to 23.00% in the year 2001. Also the proportional growth in Total enrolment in Higher Education by faculty and level reveals that the Commerce stream had registered a overall growth of positive 565.6% in the years ranging from 1971-2001, the highest among all the streams. (Source: Ministry of Human Resource Development (i) Education in India (ii) Selected Educational Statistics, 2008)

Need versus demand for Business Education

A need may be defined as a gap between current and desired results (Rodriguez, 1988). Needs are essentially deficiencies identified (Ballard & Morris, 2003). Therefore, need assessment identifies 'what is' and 'what should be' in terms of results and prioritizes the gaps (Rodriguez 1988, Kaufman 1983). Holistic need assessment process consists of the following steps (1) obtaining perception data (2) obtaining relevant performance data and (3) analyzing all data (Rodriguez, 1988). Demand is an urgent or pressing requirement. Demand for education is made by the prospective students, their parents, employers, and businesses, governmental and other organisations. Demand arises predominantly due to need. But this may not always be true. Real needs of the society may appear at variance with or sometimes contradictory to perceived interests of individuals or groups and as a result they may demand something else which may not coincide with the real societal needs. For example, the social need may be for rural based bare-footed doctors, but the manifest demand is for medical education in super-specialty areas. Another instance of non-conformity in the needs of the society and its demand may be that the educational needs of the society is to produce more and more professionals and para-professionals, but demand may be more for the general degree courses.

Rationale for the present study

The present study seeks to understand the relationship between the needs of the contemporary Indian Society regarding Business Education and the extent to which these needs are reflected in the demand for being trained as Business professionals. What should the academic stream commerce course aim at from the societal point of view? Should it concentrate on preparing students for taking admission in a college? Should it provide only theoretical knowledge about the business processes and procedures or should it also provide opportunities of gaining practical knowledge and skills to the students. If skills are to be provided, the question is what type of skills should it concentrate

on? What kind of skills and competencies do the employers demand from business professionals and what are the factors which they keep in mind while recruiting people? Also what skills and competencies play a crucial role in functioning of people and professionals in the field. This study is also an endeavour to find out the attitudes and perceptions of the students who opt for business courses at Senior Secondary Stage or Under-Graduate stage or at the Post-Graduate level. The main aim of this study is directed towards exploring the efficacy of Business Education at senior secondary level and at higher levels by enquiring into attitudes and perceptions of individuals who have opted for business education as compared to those individuals who have studied other disciplines at Senior Secondary level but opted for Business Education at Under-Graduate level, and others who after graduation and post-graduation in some other discipline opted for a commerce based professional programme like CA, ICWAI or MBA. The focus of the academic stream of education, therefore, needs to be clearly examined.

Methodology

Since, the present study seeks to understand the relationship between needs of contemporary Indian society with respect to Business Education on one hand and the extent to which these needs are reflected in the demand for being trained as Business Professionals on the other hand; it became imperative to make use of both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms for the purpose. For assessing the needs of Indian society and for studying the efficacy of Business Education at various levels, perceptions of people from different segments of Indian society were gauged and analysis of all the documents generated by various agencies of national prominence was done and inferences were drawn. So a combination of survey techniques and documentary analysis had to be used along with certain components of Critical Theory. Documentary Analysis was done of the following documents:

- CBSE Records
- Records of Institute of Applied Manpower Research (IAMR)
- Planning Commission Reports
- Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) Reports
- Ministry of Education Reports
- Various commissions and committees especially the National Curricular Frameworks (NCF 2000 and NCF 2005)
- University Grants Commission (UGC) Records

For ascertaining the demand for Business Education, a thorough analysis of all existing above-mentioned national documents was done and all the relevant statistics

pertaining to Enrolment pattern and Employment pattern in India at different levels were collected and analyzed. It should be noted that the tenets of the study are descriptive and exploratory in nature and perhaps first of its kind in India. Therefore, the study has been dealt with in a predominantly qualitative way. The design of the study is depicted below:

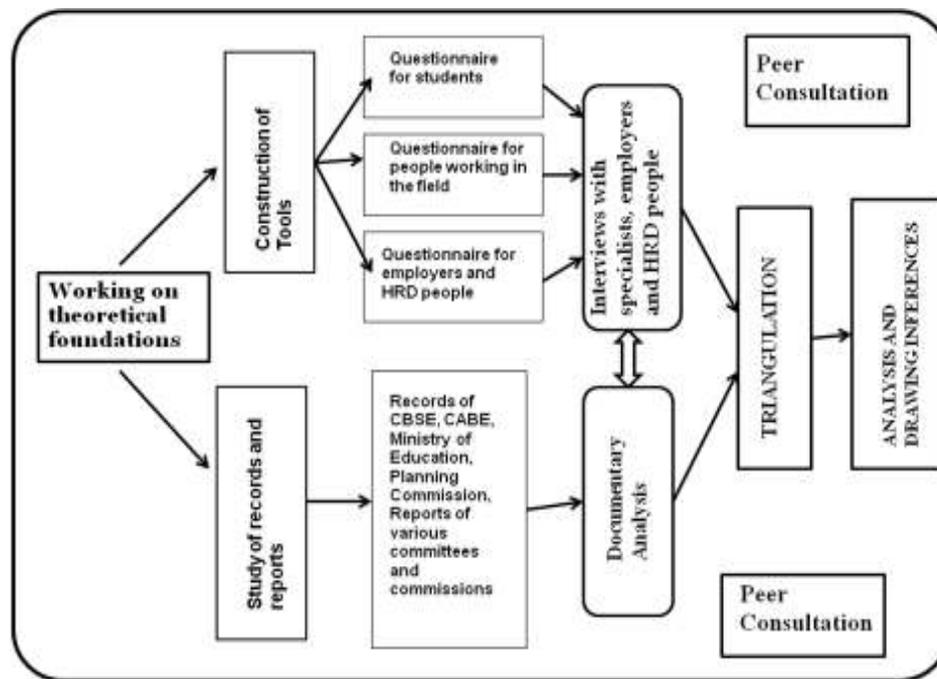


Figure 1: Design of the Study

Sample

In order to analyze the perspectives of various interest groups in the Indian society with respect to Business Education, developed questionnaires along with interviews or focused group discussions were held with the following groups. The method of sample selection was criterion-based or purposeful sampling.

- Students pursuing Business Education at Post-Graduation level: Two sets of sample were drawn to represent the group. The questionnaires were administered to total of 85 students. Out of these 60 students were pursuing MBA course. Half of the sample was drawn from the Faculty of Management Studies (FMS), University of Delhi, Delhi and the other half was drawn from the University School of Management Studies (USMS), Guru Gobind Singh Indraprastha University, New Delhi. The rest of the questionnaires were administered to students pursuing Chartered Accountancy (CA) course after their graduation and students pursuing academic courses like Master of Commerce (M.Com).

- Students pursuing Business Education at Graduation level: Two sets of samples were drawn to represent this group. The first sample of 25 students was drawn from the Institute of Hotel Management, Catering and Nutrition, Pusa Road, New Delhi, and the second sample of 25 students was drawn from other students pursuing Bachelors in Commerce (B.Com) and B.Com (Honors) courses from University of Delhi.
- Persons and professionals working in the field: The questionnaires were administered to various professionals working in diverse field related to Business like Management, Finance, Marketing, Banking, Insurance, HRD people, Advertising, Public Relations, After-Sale functions etc. A total of 36 responses were received by the investigator.
- Employers and (HR) Human Resource people: A total of 8 employers at Higher, Middle and Lower levels were personally interviewed by the investigator by way of detailed structured interview schedule, to get an idea about the kind of skills and attitudes required by employers of the prospective employees. Also they were interviewed on the difference in the performance of employees they had noticed based on their educational qualifications.
- Specialists and teachers in the field: A total of 26 teachers and specialists in the area were interviewed by the investigator; all of whom were involved in the imparting of Business Education for many years and at different levels ranging from school level to graduation to post-graduation and doctorate levels.

Measures taken to ensure validity or trustworthiness of the Research:

- Investigator triangulation for descriptive validity
- Participant feedback for interpretive validity
- Extended fieldwork for theoretical validity
- Methods triangulation and data triangulation for internal validity
- Adequate representation from different sections of society to ensure replication logic for external validity

Results and Discussion

Analysis of Trends in Demand for Business Education in India

For the purpose of studying the trends, documents generated by various bodies of National importance and stature were studied and data pertaining to Business Education was searched for and the prominent statistics among them are being presented below:

Trends in enrolments in India:

The enrolment statistics in India at various levels is generated by various bodies of National prominence like IAMR (Institute of Applied Manpower Research), CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education), Ministry of Education, NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training) records and reports etc. The prominent statistics are analyzed below:

GRAPH 1

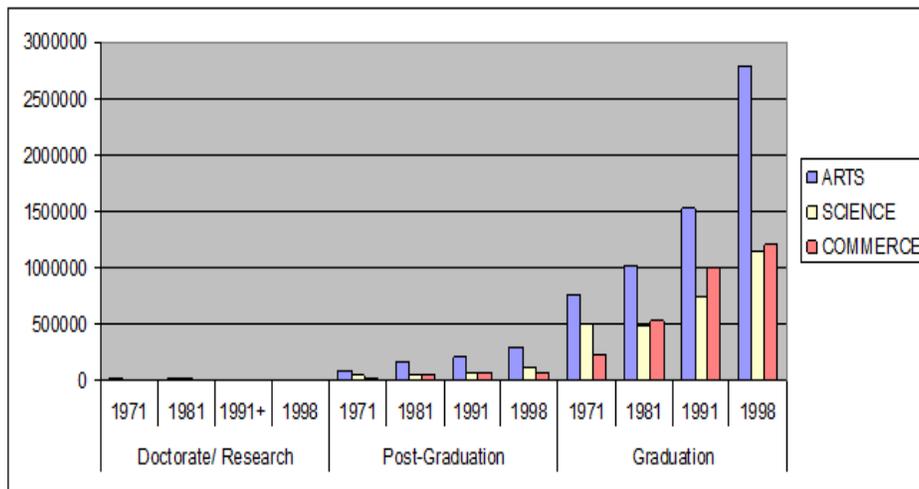


Fig. 2 : Total Enrolment in Higher Education (General) by Faculty and Level

Ministry of Human Resource Development (i) Education in India (ii) Selected Educational Statistics, 2008)

On the basis of the data available and the graph, the above Table A was developed in order to find out the faculty-wise growth (taking 1971 as the Base year); to compare the proportionate increase in the total enrolments in Higher Education in different faculties in India:

Table 1 : Proportionate Growth in Total Enrolment in Higher Education (General) by
Faculty and Level

Faculties	Post-graduation growth (1971 – 2001)	Under-Graduation growth (1971 – 2001)
Humanities	+351.5%	+351%
Sciences	+292.5%	+192.6%
Commerce	+453.1 %	+565.6%
TOTAL	+347.2%	+331.8%

It is evident from the above table that the enrolment of students in the discipline of Commerce has been growing at a much steadier pace as compared to the other two streams. Table 1 also reveals that there was tremendous growth in the enrolment of students in the Commerce stream. The total share of enrolment in this stream has increased and growth has shown a sky-rocket jump both at the Under-graduate and the Post-Graduate levels. As compared to this the proportion of enrolments in the science stream to the total enrolments has been unfortunately declining (26.13% in 1971 to 20.76% in 1981 and 22.94% in 2001 at the PG level and from 33.19% in 1971 to 22.50% in 2001); which points to the unfortunate fact that there has been a decrease in demand for general science courses at the Post-graduate and Under-graduate levels. In terms of proportion of total enrolments, the Humanities or Arts steam has registered a constant proportion over the years. But the Commerce stream has been most gainer over the years which points to the fact that there has been a consistent growth in the demand for Business Education at all levels.

GRAPH 2

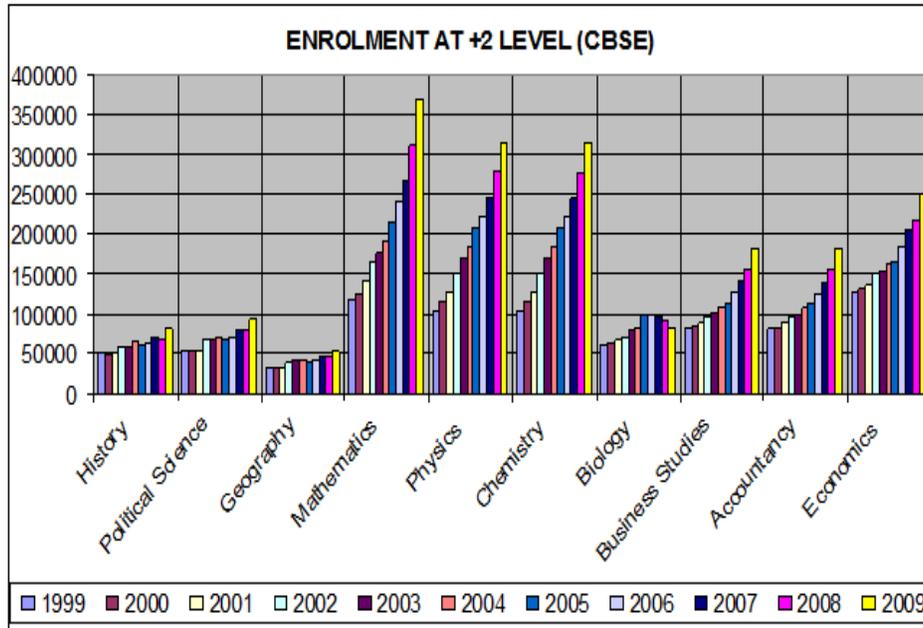


Fig. 3 : Enrolments at Senior Secondary Level in most popular subjects (CBSE data)

Source: CBSE generated data via email

From the above data we can conclude that there has been maximum growth in student enrolment in the science stream; which is also seen in the responses of the respondents. The least growth happens to be in Humanities stream when the major subjects are compared at the school level. The Commerce which consists of Business Studies, Accountancy and at times Economics also have seen a steady and positive growth over the period from 1999 to 2009.

Trends in Employment in India

With respect to the employment scene in India, some of the prominent data is presented below:

GRAPH 3

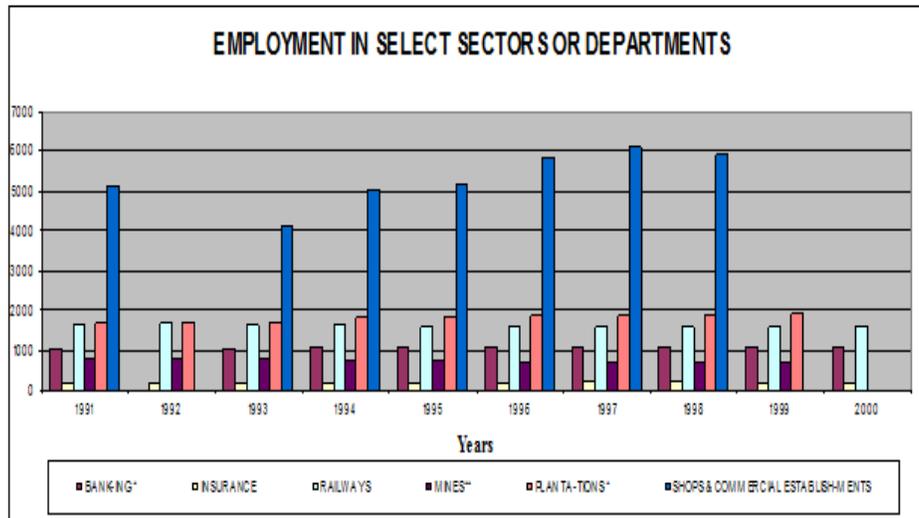


Fig. 4 : Employment in Select Organisations / Departments (in thousands)

NOTE: *After 1991 it does not include the employees of non-scheduled banks

** In terms of average daily employment

SOURCE: Central Statistical Organisation

(i) Statistical Abstract, 2000

(ii) Statistical Pocket Book India, 2000

If we look into the above figures, they point to the fact that there has been a consistent increase in the employment of people in the areas like Banking, Insurance and Shops and Commercial Establishments over the years from 1991 to 2000 which points out that job market has grown tremendously for commerce-related jobs over the years which leads us to the conclusion that our society is in need for more and more such professionals; thereby stressing the need for training more and more people for such jobs.

GRAPH 4

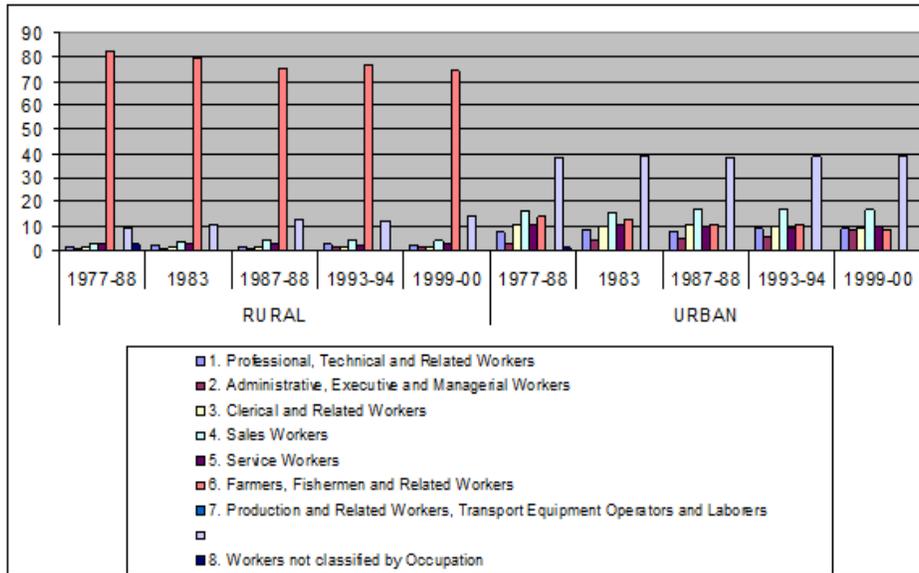


Fig. 5 : Percentage Distribution of Total Employment by Occupational Division

NOTE: *Figures relate to principal usual status of individuals Workforce covers those involved in gainful activity regularly. Totals may not tally due to rounding off*

SOURCE: *National Sample Survey Organisation Sarvekshana, Vol. V, July 77-June 78, 32nd round Vol. XI, Jan-Dec. 1983, 38th round Special No., July 87-June 88, 43rd round Vol. XX, July 93-June 94, 50th round Report No. 458, Employment and Unemployment in India, July 99-June 2000, 55th Round.*

The above graph shows that over-all there has been an increase in the percentage of people working in the category of “Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers” from 0.3% in 1977 to 0.9% in 1999 in the rural areas and from 3.0% to 8.4% in the urban areas for the same year. Overall we can see that there has been a gradual decline of people employed in the primary sector and whereas the secondary and tertiary sectors have gained more popularity among the people of India. If we see the combined figures for Administrative, Executive and Managerial workers, Clerical and Related Workers and Sales Workers the combined figure for all these categories have gone up from 29.7% of the total workforce in 1977-88 to 34.30% of the total workforce in 1999-2000. So there has been an increase of 4.60% of people engaged in commerce-related occupations. If we look into the

figures we can conclude that this is the only sector which is recording a positive growth throughout all these years. All the other fields are registering either a negative or zero growth. This again is a very powerful indicator for implying that there has been a phenomenal increase in the demand for Business Education and also the need for preparing individuals for such jobs in our country has increased.

Identified needs of urban Indian society with respect to Business Education:

In the analysis of perceptions of various people who took part in the study and which form part of the various segments of contemporary Indian society, it was seen that almost everybody understands the importance of Business Education. It is considered to be very important for any individual whether or not he/she intends to work in Business situations. And it is considered to be compulsory for anybody interested in pursuing a career in any business organisation irrespective of the level of job or kind and scale of organisation. Everybody conceded that it prepares an individual for the rigors of business world. As pointed out by a very senior professor in Commerce Department, University of Delhi “it provides foundation and base for understanding advance education in commerce and leads to better decision-making in various areas of Business analysis such as Finance, Marketing, Personnel, HR, Production etc”. But taking up Business education at +2 stage is not considered to be very fruitful venture by majority of specialists, employers, HRD people and other professionals working in the field. Though studying commerce at Graduation stage does contribute a lot in imparting various competencies among students; but studying it at +2 stage does not make that much of a positive difference in the competency level of students, as has been pointed out by specialists and employers. It is more an interplay of personal factors which contribute to professional excellence of people. Also studying it at +2 stage does not guarantee academic success at higher levels. Though students coming from other streams do face initial hiccups while pursuing Business Education at higher levels, but after a point of time they are at par with the students with background knowledge advantage. In many instances they even do better academically and professionally. The above analysis is summed up in the words of a senior Professor of a very reputed Management institute, “if we see the curriculum at +2 stage and graduation stage, there is a synergy. Anybody who has studied at +2 stage can follow in a much synchronized manner as compared to anybody who has studied it at just the master’s level. But there is a paradox situation because when we teach the mixed batch of students, we expect the commerce students to do well as compared to others. But this does not happen. Students from technical background are doing much better. Maybe because their ability to capture numbers and figures is developed better. Also the students from non-commerce background are real gainers since they learn new things whereas for commerce

students many things are pure repetitions”. In the words of Dean, Faculty of Management Studies, University of Delhi “in subjects such as Accountancy and Financial Accounting, commerce students have prior knowledge, similarly technical students have background knowledge in Operations Research or Production Management. Psychology students have grounding in Organizational Behaviour. So commerce students do not have any definite advantage and it is dependant more on the individual per se and his/her perseverance on which the achievement depends”. Similarly, other specialists also were of the opinion that students from non-commerce background do not face any major problems. The initial hiccups can easily be overcome by working hard. Also, it has been acknowledged by many respondents working in the field that it would have been better for them if they had studied other streams at lower levels since they wouldn’t have to repeat everything that they studied at lower levels. They have conceded that studying it at +2 stage is mere duplication and replication of content at Graduation and higher level. So if they had opted for other streams at +2 levels they would have been in an advantageous position. Analysis of survey with students studying at +2 stage reveals that 99% of students intended to pursue higher education even in the so-called not-so-elite government schools. And the teachers teaching +2 commerce have communicated that students do not get any specific jobs after completing their +2 in commerce and even if some students do take up jobs after their senior secondary, they do not get any preference over students from other streams; a fact which has been confirmed by employers and businessmen as well.

Therefore, the question arises when there is no specific advantage attached to studying Business at +2 stage why should the students devote 2 years of their lives in pursuing something which they anyway will have to study if they study Business at Graduation stage? Clearly the students are choosing this at the cost of not studying something else. So why not pursue some other subjects or general education which might contribute in development of basic analytical and logical reasoning skills; which may be more advantageous to them in the long run; as the opportunity cost of not studying something else is greater than advantages of pursuing commerce at this stage. Even in case of students for whom the +2 stage is terminal stage for their formal education, this is not benefitting them much in terms of job opportunities and/or setting up their own enterprises.

As it is in the present scenario there is no restriction placed on the entry of students coming into the field of Business Education at graduation or higher professional level. So the students who are desirous of taking up jobs or starting their own ventures can do it more advantageously at higher levels.

Also we can conclude that as, many of the respondents were of the opinion that Business education is by nature more or less generic; therefore, all students should have a broad idea of the world of business. It should be a compulsory part of general education where everybody gets to study some of the topics of generic nature; since in today's society, every person is involved directly or indirectly with business and economic activities. As consumers, people must decide almost on day to day basis, how they will spend their limited income by choosing from among the many goods and services offered by business in a manner that would best meet their needs. So it should be a compulsory element in the general education instead of having it as a separate stream as has been recommended by NCF 2000 and NCF 2005 in the common interest of our society and individuals as well.

Analytical Perspectives on Business Education Curriculum

An analysis of the responses given by different respondents reveal the following different perspectives of people from varied sections of Indian society. Regarding the course content of Business Education at different levels, a vast majority of respondents conceded that the course content per se is very exhaustive and comprehensive in the sense that, if followed in letter and spirit, is capable of giving good learning experience to the learners about the world of business. But as is the case with all other courses, here also the main problem lies in the delivery part. Most of the times the course content is taught in a very mechanical and theoretical fashion where it becomes very difficult for the students to link it with anything in the world in which they are living. No opportunities are given to the learners to interact with the content on their own and construct their own meanings. Tyson (1997, in Jones and McCann, 2005) describes this traditional system of education as based on and perpetuating a “culture of dependant learners in a didactic, knowledge-focused classroom... (rather than).....collaborative learners organising and managing their own learning processes”. This generally results in students who are reluctant to express their point of view or question the teachers during the class; instead they seek clarification at the end of the class (Yap, 1997 in Jones and McCann, 2005). It also produces a tendency by these students to memorize and rote-learn statements by eminent scholars in order to produce a ‘correct’ answer (Kember, 1996; Marton et.al., 1993). This basically is because of a general notion about scholarship that it is “traditionally manifested by an extensive and accurate knowledge of the wisdom contained in authoritative texts or the sayings of earlier scholars and sages” (Ballard and Clanchy, 1997). As Biggs (1999) states:

“When the basic bodies of knowledge and knowledge relating to professional practice, are changing as rapidly as they are, it no longer makes sense to teach students all

those things they will need to know in their professional careers. Students should be taught how to learn, how to seek new information, how to utilize it and evaluate its importance, how to solve novel, non-textbook professional problems. They will need meta-cognitive skills and an abstract body of theory on which to deploy them, so that they can judge reflectively how successfully they are coping with novel problems and how they may do better.”

Here the role of the teacher assumes a very significant place and quite diverging from the customary, traditional role of the teacher. This requires the teacher to become a guide, coach, motivator, facilitator and co-coordinator of learning resources, creating a “context of learning which encourages student actively to engage in subject matter” (Ramsden, 1992; Laurillard, 1994); while the student becomes an active ‘doer’, presenting, analyzing, questioning, judging and combining ideas and information against an argument in order to solve problems and construct ways to develop knowledge (Jones & McCann, 2005; Ballard & Clanchy, 1997). The same points were also put forward by the various groups of respondents contacted for the study who also had stressed the need for experiential learning. To the question, what skills and competencies are not covered by the curriculum, the main points put forward by huge proportion of students – past and present, employers, people working in the field and HRD people was too much emphasis on theoretical or academic knowledge and very little or no emphasis on practical exposure and the application part. There are other skills that students are expected to acquire, usually within formal instruction, in UG business programmes (Hudson, 1998). Analytical thinking, team work among students, in-class discussion, cooperation, shared learning and open knowledge access are universally acclaimed, but usually are assumed to be learned by osmosis (Carevale, 2000; Oblinger and Vervelle, 1998; Rao and Sylvester, 2000 in Reeves-Ellington, 2004). As within emerging economies, the need for quantitative functional business skills is indispensable; but while it is necessary; it is not sufficient (Jenson, 2000; Onyefulu, 2001, Pupo, 1965 in Reeves-Ellington, 2004).

The gap between theory and practice has been highlighted by sections of society contacted. In addition, improvement in communication skills, focus on analytical abilities, foreign exchange programmes, decision-making skills, social skills, soft skills, presentation skills, team work and problem-solving skills were also highlighted as some of the areas found lacking in the curriculum at various levels. A summary of the views put forward by specialists can be shared in the following words of a very senior professor, “any education in India has not kept pace with the changes in society. We as academicians are happy to teach what we already know; and it is something which is not desirable or good. It should actually hurt you somewhere. We have to keep updating ourselves. So adequate incentive

and encouragement needs to be provided so that they are content with their lives and they are able to put in 100% of dedication. Therefore, education has to keep pace with the changes in society and in technologies. So lot of changes in curriculum at +2 and Graduation level needs to be done. Change should be an inbuilt mechanism; wherein every 4-5 years, the curriculum is revamped”.

Other specialists specifically pointed out to issues such as too much theoretical aspect and lack of touch of ground realities due to lack of adequate interaction with the industry. They also pointed out that there should be more projects and on the job training. Also they stressed on the need for laying more stress on IT skills. Some also pointed out due to lack of inculcation of systematic thinking, decision-making skills, lack of adequate presentation skills and also lack of focus on entrepreneurship ultimately results in dearth of innovative ideas and out-of-box thinking. Many specialists focused on lack of entrepreneurship skills. Though at the +2 stage, CBSE has introduced Entrepreneurship as a separate elective, which is considered to be good step in the direction. But again the focus and spirit with which it has to be dealt with the students is generally not pronounced in the teachers dealing with the subject. The researcher while collecting data for the study did speak to number of students at +2 stage from different schools in the form of focused group discussions and students did not seem to take papers in the spirit with which the courses are framed. More than 90% of the students interviewed did not think of being an entrepreneur themselves. They took study of subject as a tool to get jobs in future or as just another alternative under the banner of Business or Commerce Education.

Another major area which was highlighted was lack of ethics in the form of Principles of Honesty, Social concerns, too much emphasis on materialistic concerns, and lack of sensitivity on environmental concerns. Although efforts are made by the Board to include topics such as Business ethics and Social Responsibilities of business, still these are generally taken by students as just another topic to be learned for the sake of exams. The spirit is missing while dealing with the topics. The views are summarized in the words of a very senior professor, “Business Education is very self-driven and it is not a very nice thing to admit that. You cannot have everything self-driven. There has to be something social driven also. It is basically in whatever way you can give back to society. But in today’s scenario there is fierce competition and everybody wants to be at the top. And so all the means become irrelevant. The component of ethics is missing in the delivery of curriculum i.e. the means have to be relevant and the elements of social consciousness have to be inculcated”.

Another point put across was inculcation of soft skills among students. In the words of another specialist, “these days companies are spending a lot on inculcation of these soft skills. A person may be very intelligent but if you cannot pull along with other and in times of stress; you will be nowhere”. So these were some of the issues put up by the specialists to enrich the Business Education curriculum. Suggestions to improvise Business Education Curriculum

Analysis of literature and responses of various interest groups gave a number of points for the improvement of curriculum and a point worth mentioning is that both the analysis have come out with almost the same points. “The major challenge of Business Educationis to develop an efficient and proactive corporate-oriented curriculum that fine-tunes itself regularly to meet the changing demands of business (Agrawal, 2005). The main points which came up in order to improve the efficiency of the curriculum were – constant upgradation of the curriculum at various levels, more experience-based or practical exposure, more interaction or interface with the corporate world or the actual world of work, guest speakers from different fields, emphasis on case studies, more emphasis on workshops, emphasis on social responsibilities of business, more discussion-based classrooms, more training modules with real hands-on work and a general exposure to all students on the business world. At +2 level, the following are the main points to make Business Education more effective:

- Business Education curriculum has to cater to ever-extending frontiers of Business world. Therefore, it has to be dynamic and should be reviewed every 2-3 years. The Business Education curriculum content cannot operate in a vacuum. It has to reflect the socio-cultural mores of people in order to make it more effective. There should be provisions to make students exposed to different cultures of metros, cities, towns as well as that of villages.
- Focus on Experiential Learning: Most of the business education is grounded on quantitative methodologies and economic logic and limit critical thinking, logic and reasoning to business problems that have been quantified for solution. The qualitative aspects of these mental skills are expressed in socio-cultural applications are largely ignored (Reeves-Ellington, 2005). One of the most important tools for advancing student learning in any field and especially in the field of business is Experiential Learning. Need for including practical aspect at all levels in Business Education has been emphasized by all the respondents. Incorporation of more practical aspects in addition to theoretical knowledge to help students understand why we need to study these subjects and how they will help him/her in the course

of a career. As John Dewey (1938) has pointed out “.....there is an intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education”. He was a firm believer and advocate of the importance of individual experiences in education, of ‘learning by doing’. He maintained that it is the teacher’s responsibility to structure and organize student’s experiences so that these have a positive influence on student’s future experiences. Furthermore, writing in 1930, he said radical reform was needed in the pedagogical aspect of every form of education which can be applied to Business Education as well. Kolb (1984) has given a four stage model to apply experiences of students in the instructional process which is demonstrated in the following Figure 5:

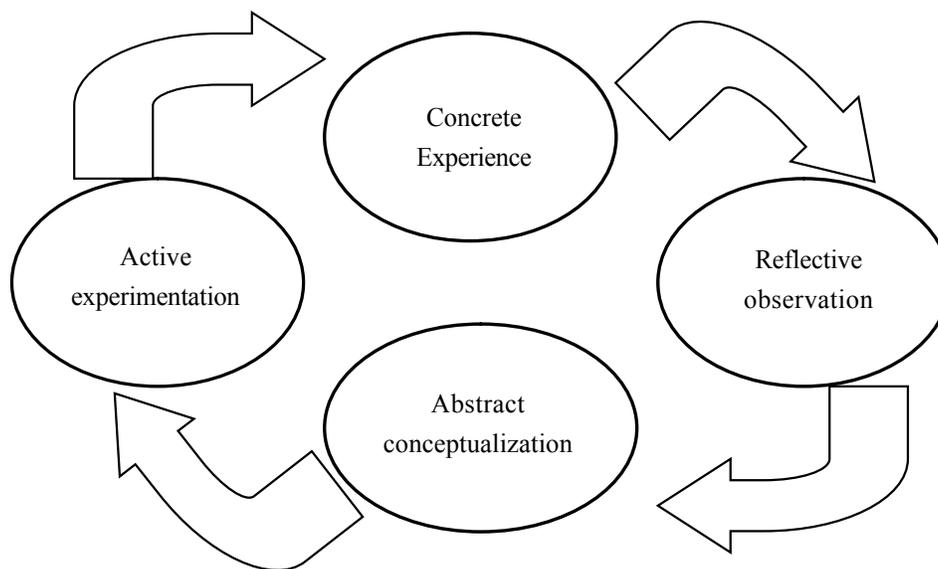


Figure 5 : Kolb’S (1984) Experiential Learning Cycle

So there are four stages in the cycle. These stages of Experiential learning Cycle (ELC) are sequential and mutually reinforcing, although there is not pre-ordained starting point. As a by-product of this experiential learning we can expect the students to pick up other vital personality traits and skills and competencies which are very important, far more important than content knowledge per se; as has been advocated by the respondents of the study and review of the literature. Therefore, at the school level the students should be given maximum exposure to be on stage and in public speaking so that the confidence level and communication skills of students improve.

- ***Case studies to be included with real time examples:*** Business education is often criticized for not providing their students with an overall appreciation and understanding of the business world. Many a times, inspite of academic excellence, they feel that many students often fail to grasp the “big picture.” Part of that failure can be traced to the lack of integration among business courses (Markulis, Howe, Strang, 2005). In order to make sense of the content which they study, it is very important that they learn how to integrate the knowledge in real life situation. Making students work on real case studies on an individual as well group basis can bridge the gap between academics and practical problems.
- ***Problem-based learning:*** In the past years, another important approach to inculcate independent thinking and learning skills is the Problem-based approach. Problem-based learning (PBL) is “a method of instruction that uses problems as a context for students to acquire problem-solving skills and basic knowledge” (Banta, Black, & Kline, 2000). Moreover, as Sasse, Davis, and McConnell (2000) pointed out, a PBL approach can also develop team and lifelong learning skills—skills which have been pointed out by all sections of respondents to be very vital for any individual to be successful in business world.
- ***Development of entrepreneurial qualities:*** Another very important point that came up was the development of entrepreneurial skills. Entrepreneurship has to be the focus of Business Education at all levels. It should enable an individual to start some venture after 12th level. The skills should be developed for small, medium as well as large scale enterprises. The students need to be encouraged to start their own ventures rather than just aiming for picking up a job in a company or an MNC. As has been pointed out earlier that though at the +2 stage, CBSE has introduced Entrepreneurship as a separate elective, which is considered to be good step in the direction. But again the focus and spirit with which it has to be dealt with the students is generally not pronounced in the teachers dealing with the subject. The researcher while collecting data for the study did speak to number of students at +2 stage and students did not seem to take papers in the spirit with which the courses are framed. More than 90% of the students interviewed did not think of being an entrepreneur themselves. They took study of subject as a tool to get jobs in future. Therefore, a proper orientation of the teachers is required so that they are able to facilitate and motivate the students to be entrepreneurs themselves.
- ***Forward-looking curriculum:*** A very pertinent point put up by Dean of FMS was that “the curriculum has to be forward looking at every stage i.e. we focus on what

is going on at present and study the past. But the focus should be on ‘what should be’ and making future projections. The leaders have to be unrealistic people guided only by what is possible. They have to be guided by something which is visionary and challenging”. He stressed that study of Business is too fact-based and there is very little scope for imagination. Though much strength of Business lies in the fact that it is factual and realistic and systematic; but a charismatic leader has to be a bit unrealistic and subjective at times. If you believe in this, you can also believe in that and inspire others also to believe in that. Business Education has to inculcate such leadership qualities in its students. And for that the curriculum has to make students look beyond the content. The learning of theories and principles are not that important as students being “collaborative learners organising and managing their own learning processes” (Tyson, 1997 in Reeves-Ellington, 2004).

- ***Student-centered Curriculum:*** It means giving primacy to student’s experiences, their voices and their active participation. This kind of pedagogy requires us to plan learning in keeping with student’s psychological development and interests. The learning plans must therefore respond to physical, cultural and social preferences within the wide diversity of characteristics and needs. We need to nurture and build their active and creative capabilities- their inherent interest in making meaning, in relating to the world in ‘real’ ways through acting on it and creating (NCF, 2005). In such a situation, the subject matter becomes integrated across a broad range of disciplines and the students work both individually and as a team to collect and assess information to solve problems. Laurillard (1994) provides a model of a student-centered teaching model that recognizes the need to integrate the teacher’s conceptual knowledge with that of the students in a manner that encourages, through experiential learning, discussion, interaction, reflection and adaptation of conceptual knowledge. It is demonstrated as follows:

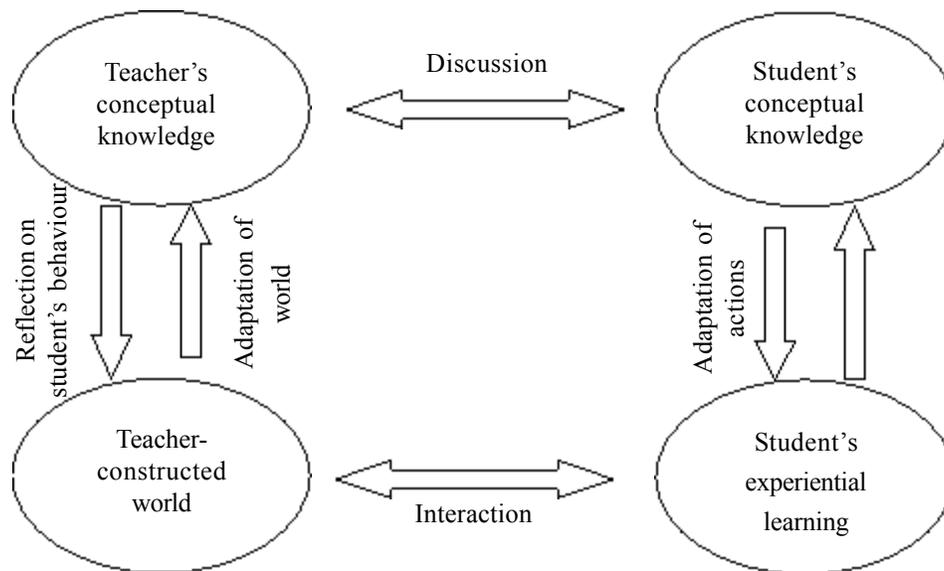


Figure 6 : Laurillard's Student-centered Teaching Model

When applying this to the needs of a knowledge era, we need to add the importance of students learning as groups rather than individuals. Student experiences through interaction not only with the teacher but also with students and providing opportunities for students not only to self-reflect but also to reflect as a group can thus be important elements of the learning process (Jones and McCann; 2005).

- Focus on IT Skills:** With the changing times focus should be on inculcating the right IT skills e.g. every organisation has taken to computers for a wide range of accounting and other functions, so the relevant softwares should be included in the curriculum. Students should be given an option to pursue such softwares which have become a kind of a norm in the Business world. The CBSE has already included elements of computers in Accounting which is step in the right direction. But besides learning of Accounting packages, it is important that keeping in mind the advances in the field of technology, elements of Blended learning should be a part of curriculum. Jones (2003) has argued that technology should be used to augment, rather than replace F2F (Face-to-face) learning environments. ICT can be used to present students with learning opportunities that model real world activities and create interactive opportunities for students and to support a two-way dialogue between students and between teacher and students. Laurillard (1994) has described how computers could be used to provide students with a simulated environment with which to interact and to 'simulate the real world and to link students to various

audio and visual data bases'. Thus ICT can be used to design business education opportunities which maximize a student-centered learning design (Jones and McCann, 2005).

- Another major point put forward was ***inculcation of national and moral values***. It has been put up by majority of specialists that as Business Education is more or less devoid of any Value Education, virtues like truth, honesty, sincerity etc are values which are paying to the candidates in the long run and today's generation has to be made sensitized towards such virtues of life. Though topics like Ethical Business practices and Social responsibilities of Business are included in the curriculum; mere exposure of students to lectures on the topics is not sufficient to inculcate such values. As also pointed out by Monserrate (2005) the curriculum should include more activities addressed to the value-building process as more and more employers also place lot of emphasis on values such as Honesty, sincerity etc; Therefore, appropriate case studies, interaction with appropriate people in the field and other methods should be adopted to sensitize students towards their societal responsibilities and ethical professional practices. Also environmental concerns should be given due importance in the curriculum.
- Inclusion of more ***projects and field studies*** to support the theoretical curriculum at every level. More interaction and liaisons between Business and industry in various forms should be encouraged.
- ***Development of Emotional Maturity***: In an age where EQ is considered to be as important or even more important than the IQ, students have to be oriented towards developing a balanced approach towards life. "As we come across students vying for excellence, where even 0.2% makes a lot of difference to them, many a times they tend to buckle under pressure. This also calls for examination reforms, which have been taken up by the CBSE on a national level. The students have to be sensitized towards work-life balance". The students should be taught techniques to balance their personal and professional lives. Focus on soft skills was another major consideration for many of the specialists. Business Education has to address to each and every facet of the personality of an individual. Therefore, development of emotional and social maturity is very important to function in today's competitive business world.
- ***Flexibility in the system***: One of the very important points that came up while interacting with senior specialists was the need for having total flexibility in the

system e.g. students should be free to choose studying Business with Music, Business with Engineering i.e. total flexibility : Vertically and Horizontally. There should be a scope for credit transfer system, which at present is not there in the Indian system at all. Also implementation of the curriculum needs to be improved since across levels the objectives and content are pertinent but the method of delivery is generally lacking. So more attention has to be paid to curriculum transaction aspect.

- ***A case for Inclusive curriculum:*** A very prominent view among the specialists was that Business Education should be a compulsory part for all at the school level and also the college level as general subject; since everybody needs to have an exposure of the Business world at an early stage and also for a generic understanding of a vast variety of concepts which are an important aspect in everybody's life. To be economically literate and informed citizens, wise consumers and competent workers, each person must have some understanding of the world of business and how it functions. Everybody must possess at least minimum knowledge, skills and understanding with which to make the judgments needed in our democratic and developing society and to participate in the world of work. The same sentiments are also conveyed in NCF-2000 (Pg.12) while elaborating on the Linking Education with Life-Experience it states that "life skills are abilities for adaptive and positive behavior that enable individual to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life, by developing in them generic skills related to wide variety of areas.....Knowledge and proficiency in these skills for an instance, would also make pupils aware of issues such as consumer rights, questioning the quality of goods and services that are available to them, writing to manufacturers, public utilities and civic authorities on the quality of goods and services that they expect". The document has laid special emphasis on "certain core life skills such as problem solving, critical thinking, communication, self awareness, coping with stress, decision-making, creative thinking, interpersonal relationships and empathy" and 'focus on Consumer Education' which is very essential for a successful living and education should endeavour to develop these competencies in the students. These same competencies have been highlighted by specialists in the field of Business Education, the professionals and others working in the field, and students at various levels to be of utmost importance and should be an integral part of the Educational process at all levels.

Therefore, we can say that an overhaul of whole system of curriculum transaction and instruction is the need of the hour. It is through these methods of constructive

paradigm that we can expect the students to develop the requisite skills and competencies, along with the content; which are required to survive in today's business world. Mere reproduction and duplication of content will not lead the student's anywhere in the long run. Reeves-Ellington (2005) argues that, "regardless of the supplier, successful emerging market business curricula must provide traditional business skill set instruction, mental skill instruction and the teaching of underlying business and societal value assumptions, theories and models in ways that permit students to learn to be effective in culturally diverse social and organizational settings". Making changes and meeting the needs of students are just what business educators have been doing for decades. Demands of business and society will continue to require business educators and teacher educators to keep pace with the changing skills and knowledge needed by their students (Jacobsen and Heth, 2003). Mandrake (2003) concurred stating: "Both educators and students have had to adapt to the pace of change..... educators must address the trickle-down effect of new content throughout the curriculum and raise levels of expected student outcomes".

References

- Agrawal, R. (2005), "Undergraduate Curriculum in India: The Corporate Context", In McIntyre, John R. and Alon, Ilan (Edr), *Business and Management Education in Transitioning and Developing Countries: A Handbook*, M.E. Sharp Inc., New York
- Alon, I., & McIntyre, J. R. (2004), *Business Education and Emerging Market Economies: Perspectives and Best Practices*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston
- Ballard, B., & Clanchy, J. (1997), *Teaching International Students*, Deakin, ACT: IDP Education, Australia.
- Ballard, S. M., and Morris, M. L. (2003), "The Family Life Education Needs of Midlife and Older Adults", In *Family Relations*, Volume 52, Issue 2, April 2003, pages 129–136.
- Banta, T., Karen B., and Kimberly K. (2002), "Evidence for and against Problem Based Learning", In *Newsletter for Undergraduate Problem Based Learning*, Stamford University, Vol 3, No 3
- Biggs, J. (1999), *Teaching for quality learning at university*, The Society for Research into Higher Education, Buckingham
- Boyatzis, R. E., Stubbs, E. C. and Taylor, S. N. (2002), "Learning Cognitive and Emotional Intelligence Competencies through Graduate management Education", In *Academy of Management Journal on Learning and Education*, Vol 1, No 2
- Dewey, J. (1938), *Experience and Education*, Retrieved from <http://gyanpedia.in/tft/Resources/books/dewey2.pdf> on 2nd Nov., 2010
- Gupta, V., Gollakota, K., & Sreekumar, A. (2005), "Quality in Business Education: A Study of the Indian Context", In *Business and Management Education in Transitioning*

- and Developing Countries: A Handbook, Ed. McIntyre and Alon, Kluwer Publishers, Boston
- Johnson, B., & Christensen. (2008), *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches -Third Edition*, Sage Publications, Los Angeles, London
- Jones, S. & McCann, J. (2005), “Authentic virtual situated learning environments - the flexible learning alternative for peripatetic managers in a global, flexible workplace”, In *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Special Issue on e-Learning at the Workplace, Vol 17, 5/6
- Kaufman, R. (1983), “A Holistic Planning Model- A system approach for improving organizational effectiveness and impact”, in *Performance and Instructional Journal*, Vol 22, Issue 8, October 1983, pages 3-12
- Kember, D. (1996), “The Intention to Both Memorise and Understand: Another approach to Learning” in *Higher Education*, Vol 31, Number 3, Page 341-354
- Kolb, D. A. (1984), *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall, NJ
- Laurillard, D. (1994), *Multimedia and the changing experience of the learner*, Proceedings: Asia Pacific Information Technology in Training and Education Conference and Exhibition, 19-25, June
- Manpower Profile India Yearbook (2008), Institute of Applied Manpower Research (IAMR), Narela, Delhi, India
- Markulis, H. & Strang, S. (2005), “Integrating the Business Curriculum with a Comprehensive Case Study: A prototype”, in *Simulation and Gaming*, June 2005, Volume 36, Number 2, page 250-258
- Monserrate, Cardoza-Bonet (2005), *Study of the Accounting Curriculum and its Relationship with the Values and Competencies needed by the Puerto Rican accounting professionals for 2000—2009*, Ph.D Thesis, Union Institute and University
- Nanassy, Malsbary, & Tonne (1977), *Principles and Trends in Business Education*, Glencoe Publishing Company, Mission Hills, California
- NCERT, (2008), *Inservice Teacher Education Programme Manual for teachers and teacher educators*, New Delhi
- Oblinger, D. G., & Verville, A. L. (1998), *What business wants from higher education*, Phoenix: Oryx Press.
- Ramsden, P. (1992), *Learning to Teach in Higher Education*, Routledge, London
- Report of The Empowered Committee to Review the Course Structure of B.Com (H) and B.Com (P) Courses in University of Delhi, (2003), Delhi
- Rodriguez, (1988), “Need Assessment and Analysis”, in *Journal of Instructional Development*; Vol. 11, No. 1
- Sasse, C., Davis, J., & McConnell, C. (2000), *Using problem-based learning: A multidisciplinary investigation (Rockhurst University Carnegie seminar project)* Retrieved October 2, 2002, from <http://cte.rockhurst.edu/carnegie/PBL.htm>
- Uppal, Shveta (Edr.), (2005), *National Curriculum Framework 2005*, NCERT. New Delhi

Traditional Culture of School Education versus Changing Teacher - Student Authority Relationship: A Bangladeshi ELT Classroom Scenario

Nazua Idris

Lecturer, Department of English

Stamford University, Bangladesh.

Abstract

In Bangladesh, English Language teaching has gone through a lot of transformations in recent years. The implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) requires a huge shift in the traditional teacher-student authority relationship as it puts more importance on learner-centered classes rather than traditional teacher-centered classes. Though the relationship is changing in theory, in actual classroom practice, we do not see any major change as there is a mismatch between the Bangladeshi traditional culture of school education and the changing ethos of teacher-student authority relationship in CLT. This study aimed to find out how the cultural factors of school education influence the teacher-student authority relationship in Bangladeshi English Language classrooms, and determine to what extent the beliefs and expectations of the teachers, learners, parents and administration are important in defining that relationship. The study is based on the results of a small scale survey conducted among 100 students, 100 parents, 40 teachers and 20 administrators from 10 public high schools. The research findings suggest that the traditional beliefs and expectations and other infrastructural elements of Bangladeshi education system are inhibiting the teachers and the students to adopt the changing classroom-relationship. The study recommends that for the successful implementation of the new mode of teacher-student relationship, the prevailing teacher training programs need to be improved, and the learners, parents and administrators should be made aware of the requirements of new English teaching methodology.

Keywords: Traditional Culture of Education, Teacher-centeredness, Learner-centeredness, Authority, Relationship, Learner-autonomy.

Introduction

Bangladesh has been practicing teacher centered education characterized by the sole authority of the teachers and submissiveness of the students (Chowdhury 2012; Karim, 2004; Siddique, 2004; Shahidullah 1999). As the teachers are seen to be the possessor and transmitter of knowledge, the Bangladeshi traditional culture of school education expects the students to follow them unquestionably. Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the older form of English Language Teaching methodology used in Bangladesh, nurtured the same belief regarding the teacher-student relationship where the teachers used to give all the rules of a language and the learners used to receive them passively. However, to keep pace with the worldwide changing English Language Teaching (ELT) methodologies, Bangladesh has recently adopted the Communicative English Language Teaching (CLT), introduced by the Western education policy makers during 1970s. The implementation of CLT in Bangladeshi ELT classroom has marked a major shift in traditional ideology regarding the teacher-student authority relationship as CLT promotes learner-centered classes rather than teacher-centered classes to make the learners more active and self-reliant. However, the successful implementation CLT is hindered as the newly defined teacher-student relationship is clashing with the long-held cultural beliefs and expectations regarding that relationship. While CLT suggests the teachers to become active partners with their learners, and promote them to take charge of their own learning, the administrators, parents and the local culture expect the teachers to be authoritative inside the classroom. As a result, in real-life classroom practice, the teacher-student relationship has hardly been shifted from its previous mode.

This paper focuses on this mismatch between the traditional culture of school education and the changing teacher-student authority relationship in Bangladeshi ELT classrooms. To find out the real scenario, the paper includes the result of a small scale survey conducted to explore the beliefs and expectations of the teachers, students, administrators and parents regarding the teacher-student role in the classroom. It also tries to find out how these beliefs, along with other infrastructural factors of the traditional school education are preventing the teachers and the students to adopt their changing relationship. Based on the findings, the paper ends with some recommendations to help bringing positive changes in the cultural attitude towards teacher-student relationship and facilitate the accommodation of new relationship for maximizing learners' acquisition of knowledge.

Research Questions

The objective of the survey was to find out the mismatch between the local culture of education and the propositions of CLT regarding teacher-student relationship inside the classroom, and how these cultural factors are influencing the development of this relationship. The research proposes to answer the following questions:

1. What are the beliefs and expectations of the teachers regarding teacher student relationship?
2. What are the beliefs and expectations of the learners regarding teacher student relationship?
3. What are the beliefs and expectations of the administrators regarding teacher student relationship?
4. What are the beliefs and expectations of the parents regarding teacher student relationship?
5. How these beliefs and expectations are obstructing the teachers and the learners to practice new relationship?

Teacher-Student Authority Relationship - Tradition vs. Change

The nature of teacher-student relationship is important in determining the success of classroom learning. According to Pace and Hemmings (2007), “the character of teacher-student authority relationship has great bearing on the quality of students’ educational experience and on teachers’ work” (p. 4). They define the relationship as a form of “social relationship” in which the teacher “are granted the legitimacy to lead” and the students “to follow.” (p. 4). This authority of the teacher is determined by the traditional culture of education. As Pace and Hemmings (2007) suggest, “Society traditionally entrusts teachers with the formal right and responsibility to take charge in the classroom and expects a student to obey.” (p. 4). Though the teacher-student relationship is confined within the classroom and within the teachers and their students, a number of external factors contribute in shaping and controlling this relationship. The factors are part of the local tradition of education including the institution, cultural beliefs and social-relationship hierarchy. The constant negotiation of authority relationship between the teachers and the students is externally influenced by these factors. (Metz, 1978). Metz (1978) also suggests that the

hierarchy of the teacher-student relationship is justified by the existing moral order of a society as this hierarchy serves that moral order. However, Sociologist Willard Waller (1932/1961) finds that the relationship is always “quivering” (p. 383), as the traditional beliefs regarding teacher-student relationship are full of contradictions. On one hand, the teacher is expected to make the students aware of their individual human potential (Franklin, 1986). On the other hand, the society expects the teacher to impose the values and ideologies of a culture and tradition on their students to make them conform. (Franklin, 1986). As a result, this innate paradox in the role of a teacher creates tension in the classroom relationship and influences the reception of education. The external factors are not even static. They vary from context to context (Metz, 1978; Anyon, 1983; Hemmings & Metz, 1990; Oakes, Gamoran & Page, 1992; Hemmings, 2003).

In terms of an English Language classroom also, the nature of teacher-student authority relationship has a greater influence on the successful acquisition of language. Though different ELT methodologies have theorized the nature of teacher-student relationship differently, in practice, this relationship is appropriated by the traditional culture of education of a particular context. Grammar Translation Method (GTM), one of the earliest and most widely accepted language teaching methodologies, promotes the traditional teacher-student relationship where teacher-centeredness (Foster, 1994) is preferred rather than learner-centeredness. Richards and Rodgers (2001) maintain that in GTM, as the teachers are the “primary source of language and of language learning”, they assume the role of an authority figure (p. 28). Larsen and Freeman (2000) maintain that in a GTM classroom the teachers deliver lecture, explain everything, provide models of writing, conduct practices and correct mistakes. As the teachers carry out all these roles, in such an environment, the learners only play the role of passive listeners (Brindley, 1984 as cited in Richards, 1998; Brown, 2001) and there is hardly any scope for teacher-student and student-student interaction.

With the rise of Western individualism (Shahidullah, 1999), the newer modes of teaching started to acknowledge the learners’ active role in upgrading the success rate of the learning process. With the introduction of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the teacher-student relationship broke away from the traditional belief of teachers being the authority model, and learners being the passive followers. Breen and Candlin (1980, as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 167) and Harmer (1991, pp. 108-113) suggest that the teachers is now a facilitator, resource, guide, counselor, needs analysts, feed-back giver, friend, participant and performer, and he is no longer an ‘all-knowing bestower of knowledge.’” (Brown, 2001, p. 43). CLT promotes learner autonomy (Breen and Candlin

1980 as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Joshi, 2011), and puts more emphasis on the role of the learners in the teaching learning scenario. Breen & Candlin (1980) suggest:

The role of the learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning-emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an independent way. (p. 110)

Brown (2001) also emphasises on giving the students opportunity “to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.” (p. 43). Learner autonomy acknowledges the following roles of the learners –

- Taking the responsibility for “all the decision connected with learning” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 27).
- Taking “charge of [his] learning” (Holec 1983 as cited in Benson and Voller, 1997, p.1).
- Being able for “critical reflection, decision making, and independent action” (Little 1991, p. 4).
- Understanding the right to “be free to exercise his or her own choice” (Crabbe, 1993, p. 443) and to construct and reconstruct the knowledge gained from the teacher. (Freire, 1996).
- Being able to “plan, organize, and monitor the learning process independently of the teacher” (Hedge, 2000, p. 410).

With the changes in the roles of the teachers and the learners, the teacher-student authority relationship also requires a shift from its previous mode. However, as the relationship is moulded by contextual factors, the implementation of the new relationship is often hindered by the prevalent beliefs and attitudes of the local culture of education (Harmer, 1991). Various researchers have identified that the teacher-student role reversal in a learner-centered environment is clashing with the prevalent cultural beliefs in Asian context (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis 1994, Fox, 1993; Gamal & Debnra, 2001, Li, 1998; Mustafa, 2001; Penner, 1995; Tompson, 1996). In Bangladesh, similar results came out from the studies of different researchers who tried find out how the beliefs and expectations of the teachers, learners, administrators, parents, and traditional education system are inhibiting the growth of new role-relationship in Bangladeshi ELT classrooms (Chowdhury 2012; Karim, 2004; Rahman, 1999; Shahidullah, 1999; Siddique, 2004).

Teacher-student relationship vs. ideological and infrastructural elements of traditional culture of education - Bangladeshi scenario

In Bangladesh, the traditional culture of education considers the teacher as an “authority model” (Bamber, 1999; Siddique, 2004) and the “transmitter of knowledge” (Brown 2001). Like many other Asian countries, in Bangladesh also, adults are held in high esteem, and teacher being an adult is expected to be followed unquestionably by the learners. As Grammar Translation method (GTM) favors this age-old concept of the teacher as an authority figure (Bamber, 1999) and students as their passive followers (Brindley, 1984 as cited in Richards, 1998; Brown, 2001; Chowdhury et al., 1997) the implementation of GTM did not clash with the prevalent ideology of the local educational culture (Chowdhury, 2012; Siddique 2004). However, the implementation of CLT in 1990s, required a major shift in the traditional belief regarding teacher-student role relationship, as CLT puts more importance on learner-centeredness and learner-autonomy (Breen and Candlin 1980 as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Joshi, 2011; Shahidullah 1999). In a learner-centered classroom, the learners are required to take charge of their own learning (Holec 1983 as cited in Benson and Voller, 1997, p.1), take part in decision-making and choose task (Dickinson, 1987; Crabbe, 1993; Freire, 1996), and teachers are supposed to act as facilitators, resource and partners in the overall learning process (Harmer, 1991; Brown, 2001; Breen and Candlin, 1980 as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001). While the ideals of Western individualism promotes the non-authoritarian teacher (Shahidullah, 1999), in the native culture of Bangladesh, this non-authoritarian mode is still considered “inappropriate” (Siddique, 2004, p. 19). As a result, the classes continue to be the same “traditional lock-step teacher centered approach” (Siddique, 2004, p. 19).

The practice of teacher-student relationship is influenced by a number of internal and external ideological and infrastructural factors of the local traditional culture of education:

Teachers’ beliefs and expectations

Teachers’ beliefs play a vital role in defining their relationship with students. According to Richard and Lockhart (2005), the teachers’ beliefs and expectations are shaped by “their own experiences as language learners”, “established practice” and their “experience of what makes the best”. (pp. 30-32). Richards, Gallo and Renandya (2001) found similar result in their study on teachers’ beliefs. Most of the language teachers of Bangladesh are taught in GTM where their teachers used to give all the structure of a language, and as students they used to passively receive (Brindley, 1984 as cited in

Richards, 1998; Brown, 2001; Chowdhury et al., 1997) them. There was hardly any opportunity for interactive activities involving the teachers and the students. Their previous experience of being educated in a teacher-centered class (Foster, 1994) influences their beliefs regarding their own classroom practice. Again, in Bangladesh, the teachers need to deal with large heterogeneous classes (Chowdhury, 2012; Karim, 2004), complete the syllabus within a short time (Karim, 2004; Rahman, 1999), and carry out the pressure of administrative works due to the shortage of enough staff (Karim, 2004). All these factors make it difficult for the teachers to adopt the new relationship that requires enough interaction with the students. Moreover, as the culture expects (Karim, 2004; Siddique, 2004) the teachers to be authoritative inside the classroom, the teachers find it difficult to come out of that culturally established role. Again, as CLT puts heavy demand upon the teachers, they find it easier to stick to the lecture mode (Rahman, 1999; Shahidullah, 1999) as it “requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers” (Brown, 2001, p. 19).

Learners’ beliefs and expectations

The learners on the other hand expects the teachers to spoonfeed them. To them, the best teacher is one who gives them all the rules and does not ask them to take charge of their own learning (Chowdhury 2012). Though learner-centeredness is much emphasised by CLT, most of the learners of our country play the role of passive listeners (Brindley, 1984 as cited in Richards, 1998; Brown, 2001; Chowdhury et al., 1997). They are unwilling to come out of this passivity as their beliefs and expectations are also formed by cultural codes that “deem it inappropriate for the students to be informal or to argue with a point of view with a teacher since such behavior is traditionally seen to be disrespectful” (Siddique, 2004). Learners’ family culture is also a determining factor shaping their relationship with their teachers (Kyriacou, 1986). In our country, the parents also teach their children to follow their teachers unquestionably. As there is no attempt to make the learners aware of their changing roles, and the changing ethos of teacher-learner relationship in a learner-centered classroom, they continue to be the passive followers of their teachers.

Administrations’ beliefs and expectation

The traditional culture of the educational institutions is unfavorable for the growth of newly defined teacher-student relationship in CLT. In most of the institutions, the administration puts heavy workload upon the teachers (Karim, 2004). Again, the administration approves of a disciplined class (Karim 2004; Rahman, 1999) where the teacher will be authoritative (Bamber, 1999) and students will be silent listeners (Brown, 2001; Brindley, 1984 as cited in Richards, 1998; Chowdhury et al., 1997). Moreover, in most

cases, as the administration is unaware of the newly defined teacher-student role relationship, it tries to implement rules and regulations to impose long-held socio-cultural norms and makes the environment unsuitable for the growth of new relationship.

Parents' beliefs and expectations

Parents also play a vital role in determining the teacher-student relationship inside the classroom (Kyriacou, 1986; Siddique 2004). Though they are not physically present, but their beliefs and expectations influence the classroom teaching learning environment. In our culture the parents consider the teachers to be their representatives and such a “father image . . . gives the teacher[s] an unquestionable and authoritarian role in classroom” (Chowdhury, 2012, p. 20). They expect the teachers’ to equip their children with all the knowledge. As they are not aware of the shifting focus from teacher-centered classes to learner-centered classes, they expect the teachers to be authoritative (Bamber, 1999), and consider learners’ passivity as a sign of proper behavior (Siddique, 2004).

Classroom culture

The classroom culture in Bangladesh does not allow the teacher-student to come out of their previous relationship. The classroom culture includes: class size, seating arrangements, class duration, logistic support etc.

Class size

Though CLT prefers small classroom (Brown 2001; Chowdhury 2012) that allows scope for enough interaction between the teachers and the students, in most of the Bangladeshi schools, the class size is huge, containing 80-300 students (Chowdhury, 2012; Karim, 2004; NAEM Research Report, 2005, Quaderi, 2007; Siddique, 2004). As a result, individual teacher-student interaction becomes limited making the development of a partnership between teachers and learners impossible.

Seating arrangement

In Bangladeshi classroom, the “lock-step” (Brown, 2001; Siddique, 2004) seating arrangement is followed where the students sit in rows with fixed benches and chairs, facing the teacher only, and teacher stands on a platform facing only the students. Such arrangement makes the one to one teacher-student interaction or student-student interaction impossible. Again, the seating arrangement also puts the teacher in an authority role as he is the only one seeing all the students. Moreover, though CLT promotes the implementation of group work and pair work (Ellis, 2003; Oxford, 1997; Savignon, 1991) to

develop learner autonomy, the seating arrangement does not allow this possible as the students cannot be put in a circle to make them see and interact with each other.

Class duration

Class duration is also responsible for hindering the development of the new teacher-student relationship. As the class time is limited, the teacher finds it convenient to deliver lecture rather than interacting with students individually or working with students like a partner. The teacher is always in a rush to finish the syllabus (Karim, 2004; Rahman, 1999). Moreover, as speaking and listening is not tested in the final examination, the students are more interested in exercising the reading and writing skills. As a result, the learner-centered communicative activities are not practiced, and the teacher-centered lecture-mode thrives.

Lack of enough logistic support

Interactive student-centered classes require enough logistic support to involve the students in various activities so that they cannot sit as passive listeners. But the classrooms in public schools lack of enough logistic support (Bamber, 1999); for example, OHP, Laptop, Multimedia etc. As a result, though the teachers are aware about various communicative tasks and activities that will trigger learner autonomy (Breen and Candlin 1980 as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Joshi, 2011; Shahidullah 1999), in reality, they fail to implement them inside the classroom and find it easier to continue with the Lecture-Mode (Rahman, 1999; Shahidullah, 1999).

Traditional assessment system

Though CLT puts equal emphasis on the development of four language skills, in our traditional examination system, only reading and writing is evaluated. Again, as good result is highly prized by the institution and by the society, both teachers and learners are interested in practicing the skills that will lead to a good score. This practice makes the implementation of new relationship difficult as this relationship requires a lot of individual interaction between the teachers and the students and group interaction among the students. Again, though the learner autonomy suggests that the learners should take part in decision-making (Dickinson, 1887; Little 1991) regarding the choice of task and assessment system, Bangladeshi education system does not allow even the teachers to take decision about assessment policy as this policy is determined by the National Board of Education.

From the discussion above, it is obvious that CLT requires a complete break away from the older mode of teacher-student relationship. However, as the implementation of

this new relationship is subject to various ideological and infrastructural elements of the educational culture of Bangladesh, it has become difficult for the teachers and students to accommodate the change inside the classroom. To find out the nature of changing teacher-student relationship in Bangladeshi ELT classroom, let us now focus on the findings of a small scale survey.

Methodology

This study adopts both quantitative and qualitative research methodology. I decided to use the mixed method because quantitative data alone cannot do justice to the research questions and the qualitative data alone has no generalizable capacity.

Farhana (2010 as cited in Abedin, 2012) suggests that quantitative research involves counting and measuring of numerical data analysis (p. 37). This study adopts a quantitative methodology in a sense that counting and measuring of numerical data analysis is done using the data collected from a questionnaire survey. Again, Aleixo (2003, as cited in Karim, 2004) suggests that the qualitative research is a unique approach to research as it draws on people's opinions and views of their experiences on specific field drawn from multiple sources. This study also adopts a qualitative research methodology as it includes the findings of a face-to-face semi-structured interview of the participants of the survey.

Population

The data was collected from 100 students, 40 teachers, 100 parents and 20 administrators from inside Dhaka and from rural areas. 5 public high schools from Dhaka and 5 public high schools from outside Dhaka took part in the survey (the participant ratio per institution: 10 students, 4 teachers, 10 parents and 2 administrators). The participants were chosen randomly. All the participating teachers have more than 10 years of teaching experience and all of them have undertaken at least one of the major training programs (ELTIP, CPD 1 & CPD 2) run by the Ministry of Education. The participating administrators include the Headteachers and Assistant Headteachers of the participating institutions. The participating parents inside Dhaka have studied at least up to Higher Secondary level (H.S.C. 20%, B.A. 50% and M.A. 30%), and the parents from rural areas have completed at least up to Secondary level (S.S.C 70%, H.S.C. 20% and B.A. 20%).

Data Collection

Questionnaire

To address the research questions, four sets of questionnaires were prepared for the teachers, students, administrators and parents. Questionnaire for the teachers consisted of 8 multiple choice questions, and questionnaire for the administrators and parents consisted of 8 multiple choice questions. But the questionnaire for the students consisted of 12 multiple choice questions, and focuses on both the learners' beliefs regarding their relationship with their teachers and their teachers' actual classroom practice. All the questions were close-ended.

Development of questionnaire

After writing the draft version of the questionnaires, I showed it to three of my colleagues for their feedback. One of them is working as an Assistant Professor and the other two are working as Senior Lecturers at my university. The draft version contained 21 questions for each group of sample. My colleagues advised me to shorten the questionnaire as some of the questions were repetitive. Based on the peer-feedback, I edited the first draft and run a pilot survey to test the reliability of the questionnaires to address my research questions. The pilot survey was conducted among 10 students, 10 parents, 2 teachers and 2 administrators of a public high school. This school is not one of the participating schools of my main survey. I also conducted a mock-interview to find out the reasons behind their responses. The findings of the pilot survey revealed that the questionnaires are relevant to my research. Therefore, these questionnaires were selected as final questionnaires.

Semi-structured interview

After filling up the questionnaire the participants took part in a face-to-face semi-structured interview. The interview was based on informal discussions to find out the necessary details regarding the responses to the questions asked in the questionnaire. The interview was recorded in an mp3 tape-recorder.

Research Findings & Discussion

Table 1 : Teachers' Beliefs & Expectations about Teacher-Student Relationship

No.	Statements	Response (Teachers in Dhaka)	Response (Teachers Outside Dhaka)	Mean
1.	Teacher is the sole authority	a. 20% b. 80%	a. 25% b. 75%	a. 22.5% b. 77.5%
2.	Teachers are aware of "Learner Autonomy"	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 90% b. 10%
3.	Learners can play a vital role in overall teaching/learning process	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
4.	Learners need to be treated as individuals	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
5.	Learners must be given freedom of expression	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 90% b. 10%
6.	Learners have the right to argue on a logical point	a. 20% b. 60% c. 20%	a. 25% b. 75% c. 0%	a. 22.5% b. 67.5% c. 10%
7.	Learners can contribute in decision making	a. 0% b. 80% c. 20%	a. 10% b. 90% c. 0%	a. 5% b. 85% c. 10%
8.	Teachers should share authority with learners	a. 25% b. 75%	a. 10% b. 90%	a. 17.5% b. 82.5%
		a = Yes	b = No	c = Sometimes

An analysis of Table 1 gives us an overview of the teachers' beliefs and expectations regarding their relationship with their students. The finding reveals that most of the teachers' (77.5%) outlook towards their role is changing as they no longer consider themselves the sole authority in the classroom. But some of their later responses reveal the inconsistencies between their changing outlook and their beliefs. Though all of them (100%) are aware of learner autonomy and acknowledge the importance of learner's role, individuality, freedom of expression, most of them responded that they do not allow the students to take part in decision-making (85%) or to argue (67.5%) with them, even if their

point is logical. Again, most of the teachers (82.5%) do not believe in sharing authority with the students though the new relationship requires sharing of authority inside the classroom. The contradictions in the teachers' responses demonstrate that though they are aware of the theoretical changes in the teacher-student authority relationship, in reality, they are not implementing those changes as far as their own classroom is concerned.

During the interview, when the teachers were asked about the contradictions in their responses, they reported that they have gained insight into the shifting teacher-student authority relationship from the training programs they have undertaken. However, as the training center scenario is different from their real-life classroom scenario, they are unable to put the theory into practice when they came back to their own classroom. They also pointed out some other reasons that hinder them to change their authority relationship with the students. The reasons includes: large heterogeneous class (Chowdhury, 2012; Karim, 2004), time constraint (Karim, 2004), learners' passivity (Brindley, 1984 as cited in Richards, 1998; Brown, 2001; Chowdhury et al., 1997), administrative pressure (Karim, 2004), cultural expectations (Karim, 2004, Siddique, 2004) etc. The teachers reported that due to all these pressures, they hardly find enough time to interact with the students which is necessary for the development of the new relationship. Bassanta (1996, p. 263, as cited in Bamber, 1999) comments that under so many constraints even "super-teachers" will fail to adopt their multiple roles in CLT. Therefore, the teachers continue with their traditional role of a lecture-giver as it "requires few specialized skills on the part of the teachers" (Brown, 2011, p. 19).

Table 2 : Learners' Beliefs & Expectations about Teacher-Student Relationship

No.	Statements	Response (Teachers in Dhaka)	Response (Teachers Outside Dhaka)	Mean
1.	Teacher is the sole authority	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
2.	Learners are aware of "Learner Autonomy"	a. 20% b. 80%	a. 0% b. 100%	c. 10% d. 90%
3.	Learners believe they can play a vital role in overall teaching/ learning process	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
4.	Teachers view the learners as individuals	a. 70% b. 30%	a. 60% b. 40%	a. 65% b. 35%
5.	Learners believe in their freedom of expression	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 75% b. 25%	a. 77.5% b. 22.5%
6.	Teachers allow the learners to exercise their freedom of expression	a. 40% b. 60%	a. 25% b. 75%	a. 37.5% b. 67.5%
7.	Learners believe in having the right to argue on a logical point	a. 20% b. 70% c. 10%	a. 0% b. 80% c. 20%	a. 10% b. 75% c. 15%
8.	Teachers allow the learners' to argue on a logical point	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%
9.	Learners believe they can contribute in decision making	a. 10% b. 80% c. 10%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 5% b. 90% c. 5%
10.	Teachers allow the learners' to contribute in decision making	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%
11.	Learners believe they can share authority with their teachers	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 60% b. 40%	a. 70% b. 30%
12.	Teachers share authority with learners	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%
		a = Yes	b = No	c = Sometimes

An analysis of Table 2 shows us the learners' beliefs and expectations regarding their relationship with their teachers, and how much their teachers fulfill those expectations in actual classroom practice. All of them (100%) consider their teachers as the sole authority inside the classroom. This response suggests that the learners' attitude towards their teachers' role as the "authority model" (Siddique, 2004, p. 19) has not changed. Though most of the learners (77.5%) believe in their individuality and freedom of expression, most of them (90%) responded that they do not believe they can take part in decision making or can argue with their teachers. All these responses reveal that the learners still believe in their role as passive listeners. Regarding the classroom practice of their teachers, majority of the students reported that their teachers do not believe in their freedom of expression (67.5%) and do not allow them to take part in decision-making (100%) or argue (100%) with them. Interestingly, though most of the learners (70%) believe that they can share authority with their teachers, all of them (100%) responded that they are not allowed to do so by their teachers.

During the interview, when the learners were asked about the reasons behind their responses, they reported that they are not aware of their changing roles in new methodology. They suggested that as they are younger they cannot take part in decision-making. They also said that as the teachers are adults, they are expected to follow the teachers unquestionably as their parents, institution and local culture dictate them to do so (Siddique, 2004). Again, they reported that due to time-limitation (Karim, 2004), they are always in a hurry to get prepared for the examination and they want their teachers to give lecture and finish the syllabus on time. They believe that if they speak more in the class, the teachers will not be able to finish syllabus on time. Moreover, some of them confessed that they do not contradict their teachers in fear of losing grades in the examination (Kyriacou, 1986). The contradictory responses from the learners suggest that they are still continuing with the traditional beliefs regarding their relationship with their teachers, and their teachers are also continuing with the traditional classroom practice. These responses also indicate that the learners' beliefs are moulded by both their teachers' classroom practice as well as the prevalent cultural ideology represented by their parents, school administration and society.

Table 3 : Administrators' Beliefs & Expectations about Teacher-Student Relationship

No.	Statements	Response (Teachers in Dhaka)	Response (Teachers Outside Dhaka)	Mean
1.	Teacher is the sole authority	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 60% b. 40%	a. 70% b. 30%
2.	Administrators are aware of "Learner Autonomy"	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 90% b. 10%
3.	Learners can play a vital role in overall teaching/ learning process	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
4.	Learners need to be treated as individuals	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
5.	Learners must be given freedom of expression	a. 100% c. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
6.	Learners have the right to argue on a logical point	a. 20% b. 60% c. 20%	a. 0% b. 80% c. 20%	a. 10% b. 70% c. 20%
7.	Learners can contribute in decision making	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%
8.	Teachers should share authority with learners	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%
		a = Yes	b = No	c = Sometimes

An analysis of Table 3 gives us an overview of the administrators' beliefs regarding teacher-student relationship. The findings reveal that most of the administrators still consider the teachers as the sole authority (70%) and they do not think the teachers' should allow the students to take part in decision-making (100%) or argue (70%) in the class. Though all of them (100%) believe that the teachers should acknowledge their students' individuality and freedom of expression, their responses suggest that they still believe in the passive role of the learners.

During the interview, when the administrators were asked about why they still believe in teachers' authoritative role, they reported that in Bangladeshi socio-cultural scenario, this is the model role that everyone expects the teacher to play. They also

reported that as the teachers need to finish the syllabus on time and prepare the students for the exam (Karim, 2004), it is not possible for the teachers to allow all students to express their views or argue with teachers. They also said such measures will destroy the classroom discipline (Karim, 2004), and the moral values of the students, as arguing with an adult is considered inappropriate in the local culture of Bangladesh (Harmer, 1991; Siddique, 2004). When they were asked about the appropriacy of the changing relationship in the classroom, they said that due to the cultural ideology regarding classroom teaching along with other infrastructural problems of the institution, it is neither possible for the teachers to implement these changes nor it is possible for the administration to let the teachers do so. The responses from the administrators indicate their firm belief in traditional teacher-student authority relationship as they prefer teachers' authority more than learners' autonomy inside the classroom.

Table 4 : Parents' Beliefs & Expectations about Teacher-Student Relationship

No.	Statements	Response (Teachers in Dhaka)	Response (Teachers Outside Dhaka)	Mean
1.	Teacher is the sole authority	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
2.	Parents are aware of "Learner Autonomy"	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 0% b. 100%
3.	Learners can play a vital role in overall teaching/ learning process	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 80% b. 20%	a. 90% b. 10%
4.	Learners need to be treated as individuals	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%	a. 100% b. 0%
5.	Learners must be given freedom of expression	a. 40% b. 60%	a. 20% b. 80%	a. 30% b. 70%
6.	Learners have the right to argue on a logical point	a. 10% b. 70% c. 20%	a. 0% b. 80% c. 20%	a. 5% b. 75% c. 20%
7.	Learners can contribute in decision making	a. 0% b. 90% c. 10%	a. 0% b. 100% c. 0%	a. 0% b. 95% c. 5%
8.	Teachers should share authority with learners	a. 10% b. 90%	a. 0% b. 100%	a. 5% b. 95%
		a = Yes	b = No	c = Sometimes

An analysis of Table 4 gives an impression of the parents' beliefs and expectations regarding the teacher-student authority relationship. All of them (100%) responded that they consider the teacher as the sole authority of the classroom. They also believe that the teachers should not allow their students to argue (75%) or take part in decision-making (95%) and should not share authority (95%) with students. Their responses suggest that they nurture the traditional belief of the teacher as an authority model (Siddiqe, 2004).

During the interview, when the parents were asked to justify their responses, they reported that they are not aware about the demands of the new teaching methodology regarding teacher-student role relationship. They stated that their attitude towards teacher-student authority relationship is formed by what they experienced as students. Again, they believe that the teachers should continue to be authoritative for the greater interest of the students and classroom discipline. Moreover, they commented that there must be a barrier between the teacher and the students, so that the students are awed by the teacher and learn everything out of fear (Kyriacou, 1986). According to them, the best teacher is the one who delivers all the information, and prepare his students well for the examination. It is interesting to note that the views of the parents adhere more to the principles of GTM rather than CLT. The parents' responses reveal that as they are not aware of the shifting teacher-student relationship, and its positive impact on learners' acquisition of knowledge, they still remain the staunch believers of teachers' authority. The responses from the parents reveal that they expect the teachers and learners to practice the traditional teacher-student authority relationship inside the classroom.

Problems faced by the teachers and the students

The findings of the survey reveal the real picture of the teacher-student authority relationship in the traditional culture of school education in Bangladesh. Though the teacher-student relationship is confined inside the classroom, the responses from the teachers, students, administrators and parents suggest how the cultural ideology and infrastructural elements of school education are affecting this relationship. As a result, the teachers are facing problems in adopting the requirements of CLT inside the classroom. CLT requires a lot of interaction inside the classroom as the main aim of CLT is to make the students autonomous. However, because of the traditional beliefs and expectations, the teachers are unable to build up a partnership with the students or involve them in group work and pair work to guide them to become independent learners.

On the other hand, the students are also demotivated to come out of their traditional role of passive listeners due to the pressure of traditional beliefs. Their passivity is resulting in poor performance in L2 as learning a language for communicative purpose requires a lot

of interaction among the teachers and the students. Moreover, the goal of modern education is to make the learners independent and confident individuals rather than blind followers of their teachers (Pace & Hemmings, 2007). However, the study reveals that the learners hardly get any opportunity to explore their own potential inside the classroom as they just receive what their teachers' say.

In similar studies, Abedin (2012), Chowdhury (2012), Karim (2004), Rahman (1999), Quaderi (2007), Shahidullah (1999), Siddique (2004) find a similar picture of cultural resistance to the implementation of Western ethos of teacher-student relationship in Bangladeshi ELT classrooms. Their studies also reveal that due to the mismatch between the Western methodology and native culture of education, the new mode of teaching has failed to achieve its desired goals. The findings of this paper are consistent with the earlier research in this arena. The study affirms Siddique's (2004) conclusion that "The introduction of CLT in Bangladesh seems to have been a rather presumptuous imposition which neither took account the overall cultural orientation to teaching and learning nor the severe constraints which would inevitably hamper facilitation of the method" (p. 24).

Limitations of the Study

Though it was a small scale study I tried to cover responses both from the capital and rural areas and tried to incorporate people who play major roles in the culture of education in Bangladesh. However, this study has some limitations as well:

1. The responses are taken only from the government schools. There are a number of non-government schools in our country. But the study does not contain responses from any of these non-government schools.
2. Though Madrasa education is an important part of Bangladeshi education, the study does not include any response from Madrasa teachers, students, administrators or the parents of Madrasa students.
3. The study would have been more holistic, if it could incorporate the responses from the teacher trainers and the other officials involved in the school administration.
4. The study was only conducted in high schools. The study does not include any response from the primary schools.

Recommendations

In this paper, I tried to focus on the nature of teacher-student authority relationship in Bangladeshi ELT classroom. Through an empirical study, I also tried to find out the cultural factors that inhibit the implementation of the newly defined teacher-student relationship suggested by CLT. We cannot expect our teachers and students to adopt this new relationship overnight. It requires time and the joint efforts of the teachers, students, administrators and parents. To deal with the cultural resistance towards changing teacher-student authority relationship, the paper proposes some recommendations:

Improvement of the teacher training program

The teacher training programs of our country should address the issue of how the beliefs and expectations of the teachers, learners, administrators and parents interfere with the classroom teaching-learning context. Instead of imposing the theoretical demands on the teachers, the training programs should focus more on the practical application of the Western mode of teacher-student relationship in Bangladeshi cultural context, and make the teachers understand to what extent the new relationship is achievable in Bangladeshi ELT classrooms.

Contextualized training programs

Usually the training programs are held in well-equipped training centers where the teachers are taught in an ideal classroom scenario. As a result, when the teachers go back to their own classroom they cannot implement the knowledge gained from training programs in that classroom setting. Therefore, in-service training programs must be organized by the institution to make the teachers learn how to deal with the new teacher-student relationship in their own classroom context.

Regular parents' meeting

The educational institutions must arrange weekly or monthly parents' meeting. If the parents and teachers interact regularly, the parents will become aware of the demands of new teaching methodology and the importance of learners' involvement, and they will be able to guide their children accordingly.

Learner training

The institutions must arrange workshops for the learners to make them aware of their new roles in shifting teacher-student relationship. Learner training will help the learners to come out of their traditional beliefs regarding their role, and take charge of their own learning, rather than passively relying on the teacher.

Role of the administrators

The administrators need to change their attitude towards teacher-student relationship, and should act as negotiator between local tradition and the changing teacher-student role relationship. They must understand that learner-centered class does not mean the failure of the teacher rather it focuses more on the learners' need, and enhance their self-reliance which is the main goal of modern education.

References

- Abedin, M. M. (2012). The present mode of teaching in the ELT classes at the Higher Secondary level in Bangladesh: Is it the practice of CLT or disguised GTM?. *Stamford Journal of English*, 7, 1 – 15.
- Anyon, J. (1983). Social class and the hidden curriculum of work. In H. Giroux & D. Purpel (Eds.), *The hidden curriculum and moral education* (pp. 143-167). Berkeley, CA: MacCutchan.
- Bamber, B. (1999). Feet of clay? Compromise in primary teacher training. *BELTA Journal*, 2, 78-91.
- Benson, P. & Voller, P. (1997). *Autonomy independence in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Breen, M., & Candlin, C.N. (1980). The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 89-112.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Burnaby, B & Sun, Y. Chinese teachers' view of Western language teaching: Context inform paradigms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23 (2), 219-238.
- Chowdhury, A. M. R., Haq, M. N. & Ahmed, Z. (1997). Quality of primary education in Bangladesh. In A. K. Jalaluddin & A. M. R. Chowdhury (eds.). *Getting started: Universalizing quality primary education in Bangladesh*, (pp. 117-147). Dhaka: The University Press Ltd.
- Chowdhury, M. K. B. (2012). *Communicative language teaching approach at higher secondary level in Bangladesh –teachers' perceptions and classroom practice*. Accessed on March 31, 2013, from <<http://www.languageinindia.com/feb2012/chaudhurydissertationfinal.pdf>>
- Crabbe, D. (1993). Fostering autonomy from within classroom: The teacher's responsibility. *System*, 21(4), 443-52
- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-Instruction in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, G. (1994). The appropriateness of the communicative approach in Vietnam: An interview study in intercultural communication. M.A. Thesis, La Trobe University. Accessed on June 24, 2013, from ERIC E*-Journal. Document No. ED 378 839.

- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Foster, P. (1994). *Final report on the revised English elective materials for the B.Ed courses offered by TTCs*. Bangladesh National Curriculum and Textbook Board Press.
- Fox, C.A. (1993). Communicative competence and beliefs about language among Graduate Teaching Assistants in French. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(3), 313-324.
- Freire, P. (1996). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. London: Penguin.
- Franklin, B.M. (1986). *Building the American community: The school curriculum and the search for social control*. London: Falmer.
- Gamal, G & Debra, M. (2001). The communicative approach in Egypt: Exploring the secrets of Pyramids. *TELF Web Journal*, 1(2). Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Accessed on June 30, 2013, from <http://www.teflweb-j.org/v1n2/Gahin_Myhill.html>
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. Essex: Longman Group UK Ltd.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in language classroom*. Oxford: OUP.
- Hemmings, A. (2003). Fighting for respect in urban high schools. *Teachers College Record*, 105, 416-437.
- Hemmings, A., & Metz, M.H. (1990). Real teaching: How high school teachers negotiates national, community, and student pressures. In R. Page & L. Valli (Eds.), *Curriculum differentiation: Interpretive studies in U.S. secondary schools* (pp. 91 – 111). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner perceptions and teacher beliefs about learner autonomy in language learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 16, 13-29.
- Karim, K. (2004). *Teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and expectations about communicative language teaching (CLT) in post-secondary education in Bangladesh*. Accessed on April 28, 2012, from <http://dspace.library.uvic.ca:8080/bitstream/handle/1828/560/karim_2004.pdf?sequence=1>
- Kyriacou, C. (1986). *Effective teaching in schools*. London: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Li, D. (1998). "It is always more difficult than you plan and imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 32(40), 667-703.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy: Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Metz, M.H. (1978). *Classrooms and corridors: The crisis of authority in desegregated secondary schools*. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.
- Mustafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in the classroom practice. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2(2). Accessed on July 10, 2013, from ERIC-E* – Journal. No. ED 462 833.

- NAEM (National Academy for Education Management). *A Study on effective communicative English teaching at the H.S.C. level in Bangladesh*. Research Report of December, 2005.
- Oakes, J., Gamoran, A., & Page, R. (1992). Curriculum differentiation: Opportunities, outcomes, and meanings. In P. Jackson (Ed), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum* (pp. 570-608). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Oxford, R. L. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, and interaction: Three communicative strands in the language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 81(4), 443-456.
- Quaderi, G (2005). Teaching English writing to large classes at the tertiary Level: Preliminary observations. *The Dhaka University Studies*, 62 (1), 32-51.
- Pace, J.L. & Hemmings, A. (2007). Understanding authority in Classroom: A review of theory, ideology, and research. *Review of Educational Research*, 77 (1), 4-27.
- Penner, J (1995). Changes and conflict: Introduction of the communicative approach in China. *TESOL, Canada Journal*, 2(2), 1-17.
- Rahman, A. (1999). ELT innovation and cultural Change: A Bangladeshi Perspective. *BELTA Journal*, 2, 235-253.
- Rahman, A. M. M. H. (1988). A textbook on trial: *English for Today* book eight. *BELTA Journal*, 1, 55-81.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Lockhart C. (2005). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Richards, J. C., Gallo, P. B. and Renandya, W. A. (2001). *Exploring teachers' beliefs and the processes of change*. Accessed on April 22, 2012, from <<http://boori.mshdiau.ac.ir/FavouriteSubjects/exploring-teacher-change.pdf>>
- Savignon, S. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), 261-277.
- Shahidullah, M. (1999). Towards an appropriate methodology for ELT in Bangladesh. *BELTA Journal*, 2, 46-68.
- Siddique, R. (2004). CLT: Another assumed ideal from the West? *The Dhaka University Studies*, 61(1), 15-27.
- Tompson, G. (1996). Some misconceptions about communicative language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 50, 9-15.
- Waller, W. (1961). *The sociology of teaching*. New York: John Wiley. (Original work published 1932).

Psychological Stress and its Relationship with Achievement of Science Students of Army Schools

Narendra Kumar¹ & Rajive Kumar²

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Education, S.G.P.G. College, Sarurpurkhurd, Meerut, India

²Assistant Professor, Department of Education, N.A.S. College, Meerut, India

Abstract

This study attempts to assess the psychological stress and its relationship with achievement among senior secondary science students of Army Schools. A sample of 91 students was randomly selected from different Army Schools of Meerut province. They were administered Psychological Stress Scale for Science Students (PSSSS) developed by the researcher himself. PSSSS was constructed around 12 dimensions of psychological stress. Mean, S.D., Regression analysis and Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation were used to analyze the data. Results show that the stress dimension workload in science has been emerged as the major factor causing stress, while society as the least causing factor for stress. Negative and significant correlation was observed between achievement and psychological stress dimension examination and achievement only and no significant relationship was observed between achievement and total psychological stress and its all other dimensions. The findings from the present study would benefit various parties in the country in planning and conducting necessary program for the students so that stress-related factors could be reduced and better academic performance could be achieved by the students.

Keywords - Psychological Stress, Science Students, Achievement, Army Schools

Introduction

Stress refers to a dynamic interaction between the individual and the environment. In this interaction, demands, limitations and opportunities related to work may be perceived as threatening to surpass the individual's resources and skills (Kohler, et al 2006). In case of disarrangement, this interaction may lead to cognitive, emotional and behavioural alterations. Some of the most common stressors are time pressures, workload, making decisions, continuous changes and economic mistakes at work. Senior secondary school years should be a new and interesting experience, but many demands and rapid changes can make them one of the most stressful times of the life. Students of this stage face increasing amounts of schoolwork, a rapidly changing curriculum, assignment deadlines and exams. Students worry about selecting careers and post schooling programmes. The problems encountered by students may differ from those faced by their non student peers. Students are starting to shift from a life that is dependent on others to a life that needs them to release the dependency and start carrying their own responsibilities (Sulaiman, et al 2009). Getting high grades is the important source of stress for students, In addition, there are other important sources of stress such as homework, assignments and uncomfortable classrooms, relationships with faculty members and friends, eating and sleeping habits and time pressure may also be sources of stress.

Students have to balance their schoolwork with their hobbies, sports and daily life. They have conflicts with friends, siblings, parents and have to adjust themselves with other environmental demands. Further, Science students have many obstacles to overcome in order to achieve optimal academic performance as compared to humanities students. A number of researches have been done looking at the correlation of many stress factors that science students experience and the effects of stress on their academic performance and further supported by Saipanish (2003) who conducted a study on 686 medical students in Thailand. Obviously, test or exam anxiety is one of the main causes to academic stress and most university students seem to be more emotionally vulnerable due to examinations. Increased anxiety from tests has a debilitating effect on students' performance. When information generated by worrying about the test reduces the capacity available for performing the task, the result is that performance breaks down and the result becomes self-confirming (Fisher, 1994). Most of the time, science students have complain of dwelling in between their efforts for better achievement and teacher's/ parent's expectations. Most of the studies in different responses to stress have been carried out in dental, medical, nursing, university and college students (Sinha, et al 2000, Lee et al 2002, Kuruppuarachchi, et al 2002, Ellison, 2004, **Polychronopoulou, Argy and Divaris, Kimon 2005**, Hussain, et al 2008, Kumar and Singh 2004, Kaplan, et al 2005, Chapell, et al 2005, Vijayalakshmi and

Lavanya 2006, Nicholson 2009, and Hasan 2009). Many scholars in the field of behavioural science have carried out extensive research on stress and its outcomes and concluded that the topic needed more attention. The researcher found that there is no much research conducted particularly in Western U.P in India pertaining to this issue with regards to the students of Army Schools. In India, Army schools are established and governed by Army Welfare Education Society (AWES). AWES as on date , is managing 120 Army Institutions / Army Public Schools and 12 Professional Colleges spread all over the country to cater for educational needs of nearly 1.50 lack children of Army Personnel including Ex-Servicemen. Therefore, it is timely to conduct a research to examine this particular issue. In the present study, the researcher attempted to study the psychological stress and its relationship with achievement of science students studying in Army Schools of Meerut province.

Objectives

The objectives of this research study were:

1. To study the nature of achievement of science students of Army Schools.
2. To study the nature of psychological stress of science students of Army Schools.
3. To study the contribution of psychological stress on achievement of science students of Army Schools.
4. To study the relationship between psychological stress and achievement of science students of Army Schools.

Research Methodology

Methods of research are generally determined by the theory of the topic under study, objectives of the study, resources of researchers etc. These considerations have led the investigator to use the Descriptive Survey method of research for the present study. For this study, 100 science students officially enrolled in 12th standard were randomly selected from Army Schools running in Meerut province. Psychological Stress Scale for Science Students (PSSSS) developed by the researcher itself was used to measure psychological stress of science students. Out of 100 science students only 91 students were finally taken because 09 students did not fill the scale properly. Achievement in science of the students was considered as the marks obtained in science in 12th class board examination.

Development of Psychological Stress Scale for Science Students (PSSSS)

Selection of dimensions

First of all, science students were contacted and were discussed about causes of stress in teaching and learning of science. Similarly, discussions and interviews were held with school teachers, administrators, science educators and planners in order to find out the reasons of stress in science students. Based on the variety of sources, PSSSS was structured around the 12 dimensions of psychological stress i.e. curriculum transactions in Science, content of Science, infrastructure for science, Science teachers, peers, workload in Science, examination and achievements, home and family environment, vocational aspirations, health, communication problems and society.

Preparation/Selection of items

10 to 15 items were constructed or selected from different sources related to each dimension of stress. Maximum care was taken to see that each item corresponds to the specific dimension under which it was constructed and they do not overlap each other. Each item was followed by five options, namely, 'Always', 'Often', 'Sometimes', 'Rarely', and 'Never'. Altogether 140 items were constructed.

Experts comments

After preparation/selection of items, PSSSS was sent to 15 experts in the field of science education and psychology for experts opinions about items ambiguity, relevancy and sentence structures. They were requested to exercise their judgment about whether each item in a particular dimension was representative of that dimension or not. On the basis of expert's comments, out of 140 items only 122 items were selected for try-out.

Small group tryout

After selection of 122 items on the basis of expert's comments, the scale was administered to 50 students started with specific instructions regarding how to attempt it, which gave the students some background about what was expected to them. The students were given freedom to tick any one of the five options (always, often, sometimes, rarely, and never), depending on how often he/she felt concerned about the situation given in the item. They were also asked to mention, if the items were either vague or different in respect of their meanings. The scale items were again checked on the basis of the responses

obtained in the tryout. Thus, out of the 122 items, 4 items were rejected. The remaining 118 items were retained for final tryout and item analysis.

Final try-out

The PSSSS with 118 items on Likert type five-point scale was administered on a sample of 370 science students of 12th class. Students were selected from seven different types of schools running in Meerut province. If the student has marked “Always “ as his / her answer in response to that item, then a stress score of 5 is assigned to it. Similarly, the responses ‘often’, ‘sometimes’, ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ are assigned scores of 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. To find out total score of each individual on PSSSS, Scores of 118 items were summed up. For the purpose of item analysis, twenty seven percent (100) high scoring students and twenty seven percent (100) low scoring students were screened out. These two extreme groups were used to find out discriminative indices of each items using t-test. Those items whose t-values were significant at 0.01 level were retained in the scale. Thus, out of 118 items only 96 items were selected in the final form of the scale.

Data Analysis Techniques

To study the nature of psychological stress, its all dimensions and the achievement of all the science students (N=91), mean, standard deviation (S.D.) were calculated. Simple and stepwise regression analysis was done to study the contribution of psychological stress and its all dimensions on achievement of science students,. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to study the relationship between psychological stress and achievement of science students.

Results

Analysis and interpretation of results are given objective wise in following sub headings-

I. Nature of Achievement of Science Students

Table 1 : Statistics showing the nature of achievement of science students of Army Schools (N=91)

Variable	Mean	S.D.
Achievement	119.67	25.98

Table 1 shows that mean of Achievement scores of science students of Army Schools was found to be 119.670 followed by the S.D. value 25.98.

II. Nature of Psychological Stress of Science Students

Table 2 : Statistics showing the distribution of psychological stress and achievement of science students of Army Schools (N= 91)

Psychological Stress Dimensions	Mean	S.D.
Curriculum Transaction in Science	21.15	5.25
Content of Science	19.39	5.58
Infrastructure for Science	19.09	7.28
Science Teachers	22.75	6.72
Peers	20.48	6.82
Workload in Science	22.90	6.91
Examination and Achievement	22.85	6.67
Home and Family Environment	21.26	6.91
Vocational Aspiration	22.81	6.34
Health	19.07	6.86
Communication Problems	20.48	6.58
Society	18.85	6.35
Total Psychological Stress	251.14	54.66

It is evident from Table 2 that means of the different dimensions of psychological stress were found to vary from 18.85 to 22.85, which were of moderate level. It is also depicted from Table 2 that mean of total psychological stress score of all students was found to be 251.14 which was of moderate level. Further, mean stress score (22.90) of the students was found to be greater on the psychological stress dimension *workload in science* followed by the dimensions Examination and achievement (22.85), Science teachers (22.75), Vocational aspirations (22.81), Home and Family Environment (21.26) and Curriculum transaction in science (21.15) in comparison to all the other dimensions, where as the lowest mean stress score (18.85) of science students was found due to psychological stress dimension *Society* followed by *health and infrastructure for science*. It means that science students of Army Schools were found to be more stressed due to *workload in science* in comparison of other dimensions and least stress due to its dimension *Society*.

III. Contribution of Psychological Stress on Achievement of Science Students

Table 3 : Summary of regression analysis for contribution of dimensions of psychological stress on achievement of science students of Army Schools

Step	Constant	Variable Contributed	Beta	Adjusted R ²	Percentage Contribution
1.	144.937	Examination of achievement	-0.2838	0.0702	07.02**

** p < 0.01

It is depicted from Table 3 that contribution of psychological stress dimension examination and achievement on achievement was 7.02%, which was significant at 0.01 level. Contribution of other dimensions of psychological stress on achievement was not significant at 0.05 level This means that only one dimension of psychological stress examination and achievement contribute significantly on achievement of Army Schools science students.

IV. Relationship between Psychological Stress and Achievement of Students

Table 4 : Correlation between psychological stress and achievement of Army Schools students (N=91)

Variables	Mean	S.D.	Product	Correlation
<i>Achievement</i>	119.67	25.98
Total Psychological Stress	251.14	54.66	2714979	-0.154
Curriculum Transaction in Science	21.15	5.25	228516	-0.149
Content of Science	19.39	5.58	209569	-0.125
Infrastructure for Science	19.09	7.28	209000	0.059
Science Teachers	22.75	6.72	246667	-0.074
Peers	20.48	6.82	220273	-0.173
Workload in Science	22.90	6.91	247275	-0.130
Examination and Achievement	22.85	6.67	244487	-0.281**
Home and Family Environment	21.26	6.91	230032	-0.094
Vocational Aspiration	22.81	6.34	247573	-0.058
Health	19.07	6.86	205219	-0.156
Communication Problems	20.48	6.58	220706	-0.152
Society	18.85	6.35	205662	0.020

It is depicted from Table 4 that the value of correlation coefficient between Achievement and psychological stress dimension “*Examination and achievement*” of Army Schools students was found to be -0.281 which was significant at 0.01 level. The values of the correlation of coefficient between achievement and total psychological stress and its all other dimensions were not found to be significant at 0.05 level. It means that achievement of Army Schools students is significantly and negatively correlated with psychological stress dimension achievement and examination only.

Discussion

It is apparent from the findings of this study that science students of Army Schools were found to be under stress in the process of studying science at senior secondary level. Out of the 12 dimensions that have been considered for taking as factors responsible for causing psychological stress, the dimension *workload in science* has been emerged

as the major factor causing stress. The reason for this is very obvious. Science students as compared to arts students always have much workload. The way that science is taught seems to be a major area of concern for the students. Science students feel stressed due to additional practical and assignments. There has been realization among educationists to attempt to reduce the workload. The Yashpal committee (1993) has focused exclusively on the problem of burden on school children. It has looked at the problem both in terms of the physical load but more importantly in terms of the burden of non-comprehension that they have from the study of science are not being met. *Examination and achievement, Science teachers, Vocational aspirations and Curriculum transaction in science* have also been emerged as major causing factors of stress among science students. These findings are supported by the findings of Saipanish (2003), who found that heavy work load, examinations and meeting deadlines for assignments were the most common causes of stress. Earning high grades is not the only source of stress for college students. Vocational aspiration has been emerged as another area causing stress among science students. This finding is supported by the results of Kadapatti and Khadi (2006) and Huan, et al (2008). Kadapatti and Khadi (2006) suggested that high aspiration as the factor that significantly influenced academic stress. Huan, et al (2008) showed that academic stress arises from self and other expectations, in both the boys and the girls. With changes taking place in the profile of the labor markets, fewer opportunities are available in a profession related to the pure sciences. Thus, most science students start preparing themselves for accessing suitable careers from the school level itself. As far as vocational aspirations and peer pressure is concerned, Students were found to feel relatively more stressed in their career aspect. Schools are thus suggested to design a flexible course of career education based on students' future career development. This course must cover psychological, mental, social, and cultural contents and be incorporated into formal curricula of each department. The stress resulting due to the dimension Society was found to be the lowest out of the twelve dimensions. Adolescents are mostly concerned about their physical appearances than about other aspects. Contribution of stress dimensions examination and achievement was found to be significant, while all other stress dimensions were not found to have significant contribution. When the relationship of achievement and psychological stress was studied, the findings illustrate that negative and significant correlation was observed between achievement and psychological stress dimension examination and achievement, It means that more psychological stress results in poor achievement. This finding is supported by the earlier findings of ISR (1996), Kumar and Singh (2004), Kaplan, et al. (2005), Chapell et al. (2005), Vijayalakshmi and Lavanya (2006), Nicholson (2009), Hasan (2009). Nicholson (2009) explored the effects of test anxiety on student achievement of grade 11 students and revealed that anxiety and achievement are related to each other. Khalid and Hasan (2009) found that students with high academic achievement have low test anxiety scores and vice versa. Chapell, et al. (2005) found a significant and negative

relationship between test anxiety and academic achievement. Kumar and Singh (2004) indicated that the level of stress among the students interfered with the performance in examination, test etc. Kaplan, et al. (2005) suggested that for students in high stress school environments, and increase in academic expectations would serve to increase their school related stress and impeded their academic performance. Vijayalakshmi and Lavanya (2006) showed that students who achieved more in mathematics felt less stress. There exists negative relationship between stress and mathematics achievement. But it was also observed that achievement was not significantly correlated to total psychological stress and its all other dimensions.

Conclusions and Suggestions

In the end, it can be concluded that science students have been found experiencing stress. The highly competitive education and the learning processes are the key factors of science student's mental state. The modern world, which is said to be a world of achievement, is also a world of stress. One finds stress everywhere, whether it is within the family, academics or any social and economic activity. Stress can occur, if there is mismatch between the reality of the work environment and individual's perception of the work environment. Likewise, lack of fit between the demands placed on individuals and their abilities to meet those demands can result in stress. The findings from the present study would benefit various parties in the country in planning and conducting necessary programs for the students so that stress-related factors could be reduced and better academic performance could be achieved by the students. It is proposed that these information are to be looked by students in facing anything that are considered to them as stress. The information shall also give benefit for parents and teachers in helping students to manage stress in the right way. Schools administration should provide more support and care to help students cope with various stressors and also careful to identify students having stress reactions as soon as possible. If necessary, schools can also refer students to professional consulting institutions. Schools should design and offer stress-related courses to help science students understand the meaning of well-being and learn how to cope with stress-induced problems. Teachers should also assist students with inferior academic achievement to minimize their troubles with learning. Family support is helpful for students faced with stress, no matter how they are adaptable to the stress. While college students should take advantage of family support, their family members should try to understand their interests, specialties, and abilities so as to avoid having too high expectations of them and causing them additional stress. Further studies can be made using different variables to see different aspects of factors affecting stress such as age, race, socio-economic status, surroundings, location and others so that the research can be generalized to all.

References

- Chapell, M.S., Blanding, Z.B., Takahashi, M., Silverstein, M.E., Newman, B., Gubi, A., & Mccann, N. (2005). Test anxiety and academic performance in undergraduate and graduate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97* (2), 268-274.
- Ellison, K.W. (2004). *Stress and the Police Officer*, 2nd ed., Charles C. Thomas Publishers, Springfield, IL.
- Huan, V.S., See, Y.L., Ang, R.P. and Har, C.W., (2008). The impact of adolescent concerns on their academic stress. *Educ. Rev., 60*(2): 169-178.
- Hudd, S., Dumlao, J., Erdmann-Sager, D., Murray, D., Phan, E., Soukas, N., & Yokozuka, N. (2000). Stress at college: Effects on health habits, health status and self-esteem. *College Student Journal, 34*(2), 217-227.
- Hussain A, Kumar A, (2008). Academic stress and adjustment among high school students. *J Indian Acad Appl Psychol; 34* (Special Issue): 70-3.
- ISR (1996). Stress and the First Year Students. *ISR Bulletins*, 13- March 15.
- Kadapatti, M. and Khadi, P.B. (2006). Factors influencing for academic stress among preuniversity students. *Indian Psychol. Rev., 66*(2): 83-88.
- Kaplan, D.S., Liu, R.X. and Kaplan, H.B. (2005). School related stress in early adolescence and academic performance three years later: The conditional influence of self expectations. *Soc. Psychol. Edu., 8*(1): 3-17
- Khalid, R., & Hasan, S. S. (2009). Test anxiety in high and low achievers. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 24* (3-4).
- Kohler, J. M., Munz, D. C. & Grawitch, M. J. (2006). Test of a dynamic stress model for organisational change: do males and females require different models? *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 55* (2); 168–191.
- Kumar, S. and Singh, A.P., (2004). Stress state and its relationship with academic performance among students. *Recent Trends in Human Stress Management*, pp. 55-66.
- Kurupparachchi, K. A. (2002). Psychological distress among students from five universities in Sri Lanka: Ceylon. *Med. J., March, 47* (1), 13-5.
- Lee, R. M., Keough, K. A., & Sexton, J. D. (2002). Social connectedness, social appraisal, and perceived stress in college women and men: *Journal of Counseling and Development, 80* (3), 355-361.
- Misra, R., McKean, M., West, S., & Russo, T. (2000). Academic stress of college students: Comparison of student and faculty perceptions: *College Student Journal, 34*(2), 236-245.
- Nicholson, A. M. (2009). Effects of test anxiety on student achievement (ACT) for college bound students. *Dissertation Abstract International*. DAI-A-70/07, AAT 3366126

- Polychronopoulou, A. and Divaris, K. (2005).** Perceived Sources of Stress Among Greek Dental Students. *J Dent Educ.* 69(6): 687-692.
- Sinha, B. K., Willson, L.R. and Watson, D.C. (2000). Stress and coping among students in India and Canada. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, Oct.
- Sulaiman, T., Hassan, A., Sopian V.M and Abdullah S .K. (2009). *European journal of social sciences*, 10(2), 179-184.
- Vijaylakshmi, G. and Lavanya, P. (2006), Relationship between stress and mathematics achievement among intermediate students. *Edutracks*, 7(7): 34-37.

Appendix I

PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS SCALE FOR SCIENCE STUDENTS (PSSSS)

This is a set of statements for science students to know how they feel about their science course. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answers. The information provided by you will be kept strictly confidential. Feel free to express your true feelings, frankly and openly. There are 96 statements in this scale. Read each statement carefully and indicate according to the options given along with each sentence, how much you feel worried about that situation.

For Example-

I feel worried because I have to memorize a lot of the theoretical course in science.

(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

If you feel worried about this situation *Rarely*, then tick the option (d). Please tick only one option in each statement.

Please write the following information about you:

PERSONAL INFORMATION PROFORMANCE

Name

Class

Date of Birth

Sex — Male / Female

Name of School

Place of Living — Rural / Urban

Father's Education

Mother's Education

Father's Occupation

Mother's Occupation

Marks in Science (Physics & Chemistry) in 10th class

/ 100

Curriculum Transaction in Science:

1. I feel worried because my doubts of the content are not clarified in the class.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I cannot understand what is being taught in the class.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because I cannot relate the theoretical knowledge of classroom to the practical life.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Content of Science:

1. I feel worried because I cannot solve the numerical problems of science.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I cannot memorize most of the formulae of science.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because some of the topics in science course are beyond the understanding level.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Infrastructure for Science:

1. I feel worried because there are not enough equipment available in science laboratory.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because the classrooms are not well equipped with basic facilities.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because the size of science laboratory is not sufficient as per student's strength.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Science Teachers:

1. I feel worried because science teachers do not solve the subject related problems.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because of the biased behavior of teacher.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because of teacher's comments on me during teaching.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Peers:

1. I feel worried because of lagging behind to other students in answering the questions asked in the class.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried when I see other students discussing content related issues.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because other students are able to complete their class work early to me.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Workload in Science:

1. I feel worried because I have to consult a number of reference books in addition to text books for the preparation of science subject.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I have to do extra hard work in science subject in comparison to others.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because I might not be able to complete the preparation for exams due to wide syllabus of science.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Examination and Achievements:

1. I feel worried because I tend to forget the correct answer during exams; even though I have read it before.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried when the questions in examination are out of syllabus.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because I might not get good marks in science.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Home and Family Environment:

1. I feel worried due to unhealthy atmosphere between family members.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I don't have appropriate freedom in the family.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because adequate rooms are not available for studying at home.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Vocational Aspiration:

1. I feel worried because I don't have correct information regarding different professional courses.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I have to study both for my school exams as well as professional courses simultaneously.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because I am not be able to choose the field as my profession.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Health:

1. I feel worried by thinking that I am not looking good.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because I am much fatty.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried by thinking that I face difficulty in practical work in science laboratory due to poor health.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Communication Problems:

1. I feel worried because I cannot express my views to others.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried when I am called to speak in any special occasion.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried I am called to speak in front of several people.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

Society:

1. I feel worried because social traditions are not matching my desires.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
2. I feel worried because of social evils.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never
3. I feel worried because the society is divided on the basis of caste and religion.
(a) Always (b) Often (c) Sometimes (d) Rarely (e) Never

INSPECTIONS: A MEASURE OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN STATE BOARD SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF GUJARAT.

Swaleha Sindhi, Assistant Professor

Department of Educational Administration,

The M.S.University of Baroda, Gujarat

India

Abstract

Inspection is concerned with the improvement of standards and quality of education and should be an integral part of a school improvement. The Gujarat Secondary and Higher Secondary Education Board (GSHEB) has the responsibility of improving and maintaining the quality of education in Gujarat. However, the analysis of students performance in the (SSC and HSC) Board Examination continued to indicate that the quality of education is low in Vadodara district with most schools showing stagnant or downward trends. The critical role of inspection as one of the dominant strategies for monitoring and improving the performance of education system in schools is very important. In this backdrop, this study was undertaken to understand the role of schoolinspectors for improving the quality of education in schools and also to highlight the challenges confronted by the school principals, teachers as well as the inspectors' in the whole process of inspections.

Keywords: Quality Assurance, School Inspection, Secondary School.

Introduction

India has certainly taken a significant stride towards the goal of achieving universal elementary education. The Union Government¹ overwhelmed by the success of Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) launched Rashtriya Madhyamik Siksha Abhiyan² (RMSA), a

-
1. Government of India is officially known as union government
 2. This scheme was launched in March, 2009 with the objective to enhance access to secondary education and to improve its quality.

programme for ‘Universalization of Access to and Improvement of Quality Education at Secondary Stage. It envisages free secondary education to students in the age group of 14 to 18 years. The objective of the scheme is to improve the middle level school education in terms of quality, access, infrastructure, educational aids, quality teaching, teacher training and monitoring system in the schools. To achieve this target of making quality education accessible to all, it is important to create a link between the school Inspection system and the Education Department, working as evaluation machinery.

In India, the system of inspection came in vogue with the recommendations of Wood’s Dispatch³ of 1854, mainly for regulating the private-aided and missionary schools. Studies have shown that the purpose was to control and maintain the education system rather than its improvement and development. Its nature was authoritative, autocratic, and unscientific. In the 20th Century, the concept of inspection was modified and came to be known as supervision. In the 1930s, however, the emphasis was shifted from rigid inspection to democratic supervision, and subsequently on human relations and cooperative efforts of supervisors and teachers, to bring about improvement in all school activities.

The inadequacy of the system was noted by the Mudaliar Commission in 1952 and there has been little change in the last five decades (Noord 2003, 68). Traditionally, inspection and supervision were considered important tools for ensuring the efficiency of an institution and the accountability of functionaries in the system. Inspection generally refers to assessment and evaluation of all activities in schools; however, to date the emphasis has been on the mechanics of Supervision yet the number of supervisory staff has declined relative to schools and students. Annual visits to schools, designed to safeguard standards, have decline (Clarke and Jha 2006, 256) and ‘Modern’ approaches to fostering school quality, such as school self-evaluation, are not in accord with school and supervisory practices in India (Grauwe, 2004).

The District Education Officers⁴ (inspectors) are responsible for the regular inspection and the academic supervision of government and private-aided schools. The size of the education system has increased tremendously in terms of number of institutions and teachers (National Council of Educational Research and Training 2001)⁵. However, the administrative machinery has not increased accordingly (**Tyagi 2001a**); hence education officers are overloaded with work. No mechanisms are in place to enhance their

3. Wood’s Dispatch of 1854 laid the foundation of present system of education in India.

4. A class II government officer who delivers workshops and responsible for schools of the district.

5. An apex resource organization to assist and advice centre and state governments on academic matters related to school education.

capacity, either at state or at national levels, and inspectors are not adequately equipped to give necessary guidance to schools (Singhal et al. 1986; Goyal 2001). The 1986 National Policy on Education envisaged that inspecting staff would be responsible for academic standards and providing academic leadership to ensure better performances by schools. However, many officers are unaware of this policy (Tyagi, 2001b).

Education in Gujarat

The Gujarat Secondary and Higher Secondary Education Board (GSHSEB) is in charge of the schools run by the Government of Gujarat. However, most of the private schools in Gujarat are affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) and Council for the Indian School Certificate Examinations (CISCE) board. There are only a few secondary schools run by the government. Majority of the secondary schools are run by trust and funded by grants from the government. The welfare department of the government in rural and tribal areas runs the Navi Taleem primary schools and ashram shalas, which have hostel facilities as well. Gujarat has 13 universities and four agricultural universities. The Gujarat Board of education is supposed to advice the state government on all matters relating to secondary and higher secondary education and to lay down the general policy for development of secondary and higher secondary education. It intends to provide quality education to all its learners.

Literacy rate in Gujarat

The literacy rate for the rural areas is 62.06 per cent and for the urban areas it is 82.59 per cent. In all the 24 districts where population enumeration was conducted, Ahmadabad has the highest literacy rate of 79.89 per cent, while Dahod district accounted the lowest literacy rate of 45.65 per cent.

Table 1 : Genderwise literacy rate in Gujarat

Year	State literacy	Male literacy	Female Literacy
2001	69.97%	80.50%	58.60%
2011	79.31%	87.23%	70.73%

(Source: Official Gujarat State Portal)

Management structure of secondary education in Gujarat:

The educational structure in Gujarat has the Minister of Education at the top of the hierarchy who takes all policy decisions in the state, the Secretary looks after Secondary and Primary Education while Commissioner of schools coordinates with the Board & looks after Secondary Education. At the District level he is assisted by the District Education Officer. The Textbook Board is constituted with minister of education as a chairperson, while Gujarat Institute of Education Technology (GIET) is constituted for developing techniques and tools for imparting education.

The SCERT functions as the academic wing of the Department at the State level. It provides various training programmes and academic guidance through extension services. Its vast publications of periodicals and other support literature also provide support inputs for teachers in addition to the evaluative and research studies on the impact of educational programmes in the state. Accreditation-Inspection Board recommended that all schools functioning within the State should be periodically inspected or accredited. This is necessary for proper development and monitoring of schools calling for a separate board for the purpose. At present there is a provision for research related to education in several agencies such as GCERT, Secondary Education Board and the Textbook Board. There is a need for assessment of the quality and quantum of research as well as its applicability and implementation. Additionally there is a need to get regular feedback from all stakeholders such as principals, teachers and Education Officers.

Current inspection system

In Gujarat the District Education Officer is the most important officer for the education at the District level. He functions both as an officer for the Board as well as for the government. He has powers for appointment and transfers of teachers and staff in the secondary schools and grants approvals for establishment issues. The grants to school are disbursed through him. The audit of accounts and inspection of schools are done by his office. Further, the correspondence in respect of getting approvals from the government is to pass through his office. He is responsible for investigations of complaints and departmental actions to be taken including disciplinary action. Thus the state exercise complete control on secondary schools through the District Education Officer. The Education Board in the State has no holistic philosophy of Accreditation-Inspection to monitor quality of schools on regular bases. Inspections are the only way of assessing quality of educational institutions and its major issue is that school inspections focus on

the routine administrative work of school where the academic area remains neglected. The appointment of education officers at the district level to supervise subjects in secondary schools is a token process with tremendous increase the size of education system; District education officers do not visit the required number of schools. The Boards of Secondary Education are the main agencies for conducting external examination. Examinations are the backbone of education system, and play a significant role in determining what goes on in the classroom, what the teacher teaches, how students learn, how much teachers have developed the ability of understanding and critical thinking in students, and how much deep approach the students have adopted in learning.

Review of Literature

The National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) undertook two national surveys in school educational administration – the first from 1973 to 1981 (NUEPA, 1973–81) and the second from 1991 to 2001 (NUEPA, 1991–2001). These showed significant country-wide trends whereby emphasis on supervising academic matters had declined in government and private-aided secondary schools. Academic supervision did not appear to be the main purpose of inspection. Several other studies on educational administration (Shukla 1983; Singhal et al. 1986; Batra 2003; Majumdar 2003) identified a lack of academic supervision and support in government and private-aided secondary schools. At district levels the appointment of two or three sub-district education officers to supervise subjects in secondary schools is a token process. District education officers do not visit the required number of schools. The work of this review is to bring together insights from research that provide understanding of academic supervision and indicates how the dearth in appointments of inspectors might contribute to the persistent problem

National Knowledge Commission; 2007, states that the system of school inspection needs to be revamped and revitalized in most states, with a greater role for local stakeholders. The current inspection system is overburdened and inadequate, with a small number of inspectors required to cover a large number of schools, often spread over wide physical areas. Thus, the commission recommended the strategy for the revitalization of the school inspection system by involving the Local stakeholder's in the monitoring of schools, whether in the form of Village Education Committees, parent associations, or other such bodies.

Rajmal (1981) pointed out that inspection depended largely upon the subjective views and observation of the inspecting officer as the proforma was not comprehensive

and objective. The analysis of the written reports of inspection revealed that less weightage was given to the functional part of school programs and more to the factual data. Kulkarni (1982) concluded that there was no clear distinction between academic and administrative inspection, the same officer did both and the headmaster and inspecting officer acted as bureaucrats. There was a dearth of properly trained inspecting officers and they were loaded with administrative work. 42 per cent of the inspecting officers did not communicate to teachers what they observed in classes. Inspecting officers were found to be least interested in demonstration teaching, individual discussion and guidance, and in promoting professional growth of teachers. The findings of this research it is very important to think of how the relationship between education offices, school teachers and school principals, can be constructed to engage with challenges of evaluation of schooling. For example, failure to tackle and resolve some of them will undoubtedly weaken the evaluation system in schools. Sharma (1991) in a comparative study of the administration of Boards of school education in India with special reference to secondary education and legal aspects strongly suggests improvements in the entire examination system at secondary education level and reformation in setup of the Boards. Khandelwal (2003) mentioned in the article futuristic paradigms for Boards of school education. The Boards have to assume a new role for justifying their existence for their sheer survival. The change has however to be well thought out and gradual. What appear to have received scant attention in these studies are initiatives of government in making timely and full time appointments of educational inspectors. Increasingly, inspectors are expected to lead local decision-making to improve schools, but many lack the requisite skills.

Rationale for the Present Study

Improving the quality of schools and achievement of students remains a priority throughout the world and not only in developing countries. Thus, the basic idea of any educational Institution is to ensure quality of education through Quality Assurance System. To monitor quality education ministry of the state government rely strongly on the inspection system, in the secondary schools academic inspection is carried out by District Education Officer with the help of his Inspectors. But the inspection system has not always been able to play its role as over time, there is an apparent gap in providing guidance, help, and support for improvement in the teaching-learning this is because of increase in number of schools and very few inspectors appointed. There are no full time appointments for the school inspectors. Thus inspectors are not able to give feedback to heads about improvement. Review of literature revealed that there is a need of improvement in the entire examination system at secondary education level and reformation in setup of the

Boards. In this light, the present study has been undertaken to understand the role of schoolinspectors in improving quality of schools and challenges faced by the Principals, Teachers and the Inspectors with regard to school inspections

Objectives of the Study

1. To study the process of secondary school inspection in Gujarat
2. To study the problems faced by school Principals, teachers and inspectors in school inspection in Gujarat.
3. To find out the extent of fulfillment of the purpose of school inspection in Gujarat.

Explanation of the Terms

Quality Assurance Practices:

In the present study 'Quality Assurance practices' are used for the inspection conducted by the inspecting officers for secondary schools of Vadodara DEO office. It includes academic as well as administrative inspection.

Secondary Schools:

Secondary schools in Gujarat comprise of std. IX and X in the academic year 2011-2012.

Limitation of the Study

The present study is confined to Grant- in -Aid Gujarati and English Medium Secondary schools of Vadodara city.

Methodology

The study is qualitative research approach and the collected data are analyzed by using simple statistical techniques with a view to know the percentage of agreement of teachers, principals and the Inspectors on the effectiveness of the inspection system in the quality enhancement of education in grant in aid schools. The survey questionnaire is administered to grant in aid secondary school principals, teachers and the inspectors' as well as an interview schedule for the DEO to understand the role of schoolinspectors for improving the quality of education in schools and also to highlight the challenges confronted by them, in the whole process of inspections. Interview helped clarify responses collected from questionnaire and also gathered information that was not assessed by the

questionnaire items. This information was collected through email and in person. The questionnaire consists of factors like; No of visits by inspectors to the school, approach adopted, Teachers satisfaction level, academic and administrative matters inspected.

Population for this study comprised of all the principals and teachers of 240 Grant in Aid secondary schools of Vadodara city and 04 educational inspectors. Randomization process for sample selection was adopted so that there is no preferential treatment in selection which may introduce selectivity bias. With simple random sampling and no stratification in the sample design, the selection probability is the same for all units in the sample. A sample of 12 grants in aid Secondary Schools were selected (i.e.20 percent of the population) Further from the 12 schools 120 teachers' i.e. 10 teachers per school, 12 principals (all from the sampled schools) and 04 inspectors (all from the city) as well as the DEO were taken as the sample for the study. The collected data shows the impact of inspections on the quality enhancement of the schools and the teachers. The adopted scaling technique in questionnaire is 5 point Likert scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree).

The Table 1 below indicate the schools selected as the sample for the study.

Table 1 : List of schools selected for study

Sr. No.	Name of School	Board Affiliation
1	Zenith School	G.S.E.B
2	Tejas Vidyalaya	G.S.E.B
3	Gujarat Refinery school	G.S.E.B
4	Baroda High School	G.S.E.B
5	Bright School	G.S.E.B
6	Mothers School	G.S.E.B
7	Shaishav School	G.S.E.B
8	Rosary High School	G.S.E.B
9	Vidyut Board Vidyalaya	G.S.E.B
10	Convent of Jesus & Mary	G.S.E.B
11	Basil School	G.S.E.B
12	Don Bosco School	G.S.E.B

Data Analysis

The purpose was to find out the inspection system that already exists in Gujarat State Board Secondary Schools and to put an effort to bring out the major flaws in the structure that hinders it from accomplishing its objectives. This study is mainly based on the interviews with Government officials i.e. the District Education Officer and questionnaires for the school principals and the teachers. Efforts have been made to find out the the formats used by the authorities to assess schools and find out the main parameters based on which schools are assessed. The reality regarding the functioning of the inspection system has been brought out slightly via the conversations with the stakeholders of the system. Following are the tables showing the responses of parents, teachers, inspectors and the District Education Officer.

Table 2: Response of Principal Interviews

No.	STATEMENT	RESPONSE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS									
		Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		No's	%	No's	%	No's	%	No's	%	No's	%
1	Inspectors visit schools on given dates	-	-	4	40	3	30	2	20	1	10
2	Inspect academic and Administrative matters	2	20	5	50	1	10	2	20	-	-
3	Offer suggestions to improve classroom teaching	-	2	20	-	-	8	80	-	-	-
4	Conduct surprise visits in the school	-	-	-	1	10	9	90	-	-	-
5	Collect information of student's achievement	-	-	-	9	90	1	10	-	-	-
6	Inspect various school facilities	-	-	2	20	3	30	5	50	-	-
7	Check student's notebooks and project work	-	2	20	8	80	-	-	-	-	-
8	Give suggestions for teacher's professional growth	-	2	20	-	-	8	80	-	-	-
9	Inspect the teachers log books	-	10	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Exhibits fault finding approach during inspection	-	10	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

The above Table-2 indicates the responses of principals on role of school inspector's on quality enhancement in the school. Where: only 40 % principals agree to inspectors visiting schools on the given dates. A majority of i.e. 80 % of principals strongly disagree to inspectors giving any suggestion for teacher's growth same was their opinion on inspectors surprise visits and suggestions given for students' academic achievement. They shared that the inspectors are only interested in Board Examination results and do not give importance to other classes results. The principals also opined that the inspectors gave importance only to schools sports achievement at state and national levels and not to other co-curricular activity achievements. Major concern of 50 % principals is that the inspectors only tend to look into records of the schools and various documents but ignore visiting the labs, libraries, and cleanliness of the schools thus they disagree to inspectors inspecting various school facilities but the major flaw is that inspectors have a fault finding approach and do not give any suggestions for improvement. As per the rules the principals are supposed to meet under the DEO every month for discussing the matters related to education in their schools. But the principal said that there isn't any such regularity in meetings.

As per the responses of the teachers as per the below table-3, although in theory the school inspector has to periodically and regularly visit schools, in practice they do not visit schools frequently. Even if they visit schools; there are very less chances that they will inspect the teaching learning process. While visiting classes, they prefer to put their signature on Teacher's Teaching Diary. Adding further, their visits remain limited to school infrastructure, most of the times. This was opined by a teacher of Don Bosco School. Another teacher from Sanskar Vidyalaya said that in her 16 years of Service as a teacher, she had faced inspection only thrice. She said that the functioning of a school depends upon the work-ethics of the principal. Many times even though the school is informed about an inspection, she said most likely it doesn't take place since the DEOs are often burdened with other administrative works and there is little time available for them to concentrate on the monitoring of academics.

Table 3 : Responses of Teachers

No. STATEMENT	RESPONSE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS										
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		
	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	No's %	
1	Inspectors visit schools on given dates	-	-	60	60	20	20	20	20	-	-
2	Inspect academic and Administrative matters	-	40	40	20	20	20	20	20	20	-
3	Offer suggestions to improve classroom teaching	-	30	30	40	40	15	15	15	15	-
4	Conduct surprise visits in the school	-	20	20	10	10	70	70	-	-	-
5	Collect information of student's achievement	-	-	10	10	50	50	20	20	20	20
6	Inspect various school facilities	-	-	10	10	20	20	60	60	10	10
7	Check student's notebooks and project work	-	-	10	10	-	-	80	80	10	10
8	Give suggestions for teacher's professional growth	-	-	10	10	-	-	60	60	30	30
9	Inspect the teachers log books	-	-	70	70	-	-	30	30	-	-
10	Exhibits fault finding approach during inspection	10	10	70	70	-	-	20	20	-	-

Table 4 : Responses of Inspectors

No. STATEMENT	RESPONSE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS										
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		
	No's	%	No's	%	No's	%	No's	%	No's	%	
1	Inspect enough schools as per rule	-	-	3	75	1	25	-	-	-	-
2	Give enough time to inspect each school	4	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Inspect teaching methods of each teacher and all the other aspects of school.	-	-	4	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Are overloaded with work	-	-	4	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Teachers share their difficulties with them	2	50	2	50	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Teachers implement all given suggestions	-	-	4	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Offer suggestions for professional growth of teachers	2	50	2	50	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	Conduct separate inspection for Drawing, Crafts, Music and Sports, labs library	-	-	2	50	-	-	2	50	-	-
9	Check record according to government rules and regulations	-	-	3	75	1	25	-	-	-	-
10	Check academic and administrative work	-	-	2	50	2	50	-	-	-	-

As per the above table-4, the major complaint pointed out by the inspectors whom the researcher met was about them being burdened with administrative works having less time to conduct inspections. Hence we need an independent inspection agency which specializes in inspection alone. Also proper trainings have to be given to the inspectors on how to monitor various aspects of a school in a uniform manner.

Findings

- (1) In the interview the DEO says that there has been increase in the number of schools in the district and so it is becoming very difficult to cover all the schools for inspections and make it two days inspections.
- (2) Inspectors are expected to give suggestions for improving academic performance of schools but this hardly happens as per the teachers and principals of almost all the sample schools.
- (3) As per the inspectors they opine there is a sudden increase in the number of schools but at the same time there is no new appointment in the staff members, there are many posts that are vacant and majority of posts are filled with in charge officers and not the full time employees.
- (4) The inspectors are overloaded with work and hence they try to finish with each school just in a days' time. Now this is where the real problem lies as in such a short span of time only administrative major activities are inspected and other academic activities and visits to different rooms is neglected.
- (5) The DEO also complained that there is no state mechanism in place to enhance capacity of inspectors, the selected inspectors are on the basis of their experience in schools.
- (6) Principal's view is that the inspectors focus on written records in order to check if rules and regulation are followed properly, G.R. and L.C are checked minutely. Library inspection consist mainly of checking dead-stock and its maintenance but not the other areas like the seating arrangements, type of literature, arrangement of books, bill of purchase etc.
- (7) Lab inspection consist of scrutiny of dead-stock this clearly shows the bureaucratic nature of inspection. Inspectors do not check the cleanliness of the class, toilets, urinals and school surroundings.
- (8) Inspectors were found to be least interested in demonstration teaching, individual discussion and guidance, and in promoting professional growth of teachers.

- (9) School management do breach the rules as the inspections are not done regularly, this is what the majority of teachers have to say.
- (10) Inspections can prove to be waste of time and resources if there is no follow up inspections done and useful suggestions given, as per the principals and teachers.

Suggestions and recommendations

- (1) It is high time that the Inspectors come out of its bureaucratic mind-set and focus more on the creativity of the teaching learning process and the holistic development of the learner. This is an urgent need in order to improve quality of schools.
- (2) The Board must constantly incorporate the changes that take place in different areas, as now the old British system of inspection will not work, what is needed is not monitoring but more on democratic approach and emphasis on human relations is to be given, which in turn will bring an overall school improvement.
- (3) State Education Department of Gujarat should modernize the inspection system with more staff for better inspection and to cope up with the increasing workload.
- (4) There should be separate inspection for both the academic and administrative dimensions which will bring about qualitative improvement.
- (5) Inspections must be carried out in all the schools for the management to adhere to the rules and follow up inspections must be carried out and suggestions for improvement must be given.
- (6) Further research can be held by expanding area of research and with some more items for questionnaire. The sample size also can be increased.
- (7) It has been recommended for the future researchers to investigate out the different factors which could facilitate in defining the determinants considered for investigation in this study.

References

- Argyris, C. (1993): Knowledge for Action, A Guide to Overcoming Barriers to Organizational Change. San Francisco, Jossey-Boss.
- Bhagia, N. M., Briggs, D. & Bhagia, S. (1990): Educational Administration in India and Other Developing Countries – Challenges, Tasks and Training. New Delhi, Concept Publishing Company.

- Blase, J. & Blase, J. (1998): Handbook of Instructional Leadership – How Really Good Principals Promote Teaching and Learning. California, Corwin Press, Thousand Oak
- Boud, D., Keogh, R. & Walker, D. (1985): Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning. London, Kogan Page.
- Densten, I. L., & Gray, H. J. (2001): Leadership Development and Reflection – What is the Connection? *International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(3), 119-124.
- Fenwick, L. & Pierce, M. (2002): To Train or Educate: How Should the Next Generation of Principals be Prepared? Washington, Harvard School of Education.
- Fullen, M. (1994): Teacher Leadership: A failure to conceptualize, in: D. R. Walling (Eds), *Teachers as Leaders*. Bloomington in Phi Delta Kappan Foundation.
- Govinda, R. & Shahjahan, T. (1999): Quality Education Through School-based Supervision and Support – The Case of GSS Primary Schools in Bangladesh (Paris, International Institute for Educational Planning).
- Gupton, S. L., (2003): The Instruction Leadership Toolbox – A Handbook for Improving Practice. California, Corwin Press, Thousand Oaks.
- Kumar, S. (2008): Job Profile and Professional Growth of the Principals of the Government Senior Secondary Schools, Haryana. Unpublished Study, Forum of Senior Citizens in Education, Panchkula, Haryana.
- MacBeath, J. & McGlynn A. (2002): Self-evaluation – What’s in it for schools? Abingdon, Routledge Falmer.
- McEwan, E. K., (2001): 7 Steps to Effective Instructional Leadership. California Corwin Press, Thousand Oaks.
- Mehrotra, A. (2005): Leadership Styles of Principals. New Delhi, Mittal Publications.
- Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (1986): National Policy on Education and Programme of Action. New Delhi.
- Kulkarni, N. (1982). Inspection and supervision of primary schools in Maharashtra with special reference to Maratha wad region. In M.B. Buch (ed.), *Fourth research survey of research in education*. New Delhi: NCERT.
- Mehrotra, A. (2005): Leadership Styles of Principals. New Delhi, Mittal Publications
- Mohanty, J. (2005). *Educational Administration and school management*. New Delhi: Deep & Deep Publication.
- More, S. (2000). *A study on the educational supervision in primary schools of vadodara Municipal Corporation*. Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, CASE, M.S. University of Baroda, Vadodara.
- Rajmal, T. (1981). A critical study of inspection and supervision practices at secondary school stage in Tamil Nadu, Ph. D. In M. B. Buch. (Ed.) *Third research survey of research in education*. Delhi: NCERT.
- Report of Secondary Education Commission. (1953)*. New Delhi: Ministry of Education.
- Shukla, P. D. (1983): Administration of Education in India. New Delhi. Vikas Publishing House.

Tyagi, R. S. (2009): A Study on School-based Supervision for Managing Quality in Secondary Schools, NUEPA, New Delhi

SAARC JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

This journal promotes educational research and disseminates research knowledge to enable educationists to take informed decisions towards improving the quality of education

Its aims are:

- 1) to promote and encourage original critical investigation of issues relevant to educational development in the SAARC region
- 2) to disseminate research findings to educational policy makers and practitioners within the SAARC region
- 3) to provide a forum for the interaction of ideas and discussion

Content

Orientations and Motivation in English Language Learning: a Study of Iranian Students at Undergraduate Level
.....Fereshteh Shirzad

Analyzing the Dichotomous Relationship between Societal Needs and Market Demand for Business Education: An Indian Perspective.....Geetika Dutta

Traditional Culture of School Education vs. Changing Teacher-Student Authority Relationship: A Bangladeshi ELT Classroom Scenario.....Nazua Idris

Psychological Stress and its Relationship with Achievement of Science Students of Army Schools
.....Narendra Kumar & Rajive Kumar

Inspections: A Measure of Quality Assurance in State Board Secondary Schools of Gujarat
.....Swaleha Sindhi

Printed by : Press
National Institute of Education
Sri Lanka
Website : www.nie.lk
e-mail : nie.lk@hotmail.com