COURSE MATERIALS FOR B.Ed. SECOND YEAR (2016-2017)

COURSE: 8 – KNOWLEDGE AND CURRICULUM

Lessons Prepared by

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Unit: III & IV : Child-centered Education & Nationalism, Universalism, Secularism and Education
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Unit: V : Education and democracy
Dr. A. Rajeswari, Assistant Professor

Unit: VI & VII : Meaning and nature of curriculum & Principles of curriculum development
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Course Objectives

At the end of the course, the student-teachers will be able to:

• To know about the meaning of Knowledge, skills, teaching, training, information, reason and belief.
• To find the above aspects how to help the teaching profession.
• To know differences between knowledge-skills, teaching-training, knowledge-information, reason-belief.

Introduction

Epistemology focuses on our knowledge of reality. Epistemology analyses about the validity of sources of knowledge. The epistemologist tries to answer questions like ‘what is the difference between knowing and believing? What can we know beyond the information provided by our sense organs? What is the guarantee that what we know is true? Thus the major concerns of epistemology are knowledge and truth.

According to naturalism, senses are the sources for knowledge. It is confirmed by their statement, ‘senses are the gateway of knowledge’

In the realist’s epistemology an elaborate and comprehensive conception of a realm of experience is given greater significance than in the pragmatists. For the pragmatist a theory is at best only a source of hypothesis. Moreover, the pragmatists do not attach explicit importance to the fund of accumulated wisdom form the past which is transmitted in the form of tradition and theory as the realist do. For realists, pure theory is an elaborate and comprehensive conception of a realm of experience.

Content:

• Meaning: Epistemology, Knowledge, skills, teaching, training, information, reason and belief.
• Types of Knowledge, skills, teaching, training, information, reason and belief.
• Differences between knowledge-skills, teaching-training, knowledge-information, reason-belief.
Epistemology and Learning Theories

Epistemology basic is a branch of philosophy that investigates the origin, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge. Such beliefs influence the development of knowledge because they are considered to be the central values or theories that are functionally connected to most other beliefs and knowledge (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997).

Our own personal epistemology influences our own theories of learning, and consequently, how we approach, design, and delivery our classes. The terms used to describe epistemological positions vary, depending on whether it’s describing the origin or the acquisition of knowledge. A brief overview of the key terms is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Key Epistemological Terms]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Objectivism</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>What is knowledge?</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Source of knowledge?</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Associated terminology?</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Pragmatism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is knowledge?</th>
<th>Pragmatism regards knowledge as a worthy but improbable goal. This approach emphasises theories of meaning (of what works) with the understanding that this may not reflect reality.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source of knowledge?</td>
<td>Knowledge is interpreted and negotiated, through a process of experience and reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associated terminology?</td>
<td><strong>Pragmatism</strong> also used when describing the acquisition of knowledge, and involves active processing where no single truth exists (Brownlee et al, 2008). Kuhn &amp; Weinstock (2002) describe this way of knowledge acquisition as 'procedural knowing'.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Interpretivism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is knowledge?</th>
<th>In constructivism knowledge is not uniform and identical. Rather, it’s constructed at an individual level and exists in multiple formats.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source of knowledge?</td>
<td>Knowledge is gained through reason, by considering the available information and assembling a personal interpretation. It’s not concerned with whether knowledge is true in the absolute sense, since truth depends on the knower’s frame of reference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associated terminology?</td>
<td>Interpretativism is linked with <strong>constructivism</strong>. Knowledge is constructed individual or collectively, and varies from person to person. These ‘<strong>constructed knowing</strong>’ beliefs are more likely to be linked to constructivist beliefs in learning (Brownlee, 2003; Hammer, 2003), which are based on a view of knowledge as complex, tentative, and needing to be actively critiqued (Gill, Ashton, &amp;Algina, 2004).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each learning theory, or psychological explanation of teaching and learning, can be traced back to one of these main epistemological traditions.

Epistemological analysis is usually in terms of the subject, the object and the process of question of knowledge. Each school of philosophy has its own conception of the nature of these components of knowledge. The different types of knowledge types are **authoritative knowledge, empirical knowledge, revealed knowledge, rational knowledge, and intuitive knowledge**. Epistemology also provided a classification of different types of knowledge.
Revealed knowledge is knowledge that god disclosed to men-select men who are deemed prophets. It is embodied in the treaties like the Baghavat Gita, Bible and the Koran. For the followers of the respective religions what is contained in their sacred books is the word of God. Hence, they believe it is true everywhere and at all times. Though the truths revealed in the books are super-rational, the languages in which they are written is not and belong to this ‘fallen’ world. Hence, religious scholars spend much time in exposition, elaboration and interpretation of texts of these books. The aim of such exercise is to bring to light the hidden and perennially relevant message and meaning of these books for the benefit of every generation.

Intuitive knowledge is knowledge gained by a man from within himself. It is different from revealed knowledge. Revealed knowledge is God-given and is external to man. It is mediate by prophets. Intuitive knowledge has its source within the individual. It is also immediate. It is gained as an illuminating flash in a moment of insight. Every one of us would have gained such an intuitive knowledge when we were trying to solve a difficult problem, making decision about the trustworthiness of a stranger etc. Of course, it is knowledge which has not been submitted in rational or empirical verification. When Archimedes ran out naked from his bath tub shouting ‘Eureka, Eureka’, had just gained such intuitive knowledge which he subsequently verified by means of an experiment.

Rational knowledge is obtained through the exercise of reason alone, unaccompanied by empirical observation. The principles of logic and mathematics are examples for such rational knowledge. The principles of rational knowledge may be applied to sense experience, but they are not deduced from it.

Empirical knowledge is knowledge confirmed ultimately by the evidence of the senses. Rational knowledge is the result of the exercise of reason. Authoritative knowledge is knowledge accepted as true because it is attested by experts who are authorities in the concerned field.

Thus, epistemology is concerned with our knowledge of reality.

The word Epistemology is derived from the ancient Greek episteme meaning "scientific knowledge" and logos meaning "speech" or "word", in this context denoting "codified knowledge of". J.F. Ferrier coined epistemology on the model of 'ontology', to designate that branch of philosophy which aims to discover the meaning of knowledge, and called it the 'true beginning' of philosophy.
Epistemology is, the division of philosophy that investigates the origin and nature of knowledge is called epistemology, and its objective is to investigate the foundations upon which human knowledge rests.

A pluralist epistemology is thus fundamentally practical and placed (Spender, 1998).

“Epistemology is a branch of philosophy concerned with nature and justification of knowledge. (Hofer and Pintrich, 1997)

Epistemology is concerned with explaining the boundary between justified belief and opinion, and involved generally with a theoretical philosophical study of knowledge. The primary problem in epistemology is to understand exactly what is needed in order for us to have knowledge.

Meaning of Knowledge

Knowledge is a familiarity, awareness or understanding of someone, such as facts, information, descriptions, which is acquired through experience or education by perceiving, discovering, or learning.

Knowledge can refer to a theoretical, practical understanding of a subject. In philosophy, the study of knowledge is called epistemology; the philosopher Plato famously defined knowledge as "justified true belief", though "well-justified true belief" is more complete as it accounts for the Gettier problems. However, several definitions of knowledge and theories to explain it exist.

The National Curriculum Framework-2005, while placing the experience of the knower at center, also defined knowledge. According to it, knowledge can be convicted as experience organized through language into patterns of thought, thus creating meaning, which in turn helps us to understand the world we live in. It can also be conceived of as patterns of activity, or physical dexterity with thought, contributing to acting in the world, and the creating and making of things. Human beings over time have evolved many bodies of knowledge, which include a repertoire of ways of thinking, of feeling and of doing things, and constructing more knowledge.

Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive processes: perception, communication, and reasoning; while knowledge is also said to be related to the capacity of acknowledgment in human beings.
Type of Knowledge:
1. Communicating knowledge.
2. Situated knowledge.
3. Embedded knowledge
4. Practitioner knowledge.
5. Priori Knowledge.
6. Posteriori Knowledge

Communicating knowledge
Symbolic representations can be used to indicate meaning and can be thought of as a dynamic process. Hence the transfer of the symbolic representation can be viewed as one ascription process whereby knowledge can be transferred. Other forms of communication include observation and imitation, verbal exchange, and audio and video recordings. Philosophers of language and semioticians construct and analyze theories of knowledge transfer or communication.

Situated knowledge
Situated knowledge is knowledge specific to a particular situation. It is a term coined by Donna Haraway as an extension of the feminist approaches of "successor science" suggested by Sandra Harding.one which "offers a more adequate, richer, better account of a world, in order to live in it well and in critical, reflexive relation to our own as well as others' practices of domination and the unequal parts of privilege and oppression that makes up all positions.Arturo Escobar explains as, "neither fictions nor supposed facts." This narrative of situation is historical textures woven of fact and fiction. Some methods of generating knowledge, such as trial and error, or learning from experience, tend to create highly situational knowledge. One of the main attributes of the scientific method is that the theories it generates are much less situational than knowledge gained by other methods. Situational knowledge is often embedded in language, culture, or traditions. This integration of situational knowledge is an allusion to the community, and its attempts at collecting subjective perspectives into an embodiment "of views from somewhere."

Embedded knowledge
Embedded knowledge is a significant feature of the knowledge base in education. Tests and other assessment instruments, curriculum frameworks, the academic organization of schooling, are all based on prior investigation and other accumulated knowledge which the teacher is not involved
in and may not advert to at the point of use. Embedded knowledge makes a range of intellectual resources available to teachers which improve their understanding of individual students, strengthen their curriculum programming and enrich their pedagogy.

Indicators here require two dimensions, reflecting the amount of knowledge embedded and the extent of usage respectively. A multi-attribute psychological test such as the British Ability Scales or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children which has undergone a full development process and has extensive standardization data covering different age ranges and populations is richer in information terms than a simple rating scale designed for use with four-year-olds. A first measure, therefore, relates to the amount of knowledge embedded in the test or curriculum framework or school routine.

An instrument may of itself be information-rich but be little used, however. This could be because of mismatch with the information needs of potential users, limited target audience, or pragmatic factors such as marketing and cost. Whatever the reason, such an instrument has to be regarded differently from a similar instrument which is in widespread use and which generates substantial amounts of information in practitioners’ hands. Hence, there is need of a further set of indicators geared to use and the generation of knowledge in practice.

Practitioner knowledge

 Teachers’ knowledge base is especially various, as noted above, and direct measurement of it is probably not possible on a prevalent basis. Some direct measures are taken, as for example when teachers’ certification is based on the measurement, through examinations and observation of teaching practice, of knowledge and competences or when serving teachers are rated in terms of a knowledge-related framework.

Indirect measures are more likely to be used, however, and there are a number of indicators or quasi-indicators based on either pre-service or in-service training, on the grounds that length and level of initial training and opportunities for continuous professional development are associated with expanding the teacher’s knowledge base.

Prior knowledge

It is independent of experience, as with mathematics (3+2=5), tautologies ("All bachelors are unmarried"), and deduction from pure reason (e.g., ontological proofs).[3]
A posteriori knowledge

It is dependent on experience or empirical evidence, as with most aspects of science and personal knowledge.

Meaning of Skill:
A skill is learning to carry out a task with pre-determined results often within a given amount of time, energy, or both.
Skills can often be divided into domain general and domain-specific skills. For example, in the domain of work, some general skills would include time management, teamwork and leadership, self-motivation and others, whereas domain-specific skills would be useful only for a certain job.

Types of skills

1. Labor skills
2. Life skills
3. People skills
4. Social skills
5. Soft skills
6. Hard skills

Labor skills
Skilled workers have long had historical import as electricians, masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, bakers, brewers, coopers, printers and other occupations that are economically productive. Skilled workers were often politically active through their craft guilds.

Life skills
Life skills are problem-solving behaviors that are used appropriately and responsibly in the management of personal affairs. They are a set of human skills, acquired via learning (teaching) or direct experience that are used to handle problems and questions commonly encountered in daily human life. The subject varies greatly depending on societal norms and community expectations.

People skills
According to the Portland Business Journal, people skills are described as understanding ourselves and moderating our responses talking effectively and empathizing accurately building relationships of trust, respect and productive interactions.
Social skills
Social skill is any skill facilitating interaction and communication with others. Social rules and relations are created, communicated, and changed in verbal and nonverbal ways. The process of learning such skills is called socialization

Soft skills
Soft skills is a sociological term relating to a person's "EQ" (Emotional Intelligence Quotient), the cluster of personality traits, social graces, communication, language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that characterize relationships with other people.[9] Soft skills complement hard skills (part of a person's IQ), which are the occupational requirements of a job and many other activities.

Hard skills
Hard skills are any skills relating to a specific task or situation. These skills are easily quantifiable unlike soft skills which are related to one's personality

Meaning of Teaching:
Teaching is a process of educating a person with theoretical concepts and is a kind of a knowledge transfer between a teacher and a student.

The role of the teacher is to act as a facilitator of learning by leading discussions, providing opportunities to ask open-ended questions, guiding the processes and tasks and enabling the active participation of learners and to engage with ideas. Teachers are occupied in schools with the main purpose of educating the children to grow as good citizens in the world. Children today are the future leaders of the society. Therefore, teaching can be considered as an important concept.

Common characteristics of Good Teaching:
According to UNESCO (2004) and Scheerens (2004), the main characteristics of good teaching relate to a number of broad categories:

1. Relevance: of the teaching content, in particular alignment with the curriculum.
2. Sufficient learning time: this refers to the time devoted to actual teaching, as opposed to the official hours set in the curriculum.
3. Structured teaching, in which learners’ engagement is stimulated, their understanding monitored, and feedback and reinforcement regularly provided.

4. A conducive classroom environment with, in particular, a task-oriented climate, mutual respect between the students and teacher and among students themselves, orderliness, and safety.

5. Teachers with appropriate subject matter mastery, verbal intelligence, a broad teaching repertoire, and motivation to achieve.

6. What research also underlines though is that adaptability to context matters as different countries and students may need different teaching contents (both in terms of subject matter knowledge and of medium of instruction) and different levels of structure tailored to students’ profile. It is therefore important to critically assess the relevance of both current and planned objectives (in terms of the content, structure, and context of teaching and learning) to the national situation.

**Meaning of Training:**

Training is teaching, or developing in oneself or others, any skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. Training has specific goals of improving one's capability, capacity, productivity and performance.

**Types of Training:**

**Physical Training:**

Physical training concentrates on mechanistic goals: training-programs in this area develop specific skills or muscles, often with a view of peaking at a particular time. Some physical training programs focus on raising overall physical fitness.

In military use, training means gaining the physical ability to perform and survive in combat, and learning the many skills needed in a time of war. These include how to use a variety of weapons, outdoor survival skills, and how to survive being captured by the enemy, among many others. See military education and training.
Computer skills training:
Some commentators use a similar term for workplace learning to improve performance: "training and development". There are also additional services available online for those who wish to receive training above and beyond that which is offered by their employers.

Simulation based training
Is another method which uses technology to assist in trainee development. This is particularly common in the training of skills requiring a very high degree of practice, and in those which include a significant responsibility for life and property. An advantage is that simulation training allows the trainer to find, study, and remedy skill deficiencies in their trainees in a controlled, virtual environment. This also allows the trainees an opportunity to experience and study events that would otherwise be rare on the job.

e.g., in-flight emergencies, system failure, etc.,

Religion and spirituality training
In religious and spiritual use, training may refer to the purification of the mind, heart, understanding and actions to obtain a variety of spiritual goals such as (for example) closeness to God or freedom from suffering. Note for example the institutionalized spiritual training of Threefold Training in Buddhism, Meditation in Hinduism or discipleship in Christianity. These aspects of training can be short term or last a lifetime, depending on the context of the training and which religious group it is a part of.

Meaning of Information:
Information is that which informs. In other words, it is the answer to a question of some kind. It is also that from which data and knowledge can be derived, as data represents values attributed to parameters, and knowledge signifies understanding of real things or abstract concepts.

Different Methods of Collecting Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Advantage</th>
<th>Disadvantage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Surveys (Group-Administered) | Can survey many people  
* Not time-consuming  
* Relatively inexpensive  
* Everyone gets the same instrument  
* Object interpretation  
* Relatively inexpensive | May be problems with interpreting questions  
* Difficult to get much detail |
| Surveys (Telephone)     | Able to ask for more detail when needed  
* Everyone gets the same instrument | Sometimes difficult reaching people  
* Lack of anonymity |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Researchers can know how people are interpreting questions</th>
<th>Time-consuming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>• Able to ask for more detail when needed</td>
<td>• Because of time, can limit sample size</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide detailed data</td>
<td>• Subjective interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Can be expensive</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Can be difficult to analyze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus Groups</td>
<td>Researchers can know how people are interpreting questions</td>
<td>Group setting may inhibit some individuals from providing information</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Able to interview multiple people at one time, thus, more cost-effective</td>
<td>• Sometimes hard to coordinate multiple schedules</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Responses from one person provide stimulus for other people</td>
<td>• Responses from one person provide stimulus for other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>Objective interpretation</td>
<td>Time-consuming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Low burden for people providing data</td>
<td>• Some items are not observable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Can be expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Participant behavior may be affected by observer presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Records</td>
<td>• Objective interpretation</td>
<td>May not correspond to exactly what researcher wants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Low burden for people providing data</td>
<td>• May be incomplete or require additional interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Relatively inexpensive</td>
<td>• May need special permission to use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collection of Materials</td>
<td>Objective interpretation</td>
<td>May not correspond to exactly what researcher wants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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**Characteristics of good information**

When using information for business purposes and storing information in an information system it is of vital importance that the information is good and helps you make the correct business decision. The characteristics of good information are as follows: valid, reliable, timely, fit-for-purpose, accessible, cost-effective, sufficiently accurate, relevant, having the right level of detail, from a source in which the user has confidence, understandable by the user. These are explained in more detail below:
**Valid:** Valid information is information that is correct and can be used for the purpose that it is needed. An example of valid information is information that you can trust such as information supplied to you by a governing body. Valid financial information would be tax rates supplied to companies from the Governments Tax Office.

**Reliable:** Reliable information if information that you can rely on as being correct. It will be from a valid and trusted source. An example of reliable information would be information from your sales department that is supplied to the financial department on the sales figures for last month. As this comes from an internal information source it is reliable and can be trusted.

**Timely:** Timely is another important characteristic of good information. Timely information is information that is from the correct time period. If a company wants to analyse current profit and loss then they will need to access current sales figures and not the sales figures from 10 years ago. We can also say that timely information is information that is available as and when needed. For example if a Manager needed to check the sales figures for today timely information would be information that they could print from a cash register immediately at any time during the day.

**Fit for Purpose:** Information that is fit for purpose means that it is relevant to what you need it for. For example if you were opening a business in London then it would be advisable to look at the population within a certain area beside where you wanted to open the business. Looking at information about the population of Papua New Guinea would not really be fit for purpose in this instance.

**Accessible:** Accessible information is information that is stored in a way that it can be easily accessed at any time. If we refer back to the example of looking at sales figures on a cash register at any time of the day having the feature of printing out current sales from the cash register means that the information is accessible. If it took one hour to process the sales figures and print them then this information would not be easily accessible. Accessible is an important characteristic of good information as users need to have information available to them as and when they need it.

**Cost Effective:** Cost effective information is information that is worth investing the time and money to get to help make business decisions. As an example, if you paid a company to do a survey for you and it cost £1000 and you were then able to use the information supplied to increase your profits by £1500 in the next month then this could be seen as cost effective information. However, if the survey cost £50000 to complete and the information only seen a £100 increase in sales in the
next month them this information would not be seen as cost effective. Cost effective information is
information that costs a lot less to put together than the resultant profit from analyzing and using
the information to increase profits.

**Sufficiently Accurate:** Accurate information helps businesses make the correct decisions. If the
speedometer in your car was out by 20mph then this information may result in you breaking the
law. Similarly if a sales department sent inaccurate sales figures to the finance department this
might result in incorrect tax calculations for the company that would put them in danger.

**Relevant:** Relevant information is information that is directly related to your business need. If a
business was looking to cut costs they might look at their electricity bill and try to see where they
could save money. If a bakery was looking at the price of metal then this would not really be
relevant information to their business. Relevant information for a bakery would be looking at the
price of ingredients to use in their products.

**Having the right level of detail:** If someone requests information from you having the correct level
of detail is very important. For example, if a manager wants a summary the sales figures for the last
6 months, then the information that has the right level of detail might show the overall sales figures
for each month and the grand total added together. Giving the manager a complete list of all sales
for every product you sold in the six month period in a 1000 page report would be seen as having
not the right detail and would not really be a summary. When presenting information it is important
to understand what exactly the person requesting the information needs.

**From a source in which the user has confidence:** Obtaining information for a business purpose
means that you must obtain it from a reliable and trustworthy source. If you wanted information
about the population of Korea then using Wikipedia might not be seen as being 100% reliable and
you may not be 100% confident in using this source. However, if you looked at the census
information from the Korean Government you could say what the population was at the time that
the census was taken.

**Understandable by the user:** Information that is used for a business purpose needs to be
understandable by the end user. If a non financial person wanted information about the sales for the
last 3 years and you presented them with a complex set of figures taken from a database with no
clear totals then they would not understand it. However, if you knew exactly what they wanted you
might present them with an easy to read graph with clear instructions on the totals sales for each of the last 3 years.

Knowing what the characteristics of good information are is an essential skill to make the correct business decisions. If you liked this article and found it helpful, please feel free to share

**Meaning of Reason:**

Reason is the capacity for consciously making sense of things, applying logic, establishing and verifying facts, and changing or justifying practices, institutions, and beliefs based on new or existing information.

Reason or "reasoning" is associated with thinking, cognition, and intellect. Reason, like habit or intuition, is one of the ways by which thinking comes from one idea to a related idea. For example, it is the means by which rational beings understand themselves to think about cause and effect, truth and falsehood, and what is good or bad. It is also closely identified with the ability to self-consciously change beliefs, attitudes, traditions, and institutions, and therefore with the capacity for freedom and self-determination.

According to Jürgen Habermas, the "substantive unity" of reason has dissolved in modern times, such that it can no longer answer the question "How should I live?" Instead, the unity of reason has to be strictly formal, or "procedural."

**Types of reasoning:**

**Deductive reasoning:**

A subdivision of Philosophy is Logic. Logic is the study of reasoning. Deduction is a form of reasoning in which a conclusion follows necessarily from the stated premises.

Premise 1: All humans are mortal. Premise 2: Socrates is a human. Conclusion: Socrates is mortal.

The reasoning in this argument is valid, because there is no way in which the premises, 1 and 2, could be true and the conclusion, 3, be false.

**Inductive reasoning:**

Induction is a form of inference producing propositions about unobserved objects or types, either specifically or generally, based on previous observation. It is used to ascribe properties or relations to objects or types based on previous observations or experiences, or to formulate general statements or laws based on limited observations of recurring phenomenal patterns.
Inductive reasoning contrasts strongly with deductive reasoning in that, even in the best, or strongest, cases of inductive reasoning, the truth of the premises does not guarantee the truth of the conclusion. Instead, the conclusion of an inductive argument follows with some degree of probability. Relatedly, the conclusion of an inductive argument contains more information than is already contained in the premises. Thus, this method of reasoning is implicative.

Meaning of belief:
Belief is the state of mind in which a person thinks something to be the case, with or without there being empirical evidence to prove that something is the case with factual certainty.

Belief is, it is a mental representation of an attitude positively oriented towards the likelihood of something being true. In epistemology, philosophers use the term ‘belief’ to refer to personal attitudes associated with true or false ideas and concepts. However, ‘belief’ does not require active introspection and circumspection.

Belief is a common label for convictions, surmises, suppositions, expectations.

Importance of Belief:
Beliefs are important because behavior is important and your behavior depends on your beliefs. Everything you do can be traced back to beliefs you hold about the world — everything from brushing your teeth to your career. Beliefs also help determine your reactions to others' behavior — for example their refusal to brush their teeth or their own career choices. All this means that beliefs are not an entirely private matter. Even beliefs you try to keep to yourself may influence your actions enough to become a matter of legitimate concern of others.

Distinction between knowledge and skill:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge is the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject.</td>
<td>1. Skills are the proficiencies developed through training or experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge refers to learning concepts, principles and information regarding a particular subject(s) by a person through books, media, encyclopedias, academic institutions and other sources.</td>
<td>2. Skill refers to the ability of using that information and applying it in a context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Knowledge is an understanding. It’s mental or theoretical, rather than practical. Knowledge can be gleaned from a book, and you can gain knowledge by researching online or visiting your local library.

3. Skills can be developed and improved over time, by combining our abilities and our knowledge, but the underlying abilities are needed in order for the skills to be developed.

Distinction between Knowledge and Information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge, cannot really be managed because it resides in one’s mind</td>
<td>1. Information is much more easily identified, organized and distribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge is the broadest: it includes facts and ideas, understanding, and the totality of what is known.</td>
<td>2. Information is usually construed as being narrower in scope than Knowledge.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. The process of acquiring knowledge in science is targeted at discovering some new objective laws, typical of this process, laws related to all phenomena of the reality</td>
<td>3. Information explains already exists in the science, laws, all phenomena.</td>
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Distinction between Reason and Belief:

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<thead>
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<th>Reason</th>
<th>Belief</th>
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<td>2. Reason makes scientifically.</td>
<td>2. Belief makes not scientifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reason try to create new one</td>
<td>3. Belief gives the confidence while create new one.</td>
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Index Questions:

1. **Definition**: Epistemology, Knowledge, Skill, Teaching, Training, Information, Belief.

2. **Distinction Between**:
   1. Knowledge and Skill
   2. Teaching and Training
3. Knowledge and Information
4. Reason and Belief

3. How knowledge and skill are help the student and their critical life situation?
4. Write merits of Teaching and Training

Supplementary Materials

- http://www.unesco.org/
- http://www.wikipedia.org/

Reference:

- Hirsch’s E. D. Knowledge and the Curriculum A collection of essays to accompany lecture at Policy Exchange
  - Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement
UNIT-2: SOCIAL BASES OF EDUCATION

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course, the student-teachers will be able to:

• explain an influence of society, culture and modernity on education
• discuss an industrialization and democracy on education.
• comprehend the social justice and dignity

INTRODUCTION

The social base of education is the study of social institutions and individual experiences affect education and its outcome. Education is concerned with all forms of education is formal and informal education systems of modern industrial societies. After the advancement and engagement of human capital (work force) in industrialization America and Europe gave rise to the social mobility. Now it is easier to move up to the upper strata of society gaining technical skills, knowledge. People who were farmer earlier became worker in factories. In that period social mobility was at top gear. And we began to think that Education promotes social mobility and undermines the class stratification. It gained interest and lot of sociological studies done on the subject. Statistical and field research across numerous societies showed a persistent link between an individual's social class and achievement, and suggested that education could only achieve limited social mobility.

INFLUENCE OF SOCIETY ON EDUCATION

Society and education are two inseparable elements in our world. It has always been in talks how education influences the society. The things we are taught and what we learn through our schooling affects the kind of person we are and consequently influences the society as a whole. But seldom do we tackle on society influence on education.

In definition, society is an extended social group having a distinctive cultural and economic organization. The building blocks of society are we human beings. People interact creates the pattern of relationships between individuals and thus characterizes the society according to the systems of customs, values, and laws.
Education plays a very important role in molding the character of an individual. It is one of the concrete sources from which one get information and knowledge. It affects the society. We can make sense of its effective role from the following points

1. *Preservation and transmission of our social, moral and cultural value*

   In Education, through curriculum, students will be acquainted with social, moral and cultural values and teachers make them familiar with values and ideal through different activities, games, story-telling etc. Education makes them familiar with constitution, rules and regulations of citizens and so on. As we find in NPE 1986 major objectives to produce a productive citizen has been fulfilled by education so education preserves our value and make others to imbibe those values.

2. *Awakening of Social feelings*

   Through education individuals become aware about the importance of unity, love, fraternity and other values. Education makes all people get awakened of being a part of society and they can contribute the world as society. People know different values and life skills and thus they develop concern for society including social mindedness, values life skills, learning to be, learning to do, learning to know, learning to live together via different activities story telling dramatization.

3. *Political development of society*

   Education makes all aware about rights and duties of all, which are their responsibilities and duties so that they can develop their civic sense. Through different lesson of political leaders and stories education develop ideal leadership quality so that in future citizens can lead to state as a society.

4. Economic development of society

   Education develops skills in individual and makes him a productive citizen. Through education everyone learns how to earn money and as per their qualification he gets job or labor and on the whole with the help of education more or less everyone get work and earn money so due to increasing literacy per capita income will increase. As we find government take help in the form of tax and thus our economy develops. Because of education people migrate in other country and their earning helps to develop society, country. Thus education affects the economic development of society.
5. **Social control**

Education makes all aware about customs and duties the same as it makes aware about the rules and regulations as we find the rules in Indian constitution. People know how to preserve their lives via education. They make also familiar with crimes. Thus education provides a guideline and it controls all society.

6. **Social changes and reforms**

Education makes individuals perfects and aware about the rights. So can claim against dwelled superstitions, beliefs which are harmful for them. Through education everyone learn grow to live and to save from difficulty and how to inculcate values and ideals in their lives and ideals in their lives so they can appeal in court having of felling injustice. Education makes all aware about to live peacefully and to face difficulties on their lives. They become aware about the proverbs like ‘nothing ventured, nothing gained’ so they develop their risk taking attitudes via education.

7. **Socialization of a child**

Education trains the mind of a child and it teaches him how to inculcate values in his life. It makes the child understand what is society, how he is a part of society, what are his roles in society, how he should behave, how he should interact with others etc. Education helps him to understand and it develops a sense if a social being in him. In short education socializes a child. Thus, education produces productive citizens it helps everyone how to flourish and makes them ideal citizens of society. To sum up, Education influences the society.

**Education and Society**

Hence, education must not merely inculcate secularism, realism and liberality in the educed, but must also provide him with the ability to distinguish the right from the wrong. The young people are subject to multiplicity of influences emanating from various sources, and for this reason it is essential that there should be some unity in all this diversity. The absence of such a unity will have disastrous consequences in the form of personality and social disorganization. The first step in this direction is the creation of character, which will grant an adolescent the determination to be guided by his own opinion. It is essential that old and traditional values be explained to the younger generation in the interest of continuity with the older generation but this should not preclude consideration of new values which can lead to progress and development. Education can thus fulfill the needs of society only if it adopts a comprehensive and dynamic curriculum, a dynamic methodology of teaching and dynamic philosophy of education.
INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON EDUCATION

Culture

In anthropological literature the term culture is used in many senses, but in general writings it is used to indicate social charm and intellectual superiority. Even some sociologists believe cultured individuals to be the leaders of society. According to Sorokin and Maclver, culture implies man’s moral, spiritual and intellectual achievements. In the words of Bogardus, “culture is composed of integrated customs, traditions and current patterns of human group. Culture is the stock in trade of group. It is an antecedent complex of value into which every individual is born. It is a medium within which individuals develop and mature.”

In Indian Society the individual is prepared for performing various in society at a very early age by a series of impressions deliberately made upon his mind. For example, the ceremony of marriage places upon the individual’s shoulders the responsibility of procreating and thus ensuring the continuity of the race. Culture includes all those elements for which ceremonies and their consequent impressions are required. It is the process of purification. In ancient India Sanskrit was believed to be the language of the educated people, and this too is intimately concerned with culture, because the Hindi synonym is ‘sanskriti’.

Just as culture influences education, much in the same way education also exerts a powerful influence upon the culture of a country. Following are the various ways by which education influences the culture of a country.

1. **Preservation of Culture:** Each country believes and flaunts the superiority of its own culture over the rest. Hence it tries to preserve its culture in its original form. Education is the only means to complete this task. Thus, education preserves the culture of society.

2. **Transmission of Culture:** The process of preservation includes the process of transmission as well. Transmission of culture from one generation to another is the best guarantee of its preservation. “The function of education is to transmit the social values and ideas to the young and capable members of society.

3. **Development of Culture:** The process of education is to bring about the needed desirable changes in the cultural ideals and values for the progress and continued development of society, without which social progress will stratify and come to naught. Education culturists individuals, modifies cultural processes by research and deeper investigations into all areas of human requirements.
4. **Continuity of Culture**: Culture is the lifeblood of a society is bound to decay and die sooner or later. Education upholds the continuity of culture through its diverse activities and programmes. A society establishes schools to preserve and transmit its culture from generation to generation. But some schools try to develop undesirable cultural chauvinism and superiority complexes among its children. Children should be motivated to learn more and more from cultural interaction among various cultures. They should develop the qualities of tolerance and adjustment together with mutual give and take so that they are able to benefit themselves from the contribution of all cultures. This cultural integration and cultural synthesis is the dire need of the world society in modern times.

5. **Development of personality**: Education aims at developing the personality of the child. It employs diverse cultural patterns of thinking, behaviour and items of cultural values so that children are physically, mentally, socially and emotionally developed to the maximum extent.

6. **Removing Cultural Lag**: While material culture develops at a fast pace due to scientific researchers and inventions, non-material culture consisting of ideals, values and norms lags behind creating a gulf between the two. Education is the only means to bridge this cultural lag by its activities and programmes of development.

**INFLUENCE OF MODERNITY ON EDUCATION**

**Modernity**

Generally, the meaning of modernity is associated with the sweeping changes that took place in the society and particularly in the fields of art and literature, between the late 1950s and the beginning of Second World War. There is, however, no clear demarcation by date, and although the term ‘postmodern’ is increasingly used to describe changes since the Second World War, there are some who argue that modernity persists, and others who see its demise as having occurred much earlier.

When modernity is explained in terms of history, it is said that the world first experienced renaissance, and then, enlightenment and thereafter modernity and post modernity. As a matter of fact, there is much disagreement on the precise dates of the beginning and end of modernity. There appears to be general consensus on its meaning and social formations.
**Modernization through Education**

Education is the most important instrument of modernization since modernization includes the following:

1. Directed change in the system of attitudes, beliefs and values and also in the institutional complex, to enhance the acceptability of modern technology and its organizational and operational framework.
2. Growth of the infrastructure essential to the adaptation to technology of foreign origin to specific national needs.
3. Laying the foundations of institutions and organizations which could, in time, assume responsibility for independent innovation and technological growth to the country’s needs and problems.

*The means of modernization will be discussing:*

1. **Industrialization:** In modern countries industrialization is going on at fast pace. The Western Countries, in industrialization. In particular U.S.A., have helped underdeveloped countries in industrialization. In order to meet the demands of fast growing population, every country must per force become industrialization. Therefore, India is fully resolved to bring about fast industrialization.

2. **Urbanization:** The fast growth of population of this country in the last 50 years has led to fast urbanization in India. The fast industrialization and consequent urbanization has led to many ticklish problems like slum, crimes etc. In order to solve these problems town planning is imperative.

3. **Secularization:** Secularization is a consequence of urbanization. The people of India have adopted the ideal of secularism according to which everybody is free to follow the religion of his choice. Modern society is pluralist. Compassion and tolerance are the chief characteristics of modernization.

4. **Rise of new social classes:** Today, both in the towns and village, the people are divided into classes which are based upon economic and political rather than caste considerations. The distinction between lower, middle and high classes is exclusively economic. The classes based on economic considerations are non-hereditary. A low class person, by dint of his labor and application, may belong to upper class tomorrow. The importance of money and possessions in modern society is paramount. With increasing politicization there is now clear-cut demarcation
between those in power and those out of it. Mostly, economically better off, persons are politically also better off, but this is not essential. The political leaders’ class in India is other than the economically rich support politicians with money and uses them.

5. Social change: The social change can be seen in diverse fields. On the one hand, social movements have greatly changed our ideas and concepts about various social matters and on the other youth moment has brought about revolutionary change in the thinking and aspirations of youth. The youth movement can be seen all over the world, this is a harbinger of new shape of things to come. Today, a particular attention is being paid to encourage youth movements at the university level. From time to time youth functions and festivals are held in the universities in encourages the national integration and also shows the basis for the building up of the future.

6. Westernization: The trend towards modernization in India can be seen in the form of a movement towards westernization of the society. The trend towards westernization can be seen in all fields. In Social, Economic, Political, Cultural, Religious and Educational spheres. Even those who are in favor of retaining the traditional values also want to utilize the good traits of the western and Indian values. They want a synthesis of western and Indian values. The westernization leads to modernization. In the social sphere we are following west in matters like dress, life style and town-planning etc. The latest fashions of the West are quickly followed by the Indian elite. There is more of westernization in the technical and scientific spheres. This has given rise to cultural flag.

7. Democratization: In the field of politics the most characteristic feature of modernization is the process of democratization. India is becoming progressively democratized. There is in India universal adult franchise. Everybody above a certain age is entitled to elect his representative. Everybody is equal before law and enjoys rights and privileges. In the economic sphere an attempt is being made to reduce economic disparities. The compulsory primary education is aiming at universal literacy. All political parties are wedded to the values of equality, liberty and freedom. There may be differing viewpoints regarding the means to attain these values but there is no dispute about their validity and acceptance as the ultimate goals of political endeavor.

INFLUENCE OF INDUSTRIALIZATION AND DEMOCRACY

Industrialization

Previously the people used to spin cloths through spindles and live in traditional ways and use their old patterns of occupation and places of residence. When the industrialization of a country
takes places, the people give up their traditional rural and agricultural economy. Its place is taken over by industrialization. New factories and mills continue to grow daily and use latest techniques.

**Democracy**

Abraham Lincoln defined democracy as a government of the people, by the people and for the people. Despite the frequent attempts at defining democracy, the is probably the most accurate description. In a democracy one finds a government of the people which is made up of the elected representatives of the people, elected on the basis of adult suffrage. The ideals of democracy are liberty, equality and fraternity. Democracy aims to establish political, economic and social equality, and gives every individual the constitutional right to express his own opinion, to associate with any group, to indulge in any legitimate action. The final objective of democracy is not merely successful government but the creation of an ideal society in which people have the greatest chance of evolving brotherhood. Democracy seeks to create an environment which is conducive to the highest and most beneficial development of the human personality.

Democratic education begins with the premise that everyone is unique, so each of us learns in a different way. By supporting the individual development of each young person within a caring community, democratic education helps young people learn about themselves, engage with the world around them, and become positive and contributing members of society.

*The influence of democracy on education is evident on the working of the following elements:*

1. **Provision of Equal Opportunities and Recognition of Individual Differences**

   In a democratic set up, each child is a sacred and valuable entity of society. As such, equal opportunities are made available to one and all for their fullest development.

   In this connection the principle of individual differences is given proper recognition and therefore each child receive proper support according to his interests, aptitudes and capacities to develop his individuality to the fullest extent.

2. **Universal and Compulsory Education**

   In democracy, the reins of government remain in the hands of the people. Hence, common people must be so educated that they develop themselves as responsible and dynamic citizen’s conscious of their rights and duties, fully conversant with their national and international obligations, well aware with the government procedures anti-administration processes.
3. Provision of Adult Education
   Under the influence of democratic tendency, in different countries, emphasis is being laid upon adult education, women education and education of the mentally retorted and physically handicapped. Schemes are under operation in our country also for the effective education of the adults who constitute a bulk of our entire population. Night-schools, short-term-courses, one Jay schools and the schemes are being launched to solve this stupendous problem.

4. Free Education
   The principle of universal and compulsory education involves free education to all irrespective of their social or monetary status. Hence, education is now regarded as the birth right of each child irrespective of color, caste, creed and sex.

   In almost all democratic countries, education has been made free up to a certain standard. In addition, education of the physically and mentally handicapped is also receiving proper and increasingly effective attention.

5. Child Centered Education
   Democratic way of thinking emphasizes the importance of each child as sacred individuality. Hence, educational schemes and plans are so structured that each child receives full attention and full facilities to develop his individuality to the fullest extent.

6. Methods of Teaching
   Under the impact of democratic tendency, method of teaching is undergoing revolutionary changes. Old, traditional and mass education methods are being gradually replaced by individual attention methods. Nothing is now enforce or thrust in by force.

   Self-learning devices are encouraged and such methods are promoted which motivate children to pay attention and learn by their own efforts. Such wholesome and welcome environment is created wherein children search for truth, gain knowledge by their own efforts and learn by their own experience.
7. Social Activities

Bookish and academic activities are not over-emphasized in schools now-a-days. Proper attention is paid to social, cultural and co-curricular activities, so that children develop in a wholesome way and gain more and more social experience.

8. Importance of Individual Attention

As discussed above, each child receives individual attention. His family background, his own interests, likes and dislikes, his needs and capacities are fully taken care off in all plans of educational development, the purpose being to achieve the maximum development of personality.

9. Student Unions

Student unions and student welfare associations are formed in institutions to promote student welfare in all spheres with the aim of achieving balanced, dynamic, efficient and socially motivated personalities.

10. School Administration

To inculcate in children the sense of self-discipline and self-administration, their association with school administration is being welcomed. Such schemes are being formulated in various institutions where student participation in actual educational and school administration is a fact.

11. Respect of Teacher’s Personality

Democratic philosophy respects teacher as a very dynamic and effective agency of social change for social progress. Thus, teachers are now made to participate more and more in curriculum construction and educational planning.

Side by side, they are allowed to experiment freely in respect to methods, techniques and devices of teaching as well as materials which aid teaching procedures and processes. Not only this, more and more plans are being laid and worked out for increasing the professional competency of teachers.
12. Intelligence Tests

Schemes of intelligence tests are under operation in various institutions all over the world to evaluate the mental capacity, growth and achievement of children. Diagnostic tests are proving very useful for this purpose.

13. Physical Health of Children

To promote physical well-being of children, facilities for games and sports, gymnasia, medical tests and medical help are being provided freely and on an increasing scale. Medical check-up, advice and medicines are now provided to the needy.

14. Co-operation between all Agencies of Education

In a democratic set up, all the agencies of education co-operate actively for the development of children. Hence, under the influence of democratic tendency, schemes are being formulated now-a-days to establish co-operation between all the agencies of education namely-family, school, community, church and state.

15. School

School is now regarded as a centre of promoting national consciousness and international understanding. Education for dynamic citizenship is associated with education for national and international understanding, amity and fellow-feeling. Thus, school is now regarded as a miniature of society.

INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL AUTONOMY AND REASON ON EDUCATION

Autonomy is a widely used concept in education policy and practice. The etymology of the concept derives from the Greek autonomous ‘having its own laws’. As such, the debates around the concept circulate around individuals’ or groups’ ability and capacity to self-rule, and the governance and/or constraints, which limit such a capacity. However, autonomy has also been widely contested in philosophy; the concept has been defined in a variety of ways. In educational research too, the concept has been debated from varying viewpoints, as, for example, scholars engaged in education history, education sociology and policy and pedagogy have all problematical and defined its meaning in relation to education.

When applied to educational practice, this nuanced and complex concept may indeed mean a variety of things. Take school-level autonomy as an example. Schools are complicated
social systems in which multiple actors operate in different roles, and in which one's scope of action may affect the decision-making capacity of that of others. The question of who in a school community may possess autonomy (e.g. the teachers, the principals, or the learners) has fundamental implications for the ways in which the school operates. Also, the matters over which the members of the school community enjoy autonomy have important implications for what school autonomy means in practice. If we consider teacher autonomy more closely, it becomes apparent that teacher autonomy is often understood in terms of a dichotomous pairing of constraint vs. freedom. Focusing on the ways in which autonomy is constrained, as well as the matters over which autonomy is enjoyed and by whom. Therefore, teacher autonomy should be distinguished from other forms of autonomy, for example, school or local autonomy. Indeed, increased school autonomy, or local autonomy, as witnessed, for example, in relation to the Friskola movement in Sweden or Academies movement in England, does not automatically grant to teachers an increased scope of action.

Moreover, the teacher autonomy debate has been influenced by and reflects wider global education trends and international comparisons. Indeed, autonomy has been a central concept in education policy in Nordic countries as well as elsewhere. Recently, this could be seen, for example, in relation to ‘PISA envy’, and the ways in which Finland's consistent success in PISA has been explained, at least partly, through its highly educated and autonomous teaching workforce. However, as the contributions in this issue highlight, international comparisons concerning teacher autonomy must remain sensitive to the national and local contexts in which teachers operate, and consider what autonomy actually means for teachers in those.

As such, this issue highlights the importance of context when studying the autonomy of individuals or groups, and provides opportunities to engage with different educational traditions. It also offers conceptual tools for investigating autonomy in education. Which are more extensively cited in Anglo-American research, have the potential to inform continental European discourses around autonomy? Furthermore, the empirical studies from different countries cast light on the complexities inherent in local settings and the nature of autonomy of actors operating in these settings. Although valuable accounts are provided from different national and local contexts, possible comparisons are left to the discretion of the reader. Indeed, there is a need for further comparative research that investigates autonomy in different national contexts, in order to develop a better understanding of what autonomy really means for educators, learners, managers and administrators in different national contexts.
In education, the concept of autonomy is perhaps most commonly discussed in reference to professional independence in schools, particularly the degree to which teachers can make autonomous decisions about what they teach to students and how they teach it. For a more detailed discussion of this issue, see teacher autonomy.

That said, the concept of autonomy in public education may take several different forms:

- **Local-governance autonomy:** In education, the degree to which local governing bodies such as school districts and school boards can make independent decisions about how to structure and operate public schools is a common topic of study, discussion, and debate in the United States. Those who advocate for greater autonomy in the governance of schools tend to argue that the individuals and institutions closest to, most knowledgeable about, and most invested in a school and in the welfare and success of its educators, students, and communities are best suited to making important decisions related to operations, academics, leadership, teaching, and improvement. This general philosophy of governance is often contrasted with state or federal educational policies that are intended to influence the structure, operation, or academic programs in districts and public schools, given that autonomy in local governance is directly related to the level of prescription articulated in state and federal education laws, regulations, and related compliance rules and requirements. Autonomy in local governance also intersects with two related educational terms and concepts: “local control” and “site-based management,” both of which refer to the ability of local institutions and governing bodies to make autonomous decisions about the management of public schools. In some states and regions, local control is a complicated and often contentious issue. In New England, for example, there is a long history of local control over public schools, typically in the form of school boards or school unions, while state-directed control of public schools is less controversial or contentious in the southern states, which do not have the same history of local control over public schools. For a more detailed discussion, see local control.

- **School autonomy:** The concept of autonomy also intersects with the governance and design of specific schools. For example, charter schools privately operated schools funded partially or entirely by public money, often in the form of student tuition paid by states and communities are generally considered to have more autonomy when it comes to making
decisions about how the school will operate and teach students. Charter-school regulations, however, can differ significantly from state to state: some states have more prescriptive or involved regulations governing the operation of charter schools, while others have more permissive policies, lighter governmental oversight, and less demanding compliance requirements. As with issues related to local governance, the autonomy of individual public schools is directly related to the level of prescription articulated in state and federal education policies, regulations, and related compliance rules and requirements.

- **Teacher autonomy:** The concept of “teacher autonomy” is a common topic of discussion and debate in education. Advocates of greater teacher autonomy may argue that because teachers are in the best position to make informed decisions about a student’s education, teachers should be given as much autonomy as possible when it comes to determining instructional strategies, curriculum, and academic support. In this view, for example, more regulations, tougher job requirements, greater administrative oversight, or more burdensome teacher-evaluation procedures will inevitably stifle the instructional creativity and responsiveness of teachers, which could produce a variety of negative results, including lower student performance or higher job dissatisfaction and attrition rates among teachers. Critics of teacher autonomy tend to cite evidence that teaching quality and effectiveness is uneven, and that problems such as achievement gaps or low graduation rates indicate that measures need to be taken to improve the effectiveness of teachers and public-school instruction, including more administrative oversight, increased educational and professional requirements for new teachers, stronger evaluation systems for job performance, or penalties for poor-performing teachers.

- **Parent autonomy:** In recent years, the idea of parents playing a role in the operation and management of a school has become increasingly popular and contentious. While some debates are centered on the degree of control that parents should have over what gets taught to their children particularly when it comes to subjects that are broadly contentious in American society, such as sex education or the teaching of evolution others are focused on issues related to leadership and management. For example, so called “parent trigger laws” allow parents to intervene when the school their children attend is deemed “low performing.” Although laws differ from state to state, they usually allow parent groups to create petitions that, with enough signatures, can “trigger” a variety of actions, such as converting a public school into a charter school, firing and replacing the school’s administration and faculty, or closing the school and sending its students to alternate
schools. In some states, laws allow committees or councils of parents to play a role in the management of schools, which can even extend to participating in decisions related to the hiring and firing of school administrators. In many cases, however, parent committees play only an advisory role in a school or district, and their recommendations may or may not be acted upon.

- **Student autonomy:** In recent years, educators have increasingly discussed and debated the degree to which students should be given more autonomy in the educational process. For example, the concept of “student voice” is often used in reference to instructional approaches and techniques that take into consideration student choices, interests, passions, and ambitions. Some educators argue that students should play a more active role in designing or selecting learning experiences in schools, and that such approaches can encourage students to be more interested in school, more motivated to learn, and more likely to take greater responsibility over their education. In addition, the terms student autonomy or learner autonomy may refer to various theories of education that suggest learning improves when students take more control or responsibility over their own learning process. For related discussions, see differentiation, personalized learning, scaffolding, student-centered learning, and student engagement.

UNDERSTANDING EDUCATION IN RELATION TO MODERN VALUES: EQUITY AND EQUALITY, INDIVIDUAL OPPORTUNITY

*Education and values*

According to Reid, "Education is part of life, and clearly our questions about values and education are insuperable from questions of values in life. Values are embodied in educational practice”. Thus education develops a sense of discrimination between good and bad. This discrimination is based on values. And these value are tested in school.

To quote W.H.Kilpatrick, "The teacher must have an essential part of his professional equipment, which is here called map of values”. Such a map consists of his hopes, aims, ideals, all the cherished values which he will use as aims in guiding those things. Teaching should aim continually on keeping this aggregate of values alive and growing but especially it should include all that the teacher hopes for students to learn so as life for them becomes as rich and fine as possible. In other words, "Aims are an end in themselves and values are product.” Values of education are the same as of life. These educational values are individual as well as social.
Equity: The briefing explains two dimensions essential to equity in education:

1. **Fairness** – defined as making sure that personal and social circumstances – for example gender, socio-economic status or ethnic origin – should not be an obstacle to achieving educational potential.

2. **Inclusion** – defined as ensuring a basic minimum standard of education for all – for example that everyone should be able to read, write and do simple arithmetic.

Equality: Equality is about ensuring that every individual has an equal opportunity to make the most of their lives and talents, and believing that no one should have poorer life chances because of where, what or whom they were born, what they believe, or whether they have a disability. Equality recognizes that historically, certain groups of people with particular characteristics e.g. race, disability, sex and sexuality, have experienced discrimination.

**Equity vs. Equality**

- One of the differences is the fact that equality obviously denotes that everyone is at the same level, whereas equity, in business parlance, denotes the ownership of the shares of a company. Equality alludes to the identical apportionment where dealings, values or qualities are concerned. Equity represents fairness, or what may be termed as the equality of outcomes. This involves factoring in aspects of the system that have put particular groups at a disadvantage.

- An example, which would bring out the principal difference between the two, would be how a turkey may be carved up at family’s dinner table. Equality would mean that everybody ‘father, mother and children – would get a piece of the same size. Equity, on the other hand, would mean that they take the sensible option, and divide it according to their needs, i.e. larger sized pieces for the adult and smaller pieces for the children.

- When we say equity, we refer to the qualities of justness, fairness, impartiality and even handedness. When we talk about equality, we are talking about equal sharing and exact division.

- A perfect example of the practical demonstration of the difference between the two concepts is the feminist movement. Now, if women demand they should be treated in the same way as men that would not be possible – equality would not be possible – because women and men are different, and cannot be treated in exactly the same way. However, if they demanded equity in how the world treats them, it would be a genuine demand, because now
they are demanding that they be given the same rights as men have as human beings. It is equity that is desirable, not sameness.

- If one were to take a classical example to distinguish between the two concepts, one could go back to the days of the cold war when the communist bloc countries tried to practice equality by paying everyone the same, irrespective of their station in life. The capitalist block, on the other hand, paid according to merit and productivity. The efficacy of the later approach is brought out by the subsequent collapse of the communist order.

**Equity in Education**

- Historically, many discussions of equity in education have focussed on inputs into education such as physical and human resources or the funding required to provide such resources. Some see educational equity as meaning equal educational resources or inputs for all students, for which per-student expenditure is often considered a proxy.
- However, students are different in terms of what they need to reach any particular level of achievement. Some students will achieve at much lower levels at a given input level than others because they come from a disadvantaged social environment or because they have special educational needs.
- It is educational outcomes rather than inputs which are the ultimate focus of education policy goals. Inputs to education are a means to an end, namely, the education outcomes expected for all children in modern society. Because the needs of students differ, equity in education is likely to require unequal resources applied to different students to obtain expected outcomes. To give priority to equity in education inputs for students is to pursue a goal of inequity in education outcomes.
- The Review committee’s definition of equity clearly sees it in terms of education outcomes. This is a sound approach. However, its definition needs to be expanded upon to provide clear direction for education policy and school funding. This brief proposes that equity in education should comprise a dual objective:
  - All children should receive an adequate education; and
  - Children from different social groups should achieve similar average results.

**Equality in education**

- The goal of equity in education outcomes is a more socially just one than the commonly advocated goal of equality of opportunity.
• Equality of opportunity has long been the goal of those striving for a more democratic education system and to extend education to vast numbers of people previously excluded from extended schooling. Traditionally, it has been interpreted as providing all students with the opportunity to pursue their talents. The strong value behind this idea is that the quality of education received by each child should not be dependent on the level of wealth and education his or her family.

• However, there is also a strong meritocratic aspect to this idea. Equal opportunity in education involved the removal of hindrances to the development of individual talent and diligence, irrespective of social origin. The most able must be identified and educated to the hilt of their potential, quite irrespective of their social origins. Its core belief is that everyone should have an equal opportunity to succeed and have access to the highest status occupations and positions of power and influence. It is the role of the education system to identify these talented people.

• If everyone has a chance, according to the rules, to win the prize in open competition with their peers, then winners (and losers) deserve what they have earned. Everyone has had an equal opportunity to fulfil their potential. In this sense, equality of opportunity means equal chances to become unequal.

• The idea of equality of opportunity is often seen as providing the opportunities to learn without reference to the outcomes. It does not require any particular level of achievement for all students. It is also consistent with wide inequalities in outcomes between students from different social backgrounds. Students are given the opportunity to find success and if they fail to take up these opportunities it is attributed to their lack of talent or motivation. Those who do not succeed are judged to be not capable of succeeding. As a result, many see the concept equality of opportunity in education as inherently flawed and fundamentally unjust.

• As such, equality of educational opportunity is a recipe for continuing inequity. It is a fundamentally unjust principle. Adoption of equality of opportunity as an education goal fails to challenge the massive social inequities in education. As a result, these inequalities may be legitimised as the natural order of things.

• Despite these criticisms, the idea of equality of opportunity has a strong resonance in the community as the right of all children to have a successful education to a high level, irrespective of family background. It can be viewed not just as providing the opportunity to succeed at school but the opportunity to succeed in life. It should be seen as the equality of
opportunity to participate fully in adult society or equality of opportunity in future prospects. Such an interpretation of equality of opportunity is not dissimilar to the idea of providing each child with the capacities needed for adulthood and participation in modern society. Nor is it inconsistent with the idea that students from different social groups should have similar prospects as adults.

UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL JUSTICE AND DIGNITY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO AMBEDKAR

Social Justice

“Social justice” has been defined in a variety of ways. Amongst them, they incorporate concepts of basic rights, the realisation of human potential, social benefit, a healthy planet, an equitable distribution of resources, equal opportunities and obligations, security, and freedom from discrimination. Economic justice really forms a part of social justice. It seeks the equitable distribution of world’s natural and intellectual wealth so that everyone is able to gain a fair share.

Social justice means equal rights for all, regardless of gender, race, class, ethnicity, citizenship, religion, age or sexual orientation. It implies equal rights for women and girls in workplaces, homes and public life. It implies economic justice – which means governments must take active steps to alleviate poverty and redress past injustices.

Dignity

Caste and consequent graded structure has been a dominant issue in Ambedkar’s quest and vision of Social Justice. He was deeply conscious of the fact that Indian society was and had been caste ridden. In the past, there existed no such area of social existence and governance where caste as political, social, economic, educational and cultural factor was not present. Even today, after more than six decades of introduction of Republican Constitution, the caste factor is dominant in every sphere of life of the people of this country. Before the commencement of Ambedkar era, there were the untouchable Hindus in India, who due to Hindu social system, had, remained socially graded, economically impoverished, politically suppressed, religiously ostracized and indefinitely excluded from educational and cultural opportunities. They were condemned to the lot of serfs and deprived of all human rights
Dr. B.R. Ambedkar’s birth in an untouchable community and in a system based on the graded inequality and injustice and deprivation of basic human rights to his brethren was responsible for giving a purpose and a mission of his life. “Ambedkar was all sound and fury against social injustice. His weaponry was legal-political, his anathema Hindu caste exclusivism and his ambition social democracy…His life was a planning forge, his commitment was to free the ancient un free, his economics, law and politics were welded into a constitutional militancy and geared to social emancipation movement.” Recalling his struggle for Social Justice, both in pre-Independent India, and in Constituent Assembly and more importantly to ponder over its continued relevance today is always an enriching exercise.

One of the key themes of the writings of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar was the attainment of Social Justice and establishment of a just society, which, for him, was essentially also a casteless society. He not only provided a ruthless criticism of the existing social order but also came up with an alternative vision and alternative model of social order based on justice liberty, equality, fraternity and annihilation of caste. Ambedkar was convinced that a good social order or society has to go through two tests namely ‘the test of justice’ and the ‘test of utility’. His judgmental analysis of the caste based Hindu social order was based on these two tests.

In the writings of most contemporary political philosophers, social justice is regarded as an aspect of distributive justice and indeed the two concepts are often used interchangeably. Social justice rightly understood is a specific habit of justice that is “social” in two senses. First, the skills it requires are those of inspiring, working with, and organizing others to accomplish together a work of justice. These are the elementary skills of civil society, through which free citizens exercise self–government by doing for themselves (that is, without turning to government) what needs to be done.

The second characteristic of “social justice rightly understood” is that it aims at the good of the society, not at the good of one agent only. Citizens may join together to start a school or build a bridge. One significant characteristic of this definition of the virtue of social justice is that it is ideologically neutral. It is as open to people on the left as on the right or in the centre. Its field of activity may be literary, scientific, religious, political, economic, cultural, athletic, and so on, across the whole spectrum of human social activities.

The basic premise of social justice is the emancipation of the underprivileged, exploited, and oppressed sections of society. Its main aim is to liberate mankind from traditional bondages of
social and economic exploitation and discrimination. It postulates a social order which can guarantee freedom and equal rights to all sections of society. The concept of social justice is closely linked with human rights as envisaged by the United Nations in its 1948 declaration and fundamental rights as provided in the Constitution of India but they are not synonymous. Fundamental rights, i.e. the right to freedom and equality, the right against exploitation, and right to constitutional remedies, etc. are essential for the free and natural development of the human personality and hence are the backbone of a just social order but they are subject to control or limits if they adversely affect the pattern of social justice in society.

Social Justice encompasses economic justice. It is the virtue which guides us in creating those organized human interactions which we call institutions. Social justice is also equated with equality, liberty and dignity; which mean that all three are essential for social justice and that denial of any one of them is a denial of justice. Dignity is generally coterminous with freedom and equality. An illiterate, poor and ill fed person is hardly said to have any dignity.

Ambedkar cited that untouchability was unique in Indian society. Even the British Government had not done any good for improving the plight of untouchables. They had also denied them the political rights. He said that untouchables were:

1. Socialized in such a way as to never to complain of their low status.
2. Never allowed to dream of improving their lot by forcing the other castes to treat them with common.
3. Made to think that they had been born so low that their fate was anything but irrevocable.
4. Given to believe that nothing could ever persuade them that they have the right to insist on better treatment than that meted out to them.

Ambedkar had taken a vow to expose and finally do away with the abominable conditions and inhuman injustice under which the class, into which, he was born had been groaning. He never failed in highlighting that the untouchable was prohibited from using the public road. If some high caste man happened to cross him, he had to be out of the way and stand at such a distance that his shadow will not fall on the high caste man. Helplessness made the untouchables live like slaves in Hindu society. The charter of fundamental rights and the Directive Principles of State Policy sought to incorporate the ideas of Human Rights in the constitution of India.

Ambedkar believed in the maxim, “Tell the slave that he is a slave and he will revolt against
In the Indian context, justice as seen was an important social value in terms of the strict observance of Dharma or the enforcement of a social order based on the *Varna-Ashram Vyavastha* reflected in an elaborate caste system. This established order, according to Ambedkar, was based on graded inequality and was legitimized by Hindu Law, which completely neglected equality, fraternity, liberty, democracy and human rights. He was also of the view that the system of graded inequality was not notional but legal and penal as it entailed strict enforcement of Hindu Law which meant different things to different castes and people and contained no notion of equal treatment to all. This fact has been highlighted by Ambedkar thus: “Hindu Law is the Law of the established order and was made by the touchable. The Untouchables had nothing to do except to obey it and respect it. The untouchables have no right against the touchable. For them there is no equal right, no justice, which is due to them, and nothing is allowed to them. Nothing is due to them except what the touchable are prepared to grant. The Untouchables must not insist on rights.

The road to social justice in the opinion of Ambedkar was to be led by education. He firmly believed in the efficacy of education as a panacea for the social evils and injustice because the problem of social injustice in India is not only economic but also cultural. Here, it is not enough to house the untouchables/deprived sections of society, feed them and then leave them to serve the higher classes as was the ancient ideal of this country. It was even more necessary to remove from their minds/psyche that feeling of inferiority which has shunted their growth and made them slaves others and to create in them a consciousness of significance of life for themselves and for their country of which they have been cruelly robbed by the Indian social order. Ambedkar was convinced that nothing could achieve this better than the spread of higher education and the fact remains as true in present times as it was when Ambedkar wrote.

To Ambedkar, the aim of democracy is essentially the practical interests of society as a whole, and not of any class group or community. He regards democracy as the social Organization of the people in the sense that the people include all members of society. To him, real democracy is opposed to the suppression of minorities.

Democracy was an essential ingredient of Ambedkar’s vision of Social Justice. For this, there is no denying that self-government must be good government, otherwise it is not worth having. The primary concern of his life had always been to study and understand the nature of good government. He stood for a self-government which should be both efficient and good government. To him, the ability and efficiency of the governing class are not enough for good
government. ‘What is necessary is to have in the governing class the will to do good or, to use Dicey’s language, freedom from internal limitations arising out of selfish class interests. Efficiency combined with selfish class interests instead of producing good government is far more likely to become a mere engine of suppression of the service classes[30].’ He argued, therefore, not only for self-government but also for a good government. He had a deep faith in self-government and good government, which, in his view, could go a long way in ensuring social justice.

Ambedkar’s vision of social justice also includes a strong faith in the separation of the government’s power and of the allocation of functions to various departments. He builds his theory of social and political organization around his central concept of the individual and his rights. To him, the State exists only to prevent injustice, tyranny and oppression. He wants that no State should violate the fundamental rights of man. He is opposed to all kinds of discrimination in administration. He holds that society can do nothing without some organized power. He stresses the need of constitutional morality and some conventions for the practical success of a constitution. He wishes a good, moral government, to protect the rights of the people in all their legitimate functions. He fought for these rights in his life.

According to Ambedkar, law is an important factor in maintaining social peace and justice among different groups of people. It is a guardian of equality and liberty. For him, law was not only a legal function. It also regulated the life of the whole society and nation as well. He categorically declared, ‘All citizens are equal before the law and possess equal civic rights.

His attitude toward social justice was humanistic as well as nationalistic. His approach was twofold. He wanted not only freedom from foreign domination, but also internal freedom for the people to whom it was denied. He says, ‘We must have a Government in which men in power knowing where obedience will end and resistance will begin, will not be afraid to amend the social and economic code of life which the dictates of justice and expediency so urgently call for. This role the British Government will never be able to play. It is only a Government which is of the people, for the people and by the people that will make this possible.

During the British period Ambedkar was undoubtedly the most articulate spokesman of the exploited and downtrodden in Indian society, particularly of the Depressed Classes. He held pragmatic and uncompromising views on the amelioration of the sufferings of these classes and the role of the government in this regard. He came out vociferously and eloquently in support of
adequate representation and constitutional safeguards for the Depressed Classes in his innumerable statements, representations and evidences.

Thus, Ambedkar’s conception of political power was aimed at securing social justice for the deprived on more equitable and honourable terms. But for him, political justice was not enough for the welfare and well being of the Untouchables. He considered socio-economic justice as the precondition for redeeming political justice. Moreover, his vision of social justice involves a normative element also in as much as it aims at the desirability of goodness in social life, dignity of the individual, equal rights of man and woman, promotion of social progress and better standards of life with peace and security in all spheres of human life.

CONCLUSION

The social base of education, as a sub-discipline of both education and sociology, has contributed much to the understanding of educational processes. As a source of information and training for future teachers, and as a source of information for policy makers, it continues to draw attention to the social context of what goes on in schools. The tensions within the social base of education will no doubt continue, but the sub-discipline as a whole is so eclectic and robust that this can only be a sign of its strength. In either case, the sociology of education uniquely focuses attention on the social context of educational structures and processes, and its contribution will continue to be invaluable for understanding and reforming educational systems, particularly as they change to accommodate new social needs and new technologies.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. What is the Concept of Society on Education?
2. What is diversity in education?
3. Describe the democratic education.
5. What is the general idea of multicultural education?

SUGGESTED READING / REFERENCE BOOK


• source.south university.edu/...fluence on –education

• folk.uio.no/sveinsj/STE-paper-sjoberg-UNESCO2.htm.

• teacherwebcom/...iddle/Godfrey/8.6.1- influence of

• plato.stanford.edu/entries/democracy
UNIT -3 CHILD-CENTRED EDUCATION

Course Objectives
At the end of the unit, the student-teacher will be able to

- explain the concepts of child centred education.
- explain the strategies of discoveries related to child centred education.
- explain the strategies of activities to the students.
- explain the educational thoughts different authors.

INTRODUCTION

All children have a right to an education that helps them grow and develop to their fullest form. Child centred learning aims to develop skills and practices of learner. The great philosophers and educationalists like Rousseau, Tagore, Froebel, Pestalozzi and Montessori have given emphasis on the child-centred Education at different times.

Meaning of Child-Centred Education

Child-centred education is a sort of revolt against subject-centred education. Child-centred Education seeks to provide natural flow of activity and spontaneous growth of the child. He must be allowed to enjoy complete freedom of action subject to the condition that he should not interfere with the freedom of others.

Characteristics of Child-Centred Education

As child is the Centre of Education, development of mind, body and spirit of the child should be reflected in the programme and planning of education.

Rousseau advocates that child should be allowed to learn from nature in his natural way without any interference from the adult his individuality should be respected, that his natural interests like play and curiosity should form the basis of his education, books should be avoided particularly at the early stage. More emphasis should be given to the child sensory and natural development.

The following points need to be considered for promoting child-centred education.
(i) Freedom:

Education was not the privilege of any single class but the right of every child belonging to different classes.

Freedom was granted to the child to discover things than getting secondhand information through books.

Emphasis was as they like given on the freedom of children to learn and create.

(ii) Self-activities:

Plays, games and songs and occupations should be developed and designed especially to stimulate the child's self-activity.

Great stress on self development of the child and child's activity should stem from his own interests.

(iii) Process of spontaneous development:

The child progresses at its own speed in a subject.

The role of the teacher is to understand the child.

The child's freedom and individuality have found expression spontaneously in the lap of nature.

(iv) Development of interest and needs:

The education of child depends on his interest and needs.

The physical, social, moral and spiritual development of the child is "the main objective of the child-centred Education.

(v) Education-based on experience:

The main objective of child centred Education is to enable the child to learn through experience which is permanent.

The course and subjects should be experience- oriented to meet the need of the child. Child is the centre of the whole education process. The role of teacher is like a guide and observer to provide
complete freedom to the child to grow naturally. Child-centred Education is the ideal system to manifest the latent talent of the child.

Educational thoughts of Mahatma Gandhi

- Education for character building, education thought mother-tongue.
- Place of manual work in education and co-education.
- Hostel residence and community life.
- Moral education though character and good conduct.
- Educational of soul should be imparted thought teacher’s (model) life rather than through books.
- Health education for physical fitness and health and insistence for simple life.
- Importance for self-help and self-reliance, education for thoroughness (strength), education for citizenship.
- Education for self-help and self-reliance, education for personality development.
- Education for avoiding caste and colour distinction, education for vocation useful for life.
- Education for equality of all the religions, education based (founded) on truth, non-violence and justice”.

Activities

- Collecting, processing, preserving and displaying archival materials (writings, photographs, paintings, voice-records, films, personal clothes etc
- Microfilming, lamination and preservation of negatives
- Arranging exhibitions on aspects of Gandhi’s life, literature and activities
- Publication of the “Mahadevbhani Dairy,” which chronicles the entire history of the Indian freedom struggle
- The Ashram Trust funds activities that include education for the visitor, the community and routine maintenance of the museum and its surrounding grounds
• Keeping contact with as well as helping and undertaking study and research in Gandhian thought and activities and publishing the results of such study and research and allied literature for the benefit of the people

• Observance in a suitable manner of occasions connected with Gandhi’s life

• Maintaining contact with the youth and student community and providing facilities to them for the study of Gandhian thought.

Dialogue

1. Conduct night and day schools with just a short course, well conceived, to last for the period of the vacation.

2. Visit Harijan quarters and clean them, taking the assistance of Harijans if they would give it.

3. Taking Harijan children for excursions, showing them sights near the villages and teaching them how to study Nature, and generally interesting them in their surroundings, giving them by the way a working knowledge of geography and history.

4. Reading to them simple stories from the Ramayana and the Mahabharata.

5. Teaching them simple Bhajans (Devotional Songs).

6. Cleaning the Harijan boys of all the dirt that they would find about their persons and giving both, the grown-ups and the children simple lessons in hygiene.

7. Taking a detailed census in selected areas of the condition of the Harijans.

8. Taking medical aid to the ailing Harijans.

9. This is but a sample of what is possible to do among the Harijans. It is a list hurriedly made, but a thoughtful student will, I have no doubt, add many other items

Educational Thoughts of Rabindranath Tagore

Aims of Education According to Tagore (Discovery)

(1) Self Realization:

• Spiritualism is the essence of humanism; this concept has been reflected in Tagore's educational philosophy.

• Self-realization is an important aim of education.
• Manifestation of personality depends upon the self-realization and spiritual knowledge of individual.

2) Intellectual Development:

• Tagore also greatly emphasized the intellectual development of the child.
• By intellectual development he means development of imagination, creative free thinking, constant curiosity and alertness of the mind.
• Child should be free to adopt his own way learning which will lead to all round development.

(3) Physical Development:

• Tagore's educational philosophy also aims at the physical development of the child.
• He gave much importance to sound and healthy physique.
• There were different kinds of exercises.
• Yoga, games & sports prescribed in Santiniketan as an integral part of the education system.

(4) Love for humanity:

• Tagore held that the entire universe is one family.
• Education can teach people to realize oneness of the globe.
• Education for international understanding and universal brotherhood is another important aim of his educational philosophy.
• The feeling of oneness can be developed through the concepts like fatherhood of God and brotherhood of man all creatures are equal on this earth.

(5) Establishment of relationship between man & God:

• Man bears the diverse qualities and potentialities offered by God.
• These qualities are inborn and innate.
• The relationship between man and God is strong and permanent.
• However the dedication to spiritualism and sacredness will lead to the harmonious relationship with man, nature and God.
(6) Freedom:

- Freedom is considered as an integral aspect of human development.
- Education is a man-making process, it explores the innate power exists within the man.
- It is not an imposition rather a liberal process their provides utmost freedom to the individual for his all round development.
- He says, Education has leaning only when it is imparted through the path of freedom".

(7) Co-relation of Objects:

- Co-relation exists with God, man and nature.
- A peaceful world is only possible when correlation between man and nature will be established

(8) Mother tongue as the medium of Instruction:

- Language is the true vehicle of self-expression.
- Man can freely express his thought in his mother-tongue.
- Tagore has emphasized mother tongue as the medium of instruction for the child's education.

(9) Moral and Spiritual Development:

- Tagore emphasized moral and spiritual training in his educational thought.
- Moral and spiritual education is more important than bookish knowledge for an integral development of human personality.
- There must be an adequate provision for the development of selfless activities, co-operation and love fellow feeling and sharing among the students in educational institutions.

(10) Social Development:

- According to Tagore, "Brahma" the supreme soul manifests himself through men and other creatures.
- Since He is the source of all human-beings and creatures, so all are equal.
- Rabindranath Tagore therefore said, "service to man is service to god".
- All should develop social relationship and fellow-feeling from the beginnings of one’s life.
• Education aims at developing the individual personality as well as social characters which enables him to live as a worthy being.

Activities

[T]he following functions [are] treated as of primary educational importance:

Care and cleaning and construction of quarters.
Care and proper use of latrines; sanitary disposal of waste.
Cooking and serving of food; clothes washing and repair.
Personal hygiene and healthy habits.
Individual self-discipline; group self-government.
Policing and hospitality; fire drill and control.

In every one of these, there is some art to be mastered, some business or organizing capacity to be developed, some law of science to be recognized, and in all of them there is a call for the recognition of the need for individual self-preservation as well as of the duties, responsibilities and privileges of family membership and citizenship.

Much of what is termed housecraft is in the nature of handicraft, but, from the earliest years, it is well to introduce to the children some special craft, easily grasped by small hands, which is of definite economic value. The product should be of real use in the home, or have a ready sale outside, and thus enable the child to realize his capacity for self-preservation through the trained experience of his hands.

Any of the following can be mastered in a few weeks:

• Cotton wick, tape and band making; scarf weaving and belt making; cotton rug and duree making (the looms can easily be made by the children themselves, out of bamboo.)
Straw-sandal making.
Sewing; paper making; ink making.
Dyeing with simple vegetable dyes; cotton and calico printing with wood blocks.
Making sun-dried mud bricks …

There are few of the crafts mentioned above which are not in some way intimately bound up with the life of the country-folk. With each of them there is a grammar of procedure which has to be learned, but it is a grammar which is not detached from life.

Of all workshops the one provided by Nature herself is the most commodious and helpful. Under skilled stimulation and guidance there is out-of-doors an unlimited field for experiencing and experimenting with life. The schoolmaster here is an anachronism. He can no longer tower over his pupils from his rostrum and threaten them with his power to grant or withhold marks and certificates. He is forced to adopt his rightful place behind the student, ever on the watch, ever ready with a word of advice or encouragement, ever ready to be a student himself, but never in the way.

Dialogue

The highest education is that which does not merely give us information, but makes our life in harmony with all existence”

At first, children must gather knowledge through their life because children are in love with their life, and it is their first love. All its color and movement attract their eager attention, and then they will renounce their lives to gain knowledge.

“I felt clearly that what was needed was not any particular material object, not wealth or comfort or power, but our awakening to full consciousness in the freedom of soul, the freedom of life in God, where we have no enmity with those who must fight, no competition with those who must make money, where we are beyond all attacks and above all insults.

Luxuries are the burdens of other peoples habits, the burdens of the vicarious pride and pleasure which parents enjoy through their children”

The mind of the child is always on the alert, restless and eager to receive firsthand knowledge from mother nature. Children should be surrounded with the things of nature which have their own educational value. Their minds should be allowed to stumble upon and surprised at everything that happens in todays life.

Educational thoughts of John Dewey
Discovery

Progressive methods of teaching advocated that the interests of learners and freedom in learning situations should form important bases of education. These progressive ideas were the result of pragmatism.

The root of pragamatic philosophy is the problem solving attitude. It is John Dewey who gave a classic formulation to the structure of the problem solving method. The credit for introducing the inquiry approach in education really goes to john dewy.

EDUCATION IS A BIPOLAR PROCESS.

It has two sides the psychological and the sociological.

The psychological side is the study of the child, with all his inclinations, instincts, potentials and interests.

The sociological side is the social environment in which the child is born, lives and grows for society.

His educational theory has four fundamentals

EDUCATIONS AS GROWTH

Growth is the real function of education. But growth is not directed towards any predetermined goal or end.

The end of growth is more growth and so the end of education is more education. Education is to promote critical thinking and with the mind will grow to think further.

EDUCATION AS LIFE

According to Dewey education is not preparation for life but it is life itself.

School is now taken as a miniature society which faces problems, similar to those faced in life outside. In school community pupil are active participants and they are to be trained for cooperative and mutually helpful living.

They should be encouraged to face actual life problems in the school and gain varied experiences
EDUCATION AS SOCIA L EFFICIENCY.

Education is to bring out the ability to function as an effective member of his community by partaking in its activities and at the same time contributing to its refinement and advancement.

EDUCATION AS RECONSTRUCTION OF EXPERIENCE.

Experience is the source of the true knowledge.

One experience leads to further experience and each new experience calls for revision, modification or rejection of the previous experience.

AIMS OF EDUCATION

John Dewey is a pragmatist. As physical and social environments are always changing, aims of education must also change. They cannot be fixed for all times to come.

To develop an ability to understand and analyse the problems

To develop skills for intelligent application of knowledge and insight into solving problems

To arouse interest through planned experiences

To help in the adjustment to changing needs and ideals of society.

CURRICULUM

Dewey’s curriculum is not a mere scheme of studies, nor is it a list of subjects.

It is an entire range of activities and experiences, projects leading to reconstruction and reorganisation of experiences. Thus he makes occupational activities of crafts, the core of the school curriculum.

He also includes moral, aesthetic and religious education in the curriculum. But these again are to be imparted through practical experiences and not through ‘chalk and talk lessons’ in the classroom.

METHODS OF TEACHING

According to Dewey mind is a product of activity and develops through activity. There must be some stimulus to mind for thinking
A child engages himself in various types of activities which are inspired by his own urges and inclinations, he faces certain problems which arise spontaneously out of his own like situations. The child then thinks of possible solutions and then tries to put his plans into action.

In the actual execution of his plans, he comes to know of the correctness or otherwise of his ideas. This procedure is called by him as “project method” which is also referred to by the name “Experimental method”

STEPS INVOLVED IN THE PROJECT METHOD

Creation of a suitable situation that gives rise to real problem.

Thinking of all possible solutions for that problem.

Collection of information about the problem from all possible sources.

Execution and arriving at the possible solution.

Application of the solution arrived at.

ROLE OF TEACHER

The teacher is the provider of settings, conducive to learning.

He is not an authority in dispensing ideas to be absorbed by his pupils, but a guide, stimulus and catalyst in getting the child to make his own relations and connections, his own ideas.

CONTRIBUTION TO EDUCATION:

- He fused both psychological and sociological aspects of education
- Advocated “Project Method” of learning
- Insistence on activities of diverse kinds in schools – activity-centered curriculum.
- Conceptualized social discipline by participating in group activities.
- Considered teacher as a guide, friend and director of activities.
- Advocated social efficiency” as the main aim of education
- Advocated training for democratic living through school activities and practices
Educational thoughts of Plato

PHILOSOPHY

- His philosophy is concerned with justice, virtue, character and the human soul. He wanted students to become independent thinkers.
- The only good life or life worth living is a life reasoned by your own mind, not other’s ideas and opinions, change your life and mind.
- Examine your life. History and ideas once you self examine yourself then you are ready for knowledge.
- All knowledge begins in not knowing to state “I don’t know is the first step- open to learning.
- Every thing has a truth or an essence your job is to seek this truth. Life is an adventure and journey not destination.
- The good teacher will spark you lead you to the truth with integrity, reason imagination.
- Virtue is excellence or doing your best- teaching your highest potential for goodness and to shape good character. The potential rests in the human soul everyone born with a soul.
- Character is what is developed from this soul and is moulded and tested and shaped – dynamic process.
- Society is our ultimate teacher and it may produce errors and evils as well as wrong values. Previous generation may have been wrong and transmitted bad ideas and practices.

PLATO’S CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

Role of Education
Education should make people fit for their different social roles; as he said, “A purpose of education is to create a balance, a harmonious state; where the workers are to be trained to obey their masters and offer important economic services to the state”

STAGES OF EDUCATION
Plato named three stages of education: reading and writing as the first stage; second stage: physical education; and the third stage: secondary or literary education.

READING AND WRITING
Education was not started for the children after birth, even before birth a mother was supposed to exercise properly, to ensure the health of the baby. After birth, exercise must be supplemented by various means that will keep the child from becoming frightened or emotional. This was followed
by supervised play, instruction for both boys and girls; although they were supposed to learn the
same disciplines and sports, it was suggested to be done separately.

In this stage children should be taught through music, play, physical work, geometrical exercises: this should be done when children are in the age of six. The major aim of this stage is to “promote culture and right living by exposing the child to the proper kind of environment and atmosphere through play, music, discussion, and criticism”

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

In this stage Plato was thinking more of military training rather than mere athletic training. This stage starts from 18th to 20th year. Big emphasis was on physical education because it helped to build healthy bodies. And the other purpose of training was to give them stability in judgement. They were supposed to get physical strength, courage and a philosophical temperament: they should have self-control, self-discipline and they must also show wisdom. By those characteristics they could be able to care for laws and customs

SECONDARY OR LITERARY EDUCATION

This is the study of the works of poets, which were learnt to be recited and were sung to the lyre, so it included knowledge of music.

Greeks didn’t have a Bible; the poets were the source of theology and morals. An ordinary Greek was expected to acquire his morals and theological notions from these poets and use them to educate his young, so it was expected that those poets must be suitable for the intended purpose i.e. to teach morality.

This was strictly considered because most of the existing poetries were unsuitable and because of this, Plato was afraid that unsuitable poetry could misrepresent God who is Perfect.

TEACHING METHODS

Plato recommended play method at elementary level; student should learn by doing. when he/she reaches the higher level of education, his reason would be trained in the processes of thinking and abstracting.

Plato wanted motivation and interest in learning. He was against the use of force in education.

"Knowledge which is acquired under compulsion obtains no hold on the mind."
According to Plato "Do not then train youths by force and harshness, but direct them to it by what amuses their minds so that you may be better able to discover with accuracy the peculiar bent of the genius of each."

Plato wanted a place where children love to go and stay there and they play with things which enhance their education by playing.

Plato gave importance to nursery education, as nursery education plays a vital role in the education of man and it helps to build his moral character and state of mind.

ROLE OF THE TEACHER

- In Plato’s plan of education educator is considered to have greatest importance.
- He is like torch bearer who leads a man lying in the dark cave, out of the darkness into the bright light of the outside world. The teacher is thus the constant guide of the students.
- The teacher must be a person of high integrity and must possess high self worth.
- He must have pleasing personality, in depth knowledge and professional training.
- He should be deeply committed to his profession, have high sense of responsibility and a true role model.
- Teachers should lead a true moral life.

They should practice what they preach.

**Educational Thoughts Martin Buber**

Philosophy

Buber is famous for his thesis of dialogical existence, as he described in the book *I and Thou*. However, his work dealt with a range of issues including religious consciousness, modernity, the concept of evil, ethics, education, and Biblical hermeneutics.

Buber rejected the label of "philosopher" or "theologian" claiming he was not interested in ideas, only personal experience, and could not discuss God but only relationships to God.

Dialogue and existence

In *I and Thou*, Buber introduced his thesis on human existence. Inspired by Feuerbach's *The Essence of Christianity* and Kierkegaard's *Single One*, Buber worked upon the premise of existence.
as encounter. He explained this philosophy using the word pairs of Ich-Du and Ich-Es to categorize the modes of consciousness, interaction, and being through which an individual engages with other individuals, inanimate objects, and all reality in general. Theologically, he associated the first with the Jewish Jesus and the second with the gentile Christian Paul. Philosophically, these word pairs express complex ideas about modes of being—particularly how a person exists and actualizes that existence. As Buber argues in I and Thou, a person is at all times engaged with the world in one of these modes.

The generic motif Buber employs to describe the dual modes of being is one of dialogue (Ich-Du) and monologue (Ich-Es). The concept of communication, particularly language-oriented communication, is used both in describing dialogue/monologue through metaphors and expressing the interpersonal nature of human existence.

**Ich-Du**

*Ich-Du* ("I-Thou" or "I-You") is a relationship that stresses the mutual, holistic existence of two beings. It is a concrete encounter, because these beings meet one another in their authentic existence, without any qualification or objectification of one another. Even imagination and ideas do not play a role in this relation. In an I–Thou encounter, infinity and universality are made actual (rather than being merely concepts). Buber stressed that an *Ich-Du* relationship lacks any composition (e.g., structure) and communicates no content (e.g., information). Despite the fact that *Ich-Du* cannot be proven to happen as an event (e.g., it cannot be measured), Buber stressed that it is real and perceivable. A variety of examples are used to illustrate *Ich-Du* relationships in daily life—two lovers, an observer and a cat, the author and a tree, and two strangers on a train. Common English words used to describe the *Ich-Du* relationship include encounter, meeting, dialogue, mutuality, and exchange.

One key *Ich-Du* relationship Buber identified was that which can exist between a human being and God. Buber argued that this is the only way in which it is possible to interact with God, and that an *Ich-Du* relationship with anything or anyone connects in some way with the eternal relation to God.

To create this I–Thou relationship with God, a person has to be open to the idea of such a relationship, but not actively pursue it. The pursuit of such a relation creates qualities associated with It-ness, and so would prevent an I-You relation, limiting it to I-It. Buber claims that if we are open to the I–Thou, God eventually comes to us in response to our welcome. Also, because the God
Buber describes is completely devoid of qualities, this I-Thou relationship lasts as long as the individual wills it. When the individual finally returns to the I-It way of relating, this acts as a barrier to deeper relationship and community.

*Ich-Es*

The *Ich-Es* ("I-It") relationship is nearly the opposite of *Ich-Du*. Whereas in *Ich-Du* the two beings encounter one another, in an *Ich-Es* relationship the beings do not actually meet. Instead, the "I" confronts and qualifies an idea, or conceptualization, of the being in its presence and treats that being as an object. All such objects are considered merely mental representations, created and sustained by the individual mind. This is based partly on Kant's theory of phenomenon, in that these objects reside in the cognitive agent’s mind, existing only as thoughts. Therefore, the *Ich-Es* relationship is in fact a relationship with oneself; it is not a dialogue, but a monologue.

In the *Ich-Es* relationship, an individual treats other things, people, etc., as objects to be used and experienced. Essentially, this form of objectivity relates to the world in terms of the self – how an object can serve the individual’s interest.

Buber argued that human life consists of an oscillation between *Ich-Du* and *Ich-Es*, and that in fact *Ich-Du* experiences are rather few and far between. In diagnosing the various perceived ills of modernity (e.g., isolation, dehumanization, etc.), Buber believed that the expansion of a purely analytic, material view of existence was at heart an advocacy of *Ich-Es* relations – even between human beings. Buber argued that this paradigm devalued not only existents, but the meaning of all existence

**Educational thoughts of Paulo Freire**

- Freire developed his own educational theory known as conscientization.
- A formation of critical consciousness which allowed people to question and inquire about various the historical and social situations they learn about. “Education as the practice of freedom
- Freire's vision was for an education system that was based creative learning and freedom to think differently.
- Freire's method became known as the “problem posing” concept, allowing students to converse with their instructor during the learning course.
The teachers had come to class with a monologue set and ready to teach to the kids with or without questions.

The discovery learning literature often claims the following advantages:

- Supports active engagement of the learner in the learning process
- Fosters curiosity
- Enables the development of life long learning skills
- Personalizes the learning experience
- Highly motivating as it allows individuals the opportunity to experiment and discover something for themselves
- Builds on learner's prior knowledge and understanding
- Develops a sense of independence and autonomy
- Make them responsible for their own mistakes and results
- Learning as most adults learn on the job and in real life situations
- A reason to record their procedure and discoveries - such as not repeating mistakes, a way to analyze what happened, and a way to record a victorious discovery
- Develops problem solving and creative skills
- Finds new and interesting avenues of information and learning - such as gravy made with too much cornstarch can become a molding medium

These sorts of arguments can be regrouped in two broad categories

- Development of meta cognitive skills (including some higher level cognitive strategies) useful in lifelong learning.
- Motivation

Most researchers would argue that pure discovery learning as a general and global teaching strategy for beginning and intermediary learners doesn't work. The debate on how much guiding is needed is somewhat open. See Kirschner et al. (2006) for a good overview (or Mayer, 2004; Feldon) and also Merrill's first principles of instruction model that does promote unguided problem-based learning at the final stages of an instructional design.

Dialogue Education

Dialogue Education shifts the focus of education from what the teacher says to what the learner does, from learner passivity to learners as active participants in the dialogue that leads to learning
(Global Learning Partners, 2006c). A dialogue approach to education views learners as subjects in their own learning and honours central principles such as mutual respect and open communication (Vella, 2002). Learners are invited to actively engage with the content being learned rather than being dependent on the educator for learning. Ideas are presented to learners as open questions to be reflected on and integrated into the learner’s own context (Vella, 2004).

The Structures of Dialogue Education intent is that this will result in more meaningful learning that affects behaviour.

Dialogue

Learners as Subjects or Decision makers

Achievement-Based Objectives

Learning Tasks

Structures:

1. Learning Needs and Resources Assessment (LNRA) To discover the present knowledge and skills of the learners and help develop further goals.

2. The Seven Steps of Design - In designing learning activities, educators seek to answer in as much detail as possible the questions:

   1. Who - are the learners, the educators, other participants?
   2. Why - the situation that calls for the learning, especially in terms of why the learners want to be there.
   3. When - will the learning take place (timing & total length of time available)?
   4. Where - will learning take place (location, set up, etc.)?
   5. What - specific Content (Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes) will be covered to address the Why?
   6. What for - Describes the Achievement-Based Objectives (ABOs) for each element of Content
   7. How - the Process (learning tasks) through which learners interact with the What to meet each ABO (What For).

By answering these questions in detail and ensuring congruence throughout, a strong, accountable design can be prepared.
3. Learning Tasks (How?) - work by using active verbs to engage the learner and work at proficiency in knowledge, skills, and attitudes (both individuals and groups). This leads to the development of the four I's.

- Four I's - One particularly helpful sequence for a learning task involves four parts:
  - Inductive work that allows the learner to reflect on their past experience. Input which provides some new information for the learner to consider.
  - Implementation which invites the learner to apply this new information and finally.
  - Integration to bring the new understanding back into the context of the learner.

4. The principles and practices at every level:

- Learning needs and resources assessment - Learners need to participate in the planning of what will be learned. Conducting an LNRA, allows the educator to begin to model the dialogue with learners that will continue during the educational event. Additionally the design may be enhanced because it is informed by the themes of learners and an understanding of what is meaningful to them.
- Safety - Learners must feel safe in order to engage with other learners, teachers and the content. The atmosphere and design for learning must create a safe environment for learners. Challenge is still necessary for learning to take place, but with the promise of support, reinforcement and being provided with all of the tools (skills, knowledge and abilities) necessary to do the task, learners can feel prepared to undertake this challenge.
- Sound Relationships - This involves respect and interest in the views of all involved in the learning process and is established on an individual basis. It is based on the soundness of the person who is in the position of teacher.
- Sequence and Reinforcement - Sequencing activities help to ensure learner safety and success in task completion by building from small to large, simple to complex, single to many and familiar to unfamiliar. When learners repeatedly interact with the content in diverse and engaging ways, learning is reinforced.
- Praxis - Learners must have opportunities to act upon content and then reflect on their actions in order to draw conclusions and then to have further opportunities to act again. This can be achieved through the use of analysis and synthesis. Analysis - taking apart
information or a situation and Synthesis - putting it back together are both necessary for learning to occur.

- **Respect** - Seen through the effort that is put into the learning endeavor by all participants. The teacher in the preparation and structuring of the learning process and the learners in the engagement and effort exhibited back.

- **Ideas, Feelings, Actions** - In order for significant learning to occur, ideas (cognition), feelings (affection) and actions (psychomotor) all need to be involved in learning activities.

- **Relevance and Immediacy** - Content needs to be immediately applicable, useful and meaningful (relevant) to the context of the learner in order for learning to occur.

- **Clear Roles** - Learners must see the equality between teacher and learners and among learners. This can be supported by teachers through the demonstration of listening intently, showing interest in the learners and expressing humility.

- **Teamwork and Small groups** - The use of small group work is a central practice in Dialogue education because it creates a safe environment for learners to find their voice, reflects life situations of teamwork and allows for peer mentoring which can enhance learning.

- **Engagement** - Learners are engaged with making theory on any subject and educators must use cognitive, affective and psychomotor activities to engage learners in this process. When learners are engaged they are committed to the learning process.

- **Accountability** - Accountability is one of the most important principles in adult learning. Teachers must be accountable to learners through their learning design and facilitation and learners must be accountable to the teacher, each other and themselves through their actions.

5. **Evaluation Indicators**

- Learning
- Transfer
- Impact

**Conclusion**

Every child is a unique and special individual. Children are active participants in their own education and development. This means that they should be mentally involved and physically
active in learning what they need to know and do. Child centred has been an important foundation of early childhood education.

**Question for discussion and reflection**

1. Explain child centred education with its characteristics.
2. Explain activity based education with reference to Tagore.
3. Explain child centred education with special emphasis on Mahatma Gandhi.
4. Explain dialogue education with reference to Paulo Freire.
5. Compare and contrast the philosophy of John Dewey with Paulo Freire.
6. Explain the philosophy of Martin Buber.
7. Discuss the concepts of activity, discovery and dialogue based education.

**References**

UNIT 4: NATIONALISM, UNIVERSALISM SECULARISM AND EDUCATION

Course Objectives
At the end of the unit, the student-teacher will be able to

• Explain the concept of nationalism in the view of Tagore and J.Krishnamoorthy.
• Compare the philosophical thoughts Tagore and krishnamorry
• Explain the concept of nationalism, and secularism in the context of present political situation.

INTRODUCTION
This Unit deals with nationalism, universalism and secularism in the opinion of Tagore and J. Krishnamoorthy two eminent Indian Educational philosophers

Nationalization Meaning and Concept
Since nationalism is by definition the attachment to a nation of this world, it is also a form of secularism. Nationalism is something of which Orthodox Christians are often accused. The classic case of such a nationalist lack of love for God is surely that of the Old Testament Jews, who stoned the prophets and crucified the Son of God. This was represented by the racism and ethnic exclusivity of the Pharisees, condemned by the Saviour. However, as we can see below, Judaism has no monopoly on nationalism. The dictionary defines secularism, first recorded in 1846, as 'the doctrine that morality should be based solely on the well-being of mankind in the present life, to the exclusion of all considerations drawn from belief in God or in a future state'. secularism is therefore a lack of love for God and the justification for that lack of love. Tagore says Universalism is a human scientific view of it is also that of the scientific man.it is a relative world depending for its reality upon consciousness.

Concept of Nationalism
Nationalism and globalization are often considered processes leading to opposite poles in cultural, economic, and political history, but in fact the relationship between them has been far more complex, and in the past century and a half they may be said to have worked in tandem. Nationalism emerged in a sixteenth-century country in Western Europe – England – its emergence coinciding with the dawning of “the European Age in History”: the rise of Western Europe, in
particular, and societies of Western European descent, to the position of economic, political, and to a certain extent cultural leadership of the entire world.

It emerged in a region, culturally unified by Western Christianity, which, independently of nationalism, and for the first time on such a broad scale in history, already began to bring other continents under its sway, thereby initiating the process of cultural, economic, and political globalization. At the centre of this globalizing world was Spain, which subordinated the European “Holy Roman” Empire and vast areas in South and Central America under the political authority of the Habsburg Crown, united Europe, Africa, and the Americas economically in the “triangular trade,” and dedicated itself to the mission of spreading Roman Catholicism. The world would never again be integrated into one system on so many levels, that is, so meaningfully, but, however profound, the success of this first attempt at globalization was short lived.

The emergence of nationalism, reinforced by and reinforcing the disintegration of the Western European Church order which produced the Protestant Reformation, put an end to it: res publicachristiana split into warring camps, religious differences adding on to and often masking secular political conflicts, and by the eighteenth century the competitive spirit which pitted nation against nation in every sphere of human endeavor replaced the universalistic, catholic indeed, religious consciousness which for so long united Western Christians.

Nationalism Quotes

Nationalism by Rabindranath Tagore

“Neither the colourless vagueness of cosmopolitanism, nor the fierce self-idolatry of nation-worship, is the goal of human history.”
— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“Because each nation has its own history of thieving and lies and broken faith, therefore there can only flourish international suspicion and jealousy, and international moral shame becomes anæmic to a degree of ludicrousness. The nation's bagpipe of righteous indignation has so often changed its
tune according to the variation of time and to the altered groupings of the alliances of diplomacy, that it can be enjoyed with amusement as the variety performance of the political music hall.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“I have seen in Japan the voluntary submission of the whole people to the trimming of their minds and clipping of their freedom by their government, which through various educational agencies regulates their thoughts, manufactures their feelings, becomes suspiciously watchful when they show signs of inclining toward the spiritual, leading them through a narrow path not toward what is true but what is necessary for the complete welding of them into one uniform mass according to its own recipe. The people accept this all-pervading mental slavery with cheerfulness and pride because of their nervous desire to turn themselves into a machine of power, called the Nation, and emulate other machines in their collective worldliness.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“For what are obstacles to the lower creatures are opportunities to the higher life of man.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“cruelly unjust both in their act and their thought, accompanied by a feeling that they are helping the world to receive its deserts; men who are honest can blindly go on robbing others of their”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“The West in the voice of her thundering cannon had said at the door of Japan, Let there be a nation—and there was a Nation. And now that it has come into existence, why do you not feel in your heart of hearts a pure feeling of gladness and say that it is good? Why is it that I saw in an English paper an expression of bitterness at Japan's boasting of her superiority of civilization—the thing that the British, along with other nations, has been carrying on for ages without blushing? Because the idealism of selfishness must keep itself drunk with a continual dose of self-laudation. But the same vices which seem so natural and innocuous in its own life make it surprised and angry at their unpleasantness when seen in other nations.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“Clever lies become matters of self-congratulation. Solemn pledges become a farce—laughable for their very solemnity. The Nation, with all its paraphernalia of power and prosperity, its flags and pious hymns, its blasphemous prayers in the churches, and the literary mock thunders of its patriotic bragging, cannot hide the fact that the Nation is the greatest evil for the Nation, that all its precautions are against it, and any new birth of its fellow in the world is always followed in its mind by the dread of a new peril.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism
“It is the continual and stupendous dead pressure of this inhuman upon the living human under which the modern world is groaning. Not merely the subject races, but you who live under the delusion that you are free, are every day sacrificing your freedom and humanity to this fetich of nationalism, living in the dense poisonous atmosphere of world-wide suspicion and greed and panic.

I have seen in Japan the voluntary submission of the whole people to the trimming of their minds and clipping of their freedom by their government, which through various educational agencies regulates their thoughts, manufactures their feelings, becomes suspiciously watchful when they show signs of inclining toward the spiritual, leading them through a narrow path not toward what is true but what is necessary for the complete welding of them into one uniform mass according to its own recipe. The people accept this all-pervading mental slavery with cheerfulness and pride because of their nervous desire to turn themselves into a machine of power, called the Nation, and emulate other machines in their collective worldliness.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“Yet when, one day, standing on the outskirts of Yokohama town, bristling with its display of modern miscellanies, I watched the sunset in your southern sea, and saw its peace and majesty among your pine-clad hills,—with the great Fujiyama growing faint against the golden horizon, like a god overcome with his own radiance,—the music of eternity welled up through the evening silence, and I felt that the sky and the earth and the lyrics of the dawn and the dayfall are with the poets and idealists, and not with the marketmen robustly contemptuous of all sentiment,—that, after the forgetfulness of his own divinity, man will remember again that heaven is always in touch with his world, which can never be abandoned for good to the hounding wolves of the modern era, scenting human blood and howling to the skies.”

— Rabindranath Tagore, Nationalism

“But now, where the spirit of the Western nationalism prevails, the whole people is being taught from boyhood to foster hatreds and ambitions by all kinds of means—by the manufacture of half-truths and untruths in history, by persistent misrepresentation of other races and the culture of unfavourable sentiments towards them, by setting up memorials of events, very often false, which for the sake of humanity should be speedily forgotten, thus continually brewing evil menace towards neighbours and nations other than their own. This is poisoning the very fountainhead of humanity. It is discrediting the ideals, which were born of the lives of men who were our greatest and best. It is holding up gigantic selfishness as the one universal religion for all nations of the
world.”
— Rabindranath Tagore, *Nationalism*

“I do not for a moment suggest that Japan should be unmindful of acquiring modern weapons of self-protection. But this should never be allowed to go beyond her instinct of self-preservation. She must know that the real power is not in the weapons themselves, but in the man who wields those weapons”
— Rabindranath Tagore, *Nationalism*

**Concept of Universalism**

Universalism is not in itself a common ideology, but a unique feature in the way of seeing the world, or human life. It is common to have different universalistic ideologies resulting very opposite each other. A universalist thinking ensures the accuracy of a way unique or specific view, explain, or organize the world.

**MEANING:**

Universalism, is an idea or belief in the existence of a universal, objective or eternal truth that it determines everything, therefore, is and must be equally present in all human beings.

**Definition of universalism**

Universalism is the philosophical doctrine that affirms the existence of certain principles that are universally indisputable, for being real, and which must therefore be admitted by all persons and cultural groups as a guide for their conduct and to distinguish the good deeds of the evil. On the theological level, each religion tries to their beliefs to be recognized as the only true.

**Concept of Secularism**

**MEANING:**

- The word secularism was first used in the 19th century by George Jacob Holyoake.
- He derived it from the latin word “saeculum” meaning “this present age”.
- He used it in the context of social and ethical value or system.
- Secularism is a social and ethical system. It primarily emphasize on natural and cultural improvements of human beings.
DEFINITION

Secularism can be defined as, “a system of doctrines and practices that rejects any form of religious faith and worship”.

Indian concept of secularism requires that there shall be no state religion and the state shall treat all religion equally. In the word of great Mahatma Ghandhi, “My veneration for other faiths is the same as for any one faith”. We believe in Sarvadharmasamabhavana, equal place for all faith and creeds.

SECULARISM:

Dr. Rajendra Prasad, first president of India has very clearly observed that becoming secular, India has not been anti religion or religious. He stated, “There are some who thinks that because we are a secular state we do not believe in religion or spiritual values. Far from being so, it really means that in this country all free to profess or preach the faith of their liking and that we wish well of all religions and want them to develop in their own way without any hindrance. Jawaharlal Nehru, explained the secular nature of our state “it means while religions are completely free, the state including in its wide fold various religions and culture, gives protections and opportunities to all and thus brings about an atmosphere of tolerance and cooperation”

India as a Secular State:

It means that state shall not discriminate against the followers of a particular religion. All Indian-Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs, Christians and others have the freedom to preach their religions. Secularism has been made one of the basic element of the structure of the constitution of India.

The Characteristics Of Secular States Are,

• The state as such as no religion of its own
• It does not award preferential treatment to the followers of any faith
• It does not discriminate against any person on account of his faith
• All citizens are eligible to enter government service irrespective of the faith
Characteristics of secular education:

Secular education is identified with the following characteristics,

- Moral outlook
- Development of wider vision
- Pluralistic outlook
- Democratic values
- Cultural development
- Synthesis of spiritual and material
- Humanitarianism

Education for Secularism in India

The following traits characterize education for secularism in India.

- Secular aims
- Democratic organization of educational institutions
- Multiple curriculum
- Science teaching
- Enlightened teachers

The present Indian educational system is trying to create a social climate in the country, in which secular values are sought to be promoted effectively and enthusiastically.

Constitutional provisions regarding imparting of religious and secular education

1. Article 28(1) states that no religious instructions shall be provided in any educational institutions wholly maintained out of state funds.

2. No persons attending any educational institutions recognized by the state or receiving aid out of state fund shall be required to take part in any religious instructions without his consent. In the case of a minor, consent of his guardian is needed.

Reason for imparting secular education:

1. Secular education develops a moral outlook
2. Secular education helps in the development liberal attitudes and values
3. It develops wider vision
4. It develops an attitude of appreciation and understanding of others point of view
5. It develops democratic values and humanistic outlook
6. Secular education synthesis materialism and spiritualism
7. Secular education serves as an antidote to religious fanaticism and hatred

In a multi religious country like India, the spirit of secularism is to be developed in order to maintain the unity and integrity of the nation. Education should play a positive role in preparing people for a secular society and a purposeful life. We hope secularism will develop in to a stronger force leading to the social unity of India when institutionalized religions gradually lose their coercive hold on the young generations.

**Educational implications:**

Many positive steps have been taken to promote secularism in the country. It is laid down in the constitution that religious minorities are free to establish their educational institutions from grant.

Secularism is a philosophy of moral education. Secular behavior springs in the school from the influence of school through the conduct and behavior of teachers themselves and life in the school community as a whole.

All the activities and programs of school must strive for the inculcation of values of love, truth and tolerance

**The Secular Nation-State**

There is a fundamental bond between the state and education. Modern states depend on the educational system to produce 'good citizens' - in other words, to reinforce national identities. The era of the nation-state as the most effective social and economic unit was the product of certain historical needs that the world may have outgrown. It may be necessary now to reexamine these needs and also the concepts on which they were based. This examination should be undertaken in the context of two opposing currents that influence how history and economics are taught in our schools.

**TAGORE’S VIEWS ON EDUCATION:**

Tagore's theory of education is marked by naturalistic & aesthetic values.

He had a belief that "The widest road leading to the solution of all our problems is education."
Education can develop a new pattern of life.

Culminating in the realization of Universal man.

Tagore's system of education emphasizes the intellectual, physical, social, moral economic and spiritual aspects of human life.

By which a man can develop an integrated personality.

**Aims of Education According to Tagore:**

The aims of education as reflected in educational institution founded by Rabindranath Tagore in Santiniketan are as follows:

1. **Self Realization:**

   Spiritualism is the essence of humanism; this concept has been reflected in Tagore's educational philosophy.

   Self-realization is an important aim of education.

   Manifestation of personality depends upon the self-realization and spiritual knowledge of individual.

2. **Intellectual Development:**

   Tagore also greatly emphasized the intellectual development of the child.

   By intellectual development he means development of imagination, creative free thinking, constant curiosity and alertness of the mind.

   Child should be free to adopt his own way learning which will lead to all round development.

3. **Physical Development:**

   Tagore's educational philosophy also aims at the physical development of the child.

   He gave much importance to sound and healthy physique.

   There were different kinds of exercises. Yoga, games & sports prescribed in Santiniketan as an integral part of the education system.
(4) **Love for humanity:**

Tagore held that the entire universe is one family.

Education can teach people to realize oneness of the globe.

Education for international understanding and universal brotherhood is another important aim of his educational philosophy.

The feeling of oneness can be developed through the concepts like fatherhood of God and brotherhood of man all creatures are equal on this earth.

(5) **Establishment of relationship between man & God:**

Man bears the diverse qualities and potentialities offered by God.

These qualities are inborn and innate.

The relationship between man and God is strong and permanent.

However the dedication to spiritualism and sacredness will lead to the harmonious relationship with man, nature and God.

(6) **Freedom:**

Freedom is considered as an integral aspect of human development.

Education is a man-making process, it explores the innate power exists within the man.

It is not an imposition rather a liberal process their provides utmost freedom to the individual for his all round development.

He says, Education has leaning only when it is imparted through the path of freedom”.

(7) **Co-relation of Objects:**

Co-relation exists with God, man and nature. A peaceful world is only possible when correlation between man and nature will be established

8) **Mother tongue as the medium of Instruction:**

Language is the true vehicle of self-expression.
Man can freely express his thought in his mother-tongue.

Tagore has emphasized mother tongue as the medium of instruction for the child's education.

(9) Moral and Spiritual Development:

Tagore emphasized moral and spiritual training in his educational thought.

Moral and spiritual education is more important than bookish knowledge for an integral development of human personality.

There must be an adequate provision for the development of selfless activities, co-operation and love fellow feeling and sharing among the students in educational institutions.

(10) Social Development:

According to Tagore, "Brahma" the supreme soul manifests himself through men and other creatures.

Since He is the source of all human-beings and creatures, so all are equal. Rabindranath Tagore therefore said, "service to man is service to god".

All should develop social relationship and fellow-feeling from the beginnings of one's life.

Education aims at developing the individual personality as well as social characters which enables him to live as a worthy being.

National Attitude on Rabindranath Tagore’s Vision on Education:-

Rabindranath Tagore’s vision of education, based on the concept of religion of man, is basically not bound to any time frame, and hence can be revived or re-established in any part of the world at any point of time.

The education scene in India in 2010 is somewhat like this, education imparted to the village children is still inadequate in either the utilitarian or holistic terms, or in short education in India could not stabilize the village life of India even after 63 years of independence.

The villagers of India still live with an uncertain future probing hard into their lives, neither are they aligned to provide a great thrust to development of India.
In higher education, the Cabinet of Ministers has approved a bill to allow foreign universities to set up campuses in India to offer their degrees, the education scenario will get more competitive to encourage an improvement in general standard of higher education in India.

Now, the private sector of India through ASSOCHAM has pitched in by expressing an interest to run a few ‘innovative universities’ on a profit generating basis. Whatever may be the effect of these ventures, one thing is for sure that higher education is going to be a fairly costly affair and a major part of education will be related to the forces of the market, and there is no indication that basic education is going to change in any perceptible manner.

**KRISHNAMURTY AIMS OF EDUCATION**

For Krishnamurti education is:

(i) Educating the whole person.
(ii) Educating the person as a whole (not as an assemblage of parts).
(iii) Educating the person within a whole. (As part of society, humanity, nature, etc.).

- For him education is about preparation for the whole life and not preparation for part of life (like work).
- Education in the true sense is of helping the individual to be mature and free, to flower greatly in love and goodness.
- According to this great teacher the main aim of education is to enable the child to develop mentally in such a way that he should know himself.
- Education should help one to feel freedom of mind and fearlessness.

For Jiddu Krishnamurti, the intentions of education must be the inner transformation and liberation of the human being and, from that, society would be transformed. The function of education is to help us from childhood not to imitate anybody, but to be ourselves all the time. To understand life is to understand ourselves, and that is both the beginning and the end of education.

Modern education is making us into thoughtless entities; it does very little towards helping us to find our individual vocation.
SHORTCOMINGS OF THE PREVAILING SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Krishnamurti observed the following shortcomings of the Indian education.

The conventional education:

- Makes independent thinking extremely difficult.
- Strangulates spontaneity.
- Leads to dull and lackluster mind.
- Develops fear in the mind to deviate from established standards even if they are legitimate.
- Fails to enable us to understand the higher and wider significance of life.
- Fails to integrate thoughts and feelings.
- Is lopsided and doesn’t provide overall growth of the individual.
- Trains us only to seek personal gains and security and fight for ourselves.
- Considers examinations and degrees as criteria for intelligence.
- Merely train the mind to be cunning and avoid vital human issues.
- Helps in making us subservient, mechanical and thoughtless.
- Though it awakens intellectually, leaves us incompetent and uncreative.

CHARACTERISTICS OF INTEGRAL LEARNING

Development Of Capacities To Face Challenges.

If the individual is to grapple with life’s problems, intricacies, mysteries, and sudden demands, he must be free from theories and particular patterns of thoughts.

Development Of Self Knowledge.

Education should help an individual discover the true values which come with unbiased investigation and self-expression becomes self-assertion with all its aggressive and ambitions conflicts.

To Krishnamurti the individual is of first importance; not the system, and as long as the individual does not understand the total process of himself, no system can bring order and peace to the world.
Understanding comes only through self-knowledge which is awareness of one’s total psychological process.

Education in the true sense is the understanding of oneself for it is within each one of us that the whole of existence is gathered.

**Integrated Experience**

Krishnamurti says —the right kind of education which encourages the language of technique should help man to experience the integral process of life which is of greater importance.

**Freedom from readymade ideas.**

According to Krishnamurti ideas have no place in education for they prevent the comprehension of the present and escaping into the future cannot make one aware of what is to be after an idea indicates sluggishness of mind and a desire to avoid the present.

**Development of free and mature human beings.**

To jiddukrishnamurti, the right kind of education is free from ideology and conditioning. Education in true sense should help the individual to be free and mature and to blossom in love and goodness.

**Re-education**

Right education comes with transformation of ourselves. We must learn to be compassionate, to be content with little and to seek the supreme for, only then can there be the true salvation of mankind.

**Development of Right Understanding of Environment.**

We must realize the fact that we are not conditioned by the environment, but we are the environment. We never see that we are the total environment because there are several entities in us, all revolving round the ‘me‘, the self. The self is made of these entities, which are merely desires in various forms. From this conglomeration of desires arises the central figure, the thinker, the will of the ‘me‘ and the ‘mine‘. A division is thus established between the ‘self‘ and the ‘non-self‘, between the ‘me‘ and the environment i.e. the society. This separation is the beginning of conflict, inward and outward.
Development of Wisdom.

In our desire to acquire more knowledge, we are losing love, feeling for beauty and sensitivity to cruelty. When we become more and more specialized, we are becoming less and less integrated. Wisdom cannot be replaced by knowledge and no amount of explanation or accumulation of facts will free man from suffering. Our education is making us more and more shallow and is not helping us to overcome the deeper meanings of our being and our lives are becoming increasingly meaningless, disharmonious and empty.

Development of Love towards Others.

Only true love and right thinking will bring about revolution within oneself. But it cannot be achieved through pursuit of the ideal of love. What can be done is to keep ourselves free from hatred, greed, exploitation envy and ego.

Development of Right Relationship.

Education should help an individual to cultivate right relationship between individuals and society and this is possible only if he understands his own psychological process. Intelligence lies in understanding oneself and going above and beyond oneself.

Development of freedom and integration.

To educate a child is to help him to understand freedom and integration. To have freedom, there must be order and order is achieved only through virtue. Integration is achieved through simplicity- simplicity in both our inward life and outward needs.

Development of creative intelligence.

The spirit of constant inquiry and the feeling of discomfort in the existing system can bring forth creative intelligence. To keep this spirit alive is cumbersome task. Most people do not want their children to have this kind of intelligence, the reason being the uncomfortability they have to face when the established values are questioned.

Development of International understanding.

As long as the glaring disparities like rich and poor, exploiters and exploited powerful and powerless exist in our society and divisions like nationality religion, caste, color and various dividing loyalties prevail, it is not possible to have brotherhood among men.

If we are to change radically our present human relationship, our only and immediate task is to transform ourselves through self-knowledge. Thus we come back to the central point which is ‘oneself’. We normally dodge this point and instead of owning up the responsibility, put the government, religious and ideologies responsible. The government is what we are. The religious
and ideologies are but projection of us. Until we change ourselves fundamentally there can neither be right education nor a peaceful world.

**Freedom from ideology.**

Jiddukrishnamurti says conditioning of the child’s mind to fit a particular ideology, weather political or religious breed’s enmity between man and man. In a competitive society we cannot have brotherhood.

**Freedom and discipline.**

It is only in individual freedom that love and goodness can blossom. Only the right kind of education offers this freedom. Discipline becomes a substitute for love. It is because our hearts are empty that we cling to discipline. Freedom can never be achieved through discipline. Freedom is not a goal or an end to be achieved. A sincere teacher will protect and help the children towards the right kind of freedom.

**Rewards and punishments.**

Sensitivity can never be awakened through compulsion. Compulsion breeds antagonism and fear. Reward and punishment in any form only make the mind subservient and dull. Discipline may be an effective way to control a child, but it doesn’t help him to understand the problems in living.

**Spiritual Training and not Religious Education.**

Religious education in the true sense is to encourage the child to understand his own relationship to people, Things and to nature. There is no existence without relationships. It is rather impossible to explain this to a child.

**METHODS OF TEACHING ACCORDING TO KRISHNAMURTI:**

- We should not teach the student ‘what to think’ and ‘how to think’. Allow him freedom to think for himself.
- Study the child thoroughly and employ such methods that suit him best.
- The student should be treated as an equal partner.
- Problem solving and explorative methods should be encouraged.
- Repetition encourages the mind of the child to be sluggish.

**ROLE OF THE TEACHER**

a) **Understanding the child**

The right kind of a teacher doesn’t depend on a particular method.

He will study each pupil closely.
He is fully aware of the fact that the pupils are living beings who are impressionable, volatile, sensitive, affectionate and often timid.

He knows that he should have a lot of patience and love to deal with them. The absence of these qualities makes a teacher mechanical in his attitude and shirks away the demands of the profession.

b) **Keen observer**

The teacher should not be tempted to project upon the child his prejudices, hopes and fears. The ideal teacher will desist from moulding him to fit his idiosyncrasies, prejudices and ideas which gratifies himself.

c) **Integrated Educator**

If a lamp doesn’t burn itself, it cannot light other lamps.

If the teacher himself / herself is not an integrated personality, we cannot expect him to help the children become integrated personalities.

d) **Tolerance**

It is necessary to feel perfect tolerance for all, and a hearty interest in the beliefs of those of another religion, just as much as one’s own.

**JIDDU KRISHNAMURTI’S CONCEPT OF AN IDEAL SCHOOL**

According to Krishnamurti an ideal school should have limited number of students because mass instruction cannot help develop integrated personality.

The school of his vision functions without the influence of any ideology. In his school, there is an atmosphere of collective responsibilities. There is sincere co-operation among all the teachers. A student council is formed to discuss all matters relating to the wellbeing of the whole group. An atmosphere of confidence and co-operation prevails in the school.

**KRISHNAMURTI’S CONTRIBUTION TO EDUCATION**

Education was always close to Krishnamurti’s heart.

He established nearly a dozen co-educational schools in India and abroad to translate his ideas into practice.

Although the ordinary curriculum was followed in these schools, his main objective in starting these schools was to provide children adequate opportunities and freedom to grow up without any of the national, racial class and cultural prejudice that build barriers between one human being and another and give rise to violence.
His emphasis on the development of an integrated personality through integral approach to education is highly commended by almost all thinkers.

**Krishnamurti's Critique of Nationalism**

In 1929 Krishnamurti made his famous declaration that truth is a pathless land.

Krishnamurti believed that both nationalism and organized religion are basically divisive, because the sense of identity they foster is exclusive.

Brotherhood is an ideal, he asserted in his later writings; the fact is that men and women do not live in amity.

Krishnamurti's critique of idealism and utopian visions supported a more general critique of the search for self-identity.

All group identities are oppositional and divisive; and he set out to neutralize the desire to find security in group identifications.

**Conclusion**

Education should play a positive role in preparing people for a secular society and a purposeful life. We must realize the fact that we are not conditioned by the environment. Only the right kind of education offers this freedom in children's mind. Education should help an individual to cultivate right relationship between individuals and society and this is possible only if he understands his own psychological process. Intelligence lies in understanding oneself and going above and beyond oneself.

**Question for Discussion and Reflection**

1. Explain nationalism with emphasis on Krishnamoorty
2. Explain about the concept of nationalism and secularism.
3. Explain the concept and characteristics of integral education.
4. Explain the concept of nationalism with reference to Tagore.
References:

- J. Krishnamoorthy “Letters to the Schools, Krishnmoorthy Foundation India, Madras, 1981, p.72
- Tagore, “Message” in The English Writings of Rabindranath Tagore, vol iii, p. 753
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UNIT-5: EDUCATION AND DEMOCRACY

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course, the student-teachers will be able to:

• acquire the knowledge of democracy
• comprehend the democratic practices in education
• explain the importance and role of education in a democratic society
• apply the knowledge towards the training for democratic citizenship

INTRODUCTION

Education and democracy are inextricably linked in social thought and practice. Democracy, in all of its historic and contemporary forms, has played a pivotal role in shaping conceptions of public education. How public education is imagined, scripted, and enacted is contested along philosophic, programmatic, and pedagogic dimensions in relation to competing conceptions of democracy. Classic contributors to modern political thought and commentary, as well as those who framed modern arguments, have dealt specifically with the educational necessities of establishing and maintaining a democratic polity. They have generally reflected on the tensions between the socialization of a democratic nation’s subjects (i.e. as acculturated, law abiding members) and the education of its citizens (i.e. critically thinking, active participants). Both education and democracy have evolved in response to historic geographic-based concerns (persistent regionalism, westward expansion, rapid urbanization, and globalization), significant demographic shifts (especially the cultural diversity brought by immigration), and economic growth (mostly the imperatives of industrial technologies). Capitalism in all of its historic forms (e.g. pre-industrial, industrial, post-industrial, globalization) and through its dominant technologies (e.g. mechanized agriculture, mass commodity production, transportation, and global information networks) sets limits (e.g. what’s acceptable for critical analysis in curricula), provides objectives (e.g. agile job-readiness, rational consumer skills), and shape policy and practice (e.g. corporate bureaucratic form, economic incentives, market based curriculum, emphases on individual choice) in public education.

MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

Etymologically the term democracy is derived from two Greek words namely, ‘Demos’ and ‘Krators’. ‘Demos’ means the ‘the people’ and ‘Krators’ means ‘power’. Thus democracy means ‘power of the people’.

• Aristotle defined democracy as ‘a government of many’.
• In the words of Abraham Lincoln, “Democracy is government of the people, by the people and for the people.”
• Lord Bryce defines democracy as, “It is a government in which the will of the majority of qualified citizens rests.”
• For Dewey, “Democracy denotes a mode of government, a specified practice in selecting “officials and regulating their conduct as officials.”
• According to the University Education Commission, “Democracy is the way of life and not a mere political arrangement. It is based on the principles of equal freedom and equal right for its members, regardless of race, religion, sex, occupation or economic stature.” Thus ‘equal freedom’ and ‘equal right’ are the watchwords of democracy.

DEWEY’S CONCEPT OF DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

Brief life sketch of John Dewey (1852-1959)

Dewey was born in 1859 at Burlington in the USA. He graduated from the University of Vermont in 1879 and started his career as a teacher. Thereafter he joined Hopkins University and obtained his Ph.D. degree in Philosophy in 1884. He worked as a Professor of Philosophy at the University of Minnesota, Michigan and Chicago. His last assignment was his professorship of education and philosophy at the University of Columbia, New York. Prof. Dewey delivered lectures on education and philosophy at the University of Peking for a period of two years.

The Government of Turkey invited Dewey to draw up a report on the reorganization of national schools. Prof. Dewey’s philosophy is not simply speculative but based on actual experiences in the classroom. His principles and practices grew out of his experiments in the University Laboratory School, Chicago. He founded this school in 1896, for the chief objective of testing educational theory through experiments.

Dewey’s views on various aspects of education

Dewey's Philosophy of Education Dewey’s philosophy of education is given various names. ‘Experimentalism’, ‘Functionalism’, ‘Instrumentalism Operationalism’, ‘Practicellism', ‘Pragmatism’ and ‘Progressivism’. Of course, his philosophy of education is mostly associated with the term Pragmatism’. All these terms indicate the dynamic, ever-changing and performing character of life. Dewey suggested the application of experimental logic. Emphasized that as all experiences cannot be educative, the business of the educator is to select an experience or experiences which would enable the individuals to live creatively, constructively, dynamically and
fruitfully in the changing environment. Action must precede knowledge whatever knowledge we possess has resulted from our activities, our efforts to survive. Only that which has been organized into our impositions so as to enable us to adapt our environment to our needs and to adapt our aims and desires to the situations in which we exist is really knowledge.

**Contribution to education**

1. Dewey fused both the psychological and sociological aspects of education.

2. Dewey emphasized democratic values in all dimensions of education.

3. Dewey laid stress on providing rich and verified activities and experiences to students.

4. Dewey's approach to methodology of teaching led the emergence of the Project Method in education.

5. Dewey advocated that the programmers of the school should be linked with the life of the society. He in this regard, pointed out that the activities should be simplified and that unworthy activities should be discarded.

6. Dewey wanted that the natural interests of the child should be given due attention.

7. Dewey believed in social discipline that could develop through useful activities.

8. Dewey's watchword was social efficiency coupled with individual efficiency.

**Evaluation of Dewey's work**

Following points of criticism are usually made:

1. Dewey does not suggest any definite aim of education.

2. Dewey attaches more importance to materialism.

3. Dewey does not accept any truth as something permanent.

4. Dewey puts excessive emphasis on individual differences.

Education as a Psychological and Social Process: Dewey does not believe in absolute values. According to Dewey, “Education is the process of reconstruction or reconstitution of experience, giving it a more detailed value through the medium of increased social efficiency”. Dewey further observed, “What nutrition and reproduction are to physiological life, education is to social life”. He considered education as ‘the fundamental method of social progress and reform’. In
sum, he believe that the individual who is to be educated is a social individual and that society is an organic union of individuals. If we eliminate the social factor from the child, we are left only with an abstraction; if we eliminate the individual factor from society, we are left only with an inert and lifeless mass. Education, therefore, must begin with a psychological insight into the child's capacities, interests, and habits. It must be at every point by reference to these same considerations. The powers, interests, and habits must be continually interpreted he believe that all education proceeds by the participation, individual gradually comes to share in the intellectual and together. He becomes an inheritor of the funded capital of civilization. The most formal and technical education in the world cannot safely depart from this general process. It can only organize it or differentiate it in some particular direction. He believe that the only true education comes through the stimulation of the child’s powers by the demands of the social situations in which he finds himself.

Dewey’s Concept of Social Efficiency Social efficiency broadly speaking includes three elements of efficient industrial development and the art of living together. A man must learn to be economically self-sufficient and at the same time acquire qualities and values of an enlightened citizen. An individual must be able to earn his livelihood. An individual, who is not able to earn his livelihood, is a parasite. Education must take into account economic aspect. An individual should be trained to make the best use of national resources. A school was considered as a ‘society in miniature’. Dewey was a firm believer in democratic values. He, therefore, insisted that education should provide suitable opportunities to the students to imbibe democratic values.

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

The university education Commission has explained the relationship of Democracy aligns that each individual is a unique adventure of life. The function of education is guidance of this adventure for the realisation of the potentialities of each individual.” Democracy Prof. Dewey in his book “Democracy and Education” has explained very clearly the relationship between education and democracy in these words, “A society which makes provisions for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible adjustment of its institutions through the interaction of the different forms of associated life is a democratic society. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social changes without introducing disorder.” Prof. K.G. Saiyidain explains the functions of education and democracy in his book Education, Culture and Social Order in these words, “Education must be so oriented that it will develop the basic qualities of character which are necessary for the functioning of the
democratic life.” He lists the following qualities to be developed by education for the democratic life:

(i) Passion for social justice.

(ii) Quickening of social conscience.

(iii) Tolerance for cultural and intellectual differences in others.

(iv) Development of love for work.

(v) Deep and true love for the country.

**Importance of education in democracy**

The following points may be mentioned regarding the importance of education in democracy:

1. Education enables the individual to understand his rights and duties.

2. Education develops the qualities of brotherhood, appreciation of other’s point of view etc. qualities essential for the successful functioning of democracy.

3. Education develops dignity of labour and a sense of personal worth.

4. Education broadens the mental horizon of the individual.

5. Education develops values of equality and fair mindedness important elements of democratic outlook.

6. Education helps to evaluate the policies and programmes of political parties.

7. Education helps to evaluate the merits and demerits of candidates contesting elections.

8 Education helps to prevent exploitation.

9. Education helps to develop qualities of followership and leadership.

**MEANING OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION**

*Democratic education* is an educational ideal in which democracy is both a goal and a method of instruction. It brings democratic values to education and can include self-determination within a community of equals, as well as such values as justice, respect and trust. Democratic education is often specifically emancipator, with the students' voices being equal to the teacher's.
Democratic education infuses the learning process with these fundamental values of our society. Democratic education sees young people not as passive recipients of knowledge, but rather as active co-creators of their own learning. They are not the products of an education system, but rather valued participants in a vibrant learning community.

Democratic education begins with the premise that everyone is unique, so each of us learns in a different way. By supporting the individual development of each young person within a caring community, democratic education helps young people learn about themselves, engage with the world around them, and become positive and contributing members of society.

Uniting democratic values with the educational process is not a new idea. Over the last 120 years, leading thinkers from John Dewey to Marian Wright Edelman and Margaret Mead to Paulo Freire have articulated the basic hypothesis that:

- If living in democratic societies committed to human rights creates well-being,
- AND
- If people learn primarily based on the people and environment that surrounds them,
- AND
- If culture is transmitted from one generation to another,
- THEN
- We need to create environments where people of all ages, especially youth, are immersed in the values, practices, and beliefs of democratic societies and human rights.

**DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES IN EDUCATION**

Democratic education can take countless forms, each shaped by the adults and young people in a community or educational setting. Here are a few ways in which democratic education is practiced by teachers, young people, schools, programs, and communities (follow the links for specific examples):

- Teachers creatively engaging students. They may work within more conventional school settings, but still provide students with a chance to have choice in their learning. These teachers go beyond the conventional curriculum to build a more relevant and engaging experience that connects to the lives of young people.
Schools implementing democratic education on a day-to-day basis. They may employ practices like self-directing learning, shared decision-making, individualized project-based work, and student-chosen internships in the community. This includes schools that use the label "democratic schools" and others that practice these values and use other terminology.

- Meaningful youth voice forums providing students with the opportunity to be part of educational planning and decision-making such as through student councils and student-teacher-administrator committees.
- Young people leading reform efforts in their schools and communities.
- Cities and school districts undertaking broad educational reform efforts to personalize learning, break out of the conventional structures and curriculum, and build an "education city".
- Non-profit and after-school programs empowering young people to explore their personal interests and connect to the outside community.
- College and university programs engaging young adults in the development of their own learning plans and in community decision-making. Also, teacher education programs focusing on preparing teachers for democratic and progressive education.
- Parents and youth learning out of school through empowering learning centers and youth centers.
- Policy groups such as youth advisory councils that are involving young people in policy discussions with legislators, governors, and mayors.

**EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY**

**Education for a Democratic Society:** The objective of education India is to try to achieve the aims laid down in the Constitution. A democratic society aims at instilling a love of liberty, equality and fraternity in its people. And, if India is to be made a truly democratic nation, education should aim at developing these qualities. Hence, education aims at the total and independent of the individual. But in this development it is essential that personal liberty should be in consonance with social justice. Social justice is based on equality. It provides every citizen with the opportunity to pursue his own development without prejudicing the interests of others. One implication is that the government must provide the poor people with the opportunity and the help to get an education which will raise them to same level as the others, because without this help they cannot secure such education for themselves. And without it, equality will have no meaning.
The most important democratic objective and ideal of education is the evolution of the sense of fraternity because democratic life is impossible without it. This feeling of brotherhood makes little of the differences generated by caste, race, class, profession, sex nation, etc. The future of any democracy depends entirely upon its future citizens and the quality of leadership. Hence, one of the important functions of education is that it should train the educands in democratic leadership. It is a truism that students in democratic leaders of the nation. Education, therefore, must evolve ways and means of training these prospective leaders in the norms of democratic life. For this, it is essential that the student community itself must evolve a democratic pattern, and it must be burdened with much of the responsibilities of running the educations in order to get practical training in social living.

**TRAINING FOR DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP**

**Training in Citizenship:** A citizen feels that he is a part of the community and that he is there to share its burdens. Attempts should be made to give education for citizenship to promote the cause of liberty and democracy. Citizens are not born, they are to be trained. Therefore, the following strategies may be undertaken in order to develop the sense of citizenship among the students.

1. **Education for citizenship:** It should become a dynamic element in our pattern of education.
2. **Development:** Attempts should be made to inspire the students to develop a sense of cooperation for worthy causes, capacity for critical thought and freedom to place his point of view reasonably.
3. **Debates and discussions:** School should provide activities like debates and discussions on the issues and problems of our country. Mock parliament, mock panchayats, mock-assemblies etc. should be arranged in order to inculcate proper civic values and attitudes.
4. **Excursions:** The schools should organize excursions to places of historic, religious and cultural importance.

**Socialization:** Students should learn to work in the social context and to come into contact with their fellow-men and women in a variety of ways in order to achieve their personal desires.

Productive work: Every boy and girl should willingly undertake useful productive work which may be mental or manual as a result of which he does not remain a burden or a parasite on others and can render some service to society.
Special Camps: Special camps like N.C.C. or A.C.C., N.S.S., I.V.S.P., (international voluntary services for peace) should be organized to provide a natural environment for the students to develop a sense of comradeship resulting from free group activities in work and play.

Self-Government: Students should be encouraged to organize self-govt. in order to learn the art of dividing different activities amongst themselves to carry their duties in a disciplined manner and to obey their freely chosen leaders, so much essential for good citizenship.

Relations among students: Teachers should have a good understanding of adolescent psychology and be able to establish sincere and friendly relations among the students.

Cooperative Society: In order to encourage co-operative group work, schools should organize co-operative societies, where they should actively participate.

Pen-friends clubs: Students should be encouraged to organize pen-friends clubs, on national and international level.

Celebrate birthdays of Great men: The school should celebrate birthdays of great men and women of our country like; Lord Krishna, Gautama Buddha, Shankaracharya, M.K.Gandhi, Gopabadhu, Tagore etc., besides the celebration of important days like the Independence Days the Republic Day etc.

**Measures for educating and training the students for Democracy**

1. Introduction of self-government in school.

2. Organizations of group activities for providing opportunities to develop democratic values.

3. Use of democratic methods of instruction for allowing them simple scope for free expression.

4. Provision for manual work for developing dignity of labour;

5. Giving equal treatment to all students, irrespective of any consideration.
   
   . Recognizing the individuality of each student.
   
   . Providing opportunities for social service.

   . Organization of camps.

9. Organizing programmes of community kitchen where possible.

10. Arranging hostel facilities where feasible.
11. Making equal opportunities for admission.

12. Encouraging different hobbies.

13. Organizing visits to legislatures.

MULTICULTURALISM AND EDUCATION

Multicultural education refers to any form of education or teaching that incorporates the histories, texts, values, beliefs, and perspectives of people from different cultural backgrounds. At the classroom level, for example, teachers may modify or incorporate lessons to reflect the cultural diversity of the students in a particular class. In many cases, “culture” is defined in the broadest possible sense, encompassing race, ethnicity, nationality, language, religion, class, gender, sexual orientation, and “exceptionality”—a term applied to students with specialized needs or disabilities.

Generally speaking, multicultural education is predicated on the principle of educational equity for all students, regardless of culture, and it strives to remove barriers to educational opportunities and success for students from different cultural backgrounds. In practice, educators may modify or eliminate educational policies, programs, materials, lessons, and instructional practices that are either discriminatory toward or insufficiently inclusive of diverse cultural perspectives.

Multicultural education also assumes that the ways in which students learn and think are deeply influenced by their cultural identity and heritage, and that to teach culturally diverse students effectively requires educational approaches that value and recognize their cultural backgrounds. In this way, multicultural education aims to improve the learning and success of all students, particularly students from cultural groups that have been historically underrepresented or that suffer from lower educational achievement and attainment.

Instructionally, multicultural education may entail the use of texts, materials, references, and historical examples that are understandable to students from different cultural backgrounds or that reflect their particular cultural experience—such as teaching students about historical figures who were female, disabled, or gay (a less common practice in past decades). Since schools in the United States have traditionally used texts, learning materials, and cultural examples that commonly—or even exclusively—reflect an American or Eurocentric point of view, other cultural perspectives are often absent. Consequently, some students—such as recently arrived immigrants or students of color, for example—may be placed at an educational disadvantage due to cultural or linguistic obstacles that have been overlooked or ignored.
The following are a few representative ways in which multicultural education may play out in schools:

**Learning content:** Texts and learning materials may include multiple cultural perspectives and references. For example, a lesson on colonialism in North America might address different cultural perspectives, such as those of the European settlers, indigenous Americans, and African slaves.

**Student cultures:** Teachers and other educators may learn about the cultural backgrounds of students in a school, and then intentionally incorporate learning experiences and content relevant to their personal cultural perspectives and heritage. Students may also be encouraged to learn about the cultural backgrounds of other students in a class, and students from different cultures may be given opportunities to discuss and share their cultural experiences.

**Critical analysis:** Educators may intentionally scrutinize learning materials to identify potentially prejudicial or biased material. Both educators and students might analyze their own cultural assumptions, and then discuss how learning materials, teaching practices, or schools policies reflect cultural bias, and how they could be changed to eliminate bias.

**Resource allocation:** Multicultural education is generally predicated on the principle of equity—i.e., that the allocation and distribution of educational resources, programs, and learning experiences should be based on need and fairness, rather than strict equality. For example, students who are not proficient in the English language may learn in bilingual settings and read bilingual texts, and they may receive comparatively more instructional support than their English-speaking peers so that they do not fall behind academically or drop out of school due to language limitations.

**Multicultural Education in India**

The purpose of multicultural education in India -According to Chakrarty (2001) it is two aspects: to make education effective and to ensure that education is available to all children in India. According to India’s constitution, article 21A: “The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years.” At present, Indian children, depending on their family’s status and wealth, may attend one of three types of schools: private schools, English medium schools, or public schools. Children in India’s better schools are taught to analyze information and to think critically. However, as India’s education is still plagued by the longstanding caste system that encourages only a small part of the society to value and acquire an education, the quality of education in these schools varies greatly. Children from the lower sections of society must attend the crowded public schools where they are “taught” merely to memorize and
then recall information. This approach to education --- parodied by Charles Dickens and his character, the authoritarian schoolmaster Thomas Gradgrind, in the 1854 novel *Hard Times* --- is now generally accepted as an antiquated and ineffective method. Bad management, Chakravarty (2001) says, has been the greatest obstacle to improving education in India’s public schools. Despite a number of government initiatives, children in public schools still have a high drop-out rate, and they receive an education that does not prepare them or motivate them for continued education at a university. Thus, the main goal of multicultural education equality education for all India’s children -- has not yet been attained. In addition, it can be understood from the National Curriculum Framework (2005) for the multicultural education in India, the following items should be developed:

• Strengthening a national system of education in a pluralistic society.
• Reducing the curriculum load based on insights provided in 'Learning without Burden'.
• Systemic changes in tune with curricular reforms.
• Curricular practices based on the values enshrined in the Constitution, such as social justice, equality, and secularism.
• Ensuring quality education for all children.
• Building a citizenry committed to democratic practices, values, sensitivity towards gender justice, problems faced by the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, needs of the disabled, and capacities to participate in economic and political processes.
• A renewed effort should be made to implement the three-language formula, emphasizing the recognition of children's home language(s) or mother tongue(s) as the best medium of instruction. These include tribal languages.
• The multilingual character of Indian society should be seen as are source for the enrichment of school life.

**CONCLUSION**

A common view clearly articulated by the modernization theory claims that high levels of schooling are both a prerequisite for democracy and a major cause of democratization. The evidence in favor of this view is largely based on cross-sectional or pooled cross-sectional regressions. This paper documents that this evidence is not robust to including fixed effects and exploiting the within-country variation. This strongly suggests that the cross-sectional relationship between education and democracy is driven by omitted factors influencing both education and democracy rather than a causal relationship.
QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. What is the meaning of Democracy?
2. Discuss about Dewey’s concept of democracy and Education?
3. Describe the importance of education in democracy.
4. Which types of training for democratic citizenship?
5. Discuss about multiculturalism and Education.
6. How will you measures for educating and training the students for democracy?

SUGGESTED READING/REFERENCE BOOK

UNIT - 6: MEANING AND NATURE OF CURRICULUM

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the course, the student-teachers will be able to:

- acquires the knowledge of the terms and concepts used in curriculum development.
- understands the meaning of curriculum.
- applies the knowledge in analyzing the different concepts of curriculum.
- develops skill in planning and implementing manifold activities of not only open curriculum but also hidden curriculum
- develops interests in studying books, journals, and articles on concept of curriculum
- appreciates the contribution of curriculum as a cultural map.
- develops a desirable positive attitude towards multi-conceptual frame work of curriculum

INTRODUCTION

The curriculum is the heart of schooling, the education process. Education and curriculum are two sides of the same coin. While education is a process, curriculum is a means to the process. While education is learning, curriculum signifies situations for learning. While education deals with how and when, curriculum deals with what. While education is the product, curriculum is the plan. All resources available at school i.e. the school building, equipment, varieties of instructional materials including books, equipments, software’s, hardwares exist for just one purpose-for supporting effective implementation of the curriculum. The entire set of educational activities-the curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular activities as well as the organization of teaching-learning strategies and the evaluation schedule flow from the school curriculum. In education it is generally identified with a course of study, subjects prescribed for a course. In fact subjects form only a part of curriculum and they do not constitute the whole of it. The term curriculum stands for the totality of planned learning experiences offered to students in a school. Thus, curriculum means the total situation selected and organized by the institution and made available to the teacher to operate and to translate the ultimate aim of education into reality. Curriculum can be called the pivot around which various classroom activities and entire school programmes are developed. When people talk about curriculum, they use various phrases such as meaning of curriculum, concept of curriculum, definition of curriculum, structure of curriculum, dynamics of curriculum, changing concepts of curriculum, foundations for curriculum, open curriculum, hidden curriculum,
models of curriculum development, determinants of curriculum, curriculum process, curriculum design, approaches to curriculum development, curriculum transaction and curriculum evaluation. All these have been discussed in the course of knowledge and curriculum. The unit-VI provides a conceptual framework regarding the meaning, definition, concept, structure and dynamics of curriculum.

MEANING OF CURRICULUM

Curriculum is one of the most important items in the educative process. The curriculum, in fact, is the fundamental problem which determines the ‘warp’ and ‘woof’ of the process of education. What to do and how to do are the very essence of curriculum.

Etymologically, the term curriculum is derived from the Latin word “currere” which means run or run-way or to run a course. Thus curriculum means a course to be run for reaching a certain goal.

The curriculum refers to a specified course of study at a school, college, or university or the aggregate of the courses of study given in a school, college or university. The stated curriculum of a programme constitutes a small part of the total learning milieu, but it is obviously the most tangible one, and reflects the philosophy and objectives underlying the educational programme.

A survey of the following definitions of “curriculum” by various educators reflect the modern concept of curriculum and their classification.

A curriculum means, the total situation (all situations) selected and organized by the institution and made available to the teacher to operate and to translate the ultimate aim of education into reality.

In the words of Cunningham, curriculum is a tool in the hands of the artist (the teacher) to mould his material (the pupil) according to his ideal (objective) in his studio (the school). The material is highly self active, self-determining human being who reacts and responds consciously.

Curriculum may be defined as the “social environmental in motion”. It is the sum total of all the activities and experiences provided by the schools to the learners for achieving the desired objectives. The course of studies are merely a suggestion for curriculum activities and procedures, a guide for teaching to follow.
DEFINITION OF CURRICULUM

Curriculum refers to the means and materials with which students will interact for the purpose of achieving identified educational outcomes.

Curriculum definitions fit five categories:

1. Curriculum as a product - program, document, electronic media, or multimedia
2. Curriculum as a program of study - usually courses offered, curriculum sequences of study in standards as benchmarks, gateways,
3. Curriculum as intended learnings - goals, content, concepts, generalizations, outcomes
4. Curriculum as experiences of the learner - activities, planned and unplanned.
5. Hidden curriculum - what students learn that isn't planned - unwritten, unofficial, and often unintended lessons, values, and perspectives that students learn in school.

CONCEPTS OF CURRICULUM

There is available a multiplicity of concepts of curriculum since educationists give their own different interpretations of the content and functions of curriculum. Let us discuss three such concepts by three different thinkers, which represent three major contributions to the body of knowledge on curriculum. The first concept, stated by Albert Oliver, refers to curriculum merely as the educational program consisting of three important elements, such as studies, activities and guidance. The second concept, described by Philip Phenix, is based on a carefully thought out scheme of values which constitute the aims and objectives, or purposes of education. The third concept, given by Hilda Taba, looks at curriculum as the function of the public school, she list the three functions as preserving and transmitting cultural heritage, serving as an instrument for transformation of culture, and working as a means for individual development.

Curriculum as the Educational Program

The first concept is that curriculum may be referred to simply as the ‘educational program’. The educational program may be supposed to consists of three basic elements, viz., 1) the program of studies, 2) the program of activities and 3) the program of guidance (Albert Oliver).

The 'program of studies will refer to the listing of the subjects for each class or grade. This list may include, for each grade, subjects and levels of information considered suitable for the level, for eg. English, Science, World History, Physical Education, Music, Art, etc. The areas of study identified for the schools are, generally, uniform. The listing of subjects emphasizes the exploration of culture because the basic function of the school is to transmit the cultural heritage of mankind to
the young. Since the heritage is huge, and not all could be transmitted, there is an attempt to select and organize the information in the curriculum. The organizing results in labeling of the different areas of information at Science, Mathematics, History, etc. The curriculum constructors and the teachers must be able to think beyond this programmes of studies, which constitutes just an element in the wider educational programme.

The programme of activities is believed to vitalise the curriculum. It is found that the curriculum should contain more than the selected content, which represent the cultural heritage, because many pupils fail to learn the cultural background unaided by suitable activities. So the ‘educational program should include actual pupil experiences represented by activities, in addition to the cultural experience’ represented by the studies. This view of curriculum recognizes that the school is concerned not only with having every child learn a body of knowledge, but also have him experience a method of facing life.

This recognition of the importance of a program of activities, covers all levels of schooling, from the elementary level to the college, but with an obvious shift of emphasis. At the elementary level, the “activity concept tends to be incorporated into the daily program.” The elementary pupil’s class work may assume such a character, that the program of studies and the program of activities are blended together indistinguishably. For e.g. in the arithmetic class, pupil groups may be found working on activities, which will help develop number concepts. At the same time, the elementary school programme provides for school activities outside the realm of formal subjects such as student government, clubs, assemblies, games, sports meet, educational tour, etc.

At the secondary level, a less integrated programme of activities obtains. The programme of studies here is given such an emphasis that activities other than reading, recalling and reciting are termed as ‘co-curricular’, or ‘extra-class’. It is now common for many secondary schools to designate certain periods as ‘activity periods’. Certain other activities come after school hours, but they also are part of the planned educational program, such as student council, athletics, clubs, etc.

At the college level, there is even great separation between the programme of studies and of activities. Here the ‘programme of activities’ refers to the life of students on the campus. In the universities in the West, there is a Dean for academic affairs and a Dean for the non-academic life of students. Except for his possible personal interest in some activity such as dramatics, games, or music, the typical college professor, who is a specialist in cultural heritage know little about the extra – class activities of students. But although the programmes of studies and of activities are not integrated explicitly, there are elements of both in the overall curriculum concept in higher
education. Anyway, the importance given to the programme of activities, as a part of the overall educational programme, will depend upon the educational philosophy on which it is based.

The ‘programme of guidance’, the third element in the curriculum, helps to solve the individual learner’s problems, which center in interpersonal and group situations: Guidance is an integrative force for the individual and for the educational programme., Formerly guidance was associated with “job placement’, But today, the concept has expanded to become ‘composite of personal services’. Now, guidance is considered as an integral part of the total educational programme. The programme of guidances has been found to have validity in the classroom, because there are as many problems growing up as there are pupils. Thus, guidance gives an opportunity to build individuality into the personality. “Better than the program of studies, which emphasizes the past and the present, guidance cut across time barriers. “It mainly looks to the future, because ‘its ultimate goal is to help the pupil to become increasingly competent to face his own problems and to make his own decisions.

Thus, the emerging concept of curriculum considers the educational programme as made up of the three fundamental elements viz., the programme of studies, the programme of activities and the programme of guidance. The ultimate goal in curriculum designing is concern for the individual, and the creating of conditions that will improve learning.

Curriculum as the Scheme of Values

A second concept of the curriculum, stated that what shall be taught in the school must be based on a principle of selection which can be stated as a scale of values, or a set of criteria. Here, the concept of curriculum is a question of values (PhilipH.Phenix). Any noble idea, feeling or action which tends to safeguarding the society is termed as value. “The curriculum is a set of proposed construction embodying the preferred direction of student development.” It is based on a scheme of values which constitute the aims, Objectives or purposes of education. The curriculum is so fashioned as to help to achieve the aims, realize the objectives and fulfill the purposes.

We all have a great many interests such as biological, survival, physical and mental comfort, economic sufficiency, self-expression, companionship, and understanding of the natural and social worlds. Pursuits of these interests give life its meaning and direction. The satisfaction or attainment of these interests is values, such as health, security, freedom, friendship, and knowledge.

Under this concept, six types of values have been suggested as underlying the decisions regarding the construction of the curriculum.
Firstly, education should meet the basic need of man to be human. There are six suggested constituents of a curriculum for developing essential humanity in man. They are, elementary physical skills, basic social skills, the ability to use symbols such as language, numbers etc. constructive activities, play and moral responsibility.

Secondly, there are the educational requirements created by the actual society of which the learner is a member. These requirements are, the language, which is in actual use in the society, the manners and customs prevalent in the society, the occupations, determined by the social conditions, for livelihood, defence, religion, etc., and the common values upon which the society rests. These requirements must find a place in the school curriculum, to satisfy the actual social needs.

The next set of needs or values, the curriculum must incorporate, are those that are required for the creation of a better social order or an ideal society, as different from the actual society. The school is an important means of effecting the desired improvements, for bringing about a new social order. “The social ideal embodied in the curriculum should be an advance over what now is, but should not be so radical a departure that all connection with the imperfect conditions of actual life is lost. “Thus the student must be prepared to work for an achievable social order, and not for a dream. So, the curriculum must include provision for the study of cultures other than one’s own culture: it should try to achieve occupational balance, by teaching occupations of both the present society and the future ideal society.

The fourth set of values consists of the actual needs of the individual in society. Though it is not possible to separate personal and social values entirely, the unique qualities and capabilities of each individual constitute important values. So, a curriculum must be constructed for each individual. Since individual curricular are expensive the aim is attempted to be achieved through methods like, high teacher – student radio, tutorial system, ability grouping of students, etc. Individual curriculum also meet the requirement of exceptional students. A well-developed system of testing is also necessary for individual development.

The fifth set of values concern the needs of the ideal individual as different from those of the actual individual. The school curriculum must include provision for meeting the needs of the ideal individual also. One must have some conception of the ideal individual to be able to select the relevant teaching material. The ideal individual possesses physical intellectual, moral, aesthetic and religious qualities.

The last kind of values relates to the cultural tradition which belongs to all the five sets of values. A cultural value may be defined as widely held beliefs or sentiments that some activities,
relationships, feelings, goals are important to the community’s identity or well-being. This kind of value is based on the claims of the cultural tradition. So a part of the curriculum must consist of materials, which just help to preserve and extend the cultural heritage, but has no practical use. This meets the ideal of pure scholarship or education for the sake of education.

The integration of all such values is known as value system. One value serves and is served by another and with them forms a system of values, a total life. Thus, educational objectives, values and education go side by side without separation in every thought, word and action which are only three aspects of man’s consciousness.

**Curriculum as the Function of Public School**

A third concept of curriculum looks at it as the function of the public school. In a free society with a complex culture, the different strata of society participate in the work of determining what should be the components of the curriculum (HildaTaba).

The deciding of the function of the school is a complex task and it involves a debate of the many issues of a free society, like in India such as the balance between freedom and control, between change and tradition, who should shape the public policy, etc. But there is a consensus regarding the role of education in society. It is believed that formal education can reduce poverty and distress, prevent child delinquency and crime, promote the well-being of the individual, protect the welfare and stability of the state, and generally achieve all good causes.

In view of the heated controversy regarding the nature of relationship of education to society, there have arisen many variations in the conceptions of what the essential function of the public school is. One view is that schools have the responsibility of inducting the young into the culture in which the school exists, but there are sharp differences, about which aspects of culture should be transmitted, and in what measure. A second view looks upon education as an agent of change, and thus, the function of the school is looked upon as one of introducing changes in the existing culture, rather than preserving in intact. A third view of the function of the school is that it should uphold the ideals of individual development, which are quite independent of cultural norms.

As it is obvious, there are overlappings of these views of the function of the public school. Within each view, again there are sharp conflicts regarding the nature of the curriculum, Therefore, it would be appropriate to discuss the function of school education and the resulting components of the curriculum, under three headings. 1) education as the tool for preservation and transmission of cultural heritage. 2) education as an instrument for transforming culture, and 3) education as the means for individual development.
Under the first function of education as the tool for preservation and transmission of culture, the preservation of the cultural heritage is stressed by one group of theorists. The persons who hold this view argue that since all cultural traditions have roots cultural continuity is possible only if education preserves this heritage by passing on the truths worked out in the past to the new generation thus developing a common cultural background and loyalties. What is meant is the transmission of the accumulated wisdom of the race and of basic truths. This heritage is basic to education because it uses the past to clarify or even to determine what is important in the present. This group of theorists also argue that the heritage must be modified by a recognition of the role of new experience and change. There must be a reconciliation of the common heritage with the new and independent insight because scientific methods of thought, curiosity, and a readiness for change are also necessary for sound education. It is a question of relating tradition to experiment, or the ideal to the means. It means, that, while emphasizing, experiment and change, one must realize that the basic ideals of what constitutes a good man come from tradition.

Another group of theorists, called rational humanists and classicists argue that the chief function of education is to develop rationality, since this quality is the essence of human nature. Since rationality is essential, the subjects of greatest rational content should have priority in the curriculum. The eternal, universal truths are believed to be contained in the classical literature of the great books. These subjects are referred to as liberal arts, since they contribute to the liberalizing of education. This is an argument for the preserving function of education, and for the uniformity of curriculum, which contains mainly the great books of the past.

As it is obvious, the logical consequence of this viewpoint is a rejection of technical subjects, and of vocational education in general, because of their supposed narrowing influence. Vocational or technical education is considered as mere training, not education and is looked upon as unnecessary encroachment on liberal education. These theorists, subscribing to the concept of ‘basic education’ emphasize three points, regarding the curriculum of the public school. First is the emphasis on intellectual development as the distinctive function of public schools. This intellectual development must stress the understanding of principles and the ability to handle and to apply complex ideas. Second is the assertion that this type of intellectual training is possible only through the acquisition of the basic skills and disciplines, such as reading, writing and arithmetic at the lower level and logic, history philosophy, mathematics, science and art at the higher levels. This leads to the assumption that there is a hierarchy of subjects, formed according to their power to enhance intellectual development. The traditional liberal arts subjects are believed to be at the top of this hierarchy. Third is the complete rejection of the current functions of the school, such as...
education for democratic citizenship, for moral values, for ability to deal with social problems, and for vocations. A concern for these studies will supposedly harm the development of intelligence.

There are of course, many criticisms about this view of this function of the public school. The second function of the public school is that it must help in transforming the culture of the society in which it exists, besides preserving culture. It says that education must play a creative role in modifying and reshaping culture, which means reshaping society. John Dewey was the most articulate proponent of the role of education as the instrument of social transformation. He placed emphasis on two types of responsibilities of the school, one being social and the other being individual development.

The concept of education as a reconstruction of society, included the understanding that education reflects the cultural setting of the society that it appreciates the fact of change in modern culture, and that education is a moral undertaking and, so involves value judgements. Going further, education is looked upon as a tool, not only to foster changes in society, but to change the very social order. Thus education is looked upon as management and control of social change, and as social engineering, by a forward looking group of educators, called reconstructionists. In this reconstructionist scheme, an exalted role is given to education and schools. The educators are expected to examine the social forces and the social institutions, and translate this knowledge of culture and society into a curriculum, which will help students to understand the social forces and institutions. The total educative impact of the school must bring about changes in beliefs, personality and social arrangements.

But many question the capacity of formal education and schools to assume a leading role in changing the society, the social structure and the culture. The sociologists call it unrealistic for schools to be animated by goals which differ radically from those of the culture in which they work. The educational institutions can pursue only those aims which the society considers desirable. Historically speaking the changes in educational aims have only followed, not preceded, changes in society’s ideals, and culture.

The third functions of the school is the bringing about of individual development in the child. This is attempted to the achieved through focusing educational effort on the development of all the powers of the child, such as creative imagination, individually, physical and emotional powers etc. The result of this is the idea of the development of the ‘whole child’ and the idea of the ‘child centered school’. The curriculum is but solely to meet the needs and interests of children. The main purpose of this approach is to put the child in the centre of educational activity, and to
allow him to develop into a unique personality in an atmosphere of freedom. But, this view of individual development is linked with the emphasis on the social origins of the individual’s abilities. The society of which a person is a member, socializes the individual. But the school corrects the deficiencies in socialization which occur in society, because of the limitations imposed by the social structure.

There are serious arguments about the relative importance of the subject-centered or cultural orientation, child-centered or activity orientation and the problem-centered or social orientation in education. But the fact is the child centered education is inevitably a society-centered and cultural-centered education.

All the above three views about the function of the school have definite implications for the curriculum. They help to decide curriculum practices, such as studying contemporary problems rather than ancient history; they provide the theoretical basis for choosing between the classics and modern literature, as part of school study, they are relevant to the problems of guidance, of individualization of curriculum content, and of methods of teaching.

**STRUCTURE OF THE CURRICULUM**

The curriculum system is a set of components, for achieving broad educational goals. These components comprise plans for a program of learning opportunities arranged within curriculum domains (aims, goals and objectives) and include suggestions for subject matter, curriculum designs, instructional modes (methods and organization) and evaluative procedures. These concepts are briefly defined in the following paragraphs.

i) *Curriculum Domains:* The curriculum domain is defined as “a grouping of learning opportunities planned to achieve a single set of major educational goals”. Thus the identity of the domains for which plans are made for a particular school center is dependent upon the major educational goals selected by the planners. We recognize, of course, that many factors determine the goals of a particular school center, and it is to be expected that goals will differ among centers. Nevertheless, we suggest as a broad classification of goals or objectives by domains for our reference in this and other chapters of this book, three sets of goals or objectives that seem to us to be of great present and future significance: intellectual development, value development and skill development.

Aims refer to ultimate goals which are proposed by the education system. The term goals refer to the long-term end. Objectives are the milestones to achieving the aims or endpoints of the educational system of a country. Educational objectives are desired learning outcome of education;
sometimes it refers to explicitly worded statements specifying the behaviour the learners should be able to exhibit in some measurable form. The learning outcomes refer to the knowledge, attitude, skills, etc., that a learner acquires as a result of some learning experience. These often include intended as well as unintended results of learnings.

ii) **Subject matter:** Subject matter in each discipline consists of facts, concepts, rules and generalization. Facts are based on observations of events that have either occurred in the past or exist in the present. Concepts are the name given to the categories formed as a result of classifying factual data. All learners form concepts and give them names in order to make sense of the various stimuli in the world. Rules and generalizations are statements that link two or more concepts. They are predictive in nature contain more than one element.

iii) **Curriculum design:** Curriculum design is the process of drawing up curriculum proposals including what to include and how to present in such a manner as to advance the changes of implementing the curriculum with understanding and success. Learning experiences facilitate change in behaviour and as a result of this attainment of aims and objectives. Various learning experiences deal with the human being’s functioning in particular situations, their interests of problem solving. These learning experiences provide cognitive (mental) affective (emotional) and conative, (physical) experiences or their mix.

The curriculum designing is the creative aspect of curriculum development. The planning group responsible, for example, for developing plans in the human relations domain for a population of middle school children, having collected and analysed essential data and identified goals, would need to create or select a general pattern - a design - for the learning opportunities to be provided. Among their alternatives would be 1) a subject design utilizing specific studies in the social sciences and humanities; 2) a scope and sequence plan built around a selection of persistent human relations (scope); 3) an analysis of the essential skills of human relations to be taught as the basis of activity and skills groups; 4) a selection with the students of individual interests and problems related to human relations in the classroom, school and community; 5) and others, including combinations of the foregoing. The design plan ultimately anticipates the entire range of learning opportunities within the domain for this population, or at least the points of further planning.

The curriculum system, as we have viewed and presented it includes the implementation of the curriculum design, or instruction. Each learning opportunities involves some mode, that is, way of happening.
iv) Evaluative Procedures

The curriculum system also includes a plan for evaluation of the curriculum in relation to its goals. Our treatment of evaluation recognizes both formative and summative evaluation. Formative procedures are the feedback arrangements which enable the planners and implementers of the curriculum to make adjustments and improvements throughout the planning or implementing process. The summative evaluation comes at the end and deals directly with the evaluation of the total curriculum plan; this evaluation becomes in effect feedback for the planners to use in deciding whether to repeat, modify, or eliminate the plan with another population.

DYNAMICS OF CURRICULUM

There are essentially eight curriculums at work in most educational settings: the explicit, implicit, null, extra, rhetorical, societal, concomitant and phantom curriculum.

The Explicit Curriculum

Explicit means "obvious" or "apparent," and that’s just what the explicit curriculum is all about: the subjects that will be taught, the identified "mission" of the school, and the knowledge and skills that the school expects successful students to acquire.

Overt, explicator written curriculum is simply that which is written as part of formal instruction of the schooling experience. It may refer to a curriculum document, texts, and supportive materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school.

Cuban (1992) calls it an intended curriculum (recommended, adopted, official). It serves as a documented map of theories, beliefs, and intentions about schooling, teaching, learning, and knowledge-evidence in the development of teacher proof curriculum.

Curriculum-in-use The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the district curriculum guides. However, those "formal" elements are frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher.

Cuban (1992) calls it the taught curriculum (implicit, delivered, operational) where teacher beliefs begin altering the curriculum/teaching style. Relates to Hidden curriculum (see below).

Received curriculum Those things that students actually take out of classroom; those concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered.
Cuban (1992) calls it the learned curriculum. "The gap between what is taught and what is learned—both intended and unintended—is large."

In a nutshell the open curriculum refers to the explicit obligation that are found in every learning institution to which school participants must ready to discharge their duty with sense of responsibility bind by legal contract. The open curriculum is otherwise called as actual curriculum or visible curriculum or official curriculum. Sometimes referred to as the hidden curriculum, the implicit curriculum refers to the lessons that arise from the culture of the school and the behaviors, attitudes, and expectations that characterize that culture.

The hidden or covert curriculum -That which is implied by the very structure and nature of schools, much of what revolves around daily or established routines.

Longstreet and Shane (1993) offer a commonly accepted definition for this term.

. . . the "hidden curriculum," which refers to the kinds of learnings children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators...."

Examples of the hidden curriculum might include the messages and lessons derived from the mere organization of schools -- the emphasis on:

- sequential room arrangements;
- the cellular, timed segments of formal instruction;
- an annual schedule that is still arranged to accommodate an agrarian age;
- disciplined messages that concentration equates to classrooms where students are sitting up straight and are continually quiet;
- students getting in and standing in line silently;
- students quietly raising their hands to be called on; competition for grades, and so on.

The hidden curriculum may include both positive or negative messages, depending on the perspective of the learner or the observer.

The term hidden or unstudied curriculum is used to designate those organizational aspects of school life and the informal, interpersonal relations among the members of the school community that serve unofficially, and often insidiously, the function of socialization.
The concept “hidden curriculum” was developed by Benson Snyder’ (1971) and used by educators, sociologists, and psychologists in describing the informal system. It refers to the “implicit demand (as opposed to the explicit obligations of the ‘visible curriculum’) that are found in every learning institution and which students have to find out and respond to in order to survive within it”. The “hidden curriculum” refers to the three R’s - “rules, regulations, and routines”-to which school participants must adapt. The lesson is clear in the way in which classrooms are organized, the reward system, and the moral socialization which is passed on through the three R’s.

Many alternative names exist for “the hidden curriculum”: unwritten, unstudied, tacit, latent, unnoticed. David Hargreaves suggests that many of these names are inappropriate because the phenomenon has received so attention in recent years that it is no longer “hidden” or “unstudied”. He therefore suggests a new term: “paracurriculum”-“that which is taught and learned alongside the formal or official curriculum”. In his analysis of the research done on the “paracurriculum”, he finds that the research falls into two major categories: 1) The social-psychological aspects of the paracurriculum from functionalist-conservative or radical-conflict points of view; and 2) the sociological aspects from a functionalist conservative account or the more radical-conflict position. We will refer to these perspectives in our discussion of the informal system.

From the systems perspective, the “paracurriculum” is but one part of the total informal system, and we can understand it only by understanding the context in which it exists. Therefore, we return to our systems model to review other elements which make up the informal system.

**The Open Systems Approach and the Para-curriculum**

The internal system of the school has both a formal aspect (that of roles and structure) and an informal one, which includes the para-curriculum, the atmosphere or climate of the school, power relationships and its unanticipated consequences of the formal school structure.

What really happens in school is also affects by environmental influences on the school. Consider the model below, and note some environmental elements which affect the internal system:
The school’s environment includes the composition and size of the community, the activity level of parents, the background of the students, the support services of the school, the legislative and financial support, political and other pressure groups, and many other influences which are unique to each individual system. These environment influence the student’s motivation, aspirations and achievement. Stressing cognitive learning (open curriculum) without considering the personal, emotional and even spiritual state of the individual, is only considering half of learning. Educational program should improve the learners self-concepts, awareness skills and sense of personal integrity.

The Null Curriculum

This aspect of curriculum refers to “the options students are not afforded, the perspectives they may never know about, much less be able to use, the concepts and skills that are not a part of their intellectual repertoire”

The null curriculum - That which we do not teach, thus giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society.

Extra-curriculum

The fourth aspect of curriculum is that of the extra-curriculum or co-curriculum. This curriculum represents all of those school-sponsored programs that are intended to supplement the academic aspect of the school experience. Athletics, band, drama, student government, clubs, honor societies and student organizations, and school dances and social events all fall under the heading
of extracurricular activities. Participation in these activities is purely voluntary and does not contribute to grades or credits earned toward advancement from one grade to the next or to graduation. Extracurricular activities are typically open to all, though participation often depends on skill level.

Rhetorical curriculum Elements from the rhetorical curriculum are comprised from ideas offered by policymakers, school officials, administrators, or politicians. This curriculum may also come from those professionals involved in concept formation and content changes; or from those educational initiatives resulting from decisions based on national and state reports, public speeches, or from texts critiquing outdated educational practices. The rhetorical curriculum may also come from the publicized works offering updates in pedagogical knowledge.

Societal curriculum Cortes (1981) defines societal curricula as:
"...[the] massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, churches organizations, occupations, mass, media and other socializing forces that "educate" all of us throughout our lives."

Concomitant curriculum- What is taught, or emphasized at home, or those experiences that are part of a family's experiences, or related experiences sanctioned by the family. (This type of curriculum may be received at church, in the context of religious expression, lessons on values, ethics or morals, molded behaviors, or social experiences based on a family's preferences.)

Phantom curriculum- The messages prevalent in and through exposure to media.

CHANGING CONCEPTS OF CURRICULUM

The term curriculum refers to the lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or program. In dictionaries, curriculums often defined as the courses offered by a school, but it is rarely used in such a general sense in schools. Depending on how broadly educators define or employ the term, curriculum typically refers to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning standards or learning objectives they are expected to meet; the units and lessons that teachers teach; the assignments and projects given to students; the books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in a course; and the tests, assessments, and other methods used to evaluate student learning. An individual teacher’s curriculum, for example, would be the specific learning standards, lessons, assignments, and materials used to organize and teach a particular course.
When the terms *curriculum* or *curricula* are used in educational contexts without qualification, specific examples, or additional explanation, it may be difficult to determine precisely what the terms are referring to—mainly because they could be applied to either all or only some of the component parts of a school’s academic program or courses.

Saylor and Alexander have classified the concepts of curriculum into four categories. These are curriculum as a plan, curriculum as experiences, curriculum as subject matter or content and curriculum as objectives.

**Curriculum as a Plan**

“Curriculum is a plan or programme for all experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of the school” (Oliva, 1982).

Carter V. Good (1959) defines curriculum as “a general overall plan of the content or specific materials of instruction that the school should offer the student by way of qualifying him for gradation or certification for entrance into a professional or vocational field.”

Tyler and Hilda Taba (1962) define curriculum “as a plan for action, or a written document, which includes strategies for achieving desired goals or ends.”

Galen Saylor defines curriculum “as a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities for persons to be educated”.

David Pratt (1980) defines “curriculum as an organized set of formal educational and/or training intensions”.

Wiles and Bondi view “curriculum as a plan for learning whereby objectives determine what learning is important”.

West Burg and Steimer (1971) define the “curriculum as a plan for providing sets of learning opportunities to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population served by single school center. Thus curriculum can be regarded as anticipatory or indented.”

“A curriculum is the formulation and implementation of an educational proposal, to be taught and learnt within schools or other institutions and for which that institution accepts responsibility at three levels: its rationale, its actual implementation and its effects” (Jenkin and Shipman, 1975).
In the words of Kerney and Cook, “curriculum is a complex of more or less planned or controlled conditions under which students learn to behave and to behave in their various ways. In it, new behaviour may be acquired, present behaviour may be modified, maintained or eliminated, and desirable, behaviour may become both persisted and viable”.

**Curriculum as an Experience**

E.M. Draper suggests another dimension to curriculum “The curriculum is defined today as the total learning experience which pupils have, in and out of learning institutions, under the guidance of the faculty.

According to Carter V. Good, “Curriculum is a body of prescribed educative experiences under school supervision designed to provide to the individual with the best possible training and experiences to fit him for the society of which he is a part and to qualify him for a trade or profession”.

“Curriculum is that reconstruction of knowledge and experiences systematically developed under the auspices of the school (or university) to enable the learner to increase his or her control of knowledge and experience” (Tanner and Tanner, 1980)

The Secondary Education Commission (1952-54) states that “curriculum includes totality of experiences pupil receives through the manifold activities that go on in the school, classroom, library, laboratory, workshop, playground and in numerous informal contacts between teachers and pupils.” In other words the whole life of school is curriculum which can touch the life of students at all levels and helps in evolution of a balanced personality.

According to Crow and Crow, “curriculum includes all the learners experiences in and outside the school that are included in a programme which has been devised to help to develop mentally, physically, emotionally, spiritually and morally.”

According to Bobbitt (1918), “Curriculum is that series of things which children and youth must do and experience by way of developing abilities to do the things well that make up the affairs of adult life; and to be in all respects of what adults should be”.

Anderson refers to curriculum as the whole of the interacting forces of the total environment provided for pupils by the school and the pupils’ experiences in that environment.

According to Saylor and Alexander (1966), “Curriculum encompasses all learning opportunities provided by the school”.

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According to Harnack (1968), “Curriculum embodies all the teaching learning experiences guided and directed by the school”.

Smith et al., (1957) define “curriculum as a sequence of potential experiences set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting”.

Foshay (1969) opines that “curriculum encompasses all experiences a learner has under the guidance of the school”.

John Dewey define “curriculum as dealing with the experiences of the learners. This view considers almost anything in school, even outside of school as part of the curriculum”.

Caswell and Campbell (1935) define curriculum as “all the experiences children have under the guidance of teachers.” Shepherd and Ragan state that “the curriculum consists of the ongoing experiences of children under the guidance of the school”. It represents a special environment…. for helping children achieve self-realization through active participation within the school.

Glen Hass (1987) contends that “curriculum is all of the experiences that individual learners have in a programme of education whose purpose is to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives, which is planned in terms of a framework of theory and research or past and present to professional practices.” The curriculum is thus a list of planned learning experiences offered to the students under the direction of the school, in other words, curriculum is a blueprint of experiences that have been planned for the students.

**Curriculum as a Subject Matter**

Historically and currently, the dominant concept of the curriculum is that of subjects and subject matter therein to be taught by teachers and learned by students. In high schools and colleges, the term ‘curriculum’ has been and still is widely used to refer to the set of subjects or courses offered and also to those required or recommended or grouped for other purposes, thus such terms as the “college preparatory curriculum”, “science curriculum” and “premedical curriculum” are commonly used. In curriculum terminology, program of studies is more properly used in these connections.

Beauchamp (1968) insisted that “a curriculum should be a written document and noted that a most commonly included feature is an outline of the subject matters to be taught”. He also explained that ‘subject matter embraces whatever is to be taught in the school; in school subjects, in selected disciplines, in problems of living, or in a pattern organized in any other way”, but emphasized that “whatever the mode of expression, the subject matter is the substantive hard core...
of the curriculum”. The lists of subjects offered in a particular grade or school is frequently referred to as the curriculum.

Although we agree with Beauchamp that the curriculum plan must encompass subject matter, the latter term is too closely associated with the organized subjects to be considered identical with what we prefer to call curriculum content. Content as learning opportunities utilizing both knowledge classified in subjects and knowledge and experiences that cut across or are independent of subjects is a concept more compatible with theories of curriculum planning that we can accept.

According to Doll (1978), “Curriculum is the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills and alter attitudes, appreciations and values under the auspices of that school”.

Curriculum can be considered in terms of subject matter (Tamil, English, Mathematics, Science, Social Science) or content (the way of organization and assimilation of information). Historically and currently the dominant concept of the curriculum is that of subjects and subject matter there in to be taught by teachers and learned by students.

Curriculum refers to the set of subjects or course offered and also those required or recommended or grouped for other purposes; thus such terms as the college ‘preparatory curriculum’ ‘science curriculum’ and ‘premedical curriculum’ are commonly used.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research define the “Curriculum as programmatic activities intended to extend the school’s responsibility which as present is limited to its so called formal syllabus or course of study in such a way as to embrace the individual, social and psychological development of its pupils”.

The curriculum is the school’s total program for learners. Generally we find that the concept for the curriculum is that of subjects and subject matter taught by teaches and given in the text books. Inspite of efforts made in the improvement of the concept of the curriculum for last 50 years, the concept of curriculum as subjects matter continues to the basis of the dominant curriculum design. The concept of curriculum as subject and subject matter has been presented in the theories relating to principles for selections, sequence and class placements of subject matter. The concept of curriculum as a subject matter follows the following procedure for curriculum planning:
1. Various social and educational factors are taken into account by curriculum experts to decide the subject to be taught to a particular age group.

2. Interests of the students, difficulty of their age group and sequence are used as criteria to decide the subjects and subject matter to be taught to the students belonging to a particular age group and particular area of location.

3. Methods of teaching are planned and implemented for the purpose of providing mastery of knowledge as subject matter of the subjects selected in curriculum.

Curriculum as an Objective

B.F.Skinner views the curriculum as being formulated according to behavioristic objectives. The curriculum is the series of experiences which children and youth must have by way of attaining activity-based objectives.

W. W. Chatters (1923) viewed curriculum as a series of objectives that students must attain by way of a series of learning experiences

Posner viewed “Curriculum as consisting solely as objectives or ends and instruction as the means of their attainment”.

According to Hilda Taba, “Curriculum usually consisting of statement of aims and objectives indicate the selection and organization of content, it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching. Because the objective demand or because the content organization requires it includes a program of evaluation of the outcomes”.

A curriculum is a structured series of intended learning outcomes (Johnson, 1967). This explanation emphasizes that learning outcomes and not learning experiences constitute the curriculum. These outcomes are linked with objectives.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Explain the concept of curriculum.
2. Give an account of various definitions of the term curriculum.
3. Describe the curriculum in terms of plan
4. Discuss the curriculum in terms of experience
5. What is the general idea of curriculum? How is it different from the syllabus?
6. What are the basic principles of curriculum construction?
7. List the components of curriculum.

8. What is the rationale for the classification of curriculum concepts? How will you classify them?

9. On what scheme of values can curriculum be based? How are these values useful as a basis for curriculum.

10. It is possible for school curriculum to attempt a transformation of the culture of a society? What are the impediments?

11. List various aspects of curriculum.

12. List various curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities of the school.

13. Explain of curriculum in terms of objectives.

14. Explain the curriculum as a system.

15. Compare and contrast curriculum and instruction.

**REFERENCE BOOKS**


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UNIT: 7 - PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE OBJECTIVES
At the end of the course, the student-teachers will be able to:

The student-teacher educator:

- acquires the knowledge of curriculum development.
- understands the various types of curriculum designs.
- Understands the various stages of curriculum development.
- applies the knowledge of curriculum development in teaching-learning situation.
- develops skills to use various types of curriculum approaches for different levels of education.
- develops interest in various issues of curriculum designs.

INTRODUCTION

The term curriculum design or curriculum organization refers to the arrangement of the elements of a curriculum into a substantive entity. According to Saylor and Alexander, the pattern or framework or structural organization used in selecting, planning and carrying forward education experiences in the school is called curriculum design. Provides a conceptual framework regarding principles of curriculum development, Types of curriculum and models of curriculum development.

NEED FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Curriculum development is a process of improving the curriculum. Various approaches have been used in developing curricula. Commonly used approaches consist of analysis (i.e need analysis, task analysis), design (i.e objective design), selecting (i.e choosing appropriated learning/ teaching methods and appropriate assessment method) formation (i.e formation of the curriculum implementation committee / curriculum evaluation committee) and review (i.e curriculum review committee).

Thus process of curriculum development is essential for need analysis or task analysis, curriculum design, selection of appropriate methods of teaching- learning and evaluation, formation of curriculum implantation committees at various levels of education and reviewing the effectiveness of existing educational programme.

Principles of Curriculum

Curriculum refers both organized and informal activities of school life. School life need not imply life of the child within the four walls of the school alone, but extents beyond that. The place
and importance of the curriculum in the educative process needs no reemphasis. The general aims of education receive concrete expression through the curriculum. It translates ideals into action. It is the crucial link between objectives and outcomes. As King and Brownell write “Deliberately Designed activity of life is education, deliberately designed portion of education is schooling, the heart of schooling is curriculum.” The following are the basic principles of curriculum construction.

i) Principle of Totality of Experiences: In the first place, it must be clearly understood that, according to the best modern educational thought, curriculum in this context does not mean only the academic subjects traditionally taught in the school but it includes the totality of experiences that pupil receives through the manifold curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities.

ii) Principle of Child-Centeredness: Child’s nature, concern, motive and need should be of primary consideration in the construction of curriculum. Child is the central point round which all the curricular activities in school involve and develop. Curriculum should be adjusted to bring nearer to the child rather than the child bringing nearer to the pre-determined curriculum.

iii) The Principle of Creativity: Even a child has got some creative power. In the curriculum the students should be provided an opportunity for creative work. Perfect development of the child’s personality is impossible without an opportunity to express his creative power. The child should be stimulated for creative work and given an opportunity for the development of hidden powers.

iv) Principle of Conservation and Creativity: An effective curriculum must be based on the principle of conservation and creativity. While framing the curriculum we should include those subjects and experiences which help in the conservation of cultural heritage. There should be scope for their further modification in light of the changing needs and situations. A modern curriculum cannot be static. Subjects should be included in the curriculum, which will enable the child to exercise his constructive and creative powers.

v) Principle of Integration: The curriculum should not split up into water-tight academic subjects. Various subjects included in the curriculum at a particular stage of education should be integrated and correlated with many other as well as with the real life of pupils. The school curriculum should promote unified studies which have direct connection with life.

vi) Principle of Flexibility: In order to serve the varying needs and concerns of individual on the one hand and society on the other, curriculum should follow the principle of flexibility and dynamism. It should allow desirable changes and modifications of its contents from time to time in order to keep it uptodate.
vii) *The Principle of Utility*: It is a very important principle that at the time of curriculum construction utility instead of ‘special knowledge’ or logical sequence should be the base. Only that which is useful to the individual and society should be included in the curriculum, and that which is not useful should be excluded, however, important mater it may be. Nunn rightly says, “while the plain man generally likes his children to pick up some scraps of useless learning for purely decorative purposes, he requires, on the whole, that they shall be taught what will be useful to them in later life”.

viii) *Principle of Character Formation*: Aim of curriculum identifies itself with development of character and personality in the students. It should train their desirable traits and qualities of character through the program of rules, regulations and routines. Affective education should form part of curriculum for this character training.

ix) *Principle of Mental Discipline*: One major task of curriculum is to train the various mental faculties or powers of the learner for their efficiency and precision. Mental powers of individual is to be developed through the cognitive training and practice.

x) *The Principle of Social Fulfilment*: The curriculum should be connected with the social life of the people. Since man is a social being, he cannot be isolated from the society. Therefore, while constructing of the curriculum we cannot ignore the areas of aspects of social life of the people. The social principle of curriculum construction will help for training in citizenship. Curriculum should be constructed according to the social context of the children.

xi) *Principle of Relating to Community Life*: The curriculum should be vitally and organically related to community life. It should allow to child to come into close contact with the life around him. Infact the curriculum should grow out of community life. This means due importance should be given to social function and productive work which is the backbone of organized human life.

xii) *Principle of Training for Leisure*: The curriculum should be so designed as to train the students not only for work but also for leisure. Attempts should be made to include variety of co-curricular and extra-curricular activities - social, athletic sports and games and dramas, etc. Such a curriculum will help the adolescence to release their pent up emotions in a socially desirable channel.

xiii) *Principle of Correlation*: Curriculum should not ignore the natural affinity that exists in between the subjects. It should aim at giving a correlative view of knowledge to students instead of compartmentalizing the subjects. For this, it should combine and correlate between theory and practice of knowledge.
Stages of Curriculum Development

The curriculum development process consists of the following six stages:

1. Assessment of educational needs
2. Formulation of objectives
3. The selection of learning experiences to attain these objectives.
4. The selection of content through which learning experiences may be offered.
5. The organization and integration of learning experience and content with respect of the teaching learning process
6. Evaluation of all the above phases.

Guidelines for formulating Educational Objectives

Since objectives specify expected outcomes (endpoints) we need to give serious thought to the following guidelines while formulating them:

Matching: The objectives should be related to the broad goals and aims of education from which they are derived. For example, the objective of understanding of certain scientific facts should enable the student to apply the knowledge gained in practical problems. The point of emphasis here is that the attainment of the objectives should lead the students to attain the overall goal of education.

Worth: Worth relates to whether attaining an objective has value in the life of the student in the present or future. Since our knowledge base is continually changing, the objective needs to be updated, modified or eliminated to improve the quality of education and of human life. The objectives should be useful, meaningful and of relevant to the need of the students.

Wording: The statements of the objectives should be worded properly, briefly and obviously so that students can easily understand the intended outcomes.

Appropriateness: All objectives should be derived from and cater to the needs and interests of the students. Any ambiguity in the statement of an objective may create confusion in the mind of both the teacher and the students. In such a case the process of education will lose direction.

Logical grouping: Sometimes objectives lack proper organizational coherence, especially when the learning experiences and their evaluation procedures are decided. The objectives should be grouped according to some common idea or in terms of domains-cognitive, affective and psychomotor (conative). Proper grouping (classification) of the objectives will help plan and develop a more meaningful curriculum in terms of its content, methods and evaluation.
Revision: The objectives require periodic revision because students’ needs, realm of knowledge, academic agenda, instructional strategies, evaluation techniques etc., change at a very fast pace these days. Revision of objectives will have a recurring impact on the curriculum and make it an on-going process. The curriculum should have the flexibility to accommodate changes in the society.

Third phase: The selection of learning experience

After the aims and objectives are defined, we must think of the appropriate means which are required in order to achieve the ends. The means of securing behavioural changes are through learning experiences. The learning experiences may be put into certain categories. This classification pertains to three areas viz. physical, mental and emotional experiences. Physical experience is concerned with conation (faculty of will) and volitional activity. Mental experience is concerned with cognition (faculty of knowing) and thinking activity. Emotional experience is concerned with affection (faculty of feeling) and act of value clarification or value building.

The relationship between a learning experience and the resulting behaviour is a conditional one. The relationship is dependent on the existence of several other conditions. Therefore, the learning experiences should be chosen very carefully.

These experiences may differ from goal to goal as mentioned in phase one. The teacher has to make use of his knowledge of the pupils in his class and the environment for selecting suitable learning experiences.

Emphasis on individual needs results in an activity-based programme, experience based programme, self-directed learning, affective learning whereas emphasis on social needs results in a core programme.

The term learning experiences connotes learning activities which shape the learner’s orientation to the content and ultimately their understanding of it. In essence, it refers to the teaching-learning process the methods followed and the activities planned to facilitate the teaching-learning process. Various teaching methods are used by teachers such as, inquiry strategies, lecture, panel discussion, team teaching, symposium, seminar, conference, tutorial, discussion, project, demonstration, etc. Similarly there are various learning activities, such as viewing films, conducting experiments, undertaking fieldtrips, viewing videos, taking notes, working on assignments, interacting with computer programs, participating in discussions, listening to speakers etc. The teaching methods generate learning activities. Teaching methods and learning activities are two sides of the same coin. Some curriculum planner differentiate content from experience. They should
remember that content and experiences do not exist independent of one another. On the contrary, both content and learning experiences comprise the overall curriculum.

**Criteria for Selecting Learning Experiences**

There are few questions which should be addressed before we select learning experiences. They are listed below:

- Do the learning experiences function the way we wish them to in the light of the overall comprehensive aims and the specific objectives of the curriculum?
- Will the students be able to apply the knowledge gained to practical situations?
- Is it feasible in terms of time, staff expertise, resources, etc., to learn the content of the curriculum in the specified time.
- Do the learning experiences enable students to develop thinking skills and rational powers?
- Do the learning experiences stimulate in students a greater understanding of their own existence as individuals and as members of a group/community/society?
- Do the learning experiences foster in students an openness to new experiences and a tolerance for diversity?
- Do the learning experiences allow students to address their concerns, needs and interests?
- Do the learning experiences cater to total personality development of students in cognitive, affective and conative domains?

The questions will help us to select appropriate learning experience for a given set of objectives. Thus, criteria for selecting experiences are expressed by the questions. Besides, we should able to create proper environment: Physical and psychological, for optimal learning. The experiencing of content cannot be divorced from the environment in which the experiences occur. Students who work in a creative environment are more likely to be stimulated and excited about their learning.

The educational environment should address social needs security needs, and belongingness needs, as well as the development of inner awareness, appreciation and empathy for others. It should enable students to master intended learning It should stimulate purposeful student activity and allow for a depth and range of activities that facilitate learning.

**Criteria for Environment**
Brian Castaldi (1977) has suggested four criteria for designing educational environments. They are adequacy, suitability, efficiency and economy.

Adequacy refers to the space planned and also environmental control. This criterion address the sufficiency in terms of space, light, visual display, learning material and acoustics (hearing).

Suitability refers to the contribution and facilitation of provided learning environment for effective learning of students.

Ensuring efficiency involves attending to those characteristics of educational space that are likely to improve its instructional effectiveness or operational characteristics. It refers to the attainment of greatest amount of learning with the least amount of effort by students and teachers.

Final criterion, economy, relates to actual savings, in terms of capital outlay, that can be achieved by the initial architectural design or by a modification of an existing environment for a particular aspect of the curriculum. Economy deals with the cost of teaching some part of the curriculum in the environment provided. It also relates to economy of students’ and teachers’ efforts. Time is a resource, and curricula are designed to make maximum use of time to achieve basic program goals and objectives.

**Fourth phase: The selection of content**

Curriculum deal with the question, what shall be included for purpose of learning? After that they deal with how to present or arrange the what that is selected for learning so that students can learn or experience it. In other words, first they deal with knowledge and content specifically, and then they deal with teaching, and learning experiences.

Curricularists who view the world from a traditional philosophical posture “discover” knowledge by using their senses. Also to them knowledge is objective; it can be measured and therefore tests.

Those who view the world from a progressive posture invent knowledge according to their relationships with others and the environment. The meaning and truth of a child’s experience depend on their relationship to the situations in which he/she is acting.

Those who are part of the romantic position view knowledge and content from an existential or phenomenological epistemology. To these individuals, knowledge and reality refer to the immediate inner experience of the Self. Knowledge and truth in this view are self-awareness or
self-insight. This form of truth is extend beyond the Self as a person attempts to understand other human beings.

Content refers to the compendium of information which comprises the learning materials for a particular course of a given grade (Parker and Rubin, 1966). This information may consists of facts, concepts, principles, laws, theories and generalizations, as in the case of mathematics or science courses, or it may consists of a description of events, trends or categories, as in the case of a history course.

Content is more than just information to be learned for school purposes. Information, according to some educationists is considered as mere acquisition of facts or role memory and knowledge as a mental process that takes shape in the mind or an intellectual process, it must bear some relationship to “some questions with which the learner is concerned” and it must fit into his more direct acquaintance so as to increase its efficacy and deepen its meaning (John Dewey, 1916).

Some curricularists might conclude that content (subject matter) is really another term for knowledge. Content is a compendium of facts, concepts, generalizations, principles and theories similar to disciplined knowledge. Additionally, school content does incorporate methods of processing information. All curriculum content should enable students to gain understanding and to apply that understanding to daily living -present and anticipates.

When selecting content the curriculum planner must take into account the potential of content to address all the cognitive, social and psychological dimensions of the individual student. Considering content in terms of its meaning as knowledge allows or enables the curriculum planner to be more effective in the content-selection process.

The selection of subject matter or content is the principal concern of many curriculum makers. The content is an important part of curriculum as every learning experience involves content.

One importance point in considering content is that it cannot be directly related to the general aims of education. Directly relating content to the aims implies an illicit curriculum process. If the general aims of education are directly related to the school subjects, the aims may remain as the general aims of certain school subjects and it may mean that individual teachers may have quite different objectives.

We should not forget that the general aims of education must be translated into more specific operational goals before they can exert some influence of the teaching learning process.
Specific aims help to spell out operational statements of the behaviour expected. It is impossible to set up proper learning experiences to bring about behaviour without the operational statements.

The content chosen for the curriculum process must be feasible to develop the appropriate learning experiences on the part of the pupils.

The content is usually considered to be the most important component of developing curriculum. However this exclusive importance given to content is educationally misplaced and indefensible. To put content at the centre of the curriculum is to put the cart before the horse. The overall approach to the curriculum shall determine our approach to the task of selection of content. For example, in a process-based approach, only such content will be selected which supports the chosen process (es). Even in a subject – based curriculum, one has to be clear about knowledge, principle, generalization, theories, techniques and procedures that can be developed through the chosen content. The content is thus a powerful means to attain the aims of teaching a particular content.

![Three Levels of Selection of Content](image.png)

**Fig. Three Levels of Selection of Content**

The process of selection of content can be viewed at three levels. The first level deals with selection and clarification of the conceptual framework related to the content areas. The so called modern mathematics of the 1960s and the conventional mathematics provide a good example of this.

The second level is concerned with selection of basic themes or key concepts which along with other basic themes or concepts constitute the framework of knowledge in a given subject. Basic operations, the number system, the set theory are some of its examples. These themes / key
Concepts have hierarchical relationship with each other. Some of these have broad connotation (e.g. the number system) while others have limited connotation (e.g. prime numbers). The third level is the most specific. At this level the content items are matched with the basic theme/concept they belong to and also with the objectives of the curriculum.

Criteria for the selection of content

The content and objectives are interdependent and constitute a major dimension of curriculum development. Generally content refers to subject matter or the compendium of facts, concepts, generalization, principles and theories. By content we imply learning experiences besides subject matter. The curriculum content should enable students to gain and apply knowledge in day-to-day life. The content selected should contribute to the student’s knowledge or understanding of the reality of human life. The following diagram make this discussion clear.

![Organisation & Integration of Learning Experiences & Content](image)

**Fig. Principles of Organizing and Integrating Content and Learning Experiences**

Let us talk the criteria of content selection in detail. At the macro level the criteria for the selection of content should be based on the socio-political and educational philosophy of the society or the nation. At the micro level the criteria should suit the specific objectives set for meeting the students needs. Some of the criteria for content selection are discussed as follows:

1. **Self-sufficiency:** This criteria helps the students to attain maximum self-sufficiency and that too in the most economical manner i.e., economy of teaching efforts and educational resources, students efforts and extent of generalizability of subject matter. In other words, we can say that
the content should help the student become self-reliant and self-sufficient. This criterion is the means by which learners can actualize their potential and crystallize their identities

2. **Validity**: Validity relates to the authenticity of the content selected. The content selected should be valid to the extent that it flows from and supports the goals and objectives of curriculum. The content should be usable in day-to-day life. In other words, validity refers to the extent to which the content adequately covers the subject matter of the course and the objectives specified for the course of study.

3. **Utility**: The utility criterion is concerned with the usefulness of the content. The usefulness can be interpreted in different ways. For example, the content learned by the students should be useful in his/her job situations, or how content enables the individual to gain an accurate perception of his/her self-identify and to attain meaning in his/her life or content has direct application to on-going life and to social and political issues.

4. **Learnability**: This criterion relates the optimal placement and appropriate organization and sequencing of content. The selected content should not be out of the range of students experiences, intellectual abilities etc., In other words, the content should be such that it can be perceived, understood and assimilated by the learners for whom it is intended.

5. **Feasibility**: Feasibility as a criterion of content selection compels curriculum planners to analyse and examine the content in the light of the time and resources available to the students, the expertise of current staff, costs involved, the existing legislation contemporary socio-political climate, etc., Despite the fact that there are several options available, the students do have limitations as far as the pace of their learning is concerned.

6. **Significance**

   Content to be learned is significant only to the degree to which it contributes to the basic ideas, concepts, principles, generalizations, and so on, of the overall aims of the curriculum, and to the development of particular learning abilities, skills, process and attitude formation.

   While selecting the content it is necessary to decide which concepts and ideas connected with the learning experiences are significant. It is a difficult task. To achieve this task successfully there must be a high degree of coordination between the persons who prepare the content and the persons who teach it.

7. **Relevancy of content to the present needs**

   The criterion of relevancy becomes more and more important as efforts are made to improve the schools and to educate a larger number of persons. We know by experience that many students
do not have interest in the lessons, if the content of those lessons is not related to their current experiences. The curriculum should have a cosmopolitan orientation in order to reflect the diversities of the culture. Moreover, the teaching of subjects like social studies should be relevant to the present day events. The contents should also help in the broadening of horizons for tomorrow. Otherwise, what is being taught in the schools today will be behind the times.

8. Interest

The subject matter must create interest in the pupils. It should satisfy the needs of the learner. This criterion will be fulfilled when the subject matter in different subjects is useful in solving pupils’ problems or in fulfilling pupil’s goals. The content of the curriculum must be selected with students’ interests in mind. The criterion of students’ interests should be weighted and adjusted to allow for students’ maturity, their prior experiences, the educational and social value of their interests and the way they are expected to interact within society.

9. Orientation of democratic values

This criterion implies that education will help in providing intelligent direction of social change through the selection of curriculum content. It means that the instructional programme should focus upon the development of moral values, effective thought process the skills of democratic qualities.

Fifth phase - Organization and Integration of Learning experiences and content

Next important task is the organization and integration of experiences and content. This involves combining of all information about experience. There is no common organizing principle. Each type of experience will be focused by different things. The subject centered curriculum is focused upon the school subjects, inherent organization of content and their internal divisions, while the learner centered curriculum is focused on different categories of activities, concerns, interests, needs, impulses of children. The problem centered curriculum is focused on areas of living or social functions and the problems of living.

Emphasis on school subjects results in academic subjects, disciplines, Broad field or correlated programmes; emphasis on individual needs results in an activity-based programme, experience-based programme, incidental education, de-schooling programme or affective learning whereas emphasis on social needs results in community life, social function or socialization programme.
The essential task at this stage is to develop sequences of educational activities based on selected experiences and content. This fusion of selected experiences and content has a definite purpose which is derived from educational objectives. Hence it is called a sequence of learning experiences. The organizing principles of this integration and sequence should ideally be derived from the learning situations available in schools and classrooms, inputs needed for effective classroom interaction, the development levels of learners, and principles of learning by children for whom the curriculum is meant.

Bruner talks of three modes of learning viz., enactive, iconic and symbolic.

- Enactive mode of learning is activity based, the learner acts and learns as result of action process.
- Iconic mode of learning is based on the use of images and diagrams.
- Symbolic mode of learning is based on the use of a symbol system.

It must be remembered that there are alternative ways of sequencing and integrating content and learning experiences. Besides, a particular approach to sequencing and integration of content shall have certain implications for classroom methodology and administration of school. A change in sequencing and integration of content and learning experiences is bound to affect classroom methodologies or school administration or both. It must be understood that the most effective sequencing and integration of learning experiences and content depends upon certain and dependable knowledge about how knowledge is acquired and how it accumulates over time and how this accumulated knowledge can be best organized for easy recall and use later on. Unfortunately, we do not have dependable answers to these questions. Yet the task of sequencing and integration of content and learning experiences must somehow be accomplished as best as it can be.

Quite often, this sequencing and integration is determined by the size and scope of units and the overlap and interrelation among units. If modular units are to be developed, the scope would be more specific and overlap with the preceding or the following unit would be minimal if not absent. Sometimes the entire curriculum has a built in overlap and interrelation even though at surface level it may be divided in chunka of units, lessons, activities and projects.
Organising the Content

Knowledge  ➔  Content Knowledge ➔
(formal organization  (selected from  (understanding of
information)  knowledge source  school content
  for educational  at levels sufficient
  purposes)  for use)

Figure: Organization of Content

Organization of content or knowledge depends on the philosophical views of the scholar.

Curriculum planners who favour subject centred designs might consider that the school curriculum organizes knowledge into specialized networks (distinct domains) whose relationships influence the particular types of meanings that can be derived from them (Paul Hirst). Subject centred advocates view knowledge as things and relationships that are real and awaiting discovery in the outer world.

Learner centered advocates consider that the school curriculum organizes personal knowledge rather than objective knowledge. To them, knowledge relates to the individual’s process of personalizing the outer world as his/her inner potential interacts with outer reality.

According to Bruner, knowledge is a model we construct to give meaning and structure to regularities in experience. The way we organize knowledge is an invention for referring experiences economical and connected. We invent concepts such as force in physics, motive in psychology, style in literature as a means to the end of comprehension.

Curriculum planners usually use two organizers-logical and psychological. In following the logical organization, they organize content according to certain rules, to make in manageable. Certain concepts are central to the content, and others are prerequisite to other concepts.

In following the psychological organization, they organize content by going from the students’ immediate environment to a more distant environment. Content, in other words, should be organized so that the concrete is experienced first, then the more abstract. This psychological factor is a key principle of sequencing content.

Once the content is identified it needs to be appropriately organized. If the curriculum is a plan for learning as indeed it is, its content should be logically organized so that it facilitates the attainment of educational objectives. One of the most potent factors that determines the way
learning takes place is the organization of the curriculum. If a curriculum has not been systematically organized, it shall lack direction and it shall not help attain the objectives which it was supposedly based.

Curriculum organization is both a difficult and a complex task. The organization of the components or elements of curriculum, exists along two basic organizational dimensions-horizontal and vertical.

(i) Horizontal organization engages the curriculum worker with the concept of scope and integration that is, the side-by-side arrangement of curriculum elements. (ii) Vertical organization, which centers on the concepts of sequence and continuity, is concerned with the longitudinal placement of curriculum elements.

**Principle of Articulation**

**Articulation** refers to the interrelatedness of various aspects of the curriculum.

As a principle of curriculum organisation articulation is concerned with continuity, consistency and interdependence of curricular offerings of a specific grade or successive grades; and it exists in two forms-horizontal (latitudinal) articulation, and vertical (longitudinal) articulation.

Horizontal articulation refers to the organization of the content in such a way that each unit of a subject, or a subject in a Grade leads to parallel ones in the same Grade. Vertical articulation refers to the organization of the content in such a way that each subject and its units in a grade lead to parallel ones in the successive Grade. Thus, as per the principle of articulation, the curriculum, from the kindergarten through secondary to the university, is a continuum; and each part of it’s content grows out of the preceding part; and contributes to the subsequent parts of the content.

The principle of articulation helps to eliminate gaps in the knowledge between two units of a subject, and two subjects of the curriculum in the same grade (or Stage) and those in different Grades (or Stages); and thus it contributes to effective learning.

Articulation situations present three main problems in the school. They are, first the interdisciplinary controversy. This signifies, that no apparent relationship is seen between the different classes, where they teach different subjects in succession. Such treatment of the different subjects, like English, mathematics etc, as ‘watertight compartments’ fail to foster potential interrelationships. The second problem is the absence of relationship between theory and practice in teaching. These two aspects must be brought closer together, and the theory made meaningful by
using it in practical situations. The third problems relates to the bringing of the school into relationship with the life of the surrounding community. There may be strikes, elections and other controversies in the community but they must be handled in class situations, by the teachers.

Some of the ways to bring about articulation are 1) Team teaching is one any way for teachers of different subjects to cooperate in an inter disciplinary manner 2) Important events-local, national and international, help to strengthen the school-community relationship 3)Active agreement between subject-teachers on achieving uniform procedures and minimum standards, can effect both vertical and horizontal articulation 4) Major program reorganization into such arrangements as correlation, fusion, core and experience patterns will help articulation. 5) The new cooperative ‘work-study’ plan followed in schools, help to correlate classroom theory with the world of work, for e.g., teaching nursing in actual hospital situations, and making it ‘patient-centred.’

Whatever the device or approach that is followed, its effectiveness will depend upon the degree to which teachers at all levels have a common understanding of the total program.

**Principle of Balance**

**Balance** refers to appropriate weightage to each aspect of curriculum design. Curriculum should be balanced in terms of subject matter and learner.

A balanced curriculum is one in which students have opportunities to master knowledge and to internalize and utilize it in ways that are appropriate for their personal, social and intellectual goals. Because the curriculum can be viewed from different frames of reference-subject matter, discipline, concerns and interests of children, student experience, values and persistent problems of life-the curriculum components that are to be balanced will take on different forms and dimensions. However regardless of the design, the components must be balanced.

Adjustments of balance must be made in several points in the curriculum, which indicate the complexity of the balance. The problem are 1) Should the schools take on more responsibilities, some of which normally belong to the home? 2) Should more time be given to teaching sciences and mathematics than to humanities, in view of the rapid technology improvement? 3) What should be the amount of attention given to the gifted, the retarded and the normal children; 4) What should be the ratio between the old and the new knowledge, brought into the curriculum? A way out may be according to Searles, ‘New wine in old bottles’ 5) Will theory for excellence be a worthy rallying point for curriculum endeavours, of will this lead to unhealthy class distinction between the intelligent and the not so intelligent? 6) The cry for excellence leads to more working days, more
homework, and so, lesser leisure for the pupil. 7) Should there be a greater emphasis on individual or on society? The individual needs are given more attention, in a democracy than in an authoritarian society. Good attention may be paid to both individual and society 8) To what extent should the cooperative principles be followed in curriculum planning and in the learning situation? At the primary, secondary and higher levels? Should the parental role be greater than that of the laymen? How much control should be local state and national?

Many people are asking for greater or lesser emphasis on certain method, content or learning materials in the educational programme. A satisfactory balance will have to made on the basis of the impact on the learners, and on the basis of our philosophies or objectives.

Another important problem of balance, apart from those listed above is the question of general education and special interest education. Some of the problem of balance involve value judgments, and the others affect and are affected by organizational decisions; the above problem comes under the latter category. General education is referred to as common learning or survival education. It covers that part of the total educational program which seeks to prepare individual for life in society viz., functions of citizenship and problems of daily living. At the same time, people have special interest which set them off from others, like in medicine, law, engineering, teaching etc. So special interest education has to be given to all according to their needs and aptitudes. As one progresses from elementary school decreases and specialized education emphasis increases.

**Principle of Continuity**

Continuity refers to the subsequent relationship. It suggests that the curriculum should possess vertical reiteration-that is, the skills and concepts should be “recurring” and there should be “continuing opportunity for these skills to be practiced”. In other words, continuity deals with vertical manipulation or repetition of curriculum components. Continuity, in general, is a time dimension, in which relationship between “now” and “later” are discovered and strengthened.

To ensure continuity, many steps can be taken. These are:

1. Introduction of a new administrative unit, namely the junior high school is between the elementary school and the high school (6+3+3). Upgraded school at the elementary level, under which nearly grades will be replaced by levels consisting of blocks of 3 or 2 years, for e.g, the primary block 3 years. This idea can be introduced in the high school also, with suitable modifications 3) Orientation work can be done in the school of effect continuity; the third grade teacher meeting the II grade pupils, guide books to parents, who are to send their children to the school for the first time. 4) T. V. viewing by pupils of junior high school about work in the high
school, by lower-graders about work in high classes 5) The guidance program, both individual and group, can bring out learning obstacles and thus can help continuity and articulation.

Sixth phase- Evaluation

The final stage in the curriculum process is the coming to conclusion about the success or failure of the educational enterprise. This is done by means of some measurement or assessment of the behaviour changes. As a result of formal education, certain behaviours are expected. We have to find out in this stage whether those behaviours have actually occurred. We have to assess whether the students actually acquired the facts, the knowledge, the skills, the attitudes, the beliefs and the values that were intended.

There is a certain amount of the interdependence between one phase and another discussed above. As we have to translate the aims into various kinds of goals, some fore-thought must be given to the main processes of evaluation. Similarly, the various aspects of evaluation may affect the derivation of goals, the selection of experiences and their organization into sequences. Curriculum process is therefore represent as a cycle and the curriculum must be envisaged as subject to continuous scrutiny and constant revision.

The evaluation can be done for assessing the modification of students behavior. It is called student evaluation.

Student evaluation aims at assessing the changes in the students’ behaviour. These changes in behaviour can be accessed through:

- oral, written or practical tests.
- Responses during interactive teaching-learning sessions, discussions in different kinds of situations, etc.
- Written products of different kinds, e.g. assignment responses, term papers, project report, etc.

The process of evaluation is undertaken in order to determine the strengths and weakness of existing or an under-construction curriculum so that improvements can be made in curriculum design. Evaluation results are primarily a function of judging the effectiveness of the curriculum. The need to evaluate a school curriculum arises out of the following reasons:

- to cope with the recent advancement in the field of knowledge
- to remove redundant material from the curriculum which has become obsolete.
• to identify the gap between the requirements of the next grade and the objectives of this grade and to fill in these gaps with appropriate learning experiences.
• to make the curriculum more efficient in achieving the envisaged objectives, and
• to assess the extent to which the latent curriculum has been achieved in terms of behavioural objectives.

In brief the curriculum evaluation is the process of assessing whether curricula are achieving their aims and/or can be judged to be worthwhile.

**TYPES OF CURRICULUM**

There are various patterns adopted by curricularists in organizing the curriculum by giving importance to a particular idea or aspect as the focus of the curriculum organization. However, the different patterns available are modification or integration of three basic design types: (1) Subject-centred designs, (2) Learner-centered designs and (3) Problem-centred designs. Each category comprises several examples. Subject centred designs include subject designs, discipline designs, broad field designs and correlation design. Learner-centred designs are those identified as child centred designs, experience designs, romantic / radical designs and humanistic designs. Problem-centred designs consider life situation designs, core designs (social function designs) and social problem designs (reconstructionist designs).

The choice of a particular approach to the curriculum design indicates

• the bases of decisions about the types of experiences to be included in the educational programme.
• the role of teachers, students and other agencies in the process of curriculum planning.
• the choice of method for determining the selection and organization of learning experiences provided by the school.
• the factors influencing the selection of objectives.
• the use of subject matter or content.

**Subject-centered designs**

Subject-centered designs are by far the most popular and widely used curriculum designs. This is because knowledge and content are well accepted as integral parts of the curriculum. Schools have a strong history of academic rationalism; furthermore, the materials available for school use also reflect a content organization.
The category of subject-centered designs has the most classifications of any of the designs. The subject-centered approach includes four types of curriculum designs namely. Subject-area design, Discipline design, Broad-field design and Correlation design.

(i). Subject-area design

A type of subject-centred curriculum in which subject is treated as a largely autonomous body of knowledge is called subject-area curricula. This design is based on a belief that humans are unique and distinctive in their intellect; the searching for and the attainment of knowledge are the natural fulfillment of that intellect. This design pays more attention to knowledge, it divides accumulated knowledge system into subjects.

The curriculum plan appears neatly divided into subjects, which themselves frequently are subdivided into divisions corresponding to school grades and even marking and reporting periods. Thus the relative orderliness characterizes the subject design.

According to Morrison subject matter curriculum contributed most to the literacy of the individual and that literacy skills should be the focus of the elementary curriculum. This orientation to subject matter reflected a mental discipline approach to learning and a perennialist orientation to subject matter. Morrison also felt that such design could allow a student at the secondary school level to develop interest and competence in one subject area. However, he proposed that a variety of courses should be offered to address the needs of different students.

In the subject matter design, the curriculum is organized according to how knowledge has been developed in the various subject areas. With the explosion of knowledge and the resulting specializations in the various fields of knowledge, subject divisions have not only become more numerous but also exceedingly complex.

To educators, each separate subject represents a specialized and unique body of content. The basis for content organization is primarily the division of labour accepted by academic scholars, who have, over the years, agreed on ways in which to organize subject - history, anthropology, literature economics, mathematics, chemistry, and so on. It argues to organize the curriculum into lots of subjects. Each subject purposely sets forth its special qualified knowledge system.

The organization of curriculum content also assumes that these subjects are systematized primarily on chronological basis, pre-requisite learning, whole to part mastery and deductive learning.
Thus, proponents of the subjects design have going for them the undeniably strong argument that knowledge is of necessity at the base of the curriculum. Knowledge is organized into disciplines, and school subjects organized out of these disciplines can be the skeleton of the curriculum. Whether the ultimate organization presents the subjects through Morrison’s ‘institutions’, our ‘domains’, or through ‘new’ subject organizations, it is still basically a subjects design focused on the intellectual development of the learner.

Lecture, recitation, and large group discussion are major instructional techniques utilized in this design.

This design lays emphasis on verbal activities. Knowledge and ideas are best communicated and stored in verbal form. Learning is primarily a verbal activity. The prime advantage of the design is that it introduces students to the essential knowledge of society. Also, the design is easy to deliver because complementary text-books and support materials are commercially available.

(ii). Discipline Design

Like the separate subject design, the discipline design’s basis is the inherent organization of content. Whereas the subject design does not make clear the foundation basis upon which it is organized, the discipline design’s orientation does specify its focus on the academic disciplines. This design plays more attention to knowledge system. The subjects are arranged logically so as to be learned and remembered by students more conveniently.

King and Brownell proponents of this design, indicate that a discipline is specific knowledge that has the following essential characteristics: a community of persons, an expression of human imagination, a domain, a tradition, a mode of inquiry, a conceptual structure, a specialized language, a heritage of literature, a network of communications evaluative and effective stance, and an instructive community.

Disciplined knowledge is the key aspect of this curriculum design. Content for the school curriculum is determined in part by identifying or creating a discipline’s structure and using this foundation as a guide for selecting the school content and organizing it for learning. The school is a microcosm of the world of intellect and that the disciplines reflect that world. Even though proponents of the discipline view as necessary experiencing the disciplines in the school, they stress understanding the conceptual structures and the processes of the disciplines. This is perhaps the essential difference between the disciplines design and the subject matter design. In this discipline design, the students experience the disciplines so that they can comprehend and even conceptualize,
whereas in the subject matter design the students are considered to have learned if they just acquire knowledge and information.

In the discipline design students are encouraged to see the basic logic or structure of each discipline – the key relationships, concepts, and principles – and to understand the discipline’s modes of inquiry. To Bruner, learning occurs when the student recognizes the key ideas and fundamental principles of a discipline and notes the interrelationships of these ideas and also their applicability to many situations. The learner, by recognizing the fundamental and general ideas that constitute the structure of the discipline, will be able to continually broaden and make more sophisticated his or her knowledge.

A most attractive notion of the disciplines approach expounded by Bruner was that “any subject can be taught in some effectively honest form to any child at any stage of development” Contrary to what many persons had held, Bruner argued that students are able to comprehend the fundamental principles of any subject at almost any age. And children can thus understand the structure and operations of a discipline at any age—such understanding does not need to await adolescence or adulthood.

(iii). Broad - field design

The broad field design eliminates the sharp demarcations that exist in the traditional subject design; it seeks rather to bring together into a broad organization of the subject matter, the knowledge and understanding pertinent to whole area of study. It represents an effort to “fuse” and “integrate” the subject matter of closely related disciplines or school subjects.

The basic consideration in Broad field design is of ways to bring into a broad organization of those subject matter elements which have certain relationship. It fosters actual ‘fusion’ of closely related knowledge. The bringing out of ‘apparent ties’ tend to make learning more meaningful.

(iv). Correlation design

Correlation is a design employed by those who do realize that there are time when separate subjects require some linkage in order to reduce fragmentation of curricular components. Correlation is an attempt to eliminate the isolation and compartmentalization of subjects without radically overhauling the subject curriculum. It emphasizes on giving the relationship between the knowledge to the learner.

Almost any part of the curriculum can be organized in this design. Courses in literature can be correlated with courses in art and music by connecting them through various themes, such as
Romanticism. Sciences and Mathematics are easily correlated because Mathematics provides a powerful tool for dealing with science content. But, not all correlated designs link content from different subject fields. Courses from within the same field – such as history and geography or history and sociology – can be correlated as well. Because correlated subjects maintain their identity, however a true curriculum synthesis does not take place. Knowledge of the subjects is by nature inter-related and interdependent. So, the subjects should be taught by combining correlating their identical contents to the learners.

Learner-centered Design

All curricularists are concerned with creating curricula that are valuable to students. In response to those educational planners who consider that in creating curricula of value one must emphasize subject matter, educators early in the 20th century asserted that students are the centre or focus of the programme. Supporters of this posture, largely progressives, advocated what have come to be called learner-centered design. The emphasis on the child displaced the emphasis on subject matter. In addition, when subject matter was presented, it was no longer separated into “narrow” divisions but was “integrated” around units of experience or activity. The idea that a solution to a problem required using methods and materials from several subject fields was inherent in the learner-centered curriculum. Learner-centered designs include child-centered designs, experience designs, romantic or radical designs and humanistic designs.

(i). Child-centered Design

At times, especially when the learner-centred design was first gaining a foothold in educational thinking, its advocates insisted that virtually all school learning activities should be centered on the felt needs and interests of the child. Many of these early advocates rejected the traditional notion of the child as a miniature adult and accepted the romantic metaphor of the child as a flower that would unfold naturally with the proper “educational gardening.”

Rousseau wrote, “God makes all things good; man interfere with them and they become evil,” But Rousseau was not for child anarchy. He called for “well – regulated liberty” that was to be assumed within the competence levels of the child. Teachers were thus to pique a child’s curiosity by providing direction using means that were appropriate for the developmental stage of the child. Rousseau noted that as a child approaches adolescence, “much skill and wisdom are required to lead him toward theoretical studies.” Teachers were to provide the pupil with opportunities to observe nature and learn on his own. “Put the problems before him and let him solve them himself…Let him not be taught science, let him discover it”
Proponents of this design also drew on the thinking of some other early pedagogical giants. Heinrich Pestalozzi and Friedrich Froebel argued that children would attain self-realization through social participation; they voiced the principle of learning by doing. Their social approach to education furnished a foundation for much of the work of Francis Parker.

Parker believed that the methods of instruction should be patterned by the child’s natural approach to learning. He suggested that because children learn to speak a language by using words, they should be taught reading by a word method. Thus, teachers were encouraged to perfect ways of involving children in conversations in order to teach reading. To teach geography, Parker urged teachers to take children on field trips and have them make sketches of landscapes and simple maps. This would be more productive than reading a textbook. This approach, which became known as Quincy system, attracted national attention.

William Kilpatrick emphasized social purpose in learning through project method. He argued that “if teacher want to educate to think and plan for himself, then let him make his own plan”. He emphasized self-directed learning.

John Dewey suggested that the curriculum should be organized around human impulses—the impulse to socialize; the impulse to construct; the impulse to inquire, to question, to experiment, and the impulse to express or to create artistically. Dewey, like Parker, viewed education as a social process that served a social function. Through education the individual had his or her capacities freed so as to achieve social aims. Dewey viewed the development of individuality in the child, the person, as something developing continuously, not something given all at once and readymade. He emphasized the guidance of teacher in the process of learning by students.

Progressive Education Association Commission on Secondary Curriculum (New York, 1958) has classified the needs of children into four broad areas:

1. Area of personal living
   a. The need for personal health
   b. The need for self-assurance
   c. The need for a satisfying world picture and a workable philosophy of life.
   d. The need for a range of personal interests
   e. The need for aesthetic satisfaction
2. Immediate persona social relationships
a. The need for increasingly mature relationship in home and family life, and with adults outside the family

b. The need for successful and increasingly mature relationship with age mates of both sexes.

3. Social – Civic relationships

a. The need for responsible participation in socially significant activities.

b. The need for social recognition

4. Economic relationships

a. The need for emotional assurance of progress towards adult status.

b. The need for guidance in choosing an occupation and for vocational preparation.

c. The need for wise selection and use of good and services.

d. The need for effective action in solving basic economic problems.

The curricula that focusses on these common needs of the students are called Child-centred Designs.

(ii). Experience-centred Design

Experience-centred curriculum designs closely resembled the child-centred designs in that they used the concerns of children as the basis for organizing the children’s school world.

However, they differed from child-centred designs in their view that the interests and needs of children cannot be anticipated and, therefore, a curriculum framework cannot be planned for all children. After the children arrived at school, programs could then be created that were focused on their unique interests. The unique need and interests of the children would determine the actual curriculum. Growth and learning were considered to be completely dependent on the active participation of children in activities that were suitable with their unique needs. Subjects were only furnished to help children solve problems of their own choosing.

The teacher was responsible for identifying and cultivating children’s unique interests, even forming new ones that were prized by the community and consistent with the evolution of society.

Many current advocates of the child-centred design have however taken unfavourable position when considering their design in relation to the subject-centred design camp. They assume an either or posture – one either supports a design with content at the center or a design with the child at the center. Many have counseled against such an either – or stance. For example, Dewey
pointed out that there were false ideas in both camps. The learner was not a “tabularasa” - a passive receiver of established subject matter content. Neither was the learner the starting point, the center and the end of school activity.

Dewey argued that educators had to attend to the subject matter of the curriculum. The various studies incorporate the cumulative outcomes of the efforts, the strivings and the successes of the human race generation after generation’. But, educations could not ignore the child in curriculum design because the child had to be viewed as fluent, embryonic and vital: ‘Abandon the motion of subject-matter as something fixed and readymade in itself, outside the child’s experiences; ease thinking of the Child’s experiences as something hard and fast … and we realize that the child and the curriculum are simply two limits which define a single process. Just as two points define a straight line.

Several current curriculum specialists have argued that we need to meld our curricular cancers as relating to both the subject matter or content of the curriculum and the child and his or her needs and experiences. In their definition, Tanner and Tanner identify the curriculum as the reconstruction of knowledge and experience, systematically developed under the auspices of the school. Other curriculum reformers have translated the ideas of the experience movement into courses emphasizing touching, feeling and Gestalt psychology. Still others have emphasized life experiences, with credit for working in community based, career-based activities intended to prepare students for adult responsibility and work and courses that deal with social problems and personal experiences.

(iii). Romantic (Radical) Design

The radical reformers (Paul Goodman, A.S., Neill, Ivan Illich, John Paul) expressed considerable distain toward established method of schooling, compulsory schooling, adult authority and school rules. They referred to students as prisoners, to teachers as prison guards (who disliked their students) and to schools as prisons (which keep youths locked up, restricted from free expression and democratic procedures). In general, school is considered to be a highly discriminatory place that sorts and tracks students for various jobs that extend class differences in society.

These radical reformers really seek to do away with the notion of a planned curriculum; they propose instead to center all experiences in the school on the children’s present needs. The school would provide opportunities to learn and possible contents to be considered, but all would be arranged as a ‘smorgasboard’. The children would pick what they need and decide what they need.
As Holt argued, we cannot know, at any moment what particular bit of knowledge or understanding, child needs most and best fits his model of reality. Only he can do this. The child may not be expert at these decisions, but he can do it a hundred times better than we can. For Holt, adults don’t plan the learning experiences, rather they let the child know what is available and where he can look for it.

In lieu of school, Ivan Illich recommends small learning networks characterized by the following: Educational objects – that is, shops, libraries, museums, art galleries, and so on – that are open to learners; peer matching that is, identifying and bringing together students who wish to engage in a particular learning activity; skill exchanges – that is, exchanges between those who are competent in a particular skill, and who wish to teach it, and those who wish to learn it; and educators-at-large – that is, counselors who serve as advisors to students and parents and intellectual initiators and administrator who operate the networks.

Ivan Illich has stimulated large numbers of disciples to further the idea of deschooling, and a good deal of radical reform literature related to the political and economic concept of educational revisionism.

The social issues according to Counts, involved racial and class discrimination, poverty and unemployment – and progressive education had ignored these issues. The social issues today are similar, although the list is larger; racial, ethnic and sexual inequality; poverty, unemployment, and welfare; computers and technology; political oppression and war; the threat of nuclear disaster; environmental pollution; disease, hunger and depletion of the earth’s resources.

According to Brameld, students and teachers must not only take positions; they must also become change agents to improve society. As for the curriculum, it had to be transformed to coincide with a new socio-economic-political education; it had, in other words, to incorporate realistic reform strategies. For reconstructionists, analysis, interpretation and evaluation of problems are insufficient; commitment and action by students and teachers are needed. Society is always changing, and the curriculum has to change; students and teachers must be change agents. A curriculum based on social issues and social services is ideal.

The reconstructionists, including such recent proponents as Mario Fantini, Harold Shane and Alvin Toffler, seek a curriculum that emphasizes cultural pluralism, internationalism and futurism. Students are taught to appreciate life in a world of many nations – a global village – with many alternatives for the future. A reconstructionist program of education: (1) critically examines the cultural heritage of a society as well as the entire civilization; (2) is not afraid to examine
controversial issues; (3) is deliberately committed to bring about social and constructive change; (4) cultivates a future planning attitude that considers the realities of the world; and (5) enlists students and teachers in a definite program to enhance cultural renewal and interculturalism. In such a program, teachers are considered the prime agents of social change, cultural renewal and internationalism. Teachers are organized not to strengthen their own professional security, but rather to encourage widespread experimentation in the schools and to challenge the outdated structures of society. They are considered to be the vanguard for a new social order – somewhat utopian in nature.

(iv). Humanistic Design

The humanistic model of education stems from the human potential movement in psychology. Within education it is rooted in the work of Arthur Jersild, who linked good teaching with knowledge of self and students, and in the work of Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg, who explored the impact of self-concept and motivation on achievement. Other names for this orientation have been affective education, open education and existential education. The focus of humanistic designs has been on the learners-especially students’ self-concepts.

A humanistic curriculum emphasizes affective rather than cognitive outcomes. Carl Rogers assumes that people can enhance self-directed learning by drawing on their own resources to improve self-understanding, to learn self-concepts and basic attitudes, and to guide their own behaviour. The educators’ task is to set the educational environment such that these personal resources can be tapped. Such an environment encourages genuineness of behaviour, empathy and respect for self and others. Individuals given such an environment will naturally develop into a fully functioning person. Individuals able to take self initiated actions and responsibility for those actions is capable of intelligent choice and self-direction. Furthermore, having acquired knowledge relevant to the solutions of problems, these persons are critical learners. They are also able to approach problem situations with flexibility and intelligence and to work cooperatively with others. They are internally guided with regard to their socialization process. They do not wait for or work for the approval of others.

Advocates of humanistic education contend that the present school curriculum has failed miserably by humanistic standards, that teachers and schools are determined to stress cognitive behaviour and to control students not for their own good but for the good of adults. Humanists emphasize more than affective processes; they seek higher domains of consciousness. But they see the schools as unconcerned about higher planes of understanding, enhancement of the mind, or self-
knowledge. Students must therefore turn to such out-of-school activities as drugs, yoga, transcendental meditation, group encounters, psychotherapy, and sexual therapy.

Humanists would attempt to form more meaningful relationships between students and teachers; they would foster student independence and self-direction, and they would promote greater acceptance of self and others. The teachers’ role would be to help learners cope with their psychological needs and problems, to facilitate self understanding among students and to help them develop fully. This approach adds the affective component to the conventional subject matter curriculum that is already in place. Those who support this design do not favour either content or experience or intellect or feeling; rather, they strive to blend the subjective or intuitive with the objective. They urge that the curriculum be so organized as to provide students with more alternatives from which they can choose what to feel. Students are challenged to take responsibility for and to appreciate other choices, and the power to make choices.

This approach stress participation; it emphasizes power sharing, negotiations, and joint responsibility. It is essentially non authoritarian. It also stresses the whole person and the integration of thinking, feeling and acting. It centers on the relevance of subject matter in the light of students’ basic needs and lives. Throughout the curriculum, students are confronted with situations that make them realize that the development of self is a legitimate objective of learning.

Weinstein and Fantani recommended three tiered structure in curriculum. One tier is comprised of reading, computation and writing skills. The basic subject matter of the subject matter curriculum is found at this tier. The second tier consists of those activities designed to draw out the learners’ latent talents and abilities. This tier is highly individualized, as is the first tier. It stresses the development of individual creativity and the exploration of interests. The third tier is concerned with group inquiry. It consists mainly of social issues and problems that are related to the self in society. Here students get a chance to explore who they are as individuals and as members of a group. They analyze issues and identify common themes. They can develop their own personalities, increase their skills in interpersonal relations, and become more cognizant of their feelings and concerns.

**Problem-centred Design or Society Centered Design**

Problem-centred design stress the importance of the survival of human and society. It focuses on the problems of living – on the perceived realities of institutional and group life – both for the individual and for society in general. Problem-centred curriculum designs are organized to
reinforce cultural traditions and also to address those community and societal needs that are currently unmet. They address individual’s problems as well.

Even though these designs place the individual in a social setting, they are unlike learner-centred designs in a major way. Problem centred designs are planned before the arrival of students. However problem-centred curricularists realize that because their concern is with genuine life problems, they will sometimes have to adjust to cater the concerns and situations of learners.

The curriculum organized with this design depends in large part on the nature of the problem areas to be studied. Contents selected must be relevant to the problem under consideration. For this reason, the content often cuts across subject boundaries. It must also be based, to a major extent, on the needs, concerns and abilities of the students. This dual emphasis on both content and the development of learners distinguishes problem-centred designs from the other major types of curriculum designs.

Because problem-centred designs draw on social problems and the needs, interests and abilities of learners, several variations exist. Some focus on social functions or areas of social living or persistent life situations, approaches that are based on the belief that the curriculum design should follow the persistent functions, areas or life situations in man’s existence as a social being; others centre on contemporary social problems or problem of community life and some are even concerned with the social action or reconstruction of society. The reconstruction approach is based on the belief that the improvement of society through direct involvement of the schools and their students to be a primary goal of the curriculum. What seems to distinguish these various types is the relative degree of emphasis they place on social needs as opposed to individual needs. The common denominator of these three design theories is a curriculum design that features social activities and/or community problems rather than subjects of objectives.

(i). Life-situations Design

The persistent life-situations design is perhaps the best known variation of the problem-centred designs. The life-situations design proposed by Florence Stratemeyer and her associates was based on a principle derived from studies on the transfer of learning. They concluded that the students would find their school learning more meaningful, and would thus be able to directly apply it to life, if the problems they study in school were in fact similar to those they faced out of school.

Using such a design, based on recurring life situations, educators could assist students in broadening their insights and deepening their generalizations about problems relating to the real world.
Stratemeyer created a master list of persistent life situations for the educators to follow. The key aspects of this list are presented below:

A. Situations calling for growth in individual capacities
   i. Health
   ii. Intellectual power
   iii. Responsibility
   iv. Aesthetic expression and appreciation

B. Situations calling for growth in social participation
   i. Person-to-person relationships
   ii. Group membership
   iii. Inter-group relationships

C. Situations calling for growth in ability to deal with environmental factors and forces
   i. Natural phenomena
   ii. Technological phenomena
      iii. Economic-social-political structures and forces.

Doak S. Campbell (1935) explained the concept of social function design: Studies of group life show that there are certain major centers about which the activities of individuals and the plans and problems of the group tend to cluster. These centers, which may be referred to as social functions, tend to persist and to be common for all organized groups. Since these centers or social functions represent points about which real life activities tend to gather and organize it is considered reasonable that a curriculum which is concerned with guiding children into effective participation in the activities of real life may appropriately use these social functions as points for emphasis and orientation in outlining the curriculum.

(ii). Core Curriculum

The two ideas common to the concept of core ‘are that they provide experiences needed by all youth and the experiences cut across subject lines’. Thus core means all the essential things required for all the students.
According to Bossing, the ‘core curriculum’ designates those learning experiences that are fundamental for all learners because they drive from our common, individual needs and our civic and social needs.

“The total organizational activities of that part of the school curriculum devoted to the determination of the personal and social competencies needed by all and the procedures, materials and facilities by which the school assumes the adequacy of the learning experiences essential to the development of those competencies” is known as core program.

According to some experts, ‘the core curriculum refers to a pattern of the experience curriculum organized into a closely integrated and interrelated whole in which there is one division. The core program is devoted to the development of the common competencies needed by the all and the other division emphasizes the development of competencies based upon the recognition of individual differences in interests, attitudes, aptitudes and capacities, the entire curriculum utilizing constitutently the same basic principles of learning teaching methods and problem organization.

The core curriculum design centers on general education and is based on problem arising out of common human activities. The core programs of middle, junior high, and high schools are frequently based on analysis of social problems. Vars described structured core programs as ‘categories of human experience that embrace both the personal problems, interests, and needs of students and the problems confronting contemporary society’. Education Policies Commission, Education for All American Youth (1944) recommended a ‘common learnings’ core for high schools and junior colleges that would include six areas, four of which emphasized social problems: i) Civic responsibility and competence, ii) Understanding of the operation of the economic system and of the human relations involved therein, iii) Family relationships, iv) Intelligent action as consumers, v) Appreciation of beauty and vi) Proficiency in the use of language.

This type of core is problem centred rather than learner centred. It is carefully planned before the students arrive, but with the notion that adjustment can be made if necessary. This design is usually taught in a block time format, whereby two or more normal periods for teaching the core component are scheduled together. One teacher assumes responsibility for this block of time and also manages a counseling function. Although content is part of this design, the common needs, problems, and concerns of learners comprise the central focus.

The focus on problems proceeds in different ways in each core class, but certain characteristics for problem solving are recommended by the advocate of core as illustrated below.
The recommendations make sense today, as they did when core was popularized by Faunec and Bossing.

1. The problem is selected by either the teacher or the students.
2. A group consensus is made to determine important problems and interest of the class.
3. Problems are selected on the basis of developed criteria for selection.
4. The problem is clearly stated and defined
5. Areas of study are decided, including dividing the class by individual and group interests.
6. Needed information is listed and discussed;
7. Resources for obtaining information are listed and discussed
8. Information obtained and organized
9. Information is analyzed and interpreted
10. Tentative conclusions are stated and tested.
11. A report is presented to the class on an individual or group basis
12. Conclusions are evaluated
13. New avenues of exploration toward further problem solving are examined.

The advantages of the core design are that it unifies content, presents subject matter relevant to students, and encourages active processing of information. Further, because it presents subject matter in a relevant form, it fosters intrinsic motivation in students. Albert and Alberty state that this design makes it possible for students to attack directly problems they consider crucial in the contemporary society. It encourages students to view the community as a laboratory for learning. Because the design encourages cooperative learning, its advocates claim it fosters democratic practices in the classroom.

Reconstructionsists Design

Reconstructionists feel that the curriculum should address contemporary social problems and even social action projects aimed at reconstructing society. Many such educators consider themselves to be in social orientation camp, or what some have called social Reconstructionism. These individuals, interested in the relation of the curriculum to the social, political and economic
development of society, believe that through the curriculum, educators will effect social change and ultimately create a more just society.

Social action through the school curriculum seems to us directly related to the educational philosophy of reconstructionism, as far removed as that philosophy is from the other socially focused designs we have considered. That is, while the social activities and community-centred approaches aim toward social improvement, they do not call on the schools to lead in social action and reform movements as does reconstructionism.

Brameld outlined the major features of this approach to curriculum. He noted that reconstructionists were committed to creating a new culture. Brameld was convinced that in the midst of a revolutionary period—the times demanded that educators harness the school for social reconstruction. The continuing problems at the national and global level—war, poverty among affluence, crime, racial-conflict, unemployment, political oppression, and disregard for the environment—all called for a major shift in society. If society was to survive, it would be because the common people in the industrial system—and the public service system—would gain control. Once in control, these persons would release and equitably use society’s resources to solve the problems of democracy. Brameld placed the working people, in a new sense of collective strength, in control of all principle institutions and resources. This was necessary if the world was to become genuinely democratic. He challenged teachers to join forces with these organized working people.

Brameld also believed that the school should help the individual to develop as a social being and also as a skilled planner of the social reality. The individual must come to learn that he or she must satisfy his or her personal needs through social consensus. The schools not only had this obligation to educate children in the value of the collective they also needed to point out the urgency for the change.

The fact that reconstructionists stress the notion of change and the needs to plan for tomorrow bring in mind a series of pressing questions raised by two great reconstructionists, Virgil Clift and Harold Shane, as they explore new directions for Educators and new decisions for curriculum specialists.

1. What policies shall govern our future use of technology?

2. At a global level, what shall be our goals and how can we reach them?

3. What shall we identify as the ‘good life’?
4. How shall we deploy our limited resources in meeting the needs of various groups of people?

5. How shall we equalize opportunity, and how shall we reduce the gap between the ‘haves’ and ‘have-nots’?

6. How can we maximize the value of mass media, especially television?

7. What shall be made of psychological, chemical and electronic approaches to behaviour modification?

8. What steps can we take to ensure the integrity of our political, economic and military systems?

9. What, if anything, are we willing to relinquish, and in what order?

10. And, what honourable compromises and solutions shall we make as we contemplate the above questions?

These questions deal with social issues that are generic – meaning they were relevant yesterday, they are relevant today and they will be relevant tomorrow and they are relevant for most school subjects and grade levels. The way we deal with these issues or problems will make the difference about the society we are and will become.

The social reconstructionist curriculum has the primary purpose of engaging the learner in analyzing the many severe problems confronting humankind. However, the exact content and objectives are to be decided by those who actually create such a curriculum. The curriculum is to engage students in a critical analysis of the local, national, and international community. Also, attention is to be given to the political practices of the business and government groups and their impact on the economic realities of the workers. Such a curriculum must propose industrial and political changes that will ultimately modify the social fabric of the nation and perhaps the world.

MODELS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The curriculum development model can be classified into technical-scientific approach and nontechnical-nonscientific approach. The term technical-scientific emphasizes that the curriculum development model involves intellectual and rational approach based on the views of experts and demands of subject matter. The term nontechnical-nonscientific stress that the curriculum development model involves learner-centred approach based on the students’ perceptions of their needs and preferences.
The Tyler’s Curriculum Inquiry Model

Tyler’s model of curriculum development is an ends-means approach. Tyler mentioned that those involved in curriculum inquiry must try to define the four basic components of curriculum. They are: (1) purposes of the school; (2) educational experiences related to the purposes; (3) organization of these experiences and (4) evaluation of the purposes.

By ‘purposes’, Tyler was referring to objectives. He indicated that curriculum planners should identify these general objectives by gathering data from three sources – the subject matter, the learners and the society. After identifying numerous general objectives, the curriculum planners were to refine them by filtering them through two screens – the philosophy of the school and the psychology of learning. As a result of such screening the specific instructional objectives were formulated.

Tyler then discussed how to select educational experiences that would allow the attainment of objectives. Learning experiences had to take into account both the previous experience and the perceptions that the learner brings to a situation. Also, the experiences were to be selected in light of what educators know about learning and human development.

Tyler next talked about the organization and sequencing of these experiences. He stated that the ordering of the experiences had to be somewhat systematic so as to produce a maximum cumulative effect. He thought that organizing elements, such as ideas, concepts, values and skills should be woven as threads into the curriculum fabric. These key elements could serve as organizers and means and methods of instruction and they could relate different learning experiences among different subjects. The ideas, concepts, values and skills could also link content within particular subject courses – for example, English and mathematics. Indeed, much of the discussion today on the conceptual structures of courses or curricular content is drawn from Tyler.

Tyler’s last principle deals with evaluating the effectiveness of planning and actions. Tyler considered evaluation to be important in curriculum development. He realized that it was necessary if educators were to find out whether the learning experiences actually produced the intended results. Also, it was necessary to determine whether the program was effective or ineffective. It could guide where the program should be maintained or modified. An evaluation should relate to all of the objectives. The Tyler’s curriculum inquiry model is represented in the following figure.
The Taba’s Grass-Roots Rationale Model

Hilda Taba believed that those who teach curriculum should participate in developing it. She advocated the “grass-roots approach” for curriculum development.

According to Taba, the curriculum should be designed by the users of the program. Teachers should begin the process by creating specific teaching-learning units for their students. She advocated that teachers take an inductive approach to curriculum development – starting with specifics and building to a general design – as opposed to the more traditional deductive approach – starting with the general design and working toward the specifics.

Taba noted seven major steps to her grass-roots model in which teachers would have major input:

1. *Diagnosis of Needs*: The teacher (curriculum designer) starts the process by identifying the needs of the students for whom the curriculum is to be planned.

2. *Formulation of Objectives*: After the teacher has identified needs that require attention, he or she specifies objectives to be accomplished.

3. *Selection of Content*: The objectives selected or created suggest the subject matter or content of the curriculum unit. Taba pointed out that not only should objectives and content match, but the validity and significance of the content chosen needed to be determined as well.

4. *Organisation of Content*: A teacher cannot just select content, but must organize it in some type of sequence, taking into consideration the maturity of the learners, their academic achievement and their interests.
5. **Selection of Learning Experiences**: Content must be presented to pupils or pupils must engage in an interaction with the content. At this point, Taba discussed the instructional methodologies that will involve the students with the content.

6. **Organization of Learning Activities**: Just as content must be sequenced and organized, so must the learning activities. Often the sequence of the learning activities is determined by the content that is sequenced. But the teacher needs to keep in mind the particular students whom he or she will be teaching.

7. **Evaluation and Means of Evaluation**: The curriculum planner must determine just what objectives have been accomplished. Evaluation procedures need to be considered by the students and teachers.

The grass-roots approach has made it abundantly clear that a broad base of involvement of the users of the curriculum is essential for effective curriculum decision-making. Curriculum making requires compromise among administrators from the central office, supervisors from the local school and teachers, students and community members. Traditionally, the central office staff is charged with directing those actions that enable the various participators to engage in curriculum development. In a non-traditional approach members of the community and teaching profession are given primary responsibility for developing the curriculum.

**Conclusion**

The process of curriculum development involves six steps such as assessment of educational needs, formulation of objectives, selection of learning experiences to attain these objectives, selection of content through which learning experiences may be offered, The organization and integration of learning experience and content with respect of the teaching learning process and evaluation of all the above phases.

There are several approaches through which curriculum can be designed and organized. These approaches are generally grouped into the following three categories.

**Subject-centred approach**: The subject-centred approach is one of the most widely used methods for organizing educational experiences. In this approach, the subject matter becomes the basis around which learning experiences are organized and the mastery of subject matter becomes the basis for attainment of educational objectives. In subject-centred curriculum, the chief responsibility of the curriculum planners is to determine the subjects to be offered by the school and the body of knowledge to be covered within each subject. For example, the subjects or the
programme of studies may be divided into areas like English, Tamil, Science, Social Science, Mathematics and so on. Another concern of curriculum planners engaged in this activity is to devise ways of evaluating a students mastery over the subject matter through formal tests, problem-solving situations, etc. **Learner-centred approach:** Learning is what we build into behaviour from experience. We learn best from those situations that help us solve our problem, satisfy our desire, fulfil our interest or meet our needs. This approach to curriculum development seeks to present through school experiences the methods which an effective citizen uses in solving problems, pursuing his interest or meeting his needs. The curriculum plan will thus focus on the emerging needs of the students in their present lives. This approach prepares the student to face the present rather than the future. A student confronted with a problem utilizes his intelligence and experiences based on his past knowledge to reach an intelligent decision. For this, the appropriate learning experiences need to be planned which are psychologically most sound and purposeful to the student. The curriculum would consist of topics such as an understanding of changes during puberty, peer group interaction, developing self-concept, adjustment, personal values, etc. In other words, the issues should relate to the developmental stages of the student. **Social problems approach:** The advocates of this approach believe that the learning experiences should be organized in terms of the major activities of the human being as he/she lives in his/her culture. This inculcates in the pupil, an awareness of the current social issues and problems and enables him/her to effectively resolve social problems. Through social-problems approach, courses may be developed in areas such as environmental problems, racism, population, communication, technology and so on. In this approach to curriculum planning/development, learning objectives are framed after the social problem or issue has been analysed; the subject matter drawn from any source pertinent to the problem.

**The curriculum development model** can be classified into technical-scientific approach and nontechnical-nonscientific approach. The term technical-scientific emphasizes that the curriculum development model involves intellectual and rational approach based on the views of experts and demands of subject matter. The term nontechnical-nonscientific stress that the curriculum development model involves learner-centered approach based on the students’ perceptions of their needs and preferences.

**QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION**

1. Discuss the subject-centered curriculum designs.
2. Describe the learner-centered curriculum designs.
3. Describe the problem-centered curriculum designs.
4. Outline the Tyler’s model of curriculum development.
5. Summarize the Hilda Taba’s model of curriculum development.
6. Describe the nature of the curriculum process.
7. Establish the importance of formulation of objectives in curriculum development.
8. List the criteria for the selection of content.
9. What are the three modes of learning?
10. Explain the principles of organizing and integrating content and learning experiences.
11. What are the three levels of objectives?
12. Briefly describe the three levels of selection of content with the help of examples.
13. Write a note on assessment of educational need.
14. How can knowledge about the process of curriculum construction enable the teacher to improve the teaching-learning process?
15. What do you mean by measurement and evaluation.
16. Explain the guidelines for formulating educational objectives.
17. Discuss the criteria for the selection of content.

Reference Books
UNIT-8 RESOURCE OF CURRICULUM

Objectives

- Students to know their communities, value, language, Educational goals through knowledge
- Students to know about importance of school time table, syllabus, textbooks, and co-curricular activities
- Analysis various sample of text books, children’s literature and teacher hand book

Introduction

All knowledge is fragile, and no person can know everything. What is known, the facts and certainties of knowledge, are organized into bodies of knowledge, like geography, that are constantly changing. Knowledge, what humans come to know, begins in vicariously created, scattered, discrete human consciousness. It is also social and culturally created because it is “human” knowledge.

Psychologist Jerome Bruner points out in Acts of Meaning (1990) that individual humankind knowing of the world and self is culturally embedded. As a cumulative entity, knowledge is part of the cumulative overarching knowledge of all human social and cultural consciousness. Knowledge is held in common and shared, a synthesized knowledge that provides ways to understand and comprehend the world.

Students in schools study knowledge that is packaged and ready to be learned. In colleges and universities, students invest extensive amounts of time in specialized chunks of it called majors or, more specifically, disciplines of knowledge. In studying a body of knowledge, they encounter the theories, philosophies, history, methods, perspectives, and inquiry traditions that form the core content of a discipline.

Knowledge can be generally categorized in different ways. Dividing knowledge into the informal and the formal is one way. Informal knowledge is held personally, often without being verifiable or made credible in other ways. It is what you know and use to guide your thinking and behavior. It may not be proven or validated but it is useful because it works in satisfactory ways.

Informal knowledge, personally held, is your own creation and not necessarily held to be the same by another person. Although two person may share informal knowledge, each may know it differently. It can also be cooperatively known with others, such as the distinctive personal walk-about knowledge: ways to behave, rules, the ordinary social and cultural acquired things that guide
our daily ways of living and participation in the public life. In schools, it is the classroom rules and the unspoken but assumed appropriate set of behaviors for walking about, going to the rest room and the library, and speaking to others.

As a second, general kind of knowledge, formal knowledge is collectively organized and specialized, forming sanctioned body of knowledge for anyone to acquire and use. Formal knowledge is proved, standardized, and useful because it is true and applicable under specifiable conditions. It has been proved or validated as formal knowledge through a consensual confirming process. That is why you could verify an answer from the knowledge base in geography. This formalizing is often referred to as knowledge production and use (Eraut, 1985) and represents a cycle of action forming a process that certifies its use as suggested in the knowledge cycle (Rich, 1981; Short, 1973).

It can be the formal applied knowledge of the electrician, the plumber, and the farmer, or the commercial knowledge of the shop owner and real estate agent, validated in applied activities. It can be technical knowledge used by the engineer, the draftsman, or the architect. It is also the academic and professional knowledge of the professor, researcher, and other scholars, a created body of facts, concepts, ideas, procedures, and multiform data held together by a system or thought.

In each case, the knowledge creation occurs in a culture of disciplined work. This is particularly important for the formal knowledge that underlies the work of teachers, medical personnel, lawyers, and others in the pursuit of science. Curriculum also exists as a body of formal disciplined knowledge in the field of education.

**Syllabus**

- Curriculum based on a thorough knowledge of the students and their communities, their values, their language and their educational goals
- Time table, syllabus, text books and co-curricular activities
- Critical analysis of various samples of text books, children’s literature and teachers’ Handbook.

**Curriculum and community:**

Accordingly they can best be understood by categorizing them on these bases: the conformists, the reformers, the futurists, and the radicals.
The conformists: The conformists believe that the existing order is good one—the best of all possible worlds. While problems obviously exist in that social order, in the eyes of the conformists those problems are of lesser consequence and can be handled by mature adults. Accordingly, the essential task of the curriculum is to indoctrinate the young: help them understand the history of this society, teach them to value it, and educate them to function successfully in it. Curriculum workers with a conformist intent begin curriculum development by identifying the needs of the existing society and its institutions; curriculum objectives are derived from those needs. The teacher is usually expected to serve as a advocate for the free-enterprise system, helping students understand why it is so much better than competing systems.

The Reformers: Those classified as reformers see society as essentially sound in its democratic structure but want to effect major reforms in the social order. The major vehicle is the curriculum: course should be developed that will sensitize students to emerging social issues and give students the intellectual tools they need to solve social problems. Thus curriculum workers should begin the task of curriculum development by identifying social problems. Those social problems—such as racism, sexism, and environmental pollution—then become the center of classroom activity. The teacher is expected to play an active role in identifying the problems, in “raising the consciousness” of the young, and in helping students take actions to bring about the needed reforms.

The Futurists: Rather than being attuned to the present problems of the society, futurists look to the coming age. They analyze present development, extrapolate form available data, and posit alternative scenarios. They highlight the choices people have in shaping this coming age and encourage the schools to give students the tools to create a better future for them. In a sense, they might be described as reformers intent on solving the problems of the year 2020. In their view, the school curricula should have such a futurist orientation, focusing on the developments likely to occur and involving students in thinking about the choices they have and the consequences of the choices they make. Rapidly advancing and clear-cut new technologies will force schools to change rapidly. Gradual improvements of the educational process will not suffice.

The Radicals: one of the leading exponents of such an approach is Paulo Freir (1970), the Brazilian educator whose pedagogy of the oppressed made a significant impact on radical educators in this country. In Freire’s view, the goal of education is conscientization, a process of enlightening the masses about inequities inherent in their sociocultural reality and giving them the tools to make radicals changes in that social order that restricts their freedom. He makes the process explicit in
explaining how he teaches reading. Adults learn to read by identifying words with power-words such as love and person that have pragmatic value in communicating with other in the community.

They create their own texts that express their perceptions of the world they live in and the world they want. They learn to read to become aware of the dehumanizing aspects of their lives, but they are helped to understand that learning to read will not guarantee them the jobs they need.

**Language and value:** values it seem to be primarily engaged in what might be termed “educational consciousness-raising,” attempting to sensitize educators to the values issues that lie at the hearts of both the hidden and the stated curricula. Their intent is primarily a critical one; thus they sometimes have been identified as “critical theorists.” Because many have argued the need for reconceptualizing the field of curriculum, they often are labeled as reconceptualists.

In their inquiries, value-oriented theorists tend to examine issues such as the following:

1. In what ways do the schools replicate the power differentials in the larger society?
2. What is the nature of a truly liberated individual, and how does schooling inhibit such liberation?
3. How do schools consciously or unwittingly mold children and youth to fit into societal roles predetermined by race and class?
4. As curriculum leaders determine what constitutes legitimate knowledge, how do such decisions reflect their class biases and serve to inhibit the full development of children and youth?
5. In what ways does the schools’ treatment of controversial issues tend to minimize and conceal the conflicts endemic to the society?

The major value-oriented theorists

**James macdonald:** Basic to all his work is his view of the human condition. Central to that human condition is a search for transcendence, the struggle of the individual to actualize the whole self. Much influenced toward the end of his career by the writings of Carl Jung, Macdonald (1974) used almost mystical metaphors in “A Transcendental Developmental Ideology of Education” to speak of this journey toward transcendence as the primary concern of all humans.

Although Macdonald has been criticized for being too mystical and vague, the cumulative effect of his work has been to challenge curriculum leaders to rethink their basic assumptions.
and to conceptualize their field. In his view, the curriculum offered by most schools is seriously of autonomous and self-actualizing individuals.

**Michael Apple:** Michael Apple is a critical theorist who seems to be concerned primarily with the relationship between the society and the school. Central to Apple’s (1975) critique of the society and its schools is his use of the term hegemony to mean an organized assemblage of meanings and practices, the central effective and dominate system of meanings, value, and actions which are lived. Hegemony in this sense permeates the consciousness of the society as a body of practices and a set of meanings determined by the dominant culture.

One crucial way in which this cultural hegemony influences educators is in their perception of science. In this telling critique of what might be termed “educational pseudoscientism.” Apple (1975) noted that almost all educators reply on a narrow and strict view of sciences, one that values only rationality and empirical data in this service of predictability and control and that ignores the close relationship between science and art, science and myth.

**Language and curriculum:**

The humanities are home to language. A useful definition of language is a process of symbolic interaction, a deceptively simple explanation of human interacting using conforming symbols of sound and sight or utterances by tongue and voice. Languages such as Spanish, English and happiness come to mind, perhaps as part of your curriculum experience. Language are formed of alphabetic symbols arranged in patterns. Understanding that patterning is called linguistics, or the study of the way that any language is structured, the elements that make it up, and their functions. Think of the familiar alphabet you are using, which is essential for most languages.

Range further over the language landscape and you find different alphabets and different languages, the Cyrillic alphabet of Russian, the Arabic alphabet of Middle Eastern languages and alphabets for languages in China and Japan. There is another side to language, and that is language of movement: body posture; a gesture; voice intonation; and culturally expected movement, as in a bow or diverting of the eyes, which an utterance or other movement, convey unspoken social and cultural meaning as part of the language of interactions.

Classrooms are places of language as symbolic interactions, alphabetic patterns, enriched by movement such as a look given by a leaner, body posture, or a particular intonation or utterance. In the classroom and curriculum materials, symbols are encoded in pictures, images and spoken or illustrative representations as well as printed language. Language gives expression to love, grief,
caring, and other emotions: it is not just formalized language but the social and cultural dimensions that make language so important in being human.

**Curriculum and their Goals:**

Curricular goals are those outcomes that the school system hopes to achieve through its curriculum. Here it is important to make a distinction between educational goals and curricular goals. Educational goals are the long-term outcomes that the school system expects to accomplish through the entire educational process over which it has control, as Brown (2006) found a survey that was conducted with educators, parents, and employers as to what type of skills they believed students should be developing. The following is a prioritized list of survey responses:

1. Critical-thinking skills
2. Problem-solving strategies and effective decision-making skills
3. Creative-thinking processes
4. Effective oral and written communication skills
5. Basic reading, mathematics and writing abilities
6. Knowledge of when and how to use research to solve problems
7. Effective interpersonal skills
8. Technology skills
9. Knowledge of good health and hygiene habits
10. Acceptance and understanding of diverse cultures and ethnicities
11. Knowledge of how to effectively manage money
12. Willingness, strategies, and ability to continue learning.

**Meaning of Time-Table:**

The School time-table is a chart which indicates all the activities undertaken by each member of the staff and the students in each class or on farm of workshop at a particular time of the day when the school is functioning. It is the school mirror which reflects the school programme.

Time table is an outline of the days’ work in a school which indicates:

1. Time of the beginning and ending of the school day
2. Time of beginning and ending of the school day
3. Subjects and activities being undertaken by students in each class, in each period and by an each teacher
4. Days on which every subjects is taught.
5. Name of the teachers teaching a particular subjects in a particular period and in a particular room.
6. Room or place where each activity is going on.
7. Recess Break or interval time.

Significance of the school Time-Table: Spark Plug of the School

1. Brings System in the school: Without the time-table, there will be chaos and confusion all around in the school. In the school absence of the time table, the school life will come to a stand still and become a free for all affairs.
2. Eliminates wastage of Time and Energy: Undoubtedly all planned programme eliminate wastage of time and energy and it is equally true in the case of a school time-table. The entire school work is, by and large, equitably distributed among the members of the staff.
3. Ensures Due Attention to every subjects or activity: In framing the time-table, due attention is given to every subjects. Periods are allotted to different subjects according to their importance and their fatiguing nature.
4. Develops Moral Values: It helps to develop qualities like punctuality and regularity both in the teachers and the taught by placing before them a set programme of activities.
5. Ensures Regular and Even Progress: Regular and even progress is ensured because time-table prevent laxity and shortages.
6. Provides a psychological Environment: It has got a psychological value leading to the removal of fatigue which may occur due to prolonged hours of teaching and learning. It brings new motivation and stimulation to teachers and students.
7. Ensure Equitable Distribution of Time to Different Subjects and Activities: Time-table helps in avoiding the allotment of took much or too less work to one teacher.
8. Develop good Habits: It helps in developing regular habits of work in students as well as teachers.
9. Facilitates advance planning by the teachers and students: Time-table helps in chalking out plans in a systematic manner.
10. Ensures Efficiency: There will be no looseness, duplication of effort and repetition of items and activities. Everybody in the school system knows what to do at a particular time.
Form of a School Time-Table

The form of a time-table depends upon the nature of activities carried on in a school. The more the number and variety of activities, the more types of time-tables. In an ordinary school four forms of time-table i.e.

1. Master Time-table indicating the entire programme of the school.

2. Class time-table.

3. Teacher’s time-table.


5. Games time-table.


General Considerations Underlying School Time-table Construction:

The construction of a time-table makes large demands of the ingenuity and skill of the Head. Framing of a time-table is a time absorbing task. Some of the chief factors which determine the construction of a time table are:

1. Departmental regulations.
2. Type of school
3. Amount of time available
4. Relative importance of a subject
5. Incidence of fatigue
6. Principle of justice
7. Principle of variety
Flexibility of Time-Table:

Many programmes have been evolved in progressive schools which provide flexibility and the common features are:

1. The instructional material is organized into larger meaningful units built found the needs and interests of the students
   a. and interests of the students
2. There is provision for some long periods for partial activities.
3. There are certain “unassigned” periods in which the students may engage themselves in some worthwhile hobby.
4. There is no rigidly and the teachers are at liberty to alter the daily programme according to the special circumstances connected with the needs and interests of the students. Of course this has to be pre-planned and in consultation with other teachers so that they may accordingly modify their programmes.

Syllabus:

There has been some confusion between the syllabus and the curriculum. The syllabus is a defensible map of core skills, knowledge, competences, capacities to be covered, with affiliated statements of standards. Oxford English Dictionary tells us that the term syllabus has evolved to refer to a summary of what is to be taught and learned. The term was used to refer to a statement, a table of contents, or heads of study. The syllabus has traditionally been defined as an authoritative outline, schema or structure for courses of study.

In current terms, Westbury defines the syllabus as a guide or tool for teachers. We define the syllabus as an official map of a school subject. That is it provides teachers with a rationale and outline of the school subject in question to be taught and learned, and description of so operational ways of appraising standards for gauging student performance.

Textbooks:

The definitions for Textbooks are wide and varied. One common definition is that a textbook is a printed and bound artefact for each year or course of study (Encyclopedia of Education, 2008b). They contain facts and ideas around a certain subject.

Textbooks are not like other books. Today, textbooks are assembled more than they are written. They are not usually written by a single author, nor are they a creative and imaginative endeavor. They are, in fact, usually specially made by a corporation to follow a set standard
curriculum for a school system or larger organization, such as a province (Encyclopedia of Education, 2008b).

**Pedagogy of Textbooks:**

Throughout the 19th and 20th Centuries, textbooks were used mainly as a static means to teach curriculum. The printed textbook has been the means with which knowledge is organized and distributed. They have served to gather a body of knowledge, a mechanism for introduction to learning and as a reference material (Bierman, 2006).

For at least a thousand years, the goal pedagogically for textbooks and school was the memorization of definitions, rules or other facts (Wakefield, 1998). In fact, for quite a long period, textbooks were undifferentiated by age. This allowed for older students to help younger ones, rather than a teacher who may have to work with students from very low grades to upper grades having to attempt to reach each grade level individually.

As time has passed, the textbook has become further entrenched in the educational system. However, current pedagogy has shown a further trend towards more balanced methods of instruction that still include the textbook.

**The Present of Textbooks:**

Although there are many other learning materials available in this period, research in wealthy nations shows that the vast majority of teachers still continue to rely heavily on the textbook as their core teaching resource (Encyclopedia of Education, 2008b). This is in spite of the fact that the majority of textbooks still have a prescribed style of presentation and knowledge base that is in stark contrast to many advances in pedagogical research, such as Multiple intelligences, personalization of learning and Universal Design for Learning.

However, there is a movement towards understanding of knowledge to take the place of memorization. While lessons derived from textbooks may continue to dominate the classroom, much of the time these are augmented and coordinated with a full set of learning materials, such as audio and visual files, graphics, exercise books and computer access materials. These so called “learning packages” are replacing the basic textbook in many cases (Encyclopedia of Education, 2008b). Even while using basic textbooks, most of these now have an objectives section, to aid student in understating what knowledge they will be able to gain from this chapter and what skills they should garner from this unit. As well, understanding and extension questions at either the start or end of a chapter allow students to synthesize and cement their newly acquired knowledge.
Dramatic changes in technology have changed the relationship between information, students and their access. No longer can a static resource hold the student’s attention, when they can access up to date information on any subject through an internet connection to the Internet (Bierman, 2006).

As well, a concern with the static textbook is that it is not accessible to all students. One reading level for all is not designed to provide learning to students with learning disabilities or even physical handicaps, such as students who are blind or have low vision. Textbooks publishers are increasingly providing digital copies of their texts and activities, so students can access them through screen readers and other specialized Assistive Technology (Stahl, 2004)

**The Future of Textbooks:**

As the nature and accessibility of knowledge continues to change and grow, the textbook will have to continue to change as well. Textbooks will have to change from being a static printed volume to negate being out of date as soon as they are in the hands of students.

Textbooks should continue to grow into guides for both students and teachers, coordinating different resources from animations and simulations to interactive exercises. These will include electronic interfacing, and focus on developing critical thinking skills rather than the transmission of knowledge (Cunningham, Duffy, & Knuth, 2000).

**Characteristic of Good Textbook:**

1. **Adequate Subject Matter:** It should be based on psychological needs and interest of the students, Pupils’ environment, age of the students, link with the indian culture and tradition, varied topics and practical utility as well as informative.

2. **Style:** The style should be based on the maxims of simple of difficult, known to unknown, concrete to abstract. Logic manner should be adopted for the presentation of subject matter. The style should appeal to the readers.

3. **Suitable vocabulary and structures:** The vocabulary should be controlled. It should be properly selected and graded. The introduction of vocabulary should be progressive within series of readers. The new words and structures should be repeated. Every reader should give an index of words and structures at the end. At the end of the book, a glossary of difficult words and structures should be given.

4. **Pictures and illustrations:** The illustrations should make the subject matter clear. The should be sufficient inNumber. The readers for junior level should have illustrations
occupying more space and quite large in size. The should be attractive. Too many ideas should not be conveyed in one illustration

5. **Developing language skill:** It should provide necessary facilities for developing the necessary language skills of speaking, reading and writing in the young learners.

6. **Proportion and order:** A lesson should not be very long. There should be plausible proportion between prose, poetry bibliography, lesson etc. Two topics of the same kind should not be in continuation. Proportion of content and structural words should be maintained

7. **Exercises:** There should be sufficient number of exercises at the end of every lesson. The instructions about the exercises should be brief and clear. Varied exercises should be presented. Exercises should be well selected and graded.

8. **Opportunity of oral work:** It should provide sufficient opportunity for oral work. The lessons should be based on the possibility of introductory oral work.

9. **Technical Characteristics:** Paper should be of good quality. Printing should be attractive. Size of the type should be bold for juniors and small for seniors. Binding should be proper. The cover should be think and durable with some interesting illustration over it. A jacket should be added to the cover. The book should be handy. Price should be moderate.

**Co-curricular Activities**

**Meaning and Concept of Co-curricular Activities:**

Co-curricular activities otherwise called extracurricular activities, are defined as all student activities outside the curricular including all non-curricular activities. These activities consist of various endeavors that students can become engaged in to develop their interests, gain skills and contribute to the community. These activities develop various facts of the personality development, facilitate in the development of various domains of mind, intellectual development and aesthetic development. Creativity enthusiasm, energetic, leadership qualities, positive thinking are some of the facets of personality development which are the outcome of these activities.

A Co-curricular activity is defined as program, which provides curricular-related learning and character building experiences. Activities that are carried out inside the classroom, in the laboratory or in the workshop and have reference to the prescribed courses are called curricular activities.
Importance of Co-curricular Activities:

The specific importance of these Co-curricular activities

(1) **Need –Based Education**: Only teaching is not possible to fulfil entire needs of children. But Co-curricular activities are helpful for fulfilling the needs of the children. With creative good environment and proper guidance, co-curricular activities can develop various kinds of skills of the students in different areas.

(2) **In Physical development**: Curricular work gives the children passive and physically inactive. But Co-curricular activities gives the children to help the normal growth and development of the body. Various kinds of games and athletic lead to the physical development of students. These are develops students health, body, stamina, and health habits.

(3) **Essential for emotional development**: Nowadays most of the students are affected classroom stress that we have seen daily newspaper some students were struggle with their teachers, some students use dangerous weapon to beat their teachers etc. For this, Co-curricular activities must in the daily classroom activities.

**Short benefits of Co-curricular activities:**

1. To a greater extent, the theoretical knowledge gets strengthened when a relevant co-curricular activity I organized related to the content taught in the classroom
2. Co-curricular activities stimulate playing, acting, singing, recitation, speaking and narrating in students.
3. Activities like participation in game debates, music, drama, etc., help in achieving overall functioning of education.
4. Co-curricular activities enable the students to express themselves freely through different activities.
5. Co-curricular activities help to develop the spirit to healthy competition.
6. Co-curricular activities guide students how to organize and present an activity, how to develop skills, how to co-operate and co-ordinate in different situations-all these helps in leadership qualities.
7. Co-curricular activities provide the avenues of socialization, self-identification and self-assessment when the child comes in contact with organizers, fellow participants, teachers, and people outside the school during cultural activity.
8. Co-curricular activities make students perfect in decision making.
9. Co-curricular activities inculcate the values to respect others’ views and feelings.
10. Co-curricular activities develop a sense of belongingness, provide motivation for learning.
11. Co-curricular activities develop values like physical, psychological, ethic, academic, civic, social, aesthetic, cultural recreational and disciplinary values.

**Different types of Activities organized in a school:**

**Physical activities:** Vivekananda has rightly said – “What Indian needs today is not the Bhagawat Gita, but the football field.” So that we should need some Co-curricular activities for the Physical development. The activities include N.C.C, sports and games, athletic, exercise, gardening etc. These activities facilitate and develop the human bodies. Different activities like games, mass drill, cycling, gardening, etc. can be organized at primary level. These activities can help for physical development of the students. Students should be encouraged to participate in N.C.C, Boy Scouts, Girls Guide, etc.

**Social Activities:** A Number of co-curricular activities should be introduced in a school curriculum to provide training in group life. Junior Red cross, social education, labor squads N.C.C., N.S.S. Services on special occasion etc are some of the activities which are common in our school. These activities generally are of two types. Some of these activities are administrative and provides social training. These activities may include student self-government, celebrating social and religious function, organization of school cooperative society or store and school bank, visit to civic institution i.e. assembly courts etc. The second types of social activities are related to social services-such as N.C.C., N.S.S., Red Cross society etc. Different service activities like school cleaning, watering plants, cleaning roads and helping the poor people at their need will help the students to develop service mentality. The children learn teamwork, social work an sacrificing individual interest for society through co-curricular activities. Another type of co-curricular activity is centered on the community, altruism and helping others. They can also involve contributing to environmental causes like local neighborhood clean-ups, campus clean-ups or tree-planting projects etc. Raising funds for a charitable cause by obtaining pledges or donations is another form of community service.

Organization of school societies: Societies like the history society, the literature society, the planning forum, the religious society, etc. Should be activated under the supervision for the headmaster and teaching staff. Separate periods being allotted for the purpose will have an indirect effect on their academic achievement.
School Excursion: School should plan excursion in the form of journeys to distance places, trips to historical sites, visits to factories, radio stations, etc. It develops the outlook of the students' vision, enriches curricular experiences, and supplements classroom learning. It gives them much new information and changes their attitudes and interests.

**Educational activities:**

1. Creative and cultural activities
2. Leisure time activities and hobbies
3. Literally and academic activities
4. Organization of debates and discussion
5. Multipurpose activities and project

Note: Teachers should conduct any two or three activities given above.

**Principles of organizing of Co-curricular Activities:**

1. Proper Selection
2. Wide range
3. Definite and worthy objective
4. Growth of programme
5. Adjustment in the time table
6. Providing necessary facilities
7. Acquiring pupil participations
8. Opportunity for all
9. Specified time, date, and place
10. Providing guidance
11. Balancing teacher workload

**Challenges in Implementing Co-curricular activities:**

1. Parents
2. Teachers who place priority on academic
3. Infrastructure facilities that can be used for co-curricular activities in schools are also limited.
4. Lack of clear incentives
5. Interference with studies
6. Lack of stuff
7. Lack variety
8. Defective time schedule

**Role of a teacher in organizing curricular activities:**

The Teacher must be a good planner so that different activities of the organization could be carried out systematically throughout the year

1. It should be the duty of the teacher to give more and more opportunity to the child while performing co-curricular activities.
2. The Teacher should act as innovator by introducing some innovative programmes.
3. The teacher must be a good organizer so that the students experienced maximum of it.
4. He should too act like as director, recorder, communicator, coordinator, so that the student and child could gained maximum of finer aspects of co-curricular activities.

**Critical analysis of Text Books**

**What is Textbook Analysis?**

Textbook analysis is the systematic analysis of the text materials including the structure, the focus, and special learning assists. Teachers may assume the text is “sacred” and follow it without thought or write it off as useless. Either approach is a disservice to students. Many textbook publishers and writers have developed texts with useful elements, if we are willing to figure out what they are.

**How can Textbook Analysis help your students?**

Students in the general learning population may have an easier time of "figuring out" how to use the textbook than those in the special education population. With help from the teacher, the text materials can begin to make more sense. If structure is explained students can get a better idea of where they are going in the course. If the teacher understands focus or bias, he/she can make additions or deletions as needed to keep the presentation balanced. If Learning assists are understood, they have a better chance of being utilized.

**How can you implement Textbook Analysis in order to effectively meet the diverse learning needs of students?**

When a new textbook is adopted, it can be helpful if you can hear what the sales staff has to say about the book. You will discover what their intent was with organization as well as with particular features of the book. If sales staff is unavailable, take a look at the promotional materials. See what they are proud of. It may be useful in your planning.
Study the Table of Contents to see the content scope and sequence. Have students look at this organization with the idea of figuring out patterns. Cooperative Learning groups can be effective in comparing observations. Organization may be simply chronology for a history text, but is the same period of time covered in the same number of pages? If not, why not? In Geography, are the headings all continents? Or are there some chapters on entire countries?

**What are the different types of Textbook Analysis?**

There are many ways to analyze a textbook, depending on the intent of the analysis. Purchasers may want to know reading levels, costs, ancillary costs, etc. After the text has been purchased, however, the analysis by the teacher, which can help instruction include the Structure of the Text, the Focus of the Author, and the usefulness of the learning assists.

**Definition of children’s literature:**

Being classified as literature that is designed to help children to understand, and emphasize with, the world views and experiences of others, including other children (see, for example, Huck, Helper, Hickman & Kiefer, 2001; Saxby, 1997; Tomlinson & Lynch-Brown, 1996/2002)

McDowell (1973) and Hunt (1996), the definition of children’s literature includes explicit reference to intended readership. For them, the term ‘children’s literature’ is applicable to books written for, and read by, that group referred to as ‘children’ by any particular society. It need not have any other specific characteristics or qualities.

Lesnik-Oberstein (1996, p. 17) who defines ‘children’s literature’ as “a category of books the existence of which absolutely depends on supposed relationships with a particular reading audience: children”.

**Children’s literature: Genre and text-type**

The words ‘genre’ and ‘text-type’ can be used in two very different ways. In line with traditional usage (particularly in literary contexts), a number of academic researchers use the word ‘genre’ to refer to socially constructed categories that describe written and oral texts such as, for example, novels, short stories, poems, lectures, and academic articles. Here, these are described as text-types, the term genre being reserved for the classification of texts according to primary communicative purposes such as instructing, explaining, arguing, describing, classifying and recounting. Texts may be mono-generic or multi-generic. Thus, for example, a text belonging to a particular text-type such
as a short story, may include a variety of different genres such as description, classification, explanation and recount (see, for example, Houia-Roberts, 2003).

According to Winch et al. (2004, p. 339), children’s literature can play an important role in cognitive and linguistic development, providing “a locus for the activation of . . . speaking and listening skills, giving them purpose and direction”, and a place “where children encounter in a non-threatening way a diversity of possible perspectives on philosophical issues, worldviews, social ideas, and cultural practices”. If any of these essentially pedagogic functions are to be realized, teachers need to understand the organizational and linguistic characteristics of different genres and text-types in making selections and deciding on appropriate methodologies.

‘Good’ children’s literature:

Stewig (1980), whilst arguing that the most important factor in evaluating children’s literature is the responses of children themselves, he notes that evaluation need not only be external (based on children’s responses), but can also be internal (based on a set of pre-established criteria). So far as internal evaluation of children’s storybooks is concerned, he includes characterization, dialogue, setting, plot, conflict, resolution, theme, and style, but makes no mention of illustration (pp. 13-15).

Hillel and Mappin (1995) state that evaluation criteria should include considerations of literary merit, challenge, readability and appeal, noting (p. ix) that “the elusive quality ‘literary merit’ is taken to include notions of beauty in visual or linguistic terms and the overall cohesion and harmony of the work”. “Challenge is considered in terms of the importance of the issues raised in each book, the seriousness with which they are treated and the intellectual dexterity that is called for to unpack the meanings embedded in the work”.

**Evaluative criteria of children’s literature:**

Tomlinson and Lynch-Brown (2002) propose a series of evaluative criteria that relate to

(a) *fictional elements* (p. 22),

(b) *visual elements* (p. 28) and

(c) *nonfictional elements* (p. 170).

These evaluative criteria are outlined below.
**Fiction elements**

- **Plot** - A good plot produces conflict in order to build the excitement and suspense that can easily invite children to get involved.

- **Characters** - Characters must be memorable. The main characters in an excellent work of fiction for children are fully-developed, undergoing change in response to life-alerting events.

- **Setting** - The setting is an integral part of a story, which includes time and place. Although setting is often vague in traditional literature for children, detailed descriptions of settings can be an effective way of engaging children’s interest.

- **Theme** – Themes in children’s books should be worthy of children’s attention and should convey truth to them. Furthermore, themes should be based on high moral and ethical standards. A theme must not overpower the plot and characters of the story, however; children read fiction for enjoyment, not for enlightenment.

- **Style** - Style is the way in which an author tells the story; it is an aspect of the writing itself, as opposed to the content. Style should be appropriate in relation to content. The elements of style include word choice, sentence selection and book organization. The words should be appropriate to the story told; sentences should be easy to read but melodic, and the

**Visual elements**

- **Line** - Lines are the stroke marks that form part of the picture. The line of a picture generally defines the objects within the picture. Artists may choose to use lines that are dark or pale, heavy or light, solid or broken, wide or thin, straight or curved, or have combinations of these elements. The lines of the picture should help to create and convey both the meaning and the feeling of the story.

- **Color** - Color can be described in terms of its hue, lightness, and saturation. Colors must be used to complement text. For example, soft warm tones are associated with calmness and contentment. Colors should change appropriately according to the story lines. If the events and mood the story change during the course of the story, then the colors should change to reflect the shifts in the story.

- **Shape** - Shapes are evaluated for their simplicity or complexity, their definition or lack of definition, their rigidity or suppleness and their sizes. For example, negative or blank space may be used to highlight a particular object or to indicate isolation or loneliness. The shapes in a picture,
the spaces surrounding the shapes and the proportion of objects in relation to one another are important aspects of non-verbal messages.

- **Texture** – Texture conveys the impression of how a pictured object feels and can add a sense of reality to illustrations. Textures can be rough or slick, firm or spongy, hard or soft, jagged or smooth.

- **Composition** - Composition includes the arrangement of the visual elements within a picture and the way in which these visual elements relate to one another. The compositional characteristics of illustrations can help to convey an overall sense of unity and can reinforce aspects of textual meaning.

**Non-fiction**

- A clear, direct, easily understandable style is critical
- Captions and labels should be clearly written and informative
- Facts should be accurate and current.
- Personification should be avoided
- Attractive presentation
- Movement from known, simple and general to unknown, more complex and specific
- Stereotyping should be avoided
- Format and artistic medium should be appropriate to the content
- Depth and complexity of subject treatment must be appropriate for the intended audience

**Children’s literature: Language features**

The majority of those who have written about children’s literature have done so with children for whom the language of the text is a first language in mind. As in many other countries, many children are exposed to literature written in their mother tongue literature written in the primary language of scholastic instruction literature that has been translated from another language into their first language and/ or the primary language of scholastic instruction, and literature written in other languages such as, for example, English. Many of the books to which they are exposed that come into the first three categories are story books (including picture story books), but those that come into the fourth category involve a range of different genres and text-types, including, for example, the types of text to which Tomlinson and
Teachers’ Handbook:

Teachers’ (Code of Ethics) Regulations:

Code of Ethics

- The Teacher’s responsibilities to the Pupils in his/her care
- The teacher shall give foremost consideration to the pupil’s Well-being.
- The teacher shall direct his/her whole professional effort to assist the pupil to develop his/her whole personality including his/her ability to work.
- The teacher shall foster in his/her pupils honesty, integrity, and consideration for others and shall do nothing, by precept or example, to discredit these qualities.
- The teacher shall act, and shall be seen to act, with justice.
- The teacher shall exercise authority in accordance with the law of the land and with evolving concepts of the pupil’s needs and rights.
- The teacher shall recognize that each child is an individual and that children can differ in what is required for the promotion of their education.
- The teacher shall recognize an obligation to assist all pupils under his/her charge to develop their talents suitably and to the fullest extent feasible.
- The teacher shall recognize that s/he should work with parents to promote the welfare of pupils, particularly by consulting and involving parents, whenever this is desirable.
- The teacher shall make reasonable effort to protect the pupil from conditions harmful to learning or to health and safety.
- The teacher shall not intentionally expose the pupils to embarrassment or disparagement.
- The teacher shall not use professional relationships with pupils for private advantage.
- The teacher shall not disclose information about pupils obtained in the course of professional service unless such disclosure serves a compelling professional purpose or is required by law.

The Teacher’s Responsibilities to his/her Colleagues and the Teaching Profession

- The teacher shall respect the professional standing and opinions of his/her colleagues and shall maintain in his/her relations with them the highest standards of professional courtesy.
- The teacher shall be prepared to help in all possible ways junior colleagues and those in training.
• The teacher shall accept the authority of senior professional colleagues while retaining the right to express professional opinion.
• The teacher shall recognize his/her obligation to advance the causes of education and hence the causes of the teaching profession.
• The teacher shall recognize his/her obligation to improve his/her effectiveness as a teacher in every possible way.
• The teacher shall recognize his/her responsibility for his/her own actions and judgments and s/he shall be prepared to stand by their consequences.
• The teacher shall recognize his/her duty to manifest responsibility, individual initiative and integrity in his/her teaching and other professional actions within guidelines laid down for the profession.
• The teacher shall not knowingly make a false statement concerning the qualifications and competence of a candidate applying for a position.
• The teacher shall not accept gratuity, gift or favour that might impair or appear to influence professional decisions or actions.
• The teacher shall not attempt to influence the Minister, the Education Directorates, or an educational board on matters affecting teachers unless so expressly requested by the Minister, Directorates or educational board in his/her official capacity.
• It shall not be correct for any senior professional colleague or any teacher to censure other teachers or to criticize their work in the hearing of pupils and/or the general public.
• It he profession, his/her school or the department in which she works into disrepute.
• The teacher shall appreciate that, while as a professional person(s) he must accept responsibility for his/her actions, his/her duty shall be to carry out reasonable instructions from senior professional colleagues. The teacher shall have the right to protest against instructions.

The Teacher’s Responsibilities to the Parents of his Pupils and to the Community

The teacher shall recognize the right of a parent to consult him/her, through proper channels, on the welfare or progress of a pupil. The teacher shall recognize the right of a Parent to be consulted about any matter which concerns the future development of his child.

The teacher shall do nothing to undermine lawful parental authority, but shall be prepared to give advice which, in his/her professional view is in the best interest of the pupil.
The teacher shall make every effort to encourage parents to interest themselves actively in the education and welfare of their children. The teacher shall act within the community in a manner which enhances the prestige of the profession.

**Style of teaching:**

1. a calm, relaxed facial expression is characteristic of an effective teacher
2. resist any temptation to use physical contact as a means of controlling disobedience or unruly pupils;
3. be sure to control your anger by dealing with pupils in a positive and
   - Assertive manner.

**Question for discussion of reflection:**

1. As a Teacher- Educators how to analysis the text books and its syllabus.
2. Write about need and significant of teachers’ hand book.
3. Why co-curricular activities need in the school curriculum.

**References:**

- Educational leadership, 57(30), 66-69.
- In W. Pinar(Ed.), Curriculum theorizing: For reconceptualists(pp.120-13). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

**UNIT-9 CURRICULUM AS PROCESS AND PRACTICE**

**COURSE OBJECTIVES:**
At end of the course the student teacher will be to

- acquires knowledge of the Curriculum
- understands about personnel participated in development of curriculum
- applies the knowledge in meritocracy and its impact on curriculum
- develops skill in recreation of norms in society.

INTRODUCTION

The word curriculum originated in ancient Rome and meant a chariot race course. Imagine Julius Caesar talking about which team of horses, driver, chariot would run the curriculum fastest.

Today we talk about the school curriculum and curriculum guides which are documents from the results of planning and development. Therefore, are these documents the curriculum? Or what is a definition of curriculum?

Curriculum probably has a greater variety of definitions than any other word used in education.

- Is curriculum *everything* that happens within the school, including extra class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships.
- Is curriculum that which is taught both *inside* and *outside* of school *directed* by the school.
- Is curriculum everything that is *planned* by school personnel.
- Is curriculum *a series of experiences* undergone by learners in school.
- Is curriculum that which an individual learner *experiences as a result of schooling*.

Generally, curriculum as a set of subjects, you face a much simpler task than the school that takes upon the responsibility for all experiences the learner has both inside and outside the school.

CURRICULUM

“Curriculum” is a term used in a number of related ways.

- First, it can refer to the overall content of what is to be taught, which specifies the content of by far the largest part of compulsory schooling.

- Second, it can refer to the underlying principles of the approach to teaching and learning, as in a "developmental curriculum" or a "competency-based" curriculum.
Third, it can embrace both elements, and refer to the overall "what", "how" and "why" of teaching. Note that on the whole it is a "teaching side" — rather than "learning side" — term.

**Forms of Curriculum**

For our present, practical purposes, we can let the form (if not the content) of the curriculum be dictated by the question, "What are you teaching this material for?" Students have a variation on this: "Why do we have to learn this?"

We can set up a model which works along two dimensions: (click on the labels if you want to go straight to the associated notes)

The teacher is required to achieve the aims of education. For that purpose, he has to employ suitable instructional methods and procedures.

But this he/she can do only when he knows what efforts he is to make and in what order. In other words, he should know the content of curriculum which consists of subjects, activities and experiences in the properly graded form. Curriculum is in fact the ‘warp and woof of the whole educational process.

**Curriculum process**

The curriculum process consists of the following six phases:
1. Assessment of educational needs

2. Formulation of objectives

3. The selection of learning experience to attain these objectives

4. The selection of content through which learning experience may be offered.

5. The organization and integration of learning experience and content and content with respect of the teaching learning process

6. Evaluation of all

**First phase: Assessment of Educational Needs**

Curricula are formed to enable students to learn socially desired behaviours. Because the background of students differ, it is essential to diagnose the gaps, deficiencies and variations in these backgrounds. Need assessment is an important first step in determining what the curriculum should be for a given population during a particular period of time. The curriculum developers should, therefore, identity the target students and prepare their profile.

There are two means of need assessment. First, the curriculum developers assess educational needs through specially mounted surveys. They go to the field (the target group) and study the areas where educational inputs are required. Besides educational needs, they also collect background information about the target group. The needs assessed through field studies are known as felt needs. The second means of needs assessment is the analysis of existing data, such as education commissions’ reports, Government policies, etc. The policy documents can provide useful guidelines for framing curriculum. Similarly, every institution has its objectives to be achieved. The priority areas can be identified from the secondary sources. The needs assessed through the secondary sources are known as observed needs. Considering the potential and limitations of the education systems (i.e., what the education system can do to achieve/meet the needs of the target group), the curriculum developers can prepare a list of priority areas, know as real needs, after thorough analysis of the felt and observed needs.
Second phase: Formulation of objectives

The effective development of curriculum depends on the feasibility of deriving specific and particular objectives from the general aims. In the process of defining specific aims we have to spell out of the ultimate goals, mediate goals and finally the proximate goals. The ultimate goals are the expected outcomes of categories if behaviour. They can be understood by an analysis of records of behaviour and generalization about it. The ultimate aims may be considered as the expected end products of an education carried out over a period of time. They are the kinds of behaviour that the educator expects the students to exhibit as a result of education they have received. In other words they are the statements of desirable acts, felling, attitudes and knowledge in a pattern and exhibited in an appropriate situation.

Mediate goals are the modes of expected behaviour over the education period during different stages. The patterns of behaviour change from one age to the other. The behaviour expected of a fifteen years- old pupil cannot be accepted of a ten- year old pupil. Mediate goals are the statements of intended behavior in different situations at different stages.

Proximate goals are concerned with the classroom. They may be said to be most specific statements of intended, behavioural outcomes possible in a classroom situation. Even though they are specific, they are not discrete but linked with the other phases of the curriculum process.

Third phase: The selection of learning experience

After the aims and objectives are defined, we must think of the appropriate means which are required in order to achieve the ends. The means of securing behavioural changes are through learning experiences. The learning experiences may be put into certain categories. Thus classification pertains to three areas viz. Physical, mental and emotional experiences. Physical experience is concerned with conation (faculty of will). Mental experience is concerned with cognition (faculty of knowing) and thinking activity. Emotional experience is concerned with affection (faculty of feeling) and act of value clarification or value building.
The relationship between a learning experience and the resulting behaviour is a conditional one. The relationship is dependent on the existence of several other conditions. Therefore, they learning experience should be chosen very carefully.

These experiences may differ from goal to goal as mentioned in phase one. The teacher has to make use of his knowledge pupils in his class and the environment for selecting suitable learning experiences.

Emphasis on individual needs results in an activity-based programme, experience based programme, self-directed learning, affective learning whereas emphasis on social needs results in a core programme.

The term learning experience connotes learning activities which shape the learner’s orientation to the content and ultimately their understanding of it. In essence, it refers to the teaching-learning process the methods followed and the activities planned to facilitate the teaching-learning process. Various teaching methods are used by teachers such as, inquiry strategies, lecture, panel discussion, team teaching symposium, seminar, conference, tutorial, discussion, project, demonstration, etc. Similarly there are various learning activities, such as viewing working on assignments, interacting with computer programs, participating in discussions, listening to speakers etc. The teaching methods generate learning activities. Teaching methods and learning activities are two sides of the same coin. Some curriculum planner differentiate content from experience. They should remember that content and experiences do not exist independent of one another. On the contrary, both content and learning experience comprise the overall curriculum.

Fourth phase: the selection of content

Curriculum deal with the question, what shall be included for purpose leaning? After that they deal with how to present or arrange the what that is selected for learning so that students can learn or experience it. In other words, first they deal with knowledge and content specifically, and then they deal with teaching, and learning experience.

Curricularists who view the world from a traditional philosophical posture discover knowledge by using their senses. Also to them knowledge is objective, it can be measured and therefore tests.

Those who view the world from a progressive posture invent knowledge according to their relationship with others and the environment. The meaning and truth of a child's experience depend on their relationship to the situations in which he/she is acting.
AN ENACTED PROCESS

A third fundamental aspect of current curriculum theory noted by Smith focuses on curriculum as process place the emphasis on the interaction among teacher, student, parent, and knowledge rather than on syllabus and or on an end product. The focus is on what is actually taking place in the classroom as well as the learning process itself. Critical thinking, listening and communication are important components of process curriculum. Often an emphasis is placed on thinking about planning justifications of procedures, and actual interventions. As well as providing feedback and changes during the curriculum process.

One of the earlier curriculum planning approaches involved the instructional design process. The instructional design process often referred to as ISD. Emerged from psychology laboratories and helped establish the first systematic approach to the development of instructional materials and teaching strategies. Instructional design is the systematic development of instructional specifications using and instructional theory to ensure the quality of instruction. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. It includes development of instructional materials and activities and try out and evaluation of all instruction and learner activities (Shulman, 2003). RobertGanes (1985) The conditions of Learning and theory of instruction and principal of instructional design(Gagne,Briggs,&Wager,1992)describe this approach. Gagne (as cited in willwerth,2003) one said

Curriculum as praxis/Awareness

The focus here is to create a differentiated learning environment that encourages students to engage their abilities to the greatest extent possible, including taking risks and building knowledge and skills, in what they perceive as a safe, flexible environment. In that regard a differentiated learning environment should do the following

1. Assess students before a unit of instruction to determine what they already know.

2. Adjust the core curriculum by content (below to above grade level) process(concrete to abstract)and product (simple to complex)

3. Provide assignments tailored for students of different levels of achievement.

4. Have high expectations for all students

5. Provide educational experiences which extend, replace, or supplement standard curriculum.
6. Have student participate in respectful work
7. Have students and teachers collaborate in learning
8. Put students in situations where they don’t know the answer often
9. Differ the pace of instruction.

**CURRICULUM AS PROCESS AND PRACTICE**

Curriculum planning is at the heart of school reform. The accountability movement has put responsibility of student achievement squarely on schools. As a part of this process, district policies and programs provide a framework that can help or hinder a school or school district’s efforts to provide a high-quality learning.

Merely defining the aims of education is futile. There should be well planned efforts to achieve the aims of education. We must think of knowledge, activities, experiences and other influences which help in the achievement of aims of education environment for its students.

Curriculum need and Importance

1. Achievement of educational aims;
2. Criteria of suitable teachers;
3. Selection of suitable methods;
4. Reflects trends in education;
5. Providing suitable knowledge;
6. Providing suitable activities and experiences;
7. Providing wholesome influences.

There are three main factors of educational process

*(a) The aims of education*

*(b) The curriculum*

*(c) The instructional methods.*
Curriculum enables the teacher to select suitable methods of teaching. 'How to teach' will be determined by 'what to teach'.

A second aspect of studying curriculum is to focus on the different types of curriculum practice and the setting in which they occur. This requires an exploration of the type of curriculum work and the multiple layers of institutions and agencies in which the various types of work are done, from schools and academic research setting to commercial publishing houses and federal and state governmental agencies. For example, what does the council of chief state school officers have to do with curriculum and what curriculum work do they carry out? What do you know about policy making or the role of the federal government in Washington in educational matters and particularly curriculum? Questions such as those frame the study of curriculum and help you to perceive the magnitude of exiting knowledge to be understood, not only for teachers but for any one working in and with curriculum often the assumption appears to be that the created knowledge you are studying to become a practitioner derives solely from knowledge made by scholars and those who inquire about education generally or curriculum in particular. Practice knowledge from experience contributes an experimental, tentative knowledge that in the immediacy of the classroom life with the curriculum-in-use sustains practice and as it proves out enters into the knowledge base.

**Reflects Trends in Education**

Curriculum is a means to achieve the aims of education which are dynamic and go on changing with the changing social requirements. Naturally, the curriculum will reflect the trends in education. For example, modern education places following demands on the curriculum:

(a) **Providing Suitable Knowledge** - Curriculum should include suitable knowledge which will help in the achievement of aims of education.

(b) **Providing Suitable Activities and Experiences** - Curriculum includes well selected activities and experiences needed for the development of pupils according to social requirements.

(c) **Providing Wholesome Influences** - Curriculum should provide wholesome school programme to develop the desirable behaviour patterns in the pupils.

Thus curriculum is an important instrument or means to achieve the ends of education.

**ROLE OF THE STATE IN THE DEVELOPMENT CURRICULUM**
Curriculum Development:

Ever since the term curriculum was added to educators' vocabularies, it has seemed to convey many things to many people. To some, curriculum has denoted a specific course, while to others it has meant the entire educational environment. Whereas perceptions of the term may vary, it must be recognized that curriculum encompasses more than a simple definition. Curriculum is a key element in the educational process; its scope is extremely broad, and it touches virtually everyone who is involved with teaching and learning.

Curriculum development at the system level is usually of a “generic” nature, while ‘site-specific’ approaches are more applicable for the remaining levels. Moreover, the process of curriculum development can be seen as narrow or broad.

ROLE OF THE STATE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULUM

State level curriculum implementation

The available feedback from the states indicates that, for the most part, the have revised their curricula along the lines recommended by the 1986 NPE and 1988 NCF. However, several have made adjustments that respond to specific local needs or socio-political pressures. Following are some highlights that reflect the dynamics of curriculum implementation at the state level.

Language

All states (except Tamil Nadu) have adopted the three language formula. Although it was envisaged that only one language (mother tongue or regional language) would be taught at the primary stage, many states have taken the initiative and introduced a second and third language at this level. For example, Punjab state recently decided to introduced English along with the regional language in class 1. In the state of Sikkim, English is taught as a subject and used as the medium of instruction-beginning in class I. The policy of using English as the medium of instruction beginning in class I is being implemented in almost all the private, unaided schools throughout the county.

Another interesting variation encompasses classical language teaching an area that the NCF did not address. Most of the Hindi-speaking States, and even central school organizations, have made provisions for teaching Sanskrit as a third language. In fact, to accommodate the study of
Sanskrit along with other languages, some states have even made provision for the teaching of a Fourth language.

Other scholastic areas

Several States have modified the NCF science and social sciences recommendations. For example, in place of the integrated science approach, they have opted for the teaching of history and geography only at the upper primary Stages.

Non- scholastic areas

In India, work experience, arts and health and physical education are generally categorized as non-scholastic areas. The curriculum framework has emphasized that these areas are essential for all around development of the child's personality. However, being non-examination subjects. These areas are not taken seriously by the teachers and the students. In some states, Art’s has not been made a compulsory subject at the secondary Stage. In the states and schools where arts are a compulsory or optional area, only the visual arts are taught. Performance arts like music and dance are taught only in a limited number of schools. In the states of Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh, arts have been clustered with home science and agriculture and the students have been given the option to choose anyone of these areas.

Values education

The NCF also envisaged that values education should permeated all aspects of school life and, therefore, should be integrated into all the curriculum areas. However, States like Haryana, Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh have all introduced moral education or moral science as independent subject areas, with distinct time allocations. Apparently, this has occurred in the light of place that, given the progressive weakening of the moral fabric of society, the integrated approach does not provide values education with the prominent place it deserves.

Competency- based textbooks

After the identification of MLL (minimum levels of learning) introductory advocacy programmes were launched to promote the concept as an approach to curriculum development, teaching and learning and pupil evaluation. A number of States have since produced primary-stage competency-based textbooks in different curricular areas.
Most school personnel think intrastate schooling matters are exclusively handled by their state department of education.

The respective roles of local, state and federal government in curriculum innovation and development in schools can be defined in general terms. Pupils and teachers meet at the local level, where final judgements are made on details of content and method. But teachers work within imposed limitations. The local school board has broad delegated authority to structure their work. The state has legal responsibility for provision of suitable education for all pupils, including minimum standards for instruction. The federal government touches the curriculum lightly with no direct legal authority to teach except in limited situations such as the military academics and in-service training for federal employees.

Curriculum improvement calls for procedures to locate and test new content and methods and making certain that innovations accepted for use will bring more educational gain than loss. Those who promote a “national curriculum” to insure the country’s safety or to satisfy the public interest reveals seek changes with more obvious emphasis on what they believe to be national interest.

**MERITOCRACY AND ITS IMPACT ON CURRICULUM**

The "most common definition of meritocracy conceptualizes merit in terms of tested competency and ability, and most likely, as measured by IQ or standardized achievement tests." In government or other administration systems, meritocracy, in an administrative sense, is a system of government or other administration (such as business administration) wherein appointments and responsibilities are assigned to individuals based upon their "merits", namely intelligence, credentials, and education, determined through evaluations or examinations.

A word coined by Michael Young (*The Rise of Meritocracy*, 1958) for government by those regarded as possessing merit; merit is equated with intelligence-plus-effort, its possessors are identified at an early age and selected for an appropriate intensive education, and there is an obsession with quantification, test-scoring, and qualifications.

In fact, meritocracy is just an extension of a general system of rewarding merit, and elements of such a system clearly have been present in one form or another throughout human history. There are, it can be argued, at least two different ways of seeing merit and systems of rewarding it.
1. **Incentives:** Actions may be rewarded for the good they do, and a system of remunerating the activities that generate good consequences would, it is presumed, tend to produce a better society. The rationale of incentive structures may be more complex than this simple statement suggests, but the idea of merits in this *instrumental* perspective relates to the motivation of producing better results. In this view, actions are meritorious in a derivative and contingent way, depending on the good they do, and more particularly the good that can be brought about by rewarding them.

2. **Action propriety:** Actions may be judged by their propriety—not by their results—and they may be rewarded according to the quality of such actions, judged in a result-independent way. Much use has been made of this approach to merit, and parts of deontological ethics separate out right conduct—for praise and emulation—-independent of the goodness of the consequences generated.

In one form or another both these approaches have been invoked in past discussions of merit, but it is fair to say that the incentives approach is the dominant one now in economics, at least in theory (even though the language used in practice often betrays interest in the other categories—more on which presently). Although the praiseworthiness of "proper" actions is not denied in economic reasoning, the economic justification of rewarding merit tends to be grounded in consequences. Adam Smith (1776 and 1790) made this distinction forcefully and proceeded to provide one of the first systematic analyses of the use of incentive systems as they operate naturally in societies and how they can be further sharpened. The distinction between the propriety and merit of an action is described by Smith (1790, II.i.1-2, p. 67) in the following way:

There is another set of qualities ascribed to the actions and conduct of mankind, distinct from their propriety and impropriety, their decency or ungracefulness, and which are the objects of a distinct species of approbation. These are Merit and Demerit, the qualities of deserving reward, and of deserving punishment upon the beneficial or hurtful effects which the affection proposes and tends to produce, depends the merit or demerit, the good or ill desert of the action to which it gives occasion.

Indeed, the practice of rewarding good (or right) deeds for their incentive effects cannot but be an integral part of any well-functioning society. No matter what we think of the demands of "meritocracy" as it is usually defined, we can scarcely dispense with incentive systems altogether. The art of developing an incentive system lies in delineating the content of merit in such a way that it helps to generate valued consequences.

**Merit Rewarding as a System**
The derivative character of merit leads us to the central question as to what the "valued consequences" are and how the success and failure of a society are to be judged. Once an instrumental view of merit is accepted, there is no escape from the contingent nature of its content, related to the characterization of a good or an acceptable society and the criteria in terms of which assessments are to be made.

Even though the typical "objective functions" that are implicitly invoked in most countries to define and assess what is to count as merit tend to be indifferent to (or negligent of) distributive aspects of outcomes, there is no necessity to accept that ad hoc characterization. This is not a matter of a "natural order" of "merit" that is independent of our value system. The dependent nature of merit and its reward has to be more fully understood to see the nature and reach of merit-based systems.

This dependence is the main reason behind the "standstill" that has to be overcome. There are also, however, other tensions that arise within the general approach of merit-based rewards. Actions are rewarded for what they help to bring about, but the rewarding is not valued in itself.

There is some tension also in the feature that the extent of inequality that an incentive-based system has to tolerate would depend crucially on what motivates people to act in one way rather than another. Various proposals for the development of cooperative values have been considered in this context.

Meritocracy and Additional Features

The Fontana Dictionary of Modern Thought (1988), somewhat exaggerated the "extremism" of the chosen views of merit and its reward, but it drew attention to the fact that the idea of "meritocracy" must be seen as something quite a bit more demanding than the rewarding of merit according to some agreed criteria of social success.

There would seem to be at least three substantial departures from the kind of general system of rewarding meritorious actions they are:

1. **Personification and genetics:** In the incentive approach to merit, it is characteristic of actions, not of people as such. But conventional notions of "meritocracy" often attach the label of merit to people rather than actions. A person with standardly recognized "talents" (even something as nebulous as "intelligence") can, then, be seen as a meritorious person even if he or she were not to
use the "talents" to perform acts with good consequences or laudable propriety. This "personal quality" of merits sometimes gets invoked even in a largely incentive-oriented system of economic reasoning, with which the "personal quality" view is basically in conflict.

Some people are seen as being just more meritorious than others, and may indeed have been born more talented. In some versions of personification, the inborn talents are seen not only as being variable between one person and another (for which there may be considerable evidence), but also as distributed according to some other readily distinguishable characteristic, such as skin colour or the size of the nose (for which the evidence seems very problematic, to say the least). When used in this form, personification can encourage meritocratic acceptance of--rather than resistance to--inequalities of achievement (often along racial and ethnic groupings), which are present in many contemporary societies.

2. Deserts and entitlement: An incentive argument is entirely "instrumental" and does not lead to any notion of intrinsic "desert." If paying a person more induces him or her to produce more desirable results, then an incentive argument may exist for that person's pay being greater. This is an instrumental and contingent justification (related to results) --it does not assert that the person intrinsically "deserves" to get more.

Desert implies a very strict sort of entitlement, such that the title precedes and determines the selection, while qualification is a much looser idea. A prize, for example, can be deserved because it already belongs to the person who has given the best performance; it only remains to identify that person. Prize committees are like juries in that they look backward and aim at an objective decision.

When this idea of desert is combined with rewarding "talents" as such indeed, even the possession of talents (rather than the production of desirable results with them) the connection with the incentive rationale of meritocracies is fairly comprehensively severed.

3. Distribution independence: A system of rewarding of merits may well generate inequalities of well-being and of other advantages. But, as was argued earlier, much would depend on the nature of the consequences that are sought, on the basis of which merits are to be characterized. If the results desired have a strong distributive component, with a preference for equality, then in assessing merits (through judging the generated results, including its distributive aspects), concerns about distribution and inequality would enter the evaluation.
Since distributive concerns would come in only _inter alia_ in these accountings, an incentive system of rewarding merits may still generate much inequality. Nevertheless, there would then be something within that consequential system of evaluation that would work, to a varying extent, against generating more inequality.

In mostly in modern meritocracy, however, the selected objectives tend to be almost exclusively oriented toward aggregate achievements (without any preference against inequality), and sometimes the objectives chosen are even biased (often implicitly) toward the interests of more fortunate groups (favouring the outcomes that are more preferred by "talented" and "successful" sections of the population). This can reinforce and augment the tendency toward inequality that might be present even with an objective function that, _inter alia_, attaches some weight to lower inequality levels.

None of these three additional features of meritocracy is necessary for a general system of rewarding merits on incentive grounds. What are often taken to be "meritocratic" demands have moved, in many ways, so far away from their incentive-based justification that they can scarcely be defended on the classic incentive grounds. These ad hoc additions call for close scrutiny, especially given the hold they have on popular discussions--and sometimes even professional deliberations--on this subject.

**VALUING RITUALS IN SCHOOLS AND ITS CELEBRATIONS**

Traditions and rituals have a way of connecting people to each other and their heritage. When this happens, we feel part of something bigger than ourselves. Rituals and traditions also have a way of promoting understanding of other cultures or at least the experience of others. In the current education field there seems to be a movement heading towards educating the whole person or the realization that education is more than just imparting knowledge. It seems these traditions and the rituals that brought them to life have been around for a long time. Our culture teach by experience and guidance and viewed holistic experiences as the most valuable experiences.

Schools can certainly be a place where rituals and traditions are honoured and practiced, so that what the community values is evident and those that belong to the school community will feel connected and part of something bigger than themselves. Certainly, making a change to a ritual when it is considered necessary, after much consideration, is part of growth and reflection. When the changes in a school or education are born out of arrogance, convenience, expedience or greed, there is a tendency that important traditions and rituals that made the school unique are lost and the
community is left wondering what happened to their school, why are the students so disengaged, why don't the parents care... If the school you belong to does not have any rituals or traditions, consider starting one. It could be as simple as greeting people as you pass them in hallway or something more involved. If traditions and rituals exist, consider why they are there, the history of them, what message do they convey.

Now a days it has become a routine work of many schools to celebrate and value rituals.

RECREATION OF NORMS IN SOCIETY

Social Norms are unwritten rules about how to behave. They provide us with an expected idea of how to behave in a particular social group or culture. For example, we expect students to arrive to class on time and complete their work.

The idea of norms provides a key to understanding social influence in general and conformity in particular. Social norms are the accepted standards of behavior of social groups. These groups range from friendship and work groups to nation states. behavior which fulfills these norms is called conformity, and most of the time roles and norms are powerful ways of understanding and predicting what people will do.

There are norms defining appropriate behavior for every social group. For example, students, neighbours and patients in a hospital are all aware of the norms governing behavior. And as the individual moves from one group to another, their behavior changes accordingly.

Norms provide order in society. It is difficult to see how human society could operate without social norms. Human beings need norms to guide and direct their behavior, to provide order and predictability in social relationships and to make sense of and understanding of each other’s actions. These are some of the reasons why most people, most of the time, conform to social norms.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POWER, IDEOLOGY AND THE CURRICULUM

Ideology refers to the idiosyncratic and culture-bound ways of thinking and the prevailing ideas that characterize a person or a group. Terms like democracy, freedom, and civil rights reflect ideological considerations that are Judaic-Christian and European, hallmarks of western civilization. Curriculum taught in schools is an ideological product Ideology also enters into the
preparation of professionals. Earning a degree places you in classroom where faculties introduce different ideas about education and schooling. There are the isms: progressivism and constructivism.

Perspective on and understanding of these curriculum ideologies can have several benefits. First, when educators understand their own conceptual frameworks and the range of ideological options available to them, it can help them to more effectively clarify and accomplish their own curriculum and instructional goals. Second, when educators have perspective on and understand the range of philosophical beliefs that colleagues can hold, this can enable them to better understand the nature of curriculum disagreements that inevitably take place in schools, be more accepting of others, and more effectively work with people of differing opinions. Third, when educators understand the way in which language is used differently in each of the four ideologies, it can assist them in more effectively communicating and negotiating curriculum decisions with colleagues, curriculum committees, school boards, and their communities. Fourth, when educators have perspective on and understand the differences between the curriculum frameworks influencing the current public dialogue about education, it can facilitate their ability to more effectively contribute to the public debate about educational issues. Fifth, when educators have an understanding of the ideological pressures exerted on them by society and colleagues, this can help them put those pressures in perspective and minimize—as warranted—their influence (Cotti & Schiro, 2004). In addition, when working with others on curriculum, if educators can acknowledge and clarify the conflicts and tensions that exist among colleagues who hold different beliefs about education and who use words in different ways to express their beliefs, there arises the potential to enable those colleagues to better understand and appreciate their differences and to more constructively work together.

The Curriculum Ideologies

The Social Efficiency ideology, the Scholar Academic ideology, the Learner Centered ideology, and the Social Reconstruction ideology are the names given to the curriculum ideologies.

The Scholar Academic Ideology: Scholar Academics believe that over the centuries our culture has accumulated important knowledge that has been organized into the academic disciplines found in universities. The purpose of education is to help children learn the accumulated knowledge of our culture: that of the academic disciplines. Acquiring an understanding of an academic discipline involves learning its content, conceptual frameworks, and ways of thinking. Teachers should be mini-scholars who have a deep understanding of their discipline and can clearly and accurately present it to children. Scholar Academics assume that the academic disciplines, the
world of the intellect, and the world of knowledge are loosely equivalent. The central task of education is taken to be the extension of the components of this equivalence, both on the cultural level, as reflected in the discovery of new truth, and on the individual level, as reflected in the enculturation of individuals into civilization’s accumulated knowledge and ways of knowing. An academic discipline is viewed as a hierarchical community of people in search of truth within one part of the universe of knowledge. The hierarchical communities consist of inquirers into the truth (the scholars at the top of the hierarchy), teachers of the truth (those who disseminate the truth that has been discovered by the scholars), and learners of the truth (students whose job it is to learn the truth so that they may become proficient members of the discipline). The aim of education for Scholar Academics is the extension of their disciplines by introducing young people into them. This involves making youth members of a discipline by first moving them into it as students and then moving them from the bottom of the hierarchy toward its top. Extension of a discipline is accomplished through the transmission of its knowledge and ways of thinking to students. The curriculum provides the means of this transmission, and it derives both its meaning and its reason for existence from the academic disciplines. Scholar Academics’ major concern is to construct curriculum in such a way that it reflects the essence of their discipline.

The Social Efficiency Ideology Social Efficiency advocates believe that the purpose of schooling is to efficiently meet the needs of society by training youth to function as future mature contributing members of society. Their goal is to train youth in the skills and procedures they will need in the workplace and at home to live productive lives and perpetuate the functioning of society. Subscribers to the Social Efficiency ideology believe the essence of learners lies in their competencies and the activities they are capable of performing. Youth achieve an education by learning to perform the functions necessary for social productivity. Teachers manage instruction by selecting and using educational strategies designed to help learners acquire the behaviours prescribed by their curriculum. Instruction is guided by clearly defined behavioural objectives, and learners may require a lot of practice to gain and maintain mastery of skills. Social Efficiency educators’ first job is to determine the needs of society (or another more specialized client). The things that will fulfil these needs are called the terminal objectives of the curriculum. Educators must then find the most efficient way of producing a product—the educated person—who meets the terminal objectives of the curriculum and thus fulfils the needs of society (or the client). Social Efficiency ideologists believe the most efficient achievement of a curriculum’s terminal objectives results from applying the routines of scientific procedure to curriculum making. Central to Social Efficiency conceptions of scientific procedure is the assumption that change in human behaviour.
(that is, learning) takes place within a fairly direct cause-effect, action-reaction, or stimulus-response context. This conception requires Social Efficiency educators to predetermine the relationships between cause and effect, action and reaction, and stimulus and response, and to predict the causes, actions, and stimuli (that is, the learning experiences) that will lead to the desired effects, reactions, and responses. Thus, three things that play an important role in the Social Efficiency ideology are the concept of learning (or change in human behavior), the creation and sequencing of learning experiences (the causes, actions, and stimuli which lead to the desired effects, reactions, and responses), and accountability to the client for whom educators work.

The Learner Centered Ideology Learner Centered proponents focus not on the needs of society or the academic disciplines, but on the needs and concerns of individuals. They believe schools should be enjoyable places where people develop naturally according to their own innate natures. The goal of education is the growth of individuals, each in harmony with his or her own unique intellectual, social, emotional, and physical attributes. Learner Centered educators believe people contain their own capabilities for growth, are the agents who must actualize their own capabilities, and are essentially good in nature. In addition, people are viewed as the source of content for the curriculum; their ends are considered to be the appropriate ends for the curriculum. This leads Learner Centered advocates to treat the concept of growth as the central theme of their endeavours. Growth of learners in terms of their unfolding in conformity.

Conclusion

The Curriculum is the heart of schooling, the education process. Education and Curriculum are two sides of the same coin. The role of school is very important in the development of the student’s carrier. So without curriculum process and proper planning the education system can’t lift our growing society.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Discuss on curriculum as process and practices.
2. Mention the important role of government in the development of Curriculum.
3. Write short notes on Curriculum.
4. What is Meritocracy and its impact on Curriculum.
5. What are the recreation norms in our society?
SUGGESTED READINGS


2. Thomas W. Hewitt (2006), Understanding and shaping Curriculum “what we teach and why”.


   - www.educationworld.com
   - www.edweek.org
   - www.ed.uiuc.edu/EPS/educational-theory
UNIT-10: CURRICULUM CHANGE AND INNOVATION

OBJECTIVES:

At the end of the course the student teacher will be able to

- acquires the knowledge of need-based Curriculum
- understands about factors related to development and assessment of curriculum
- applies the knowledge in hidden curriculum
- develops skill in teaching strategies for developing resilience in children

INTRODUCTION

In education, a **curriculum** plural: **curricula** or **curriculums** is broadly defined as the totality of student experiments that occur in the educational process. The term often refers specifically to a planned sequence of instruction, or to a view of the student's experiences in terms of the educator's or school's instructional goals. In a 2003 study Reys, Reys, Lapan, Holliday and Wasman refer to curriculum as a set of learning goals articulated across grades that outline the intended mathematics content and process goals at particular points in time throughout the K–12 school program. Curriculum may incorporate the planned interaction of pupils with instructional content, materials, resources, and processes for evaluating the attainment of educational objectives. Curriculum is split into several categories, the explicit, the implicit (including the hidden), the excluded and the extra-curricular.

**Need-based curriculum**

Before planning the curriculum, diagnosis helps in general analysis of problems, conditions and difficulties. The purpose is to generate a new emphasis and new ideas about the curriculum, by knowing thoroughly from various sources such as students cumulative records, teachers recordings, parents interviews, children’s cases and their IQ achievement.

The need based curriculum is charged with high motivation for learning and as a result, student learn not only the content but also concomitant learning regarding values, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and so on. Thus, the curriculum helps to achieve ultimate goals of education. Nevertheless the curriculum has certain serious limitations. It is difficult to define the needs of individuals and of a group. As the curriculum focuses on needs of individuals, it may possibly fail.
to train students to shoulder social responsibilities. Further, needs as “organizing centers” may not help the planner to cover the entire content matter through certain specified activities. Above all, need based curriculum discounts the structure of knowledge and method of discovery which are important aspects of any content area.

FACTORS RELATED TO DEVELOPMENT AND ASSESSMENT –

1. **Curriculum evaluation.** The participant is guided through an analytical schema to plan the evaluation of curricula.
2. **Student assessment.** Participants examine considerations about student assessment that are regularly included in curriculum materials.
3. **Assessment of learning outcomes in specific content areas.** Strategies and special modalities for the assessment of learning outcomes are analyzed for content areas recently included in curricula.

Following these activities is a “Resources” section which contains a list of discussion papers and other resources referred to in the activities, and a series of additional reading materials.

**Conceptual framework**

Curriculum evaluation is a necessary and important aspect of any national education system. It provides the basis for curriculum policy decisions, for feedback on continuous curriculum adjustments and processes of curriculum implementation.

The fundamental concerns of curriculum evaluation relate to:

- Effectiveness and efficiency of translating government education policy into educational practice;
- Status of curriculum contents and practices in the contexts of global, national and local concerns;
- The achievement of the goals and aims of educational programmes.

Student assessment is an important aspect of curriculum evaluation which helps to facilitate the understanding of the impact and outcome of education programmes. A fundamental measure of the success of any curriculum is the quality of student learning. Knowing the extent to which students have achieved the outcomes specified in the curriculum is fundamental to both improving teaching and evaluating the curriculum.
Curriculum evaluation

The term “evaluation” generally applies to the process of making a value judgment. In education, the term “evaluation” is used in reference to operations associated with curricula, programs, interventions, methods of teaching and organizational factors. Curriculum evaluation aims to examine the impact of implemented curriculum on student (learning) achievement so that the official curriculum can be revised if necessary and to review teaching and learning processes in the classroom. Curriculum evaluation establishes:

- Specific strengths and weaknesses of a curriculum and its implementation;
- Critical information for strategic changes and policy decisions;
- Inputs needed for improved learning and teaching;
- Indicators for monitoring.

Curriculum evaluation may be an internal activity and process conducted by the various units within the education system for their own respective purposes. These units may include national Ministries of Education, regional education authorities, institutional supervision and reporting systems, departments of education, schools and communities. Curriculum evaluation may also be external or commissioned review processes. These may be undertaken regularly by special committees or task forces on the curriculum, or they may be research-based studies on the state and effectiveness of various aspects of the curriculum and its implementation. These processes might examine, for example, the effectiveness of curriculum content, existing pedagogies and instructional approaches, teacher training and textbooks and instructional materials.

Student assessment

The ultimate goal of curriculum evaluation is to ensure that the curriculum is effective in promoting improved quality of student learning. Student assessment therefore connotes assessment of student learning. Assessment of student learning has always been a powerful influence on how and what teachers teach and is thus an important source of feedback on the appropriateness implementation of curriculum content.
Meaning of hidden curriculum –

A hidden curriculum is a side effect of an education, which are learned but not openly intended such as the transmission of norms, values, and beliefs conveyed in the classroom and the social environment.

Any learning experience may teach unintended lessons. Hidden curriculum often refers to knowledge gained in primary and secondary school settings, usually with a negative connotation where the school strives for equal intellectual development (as a positive aim). In this sense, a hidden curriculum reinforces existing social inequalities by educating students according to their class and social status. The unequal distribution of cultural capital in a society mirrors a corresponding distribution of knowledge among its students.¹

Role of hidden curriculum in developing resilience in children

Student resistance can be a very important problem for the instructors in universities. Student resistance includes the conscious and pre-planned behaviors towards the information presented to them in the classroom and the institutional practices. Typically, student resistance takes the form of passive or active non-compliance with roles and outputs expected of them as students. The purpose of this paper is to investigate the effects of hidden curricula on student resistance

Students may adopt resistant behavior as a result of the teaching methods that the teachers employ, unclear expectations, authoritarian teaching practices, unsuitable mandatory classes, subjects being taught above the readiness of the students, feelings of inadequacy, or a personal dislike of the teacher. Students resist activities that they perceive as too hard, or too boring, or activities that they do not like (Brookfield, 1990; Alpert, 1991; Pauly, 1991; Cusick, 1992; Spaulding, 1995; McFadden, 1995). However, not all student resistance should be perceived negatively. Although resistance might disturb class climate and harm both teachers and students, there might be positive aspects of student resistance. For example, student resistance can be a tool for students to struggle for identity, autonomy, and voice; it can produce cognitive and cultural change; and it can confront inequalities in power (Nacon, 2005) Just as there are many different reasons for student resistance, there are also many different types of resistance behavior. In the literature, these types have been grouped in various ways (Chan & Treacy, 1996; Higginbotham, 1996).
but are most often categorized as active and passive (McLaren, 1994; McFarland, 2004). Passive resistance is tacit; students do not directly show their reactions; instead they generally complain about and criticize the teacher. In active resistance, students show their reactions clearly by challenging or rebelling against authority.

**Hidden curricula in higher education**

Theoretical publications and research on hidden curricula have mostly focused on students in primary and secondary schools. However, the concept is equally applicable for higher education. Hidden curricula in higher education are visible in the assumptions and values of teaching staff, the expectations of students, the social structures and informal rules of institutions of higher education, and the educational systems in which they are embedded. In order to be successful in higher education, one must demonstrate not only intellectual ability, but also adaptability to the hidden curriculum (Snyder 1971). In higher education the informal demands expected from students include showing a business-like and detached attitude with respect to the subjects of study, working with theoretical constructions, using professional jargon and abstract concepts, conquering uncertainty, anxiety and nervousness, and developing the desire to compete and win (Bergenhenegouven, 1987). As with the research on hidden curriculum, research on student resistance has also been conducted mostly at the primary and secondary school levels. There have only been a few studies on higher education (Kearney, Plax, Smith & Sorensen, 1988; Burroughs, Kearney & Plax 1989; Kearney, Plax & Burroughs 1991; Margolis & Romero, 1998; Margolis, 2001; Gair, 2003). Additional research on student resistance at higher education levels needs to be done for two reasons: first, to contribute to the theoretical understanding of student resistance theory and hidden curricula, and second, to improve the completion rates of students whose resistance behavior contributes to their leaving school without obtaining a degree. Due to the fact that there are only a few studies of hidden curriculum and student resistance in higher education, and theoretical and empirical knowledge is a wide-open field, the following study was designed to contribute to our understanding at an undergraduate level.

**Teaching strategies for developing resilience in children.**

Resilience is the ability to ‘bounce back’ from life’s difficulties. For many young people it is vital to help them develop resilience strategies that promote well-being and develop coping mechanisms. Many resilient teenagers are seen as resourceful and are emotionally and mentally balanced.
Andrew Fuller is a clinical psychologist and Generation Next speaker, he describes resilience as “the happy knack of being able to jump through the pitfalls of life – to rise above adversity and obstacles.”

Tips for building resilience in children*

1. Make connections
Teach children how to make friends and develop empathy. Encourage them to be a friend in order to get friends. At school, watch to make sure that one child is not being isolated. Connecting with people provides social support and strengthens resilience.

2. Teach children to help others
Children who may feel helpless can be empowered by helping others. Ask for help with a task they can master. At school, brainstorm with children about ways they can help others.

3. Daily routine
Following a routine can be comforting to children, especially younger children who crave structure in their lives. Encourage children to develop their own routines.

4. Take a break
Although it is important to stick to routines, endlessly worrying can be counter-productive. Show children how to focus on something besides what’s worrying them.

5. Self-care for children
Teach child the importance of making time to eat properly, groom themselves, exercise and rest. Children need ‘down time’ to relax, so make sure that not all free time is filled with a scheduled activity.

6. Goals
Teach children to set reasonable goals and move toward them one step at a time. Moving toward that goal and receiving praise for doing so will focus children on what they have accomplished.

7. Nurture a positive self-view
Help children remember ways that they have successfully handled hardships in the past and how this can help them handle future challenges. Help children learn to trust themselves to solve problems and make appropriate decisions.

8. Be optimistic
Even when children are facing very painful events, help them look at the situation in a broader context. A positive outlook enables children to see the good things in life and keep going even in the hardest times.
9. Self-discovery
Change and tough times are often when children learn the most about themselves. Help children to see that this is a good time to find out “what they are made of.” Change can be scary for young people, help them to see that change is part of life.

10. Make home a safe haven
In high school, taunting and bullying can intensify – home should be a haven, especially as your teen encounters more freedoms and choices and looks to home to be a constant, safe and emotionally secure place in his or her life.

Common Components of Resilience

While each model has its favorite components of resilience, we looked across the various models and found that the following components kept re-appearing.

Individual Behaviors, Attitudes, and Competencies

- Physical health supports resilience, including getting enough sleep, eating well, exercising, and enjoying good health.
- Social and emotional competencies that promote resilience include stress management; a sense of control over one’s life; positive relationship to self-including self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-esteem; hopefulness and goal-setting with the motivation and perseverance needed to reach those goals; and social competence.
- Cognitive competencies that help include insightfulness and general skills such as problem-solving, information processing, and intellectual ability.

Family, School, and Community Support

- A positive and supportive family, including warmth, stability, cohesiveness, a positive parenting style, and high expectations.
- Presence of a caring adult outside the family, such as a teacher, counselor, coach, or mentor
- Belonging to groups and institutions, like schools, clubs, organizations, and religious communities.
- Promote positive social connections between staff and students, among students, and between schools and home.
• Nurture positive qualities, such as empathy, optimism, or forgiveness, and give students a chance to use them.
• Notice and reinforce qualities that are key to resilience.
• Avoid focusing on failure or negative behaviors.
• Teach by example, which is an effective approach; train staff to develop the same qualities.
• Apply restorative justice techniques can help schools by giving students a structured opportunity to work difficulties out by encouraging reflection and empathy.
• Foster feelings of competence and self-efficacy.
• Set high expectations for students; teach them to set realistic, achievable goals, and also how to reach out for help when needed.

Strategies to Help Students Recover from a Traumatic Event

In addition, here are strategies that schools can use to help students recover from a traumatic event:

• Supportive relationships are key to recovery: Make sure students have time to talk with caring adults and have the opportunity to express their feelings and ask questions.
• Schools can provide supports to parents by sponsoring parent meetings.
• Stay flexible! Children’s responses to a traumatic event will be varied not just in intensity, but also in recovery time; it is important for schools to avoid a one-size-fits-all response to recovery.
• After a traumatic event, students may feel nervous, anxious, or unsafe so try to reassure students that they are safe, and keep to familiar routines.
• School administrators can provide extra support to teachers, such as training, time to unwind and ways to connect with other teachers for support.

Curriculum revision and evaluation

Evaluation is closely associated with curriculum development, less so with other areas of curriculum work. Additionally, the role of Evaluation varies depending on the location

Curriculum Development, Revision, and Evaluation Processes

Education has substantial resources for curriculum development and instructional support. The company’s team of talented, experienced curriculum specialists, curriculum project managers,
content and copy editors, and multimedia designers work to ensure Connections students are presented content, instructional resources, and activities that prepare them to be active, knowledgeable participants in a global networked society. These individuals apply their deep expertise in online instruction and academic disciplines to the development of curriculum that supports 21st century readiness for every student. Using the Framework for 21st Century Learning process, they work to integrate supportive technologies, inquiry- and problem-based instructional approaches, and higher order thinking skills into all curriculum development efforts. Connections Education aligns its curriculum to the Common Core State Standards as well as individual state standards, and also reviews and aligns with national standards such as National Council of Teacher of Mathematics (NCTM), National Science Teachers Association (NSTA), National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), and National Education Technology Standards wherever possible.

**Connections curriculum development is guided by these key principles:**

- Curriculum fosters breadth and depth of understanding in subject area.
- Content is aligned to national and state standards.
- Curriculum is supported by quality, reputable, recently published textbooks and/or proven instructional resources and materials.
- Content and assessments are aligned, accurate, and unbiased.
- Content is current, relevant, and provides real-world applications.
- Content is appropriate for the learner (age, ability, background, reading level, learning style, etc.).
- Instructional design is adaptable and flexible in order to best meet individual needs of Learning Coaches and students.

Instructional design provides students opportunities to improve learning skills using technological tools (e.g., virtual labs, interactive tools, Teachlet® tutorials, business software, online calculator).

Navigation is intuitive and age-appropriate.

Lesson structure is consistent and supports learning sequence of motivation, instructional content, application activities, review of key concepts and assessment.

Central to the Connections curriculum design process is the systematic analysis of curriculum offerings. The analysis phase consists of formative, summative, qualitative, and quantitative measures to determine the value and effectiveness of the curriculum offerings. This multi-level evaluation system incorporates regular reviews of student performance, user feedback, assessment
performance analysis, and district, state, and national content standards and assessments. Connections curriculum development also emphasizes innovation, effective implementation, evaluation of student learning, and continuous improvement, and the company strives to regularly provide new curriculum options that leverage the interactivity and engagement potential of online resources. Connections always seeks to balance enhancements and additional options with the recognition that students have a wide range of learning styles and needs. Decisions about improvements and updates to curriculum are also guided by feedback from a variety of critical stakeholders: teachers and administrators, students and parents, school boards, and outside evaluators such as accrediting organizations and sponsors. Therefore, central to the Connections curriculum development process is a research based development framework designed to support not only quality course development but a feedback loop that ensures continuous improvement. This systematic instructional design process incorporating the elements of analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation often referred to as ADDIE:

1. **Analysis:** Prior to course development, a thorough analysis of state graduation requirements, school or board requests, and competitive positioning is completed. Feedback on current courses from student academic performance, user feedback, usability reviews, and national and state standards alignments are incorporated into the analysis.

2. **Design:** Within the design phase, the curriculum team attends to the set of standards around which the course is written, instructional strategies, content, and visual and technical design of the course. Attention is focused on the course’s purpose and audience, as well as the course’s organization, instructional approach, and instructional resources. Consideration is also given to the role of technology, the level of student engagement, and student learning styles.

3. **Development:** Beginning with a course map which focuses on standards alignment and the identification of the enduring knowledge present in the course, the development lifecycle incorporates unit-by-unit course development and revision, content analysis and review, editorial review and revision, and a detailed quality assurance appraisal. Procedures for ensuring internal consistency, bias-free content and assessments, instructional effectiveness, and the appropriate use of intellectual property are implemented throughout the development phase.

4. **Implementation:** Each school year brings the implementation of newly developed courses. Before full release, demo courses are created, evaluated by teachers, and suggestions are implemented and effective implementation is supported by updated and ongoing training for all.
5. **Evaluation**: The intent of the evaluation phase is to determine the level of student success, and the impact of the course design on student performance. Evaluation occurs throughout the delivery of the course and includes student performance, internal lesson and assessment analysis, and feedback from students, Learning Coaches, and teachers. Essential user feedback is gained through WebMail messages, the StarTrack system, the Connexus® feedback tool, and our annual Parent Satisfaction survey.

**Tyler’s objective-centered model**

One of the earliest curriculum evaluation models, which continue to influence many assessment projects, was that proposed by Ralph Tyler (1950) in his monograph. Basic principles of curriculum and instruction. As explained in this work and used in numerous large-scale assessment efforts, the Tyler approach moved rationally and systematically through several related steps:

1. Begin with the behavioral objectives that have been previously determined. Those objectives should specify both the content of learning and the student behavior expected. Demonstrate familiarity with dependable sources of information on questions relating on narration.

2. Identify the situation that will give the student the opportunity to express the behavior embodied in the objective and the evoke or encourage this behavior. Thus, if you wish to assess oral language use identify situation that evoke oral language.

3. Select, modify, or construct suitable evaluation instruments and check the instruments for objectivity reliability and validity.

4. Use the instruments to obtain summarized or appraised results.

5. Compare the results obtained from several instruments before and after given periods in order to estimate the amount of change taking place.

6. Analyze the results in to determine strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum and to identify possible explanations about the reason for this particular pattern of strengths and weaknesses.

7. Use the results to make the necessary modification in the curriculum. (as cited in Glatthorn, 1987, p 273)

The Tyler model has several advantages. It is relatively easy to understand and apply. It is rational and systematic. It focuses attention on curricular strengths and weaknesses rather than begin concerned solely with the performance of individual students. It also emphasizes the importance of a
continuing cycle of assessment, analysis, and improvement. As Guba and Lincoln (1981) pointed out, however, it suffers from several deficiencies. It does not suggest how the objectives themselves should be evaluated. Its emphasis on the prior statement of objectives may restrict creativity in curriculum development, and it seems to place undue emphasis on the pre-assessment and post-assessment, ignoring completely the need for formative assessment.

**Stufflebeam’s context – Input process-product model**

These obvious weaknesses in the Tyler model led several evaluation experts in the large 1960s and early 1970s to attack the Tyler model and to offer their own alternatives. The alternative that had the greatest impact was that developed by a Phi Delta Kappa committee chaired by Daniel Stufflebeam (1971) this model seemed to appeal to educational leaders because it emphasized the importance of producing evaluative data for decision making. In fact decision making was the sole justification for evaluation. In the view of the Phi Delta Kappa committee.

To service the needs decision makers, the Stufflebeam model provides a means for generating data relating to four stages of program operation context evaluation, which continuously assesses needs and problem in the context to help decision makers determine goals and objectives input evaluation which assesses alternative means for achieving those goals to help decision makers choose optimal means process evaluation which monitors the processes both to ensure that the mean are actually being implemented and to make the necessary modifications and product evaluation, which compare actual ends with intended ends and leads to a series of recycling decisions.

**During each of these four stage specific steps are taken**

- The kinds of decisions are identified
- The kinds of data needed to make those decision are identified
- Those data are collected
- The criteria for determining quality are identified
- The data are analyzed on the basic of these criteria
- The needed information is provided to decision makers.(as cited in Glatthorn 1987, pp 273-274)

The context-input-process-product (CIPP) model. As it has come to be called has several attractive features for those interested in curriculum evaluation. Its concern for the formative aspects of evaluation remedies a serious deficiency in the Tyler model. Finally the very detailed guidelines and forms provided by the committee provide step-by-step guidance for users.
The CIPP model, however, has some serious drawbacks associated with it. Its main weakness scorns to be its failure to recognize the complexity of the decision-making process in organizations. It assumes more rationality than exists in such situations and ignores the political factors that play a large part in these decisions. Also, as Guba and Lincoln (1981) noted, it seems very difficult to implement and expensive to maintain.

1. The Tyler model: Tyler model is one of the best models. He published basic principles of curriculum and instruction in 1949 in which he discussed the rationale for examining the problems of curriculum inquiry the following needs to be defined:

   1. Purposes of school
   2. Educational experiences related to these purposes
   3. Organization of these experiences
   4. Evaluation of the purposes

Here, this model purpose is connoted to objectives. Curriculum planners should identify the general objectives from three board sources:

   1. Subject matter
   2. Learners
   3. Society

These identified objectives need to be filtered/refined through two screens. i.e. philosophy of the school and psychology of learning, which help in going for specific instructional objectives.

The attainment of objectives depends on the learning experience and the perception that learner bring to the situation. Experience can be selected from the educator’s know how about learning and human development. Then the basic element such as ideas, concept, values and skills should be interwoven within the subjects.

Finally, he says that evaluation is an important principle which deals with effective planning and action.
As such Tyler did not visualize any diagrammatic representation of the model.

**Curriculum and research**

Curriculum research is one of the best ways to respond the three types of research questions (NRC, 2002), descriptive, causal, and process, within a program that is synergistic, integrated, and complete. Across the different phases, and within them, there are iterative cycles, each of which must “work” to proceed and reveal weaknesses if they do not work, and thus offer tests of construct validity that are both more frequent and more trustworthy than tests in most other approaches (cf. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Further, because it is result-centered, rather than theory-centered, the CRF minimizes seductive theory-confirming strategies that tend to insidiously replace the intended theory-testing strategies, and maximizes strategies that attempt to produce specified patterns of data and thus mitigate confirmation bias, stimulating creative development of theory (Greenwald et al., 1986). This type of scientific research both constrains decisions to be consistent with what has been scientifically verified (James, 1958) and liberates, by broadening the range of possibilities (Dewey, 1929). The CRF makes the relationships among theory, research, design, and practice more salient and accessible

**CURRICULUM CHANGE AND INNOVATION**

Change is the law of nature. Change always makes things better. Curriculum change and curriculum improvement are used interchangeably and no distinction is made between the two.
Changing curriculum also involves changing individuals. According to Coffey and Goldner, changing individuals includes two types of changes:

1. Cognitive aspect – the way the child is habituated to his world around and how he perceives it.
2. Affective aspect- his emotional orientation.

Types of curriculum change

There are varied types observed in curriculum. According to different curricularists, the following types of change can be seen:

According to Warder Bennis, the curriculum change could be:

1. PLANNED CHANGE:
2. COERCION
3. INTERACTION CHANGE:
4. NATURAL OR RAPDOM CHANGE:

Robert- Chin considered three types of changes in curriculum:

1. EMPIRICAL -RATIONAL
2. NORMATIVE-RE-EDUCATIVE

Curriculum innovation

Many schools spend a lot of time working together on curriculum change. This a very crucial time and valuable time for all schools. Gone are the days when we could sit back, relax, plan ahead for our summer break. Our cushioned presumption that our schools see no reason to make significant changes has gone by.

The curriculum needs a review every year and a review that must look into what is the most suitable for our learners of tomorrow. We need to shirk away from the confidence that as educators we are already serving the needs of our learners well.

Some of the broader areas where curriculum shift and innovation is needed could range from:

- Reorganizing the curriculum around themes if our curriculum is based on themes…adding on new subjects of study
- Review the time allocation and bifurcation of periods done for each of the subjects allocated from
KG to X…do we need to give more time for activities?
• Do we need to allocate longer blocks of time for some subjects?
• Do we need to readjust the school timings to accommodate exploration and innovation?
• Have we provisioned enough in the curriculum to meet the needs of learners of all abilities and interests?
• Is the stress in our curriculum design on developing pupils’ learning skills

We need to carefully research and learn from the strengths of our previous practice and not hesitate to make necessary revision. Gone are the days when School leaders often had to overcome deeply embedded resistance to change. Our apprehensions can no longer revolve around getting the highest score or 100% first divisions in the board exams. The effort has to begin from the KG or Cycle I or Foundation.

Successful schools must and do go through a systematic process of investigation, consultation, planning and evaluation of the school curriculum. Complementing this effort of the school leader should be a strong team of heads of departments, subject matter experts, well trained and seasoned teachers who can bring to the table years of learning and experience. This involvement of key stakeholders would also ensure that everyone involved in innovation of the curriculum would have a clear understanding of the rationale behind innovation and the roles and responsibilities of individuals.

Factors that impact such an ambitious move are:

in specific areas

➢ Lack of minute planning by the team member spearheading the change
➢ Failure to adhere to timelines
➢ Evaluation and criteria for evaluation of learning at varying stages
➢ Teacher support and training and lack of a rigorous professional development programme for teachers

Most of all this needs positive thought, courage and conviction from the school leader to ensure that learning at school in the new academic year through curriculum changes would make learning enjoyable for learners apart from achieving more.

Need and importance

Every successful concept and project in life requires a proper framework and planning. This relates to all processes, including education. Whenever we embark on any new plan or procedure,
we need to make sure that we have all the plans drawn up. What is on offer, what are the resources that we have, what are the steps, which we need to take and what are the goals that we need to achieve are some elements that need to be looked upon. A similar set of constraints when applied to education in schools and colleges gives birth to curriculum. A curriculum is a set of courses, including their content, offered at a school or university. The curriculum often contains a detailed list of subjects and the elements of teaching them.

John Franklin Bobbitt’s “The Curriculum” published in 1918 mentions curriculum as an idea that has its roots in the Latin word ‘race-course’. He also explained “The Curriculum” as the course of deeds and experiences through which children grow up into adults and get going for success in the society. A curriculum is more than putting together a set of academically required subjects. It must consider all aspects of the student life, the learning needs of students, the time available for the sessions and the teachers’ idea, capability and workload. Now that we know the constitution of a curriculum, let us study its importance in the lines that follow.

**Significance of Curriculum**

**In Elementary Schools**

In elementary schools, the curriculum is primarily drawn by the educational boards or some central society. They study the needs of the kids and all other feasibilities before selecting courses and drafting a curriculum. Here, the students have least choice in their subjects and study based on a universal curriculum, which works on all sections of the students’ psyche and aid in the total development of the student. No area is left untouched. Hence, the curriculum aids in the proper development, while the child comes to terms with his or her own inclination. Therefore, at primary school levels, the curriculum aims at providing a structured platform, which gives every child an equal opportunity to excel.

**In High Schools**

At high school levels, teenagers can take their own liberty in choosing their path. Though complete autonomy does not rest with a student, a level of choice is very evident. This helps in the development of the teenager, with added importance of being given the field of his own choice. At this stage, the development is more focused and rampant, enhanced through a proper curriculum. Without an effective curriculum, a student would not be able to understand or meet the challenges of the society.
At College & Higher Education

At a higher stage of education, an unprecedented autonomy is provided to the students. The students can opt for a more focused curriculum, based on their choice of subjects. A student will graduate, post-graduate or attain a doctorate based on the choice of his subjects and the mode of his study, both or either one determined by him. The curriculum here is reduced to just a framework that is very flexible yet very important. The curriculum chosen by the student will go on to determine the shape of his career. A curriculum prepares an individual with the knowledge to be successful, confident and responsible citizens.

Conclusion

Curriculum is much more than classroom instruction. It is not confined to the four walls of the classroom. All the experiences provided by the school both inside and outside the school are under curriculum. Curriculum change and innovation is the need of the hour. So for the present era student’s innovation and change in curriculum is very important.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION AND REFLECTION

1. Explain the factors that affect the development of curriculum assessment.
2. Write down the Role of Hidden Curriculum.
3. Explain the teaching strategies for developing resilience in children.
4. Briefly explain the about Curriculum and Research

SUGGESTED READINGS

2. Thomas W. Hewitt (2006), Understanding and shaping Curriculum “what we teach and why”.

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