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Prof. N. A. Nadeem
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Message

Research & Extension being Integral components of Higher Education need a proper mechanism for dissemination. Publishing Research Journal is one such strong medium which enables the Researchers & Practitioners to present their viewpoints and get the feedback. The first & foremost purpose of research is creation of new knowledge, re-interpreting the existing Theories, Principles & Laws and also creating linkage with ‘Development’. All this needs a proper and suitable method and mechanism of explaining. A good Journal of quality research is the only alternative to present research findings, innovative ideas & best practices for wider circulation.

It is a matter of great pleasure that the School of Education, Central University of Kashmir is publishing a Journal titled “Journal of Research & Innovations in Education (JRIE)” on bi-annual basis. I hope this Journal shall provide a platform to share ideas and research findings among academia from the universities and other institution of Higher learning across the county. It is expected that with the passage of time, the contributors and readership shall expand seamlessly.

I congratulate Prof. N.A. Nadeem, Dean, School of Education and other faculty members of the school and appreciate their efforts in bringing out this publication. I wish and hope that this Journal may be recognized as a definitive work in the field of Education in due course of time.

(Prof. Mehrajuddin Mir)
Vice-Chancellor

30-06-2015

Central University of Kashmir
Preface

It is a matter of great pleasure that the School of Education, Central University of Kashmir is releasing the first issue of the Journal titled “Journal of Research & Innovation in Education (JRIE)”. The Journal is a Peer Reviewed Journal with ISSN: 2349-2244. As Chief Editor of the Journal, I express my sincere thanks to the former Vice-Chancellor CUK, Prof. Abdul Wahid Qureshi, the Present Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Mehraj-ud-Din Mir and the Registrar of this University, Prof. M. Afzal Zargar, who all have provided the academic & administrative support to the School of Education in bringing out this research journal.

The material contained in this Journal has been reviewed by a team of peer reviewers and the papers have been included after incorporating the suggestion received from the peer reviewers. The papers included in this first edition cover a wide range of themes, concepts and issues in the field of research and innovations in education.

I express my gratitude to all the peer reviewers for reviewing the papers/articles which generally is more than a routine. I would also like to thank all the contributors especially Prof. Maria Walczak (University of Poland), Prof. Nighat Basu (BGSBU) and Prof. Abdul Ghani (CUK) for accepting our request for contributing a paper. I would also like to place on record my appreciation to the entire team of young faculty in my Dept. Especially Dr. Mohammad Sayid Bhat and Mr. Ismail Thamarasseri for their help & cooperation in making the issuance of this journal possible.

Prof. N. A. Nadeem
Chief Editor
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The Culture of Trust in the Context of Changing Global Academic Scenario

Maria Czerepaniak-Walczak

ABSTRACT

“Contemporary social, economic and political contexts of higher education raise new challenges in the realm of education and research. On the one hand, we have to put great importance to the preservation of tradition and dignity of the academics and on the other hand, the processes of globalization and internationalization and development of new interdisciplinary fields of knowledge necessitate the search for new forms of functioning of the Academy. Traditional academic culture, of which the culture of trust is a significant element, encounters multi-dimensional changes. In this paper, the focus is on a very narrow example of a culture of trust in the changing academic culture, namely, the one element of interpersonal relationships in academy, that is, the trust in interactions in the process of assessment. Exams of mass-nature in higher education cause a lot of new problems. In this context, the results of research conducted in Polish academic milieu are presented. The objects of analysis are students’ opinions about the proposal of one of the students’ self-governments for monitoring the examination by third parties or using video cameras. Analysis of the collected empirical material indicates the scale of the immersion of the students in the culture of mistrust and suspicion. This can be seen as a sign of change in academia culture”.

Introduction

Academic education is an expression of the representation of the university and its functions in the social transformation. Debates on the directions of the changes which emerged in academic circles as well as in the press, reveal the
intensity of the challenges and tasks facing the academics in higher education. More than eight hundred years tradition on the one hand carries a lot of benefits, on the other hand it is a huge commitment to preserve it. This is of particular importance in the case of universality and dynamics of changes in direct and indirect social and material milieu of universities. Also participants and organizers of social processes in high school are changing. These changes are exponential in nature.

Along with changes in the multidimensional context of the functioning of the university, the uptake of specific phenomena of the contemporary, especially the open access to information and, on one side, megatrends such as consumerism and post industrialism, on the other - micro trends, universities are facing new tasks and new forms and methods of their implementation. It is not easy, especially in the case of a deep rooted mindset of both - participants of academic education and bureaucratic decision-makers - contrasting ideas of higher education and its functions.

Changes in the sphere of social order is accompanied by changes in the assumptions and operations of the university, which from the scientific and cultural institution transforms into a company and even in an “industrial” or “enterprising university”. Traditional values of the university are being replaced or displaced by new rules of the market game. This applies both to research that is treated as a tool in the struggle for supremacy in the world and the source position in the rankings, as well as to education and specializations, which are enforced by the labor market and eligibility requirements formulated by the various ministries and professional associations. Education and research are becoming a kind of “production”. The test results are “commodity”. Research conducted in the university is the manifestation of “the provision of research services”. Same is the case with “educational services”: materials-students, are fashioned into finished products (able to perform defined professional roles) are formatted like nails, and specifications “of technical production” (competencies) come from the Government and from future (or rather potential) employers. The proof of the quality of the product is a diploma that it becomes Auto telic Value. This in turn, generates the expectation and obligation of “servitude” of higher education to the individual and social aspirations, among which come credentials’ aspirations, in which a diploma is just one of subjects of consumption. This is accompanied by developing a culture of conformity, and sometimes even servility (usually political) stand in sharp contrast to the traditional role of the university as a source of social and intellectual criticism. States boast of high enrollment rates at the academic level, and universities compete for students (as the resource of materials which become subjected to “processed in a useful product”).
The Academic Culture

Over 800 years of existence of European universities is reflected in a specific culture, rules, values and beliefs shared by members of the academic community: Teachers and Students. This type of conceived academic culture leads to emergence of several subsystems, including: culture of organization, culture of research and culture of education. They are integrated, which means that a change in one of them causes a change in the other. However, education reformers often focus on only one of these cultures, which create a lot of confusion and even harm the functioning of the entire system.

Like any other culture, the academic culture is dynamic. It is involved in processes occurring in the environment. This means that the academic culture changing with the development of science also changes with the change in the social, economical and political order in which universities operate. A characteristic feature of the academic culture is search for truth. And just search for the truth, understood as a process of divergent thinking and critically testing hypothesis is one of the key elements of the mission of the university from the time of its inception. It was present in the medieval universities, as well as those that were created by the Humboldt’s idea, and by the nineteenth century concept of Cardinal JH Newman.

Traditional academic culture creates the possibility of putting the key questions to public debate, reading a variety of texts, meeting with people of different cultures and learns from the dialogue. Contemporary culture of the university is, however, the culture of the questions in the world which calls for practical answers as soon as possible. On simple unquestionable answers waiting both politicians and impatient consumers autonomy is a form of defense that culture from flattering of simple tastes and expectations, giving critical responses to questions coming from the contemporary world.

Threats to freedom of university system are coming today from many sides. Important among them are the initiatives and decisions of introduction of free market mechanisms in academic culture. These initiatives are presented as arguments for needs to modernize higher education. As an effect the university has become similar to the company ruled by laws of corporations and aimed at financial benefits. “Profit or loss and efficiency criteria become the main means of evaluation, promotion factors”. Along with changes in the sphere of economic and social order, changes occur in the conditions and operations of the university, which transforms scientific and culture institution and into a firm and even, as they write Rui Santiago, Teresa Carvalho and Rosario Relva in the “industrial university”. Education academic and scientific research becomes a kind of “production”. The test results are “commodity”. Research and education conducted in university becoming of “research services” and “educational services”. 

The Culture of Trust in the Context of Changing Global Academic Scenario
Such commercialization of academic education and research not only transforms the organizational culture of the university, but also the goals and core mission. Above all, however, interferes with interpersonal relationships that were traditionally based on trust.

In debates on contemporary academic culture one seeks answers to questions about the concept of the university in the postindustrial era, especially when in university, the education and research are becoming a kind of “production”. A worrying consequence is the transformation of the university: “In the quasi-enterprise where knowledge is produced, but it is done in a way pragmatic and instrumented in a simplest way. It produces a quasi-educated people. All this is done using the university as a mask. This neoliberal culture has changed the quality of the university, which still seemingly works and operates in the same institution and in the name of the same goals that the institution has traditionally pursued. The problem is that in spite the university has become something else, but still operates under the same banner.”

In these conditions, the academic education is transformed in a particular way. It is perceived as object, the functions of which are assigned by the legislative and administrative decisions. They imprint their mark on the academic everyday life. Not all changes are elements of a process of improvement. They in fact include both that support the personal development, as well as that which are threats. Every change has its specific “Janus faced.” It carries both a chance for personal development of the participants and social communities at the local, European and global, but also risks escalation of threats and difficulties of development, the growing rivalry and deepening of social and economical stratification.

An important subject of debate is also seeking answers to questions about the concept of university education in the world of mobility and open, public information, which requires special skill levels and ethical disposal in obtaining and confirming the acquired competence. Against this background are formulated questions about the specifics of the experience of students: what are their subjective experiences or what are their expressions of individual and collective inertia. Inherent in academic culture is students’ activism. It occurs in at least of two forms, namely: commitment to the fulfillment of mission of the university or protest. Both forms of students’ activism leave their own mark on the stability and change in academic culture. Involvement in the implementation of the mission of the university promotes the development of potential of collective as well as personal competences and multiplication of intellectual capital and cultural heritage. The involvement of students in protest leads to radical changes, including the emergence of new fields of study and research, which inter alia include gender studies, ethnic studies and the broader -culture studies but
most of all to change the character of educational interactions, interpersonal relations in the process of teaching and learning as well as research. Commercialization as a mark of contemporary academic culture, combined with an increase in educational aspirations and hopes of changing the individual and collective lives may result in an increased rate of enrollment in higher education. In Poland, we are talking about the “miracle of education.” It is expressed in the radical growth of academic enrollment rates: gross and net. This is illustrated by the data presented in Figure 1. So, dramatic increase in the number of students, with a slight increase in the number of teachers carries a lot of risks to confidence in the quality of education and the quality of academic diplomas. Then, it raises a doubt to contemporary academic culture.

**Culture of Trust**

Every culture is built around a configuration of complementary ideas, values, attitudes, meanings, symbols and behaviors. The shaping of the culture requires energy and time. These treatments are processual, and their effect is often uncertain, vulnerable to all sorts of confounding factors. This also applies to a culture of trust. The ideas, values and symbols constituting this type of culture are subject to change, which can strengthen or weaken both individual and social trust. Great increase of numbers of students draws attention to the academic culture based on cooperation and development of its participants, which in the context of learning and gaining experience is consistent with the traditional values of the academy. The culture of trust plays a very important role in this context.

For the purpose of my analysis the researcher has defined the culture of trust as a socially produced system of values, principles and norms of coexistence respected in a selected social circle, determining the character of the interaction of the person with other elements of his direct and indirect social and material environment. The elements of this system are people, norms and the content of social behavior. Culture of trust is not something abstracted from the whole culture, including academic culture. Quite the contrary, it is vitally connected with it. The trust in the context of education can be seen in three aspects: a) trust to education, b) trust in education and c) education to trust. Each of these aspects contains many elements and each of these elements is the subject of critical reflection.

The first aspect (a): trust in education includes phenomena such as trust to educational institutions, trust to the effects of education, such as subjective competence of graduates, the value of diplomas, etc. The trust in education (aspect b) can be seen as the trust to the content of education, standards applicable in education, as well as trust to people as participants of educational interactions.
The third subject of critical reflection and exploration of practical solutions is the education to trust (aspect c). Trust, as a personal disposition and social binder is the aim as well as medium of education.

The first objective is to focus on the trust in educational institutions especially in the context of mass-nature of higher education.

Data in Fig. 1 shows the rapid growth of NER and GER.

*brutto: GER  netto: NER

It means that in the academic year 2012/13 was 1 678 900. Last quarter-century has been a special period in the Polish academic education. The effect of this kind of “miracle” is a mass nature of academic education with all of its consequences - both positive and negative. Mass nature of access to academic education is beneficial in terms of both personal and social perspective. Solid education of the broad masses of people is the foundation of prosperity and welfare. It is a factor of experiencing individual and collective subjectivity.

In the academic year 2013/14 441 schools, operated in Poland including:

a. Government universities, academy and colleges - 115 (with 1 153 550 students and almost 85 000 academic teachers, it means 84.4% of all teachers in higher education alone)

Universities – 19, Technical universities – 18, Medical universities – 9, Agriculture universities – 6, Economical universities – 5, Pedagogical universities and academies – 5, Academies of physical education – 6, Maritime academies – 2, Theological universities – 2, Universities running
This phenomenon raises ambivalence. On the one hand, the growth rate in academic enrolment is a welfare factor for both, the individual and the society, but on the other hand, it creates new problems. The researcher has mentioned this issue in the context of writing of Abhijit Bora, who analyzed the Gross Enrolment Ratio in India in the context of the role of ICT in education. Now, the researcher would like to point positive and negative consequences of high GER. Positive: for individuals and for society advance specialised knowledge and skills, higher salary and better employment prospects, higher standards of life.

The trouble is, however, that the mass nature of higher education is also accompanied by phenomena such as saturated classrooms, difficulties in the access to library resources, and above all, the increase in the anonymity of participants in educational interactions resulting from the reduction of opportunities for direct interactions in various stages of educational process. As a result, education is not always solid, which reduces trust in the effects of academic education. Inflation of academic title increases not because of its universality, but due to an opinion about the way of its achieving, since university recruitment procedures arouse critical comments. Access to studies is easier not only because of the resignation from entrance exams, but also because of growth in HE institutions across the country.

Mass academic education could change the trust in society. Such big number of students could be seen as the agent for this. However, the anonymity of participants in the educational process results in a situation in which students do not know or even recognize each other. In the lecture hall with 200 or more people, it is difficult to take a close look to others who are in the same room, not to mention to get to know them. Lecture hall takes on the attributes of a public space in which strangers meet. This is the one of the main obstacles in experiences of value of trust and creating the culture of trust in mass-nature of Higher Education. It makes a lot not only in lectures and seminars, but also in exams. It causes a lot of new problems, both for educational institution and for individuals—teachers and students. Examination in higher education institution is one of the elements of the educational process. It is one of the types of educational interaction and one among of indicators of academic culture. Experiencing mutual trust of participants in this interaction is an important factor in shaping the culture of trust in higher education, which thanks to its mass nature has a chance to spread throughout the culture of trust in society.
In this context, the interesting are opinions on the introduction of supervisory tools to assessment procedures.

At one of the Polish universities students’ self-government asked the Rector for monitoring by an independent observer or by recording on camera all consultations and exams. It was written in national newspapers as well as on Internet. The researcher was curious to know the reason of such initiative, but mostly how students of other universities could explain this. The researcher discussed this issue with my students and then the investigator surveyed a group of university students (N=403). The results of the survey are shown in the Figure 2.

“If we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must look into its assessment procedures”. Examination and assessment play a special role in the social and moral development. Massive nature of academic education causes a lot of changes in traditional exams. The experience gained in the process of examinations and passing individual tasks are subject to generalization to other situations in which assessment is carried out by others (especially of the higher status), while presenting one’s own achievements in order to achieve highly valuable benefits, etc. Data on the Figure 2 shows the spectrum of experiences and feeling of students. Fact, that only 25% are disagree with such initiative makes ones think about social interactions during assessment of students’ activity. Acceptance of monitoring of such interactions by external observers arouses many ethical dilemmas, and thoughts of perpetuating of distrust and suspicion in social relations.
Concluding Remarks

This Polish context of analysis of culture of trust in the perspective of the academic culture is only one from the many. I would like to point out one effect of massive nature of higher education, and how it affects culture of trust in educational interactions. The traditional academic culture expresses itself in the community of teachers and learners. Educational interactions are based on mutual trust and respect of people's subjectivity. Changes in the academic culture which affect teachers-students relations, such as limitations of direct interactions or even lack of them cause decrease in culture of trust. Commercialization and “industrialization” of higher education plays the same role in university culture. Students are clients, customers with their requirements and demands. It affects the interactions that have an impact on the personality of students, which contribute to their moral, spiritual and social as well as intellectual development far beyond the institutional training programs and formal curricula.

Another feature of contemporary academic culture similar to that of culture of corporation is competitiveness and rivalry. This is the main obstacle in the development of a culture of trust in academic interactions. Together with the inflation of diplomas by a massive nature of the academic education, these phenomena are currently most often shown as inhibitors of culture of trust at universities.

Creation of culture of trust in the new culture of academy requires identifying all, or at least as much as possible, specific features of contemporary university. This university which exists in the global context is facing a lot crisis, both common as well as its own. These crises have their sources in the people, rules as well as content of knowledge. It means one should analyze the culture of teaching/learning, research as well as management of the university, thoroughly.

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ABSTRACT

Realising the significance of professional development as a growing area of interest for practitioners, researchers and policy planners, the investigators have chosen to work in this field. The present paper is based on the construction and standardization of Professional Development Index Scale. The first part of the paper gives the historical perspective and theoretical framework and the next part carries the details regarding the process of construction of the scale. The standardization part includes details regarding estimation of reliability, validity and norms.

Key words: Professional Knowledge, Professional Practice, Professional Commitment, professional Ethics.

Introduction

The term profession has emerged out of a Greek word “Professio” meaning ‘to advocate’, ‘to put forth new knowledge’ ‘to bring about something new’. As such a profession is an activity that brings out something new. Marshal (1963) has observed that a profession is a relationship between an expert and an ignorant client.

The parameters necessary for a professional are:

1. Professional should be an expert in his/her field of work and should always continuously add to the store house of his/her knowledge. She/he should always be epistemic i.e. he/she should never be satisfied with the boundaries of his acquired knowledge.

2. Professional must always be sincere to his clients/students.

3. Professional should always have specificity in his/her work.
A Profession is a self-selected, self-disciplined group of individuals who have declared themselves out to the public as possessing a special skill derived from education and training and who are prepared to exercise that skill primarily in the interests of others.

There are several listings of characteristics or distinguishing marks of a profession such as:

1. A profession involves activities essentially intellectual.
2. A profession commands a body of specialized knowledge.
3. A profession requires extended professional (as contrasted with solely general) preparation.
4. A profession affords a life career and permanent membership.
5. A profession sets up its own standards.
6. A profession exalts service above personal gain.
7. A profession has a strong, closely knit, professional organization.

Certainly teaching meets this criterion. Because it involves activities that are predominantly intellectual in nature, and the work performed by its members is basic to the preparation for all other professional endeavours. Teaching is sometimes referred to as the “mother of professions”. Teaching as Profession is the body of knowledge, a set of attitudes, codes of ethics and a technique, which is applied to the service of mankind through an educated group. Professional development is a continuous process of acquiring new knowledge and skills that relate to ones profession. Professional Development refers to the skills and knowledge attained for personal development which helps to build and maintain morale of the teacher in an educational system.

In the present century, knowledge explosion takes place at a rapid speed. New Concepts and Methodology are introduced. Teachers should be aware of latest development in an educational system. Teacher who attend professional developmental programmes are more inclined to adopt techniques and resource material with their students. Professional Development in the broad sense refers to the development of a person in his or her professional role. More specifically teacher development is the professional growth of a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically (Glatthorn-1995). The NPE-1986 opened a new concept for the professional development of teachers. The NPE-1986 recognizes the need for improving the status of the teacher; it has made a pointed reference to the crucial link between teacher’s motivation and quality control in higher education. It has been now universally realized that for academic excellence, the teachers must be provided opportunities for his/her Professional Development and career advancement.
The notion of teacher professionalism is closely related to professional development (Evans, 2008; Hargreaves, 2001). Guskey (2002) has argued that “high quality professional development is a central component in nearly every modern proposal for improving education. Policy makers increasingly recognize that schools can be no better than the teachers and administrators who work within them.” Day et al. (2007) as well as other researchers (Bredseson, 2002; Hangreaves, 2001; Webb et al., 2004) has found that teachers have reported the continuing learning as the most important factor of their professionalism. Gibbs and Coffey (2004) in their study of the effectiveness of University teachers training involving 22 Universities in 8 countries report that centralized training programmes provided a kind of alternative culture that counter balanced the negative influences of the culture of teachers’ departments. Zembylas (2003) has indicated that teacher’s personal and professional development is deeply affected by their positive and negative emotions Supovitz and Turner (2000) report that data from the US National Science Foundation Teachers Enhancement Programme show that the degree of professional development to which teachers are exposed is strongly linked to both inquiry-based teaching practice and investigative classroom culture.

Malcolm and Zukar (2000) by employing a formative taxonomy of professional development practice for new higher education teachers, the paper concludes by emphasizing the need to maintain ‘cross-sector’ learning between centralized communities of practice in the pursuit of teaching and learning improvement and innovation.

**A.1 Objective**

To construct and standardize Professional Development Index Scale (PDIS) for Teachers of Higher Education

**A.2 Defining and identification of the areas of the scale**

In pursuance of the decision to construct PDIS, the researcher made an exhaustive review of literature to decide upon the area as well as the statements under each of these areas. A few experts in the field were also consulted for expert opinions and discussions were held with few educationists to obtain the functional conditions of what teachers need to do to develop professional excellence in them. The researcher after consultation and discussion with a few experts, decide to have five major areas of the scale namely:

i. **Professional Knowledge and Allied Areas:**

Professional Development is no longer viewed as just consisting of a standardized, explicit and fixed knowledge base. It is now seen as knowledge, which exists in use, is ethical in its use and is changed by
experience. The distinctive nature of professional knowledge lies in the interplay between its construction and use. Professional knowledge grows understanding, which includes effective pedagogy and best practices to reflect new understanding and contexts. Nature of professional knowledge is organic and evolutionary, reflecting a synthesis of research, experiences gained and expertise shared. Each profession requires positive attitude for its success. To develop a positive attitude the prospective recruitment has all the in-depth knowledge, understanding as well as favourable interest in order to enjoy the fruits of profession. When the conditions have changed at a fast pace on the brink of this century, the teaching profession has also faced many challenges and transformation. Along with the current sophistications and technological innovations the teacher has more prestigious place within the school premises.

Advances in technology puts heavy demands on teacher to be literate in the digital world and apply it in the practical situation like how to implement technology-enabled global education that reinforce the development of 21st century skills in students. In spite of all the changing waves in educational scenario still there are two fundamental principles of teaching and learning exist to which a teacher adheres with. These are maximum retaining of the learning and mastery over teaching through mass media. Items related to effective pedagogy and best practices to reflect new understanding and contexts are included in this area.

ii. Training and Development:

The quality of a nation depends on the quality of its citizens; the quality of its citizens depends on the quality of their education. The quality of their education depends on the quality of teacher and the quality of a teacher can be more effective if he is trained with different skills of teaching and effective teacher can mould the entire education system in a positive direction, provided he gets a proper orientation and an opportunity to upgrade his knowledge and skills on a continuous basis. Training and development involve improving teacher’s present skills and development concerns preparing personnel for additional responsibilities or advancement in organization. Orientation programmes envisaged under Academic Staff College intend to inculcate in young teachers/lecturers the quality of self reliance through his awareness of social intellectuals and more environments. It enables the teacher to discover himself and his potentials through a positive appreciation of his role in social, intellectual and moral universe. The orientation programme further engender in the teacher awareness about the problems Indian Society is facing and made him aware of the role of education in the resolution
of these problems as well as in achievement of goals set out in Indian Constitution. The ASC’s conducted three types of programmes orientation programmes attempt to inculcate certain teaching, research, extension and managerial skills among college and varsity teachers. The second type of programme organized by ASC is refresher courses which strive to help teachers to update and equip them with the latest development in teaching methods, pursue research and find out solution to societal problems. ASC’s also organizes seminars for college principals and educate them about the fundamentals of college management, efficient financial management, impartial evaluation etc. This area includes the statements / items pertaining to the impact of orientation programmes and refresher courses on the Professional Development of Teachers.

iii. Teaching Competences and Professional Practice:

Teaching competences goes beyond the simple acquisition of knowledge and skills. Although, curricular knowledge and pedagogical skills are important Teaching is both an intellectual and practical activity with important emotional and creative dimensions. The competences are not to be viewed as discrete skills, which once demonstrated are mastered for all time. They are rather the acquisition on a continuum reflecting the dynamic interplay between the nature of professional knowledge and opportunities afforded to teachers by the context of their school and professional lives.

Therefore the teacher should:

- develop knowledge and understanding of contemporary debates about nature and purpose of education and the social and political contexts, in which aims of education are defined and implemented
- develop knowledge and understanding of curriculum development processes, including planning, implementation and evaluation
- develop knowledge and understanding of factors that, promote learning and positive behaviour
- develop knowledge of use of technology effectively

The process of reflective practice is an important component in education system. Through reflection, teachers examine the wider context of their teaching, analyzing the effectiveness of a lesson and how more effective learning can take place in the future. Reflective practice needs to be internalized as a part of a teacher’s professional identity. It cannot be considered as an additional skill. Rather it is a part of professional mind set and integrated within the competencies in a holistic way. The concept of a reflective and activist practitioner sees teacher as a moral agent and an informed, knowledgeable practitioner.
This area includes the statements pertaining to the development of knowledge and understanding of curriculum, planning, implementation, evaluation and factors that promote learning and positive behaviour.

iv. Professional Commitment

Teaching is a complex and demanding profession. The level of teacher’s commitment is considered to be as a key factor in the success of current educational reform agenda as it heavily influences teacher’s willingness to engage in cooperative, reflective and critical practice. Professional commitment refers to a mindset reflecting loyalty and willingness to give all to particular person, principle or plan of action. In this area, statements on teacher’s professional commitment may be reflected with reference to the following dimensions of his role/obligation:

a. Commitment towards learner/student – including readiness to help learners and concern for their all round development.

b. Commitment towards profession - It refers to teacher’s commitment to his profession e.g. a sense of pride in his profession and commitment to his professional associations.

c. Commitment towards Basic Human values - Including the role model aspect comprising genuine practice of professional values such as impartiality, objectivity, intellectual honesty, national loyalty etc with consistency.

v. Professional Ethics

Professional ethics of teaching profession expects a teacher to fulfill professional obligations/responsibilities with honesty and integrity. A code of conduct is sophisticated version of do’s and don’ts. On the other hand professional ethics give certain set of broad principles, derived from deep values and reflection on the nature and role of profession in the society. Code of professional ethics is adopted as a guide by teachers. They apply to all the persons engaged in the professional aspects of education at elementary, secondary and college level. The codes formulated in teaching profession, prohibits its members from engaging in undesirable behaviour that can bring profession into trouble. The following codes of ethics are in the teaching profession that guides in their conduct with others.

a) Towards students – As a teacher, he/she should understand them, be just and courteous, promote a spirit of enquiry, fellowship and joy in the students. The teacher should inspire students and work with them to create and maintain a pleasant and attractive learning environment.
The teacher should recognize the difference among students and seek to meet their individual needs.

b) Towards parents – The teacher should make friendly and informative contacts with the parents. Parents and teachers can help each other in understanding the personality of the child. Their combined knowledge can help in the overall development of the child. Therefore, the teacher keeps the parents informed about the progress of their child and also discreet the information received from the parents.

c) Towards Society – Education is the most effective way to make relationship between parents and students friendly and cooperative. The teaching profession occupies a position of trust of the society. The teacher should set an example in citizenship by performing the duties and participating in community activities. And also to promote the public good and uphold dignity of the society.

d) Towards Administration – A teacher also establishes an agreeable relationship with school supervisors, administrators and the board of education. The teacher should perform hi/her duties and support school policies and also interpret them intelligently. The teacher should cooperate with school officials in an effort to improve learning opportunities. This area includes the statements pertaining to the professional ethics in the teaching profession towards Students, Parents, society and Administration.

A.3 Development of the Scale

Professional Development Index Scale (PDIS) has been developed in accordance with the standard procedure of test construction. The Professional Development Index Scale consists of various dimensions viz Professional Knowledge and allied areas, Training and Development, Teaching competences and professional practice, Professional commitment and Professional Ethics. The details about various steps involved in the construction of the test are reported as under:

i. Pooling of Items.

ii. Initial Format

iii. Expert Ratings

iv. Final Format

v. Standardization

i. Pooling of Items: The investigator reviewed the literature and other relevant material related to professional development. The items obtained from the relevant material were drafted keeping in view the objectives
of the present scale constructed. Thus, 78 items distributed over the following areas were pooled:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional knowledge and allied areas</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teaching competences and professional practice</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional commitment</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>78</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Initial Format:_ After going through the related literature and tools available to assess the professional development index and in consultation with supervisor, the initial format of professional development Index Scale of the Higher education teachers was formulated.

_ii. Expert Rating:_ The copies of the Professional Development Index scale (initial format) were given to twelve experts who were well versed in teaching and construction of tests with a request to review the statements and evaluate their content in terms of accuracy and coverage, editorial quality. The suggestions for additions, deletions and modifications of items were also sought from the experts.

_iii. Final Format:_ Based on suggestions, comments and 80% agreement among the experts 40 items were chosen to be included in the final format.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional knowledge and allied areas</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teaching competences and professional practice</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Professional commitment</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Professional ethics</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_iv. Standardization:_ The scale has been standardized by estimating reliability and validity of the scale

A) **Reliability**

The reliability of the scale has been estimated by the following methods:

1) **Split-half Method:**

Two halves prepared on the basis of Upper-half and Lower-half items were administered on a group of 100 teachers at higher education level. After scoring, a coefficient of correlation was worked between two sets
of scores obtained for two halves. The following results were obtained from the two halves:

a) **Split-half (Upper Lower) 0.73** (after applying Spearman man –Brown prophecy formula).

   For determining Odd-Even Reliability Index, two halves were prepared on the basis of alternate item in each area. The following results were obtained on correlating the two sets of scores.

b) **Split-half (Odd Even) 0.64** (after applying Spearman–Brown prophecy formula)

II) **KR-21 Formula:**

   The coefficient of correlation worked out as per Kuder-Richardson Formula No. 21 came out to be 0.704 (N=100).

**B) Validity**

The validity of a test represents the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure. In simple words, it tries to answer the question; does the test really measure the characteristics that it is being used to measure? There are many names used to describe the different kinds of validity. In the present study the following types of validity have been established for the scale.

I) **Content Validity:** The scale was developed keeping in view all the necessary requirements. The scale has content validity as the areas of the scale and the statements under each area were fully adequate, representing the behaviour domain to be measured. This was further authenticated by the available related literature in the area and the views of the experts.

II) **Construct Validity:** A 6x6 correlation matrix (with N=100) was worked out. The result showed the coefficients of correlation are positive, high and significant. This is an indirect estimate of construct validity. The matrix is presented as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation coefficient(Pearson)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Areas</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** ** Significant at the 0.01 level

* Significant at the 0.05 level
A.4. Description of the Inventory

PDIS has been developed to assess Professional Development of Teachers at Higher Education Level in the areas of A (Professional knowledge and allied areas), B (Training and Development), C (Teaching Competences and Professional Practice), D (Professional Commitment), E (Professional Ethics). The scale consists of 40 statements. Each statement is suffixed with a 03 point scale Yes, Uncertain and No. The distribution of the items in the five areas is given as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Item No.‘s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>10,11,14,16,21,22*,24*,27,39 =09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2,5*,6*,9,23*,31*,40, =07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>12,13*,15,17,20,29,34,36 =08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1,3,7,26,28,32,35,37, =08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>4,8,18,19,25*,30,33,38 =08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statements with * mark in the above distribution of items are the negative statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Methods and techniques of Pedagogy make the teaching learning process more effective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b</td>
<td>Attending training and development programmes enrich ones domain knowledge and allied skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3c</td>
<td>The nature of professional Knowledge is organic and evolutionary reflecting a synthesis of research, experience gained and expertise shared.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4d</td>
<td>A good teacher should always support the students when they are in hardship.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5e</td>
<td>Teacher should be a role model for his students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scoring

Each item of the scale is provided with three alternative responses namely: Yes, Uncertain and No. An item answered as ‘Yes’ is scored ‘1’, an item answered as ‘No’ is scored ‘-1’ and an item answered as ‘Uncertain’ is scored ‘0’. The theoretical range of score is from 0 to 40.

There is no time limit. However it has been seen that the subjects fill in their responses to the items of the scale within a maximum time of 30 minutes. The scoring of the scale is done according to the scoring key available to the author. Lowest score on the scale implies low cognizance of the professional development and higher score means high cognizance of professional development by a teacher.
Norms

The following norms to classify the subjects into various categories are based on the total score of the inventory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Range of scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>36 and Above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>32-35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>28-31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>24-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Less than 23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References

Construction and Standardization of Professional Development Index . . .

12. National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, USA
Contemporary Issues in Teacher Education:
A Critical Analysis

Prof. Nighat Basu & Gawher Ahmad Bhat

ABSTRACT
The development of the standard of education is closely associated with the question of teacher education. A teacher should arrange himself for this special task before accepting the responsibility of teaching. The teachers' training institution helps a lot to do this task. In the education policy the importance of the teachers' training is admitted for a long time. But in this unpredictable society how much development in the standard of education has taken place is the context of the present paper. The aim of the present paper is to highlight the historical perspective with a purpose to improve the teacher education quality in India by focusing on the emerging issues and allied concerns. The paper concludes that teacher education system in India calls for radical changes.

Key Quote: “Those who educate children well are more to be honoured than they who produce them; for these only gave them life, and the art of living well.”

Aristotle

Introduction
Teaching is one of the oldest and most respected profession, but the role, functions and preparations of teachers undergo changes from time to time according to the expectations of time and society. Nonetheless, the teacher plays a pivotal role in national development and social change. His tasks are quite challenging and thus teacher education aims at equipping him with a gamut of skills, knowledge, attitudes, values and abilities in order to help him perform his tasks effectively.
Historically, when teacher education is traced back to ancient period, it is found that in ancient times teacher was not only well-versed in temporal knowledge but was also deep in spiritual knowledge with high personal qualities of character. The modern period of education is marked by coming of western powers and establishment of new education system. Indigenous schools had the monitor system which enabled the teachers to teach many students at a time and impart education at low cost. On the other hand, European missionaries started teacher training Institutes of Tranquebar in 1716 with two charity schools in South India. Normal schools were opened at Serampore, Bengal in 1793 and later at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1826.

**Wood’s Dispatch (1854)** emphasized on the establishment of teacher training schools but nothing concrete was done. **Stanley’s dispatch (1859)** provided a salary grant for schools with trained teachers only. Consequently increased attention was paid to teacher training. **Indian education Commission (1882)** recommended for opening of normal schools and thus 106 normal schools were opened. In 1892, 131 normal schools were opened, out of which 116 were for men and 15 for women. Hence women were also encouraged for teaching profession and incentives were given for academic and professional training. Examinations in theory and practice were conducted through model lessons, practice lessons and criticism lessons.

**In 1904 Govt. of India Resolution recommended:**
- Highly qualified and trained staff for training colleges.
- Adequate equipment for training colleges.
- One year training course for graduates leading to the degree, and two year training course for undergraduates and others, leading to teaching certificates.
- Close association between theory and practice of teaching.
- Every training college to be attached to a practicing school.

This improved the conditions of training colleges in India.

In 1913 Education Policy by the then Govt. emphasized upon teacher training and declared that no teacher should be allowed to teach without teacher training certificate. In 1917 Calcutta University Education Commission gave special attention to teacher training and made all efforts for increasing the output of trained teachers. The commission also recommended that department of education in the universities of Dacca and Calcutta to encourage research work in education need to be established.

**In 1929 Hartog Committee:** made important recommendations for the training of school teachers as under:
• Standard of education of teachers should be raised.
• Training period should be extended.
• Training institutions should have better and more efficient staff.
• Pedagogy and methods of teaching should be improved.
• Refresher courses should be organized for in-service education.

Sergeant Report 1944 Recommended That:
• Only suitable persons should be selected for teaching job.
• Refresher courses should be organized for in-service teachers.
• Duration of training for pre-primary, junior basic, senior basic, undergraduate and graduate teachers should be 2, 2, 2, 2 and 1 year respectively.

In 1948 Central Institute of Education was established in Delhi and Central Pedagogical Institute at Allahabad in order to improve the skills in teaching and also develop an insight into the various processes of education.

In 1948-49 University Education commission under the chairmanship of Dr Radha Krishnan observed various differences and disparities. It suggested that:
• Theory and practice should support each other and more emphasis on practice teaching should be given.
• Teachers having experience of teaching in schools should be appointed in training colleges.
• Teachers having teaching experience should be encouraged to do M.Ed.
• Unintelligent following of rule-of-thumb methods should be discarded.

In 1952-53 Secondary Education Commission observed “we are, however, convinced that the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction:
• is the teacher,
• his personal qualities,
• his educational qualifications,
• his professional training and the place he occupies in the school as well as community”

The commission recommended that:
• There should be two types of training institutions,
• One for those who have secondary school learning certificate and the other for graduates.
The duration of training for the two types should be two and one year respectively.

Teacher training institutions for graduates should be affiliated to universities.

Training schools should function under the control of separate board.

There should be compulsory curricular activities, refresher courses.

In 1961 NCERT was established which together with the extension centers imparted In-service education.

- All India Council for Elementary Education and Directorate of Extension programmes for secondary education were also established.
- Four regional colleges were started at Ajmer, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar and Mysore for improving the quality of teacher education by starting 4-year integrated course after higher secondary.

In 1964-66 Indian Education Commission was set up by Govt. of India under the chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari.

- The commission observed that a sound programme of professional education for teachers was essential for the qualitative improvement of educators.
- Practice teaching for teachers under training should be organized in active collaboration with selected schools named as cooperating schools and special grant for equipment and supervision should be given to them.
- Establishment of State Board of Teacher education in each state to look after teacher education at all levels.
- No disparity in teacher education at different levels and teacher education in different fields as craft, art, physical education etc.
- Department of Education to be established in selected universities in order to develop teacher education studies.
- Quality of professional education should be improved.
- Duration of teacher education should be two years for primary and 1 year for secondary level.
- New professional courses to reorient headmasters and teacher educators in their specialties.

In 1972, The International Education Commission on development of teacher education recommended that:

- Conditions for teacher training should be profoundly changed to make them good teachers.
This training should have specialization for some teachers in pre-school education, school pedagogy, technical education, backward child etc.

For the other group the training should include management and organization along with complete teacher training so that they become fully professional.

The teaching should be learner centered.

The Planning commission in the 4th five year plan 1969-74 laid emphasis on:

- Improving the quality of teacher education.
- Training of science and mathematics teachers.
- In service training of teachers through correspondence courses.
- Greater coordination between NCERT and SIEs for the improvement of teacher training.
- In 1993 NCTE was established as a national advisory body on teacher education.
- In 1996 a joint session on NCTE and UGC met and drafted an approach paper on teacher education. The NCERT developed programmes for training the teachers already in the service through a number of centres of continuing education.
- During 1996-98, about 100 centres were to be started for teacher training. The new curriculum was task-oriented and emphasized the role of teacher inside and outside the classroom, for national development and social change.

In 5th 5-year plan emphasis was laid on qualitative improvement in teacher education through:

- Re-orientation of curricula and examination reform for better academic and professional preparation of teacher.
- Provision of refresher course for teacher educators
- Establishment of extension service departments to guide schools.
- Development of few comprehensive colleges of education to train teachers.
- Improvement in teaching and learning methodologies.
- Increased use of educational technology and mass-media.
- Vocationalization of secondary education and work experience programmes.

The late seventies witnessed some political changes in the country. Govt. of India in 1983 set up National Commission for Teachers which is also known as Chatopadhyaya Commission. The recommendations given by the Commission are:
The duration of one year B.Ed. Course should be extended to two years.
- For elementary teachers it is desirable to have a two year course.
- Selection of trainees for teacher education programme should be made through combination of objective tests.
- Objective tests, rating scales, group discussions and personal interviews.
- Duration of internship should be of at least four weeks in the third year and three weeks in fourth year of study.
- The teacher education institutions must evolve tools for evaluation of pupil teacher performance.

In August 1985, the Government of India brought out a document “The Challenges of Education: A policy perspective. This envisaged the education system to prepare for 21st century. This document acknowledged teacher performance as the most crucial input in the field of education because much of the teacher-Education was irrelevant, selection procedures and recruitment systems were inappropriate and that teaching profession had low social status.

This resulted in framing National Policy of Education– 1986. It made following recommendations with regard to education of teachers. The Education is a continuous process and its pre-service and in-service components are inseparable. At the first step the system of teacher-education will be overhauled. The new programmes of teacher education should be according to the needs of teachers to meet the sustained areas envisaged in this policy. District institutes of teacher education should be established with capability to organize pre-service and in-service courses for elementary school teachers and for the personnel working in non-formal and adult education.

This policy resulted in a programme of action 1986. The recommendations of POA are:
- Introduction of reforms in the selection of teachers
- Improvement in the living and working/ service conditions of teachers
- Involvement of teachers in planning and management of education.
- Participation of teachers in policy making and management forums as central advisory board of education, state advisory board of education, district board of education, village education committee.
- Encouragement of action research experimentation.
- Each state will set up immediately a task force to assess the existing institutions and develop district institutes of education of training(DIET)
- Statutory status for NCTE.
A review committee of this POA was done in 1990 by Rama Murti Committee which recommended the following directions to improve the teacher education programme. Teachers’ training institutes should adopt the revised curriculum so that all teacher trainees, male and female, are exposed to the restructured training programme.

Yashpal committee Report (1993): Learning without Burden (1993) have also drawn attention to the need for qualitative reform of teacher education and suggested various measures:

- Inadequate programme of teacher preparation leads to unsatisfactory quality of learning in schools. The B.Ed. programme should offer the possibility of specialisation in secondary or elementary or nursery education.

- The continuing education of teachers must be institutionalised. The organisation of in-service education programmes and other activities aimed at professional growth of teachers be systematically designed and conducted imaginatively.

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 places different demands and expectations on the teacher, which need to be, addressed both by initial and continuing teacher education. The importance of competent teachers to the nation’s school system can in no way be overemphasized. It is well known that the quality and extent of learner achievement are determined primarily by teacher competence, sensitivity and teacher motivation. It is common knowledge too that the academic and professional standards of teachers constitute a critical component of the essential learning conditions for achieving the educational goals. In addition, the NCF requires a teacher to be a facilitator of children’s learning in a manner that helps children to construct knowledge and meaning. The teacher in this process is a co-constructor of knowledge. It also opens out possibilities for the teacher to participate in the construction of syllabi, textbooks and teaching-learning materials. Such roles demand that teachers be equipped with an adequate understanding of curriculum, subject-content and pedagogy, on the one hand, and the community and school structures and management, on the other.

National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) developed NCFTE, 2009: On the basis of National Curriculum Framework 2005 and the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 as well as the fundamental tenets enshrined in the Constitution of India. The initial draft of the NCFTE 2009 was developed by an expert Committee Comprising of Prof. C.L. Anand, Prof. Raja Ganesan, Prof. S.V.S. Chaudhury, Prof. V.K. Sabharwal, Prof. C. Seshadri, Prof. R.S. Khan and Prof. L.C. Singh based on the ideas generated
in a series of intensive deliberations by the members of the committee and eminent scholars, teachers educators, teachers, trainee teachers, representatives of NGOs, faculty of RIEs of NCERT, SCERTs, DIETs, IASEs, CTEs, university departments of education, and state departments of education at the two National Consultative meets held at Udaipur and Hyderabad. This National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education elaborates the context, concerns and vision underscoring that teacher education and school education have a symbiotic relationship and developments in both these sectors mutually reinforce the concerns necessary for qualitative improvements of the entire spectrum of education including teacher education as well. The new concerns of school curriculum and the expected transactional modalities have been emphasized in designing this framework for all stages of school education. Issues related to inclusive education, perspectives for equitable and sustainable development, gender perspectives, role of Community Knowledge in education and ICT in schooling as well as e-learning become the centre-stage in the Framework.

The National Knowledge Commission (NKC) Has observed that teachers are the single most important element of the school system, and the country is already facing a severe shortage of qualified and motivated school teachers at different levels. It is urgent to restore the dignity of school teaching as a profession and provide more incentives for qualified and committed teachers. Non-teaching official duties such as election-related responsibilities should not be allowed to interfere with the teaching process. The training of teachers is a major area of concern at present, since both pre-service and in-service training of school teachers is extremely inadequate and also poorly managed in most states.

Justice Verma Commission (2008) evolved standard and norms for evaluating teacher performance and audit teachers. The commission recommended that further reforms are necessary to improve quality of teacher training and in-service training. There is an urgent need to up-grade pre-service elementary teacher education by enhancing the duration of training; making it equivalent to an integrated degree programme and locating the management and control of elementary teacher education with universities. Every Pre-Service Teacher Education Institution may have a dedicated school attached to it as a laboratory where student-teacher gets opportunities to experiment new ideas and hone their capacities and skills to become reflective practitioners. There is an urgent need to develop comprehensive programmes for continuing professional development of secondary school teachers. Towards this, existing institutional arrangements have to be significantly enhanced, along with strengthening of CTEs and IASEs.
Present Scenario of Teacher Education

India has a large system of education. There are about 14 lakh schools in our country. These include nearly 7.48 lakh Primary Schools, 4.47 Elementary Schools and 1.28 Lakh high and Higher Secondary Schools in the country, about 1300 teacher education institutions for elementary teachers and nearly 700 colleges of education / University departments preparing teachers for secondary and higher secondary schools. Out of about 4.52 million teachers in the country nearly 3 million are teaching at the primary/elementary level. A sizeable number of them are untrained or under-trained particularly in the regions like North-East. With increasing school enrolments and the launch of Indian primary education development programmes such as the RMSA (2009) to improve and enhance access to Secondary Education and to improve its quality., SSA (2002) to achieve UEE, the Operation Blackboard (OB) 1986, and the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) 1995, NCF (2005) and NCFTE (2009) Justice Verma Commission (2009) and national knowledge Commission (2008), need for enhancing the number of teachers at different levels arose manifold. Added to this, the backlog of untrained teachers in the system and the essential requirement of pre-service teacher certification for appointment as a teacher led to mounting pressure on existing institutional capacity. With the demand far exceeding supply, market forces have taken over causing unprecedented rise in the number of teacher education institutions in most parts of the country. The escalating demand for trained teachers and the belief that a training certificate acts as collateral against future unemployment has made teacher education a lucrative business proposition. It has also led to a large scale mushrooming of teacher education institutions. The number of courses offered at different stages – pre-primary, elementary and secondary – face-to-face and distance modes of teacher education; programmes of M.Ed, face-to-face and distance modes, C.P.Ed., B.P.Ed. and M.P. Ed. has increased from 3,489 courses in 3,199 institutions.

In March 2009, the student intake has likewise increased from 2, 74,072 to 10, 96,673. During this period, this expansion has taken a heavy toll on quality parameters of infrastructural provision, faculty qualification, learning resources and student- profile. Till January 2007, as many as 31 Institutes of Advanced Studies in Education (IASEs) and 104 Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) were sanctioned and all of these were functional. 640 districts in the country, 571 District Institutes of Education were set up, out of which only 529 are functional. Thus, 40 DIETs are yet to become functional. The main problem facing DIETs is non-availability of qualified faculty. Presently, the faculty appointed does not possess qualifications or experience in elementary teacher education. A good number of CTEs face faculty shortage, poor library facilities,
spend more time on initial teacher education while research, development and innovative activities are yet to take concrete shape. The same is the case with IASEs. The capacity of both CTEs and IASEs in performing their mandated roles has more recently come under serious questioning. The larger reality of school teaching not being a preferred option among students and the dilution of emphasis on public investment in initial teacher education since the 1990s has led to large scale recruitment of unqualified and under-qualified persons as Para teachers in the formal school system. Para teachers pose a far more serious challenge to the institution of the professional teacher. An attitude of registration towards initial teacher education and piecemeal in-service training courses (capsule courses) have become an integral part of state provisioning for elementary education. This has led to further degradation of the status of school teachers and diluted the identity of teacher as a professional. This has accentuated the divide between pre-service and in-service teacher education. School teachers continue to be isolated from centres of higher learning and their professional development needs remain unaddressed. On the positive side, with a view to achieving coordinated development of teacher education, the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) took up a number of initiatives during the last decade:

a. It joined hands with the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) to foster quality assurance and sustenance and with Distance Education Council (DEC) to ensure integrated development of in-service teacher education under the Open and Distance Learning (ODL) mode.

b. It also entered into collaboration with the Rehabilitation Council of India in 2002 and in 2005 to develop curriculum on inclusive education and make it a part of the general teacher education programmes.

c. Various commissions and committees set from time to time suggested measures for improving the proficiency of teachers through teacher education which is evident from the history of teacher education in India. Such measures were suggested in accordance with the needs of the society.

d. Over the years, the society has undergone a huge change because of which new issues and concerns have emerged in the teacher education in India.

e. These new “ISSUES” need to be deliberated upon, in order to improve the quality of teacher education in particular and the overall education system in general keeping in view the changing scenario of the society. Some of the main issues which need to be focused in the present scenario are:
Quality Issues in Teacher Education

a. Ensuring quality in teacher education is amongst the foremost challenges being faced by India today, with only few institutes having achieved global recognition for excellence.

b. The teacher training colleges suffer from large quality variation in so much, so that a NASSCOM-Mac-Kinesy Report (2005) has said that only 25-30% teacher are fit for the teaching job.

c. The various regulatory bodies for monitoring the quality standards in the teacher training colleges are under their preview. For example National Assessment accreditation council (NAAC) by UGC, Distance Education Council (DEC) and NCTE etc, though there exists as autonomous bodies assessment for monitoring quality standards in the teacher training institutes of education, they suffer from two major deficiencies.

d. First the quality norms

e. Secondly enforcement process is not stringent

f. Adhoc engagements of teachers.

Lack of ICT enabled Teaching Learning Process

a. The world has become interdependent and is turning gradually into a global village.

b. But educational programmes for teachers or teacher-education has not made full use of their development skill the teachers with the knowledge of latest technological advancement are not being produced who are expected to use these upcoming techniques.

Lack of Monitoring of Teacher Education Instructions

The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) is a regulatory body which controls the functioning of these institutions and prevent them from becoming commercial institutions, but because the country is so diverse with innumerable institutions, it sometimes gets difficult to monitor all the institutions. Some unscrupulous institutions have become simply money making centre and produce certified but incompetent teachers which is a matter of great concern because incompetency of teachers can harm the system of education.

Dysfunctioning of Teacher Education Institutions

- Dysfunctioning of education has emerged in several forms in the recent decade in India.
- Government allowed to opens self-financing private teacher institutions
with recognition, which may be termed as commercial private teacher education institutions.

- With the mushrooming of these private institutes in the modern era, the education has acquired the status of a marketable commodity, where educational institutes are the traders and students are the customers. These institutions started courses like B.Ed, D.Ed, M.Ed, BP.Ed and many more without basic infrastructure and qualified teaching faculties.
- They are appointing those teachers that are low salaried and far away from the standards. In this environment, teachers do not have any Job security, so that they always do as management desire and they are morally down in the dumps.

**Structure of Teacher-Education Programme**

A lot of stress is given on teacher education course in India; unfortunately still there are several loopholes in the system. These are as follows:

**I. Inadequate Time duration:**

- One year duration of teacher education programme has been an issue of much long debate. The teacher education curriculum which includes theory and practical and internship in actual schools require much more time for its effective implementation.
- National curriculum frame work (1998) also recommends for two year duration of teacher education programme but could not implemented. So there is a need to extend the time period of present teacher-education programme.

**II. Poor Integration of Skills**

The term skill has become a misnomer, particularly, in education. All the skills, such as, life skills, techno-pedagogic skills, techno-savvy skills, info-savvy skills, emotional skills, human development skills, spiritual skills need to be integrated in teacher education.

**III. Undue Political Interference**

- The political interference is largely responsible for misuse of human resource management in education.
- Political parties often use many teachers as their party workers and these teachers also participate willingly in politics.
- Those teachers who are very close to political leaders have records of misconduct and unethical behaviour such as irregularity in class teaching, becoming absent from the school without taking leave.
Political leaders, high-level bureaucrats and members of the teacher unions also attempt to influence decision-making regarding the recruitment and transfer of teachers. Favouritism, nepotism and bribes are major types of misconduct in teacher’s appointment, posting and transfer.

So the moral and ethical commitment of teachers has gradually decreased over the years due to political interference.

**IV. Faculty Shortage**

Faculty shortage and the ability of the state educational system to attract and retain well-qualified teachers have been posting challenges to quality of teaching is also poor and there are constraints faced in training the faculty. According to report published by IANS in (2010) around 35% posts are vacant in the central institutes, 25% in the IIMs, 33.33% in the National Institutes of Technology and 35% at school educational level.

**V. Less Focus on Research and Innovation**

Research and teacher education are complementary to each other. There is inadequate focus on research in teacher education institutes. The causes include insufficient resources and facilities, as well as limited numbers of quality faculty to advice students. According to the data from 2009, enrolment for Ph.D./M.Phil constitutes only 0.48% of enrolment in teacher education in India.

The basic concepts of care mentioned in the literature review are evident in the actions of our participants. In establishing rapport with the students, one can say he wants the students to know ‘we’ are going to have respect each other and be open and accepting to other’s points of view.

**VI. Un-Fair Assessments**

- Course assessments of student learning must be objective, valid, fair, but at present there are many factors that may affect fairness in grading.
- Teachers should also avoid letting unrelated factors or personal biases which affect their grading of student assessments.
- It is now a major problem in the field of teacher education many institutions and universities are there, where assessment is doing with taking illegal money from the upcoming teachers.
- Also practical marks given to students after exploiting them in different ways, which lead to frustration in case of teacher, trainees etc. and the cause of emotional problem.
VII. Lack of Proper Facilities

- In India, the teacher education programme is being given a step-motherly treatment.
- About 20 percent of the teacher education institutions are being run in rented buildings without any facility for an experimental school or laboratory, library and other equipments necessary for a good teacher education department.
- There are no separate hostel facilities for student teachers.

VIII. Over Activism of Distance/Open Universities

Some of the distance and open universities have become over activists in the context of teacher education. These have a notion that they can open their teacher education extension centres anywhere. To give birth to infinite is their right, but who will rear their babies. Such distance and open universities have resulted into the dilution of teacher education.

Remedies

1. Curriculum of teacher education programme should be revised from time to time according to changing needs of society.
2. The quality of teacher education programme should be up graded.
3. Teacher education institutions should be put under strict control of National regulatory body for the selection of teacher, students and provisions of good infrastructure etc.
4. Working of the institutions should be examined from time to time and strict action should be taken if they fail to come up to expected level.
5. Teachers should be trained in the field of stress management mechanism so that they could help students in managing the stress and sustaining themselves in this time of social isolation, parental pressure and cut throat competition.
6. Teachers should be able to think critically, make right decisions and maintain harmonious relations with others.
7. Teacher education programmes should enable the teachers to develop their life skills among students.
8. Constitutional goals of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity can be realized through proper teacher education.
9. The impact of science and technology and ICT on society and education should be fully discussed in teacher education institutions.
10. New knowledge and new experiences should be incorporated in the curriculum and there should be a scope for teachers for reflection of knowledge.

11. Educational institutions should be graded according to the standards of the institution and admission should be allowed according to standard of the institutions.

12. Comprehensive induction training programme for newly recruited teachers should be arranged.

13. Each College of Education should establish Academic Council in their institution to discuss the academic matter such as curriculum update, examination reform and admission procedure etc.

14. Emphasis should be given on implementation of theory into practice.

15. The Gap between the theory and practical components in pre-service Teacher Education curriculum needs to be bridged by using adequate strategies.

16. Need to shift focus from teaching about ICT to teaching through ICT.

17. The teacher should take a pledge to follow the code of ethics which may bring credit to the entire profession.

18. It is possible to ensure quality of shifting our focus from ‘what should be done’ to ‘how’ it can be done.

19. Political interference must not be allowed in the field of education.

20. The gap between all agencies of teacher education must be bridged.

21. The Internship part of in-service Teacher Education course needs to be strengthened.

22. Values which cuts across all the areas and subjects needs to be inculcated and embedded in the education System.

23. Student friendly and engaging approaches and methods need to be adapted to teaching and training of young generation.

24. There is a dire need to equip teachers to overcome their biases vis-a-vis special education (Inclusive education) and positively handle these challenges and special emphasis may be laid on restructuring of teacher education curriculum with a focus on basic components of inclusive education.

25. In order to enhance the quality of the teachers in the university/education system, pre-induction training for a period of 3-4 Months after recruitment should be organised. This training should be organised on a decentralised basis by the respective universities themselves.
26. Curriculum of teacher education programme in India has been criticized much. Some educationists feel that it does not fully address the need of contemporary Indian Schools and society and it does not contain relevant contents for teachers who are to impart quality education in schools.

Conclusion
Teacher and his education are very significant aspects of any nation. The education gives a new shape to the individual and the nation as well. It is a well known saying that teacher is the nation builder. The quality of teacher education programme needs to be up graded. Teacher education has not come up to the requisite standards. Teachers should be able to think critically and solve the issue related to teaching methods, content, organisation etc. Teacher education programme needs a comprehensive reform and restructuring of curriculum needs to be revised according to changing needs of society. After the deep study and healthy discussion with educationists, The researchers came to this conclusion that Centre and State Governments should join their hands to bring the quality and improvement in the teacher education. Then alone bright future of teacher education is possible.

References
Emotional Maturity of Regular Students and Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley: A Comparative Study

Dr. Mohammad Sayid Bhat

ABSTRACT
The research paper attempted to compare the emotional maturity of regular and Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley. A sample of 200 PG students (100 Regular and 100 Distance Learners) was taken from different Higher Education Institution of Kashmir (J&K) India. Yashvir Singh’s and Mahesh Bhargava’s Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS) (1984) was administered. For analysis, mean, SD and t-test were used. The investigation came to the conclusion that the Regular Students and Distance Learners differ significantly on emotional maturity. It is reflected through this study that Distance Learners are emotionally unbalanced. Distance Learners have emotional instability than Regular Students. They lack capacity to solve daily problems, they have more irritability and needs continuous help for day to day work, they are venerable and have temper tantrum. Distance Learners have more emotional regression than Regular Students. Distance Learners have inferiority complex, aggressiveness and self centeredness of being pursuing education through distance mode. The study also revealed that Regular Students were found with lack of independence than students pursuing their education through distance mode. The study further showed that Regular male students also differ significantly with male Distance Learners on emotional maturity scale in favour of regular male students and the same is the case with female students.

Key Words: Emotional Maturity, Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Mal-adjustment, Personality Disintegration, Independence.
Introduction

In psychology, maturity is the ability to respond to the environment in an appropriate manner. This response is generally learned rather than instinctive. Maturity also encompasses being aware of the correct time and place to behave and knowing when to act, according to the circumstances and the culture of the society one lives in. Adult development and maturity theories include the purpose in life concept, in which maturity emphasizes a clear comprehension of life’s purpose, directedness, and intentionality, which contributes to the feeling that life is meaningful.

The status of maturity is distinguished by the shift away from reliance on guardianship and the oversight of an adult in decision-making acts. Maturity has different definitions across legal, social, religious, political, emotional, and intellectual contexts. The age or qualities assigned for each of these contexts are tied to culturally-significant indicators of independence that often vary as a result of social sentiments. The concept of psychological maturity has implications across both legal and social contexts, while a combination of political activism and scientific evidence continue to reshape and qualify its definition. Because of these factors, the notion and definition of maturity and immaturity is somewhat subjective. Emotions as we know often fall into what we call defilements (Keles). Anger, irritability, jealousy, anxiety are some of those negative emotions which are important to us as human beings. Emotional maturity includes a constellation of qualities which make our minds more stable and balanced and actually express less defilement and hence make us happier. In the present circumstances, youth as well as children are facing difficulties in life which give rise to many psychosomatic problems such as anxiety, tension, frustration and emotional upsets in day to day life. According to Skinner, “An emotionally matured person is the one who is able to keep a lid on his feelings. He can suffer in silence; he can bide his time in spite of present discomfort. He is not subject to swings in mood, he is not volatile. When he does express emotion, he does so with moderation, decency and in good order.” According to Cole, “The most outstanding make of emotional maturity is the ability to bear tension. Besides, an emotionally matured person persists in the capacity for fun and recreation. He enjoys both play and responsible activities and keeps them in proper balance.” According to Fred Mc. Kinney, “The characteristics of an emotionally matured person are heterosexuality, appreciation of attitude and behaviour of others, tendency to adopt the attitudes and habits of others and capacity to delay his own responses.”

Jerome Bruner proposed the purpose of the period of immaturity as being a time for experimental play without serious consequences, where a young animal can spend a great deal of time observing the actions of skilled others in
coordinated with oversight by and activity with its mother. The key to human innovation through the use of symbols and tools, therefore, is re-interpretive imitation that is ‘practiced, perfected, and varied in play’ through extensive exploration of the limits on one’s ability to interact with the world. Evolutionary psychologists have also realized that cognitive immaturity may serve an adaptive purpose as a protective barrier for children against their own under-developed meta-cognition and judgment, a vulnerability that may put them in harm’s way. For youth today, the steadily extending period of ‘play’ and schooling going into the 21st century comes as a result of the increasing complexity of our world and its technologies, which too demand an increasing intricacy of skill as well as a more exhaustive set of pre-requisite abilities. Many of the behavioral and emotional problems associated with adolescence may arise as children cope with the increased demands placed on them, demands which have become increasingly abstracted from the work and expectations of adulthood.

Emotional Maturity is said to be the foundation for leading a happy and contented life. If anyone lacks Emotional Maturity the life of the individual will be a sorrowful affair. According to Crow & Crow (1974), “An emotion is an affective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and psychologically stirred up states in an individual and that shows itself in his overt behaviour. According to Alter (1976), emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both physical and psychological. Emotional stability is one of the important indicators of mental health. It simply means being grown up so that one may be able to personally manage his/her desires and feelings and may be better able to cope up the adverse life situations in a most benefiting and socially approved manner. The emotionally mature is not one who necessarily has resolved all conditions that aroused anxiety and hospitality but it is continuously in process of seeing himself/herself in clear perspective, continually involved in a struggle to gain healthy integration of feeling and thinking action. Aileen and Sheema (2005), have found that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students on emotional stability. Gupta and Ponam (1989), has found that the characteristic behaviour of the female is more sober, well-behaved, shy and reserved as compared to boys. Male behave more openly and are more interested in bold activities. Jan Nuzhat (2012), also found that there is a significant mean difference between male and female Distance Learners on emotional maturity. Female students are emotionally stable compared to male students. Jha P.K. (2002) found that self-confidence and emotional maturity were positively associated with vigilant style of decision making in case of executives. Lohithakshan, P. M. (2002), emotional instability is an indication of emotional immaturity, as emotionally unstable response is characterized by the lack of agreement between the emotional response and
the provoking stimulus. Mangal & Amina Bhevi (2007), found that the adolescents of employed mothers have greater emotional maturity than that of housewives. Mankad A. (1999), observed that personality of emotionally matured and unmatured adolescents differ significantly. Patil M. (2003), reports that adolescence is accompanied by some stress, related to school, family and peers, and this stress can at times be difficult to manage. It is also a time when certain kinds of developmental problems might arise. Child psychologists are of the opinion that not all stress is bad; the good kind motivates one to get things done and solve problems or take challenges. When stress lingers, makes child avoid things, or makes normal functioning difficult, then it is a problem. Sivakumar, R. (2010), found that the sex, community and the family type they belong to do not play any role in the emotional maturity of the college students. But it is inferred from that the religion the college students belong to shows significant difference in their emotional maturity. Stephen. S. (2002), conducted a study related to neuroticism and emotional maturity among college female students and found that the individuals who scored higher neuroticism are having a low level of emotional maturity.

**Justification of the Study**

If many of us fall short of some basic but noble attributes, it is because we grew up in less than ideal circumstances. No one is born mature. Our emotional development is shaped by our parents and life experiences. Mature parents who recognise, validate, love and accept their children and are fulfilled in their own lives rear mature children. “I think parents who have been able to find and realize their own dreams are the best parents of all, as long as their dream includes understanding and loving their own children,” says Stark. A child who successfully struggles with failures, disappointments, and heartaches will develop greater maturity than one who is pampered and indulged. Throughout childhood, there are development tasks to be mastered, like making friends and developing autonomy. By completing most tasks without undue stress, conflict, or difficulty, a child can develop into a mature adult.

A high IQ (intelligence quotient), good looks, and robust health- while attractive innate qualities-don’t contribute to emotional maturity. There are many people born with fewer advantages who develop into mature, well-adjusted adults. Emotional maturity is, however, closely related to the popular concept of emotional intelligence, in which people are skilful at handling their own and other’s feelings. Emotional development is linked with other areas of human development like physical, intellectual and social. Any retardation, undue acceleration or abnormal deviation in these areas would inevitably influence normal emotional development resulting in frustration, conflicts and imbalance in behaviour. Frustration is not only a negative thing, a failure to achieve but it increases emotional tensions
affecting the living of complete individual. Stark defines psychological maturity as 'being able to accept the reality of people and things as they are, without needing them to be other than that.' To paraphrase a Native American adage: ‘The art of living in peace with that which we cannot change, the courage to change that which should be changed, no matter what it takes and the wisdom to know the difference.’

Along with this realistic attitude toward life, mature people also possess these healthy character traits:

- Ability to know what he wants and the capacity to make it happen
- Self-control and thinking before he acts
- Self-reliance and the ability to take responsibility for his life and actions
- Patience
- The ability to sustain intimate relationships and establish positive connections with others
- Generosity and the desire to give and be there for others
- Integrity
- A sense of balance and equanimity in dealing with stress
- Perseverance
- Decisiveness
- Humility and the ability to admit when you’re wrong

Hence Emotional Maturity is an important aspect in one’s life and very less research has been conducted so far in this area especially in the Valley of Kashmir. Therefore, to fill this vacuum the present investigator has found it feasible to work on the unbeaten area and took an initiative to find out the emotional maturity of Regular Students and Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley (India) which is the first modest attempt in this area.

Statement of the Problem

The problem chosen for the present study is stated as under:

‘Emotional Maturity of Regular and Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley- A Comparative Study’

Objectives of the Study

Following objectives have been formulated for the present study:

1. To study the emotional maturity of Regular Students of Kashmir Valley.
2. To study the emotional maturity of Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley.
3. To compare the emotional maturity of Regular Students with emotional maturity of Distance Learners.
4. To compare the emotional maturity of male Regular Students with the emotional maturity of male Distance Learners.
5. To compare the emotional maturity of female Regular Students with the emotional maturity of female Distance Learners.

Operational Definition of Variables

*Emotional Maturity*

In the present investigation emotional maturity means, the scores gained by the respondent (sample subject) on Yashvir Singh’s and Mahesh Bhargava’s *EMOTIONAL MATURITY SCALE* (1984). The Emotional maturity inventory comprises of five dimensions viz; *Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence.*

*Regular Students*

Regular Students are those students who are on rolls and pursuing higher education (PG) through regular mode in Higher Education Institutions of Kashmir Valley. Students from University of Kashmir and Central University of Kashmir were considered who were pursuing their Post Graduate courses in different disciplines there.

*Distance Learners*

Distance Learners are those students who are pursuing higher education through distance mode in Kashmir Valley. Learners from MANNU (Srinagar) and Directorate of Distance Education, University of Kashmir were considered who were pursuing their Post graduate courses through distance mode.

Procedure

*Sample*

A sample of 200 students pursuing higher education in different courses was selected randomly from different higher education institutions of Kashmir division. From University of Kashmir and Central University of Kashmir 100 students were selected randomly from various faculties/schools who were pursuing their PG courses through regular mode among which 50 were female. The sample for the Distance Learners, 100 PG students were selected randomly from MANUU (Srinagar) and Directorate of Distance Education, University of Kashmir (50 each) in which half of the selected sample was comprised of female PG students. The breakup is given below:
Table showing the sample for the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tool**

For the measurement of Emotional Maturity, *Yashvir Singh’s and Mahesh Bhargava’s Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS)* was administered. The scale has five dimensions. The scale consists of 10 items in each dimension except for the last dimension i.e. Lack of Independence which has only 8 items. The responses are scored according to weightage of *very much* to *never* as 05 to 01.

**Analysis of the Data**

For the analysis of collected but relevant data, appropriate statistical techniques viz; mean, standard deviation and t-test were employed.

Table 01 showing significance of mean difference between Regular Students and Distance Learners on Emotional Maturity (Composite Score)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>σ</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>89.98</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>18.59</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>101.82</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table reveals that there is a significant difference between Regular Students and Distance Learners on emotional maturity. The table shows that the mean of Regular Students is 89.98 and for the Distance Learners it is 101.82 where as the SD of Regular Students is 2.44 and it is 3.93 for Distance Learners. The t-value for the same is 18.59 which shows the significant mean difference of two groups at 0.01 level. The perusal of the above table makes it clear that the mean score of Distance Learners is significantly higher than the mean score of Regular Students. The difference between their mean score has been found statistically significant. This justifies that Distance Learners are emotional immature than Regular Students.
Table 02 showing significance of mean difference between Regular Students (N=100) and Distance Learners (N=100) on emotional maturity (factor wise)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>σ</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Emotional Instability</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Emotional Regression</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>24.18</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Social Maladjustment</td>
<td>17.10</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>20.06</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Personality Disintegration</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>19.64</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Lack of Independence</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>17.94</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the significant difference of two groups of students on emotional maturity (factor wise). The table depicts that the two groups differ significantly at 0.01 level on instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration where as the two groups do not differ in lack of independence. This again justifies that Regular student are emotionally stable, have less emotional regression, are socially adjusted and also have personality integrated than Distance Learners. The table also shows that the two groups do differ significantly on the fifth dimension of the scale that is Lack of Independence where the trend is reverse, Regular Students posses higher score in the dimension of lack of independence. The difference between the two groups is found significant at 0.05 level in favour of Distance Learners.
Table 03 showing significance of mean difference between male Regular Students (N=50) and male Distance Learners (N=50) on emotional maturity (factor wise)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>σ</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Emotional Instability</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Emotional Regression</td>
<td>18.15</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.06</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Social Maladjustment</td>
<td>20.10</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>24.18</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Personality Disintegration</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.64</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Lack of Independence</td>
<td>17.98</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.02</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that the mean scores of male Distance Learners is higher than the mean score of Regular Students on Emotional Instability of emotional maturity. The mean difference of the two male groups was found significant at 0.01 level. It shows that the Distance Learners have emotional instability than Regular Students. Same is the case with the dimension of emotional regression, it was also found significant at 0.01 level in favour of male Distance Learners. The table depicts that male Distance Learners are socially maladjusted and have personality disintegration than male regular student. The table also reflects that male Distance Learners have lack of capacity to solve simple problems, they have irritability, and needs continuous help for their daily routine of work, they are stubbornness and temper tantrum. Male Distance Learners also feel that they are tired and remain upset whenever they think about their education. But the table also reveals that Regular Students have scored higher on the dimension of Lack of Independence that means they lack independence than Distance Learners and the difference is significant at 0.05 level.
Table 04 showing significance of mean difference between female Regular Students (N=50) and female Distance Learners (N=50) on emotional maturity (factor wise)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>(\sigma)</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Instability</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td></td>
<td>18.91</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>18.17</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>20.87</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>21.03</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>Maladjustment</td>
<td>23.45</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>16.34</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>Disintegration</td>
<td>19.51</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular Students</td>
<td>Lack of</td>
<td>16.91</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Insig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learners</td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>16.05</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that the mean scores of female Regular Students is lower than the mean score of female Distance Learners on factors Emotional instability and emotional regression of emotional maturity. The mean difference on emotional instability was found significant at 0.05 level and on emotional regression the difference is significant at 0.05 level. The table reveals that female Distance Learners have more emotional regression than female Regular Students. Same is the case with social maladjustment, female distance learners showed greater mean than the regular female students and the mean difference is significant at 0.05 level. It means the female distance learners are more maladjusted in the society. They have reported that they have inferiority complex as they pursue their education through Distance Mode. They feel restlessness and sometimes feel to discontinue their course but looking no other option ahead they stick with it which sometimes make them aggressive and hostile. They also reported that due to the mode of education they are not sharing their education life which in turn made them self centred. On other factor also viz; Personality disintegration, female Distance Learners differ significantly.
with female Regular Students at 0.01 level and possess higher score. On factor ‘Lack of Independence’, there is no significant difference between the two groups.

**Discussion of the Results**

The research methodology provides the guidelines for the investigators about the way for the study has to be conducted. It is imperative to adopt a suitable methodology thereby for generalizing the findings. This research found out certain factors which are affecting the emotional maturity such as hereditary factors, maturation, education, training, health, goals, family relationship, social environment, social participation, control over emotions, age, appearance, gender, culture, socio-economic status, environment, and parental education and most importantly peaceful society. A balanced and emotionally mature personality is one of the essential components of a successful life. The Emotional maturity has now become an important and unavoidable area in the behaviour of an individual which needed to be explored through new research projects. It is also essential for the progress of the society. So the present study intends to measure the Emotional Maturity of Regular and Distance mode PG students of Kashmir Valley. The present research highlighted a number of things which are correlated with emotional maturity and these areas need to be explored for the balanced personality. This investigation found out that Distance Learners have experienced a sense of discomfort and lack peace of mind. Distance Learners think themselves more aggressive than their friends who are pursuing post graduation through regular mode. They further reported that they are dissatisfied with the distance mode of learning. Female Distance Learners do not blame others for their lapses but their male counterparts blame others for their lapses.

**Conclusions**

The present study through the different stages of investigation reached to the following conclusions, which were the result of systematic statistical methods and qualitative analysis of the data.

1. Regular Students and Distance Learners differ significantly on emotional maturity. Regular Students are emotionally mature than Distance Learners.
2. Regular Students are emotionally stable than Distance Learners. Regular Students possess more capacity to solve day to day problems whereas Distance Learners have irritability and they lack problem solving attitude.
3. Distance Learners possess more emotional regression than Regular Students and they are more aggressive, vulnerable and temper tantrum.
4. Distance Learners are socially maladjusted than Regular Students. They
have inferiority complex and self centeredness of being pursuing education through distance mode.

5. Distance Learners have personality disintegration than Regular Students. They feel tired, laziness and no enthusiasm to study more. They have witnessed their moods swings very often and are unstable to rely on.

6. Regular Students lack independence than Distance Learners.

7. Regular male students are more emotionally mature than male Distance Learners on all first four dimensions of emotional maturity. But on the fifth dimension, Distance Learner scored lower that means they possess low lack of Independence.

8. Regular female students are more emotionally mature than female Distance Learners on all first four dimensions of emotional maturity. But again on the fifth dimension, both female Regular Students and female Distance Learners showed insignificant difference. Both groups lack independence.

References


ABSTRACT

Government of India under RMSA program has committed universal access to secondary education by 2017. However, this seems to be mere policy statement as secondary education in India is continued to be neglected policy area. There exist wide socio-economic differences in the level of participation at secondary level. The differential participation is likely to get intensified. There are two important reasons for that, a) public financing of secondary education in India is minimal (it received mere 16 percent of total plan expenditure on education) and b) the proliferation of private unaided schools. In this paper, we take up second reason in more detail. The proportion of private unaided schools at secondary level ranges between maximum of 88.4 in UP to minimum of 0 percent in West Bengal. The pattern of presence of private unaided schools presents the case of inequity and inequality as they have mostly proliferated in poor states. The issue is important since private cost of secondary education has been increasing while the public subsidy has been more or less stagnant. In this background paper examines the

a) Growth pattern of Private unaided schools and rationale behind their proliferation

b) Pattern of distribution of financial support and their implications for the affordability

c) Household level determinants of participation in private unaided schools.

This study utilizes selected educational statistics (MHRD), NSS 64th round Survey and household survey data from Punjab. This paper estimates private school choice using binary logistic regression.
Introduction

Educational landscape in India is in constant transition with increasing enrolment and completion rates at elementary level of schooling. The constrained capacity of secondary education to accommodate the increasing number of elementary graduates\(^1\) has resulted in changing government priorities towards secondary education. The Government of India under the 11\(^{th}\) plan set the target of 75 percent gross enrolment ratio by the year 2012. To achieve universal access to secondary education, Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) was introduced in 2009. RMSA is launched to attain universal access to secondary education by 2017 and universal retention by 2020 (Linden 2012). RMSA not only targets improved access and equity but also quality at secondary level.

Universalisation of access to secondary education is a tough task given differences in participation of Scheduled Castes and Tribes (SCs and STs), girls, poor, and Muslims. The situation is even more precarious at the secondary and higher secondary level. In India, level of participation varied vastly across states and it is worse in BIMARU states (Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh). The central reasoning is that survival to the end of upper primary is very low and most of the population fail to acquire any secondary schooling\(^2\) (Lewin 2011).

The differential participation at secondary level of education is likely to get intensified. There are two important reasons for that, a) public financing of secondary education in India is minimal (it received mere 16 percent of total plan expenditure on education) and b) the proliferation of private unaided schools. The proportion of private unaided schools at secondary level ranges between maximum of 88.4 in UP to minimum of 0 percent in West Bengal.

This paper seeks to understand whether private unaided schools could be the instrument of universalisation of secondary education through posing three questions. First, Growth pattern of Private unaided schools and rationale behind their proliferation. Second, Pattern of distribution of financial support and their implications for the affordability and third, household level determinants of participation in private unaided schools.

This paper draws on data from Selected Educational Statistics (MHRD), NSS 64\(^{th}\) round Survey and household survey data from Punjab.

2.1. Secondary education participation trends

Selected Education Statistics (2007-08) shows that in 2007-08, more than 28.2 million students were enrolled at secondary level (grades IX and X) and 16.26 million in senior secondary level (grades XI and XII), thus a total of 44.46 million attending grades IX-XII (Shankar 2011). The overall GER in class IX-
XII is 45.81. At the lower secondary level the GER is 58.15 percent and at the higher secondary level it is 33.48 percent (Linden 2012).

**Figure 1: Gross Attendance Rate (GAR): All India**

The NSSO data gives the estimation of the number of children actually attending secondary education in the country. As per NSS 52\textsuperscript{nd} round (1995-96), the estimated number of students attending lower secondary (grades IX and X) were around 17.7 million and higher secondary were 8.5 million and total students by combining both lower and higher secondary were around 26.2 million. An analysis of NSS 64\textsuperscript{th} round data (2007-08) shows that around 50.6 million children were attending secondary grades (lower and higher secondary taken together) in 2007-08. There is an increase in participation by around 24.4 million children, as evident from a comparison with the secondary enrolments estimated using NSS 52\textsuperscript{nd} and 64\textsuperscript{th} round. Above figure 1 clearly indicates an improvement in participation in all levels of education from 1995-96 to 2007-08 in general and lesser participation in secondary education compared to primary and upper primary education in particular.

In order to meet the set target of universal access to secondary education by 2017, the provision of secondary schooling in India comprises three types of school categories: government and local body schools, private aided and private unaided schools. Government schools are run and managed by the government with no autonomy at the school level. The category of private aided schools known as quasi government started out privately managed and funded but now receive government grants and thus losing most of their autonomy as a result (De et al. 2002). Private-aided schools are subject to state regulations regarding selection of teachers, admissions and fee levels (Sidhu 2010; Kingdon 2007).
Third category is of private unaided schools. Private unaided schools have complete autonomy in setting fee levels, hiring teachers and pedagogy and receive no government support (De et al. 2002; Siddhu 2010, Harma 2010). Majority of schools at the primary level are government schools, funded and managed entirely by the government, while by contrast the majority of schools at both lower and senior secondary levels are private unaided schools, fully funded and managed by private operators (Siddhu 2010).

**Figure 2: Distribution of Schools in India by Type of School and Level of Education**

![Figure 2: Distribution of Schools in India by Type of School and Level of Education](image)

*Source: Statistics of school education 2010-11*

Figure 2 presents the share of different management type schools at each level of education in India. In the country as a whole, the share of government and local body schools as a percentage of total schools declines from 84 percent at the primary level to 77 percent at the upper primary level, 40 percent at the lower secondary level and 35 percent at the senior secondary level (Government of India 2012). Share of government and local body schools at the lower and senior secondary level in India is quite low whereas the share of private unaided schools at the lower and the senior secondary levels is 36 and 38 percent respectively (ibid.).

The existing facts highlight that the private un-aided schools are mushrooming at a faster rate in India now a days. The World Bank Report (2009) highlights that the growth in the number of secondary schools over the last two decades has occurred primarily among private unaided schools, which now represent almost one out of three of India’s secondary schools. Jointly, private aided and unaided schools make up 60 percent of all secondary schools. Most secondary students in private unaided schools are boys, and disproportionately from urban
areas and wealthier segments of the population (ibid). The private sector reaches 25 per cent of the children in elementary education, and more than 50 per cent of those in secondary and higher education (India infrastructure report 2012). Moreover the growth and nature of these private un-aided schools is not homogeneous but is highly heterogeneous and varies significantly in scope and quality (De et al. 2002; Harma 2010), encompassing the expensive and elite to the cheapest low fee private schools.

Scenario is even more diverse at the state level in the mix of government, private aided, and private unaided schools for secondary education as highlighted in figure 3.

**Figure 3: Distribution of Schools in Selected States and India by Type of School at Lower Secondary Level of Education**

![Graph Showing Distribution of Schools in Selected States and India by Type of School at Lower Secondary Level of Education]

*Source: Statistics of school education 2010-11*

The proportion of private unaided schools at lower secondary level ranges between maximum of 92.4 percent in U.P to minimum of 0 percent in West Bengal. After U.P states like Haryana (51.4), Himachal Pradesh (40.3), Punjab (38.6), Rajasthan (45.9), shows significant presence of private unaided schools.

It is observed from figure 4 that the higher proportion of children belonging to bottom sixty percent are attending government and local body schools. In bottom twenty percent 50 percent of the children are attending these schools. In the fourth quintile almost fifty percent of the children are attending private aided and unaided schools. Whereas more than seventy percent of the children from top twenty percent are attending private aided and unaided schools. These private schools are generally run on the basis of full cost recovery mechanism and as a result majority of the children from higher income group have access to these schools.
Figure 4: Participation at Lower Secondary Level: Economic Group and Management of School

Source: Author’s calculation from NSS 64th round data

Figure 5: Enrolment in Lower Secondary: Social Category and Management of Schools

Source: Authors calculation from NSS 64th round data

Figure 5 reveals that private schools have lower proportion of students from ST and SC backgrounds at lower secondary level of education. The share is especially low in private unaided schools. The share of ST background students is 7.9 percent in government/local body schools, 3.5 percent in unaided schools and 4.3 percent in aided schools. The argument for their low presence in private unaided schools is that majority of these students are from lower income group and affordability of fees associated with these private unaided schools is difficult for them. This scenario of participation of students across different categories of students is having implication from the equity dimension (Linden 2012).
The gender gap is also significant at lower secondary level. The difference between boys and girls in terms of enrolment is 15 per cent in lower secondary (42.5 per cent for girls as against 57.5 percent for boys as highlighted in Shankar (2011). These gaps are also replicated at the state level, though there are a few states that have better participation rates for girls at the lower secondary level (Kerala, Mizoram, Goa, Pondicherry, Karnataka, Delhi and it should be noted that these are generally states with high overall rates) (Linden 2012).

The above scenario of secondary education in India highlights that access to secondary education is highly inequitable, across income groups, gender, social groups, geography and states. Persons belonging to the scheduled caste, females, from low income group and rural area are more disadvantaged compared to their counterparts and their population is more dominated in government schools. Already the transition from elementary to lower secondary education is very low for children from schedule caste families, girls and poor income group.

The existing facts highlight that secondary attendance of the general population is 80 percent higher than that for STs, SCs and Muslims (World Bank Report 2009). The acute portion which successfully make this transition, it is difficult for them to continue due to low provision of government schools at this level and high cost of secondary education. Majority of the population in private schools are from high income group which can easily afford the increasing cost of secondary education. According to World Bank Report (2009), wealthier children are more than twice as likely to be enrolled in secondary education as poor children.

2.2. Rationale Behind the Proliferation of Private Unaided Schools

Given the limited public resources and rising demand for secondary education, the private sector has stepped in order to fill the void. During the last two decades the pace of growth of education in general and secondary education in particular have largely influenced by the private sector. Comparison of NSS 52nd and 64th round data highlights that the proportion of students in private schools has now crossed 50% at the primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary levels in urban areas which is a significant rise since 1995-96 (Times of India 2010). The picture is diverse across states regarding the growth of private unaided schools. In UP, approximately 60 percent of all secondary schools are private unaided (Sidhu 2010). The rationale behind the proliferation of private unaided schools as highlighted in different literatures are:

(i) There is ample public provision of primary education in India3, however this provision significantly drops off after the primary level, and reduces sharply at the secondary level4 (Mohanty and Ziadi 2012; De and Endow 2008). Only 1.2% of the GDP is spent on secondary education. In order
to fill the gap of demand and supply at secondary level, growth of private schools is taking place at larger pace.

(ii) Another pertinent rationale for proliferation of private schools is the quality education which has been highlighted in the school choice literature.

(iii) Private school attendance can improve academic achievement and may lead to higher educational attainment

(iv) Attending private schools provides significant economic advantages in terms of higher wages and higher probabilities of getting employment and thus an instrument to main class distinction (Ball, 1993; Ball Bowe et al., 1996; Ball, 1997; Whitty and Edwards, 1998)

With the proliferation of private schools at the lower secondary level, the burden on household has increased considerably. Households in India are spending substantial amount on providing lower secondary education to their children. The growth in expenditure on education is far in excess of the growth of average income. While annual household income in rural areas grew by 19% between 1995-96 and 2007-08, expenditure on education grew by 54%. In urban areas, while income grew by 27%, expenditure on education grew by 72%. Families now pay an average of Rs 1,413 annually per child in primary school, Rs. 2,088 in middle school, Rs. 4,351 in secondary school and Rs.7, 360 for higher education.

The variation in rural and urban areas is quite big. Families in urban areas spend more than twice what those in rural areas spend on primary, middle and secondary education. It is observed that households in the rural area on an average are spending 2427 and in Urban areas 6086 rupees for lower secondary education. In rural areas expenditure on fee (tuition, exam and other fee) constitutes 28 percent of total average annual expenditure on lower secondary and 42 percent in urban areas. It appears to be expected for urban areas because majority of the children are attending private aided and unaided schools. The analysis of two rounds of NSS data reveals substantial increase in household expenditure on lower secondary education.

Table 1: Average Annual Household Expenditure on Lower Secondary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quintile</th>
<th>1995-96 (52nd Round)</th>
<th>2007-08 (64th Round)</th>
<th>Growth rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>693</td>
<td>1691</td>
<td>1.44012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>1934</td>
<td>1.25408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>2361</td>
<td>1.36100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>1278</td>
<td>3326</td>
<td>1.60250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>1950</td>
<td>6866</td>
<td>2.52103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Estimates based on NSS 52nd and 64th round data*
It is observed from the table that even in the poorest quintile increase is considerable. There could be multiple reasons for such increase in the household expenditure on lower secondary education. First, Per capita income has increased; second, growth of lower secondary schools has largely taken place in the private sector; third, children completing elementary education have increased. The increase in the household expenditure on lower secondary education has greater impact on poor and reflects inequality in the system.

Attending lower secondary requires household to bear considerable expenditure. On an average additional one thousand rupees would be required to attend lower secondary education\(^5\). Given the pattern of expansion of lower secondary schools, dominated by private aided and unaided schools, it will be difficult for the poor households to meet additional expenditure required. As ability to access private schooling is conditional on ability to pay which is having serious implications on equitable access to education.

In recent times, budgetary allocation and expenditure by the central government has increased significantly between 2007–08 and 2011–12 (Mukherjee and Sikdar 2012). In case of elementary education, budgetary allocation has doubled and has risen by more than three times for secondary and higher education (Mukherjee and Sikdar 2012). Particularly in the case of secondary education, the proportion of expenditure was 8.9 per cent of the total expenditure in 2007–08, and it has increased to 14.5 percent of total expenditure in 2011–12. Below figure 6 highlights the central expenditure in education during the 11\(^{th}\) plan.

**Figure 6: Central expenditure in Education during the 11\(^{th}\) Plan (Rupees in millions)**

![Figure 6: Central expenditure in Education during the 11\(^{th}\) Plan (Rupees in millions)](source: GoI (2011))
Though in absolute terms, the public expenditure on education has increased but in relative terms the expenditure on education has never crossed 15% of the total public expenditure during the last six decades (Mohanty and Ziadi 2012). The expenditure has traditionally been skewed towards secondary education (Tilak 1999). Central government’s declared desire to increase education spending is barely reflected in the budgetary figures with the amount spent remaining a shockingly low proportion of the total public spending (Ghosh 2011).

3.0 Household level determinants

3.1 Methodology

This section of the paper aims at understanding the household level determinants of participation in private unaided schools. There are certain factors which assumes critical role in shaping such decision like economic status, parental education. These factors are important because it reduces the utility of non schooling and are found to be positively associated with the educational choices. Other factors like role of school quality in shaping such decision has also gained importance in researches concerned with educational choices. However, despite of growing literature on this issue there is still lack of knowledge with respect to decision making of household involved while choosing public or private school for their children in Indian context. This study is based on the household survey conducted by the researchers. The household survey helped in collecting some of the information which is readily not available.

3.2 Sampling Process

The results and findings presented in this section are based on household survey which has been conducted in the Punjab State. India human development survey 2010 based on 41,554 households across India revealed that private enrolment in schools is 52 percent in Punjab which is highest for children aged between 6-14 years (Ghosh 2011). Privatization of schooling is taking place at a faster place not only at the primary level but also at the secondary level in Punjab. The present situation highlights that it is worthy to investigate household level determinants of participation in private unaided schools. Household surveys is not only helpful to measure the impact of policies and interventions affecting access to schooling, but can also provide valuable information on the relative importance parents attach to public and private schools. In connection with this, survey of 480 households was made in the Ferozepur district of Punjab, India. The sampling process adopted was random sampling technique. Data was collected through questionnaire prepared for the head of the household. The questionnaire was dived in two parts first part included close ended questions,
to gather quantitative information (socioeconomic background and educational background of child) and second part included open ended question to seek qualitative information (household decision making process).

3.3 Empirical Strategy

Estimation of school choice of parents should ideal take three forms government schools, private schools (recognized or unrecognized) and no schooling. Estimation of this type of outcome variable can be performed under maximum likelihood method. However, in sample households very few households were observed to have third option that is no schooling. As a result the outcome variable turned out is binary in nature. In line with the limitations of linear regression models, binary logistic regression model was used to understand the factors influencing school choices of the parents. Majority of literature in this and the related area have used binary logistic regression (Kingdon 1994, 1996; Dreze and Kingdon, 2001; Alderman et al., 1996; Rose and Al-Sammarai, 2001).

Logistic regression employs binomial probability theory in which there is only two values to predict: that probability (p) is 1 rather than 0, i.e. the event/person belongs to one group rather than the other. Logistic regression forms a best fitting equation or function using the maximum likelihood method, which maximizes the probability of classifying the observed data into the appropriate category given the regression coefficients. The functional form of binary logit model for school choice can be stated as follows

\[
\ln(Y^*) = \ln \left( \frac{\pi(x)}{1 - \pi(x)} \right) = \alpha + (\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_p X_p)
\]

\(Y^*\) is the log odd of the likelihood of private school choice, \(X_i\) represents the set of independent variables, and \(\hat{\beta}_{jk}\) are the logistic regression coefficients measuring the effect of variable \(X_j\) on \(\ln Y\). For the simplicity of interpretation odd ratios are reported in this paper. In the context of the present paper odds ratio measures the relative change in the probability of private school choice given the relative change in the explanatory variable (explanatory factor are measured against a reference category for a binary or categorical variable, and in case of continuous variable it measures unit change).
### 3.4 Results

**Table 2: Result of Logistic Regression from Field Level Data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School choice, Private School=1</th>
<th>Lower secondary level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education of father</td>
<td>.650**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (Male=1)</td>
<td>.802**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caste (Reference group= General Caste)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>-.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBC</td>
<td>2.971*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School record in family (if any family member studied in private school=1)</td>
<td>2.326*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Size</td>
<td>-.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income Group (Poor=1)</td>
<td>-1.190*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium of Instruction (English=1)</td>
<td>4.721*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child’s position among sibling</td>
<td>-1.133*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency Ratio</td>
<td>-.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation (Reference group= Daily wage earner)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Employed</td>
<td>1.239*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular wage employment</td>
<td>2.276*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason for choosing particular school (Reference=other)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Popularity</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Infrastructure</td>
<td>1.547*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee</td>
<td>-.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance to nearest government school</td>
<td>2.273*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation behind educating children (Reference category=Other reasons)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future security of child</td>
<td>2.520*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status attainment</td>
<td>1.307*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Log likelihood</td>
<td>154690.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke R Square</td>
<td>.700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 1%, **Significant at 5%
We estimated binary logistic regression at lower secondary level of education. We observe that there are several factors at play in influencing parental decision to choose private school. Often cited factors include parental educational level. The coefficient of father’s educational level in the model is positive and statistically significant. This implies that relatively higher level of father’s education is associated with higher chances of choosing private school at lower secondary level. Higher level of parental education is important because it reduces the utility of non schooling option and also indicates parental ability to choose better schooling path for their children. The affluent and aware parents have started sending their wards to private schools in search of quality education in Punjab (Ghuman 2008).

Gender of the child is also found to be statistically significant, implying being male increases the likelihood of enrolment in private school. The coefficient for gender provides support the hypothesis that gender differences has important role in explaining the investment in human capital (Becker 1975). A recent study conducted by Singh (2012) in Punjab state has also confirmed the prevalence of gender discrimination particularly on the choice of schooling. Result of gender is consistent with previous studies (Dreze and Kingdon 2001; Kingdon 1996; Harma 2010)

The variable of caste is observed to play significant role in determining school choice in India. It is observed that being scheduled caste and OBC children reduces the likelihood enrolment in private school compared to that of children belonging to general category. Similar results were also obtained in other researches. This finding of the present study is consistent with the existing literature (Kingdon 1996; Dreze and Kingdon 2001; Schagen and Shamsan 2007; Harma 2011). The available literature about the primary education scenario in rural Punjab, have highlighted that the government primary schools have been largely catering to the needs of SC, OBC and other weaker section students (Ghuman 2008).

Household size was found to be negatively related to the private school enrolment. Increase in the size of the household reduces the likelihood of private school enrolment. Large household size would fewer resources available per child. For families with fewer resources private school enrolment would be financially constrained choice and these families would prefer to send their children to public school. Another interesting factor observed was private school record of the family. Private schooling of other family member also increases the likelihood.

English as medium of instruction has positive and significant effect and is associated with increased likelihood of private school enrolment. Nearly every family in Punjab’s villages has relatives in the UK, Canada or Australia. Parents believe that only English medium schools can give their children the edge to
survive there (The Economic Times 2010). Similar results were also found in (Nambissan, 2003; De et al., 2002). The preference for English as medium of instruction is case of differential demand for education in general and of private schools in particular. Position of the child was found to be negatively associated with private school enrolment. This is consistent with the finding of Harma (2011).

The dependency ratio (measured as number of children age 15 or below to household size) is negatively associated with private school enrolment. Implying an increase in the dependency ratio is associated with reduced likelihood of private school enrolment. Occupation of father has positive influence on private school enrolment. Father being regular wage employ is associated with higher likelihood private school enrolment relative to that daily wage earning father.

**Figure 7: Predicted Probability of Private School Attendance by Income Group**

Source: Estimation Based on Field Level Data

It has been observed through logistic regression analysis that fee reduces the likelihood of private school enrolment. It suggests that private schools choice is subject of affordability. The above figure 7 highlights that how chances of private school attendance changes with increase in tuition fee level. It is observed from the figure that the chance of private school enrolment is very much responsive to level of tuition fee. It is observed that chance of enrolment in private school decreases with the increase in ratio of tuition fee household income. This is to be noted that even when the ratio is zero the chance of private school enrolment for poor is substantially low; 28 percent. Psacharopoulos and Woodhull (1985) highlight that even free education has opportunity costs for poor families, and that these families also tend to have more children, and
it is in the context of the families’ entire circumstances that affordability of schooling should be assessed. Even in case of free education parents are required to spend on books, uniform and in some cases on transportation. These expenses should have effect on affordability of private schooling. Therefore, to say that low fee private schools are demand driven may not be appropriate, rather one could argue that low fee private schools are substitutes and largely are the outcome of differentiated demand.

**Conclusion**

An attempt in this paper has been made to understand the growth pattern of private unaided schools at the lower secondary level and factors determining private school attendance at the household level. It has been found that proliferation of private sector is taking place at a greater pace not only at the elementary level but also at the secondary level. As we move up on the educational ladder, burden on the households increased. Analysis of NSS data highlights that access to secondary education is highly inequitable, across income groups, gender, social groups, geography, and states. The evidences from NSSO data suggest that the access to secondary education is still a daunting task in-front of the policy makers. With the increase of elementary graduates and expansion of private schooling, access seems to be elusive at lower secondary level particularly for children belonging to socially disadvantaged section of the society. Analysis of the field level data offered significant insights largely in conformity with the previous researches. This paper also contributes to the growing body of literature by presenting evidence on school choice in Indian context. School choice literature has found that selection of private school depends on household’s socioeconomic condition and recent works have emphasized on the importance of school quality.

The analysis in this paper leads to three principle conclusion, first, private schools are attended by children from relatively better off families; Second, children from poor families and lower caste background are less likely to be enrolled in private schools at lower secondary level; third, private school options should not be considered as an instrument of expanding access to school education.

There are certain policy implications of the analysis presented in this paper for RMSA. In the time when Government of India through its RMSA proposes to enhance access to secondary education with equity and equality, the pattern of expansion in some key states like Uttar Pradesh is likely to act as an obstacle. Despite the practical relevance of affordability in broadening access to secondary education, consequences of expansion in private unaided schools have surprisingly got little focus. Expansion of private unaided schools would simply imply of shift financial burden from state to households. The recent years have noted
significant increase in the household expenditure on secondary education (Table 1). The growth in household expenditure on secondary education is supportive of the view that private unaided schools are becoming more important than ever before.

One could argue that private unaided schools have offered ways to access quality secondary education in the context of dwindling state support and failing quality of government schools. Results presented in the study also confirm that even low income households are opting for private unaided schools. However, reasons of participation vary considerably across income levels and are believed to be influenced by derived demand. Therefore, one could argue that if reasons of participation vary then it may have far reaching consequences for the goal of Universalisation of secondary education.

The findings of this paper will be of interest to secondary education policy in India. It is highly likely that increasing cost of secondary education and private institutions in particular will put burden on low income households (Table 1). Given the unpredictability in the labour market and imperfections in the capital market there is greater need of state involvement in secondary education expansion. It is reasonable to suggest that if it is not the case then it may lead to a situation of constrained access to secondary education.

Therefore, an important area under RMSA would be enhancing the affordability of low income households. The structural shift in financing of secondary education has shifted the major burden of financing on students and family. Connection between family income and access to secondary education can explain only short term constraints. Problem of access to secondary education is largely affected by long term factors like prevailing inequalities in terms of family income and parental education. A combination of state subsidy through scholarship and access to private unaided schools would bring equality of opportunity. However, it would not be entirely fair since scholarships are given to student with merit and on certain conditions and access to secondary education is largely subject to affordability. Expanding secondary education through private unaided schools in some way would enhance equality in access, but in all likelihood it would not be as effective as government schools especially in the context of low income households. For, students belonging to poor income group in particular the financial needs are more important in accessing higher education. Therefore, to promote equity in access to secondary education a framework for target based subsidy and quality enhancement of government schools is needed under RMSA. Increasing reliance on private unaided schools would only meet part of demand for secondary education in segments like urban area, high and middle income group.
It is imperative to create ways to increase the public trust in government provision of secondary education by; first, schools in state sector should be equipped to meet the differentiated demand for schooling. For example, we observed that English as medium of instruction significantly improves the private school enrolment. Second, quality of government schools needs to be improved. This is important as we observe that a large fraction of children from poor families attend government schools. Improved quality of government schools can be avenues of levels playing field for poor.

Third, given the understanding the equity effect of private provision of secondary education is negative and system of accountability need to be established. This study has shown that private schools are largely attended by traditionally privileged groups of India. In other words being girl and belonging to lower caste reduces the likelihood of private school enrolment. Last but not the least, access to private school is a matter of affordability relative to the income of households. Therefore it is reasonable to argue that quality of school must be improved to help children from poor households to overcome their deprivation. This simply implies that children of low caste, first generation, landless, poor and girls at some point are likely to hit invisible barrier and which will prevent their upward mobility, if the standard of government schools are not improved. The idea of equality of opportunity will remain an elusive target if growth of low fee private schools are favoured and supported for promoting under privileged children’s access to education.

Fourth, currently private unaided schools constitute 36% of all schools at lower secondary level and in the absence of clear cut framework fee, private unaided schools are free to charge fee higher than that of government schools which is understandable. However there is a need to set upper cap on the fee level that private unaided schools may charge so that it does not create inequality in quality of education received by different sections of the society. This off-course needs to be accompanied by improvement in the quality of government schools. Moreover, the quality of government and government aided schools needs to be improved to lower the disadvantages by ensuring meaningful learning opportunities.

Fifth, the target of Universalisation of secondary education under RMSA needs to be dealt differently for the different states as well as along with different social and income group.

Though private schooling may provide a short-term solution to the educational needs of children in India today but in the longer term it is unlikely to be the best means of providing education for all children in ways that respect equity principles (Dixon 2012). Private providers will not contribute significantly in to achieving Millennium Development Goals. With the expansion of private...
schools, the beneficiaries are selective with respect to gender, location and income level. It is only the government that can help the poorest because private schools will not help those who cannot afford the fees.

Footnote

1. The proportion of children completing primary and upper primary education continues to rise, albeit slowly — from 73.7 per cent to 75 per cent between 2004–05 and 2010–11 (Linden 2012). The transition rate from grade 8 to grade 9 was 88% after adjusting the repeaters as per NSS 64th round data (Shankar 2010).

2. Overall in India as a whole, though initial enrolments rates in the first grade are generally high, about 30% of children fail to complete Grade V (primary), about 50% drop out before completing Grade VIII (upper primary), and 60% do not finish Grade X (lower secondary) (Lewin 2011).

3. The elementary education takes away half of the education budget i.e. 50% and a significant proportion is taken by higher education i.e. 33 % including university and technical education and only 14% is for secondary education.

4. India spends around 62% of its planned education budget on elementary education, secondary education receives only about 16% of this budget (2008/09, BE).

5. Calculated from NSS 64th round

References


Social Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in Relation to Human Rights and Legal Literacy: An Analytical Study

Ismail Thamarasseri & Dr. S. Sabu

ABSTRACT

Human by virtue of human being possess certain basic and inalienable rights which are commonly known as human rights. We call these rights by other names, also, like fundamental rights, basic rights, inherent rights, natural rights and birth rights etc. All the secondary school students should have favourable awareness about the human rights. They should have sufficient education on the matters related to law and justice. Legal Literacy is very important for the individual to live a better life in the society. These two aspects, Human Rights Awareness and Legal Literacy have direct relationship with Social Wellbeing of an individual. Social Wellbeing involves a person’s relationships with others and how that person communicates, interacts and socializes with other people. It can also relate to how people make friends and whether they have a sense of belonging. All these three variables are very much important when we consider the students at secondary level. This paper presents the Social Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in relation to Human Rights and Legal Literacy. There is wide criticism that many of the students at secondary schools are not having favourable awareness of human rights, many of them are not properly taught with Legal Literacy, and they are unable to maintain Social Wellbeing in their life situations. The present study is intended to identify the secondary school students’ Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing and to ascertain whether there is any relationship among these variables. The present
study also intended to find out the difference between boys and girls, secondary students from private and government secondary schools, students from rural and urban schools etc. on Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.

Key Words: Human rights, Legal literacy, Social Well being, Secondary School

Introduction

Education has continued to evolve, diversify and extend its reach and coverage since the dawn of human history. Every country develops its system of education to express and promote its unique socio-cultural identity and also to meet the challenges of the times. Education has an acculturating role. It refines sensitivities and perceptions that contribute to national cohesion, a scientific temper and independence of mind and spirit - thus furthering the goals of socialism, secularism and democracy enshrined in our Constitution.

The twentieth century witnessed two world wars along with massive violation of human rights. The formation of United Nations after World War II was based on the feeling of responsibility to stop the recurrence of such behaviour on the part of human kind. It dawned upon the leaders of various nations that human rights of all nationalities and communities have to be preserved. The result was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the subsequent Covenants. Even in the post-war era, it has been seen that human rights are still being violated everywhere. Most of the people are unaware of their rights and what can they do when their rights are denied. Translating the information and meanings of the legal system to learners and people with limited literacy skills requires that lawyers and others clearly understand the dual nature of legal literacy: the ability to read and familiarity with the legal context.

Social wellbeing is a state of affairs where the basic needs of the populace are met. This is a society where income levels are high enough to cover basic wants, where there is no poverty, where unemployment is insignificant, where there is easy access to social, medical, and educational services, and where everyone is treated with dignity and consideration. Many attempts have been made to quantify social well-being. In this context, human rights education, legal literacy and social wellbeing have gained currency and significance. In our endeavour to educate our children, we need to inculcate the values of Human Rights and Legal Literacy from the very beginning so that when they grow up they work towards peace and harmony in the world.

Need and Significance of the Study

Human Rights, Legal Literacy and social wellbeing are dynamic concepts that
will find expanded expression and constantly cover new areas as human society continues to evolve to higher levels of development. Education for these concepts is applicable at all levels of education. From the child’s early years itself, the human rights education, legal literacy and social well-being are necessary. Preschool and early primary education can highlight a sense of common humanity among children. The older primary school children are aware of social and political issues and they have a right to learn about values which have been universally proclaimed. But at the secondary school level, students are mature enough to appreciate more fully the significance of struggle for civil and political rights and for economic, social and cultural rights. Education can play a strong role to secure human rights and dignity of human being. Before imparting this kind of education to them, how far they are aware about human rights and legal literacy should be measured.

Education should help the children become better citizens to the nation. For experiencing social wellbeing they should have proper awareness on human rights and knowledge about legal aspects. Though the teachers of secondary school system work hard, the result is not satisfactory when we consider the wellbeing of the individual. There is wide criticism among the people who are in the field of education that the students at secondary level do not possess proper human rights awareness, they have no idea about the legal aspects related to a better living in their society and are unable to experience happiness and social wellbeing due to many reasons. There are many factors which directly or indirectly affect the social wellbeing. Social wellbeing of a secondary school student is related to the human rights awareness acquired from their life situations and through their education. Legal literacy of the students also has relation with their social wellbeing. Thus this is a dire need to understand the awareness of Secondary School Students regarding Human Rights and Legal Literacy on their social well-being.

Statement of the Problem

Secondary students’ social wellbeing is related to human rights awareness and legal literacy. If the secondary students of today get proper human rights awareness, if they are trained to make them legally literates, then only they can develop a proper social wellbeing, without which they will not be able to live a life with harmony and peace in the present society. It also empowers the scholastic achievement and academic growth of students. Hence, the problem of the present study has been stated as under, “Social Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in relation to Human Rights and Legal Literacy - An Analytical Study”.

Operational Definitions

1. *Awareness:* Awareness refers to the level of familiarization and acquaintance with any particular subject or ‘possessing knowledge of something’.

2. *Secondary School Students:* The students belonging to standard VIII, IX and X are considered as the secondary school students. In the present study standard X students has been taken as secondary school students.

3. *Human Rights:* Human rights are basic rights which many societies believe that all people should have. It can be generally defined as those rights which are inherent in our nature and without which we cannot live as human beings.

4. *Legal Literacy:* It is the possession of an awareness regarding the law. ‘Legal’ is used to describe things that relate to the law. ‘Literacy’ is the ability to read and write.

5. *Social Wellbeing:* It is a state of affairs when the basic needs of the populace are met. It is a state of being healthy, happy or prosperous.

Objectives of the Study

The investigator conducted the present study based on the following objectives.

1. To find out the relationship between Human rights awareness and social wellbeing of secondary school students.

2. To find out the relationship between Legal literacy and social wellbeing of secondary school students.

3. To find out the difference between Boys and Girls in Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.

4. To find out the difference between Rural and Urban students in Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.

5. To find out the difference between Government and Private Students in Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.

Methodology

*Sample and Sampling Procedure:* In this study, population included secondary schools students of government and private schools in Malappuram and Calicut Districts of Kerala. For the present study six hundred students were selected from various Secondary schools. The sample was selected by following the stratified random sampling method. The sample comprised boys, girls, rural, urban, government and private students.
Tools used

1. *Human Rights Awareness Questionnaire*: Human Rights Awareness Questionnaire was developed and standardized by the investigators. The tool was developed and standardized to measure human rights awareness of students at secondary level. A large number of items are prepared by the Investigator according to the aims and objectives of the study. The items are prepared to check the awareness of human rights related to Human Rights in General, Human Rights and the world, Right to Education in India, Right to Information Act and Human Rights and Children areas of secondary school students. A thorough comparison is made between the prepared items and corresponding items collected from various sources. Thus the final form of the items is prepared. There are 40 items and these items are included under two dimensions namely general rights and right to individuals. These 40 items are supplemented by a careful study of related literature and informal meetings with experienced teachers, head masters and teacher educators. Thus the items are finalized, listed and rearranged. The tool prepared was administered to a sample of 60 secondary school students for pilot study. There are 38 questions in the final tool which are presented under the different areas of Human rights awareness.

2. *Legal Literacy Scale*: Legal literacy scale was developed and standardized by the investigators. The tool was developed and standardized to measure legal literacy of students at secondary level. A large number of items are prepared by the Investigator according to the aims and objectives of the study. Items related to Constitution and Democracy, Legislative Power of Government, Executive Power of Government, Judiciary, consumer laws and Social Laws. The final form of the items is consists 40 items. This list is examined by experts for item-relevance and usefulness. This tool is administered to a try-out sample of 60 secondary school students. The responses are scored according to the key. As the tool is a three point scale, the responses can be made with ‘YES’, ‘NO’ and ‘UNKNOWN’ by the subjects. Each response which is marked with UNKNOWN have one score, NO have two score and YES will have three scores. High score indicates high legal literacy, low score indicates less legal literacy. For the purpose of determining the degree to which each item is effective in discriminating between high and low legal literacy, an item analysis of the data obtained from the above sample is undertaken. Finally 36 items are retained after testing their relevance and grammatical fitness, related to different areas of legal literacy.
3. **Social Wellbeing Inventory**: A large number of items were prepared by the Investigators according to the aims and objectives of the study. The items are prepared to check the social wellbeing related to the areas like dealing with wellness, personnel wellbeing, social wellbeing, day to day life situations and life skills of secondary school students. The final form of the Pilot Social Wellbeing Inventory consists 40 items. The tool prepared was administered to a sample of 60 secondary school students for pilot study. For the purpose of determining the degree to which each item is effective in discriminating between high and low social wellbeing, an item analysis of the data obtained from the above sample is undertaken. Arithmetic means and standard deviations for all the 40 items of the upper-lower halves were calculated. There are 37 items retained after item analysis for the final study in social wellbeing inventory.

**Major Findings of the Study**

Majority of the secondary school students possess an average level of Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing. Human Rights Awareness and Social Wellbeing of secondary school students is significantly correlated. There exists a significant positive relationship between Legal Literacy and social wellbeing of students at secondary level.

**Gender wise Comparison**

The table 1 mentioned below shows the gender wise comparison between Secondary School Boys and Girls with regard to their Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>t'-value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Human Rights</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20.706</td>
<td>5.232</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20.406</td>
<td>5.470</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td>N.S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Literacy</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>74.18</td>
<td>15.028</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>68.476</td>
<td>16.009</td>
<td>4.498</td>
<td>0.01 level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social wellbeing</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>118.486</td>
<td>37.146</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>103.623</td>
<td>39.212</td>
<td>4.766</td>
<td>N.S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Gender and Human Rights Awareness**: Boys and girls do differ significantly with regard to general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Boys possess high Human rights awareness in general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Boys and girls do differ significantly with regard to right to individual dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Girls possess high Human Rights Awareness in right to individual
dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Boy and girl students do not differ significantly with regard to overall Human Rights Awareness.

2. **Gender and Legal Literacy:** There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to constitution and democracy dimension of Legal Literacy. Boys possess high Legal Literacy with regard to constitution and democracy dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to powers of government dimension of Legal Literacy. Boys possess high Legal Literacy with regard to powers of government dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to consumer and social laws dimension of Legal Literacy. Boys possess high Legal Literacy with regard to consumer and social laws dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to overall Legal Literacy. Boys possess high Legal Literacy with regard to overall Legal Literacy.

3. **Gender and Social Wellbeing:** There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to personal wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. Boys possess high Social wellbeing with regard to personal wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to emotional wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. Boys possess high Social wellbeing with regard to emotional wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to social wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. Boys possess high Social wellbeing with regard to social wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is a significant difference between boy and girl students with regard to overall Social Wellbeing. Boys possess high Social wellbeing with regard to overall Social Wellbeing.

**Rural/Urban Comparison**

The table 2 mentioned below shows the locality wise comparison of secondary school students with regard to their Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.
Table 2: Comparison between Secondary School Rural and Urban Students with regard to their Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Rural students</th>
<th>Urban students</th>
<th>‘t’-value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights awareness</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20.823</td>
<td>5.604</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Literacy</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>70.366</td>
<td>16.140</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social wellbeing</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>108.94</td>
<td>40.451</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Locality and Human Rights Awareness:** Rural and urban students do not differ significantly with regard to general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Locality has nothing to do with general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to right to individual dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Rural and urban students do not differ significantly with regard to overall Human Rights Awareness.

2. **Locality and Legal Literacy:** There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to constitution and democracy dimension of Legal Literacy. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to powers of government dimension of Legal Literacy. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to consumer and social laws dimension of Legal Literacy. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to overall Legal Literacy.

3. **Locality and Social Wellbeing:** There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to personal wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to emotional wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is a significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to Social Wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. Urban students possess high Social Wellbeing with regard to Social Wellbeing dimension of Social Wellbeing. There is no significant difference between rural and urban students with regard to overall Social Wellbeing.

**Institution wise Comparison**

The table 3 mentioned below shows the institution wise comparison of secondary school students with regard to their Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing.
Table 3: Comparison between Government and Private Secondary School Students with Regard to their Human Rights Awareness, Legal Literacy and Social Wellbeing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Rights Awareness</th>
<th>Government students</th>
<th>Private students</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights awareness</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20.626</td>
<td>5.295</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Literacy</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>73.816</td>
<td>15.226</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social wellbeing</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>117.856</td>
<td>37.450</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Type of institution and Human Rights Awareness**: Government and private students do not differ significantly with regard to general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Type of institution has nothing to do with general rights dimension of Human Rights Awareness. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to right to individual dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Private students possess high level of awareness with regard to right to individual dimension of Human Rights Awareness. Government and private students do not differ significantly with regard to overall Human Rights Awareness.

2. **Type of institution and Legal Literacy**: There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to constitution and democracy dimension of Legal Literacy. Government students have high legal literacy in constitution and democracy dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to powers of government dimension of Legal Literacy. Government school students have high legal literacy in powers of government dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to consumer and social laws dimension of Legal Literacy. Government students have a high legal literacy in consumer and social laws dimension of Legal Literacy. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to overall Legal Literacy. Government school students possess a high level of overall legal literacy.

3. **Type of the School and Social Wellbeing**: There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to personal wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. Government students possess high social wellbeing in personal wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to emotional wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. Government school students possess a high level of social wellbeing in the emotional wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. There is a
significant difference between government and private students with regard to social wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. Government students possess high Social wellbeing with regard to social wellbeing dimension of Social wellbeing. There is a significant difference between government and private students with regard to overall Social wellbeing. Government students possess high Social wellbeing with regard to overall Social wellbeing.

Educational Implications
Each and every educational research will be focusing on the development of educational status of the country. In the same way the present study has also some educational implications for the development of the teaching-learning process. The present study is an eye opener to the all concerned in the secondary education system. The positive correlation between Human rights awareness and Social Wellbeing confirms that if the Secondary students possess high human rights awareness, they can achieve good social wellbeing. The positive correlation between the legal literacy and social wellbeing also remind us about the need of legal literacy among secondary school students. It is necessary to help the Secondary School students to improve their human rights awareness and legal literacy so that they can improve their Social Wellbeing. The curriculum planners, educationists, administrators and academicians should plan programmes and courses to improve the awareness of human rights and legal literacy among secondary school students.

References
ABSTRACT

In the backdrop of fragmented family structure and no-time-for-kids attitude among the increasing number of working parents and indifferent socio-emotional attitude of outside society at large, what to teach and how to teach in order to develop moral character of children and adolescents is gaining more importance and urgency in school and teacher education programmes. In this context, the school education system has to play a major role in shaping the value system of students. The author, through this review article, attempts to address one very important issue in moral education which actually deals with the description and discussion of various teaching strategies employed in developing the moral character of students at school level. The discussion entails the strengths and weaknesses of each method of imparting character education to school students. Needless to say that, this piece of writing will go a long way in helping school teachers to decide which teaching plan or strategy is best suited to develop moral values and attitudes in their students.

Introduction

The selection of the system and methods of moral teaching reflects the age of children concerned and the kind of moral behaviour to be developed. Keeping this line of thinking in mind, the author elaborates on the following methods of teaching morality.

1. Modeling: Teachers as role models of morally upright behaviour

Imitation is a matter of copying behavioral patterns. Regardless of age, one
needs concrete, detailed moral action. Imitation can be used — spontaneously or selectively — with regard to moral examples, proposals, suggestions or recommendations of behavior to be followed. This combination of imitation is applied thanks to its persuasive ability and physical attraction; this combination facilitates the generalization of a special case of behavior to be followed. *Imitation supposes “models” of behavior peculiar to various ages. For example, for the pre-school child imitation is mainly emotional and less cognitive, while for the teenager imitation is “selective” and “processed”. That is why, at school, imitation is never neutral, but always supposes a duality of a reaction and an attitude expressing emotion and reason, development and integrity.*

Undoubtedly, the idea of the human “model” is not new in education and ethics; what is really new is the connection between the “model” and its “adoption”. There are generally two forms of the model of man or of behavior, ideal and concrete, both of them being a source of knowledge and moral influence. At the same time, there are two problems related to the ideal: the problem of the moral model for the educator which is necessary for the imitation method, and the problem of choosing or building a behavioral model by the moral subject. Each of these problems have various aspects from the point of view of the moral language: one related to the formulation of the model in terms of imperative moral prescriptions or in preferential and interrogative terms related to the identification of the causes and intentions of behavior, and another concerning the assimilation of the model by the moral subject (*Marin Calin*).

According to Gough (1998), the ultimate goal of character development occurs when each person reaches the point where doing “good” becomes automatic or habitual. Like thoroughly learned sports skills morally appropriate actions also become natural and habitual with practice. Students need to imitate teachers who are effortlessly honest, trusting, fair, respectful, and responsible in their actions.

According to Solomon (1997), “It is clear that recent research on character development in physical education demonstrated that the organized physical activity context is ripe for positive growth. Furthermore, evidence indicates that unless character development is directly addressed, the moral maturation process will not likely occur. Therefore, the physical educator has the responsibility and opportunity to create situations that will enhance the character development of children in their care.” (p. 41)

Teachers with integrity are excellent models for their students to live a value-based life regardless of their religious, ethnic, cultural or racial backgrounds. Integrity means to follow a consistent pattern of good behaviour even when no one is looking to scrutinize ones intentions or actions. Teachers who enjoy the sense of integrity are usually the practical examples of honesty, trust,
responsibility, fairness and respect for their students. For example, a physical education teacher can demonstrate the virtues of fair play, sportsmanship, care and kindness, respect and equal opportunity to his/her students. Generally and mutually agreed upon values like honesty, trust, fairness, responsibility and respect can be developed in students by teachers through many ways, some of which are discussed as under;

**Honesty** serves as a prerequisite for developing other values like trust, fairness, responsibility and respect. Honest teachers are accountable towards their work in terms of their punctuality, obligations, grading and evaluation of students, observing the rules and regulations of institution, keeping confidentiality of students’ records and so on. As a role model for students, teachers consistently accept the moral obligation to be honest, regardless of the situation. Honesty also includes not lying, stealing or cheating as teachers fulfill their professional responsibilities.

**Trust.** An honest person can be trusted. Trust is the belief in others that develops whenever people fulfill their promises and commitments. When a teacher establishes and upholds class expectations—such as providing and following guidelines for written assignments and grading—students learn that they can trust their teacher. Trust replaces apprehension or fear with confidence and openness. When students trust their teachers, an inevitable mistake is transformed from being a fear of failure into an opportunity to learn. Trust is most effectively taught when it is lived. When students trust their teachers, they do not worry about being embarrassed during class, since they know that a misbehavior or mistake will be addressed individually and privately.

**Fairness.** Fairness is closely linked with trust as students quickly learn whether or not teachers discriminate against them or treat them fairly. Fairness requires that all students have the same opportunity to meet the standards on a written or skill test and receive an appropriate grade. Teachers who are fair believe in each student’s ability to learn, and they encourage each person to achieve at the highest possible level. Teachers are fair when they give the highest and lowest achieving students the same punishment for violating a classroom policy.

**Respect.** This process begins with teachers demonstrating respect for students, regardless of their ethnicity, race, gender, socioeconomic status or individual characteristics or abilities. Teachers must be unbiased in how they respond to the various levels of skill and ability displayed by their students. Noddings (1992) advocated that moral education is based on teachers showing students that they care for them as unique individuals. Teacher who cares and shows respect for their students by being sensitive to and they considerate of their feelings. Teachers who model respect will always appreciate each individual
student, even when the behaviours of some may be less than worthy of this respect.

**Responsibility.** Teachers demonstrate responsibility by being morally accountable for their actions and fulfilling their duties. When teachers create and sustain a positive learning environment and focus on providing educational services to students and society, they are acting responsibly. Teachers act responsibly by helping to optimally develop the psychomotor, cognitive and affective abilities of their students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Factors Affecting Learning Based on Modeling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developmental Status</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model Prestige and Competence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vicarious Consequences</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome Expectations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal Setting</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-efficacy</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2: **Values Clarification Model:** The values clarification model was propounded by Louis E. Raths (2005). The decision-making model developed along two different lines. One approach, called “Values Clarification,” emphasized feelings, personal growth, and a totally nonjudgmental attitude; the other, known as the “moral reasoning” approach, emphasized a “critical thinking” or cognitive approach to decision making. Although both shared many assumptions and methods, it is important to understand the differences. Values Clarification got its start in 1966 with the publication of *Values and Teaching* by Louis Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon — all professors of education. What the authors offered was not a way to teach values but a way for students to
“clarify” their own values. The authors took pains to distance themselves from character education and traditional methods of teaching values. In fact, Simon once expressed a wish that parents would stop “fostering the immorality of morality.” It was Simon, also, who took the lead in popularizing the new method. His *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students* was published in 1972, and quickly became a best-seller among teachers. According to the promotional blurb on the book’s back cover, Values Clarification makes students “aware of *their own* feelings, *their own* ideas, *their own* beliefs ... *their own* value systems.”

But Values Clarification was not exactly a new idea. In reality, it was an outgrowth of human potential psychology. The developers of Values Clarification had simply taken Carl Rogers’s nondirective, nonjudgmental therapy technique and applied it to moral education. Indeed, the authors of *Values and Teaching* were so committed to therapeutic nonjudgmental that they felt obliged to note that “it is entirely possible that children will choose not to develop values. It is the teacher’s responsibility to support this choice also.”

True to its origins in the human potential movement, Values Clarification also puts a heavy emphasis on feelings—so much so that it virtually equates values with feelings. That this is the case is indicated in the very first strategy in the *Values Clarification* handbook. It is titled “Twenty Things You Love to Do.” This exercise is not a prelude to deeper thought ahead. Rather, it sets the tone for the whole book. A value is essentially what you like or love to do. It is not what you ought-to but a want-to. In his book *Educating for Character*, Professor Thomas Lickona relates the story of an eighth-grade teacher who used this strategy with a low-achieving class only to find that the four most popular activities were “sex, drugs, drinking, and skipping school.” The teacher was hamstrung. The Values Clarification framework gave her no way of persuading them otherwise. Her students had clarified their values, and they were able to justify their choices with answers they found satisfactory (“Everyone drinks and smokes dope”; “Sex is the best part of life”).

Values Clarification has suffered some setbacks in the last decade. The anti-intellectual bias is hard to ignore; so is the research, which shows Values Clarification to be ineffectual at best and potentially harmful. Moreover, Values Clarification has come under attack from parents’ groups in dozens of states.

3. Moral Reasoning

The moral reasoning approach was proposed by Lawrence Kohlberg through his stage theory of Moral Reasoning (1960s) - the other strand within the decision-making model — seemed to offer a good alternative to Values Clarification. It was the brainchild of Harvard psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg, a man who
was, in many ways, the opposite of Sidney Simon. Whereas Simon was a laid-back populariser with a mind singularly tuned to the changing moods of the sixties, Kohlberg was a serious scholar whose ideas were buttressed by philosophical arguments, and whose research was highly regarded. Although Kohlberg, like Simon, rejected character education (he called it the “bag of virtues” approach), he had something other than feelings to offer in its place. Kohlberg wanted to turn children into moral thinkers, to teach them a valid process of moral reasoning. Children would still make their own decisions, but their decisions would be based on reason.

How could students be brought to higher levels of moral reasoning? Kohlberg felt that the Socratic dialogue- the method used by Socrates and Plato- was ideal. The Socratic dialogue provided a way of drawing out ideas without imposing values or moralizing. Moreover, the dialogue seemed to create an atmosphere of equality between student and teacher-a goal that at the time seemed highly desirable.

4. Four Component Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ETHICAL SENSITIVITY</th>
<th>ETHICAL JUDGMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Understand Emotional Expression</td>
<td>• Understanding Ethical Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Take the Perspectives of Others</td>
<td>• Using Codes and Identifying Judgment Criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Connecting to Others</td>
<td>• Reasoning Critically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Responding to Diversity</td>
<td>• Reasoning Ethically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Controlling Social Bias</td>
<td>• Understand Consequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interpreting Situations</td>
<td>• Reflect on the Process and Outcome of Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communicating Effectively</td>
<td>• Coping and Resiliency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ETHICAL FOCUS (MOTIVATION)</th>
<th>ETHICAL ACTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Respecting Others</td>
<td>• Resolving Conflicts and Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Develop Conscience</td>
<td>• Assert Respectfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Act Reasonably</td>
<td>• Taking Initiative as a Leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Be Community Member</td>
<td>• Implementing Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Finding Life Purpose</td>
<td>• Cultivate Courage for Social Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Valuing Traditions and Institutions</td>
<td>• Persevering for Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Developing Ethical Identity and Integrity</td>
<td>• Work Hard for Moral Ends</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Four Component Model propounded by Narvaez (2006) describes the psychological skills or processes that a person uses in order to complete a moral
behavior: ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment, ethical focus, and ethical action. Ethical sensitivity refers to perceiving the moral issue cognitively and emotionally, identifying courses of action, affected parties and reactions. Ethical judgment entails applying a code of ethics to make a decision about the most moral choice. Ethical focus involves prioritizing the moral choice, and ethical action is the ability and strength to carry through on the ethical choice. The sub-components of *Four Component Model* are tabulated as under:

**Conclusion**

Increasing moral degradation of the society at large is putting great onus on the schools in particular to take charge of the development of moral character of students very seriously. The million dollar question in this context is “how to teach moral values to school students who belong to various age groups, interests and socio-economic backgrounds. Various approaches and teaching strategies have been discussed above in terms of their merits and demerits in the light of how effective each method is in achieving the goal of moral development of school students.

**References**


Impact of Parenthood on the Mental Health of Secondary School Students: A Comparative Study of Orphan and Non Orphan Students of Kashmir Valley

Nasir Mohammad Bhat

ABSTRACT

The death of a parent permeates into all aspects of a child’s life. He experiences a decline in health, nutrition, psychological well-being and educational performance (UNAIDS/UNICEF/USAID, 2004; UNICEF, 2003). Research in this area is important because the death of a parent is a risk factor for the development of psychosocial issues in children (Bauman & Germann, 2005). In fact, children who experience the death of a parent(s) are at twice the risk of suffering from a psychiatric disorder than children who have two live parents (Rutter, 1966). As is true for most of the Indian states, there is a general lack of mental health research in Kashmir (Hussain, 2007). Keeping these facts in view the investigator felt the need for carrying out the study of mental health status among orphan secondary school students in comparison with non orphan secondary school students of Kashmir valley. The sample of the present study consists of 210 secondary school students (131 Orphan) and (79 Non orphan) taken from different schools and orphanages. The age of the sample group ranges from 13 to 17 years with mean age of 15 years. Purposive sampling technique was used for research purpose. For measurement of mental health among orphan and non orphan adolescents, mental health scale developed by Alpana Sen Gupta and Arun Kumar singh (1983) was used. For studying the difference between the groups t-test was used. For assessing levels mental health among sample group quartiles were used. Result findings suggest significant differences
in mental health status between the two groups. Orphans were found at the lower side of mental health status both facet wise and overall mental health status. Orphans scored comparatively lower numbers on Emotional stability, Adjustment, Self concept, Intelligence, Security and Autonomy.

**Key words:** Orphans, Non Orphans, Parenthood, Mental Health, Emotional stability, Adjustment, Self Concept, Intelligence, Security and Autonomy.

**Introduction**

The current research suggests that about 50% of all life time mental disorders begin before the age of 14 years. Worldwide prevalence rates for child and adolescent mental disorders are around 10-20%, with similar types of disorders seen across cultures (Kessler, 2005). A survey of 1,535 primary school children drawn from schools in Bangalore city found that 18% and 15% suffered from psychological disturbance and learning disability, respectively (Shenoy, Kapur, & Kaliaperumal, 1998). Symptoms of depression can be seen in 10-15% of children and adolescents (United States Department of Health and Human Services, 1999). Females in the United States are almost twice as likely to be depressed as males (Brent & Birmaher, 2002; Reus, 2000). Orphan hood could lead to an increase in depression and poor mental health in children though several means. A qualitative study performed in Cape Town, South Africa identified risk factors for poor mental health among orphan adolescents included the type of relationship with the new caregiver and his family, movement from home and potential separation from siblings, poverty, an inability to attend school, and related stigma (Cluver & Gardner, 2007). Just living under stress, as everyone in Kashmir do, is enough to cause mental disorders among adolescents (Hamidullah, 2007). Suicide rates are rising, primarily among teenagers (Marghoob, 2006).

Current research suggests that orphan hood has a negative impact on a child’s mental health (Wild, 2001). Several studies investigating emotional problems in orphans reported that orphans are more likely to suffer from poor mental health, including post-traumatic stress, depression, and anxiety than non-orphans (Nambi, 1997). A study investigating the psychological health of orphans found that they were at a heightened risk for suffering from anxiety, depression, and anger (Atwine et al., 2005). Similarly, a study in Uganda reported that orphans felt sad and hopeless during parental illness (Sengendo & Nambi, 1997). Orphans also described being both angry and depressed concerning their subsequent adoption (Sengendo & Nambi, 1997). Research also indicates that orphans are more likely to suffer from post-traumatic stress, suicidal thoughts,
and behavioural or conduct problems than nonorphans (Marghoob et al., 2006; Cluver et al., 2007; Cluver & Gardner, 2006). Research in African countries & United States has found orphaned children to be more likely to suffer from internalizing problems such as depression and anxiety (McGregor et al. 2002; Pivnick & Villegas, 2000; Forehand et al., 1998; Forehand et al., 1997). Orphans showed significantly higher scores for feelings of hopelessness, distress, internalizing of mental problems and suicidal ideation (Atwine et al. 2005, Chatterji et al. 2005, Frances Gardner et al., 2007, V Makame et al. 2001, Bhargava et al. 2005).

About half of all life time mental disorders begin before the onset of adolescence. Worldwide prevalence rates for child and adolescent mental disorders are around 10-20%, with similar types of disorders seen across cultures (Kessler, 2005). Adolescents have a high rate of self-harm, and suicide is a leading cause of death in young people. A per the reports of W.H.O (2005) suicide accounted for a quarter of deaths in boys and between half and three-quarters of deaths in girls aged 10-19 years. Poor mental health is strongly related to other health and development concerns in young people notably lower educational achievements, substance abuse, violence, and poor reproductive and sexual health. The suffering, functional impairment, exposure to stigma and discrimination, and enhanced risk of premature death that is associated with mental disorders in young people has obvious public-health significance. It is obvious that ‘no health is possible without mental health’ and that mental health issues form an integral part of adolescent development. The effectiveness of some interventions (including primitive and preventive interventions) for mental disorders in this age-group has been established, although more research is urgently needed to improve the range of affordable and feasible interventions. Despite these findings, the gap in mental-health services for children and adolescents with mental disorders is evident in virtually all countries.

Many mental health professionals are beginning to, or already understand, the importance of competency in religious diversity and spirituality. The American Psychological Association explicitly states that religion must be respected. Education in spiritual and religious matters is also required by the American Psychiatric Association. The research shows significantly higher rates of mental health complaints among older adolescents, in particular girls, whereas the rates are almost unchanged among younger boys and girls. (Shazia et al. 1998, Khan et al. 1998, & Hagquist C. 2006). Literature suggests that orphaned children may be abused and required to work more than their new caregiver’s biological children (Foster et al., 1997). The various studies that highlight Significant predictors (indicators) of depression and lower mental health included socioeconomic status, adverse living conditions like poor residential setup, rigid
Psychosocial Scenario of Orphan Adolescents in Kashmir

The Kashmir conflict, which killed near one lakh people since 1989, has sired a generation of children lost to hate and fear. They grow up in the no man’s land between politics and war. These children and adolescents are often left to care for themselves or be raised by elderly grandparents or social organizations. There are about 20 orphanages in the Valley, with limited seats and even limited facilities, mostly run from rented, ramshackle buildings by local and a few non local NGOs. Margoob et al (2006) conducted a study to examine the opinion of orphanages as a breeding ground for psychopathology. An orphanage for girls in Srinagar was surveyed by these psychiatrists, and using DSM IV guidelines screened children were evaluated for psychopathology. Children were in the age group of 5-12 yrs. They revealed PTSD as the commonest psychiatric disorders (40.62%), easily attributable to the prevailing mass trauma state of almost two decades. Next commonest diagnoses were MDD (25%) and conversion disorder (12.5%) Rather et al. (2006), conducted a study on four major orphanages located in Srinagar city, to assess the existing differences in available facilities and their impact on the psychological adjustment of these children. The UCLA loneliness scale was used to assess levels of loneliness, an indicator of psychological distress, among the resident children. High scores were associated with adverse living conditions, like poor residential setup, rigid timetables, poor recreation facilities, poor nutrition and lack of modern educational facilities. These facts could prove seminal in planning for better rehabilitation modules for orphans, especially in the wake of their exponential increase in the chronic conflict and disaster affected regions.

Due to the inadequacy of the support system, the most crucial problems the children faced after the death of their father included economic hardships (48.33%), psychological setback (22%), denial of love and affection (13.66%), and apathy by relatives and friends (08.66%), (Dabla, 2006). His (Dabla’s) efforts showed that 86 of the 300 orphans he surveyed received financial help from relatives, 67 from government organizations, 36 from NGOs, and 24 from other sources like neighbours and well-wishers. But the rest, the single largest group of 87 orphans received no help at all. And consequently, as Dr. Dabla notes, most of them began to work in the carpet, handicrafts and agriculture sectors, which together employees at the very least 71,0009 child labourers. Further, the study says the assistance from the government took a long time in reaching; and though it was “more regular and durable”, it was inadequate: “75 per cent of orphans showed dissatisfaction in this regard. The former Kashmir Divisional
Commissioner Khurshid Ganai (2007) estimates that the government would need around Rs 360 million per month if it were to provide an adequate financial relief - Rs 1,500 per family to the orphans, which it doesn’t have.

A survey conducted by Department of Education in Kashmir University (KU, 2009) revealed that orphans between age group of 0-6 and 6-14 live in a state of depression and dreariness. The survey further maintained that 2.5 lakh orphans in the age group of 5-14 years live in deplorable conditions. Report prepared by Department of Sociology in Kashmir University (KU, 2005) maintains that 57 percent of orphans live under contemptible conditions working as handicraft workers, 7 percent work as domestic slaves, 8 percent work as cleaners in automobiles, 9 percent work as Salesmen and 4 percent as hotel bearers in an unresponsive atmosphere and get meagre wages. National Crime Records Bureau (2001) reported 57 cases of crime against children in the state, including 4 murder cases, 4 rape cases, and 48 kidnapping cases, among others, during 2005. It stated that children were the disproportionate victims of the armed conflict. A report prepared by an NGO put the figure of orphans around 40,000 children. A study conducted by the Institute of Jammu and Kashmir Affairs stated that 57.3 percent of children have become fearful, 55.3 percent suffer from depression and 54.25 percent cannot sleep properly in Kashmir region. While in Jammu region, the corresponding figures were 51.17 percent, 25.98 percent and 41.17 percent respectively. In an independent unpublished study conducted by Sajad Ahmad (2007), a Freelance Researcher in association with Department of Social Work, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh and Awaan Society (J&K), it was revealed that the institutional rehabilitation of orphans fails to bring the desired results. Based on the random sampling of the orphans who passed out from different orphanages, the study followed a sample of orphanage pass outs from various orphanages, chosen randomly and revealed that 90% of the them fail to clear 12th class examination and 3% of the representatives complete graduation 3% of them are in government services and 90% of the those who are in government services are in Police Services.

Need of the Study

The war, the fear, the death and destruction, have taken a heavy toll on the mental health of the people of Kashmir valley. In 1990, about 1700 men and women sought help in Srinagar at the psychiatric diseases hospital, now the number seeking help has increased to more than 60000, according to hospital records (Marghoob, 2006). Suicide rates are rising, primarily among teenagers. The present socio political scenario is producing a generation of orphaned children and adolescents in Kashmir. These children and adolescents are often left to care for themselves or be raised by elderly grandparents or social organizations.
According to a UNICEF report, more than one lakh children less than 18 years of age have been orphaned in the two-decade-long struggle in Kashmir valley. The death of a parent permeates into all aspects of a child’s life. He experiences a decline in health, nutrition, and psychological well-being (UNAIDS/UNICEF/USAID, 2004; UNICEF, 2003). In addition to the need in research focusing on orphan health and nutrition, there is also a growing interest in the psychosocial effects of orphan hood on children living in Kashmir (Prof. Dabla, 2007). Research in this area is important because the death of a parent is a risk factor for the development of psychosocial issues in children (Bauman & Germann, 2005). In fact, children who experience the death of a parent(s) are at twice the risk of suffering from a psychiatric disorder than children who have two live parents (Rutter, 1966). Bauman & Germann (2005) report that there is lack of research investigating the consequences of being a double orphan and it is highly possible that double orphans may suffer from a high risk of experiencing a decline in mental health. As is true for most of the Indian states, there is a general lack of mental health research in Kashmir (Hussain, 2007). Keeping these facts in view the investigators felt the need for carrying out the study of mental health status among orphan secondary school students in comparison with non orphan secondary school students of Kashmir valley of Jammu and Kashmir state. Hence, the study entitled “Impact of Parenthood on the Mental Health of Secondary School Students: A Comparative Study of Orphan and Non Orphan students of Kashmir Valley” was formulated.

Objectives of the Study
1. To study the mental health status among secondary school orphans and non orphans students.
2. To compare mental health status between secondary school orphans and non orphans students.
3. To compare the mental health of secondary school students (orphans and non orphans) with respect to their various socio-demographic variables.

Hypotheses
On the basis of the objectives framed above, the following null hypotheses have been formulated:
1. $H_{01}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between orphan and non orphan secondary school students.
2. $H_{02}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between male orphans and male non orphan secondary school students.
3. $H_{03}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between female orphans and female non orphan secondary school students.

4. $H_{04}$: There is no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health (both facet-wise and overall) between male non orphans and female non orphan secondary school students.

5. $H_{05}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between male and female orphan secondary school students.

6. $H_{06}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between rural orphans and urban orphan secondary school students.

7. $H_{07}$: There will be no significant difference in mean scores of Mental Health between rural Non orphan and urban Non orphan secondary school students.

**Methodology**

**Sample**

Sample: The sample of the present study consists of 210 secondary school students (131 Orphan) and (79 Non orphan) taken from different schools and orphanages. The age of the sample group ranges from 13 to 17 years with mean age of 15 years. Purposive sampling technique was used for research purpose. The detailed description of the group is given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tools used**

To accomplish the objectives of present study, the following tools were used. For measurement of mental health among orphan and non orphan adolescents, mental health scale developed by Alpana Sen Gupta and Arun Kumar Singh (1983) was used. The scale consists of 130 statements distributed among six areas i.e., emotional stability, overall-adjustment, Security, Insecurity, Self-concepts, Autonomy and Intelligence.

**Procedure**

The subjects were contacted personally in their schools and orphanages. They were given directions, how to give the response on the scales. It was assured to the respondent that these responses will be kept confidential and will be
Impact of Parenthood on the Mental Health of Secondary School Students

used only for research purposes. After motivating the respondents the questionnaires were distributed and necessary help was provided by the researchers where ever they needed.

Statistical analysis

For studying the difference between the groups t-test was used. For assessing levels mental health among sample group quartiles were used. In order to assess the mental health status levels of sample group, the subjects were divided into three levels (Low, Average and High) on the basis of obtained Quartile scores Q1 and Q3 as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Mental Health Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Emotional Stability</th>
<th>Overall Adjustment</th>
<th>Security/Insecurity</th>
<th>Self Concept</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Intelligence</th>
<th>Over all Mental Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>51.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>97.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>73.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>83.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Comparison of Mental Health Status Levels among Orphan and Non Orphan Secondary school students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels→ Mental Health</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>Non Orphan</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%age</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.33%</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39.33%</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.66%</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.33%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>30.66%</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mental Health</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table reveals that 34% of adolescent orphans show low level, 48.66% average & 17.33% high level of emotional stability. In comparison 48% of non orphans show low level, 36% average & 16% of high level of emotional stability. The table further reveals that 31.3% of adolescent orphans show low level, 48.66% average and 17.33% high level of overall adjustment. While as 25.34% of non orphans show low level, 59.34% average and 15.34% high level of overall adjustment. The table also reveals that 39.33% of adolescent orphans show low level, 53.33% average and 7.33% high level of security/insecurity. While as 59.34% of non orphans show low level, and 40.66% high level of security/insecurity.

The table further reveals that 26.66% of adolescent orphans show low level, 54.66% average and 18.68% high level of self concept. While as 32% of non orphans show low level, 49.34% average and 18.67% high level of self concept. The table also reveals that 17.39% of adolescent orphans show low level, 52% average and 30.67% high level of autonomy. While as 31.34% of non orphans show low level, 48% average and 20.67% high level of autonomy. The table further reveals that 30.66% of adolescent orphans show low level, 46.66% average and 22.68% high level of intelligence. While as 57.34% of non orphans show low level, 18% average and 24.67% high level of intelligence. The table also reveals that 28% of adolescent orphans show low level, 44% average and 24% high level of overall mental health. While as 32% of non orphans show low level, 44% average and 24% high level of overall mental health.

Table 3: Comparison of Mean Scores of Mental Health (Facet Wise and Overall) Between Orphan and Non Orphan Secondary School Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7.587</td>
<td>2.109</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>0.631NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orpan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>7.733</td>
<td>1.909</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>25.213</td>
<td>3.653</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>0.530NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orpan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>25.473</td>
<td>4.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>9.693</td>
<td>1.505</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>4.667**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orpan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>10.560</td>
<td>1.705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>8.707</td>
<td>2.172</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>2.871**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orpan</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>9.427</td>
<td>2.171</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows that the orphan and non orphan adolescents do not differ significantly in Emotional stability, Overall adjustment and Autonomy facets of mental health as their t-values (t=0.631, 0.530 and 1.940 respectively) were found insignificant even at p=0.05 level. The orphan and non orphan adolescents showed significant difference on Security/Insecurity, Self concept and Intelligence (factors of mental health) as their obtained t-values (t=4.667, 2.871 and 3.311 respectively) are highly significant beyond p=0.01 level. The Overall mental health of non orphan group was found better than orphan group as the mean difference is highly significant (t= 3.997) beyond 0.01 level of significance.

Thus our null hypotheses $H_0$ stands rejected.

Table 4: Comparison of Mean Scores of Depression and Mental Health between Male Orphan and Male Non Orphan Adolescents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depression &amp; M.H variables</th>
<th>Male Orphan/Male Non orphan</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.499NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>24.81</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1.742NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.77</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>4.747**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>2.318**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>9.61</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1.408NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.05</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.021**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mental health</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>74.92</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>3.625**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>78.61</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ns= Insignificant **.P ≤ 0.01 Level of significance, *.P ≤ 0.05 Level of significance
The above statistical variance table (4.17) presents an overview of the t-values of the mental health dimensions with respect to the state of orphan hood and non orphan hood of the male subjects. As depicted by the table, the t-values of security/insecurity (t=4.747), self-concept (t=2.318), intelligence (t=3.021) and Overall mental health (t=3.625) are significant even at 0.01 significant level, shows that security/insecurity, intelligence and Overall mental health between orphans and non orphan male adolescents differ significantly. However, the two groups do not differ significantly in Emotional stability (t=0.499), Overall adjustment (t=1.742) and Autonomy (t=1.408), as their t-values are insignificant at 0.05 level.

Thus our null hypotheses H02 stands rejected.

**Table 5: Comparison of Mean Scores of Depression and Mental Health between Female Orphan and Female Non Orphan Adolescents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M.H variables</th>
<th>Female Orphan/Female Non orphan</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2.144**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.94</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.624NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24.09</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.84</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2.113**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.84</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.32</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.147**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.84</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.792NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.62</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>.104NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.65</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mental health</td>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>77.77</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.505NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non orphan</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80.43</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ns= Insignificant **.P ≤ 0.01 Level of significance, *P ≤ 0.05 Level of significance

The table 5 presents an overview of the t-values of the mental health dimensions with respect to the state of orphan hood and non orphan hood of the female subjects. As depicted by the table, the t-values of Emotional stability (t=2.144), Security/insecurity (t=2.133) and self-concept (t=3.147), are significant even at 0.01 significant level, shows that Emotional stability, Security/insecurity, Self concept between orphans and non orphan female adolescents differ significantly. However, the two groups do not differ significantly in Overall adjustment (t=1.624), Autonomy (t=1.792), Intelligence (t=.104) and Overall mental health (t=1.505), as their t-values are insignificant at 0.05 level.
Thus our null hypotheses $H_0$ stands accepted.

### Table 6: Comparison of Mean Scores of Mental Health and Depression Between Male and Female non Orphans Adolescent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male/ Female</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.20</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.588NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.10</td>
<td>10.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.1673NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.77</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1.079NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24.88</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/ Insecurity</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.304NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.62</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.089**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10.05</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.682NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.28</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1.042NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mental Health</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>78.61</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1.800NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>80.88</td>
<td>7.20</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ns= Insignificant **.P ≤ 0.01 Level of significance, *.P ≤ 0.05 Level of significance

The above statistical variance table shows that Emotional stability between male non orphan and female non orphan adolescents has insignificant difference ($t=1.673$). The Overall adjustment between male non orphan and female non orphan adolescents show insignificant difference ($t=1.079$). The Security/Insecurity between male non orphan and female non orphan adolescents shows insignificant difference ($t=.304$). The Self concept dimension shows marked variance ($t=3.089$). The Autonomy dimension shows no variance ($t=.682$). The Intelligence dimension of our two groups is shows no significant variance ($t=1.042$). The Overall mental health of the two groups show no marked difference ($t=1.800$).

Thus our null hypotheses $H_0$4 stands rejected.
Table 7: Comparison of Mean Scores of Mental Health and Depression between Male and Female Orphan Secondary School Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Male/Female</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>7.690</td>
<td>2.083</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>.817NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>7.396</td>
<td>2.160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>24.814</td>
<td>3.852</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.823NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.943</td>
<td>3.164</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>9.608</td>
<td>1.373</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.936NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>53</td>
<td>9.849</td>
<td>1.725</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>8.371</td>
<td>1.959</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.2069*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.320</td>
<td>2.146</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>9.618</td>
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<td>148</td>
<td>-.149NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9.679</td>
<td>2.146</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>14.721</td>
<td>2.849</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.1975*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>15.735</td>
<td>3.276</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mental Health</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>74.927</td>
<td>6.925</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.2238*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>77.773</td>
<td>8.315</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ns= Insignificant **.P ≤ 0.01 Level of significance, *.P ≤ 0.05 Level of significance

The above statistical variance table (8) presents an overview of the t-values of the mental health dimensions with respect to the gender among orphan adolescents. As depicted by the table, the t-values of Self-concept(t=2.609), Intelligence (t=1.975) and Overall mental health(t=2.238) are significant even at 0.01 significant level, shows that Self concept, intelligence and total mental health between male orphans and female orphan adolescents differ significantly However, the two groups do not differ significantly in Emotional stability(t=0.817), Overall adjustment (t=1.823), Security/Insecurity(0.936) and Autonomy (t=0.149), as their t-values are insignificant at 0.05 level.

Thus our null hypothesis $H_{05}$ stands rejected
Table 8: Comparison of Mean Scores of Mental Health and Depression between Rural Orphan and Urban Orphan Secondary School Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Rural/Urban</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.914NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>2.24</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>25.31</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>.876NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security/Insecurity</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>9.68</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.460NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.84</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Concept</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>-.177NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.79</td>
<td>2.43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
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<td>131</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>148</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>Intelligence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>3.39</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Mental Health</td>
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<td>131</td>
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<td>7.48</td>
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Ns= Insignificant **.P \leq 0.01 Level of significance, *.P \leq 0.05 Level of significance

The above statistical variance table (4.23) presents an overview of the t-values of the mental health dimensions with respect to the domicile among orphan adolescents. As depicted by the table the mental health status do not differ between Rural and Urban orphan adolescents, as their t-values in Emotional stability(t=0.914), Overall adjustment(t=0.876), Security(0.460), Self concept(t=0.177), Autonomy (t=0.80), intelligence (t=1.830) and total mental health (0.511), are insignificant at 0.05 level.

Thus our null hypotheses H_0 stands accepted.

Table 9: Comparison of Mental Health and Depression between Rural and Urban Non Orphans Secondary school students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<th>N</th>
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<tr>
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<td>7.54</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>Rural</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>26.40</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>2.57**</td>
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<td>24.43</td>
<td>4.90</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Urban</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The above statistical variance table (9) presents an overview of the t-values of the mental health dimensions with respect to the domicile among Non -orphan adolescents. As depicted by the table, the t-values in Overall adjustment (t=2.57) and Overall mental health (t=3.145) are significant at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the overall adjustment and Overall mental health between Rural and Urban Non–orphan adolescents differ significantly. However, Rural and Urban Non-orphan adolescents do not differ in Emotional stability (t=1.20), Security (0.936), Self-concept (t=1.612), Autonomy (t=0.58) and intelligence (t=0.443), as they are insignificant at 0.05 level.

Thus our null hypotheses $H_0$ stands rejected.

**Conclusion**

The war, the fear, the death and destruction, have taken a heavy toll on the mental health of the children and adolescents of Kashmir valley. The present unfortunate sociopolitical scenario is producing a generation of orphaned children and adolescents in Kashmir.

The present study was aimed to examine the mental health status among orphan and non orphan Secondary school students in Kashmir province of J & K state. After analyzing and interpreting the data, the following finding was found:

1. No differences were found between Orphan and non orphan secondary school students so far as their Emotional Stability, Overall Adjustment, and Autonomy are concerned.

2. Significant difference in Security/Insecurity, Self-Concept and Intelligence was found between Orphan and Non orphan secondary school students. Non orphans were found high on Security/Insecurity, Self-concept, and Intelligence in comparison to Orphans secondary school students.

3. It was found that the Overall Mental Health of Non orphan is better than Orphan secondary school students.
4. The results also reveal that there is significant difference in Security/Insecurity, Intelligence and Overall Mental Health between male Orphans and male Non orphans. Non orphans were found high on Security/Insecurity, Intelligence and Overall Mental Health in comparison to Orphan secondary school students.

5. No significant difference in Overall Adjustment, Emotional Stability and Autonomy was found between male Orphan and male Non orphan secondary school students

6. It was found that there is significant difference in Emotional Stability, Security/Insecurity, and Self-concept between female Orphans and female Non orphans. Non orphans were found high on Emotional Stability, Security/Insecurity, Self-concept in comparison to Orphan secondary school students.

7. No significant difference in Autonomy, Intelligence and Overall Adjustment was found between female Orphan and female Non orphan secondary school students

8. It was found that there is significant difference in Self-concept between male and female Non orphans. Female Orphans were found high on Self-concept in comparison to male Non orphan secondary school students.

9. No significant difference was found in Emotional Stability, Security/Insecurity, Overall Adjustment and Intelligence between male and female Non orphan secondary school students.

10. No significant difference was found in Emotional Stability, Security/Insecurity, Overall Adjustment and Autonomy between male and female Orphan secondary school students.

11. No significant difference was found in Mental Health (both facet-wise and overall) between Rural and Urban Orphan secondary school students

12. It was found that there is significant difference in Overall Adjustment, between Rural and Urban Non orphans. Rural Non orphans were high on Overall Adjustment and Overall Mental Health in comparison to Urban Non orphan secondary school students

13. No significant difference was found in Emotional Stability, Security/Insecurity, Self-concept, Autonomy and Intelligence between Rural and Urban Non orphan secondary school students.

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Impact of Parenthood on the Mental Health of Secondary School Students


Plagiarism: Some Concerns & Issues

Javaid Ahmad Bhat & Irfan ul haq

ABSTRACT

“Plagiarism” it is an act of presenting other author’s work and then proving it as one’s own so as to get literary and career advance benefits from it. Such a practice is seen increasing now-a-days and people especially ‘white-collars’ are doing it with their choice and without any fear. The recent upsurge of cases of plagiarism has broken all the records in the world. The increasing trend has made professionals, administrators, teachers and scholars in a discombobulating manner. The information explosion, the emergence of world wide web, the availability of databases and online free resources have offered trouble-free chances for plagiarists and other literary thieves to copy and reproduce the literature in their own way. The present situation of plagiarism needs strict and rigid rules, strategies and resources like anti-plagiarism tools and software so that the increasing trend can be minimized. In spite of the fact that most of the universities have adopted anti-plagiarism tools and the results are in good favour but the need is to make every single author aware about the concept of plagiarism and citation styles, so that they will be more careful while making notes. In this paper the efforts have been made to put forward the concept of plagiarism, different types of plagiarism, Plagiarism detection software and possible strategies.

Keywords: Plagiarism, Academic dishonesty, Legal provision, Anti-Plagiarism,

Introduction

Plagiarism is not a new phenomenon. The English word ‘plagiary’ firstly surfaced in 1601 in Ben Johnson’s ‘The Poetaster’, means a literary thief who wrongfully takes another’s words or ideas (More & Shelar, 2011). Plagiarism is defined as
the “wrongful appropriation,” “close imitation,” or “purloining and publication” of another author’s “language, thoughts, ideas, or expressions,” and the representation of them as one’s own original work, but the notion remains problematic with nebulous boundaries (Plagiarism, 2013). The word plagiarism may be uncommon to many, although ninety percent of people do it once in their life. The word plagiarism first appeared in English, Ben Jonson given the credit of being the first to use it in print (Vinod et al, 2009). According to the Encarta encyclopaedia, plagiarism is to steal somebody's work or idea. It is the process of copying another person's ideas or written work and then claiming it one's original and own work (Microsoft Encarta, 2009). Plagiarism is sometimes called as academic dishonesty, in other manner academic dishonesty includes cheating; plagiarism or furnishing knowingly false information to the society which will create an adverse effect to the esteem of an institution where the students or scholars proceed their research. Thus it can be said that when a person presents any sort of information whether complete or partial from whatever source either it is print or non-print without documentation and without giving credit to the original author is plagiarized work. It is important to note that according to the research on faculty perceptions of plagiarism there are varying degrees and working definitions of the act of plagiarism. Defining plagiarism is not as simple as one may think. Everyone seems to know it is wrong, including those who commit the offense, but few know how to completely define it. There are auto-plagiarism and self-plagiarism, substantial plagiarism and incidental plagiarism, and finally there is unconscious plagiarism or cryptomnesia, which seemingly would allow an excuse to all but the most obvious plagiarists (Wilhoit, 1994). Among the above types, self-plagiarism is one of the dangerous plagiarisms which occur in scholarly and scientific writings. This happens when an author reuses portion of their previous writings in subsequent research papers. It is detrimental to scientific progress and bad for academic community. Finally whenever a self-plagiarized paper is allowed to be published, other more deserving papers are deprived of its merits (Amin & Kota, 2012). But, when the plagiarism is conceptualized as theft, the notion of self-plagiarism may seem impossible. Plagiarism is using someone else’s words or ideas and claiming them as your own, either intentionally or unintentionally. Plagiarism as defined in the 11th edition of Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary as: To steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one’s own or to use (a created production) without crediting the source (Merriam Webster, 2013).

Thus plagiarism includes the following:

- To steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one’s own.
- To use (another’s production) without crediting the source.
To commit literary theft.

To present as new and original, an idea or product derived from an existing source.

The word Plagiarism derived from the Latin word ‘plagiarus’ which means to ‘kidnap’ or ‘abduct’. Thus it is the theft of someone’s intellectual work or creativity, ideas or language; something that strikes at the very heart of academic life. It is considered as a form of cheating and leads to intellectually deceitful. In simple words, plagiarism refers to the crime of stealing someone else’s work and passing it off as one’s own. For researchers, this form of scientific misconduct represents fraud of the worst order (Peh & Arokiasamy, 2008). World Association of Medical Editor WAME (2008) further states that the intent and effect of plagiarism is to mislead the reader as to the contributions of the plagiarizer. The concept applies whether the work is taken from abstracts, research grant applications, institutional review, board applications, or unpublished and published work in any format, whether print and electronic. Therefore the boundaries of what plagiarism constitutes are not limited to journal articles, or conference proceedings or other work, but includes some one’s ideas in any form as long as intellectual theft occurs. In the words of McKenzie, (1998): the New Plagiarism requires little effort and is geometrically more powerful. Discussing the past one might misappropriate a dozen of ideas from a handful of thinkers, but in the present modern societies, students can download hundreds of pages per hour. We have moved from the horse and buggy days of plagiarism to the Space Age without stopping for the horseless carriage (Williams, 2002). Thus plagiarism is the act of stealing from the writings of another person and passing the material off as one’s own is a form of intellectual property theft. In other words, plagiarism is an act of fraud. It involves both stealing someone else’s work and pretending that this is to be one’s own and, lying about it afterward. Many a time it happens due to our ignorance about how and where to cite, pervious works (More & Shelar, 2011). The most forms of plagiarism identified among students is a failure to acknowledge the original author and the factors which probably lead to plagiarism is the lack of knowing that what are ways of citing and what are the ways of paraphrasing the original work (Smith, Ghazali & Noor Minhad, 2007).

Types of Plagiarism

Different authors stated different types of plagiarism, some broader categories of plagiarism include:

1. Accidental: Lack of plagiarism knowledge and understanding of citation or referencing style can lead to accidental plagiarism.
2. **Unintentional:** Vastness of available information influences thoughts and the same ideas may come out via spoken or written expressions as one’s own.

3. **Idea plagiarism or Intentional:** Simply the act of copying the idea of someone else’s and deliberately not giving proper citation and credit to original creator.

4. **Self-plagiarism:** using one’s own work (self-published work) in some other form without referring to original one.

5. **Complete Plagiarism:** A piece of work copied entirely from one or more sources.

6. **Copy and Paste:** Available information off internet or electronic journals (copying word to word).

7. **Word Switch:** If you copy a sentence or paragraph into your assignment and change a few words it will still be considered to be plagiarism.

8. **Style Plagiarism:** When you follow a Source Article sentence-by-sentence or paragraph-by-paragraph, it is plagiarism, even though none of your sentences are exactly like those in the source article or even in the same order. What you are copying in this case is the author’s reasoning style (Vij, Soni, &Makhdumi, 2009).

Plagiarism has been classified by peer reviewers into different categories based on the type of material, type of authors etc. Klausman identified three main types of plagiarism:

- **Direct plagiarism** - taking the similar words from the original source and presenting them one's own without documenting them.

- **Paraphrase plagiarism** - this type of plagiarism occurs when a writer takes the ideas of another writer in nearly the exact words as the original. This may be the most common type of unintentional plagiarism. Researchers do not understand that proper paraphrasing is using all of your own words and phrases to convey the author’s general idea, and still giving credit to the author for the original idea.

- **Patchwork plagiarism** - this is another often and unintentional form of plagiarism which states that when a writer takes the ideas of another and patches them together as his own. This type of plagiarism often includes both paraphrase and direct (Klausman, 1999).

Some different methods commonly in practice of plagiarism these include:

- **Paraphrasing:** Using grammar and synonym or reordering sentences in original work without giving credit.
Artistic plagiarism: Presenting someone else’s work using different media, such as text, images, voice or video.

Code plagiarism: This plagiarism can be found mostly in computer programming. Using program code, algorithms, classes, or functions without permission or reference.

Forgotten or expired links to resources: Not providing updated links in the reference of the original sources.

No proper use of quotation marks: Unable to quote properly.

Misinformation of references: Providing wrong links in the reference section.

Translated plagiarism: cross language content translation and use without reference to original work (Maurer, Kappe & Zaka, 2006).

Plagiarism Detection Software & Tools

Plagiarism detection involves the process of evaluating or examining the work or document which contains plagiarized work. The use of computers and internet has made it too easy to kidnap and to theft the documents and materials of other authors. Most cases of plagiarism are found in academia, where documents are typically essays or reports. However, plagiarism can be found in virtually any field, including scientific papers, art designs, and source code (Plagiarism, 2013). Detection can be either manual or computer-assisted. Manual detection requires substantial effort and excellent memory, and is impractical in cases, where too many documents must be compared, or original documents are not available for comparison. Computer-assisted detection allows vast collections of documents to be compared to each other, making successful detection much more likely. There are several software and tools that provide services to help academia in detecting intellectual dishonesty. Some of these tools which are currently popular in the market are web based services and the detection processing is done remotely. The user uploads the suspected document to the system database; the system creates a complete fingerprint of the document and stores it. While the process completes, the suspects are displayed. The system generates the originality report within some minutes of submission. The report contains all the matches detected and links to original sources with colour codes describing the intensity of plagiarism (Turnitin tour, 2012). However it is not a final statement of plagiarism. A higher percentage of similarities found do not necessarily mean that it actually is a case of plagiarism. One has to interpret each identified match to deduce whether it is a false alarm or actually needs attention. Finally the trend and the race towards combat of plagiarism have started. In the market, there are a bundle of tools and software available, out of some of them are listed below:
### Anti-Plagiarism Software and Services

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Anti-plagiarism Strategies

Strategies to overcome plagiarism; the technology in the present times and availability of material in various formats have made plagiarism a serious threat. A single click can bring essay mills and paragraphs on student’s desk or even entire essays now can be downloaded and used. But the race is in combating plagiarism by means of strategies and tools. There are different strategies discussed which can be used to minimize or to tackle the increasing trend of plagiarism and can help in encouraging students to do their own work. These include Strategies of Awareness 2) Strategies of Prevention 3) Strategies of Detection.

1) Awareness strategy: This includes that an instructor must aware his students about plagiarism. He should understand that why students cheat, what are the reasons behind the evil deed. Sometimes it may happen due to the following reasons

- Many students are unaware and do not know what plagiarism is.
- On the Internet everything is public domain, can be used by anybody.
- Some students know all about plagiarism but don’t consider it as wrong.
- Some students are interested in the shortest and easiest route, as they don’t want to work hard. So they do copy and paste and present the same.
- Students lack writing and have inadequate capacity in generating ideas. Fear of a bad grade and inability to perform cause some students to look for a superior product.

Educate about plagiarism: the instructor must educate students as well as must be fully aware about plagiarism. He should make clear what is plagiarism, how it can be avoided by making use of examples.

Discuss benefits citation: the benefits and importance of citing must be put-forward in front of students. When they will know how to cite, they will definitely give credit to the original author. And when they will know what the benefit of giving credit is, they will never miss the chance. Citing a source, whether paraphrased or quoted, reveals that they have performed research work and synthesized the findings into their own argument. Using sources shows that the student has done something and has engaged in the great conversation.

Make penalties clear: the instructor should make the penalties clear to the students; he should tell straight forward what will be the result of a person found guilty, while keeping in view the policies and penalties of institution.
2) **Strategies of Prevention:** Prevention strategies help to make the assignment and requirements unique enough. This can be done by making use of following;

**Make assignment clear:** the instructor must clear assignment to his students.

The topic should be such that a student can easily handle it. If the topic needs collaborative efforts, then permit it.

**Provide specific topics:** the students should be provided different topics and should be allowed to select topic of his/her interest.

**Have students included an annotated bibliography:** the annotation should include a brief summary of the source, where it was located and an evaluation about the usefulness of the source. (Optionally, as a lesson in information quality, ask them to comment on why they thought the source credible.) The normal process of research makes completing this task easy, but it creates headaches for students who have copied a paper from someone else since few papers include annotated bibliographies like this. Another benefit of this assignment is that students must reflect on the reliability and quality of their sources.

**Require up-to-date reference:** make students clear that the references they write, should clear and some of them should be up-to-date. While students submit their work, many of the papers online are quite old, with correspondingly old references will be automatically eliminated. Such a recent date restriction is not usually workable for some subjects, such as history or English literature, but can always require a few sources of recent date.

**Evaluate work:** while the students submit their work, have students an in-class summary test. Ask them what you have learnt from your assignment, have they faced any problem while doing their work? What methodology they follow? What resources they consulted. These types of questions will definitely make distinguish between the learners and the dull students. The students who did the research will think about their problems and the students who did nothing will not be able to give respond. The test can be either orally or can be written.

3) **Strategies of Detection:** whenever the instructor finds any suspects he should not take the case easy but should implement such strategies which will find the theft and detect the unoriginal work. Implementing these strategies may help in detecting the suspects include:

**Look for the clues:** while checking the assignment, look for internal evidence that may indicate plagiarism. Among the clues are the following:

- Mixed citation styles.
- Lack of references or quotations.
- Unusual formatting Off topic
- Signs of datedness
- Anachronisms.
- Anomalies of diction

**Smoking guns:** this category might be called “blunders of the clueless,” since it includes obvious indicators of copying. Reported in the past have been labels left at the end of papers (“Thank you for using Term Paper Mania”), title pages stapled to Web printouts (complete with dates and URL in the corners), title pages claiming the paper is by Tom Jones when subsequent pages say “Smith, page 2,” and papers with whiteout over the previous author’s name. Few of these clues will provide courtroom proof of plagiarism, of course, but their presence should alert you to investigate the paper. Even if you do not find the source of the paper, you may be able to use these clues profitably in a discussion with the student in your office.

**Search for the paper online:** if the instructor finds that the content is from internet, he can try these strategies to find it:

- **Search engines:** Simply use search engines to find the text. The instructor can copy some phrases and can paste it on any search engine like Google, Yahoo or Bing. They will easily disclose the original source from which the text is being copied.

- **Use plagiarism checkers.** The instructor can also use plagiarism detectors to detect the doubtful content. There are free as well as fee based tools and services to help instructors in disclosing plagiarism content. While using the tool, an instructor must be well aware about the functioning of it and must be well aware how the results are to be handled and evaluated (Harris, 2012; Pritee, Grover & Malik, 2012).

**Conclusion**

The scandals of plagiarism can be seen in profusion and the past years are evident of it. Such shameful act not only degrades the reputation of societies but also disappoints scholars and makes them apathy. As already discussed different types of plagiarism, one should be aware about all the types of plagiarism, so that the right care can be taken while citing the source. The academicians’ must be aware about the strategies and tools in order to minimize and to tackle plagiarists. The students must be taught about the advantages and disadvantages of citation. Students must be made aware about penalties and drawbacks of improper reference styles, so that while doing their job of research they will take care about plagiarism and will put forward their afford to use their own intellectual power instead of copy and paste. The development of a nation wholly depends upon the intellectual output; if the final output is
plagiarism free, then definitely the results will be in favour of nation’s pride and spirit. For this it is the right time to put the possible efforts in order to overcome and to minimize such a hazard.

References


24. DOI: 10.1080/87567555.1994.9926849

BOOK REVIEW

Title: Higher Education Dynamics
Author: Dr. Nazir Ahmad Gilkar
Publisher: Discovery Publishing House, Pvt. Limited, New Delhi, 110002
ISSBN: 978-93-5056-469-1
Pages: 162 + index
Reviewed by: Prof. Abdul Gani

Higher education system in India, currently the third largest system in the world, is expected to surpass the US in the next 5 years and China in next 15 years. By 2030, one in every four graduates in the world would be a product of the Indian higher education system. An ambitious target of 25.2% Gross enrolment ratio (GRE) has been envisaged by the end of 12th plan as against the current GER of 17.9%. For this to happen, the whole system of higher education needs to be transformed. The crucial problems regarding the faculty, research facilities, curriculum, infrastructure, governance, autonomy, among others, which the higher education system in India is currently beset with, require urgent attention. Therefore, any such step towards the understanding and solution of these problems is really a welcome step. The book under review by Dr. Gilkar is one worthwhile step in this direction.

The book is based primarily on the occasional papers contributed by the author to various seminars, journals and dailies of repute. It covers a wide range of contemporary issues in Indian higher education which are based on contextual expositions, empirical evidence and exploratory explanation and literature review. Various pertinent questions on the efficacy, efficiency and relevance of the Indian higher education system have been raised and answered in the book. It represents a comprehensive, renewed and balanced approach to the understanding of higher education issues in India. The author has, in a lucid and comprehensive manner, thrown light on the core constituents of higher education system- teaching, learning and evaluation. The book inspires the reader to go into further details and unfold deeper layers of the higher education system. The book beautifies the characters of the teacher, the taught and the institution.

The book has been organised into twelve chapters and three appendices, covering different aspects of Indian higher education system, which taken together make an excellent reading. Chapter 1 of the book tries to explore how the curriculum structure, performance measures, faculty involvement in teaching and research, utilisation of instructional capacities and resources, academic-industry interface
etc. would shape up in future. Based on a SWOT analysis, Chapter 2 of the book critically reviews the functioning of the BBA Programme offered by the University of Kashmir, identifies the areas of intervention and suggests measures to make the programme responsive to the changing business scenario at the global level. Chapter 3 focuses on empowerment of teachers for improvement in educational standards and role of teachers in a triangular paradigm comprising empowerment, accountability and expectations. Chapter 4 highlights the significance of emerging technology in teaching-learning process, and its role in capacity building of teachers. The modes of establishing industry and academia linkages, operational dimensions of accounting education in India, working of examination and evaluation system in higher education and the process of curriculum planning, development and evaluation are the subject matter of Chapters 5 to 8 respectively. Chapter 9 identifies the areas of educational quality deficit and recommends some innovative interventions for balanced academic improvement in higher education institutions and Chapter 10 explores the ways and means to overcome process risks leading to excellence in higher education. While as the Chapters 11 and 12 respectively focus attention on performance budgeting in the light of NAAC requirements and highlight performance measures to be improved for bringing efficiency in institutional operations of higher education institutions, focussing on vital issues of pedagogy, academic calendar, inculcating scientific temper among the students, fostering stakeholder’s dialogue, creativity, innovation and collaboration.

A detailed discussion on vital issues of reengineering UGC Curriculum, professional ethics audit and business education in Kashmir in three appendices has added value to the book and one wonders as to why these have not been included in the book as main chapters.

The beauty of the book is the structure it has followed throughout the text. Every chapter of the book is the outcome of an individual research study carried out by Dr Gilkar and contains a rich mine of information based on critical analysis of the data. The concise overview of the book in the preface, providing the logic behind its launching, is one of the main highlights of the book. An abstract giving a concise overview of each chapter of the book in the beginning, a comprehensive analysis and interpretation of the collected data and issues raised in the middle and precise summary of the major findings at the end make each chapter an interesting reading. In an attempt to provide a more comprehensive treatment of the issues addressed in the book, a comprehensive reference list has been added to each chapter, in addition to an elaborate bibliography, to give credit to the sources of the material used and to provide sources where the reader may find additional information.
However the book does not give an elaborate description of some of the other issues of crucial concern in higher education at present and leaves some of the important aspects uncovered. Some crucial issues have just been raised in the book. Their in-depth and exploratory analysis could have added more value to the book. The book reflects the subject weakness of the author as more focus is on business education, which is the author’s main discipline. Sample for the study also covers mostly teachers from colleges (where the author has worked for most of his career), leaving a major section of university teachers outside the fold of studies covered in the book. What also needed to be taken better care of is the careful proof reading and professional designing of the book.

The reviewer has been a close observer of the author’s research interests, academic leadership and teaching pursuits. The book under review is indeed the culmination of the author’s more than 36 years of corporate exposure, and teaching, research and administrative experience at higher education level. Through the book the author has exhibited his deep understanding of the dynamics of higher education system.

To be fair, the author has, on the whole, made a commendable contribution to put his message precisely but very clearly and effectively for which he deserves to be complimented. The book put together is undoubtedly a significant contribution to the most pressing aspects of higher education today and draws attention to what our concern should be. With its unique coverage, the book would indeed be of significant interest not only to the academicians, researchers, students, educational administrators and policy-makers but also to all those who are concerned with the ever-growing problems faced by higher education system and are in search of genuine answers to solve them.
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Form IV

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I, Prof. N.A. Nadeem hereby declare that the particulars given are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

Prof. N.A. Nadeem
The Culture of Trust in the Context of Changing Global Academic Scenario- Prof. Maria Czerepaniak-Walczak

Construction and Standardization of Professional Development Index Scale (PDIS)- Prof. N.A. Nadeem & T.A. Wani


Emotional Maturity of Regular Students and Distance Learners of Kashmir Valley- A Comparative Study- Dr. Mohammad Sayid Bhat

Public-Private Schools and Universalization of Access to Secondary Education: Implications for RMSA in India- Rashim Wadhwa & Shashiranjan Jha

Book Review of “Higher Education Dynamics”- Prof. Abdul Gani