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The Education Charter

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Higher Education for Action to Better World, and Sustainable Development

The International Education Charter is a declaration of fundamental principles guiding youth education worldwide in the 21st century. Created by global civil society, CCLP Worldwide and endorsed by thousands of members, volunteers, organizations, institutions and individuals engaged in promoting the position of youth, the International Education Charter is not only a call to action, but a motivating force inspiring change the world over. The International Education Charter is being implemented into the Declaration of Higher Education for the 21st century by UNESCO, and Ten Principles of United Nations Global Compact for the purposes of creating a more purposeful and sustainable future for today's youth.

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Integrity		Cohesive force
Solidarity		Common interests
Courage		Face of Society
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THE EDUCATION CHARTER

Education to Livelihood

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Editor



From the Desk of Editor

The Durga Puja Festivity countdown.....

Alas Dear Readers the clock is ticking faster as we approach the opening of most sacred festivity of City of Joy – Navratri. But this time our joy is double as we are now 4 years old. Thumbs Up to our patrons and readers 

Now let's focus on the real issue of the magazine- Education.

In the 17th issue our unstoppable writers have meticulously selected latest trends in education world and summarized here with impressive research.

The advent of new technology replacing old technique of teaching is the talk of the hour and so we have selected this theme as our cover story.

The new trend called Communities of practice and online learning efforts have proved to be very effective in organizational level as well society at large. This topic is well covered in this issue.

The inclusion of well researched critical analysis is for our enthusiastic academic readers and we hope our readers find it interesting.

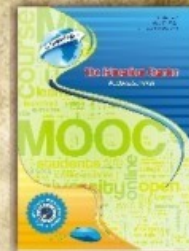
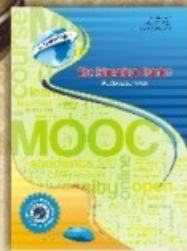
In celebrating mood I am leaving you to enjoy the issue now.....

As always

Editor Vikrant Singh
The Education Charter



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Cover Story

MOOCs and the tendencies of online education

By Gabriela Isa R. V. Campos

Massive open online courses (MOOCs) have started in 2002 with an innovative action by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which made the course material, like pdfs, free to be downloaded and studied (Chiang, 2013). Other top universities started following the trend in education, making the material available for those who wished to know more and to study further certain subjects.

In 2011, the Stanford University

announced that they would make three courses fully available at no cost, including course material, lectures, quizzes and forums (Ruth, 2002). Thanks to this initiative, nowadays many universities make full courses available for free, which allows knowledge to be spread to those who wish to learn more, especially since the majority of the courses do not provide relevant certificates or grant credits at the end, creating a space where the sole motivation is to learn.



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It is important to mention, though, that Coursera and other MOOC platforms are trying to implement a certificate system for those who pay a certain fee, which, if successful, would finance the structure of the courses. So far, however, the plan is on an initial level, but it is a solution for the sustainability of the models because the majority of the courses are financed by companies which wish return on their investment or by university funds (Chiang, 2013). Several institutions have also announced “partnerships with testing centers to facilitate more reliable assessment and, eventually, credentialing of some kind” (Butler, 2012).

It is needless to affirm that students from all parts of the world have the opportunity to learn from the best classes and top universities. This is an opportunity that provides knowledge for all of those who are interested on developing their skills, both academic and professional.

The crowd which takes MOOCs is much varied but is composed mainly of adults, as affirmed by the American Council of Education. Other researches showed that most of the students are well-educated men looking to advance on their careers (FOWLER, 2013). The diversification of the students allows the market to refresh itself with new ideas and, for

that matter, to value freedom and responsibility.

MOOCs, moreover, can also be a complement for many universities, since they can be a tool for having access to the knowledge being spread by top professors, saving, thus, financial expenses (Ruth, 2002) and making global citizens. Besides that, students from colleges all around the world can make a parallel between what they are learning and what is presented to them through this innovative tool.

In addition, especially for our youth, network learning is particularly valuable because it allows the exchange of experiences on the studied subject, allowing people from a very young age to integrate themselves with a global free society, which prizes academic diversity and individual values. As affirmed by Edward Everett, education is, after all, better safeguard of liberty than a standing army.

The innovation still doesn't have many students fully committed who complete the courses and the assignments. In fact, the completion rates are typically 3% (Chiang, 2013), which is, nevertheless, an exciting rate, especially since the initiative may represent a new mark on the field of education.

The interaction between students on these courses allows them to experiment a

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Socratic method of education, which means that the students are welcome to make conclusions by themselves (Weinberg and Butti, 2013), to answer to different questions by various individuals and to make dissertations about the themes studied. This method provides better development opportunities, since the best universities value

c r i t i c a l
thinking, as represented by the notion of the Kantian enlightenment, the ability to **t h i n k** autonomously by oneself.

Massive open online courses are

also a great initiative because they allow universities and professionals who are interested in education to know more about how students' minds work, since all the clicks on the online platforms are saved, making it possible to understand more about what makes good classes and how to improve the students' attention through them. New researches and new ways to analyze the mind can be therefore developed.

As the professor has the data about how many students got the answers right and about what they've clicked first, it is possible to change the way the subject is taught based on the answers provided by the students, making of MOOCs a great tool not only for the students, but also for the improvement of education.

The "serial moocer" certainly has a lot to

learn from taking classes on top universities, but so do we. **M O O C s** present new perspectives and broaden the horizons of educators, who can also learn more by



Photo from: <http://careervanity.com/work-full-time-online-courses-perfect-career.htm/>

exchanging knowledge, since modernization is a key element for the improvement of education.

Many people find it easier to study through small videos, followed by reading and quizzes, than to adopt the traditional method. As the online student can divide his time into a series of tasks and readings, this method of studying can be more productive because the

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student's focus will be on a series of small activities, followed by quick breaks and videos.

For the students to be prepared for the extremely competitive rules of the market, it is necessary to be flexible and self-taught, skills that one may improve through a MOOC experience. MOOCs, as previously mentioned, are not only for those who pursue a career on academics, but for people of every age, with different goals.

For this article, I have done an open online course by a famous university and I was quite impressed with its methods of evaluation and commitment in providing interested and high-quality analysis of studied subject. The method of evaluation was peer revision, providing, thus, a space in which the other person could comment and correct the mistakes or inaccuracies made by the other. There were constant assignments which could be either texts to write about a given subject or quizzes. We had group discussions and I've talked to a variety of people from different parts of the world about distinct theories. Of course that one must be focused and have spare time in order to finish the course with the required conclusion of tasks, but commitment is necessary in all important things.

It is unnecessary to affirm that my experience was a good one, proving, thus, that

with the correct management of time, it is possible to conclude the course with positive results. As in any other class, these courses have an essential material which the student should read in order to successfully learn the subject, but additional material is also presented, as well as a variety of book recommendations. Some courses even have partnership with libraries and authors, being able to offer a lower price for recommended books.

Another use for MOOCs is the possibility of an advantage in admission for those who have managed to finish an online course by the university to which they are applying or even to the students who have done related online courses from other universities. The possibility to have an advantage in admission is logical, since the person chosen would have previously been introduced to the subject and, therefore, would not quit the classes. The openings would be offered to those who really liked the subject. Many researchers on education are beginning to consider using MOOCs as an admission tool for universities (Austrade, 2013), but currently universities do not accept this option as a valid criterion.

Obviously, like any other developing initiative, MOOCs present some challenges which relate to expensive cost of making the

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lessons. Other concerns relate to number of students who manage to finish the courses and to the copyright laws, which are different in many countries and prohibit, in some cases, the use of course materials for the purposes of online education.

Another difficulty of online platforms is to detect the confusion and lack of understanding that one may notice while looking at the student's face. There have been several suggestions for this type of pickle, most of them relate to the forum's space and to the use of an electroencephalography (Wang *et al*, 2011), which evaluates the electrical activity in the brain.

By using the electroencephalography before the classes become available for everyone, the universities have a real chance of changing the way a certain subject is explained before-hand, which, of course, may help in order for the improvement of the video's content.

There is also an issue with the fact that, currently, nothing stops a person from signing as some else and completing the course, but surely there would be no use for such an action because, as mentioned previously, the certificates do not present any relevant qualification.

CONCLUSION

Even though we don't know precisely what are the next steps of the alliance between education and technology, it is safe to affirm that the market is open to new methods of learning and that online students achieve the same or even a superior level of knowledge with online offering, as answered by a majority of provosts and academic vice presidents of institutions (Straumsheim, 2014).

MOOCs may be a solution for those who wish to learn more in top universities, but have issues with the financial requirements, or for those who wish to improve their abilities for a certain profession in order to excel on the expectations of market. There are a large number of opportunities for entrepreneurship and as everything related to MOOCs is very new, a lot of light has been given to this tool.

It is very important to make better use of MOOCs in order to disseminate knowledge, especially if we consider that this tool can be presented to the disadvantaged youth, something that isn't happening yet.

MOOCs can be a solution for some of the current problems of education, as well as present brand new opportunities for the improvement of students. In addition, classes

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can considerably improve if universities and professors decide to analyze what works considering the answers provided by the

students. It depends only on us to use this new technology for old problems.

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Critical Analysis

Role of communities in practice in the sharing of knowledge

By William Kin

This research report is divided into 5 sub headings, as this will give a clear explanation as to how the communities of practice have emerged as a vital asset within the organization. There are different types of organization, the two distinct knowledge and then the communities of practice, which includes the characteristics, the benefits and above all, the role of the community

Learning organization

It is imperative to acknowledge that there are two types of organizations, as each organization has their own approach as to where their knowledge management fit in.

The two different types are 'decentralized' and 'centralized' organization. 'Decentralized' organization is stronger in independence, exposed to more changeability due to the needs of others and 'barriers' to knowledge sharing exists, whereas, 'centralized'

organization knowledge is more interdependence, inflexible and stronger in governance over the sharing of information 'Knowledge' is information that an individual acquires in the course of events that occur and the person perceives, learns and interprets the perception to get better understanding of their surrounding and a strategy would be a plan or sense of direction to achieve 'something'.

There are two types of knowledge, namely

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tacit and explicit knowledge. The difference between the 'tacit' and 'explicit' knowledge is that tacit knowledge that forms the basis of an individuals' experience. It is basically personal knowledge that emphasizes the insights and intuitions of an individual, which cannot be easily expressed rationally. For example, people have indefinite factors such as personal beliefs, values and perception. Thus makes the person to be who they are and how they see the world.

In contrast, explicit knowledge is knowledge that the individuals' can easily share and exchange knowledge (information) to one another. For example, the transferring of knowledge (information) that is given in the forms of documents or conversations that people obtain through learning institutions and training programmes.

Thus, these two types of knowledge are shared and this creates an innovative approach to the organization.

Therefore, a need for new structures is used for the sharing of knowledge. Thus, a knowledge strategy would be to acquire and gain knowledge from a learning organization. Nevertheless, 'learning in organizations can occur at the individual, group, inter-group and organizational levels.' (Falconer, 2006:142)

In the view that the technology is used in

every organization, which is prevalent by computer systems, is used to gather exchange, gather, process and store information, the role of using creativity and innovation in developing a strategy to give the organization a more 'competitive advantage'.

As a result of creativity, that is contrasting the use of hybrid resolutions of people and technology. People are better at organizing unstructured forms of knowledge and information, whereas, computer and communications systems are capable in the distribution of more structured knowledge which continuously changes.

Through innovation, the corporation should construct internal and external awareness that generate new knowledge. By this, that is combining the human and computerized information and knowledge.

As a result, innovation may be the key to develop a good strategy for knowledge as it does 'share knowledge between projects', such as the sharing of tacit and explicit knowledge, learning from success and mistakes in which sometimes learning from mistakes, results in more innovative and creative ideas, and capturing reusable material from engagements, in which models, methodologies and solutions are created in which people can use them.

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The spread of innovation practices and developments illustrates the importance of informal networks through which new ideas and innovative developments spread geographically across the organization.

A model, which is known as the 'knowledge spiral', is used for the 'different frameworks for managing knowledge'. In this model, tacit and explicit knowledge is initiated in a network throughout an organization.

Knowledge is kept in motion through the organization by means of process-socialization (transfer of tacit, learning by doing), externalization (transfer of explicit to explicit through communication), internalization (transfer explicit to explicit by systematic procedures) and combination (transfer of explicit to tacit by means of distribution).

To lead the knowledge management programme, a Chief knowledge officer is assigned to this position. This person is a senior corporate executive whose role is

leveraging knowledge, usually by leading a knowledge management programme. (Rumizen, 2000:28)

The 'Chief Knowledge Officer' (CKO), plays different roles and has many functions. One of the roles of the CKO is to be able to manage and lead a knowledge management programme. A CKO can be evangelists, entrepreneurs, persuaders, communicators and IT savvy. The CKO has

many functions, such as aligning and ensuring the IT infrastructure facilities the knowledge to be created, distributed and managed (IT function), the corporate training function

and position the key people in a strategic manner (HR function), otherwise as a stand-alone.

There are four elements that are crucial in the cycle of knowledge, namely meaning, identity, practice and community. These elements are essential as they do play a role in the process of learning as well as building of a relationship.

A person may learn through an external



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and internal environment that is generated in the dissemination of information across the 'community', such as the multi functional teams or via networks within the organization. The next step in the learning cycle is the 'identity' element, which focuses on the information that is acquired through the integration of new knowledge into the organizational context.

"The fact that the cycle are organizing around some particular area of knowledge and activity gives the members a sense of joint enterprise and identity' (Wegner, 1998; 98)

This is followed by learning that is gained

through 'meaning'. In other words, the individual learns through interpreting and experiencing the recent acquired knowledge to make sense of their environment.

The last element of the cycle is learning that is done through 'practice'. In terms of practice, the person may take action into interpreting the meaning. Once the last element is completed, the person may take action into interpreting the meaning. Once the last element is completed, the person is still continuously learning and they will go through the same process in the cycle of learning. This is a way in which individuals may acquire knowledge through organization.

The relationship between the communities of practice and learning

The challenge is 'what is the relationship between learning and the community?.' Learning and making connections through networking, is the main component of building social capital. Thus, the information that the communities of practice use can affect and influence the dimensions of organizations.

An important aspect of social capital is the

development of the context shared between two parties. That means that people that share a common language many access to to other members as well as information. The common language is shared context which can be sued as narratives, which enable the individuals to make sense of their environment and their part in it. Another activity of learning is the use of building taxonomies within the shared

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context that is managed by the communities of practice.

In terms of learning, the communities of practice are gradually using collaborative technologies to supplement traditional face-to-face interaction and to increase the sharing of knowledge between external workers. In other words, using forms of electronic resources, such as e-mail to communicate with people within the collaborative environment to help support mentors and researchers.

The element 'Content' focuses on the quality of content, which forms the basis to the knowledge-building community. The content serves four purposes, which is to attract members, socialize the new members, serves as a foundation for conversation and to motivate as well as connect the members to mutually build their domain of knowledge of the organization. In this way, members of the community are learning from each other.

The next element is 'Conversation', which is the most effective approach in terms of the transferring and the creation of to draw up meaningful knowledge. Meaningful conversation is cultivated by the quality of content, clear intentions or purposes and personal connections. When the members of a community are given a clear sense of shared goals, this will create a basis of culture, which initially means that the community will develop a 'culture' of trust (Kilner, 2004: 28).

The case of 'Connection' is crucial in a knowledge-building community. The reason being that without the connections, the content and conversation element will initially be meaningless. Thus, connection is important when it comes to trust, as this will enable the members to work together for they share a common goal and build in their knowledge domain.



Communities of Practice in the online environment

In the information age, many corporations have moved to a more virtual environment in terms of online communities regarding future developments and communications. However, there are two important concepts that must clearly be defined that are related to the virtual communities. The concepts are virtual learning communities and distributed

communities of practice.

The definition of virtual learning communities is a group of people who gather in a virtual environment with the intentions of pursuing learning objectives. For instance, the virtual learning community uses information technology and e-learning to transfer and communicate tacit knowledge.

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Essence of Education to Societal Attainment

By Alrhunmwunde, Matthew

Education has become highly important to social attainment in modern world, and thus occupies a central place in the analysis to fill elite roles in society and a means by which a person achieves the right to hold prestigious positions in work and public life. This analysis attempts to present scenarios relating to social class and educational attainment. In order to do so, this analysis will try to establish and show the connection between class and attainment by applying the adequacy of conflict theory for available evidence on the link between education and social attainment, stating the determinants of various outcomes in the struggles among classes. A review of the evidence indicates that the conflict theory is more strongly supported. It will be argued that the substantiation best supports conflict theory even though methodical prerequisite has significant effects in specific context. It will be further argued that the construction of a

general theory of the determinants of social class in its varying forms is best advanced by incorporating elements of the practical analysis of technical requirements of specific class at appropriate points within the conflict models. The conclusion offers interesting suggestions where further evidence may be required for precise tests and for further explorations.

Education is one of the pivotal institutions in terms of sociology. It is an indispensable section of the entire social structure. Myriads of studies have shown that the number of years of education is a strong determinant of societal achievements. The links between social class and education have been researched frequently and persistently (Silver cited in Meighan & Harber (2007) . They also showed that social origins, as well as social class are synonymous with educational attainment. In the last couple of years, various Government have issued a series of report underpinned by

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research (Social Exclusion Unit, 1998), that point to the role of education in society class attainment. However, Paulsen (1991) found that education generates class effects in political socialization by reinforcing the individual class socialization initiated in the home, structuring to treat class groups differently in the tracking process, and varying in the way communities address curricular emphases in schools.

On the other hand, social class according to (Meighan & Harber, 2007), is a highly ambiguous concept, whose complications begins with distinction among its uses, viz common expression, administrative and sociology concepts.

Further complications stem from the fact that it is equivocally used within these areas. Grant (2001) opined that social class (or simply "class") is a set of concepts in the social sciences and political theory centered around models of social stratification in which people are grouped into a set of hierarchical social categories. In common parlance, the term "social class," is usually synonymous with "socio-economic class," defined as people having the same social, economic, or

educational status (Princeton University, 2012). However, there are some bases for comparison between various studies, the links with sociological theories of social class outlined by Weber (1947). In the same vein, various national poll have shown that people accept the existence of different social classes, will assign themselves to upper, middle and working classes(although what constitutes upper middle and working class, varies from one location to another (Krauss, 1976).



Notwithstanding, accounting for group differentials in educational achievement has always aroused controversy. Social class is a key feature of life, and

hierarchical arrangements of people in society group. It is a complex issue that may involve status, wealth, culture, background and employment (Compton (1998). Social classes with a great deal of power are usually viewed as "the elites" within their own societies. One of the components of social structure is education which plays an important role in social class. Social class is dependent on educational success and its background is both difficult and

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costly to categorize. There is, for example, no single scale that enjoys universal support. Although almost all measures include information about parents' employment status, are differences in how occupations are categorized and disputes about additional factors that are sometimes included such as parental education (Bonney,1998; and Marshall,1997).

Three theories attempts to relate educational systems to societal outcomes. They are the functionalist, symbolic interactionist, and conflict theories. They represent the views of sociologists and educators with regards to education. The functionalist theory focuses on the ways that universal education serves the needs of society. From inchoation, Functionalists see education in its manifest role: conveying basic knowledge and skills to the next generation (Durkheim cited in Lopez, 2003). Symbolic interactionists limit their analysis of education to what they directly observe happening in the classroom. They focus on how teacher expectations influence student performance, perceptions, and attitudes (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1992). Conflict theory sees the purpose of education as maintaining social inequality and preserving the power of those who dominate society. Conflict theorists assess

the same functions of education as functionalists. Functionalists see education as a beneficial contribution to an ordered society; however, conflict theorists see the educational system as perpetuating the status quo by dulling the lower classes into being obedient workers. In other words, both functionalists and conflict theorists agree that the educational system practices sorting, but they disagree about how it enacts that sorting. Functionalists claim that schools sort based upon merit; conflict theorists argue that schools sort along distinct class and other lines (Landry, 2007). Specifically, conflict theorists believe schools train those in the working classes to accept their position as a lower-class member of society. Conflict theorists call this role of education the "hidden curriculum." (Meighan & Harber, 2007). Conflict theorists point to several key factors in defending their position. Inequality of educational attainment is a key factor placing young people at risk of isolation, non-participation and social exclusion later in life (Social Exclusion Unit, 1999a).

There is a major difference in the resource provisions for education and this varies from one geographic community to another (Meighan & Harber 2007). Educational attainment has been shown to correlate with

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spending levels, such that the higher the resource provision, the higher the attainments and the greater the educational life chances in that area (Byrne et al., 1974). First, property taxes fund most schools in Britain; therefore, schools in affluent districts have more money and occupied predominantly by middle class. They can afford to pay higher salaries, attract better teachers, and purchase newer texts and more technology. Not only are upper-class parents able to send their children to exclusive schools that are perceived to be better, but in many places state-supported schools for children of the upper class are of a much higher quality than those the state provides for children of the lower classes (Thomas & Bell, 2007; McNamee & Miller, 2009; Shin & Lee, 2010). Students who attend these schools gain substantial advantages in getting into the best colleges and being tracked into higher-paying professions. Students in less affluent neighborhoods that do not enjoy these advantages are less likely to go to college and are more likely to be tracked into vocational or technical training. They also represent far higher numbers of minority students. School effectiveness research, which does seek to control for factors such as prior attainment and social class, suggests that variations between schools do make a difference, but that extra school factors are much more significant

in determining student progress (Drew & Demack, 1998). The lack of good educational opportunities available to already disaffected young people was also echoed by Pearce & Hillman (1998).

In contrast, there is consistent evidence suggesting a relationship between parent involvement and students' perceived control, competence and achievement (Grolnick *et al.*, 1991; Stiller and Ryan, 1992; Koskinen *et al.*, Ames *et al.*, 1993; Adunyarittigun, 1997; 2000; Marchant *et al.*, 2001; Trusty and Lampe, 1997). Other studies have reported positive relationship between parental motivation and academic performance and success (Gottrieb, 1990; Johnson, 1996; Kushman, Sieber, & Harold, 2000; Broussard & Garrison, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2006). It is also evident in US federal policies such as the "No Child Left Behind Act", which defines parental involvement in education as the participation of parents in regular, two-way and meaningful communication involving student academic learning and other school activities" (107th Congress, 2002). Academic achievement motivation is used to mean the pupil's need or drive towards the achievement of success in academic work. Generally, students' perceptions of ability and control influence their motivation (Stipek, 1998).

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Parental involvement is linked significantly with children's development of self-regulation skills (Stright, Neitzel, Sears, & Hoke-Sinex, 2001). Research also shows that parental involvement among homeless families relates positively to children's achievement and appropriate school behavior—the latter is a critical correlate of motivation (Miliotis, Sesma, & Masten, 1999). The available literature shows positive benefits of parental involvement in schooling for several motivational variables including school engagement, intrinsic motivation, perceived competence and control, self-regulation, mastery goal orientation, and motivation to read (Ratelle, Guay, Larose, & Sénécal, 2004; Willems, & Holbein, 2005). Gonzalez-DeHass et al. (2005) discussed plausible explanations for the benefits of parental involvement on children's motivation. Schunk, Pintrich & Meece (2008) believe that as children grow older, parental involvement conveys that children are very important to their parents. This sense of connectedness may help children to develop friendships among like-minded peers and internalize educational values. African American and Latino families often report that one of the reasons for being involved at school is to demonstrate to their children's teachers that they are committed to their children's education (Gutman & McLoyd,

2002). Similarly, parental involvement was differentially associated with achievement based on whether parents had college degrees (Hill et al., 2004). Attempts at explanation derived from sociology include the notion that the institutional regimes of educational institutions tend to favour middle -class pupils; alternatively, education as currently practiced tends to alienate working-class pupils. Despite differences in the amount and types of involvement across demographic background, parental involvement and family school relations are positively associated with academic achievement and children's aspirations (Hill & Taylor, 2004). These, in turn, impact school processes and learning outcomes. When students view parents as models and trusted partners in learning, it helps them assess their own capabilities and performance (Adunyarittigun, 1997).

Meighan & Harber (2007) have stressed that pupils from different social classes are held to bring different language experiences, behaviours, attitudes, ideas, values and skills. When these differences are measured in some way they can then be correlated with educational life chances, to support the proposition that the experience of being brought up in the middle-class home and neighbourhood gives advantages in coping

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with educational institutions, as currently organized. Bernstein (1973) identified different language 'codes' adopted by working-class and middle-class children and their families. Initially, these codes were referred to as 'restricted' and 'elaborated' codes, but these terms were often misunderstood and taken to suggest working class inferiority. Bernstein argued that working-class children tend to assume this different relation between speech and situations. This put the working-class child at a disadvantage in the school where the dominating code is used and expected by the teacher. He also argued that this does not imply that any dominated code like working-class or African-American/Caribbean is in any meaningful way inferior to 'Standard English'. He demonstrated that the dominated code was actually rich in abstract concepts.

Then again, psychological attempts have proposed that middle-class parents pass on through inheritance superior qualities that result in a better school performance (Drew, 1995). Gayle, et al.(2002) provided a method of estimating the contribution of control variables towards 'explaining' the observed responses using a readily understood metric as a means of determining the likelihood that students would complete certain levels of

education according to their backgrounds. Holloway, et al (1990) showed qualitative study is advantageous in the respect that it focuses on the direct influence of the parents (and thus, indirectly, the traits of the social class of the parents are projected onto the children). The occupation of the parents is as much a determining factor of their class (again harkening back to comments made in the study done by Hughes & Perry-Jenkins (1996) as it is an influence on what the child may pursue its low attainers who get insufficient attention and may be excluded if they become disruptive. The least advantaged are the greatest losers. They enter the education market on unequal terms since they have fewest social and learning advantages and they leave potentially at greater disadvantage. Edwards et al (1999) pointed to evidence showing that as various forms of overt and covert selection have increased, 'so a steepening hierarchy of schools has added to the disadvantages of already disadvantaged groups.

Conversely, the existence of the relationships between educational life chances is directly correlated with children intelligence as measured by IQ test, and parental attitudes (Meighan and Harber, 2007) According to Mackinnon cited in

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Meighan & Harber (2007), these correlations are as high as , or even higher than, that between class and attainment, so that on the face of it we have as strong grounds for saying that intelligence or parental attitude causes educational success as for saying that social class does. He argued that the tendency for middle-class children to do better in education than working-class children is only a beginning (Meighan & Harber, 2007). Consequently, social class and other factors, like parental attitudes (in the form of parental involvement), are correlated not only with educational success but also with each other (Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003). This makes the research especially controversial and difficult to separate the effects of social class on attainment from the effects of the other factors, because middle-class children, children who do well on IQ test and whose parents' attitudes are favourable to education, are by and large, the same children.

The significance of economic deprivation in education cannot be skipped (Meighan & Harber 2007). This is because the increasing concentration of deprivation with lower social class provides evidence for rapidly increasing multiple deprivations. Poverty, according to Skellington (1992), is a major deprivation for the children of most working-class.

Appropriately, the absence of this deprivation is a major privilege for the children of the upper middle class and a misfortune for the working-class (Berthoud cited in Meighan & Harber (2007). Because poverty is so frequently a factor that is a root cause for these other social class factors. Not only are opportunities different, but social positions of community members at different ages differ as well, a fact that was as visible in the early twentieth century as it is today (Parsons, 1942).

Another conflict is that pupils generally learn a social class identity foisted on them by people they normally look up to (Durkheim cited in Meighan & Harber 2007). Becker cited in Meighan & Harber (2007) argued that teachers operate with a mediating concept of 'ideal pupil', that included being interested in lessons and enthusiasm for school, (Smith & Tomlinson, 1989) rates of attendance (Smith & Tomlinson, 1989 and Sewell, 1997), working hard in schools (Eggleston, et al 1986), clean, healthy, well dressed and being trained at home in such a way that he or she was bright and quick at school work. It has been acknowledged in other research that teachers do this sometimes against their better judgement (Gewirtz et al. 1993; Ball, 1998) and such targets are also cited as a significant

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contributor to reasons for increased levels of school exclusion (Social Exclusion Unit, 1998). This technique of these teachers, were able to deal effectively with such pupils, but were inadequate to cope with those deviating from the idea pupil image (Meighan & Harber 2007). Contrarily to the aforementioned, teachers often generate expectations and label their pupils in various ways either by cognitive performances, classroom behavior, or perception measured against a concept of 'ideal pupil' or those related to social class (Meighan & Harber 2007; Benneth and Jordan, 1975). This social class identity is therefore filtered through the concept of ideal pupil and good parent. Sharp and Green cited in Meighan & Harber (2007) believed that good parent should be seen as having a number of characteristics, including that of training children at home to be neat and tidy, to be able to concentrate and to be polite, without actually indulging in direct teaching. This rarely conform to the definition of good parent, still their children matches some of the features of 'ideal pupil' (Wade cited in Meighan & Harber 2007). Furthermore, children allocated to higher sets and streams tend to improve their performance, yet the performance of children of similar initial measures ability who are placed in lower sets and streams deteriorates (Tomlinson & Craft,

1995). The rationality of the initial selection appears to be confirmed by the subsequent performance of the children, and a self-fulfilling prophecy appears to have been triggered (Goodacre cited in Meighan & Harber (2007). This conflict can be generated very quickly and then remain stable over months, and even over whole school careers (Rist cited in Meighan & Harber 2007).

Also, the government acknowledges a 'Catch 22': if you are poor and suffer multiple disadvantages, you are least likely to succeed in education; more likely to be excluded or truant from school; more likely to commit an offence; and least likely to gain qualifications and well paid work (HM Treasury 1999). Individuals who leave school with low levels of attainment are at higher risk of experiencing social exclusion as adults, especially those who lack basic literacy and numeracy skills (CASE 1999, Moser 1999, Social Exclusion Unit 1999a). They are also more likely to live in areas in economic decline, with poor amenities and have access to poorly resourced and under-achieving schools (Power and Mumford, 1999). Marginalized young people perceive their realities outside education institutions and when the struggle is too great, see much quicker and more prestigious routes to success amongst peers in criminality

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(Davies, 1998). Yet, interventions aimed at redressing disadvantages still appear dependent on centrally prescribed and locally devaluing structures, regardless of local histories and diversities.

This analysis has discourse the essence and imperativeness of education to societal attainment. Notwithstanding, the findings regarding social class and educational attainment are harmonious no matter the bases of use. In general, children from higher socio-economic classes have much better educational life chances than children from lower classes. There is a very close relationship between social class and educational performance, regardless of how the education system has been organized. Educational systems can help or hinder the prospect of social mobility. Educational attainment has been shown to correlate with spending levels, so the higher the resource provision, the higher the attainments and the greater the educational life chances in that area. In the views of conflict theorists, schools train those in the working classes to accept their position as a lower-class member of society. The existence of the relationships between educational life chances is directly correlated with children intelligence as

measured by IQ test, and parental attitudes. Middle-class parents pass on through inheritance superior qualities that result in a better school performance for their children. The absence of deprivation is a major privilege for the children of the upper middle class and a misfortune for the working-class. Despite differences in the amount and types of involvement across demographic background, parental involvement and family school relations are positively associated with academic achievement and children's aspirations. Children allocated to higher sets and streams tend to improve their performance, yet the performance of children of similar initial measures ability who are placed in lower sets and streams deteriorates. Teachers also wrongly anticipate the knowledge or potential of specific classes of children. Sometimes more attention should be invested in the children who have more knowledge attributed to them. Even so, what is the point of positively discriminating in favour of socially disadvantaged children if their intelligence potential is fixed at a low point at birth and why try to compensate for social inequalities if individual inherited inequalities determine ability to take life chances? These are investigative questions.

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Education in Singapore

By Negora Khabibova



Singapore is an open and cosmopolitan city, and today plays host to more than 86,000 international students from 120 nationalities, promising a vibrant mix of cultures and ideas. Singapore's global economy is also home to over 7,000 multinational corporations and over 110,000 professional expatriates. This offers excellent networking and career opportunities in a myriad of industries, ranging from established sectors like engineering and finance, to new growth sectors, such as digital media and tourism.

There are 365 schools altogether, including primary schools, secondary schools, junior colleges, and mixed-level schools. There are different paths which lead to a university degree or a job. However, the first steps into the education system in Singapore usually start with pre-school. Singaporean children attend pre-school up to the age of six, getting prepared for primary school.

Singapore has evolved from its traditional British-based education system.

Colleges and schools offer a wide range of education programs to both local and international students. These private schools offer courses at the certificate, diploma, bachelor and postgraduate levels. They complement the public education institutions in offering additional education pathways to international and local students and add to the vibrancy of Singapore's education landscape. As of 2008, there are about 150,000 students studying in private schools in Singapore, out of which about 45,000 are international students. Private schools may also offer various external degree programs through partnerships with overseas universities from countries such as the US, UK and Australia, amongst others.

Singapore education is all about you. No matter what level, you'll have the flexibility to shape your study to suit your needs. This freedom; combined with tradition of excellence and an innovative approach to teaching makes Singapore education system recognized and respected all over the world.

Measuring Changes in Gender Inequality in Education of Indians

By Nidhi Sinha



Millennium Development Goal promotes universal primary education, gender equality and empowerment of women. Even the Indian Education System has strong record of promoting gender equality in Education. Eradication of illiteracy has been one of the major concerns of the Government of India since independence. The earliest national attempt for free and compulsory education was made by Gokhale in March 1910 (Balagopalan, 2004). After independence, India made a constitutional commitment to

provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14 (Govinda and Bandyopadhyay, 2008). As a result of this in 1986, an all India National Policy on Education 1986 was drafted prioritising elementary education and universal education. And by 93rd Amendment Act 2002 (earlier the 86th Amendment) free and compulsory education was made fundamental right for all children in the 6-14 age group (Balagopalan, 2004). Also, Government of India brought New Education Policy (1986), Operation Blackboard (1987), Subsequent Action Plan (1992), District

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Primary Education Programme (1990s), Mid Day Meal (MDM) Schemes (1995), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA, 2001), Right to Education Act (2009). These series of programs aim to achieve 'Universal Elementary Education'.

As a result of these programs significant improvements in literacy rates has been

witnessed from 18.33 percent in 1951 to 74.04 percent in 2011 (Source: Census of India,2011).With this gender inequality in literacy has also come down. Thus the paper tries to study change in gender inequality in education in its first part. And in the second part it will try to find out the areas where there is gender inequality in education process.

Changes in Literacy Rate (1951-2011)

For studying changes in Literacy Rate of India, data from Census of India over the time period 1951-2011 is used. Coefficient of Inequality (C.I.E.) is calculated to study inequality in literacy rate among males and females. Table 1 below shows following:

Table 1: Literacy rate in India (1951-2011)

Census Year	Persons	Males	Females	C.I.E.
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86	1.00
1961	28.3	40.4	15.35	0.89
1971	34.45	45.96	21.97	0.70
1981	43.57	56.38	29.76	0.61
1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	0.48
2001	64.83	75.26	53.67	0.33
2011	74.04	82.14	65.46	0.23

As a result to this, a new article 21 A in Part III of the constitution states that, 'The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such a manner as the state may, by law, determine' (Balagopalan, 2004).

Coefficient of Inequality (C.I.E.) is calculated based on article of Jandhyala B. G. Tilak titled "Inequality in Education by Sex in India". The formula adopted to measure inequality is as follows:

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$$KL = (L_m - L_f) / L$$

Here, KL represents the Coefficient of Inequality (C.I.E.) in literacy, L_m refers to rate of literacy among males, L_f the rate among females, and L denotes rate of literacy among all the people.

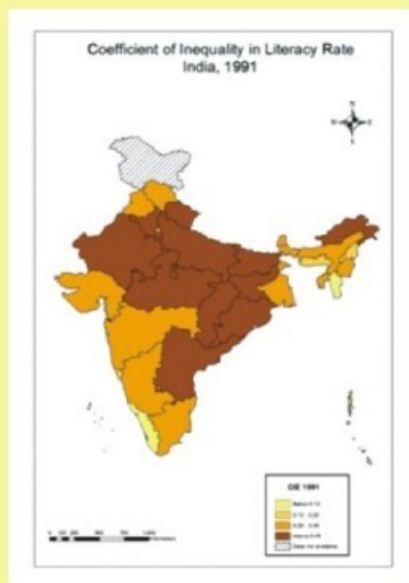
Source: Census of India, 2011

Notes: *Literacy rates for 1951, 1961 and 1971 Censuses relate to population aged five years and above. The rates for the 1981, 1991 and 2001 Censuses relate to the population aged seven years and above

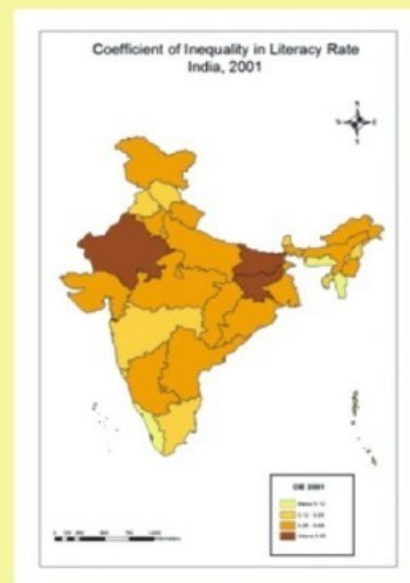
** 1981 Literacy rates exclude Assam and 1991 Literacy rates exclude Jammu & Kashmir:

Over the time period, improvement in female literacy rate has resulted in reduction in gender inequality in India. In 1951, literacy rate was 18.33 which have increased to 74.04 in 2011, marking an increase by 55.71 points. This is attributed to series of programmes initiated by Government of India (mentioned earlier). During the same time period C.I.E. also decreased from 1.00 to 0.23.

Even the successful implementation of these programmes has resulted in decline in gender inequality among Indian states and union territories during 1991-2011 (refer to Map 1, 2, and 3). C.I.E. presents a clear picture of inequality in literacy rate of Indian states. The maps clearly depict a picture of "NORTH and SOUTH DIVIDE" in inequality in literacy rate between male and female.



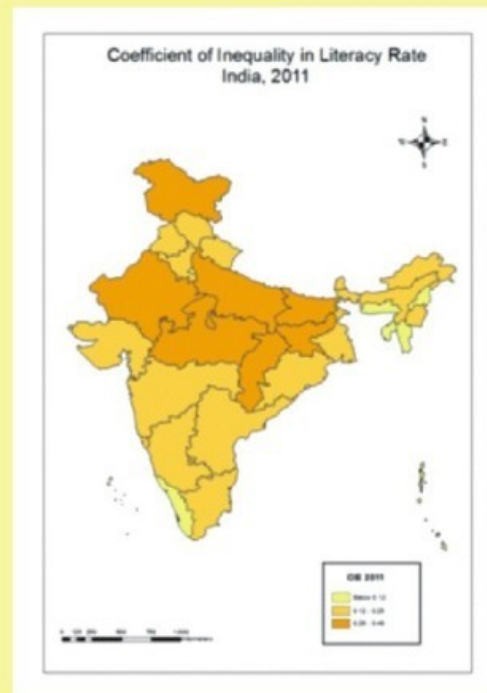
Map 1



Map 2

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Map 3



Source: Census of India, 1991, 2001 and 2011

There is less inequality in Southern and North eastern states. North Indian states of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Rajasthan, Bihar and Jharkhand have highest inequality which means comparatively less proportion of

females are literate compared to male. While Kerala and Mizoram have lowest inequality over the years 1991-2011. The value of CIE mostly depends upon following:

- **Development:** More developed states have lesser value of CIE which mean there is lesser inequality in literacy among male and female. While less developed states have higher value of CIE indicating higher inequality.
- **Implication of government policies:** With successful implementation of government policies like SSA, RTE, Mid Day Meal inequality has tremendously decreased among Indian states.

Critical Analysis

Where do we find gender inequality in education process?

The first section of the paper proves that there has been tremendous decline in gender inequality of literacy rate. But the question is that, Is this decline of literacy rate sufficient enough to explain every aspect of gender inequality in education? And the answer is no. It is evident that there is no meaning of high literacy rate until and unless

females of the country are empowered and enjoy equal rights and freedom as males. Therefore in this section various factors have been analysed to study gender inequality. Data source is NSS 64th Round, July 2007- June 2008. Analysis has been done for females and males in age group of 5- 29 years.

In India gender inequality is found in following:

- Educational level
- Choice of educational institution (public/private)
- Education expenditure
- Subject preference
- Private coaching
- Never enrolling/ Drop out

Table 2: Educational Level (in percent)

	Not Literate	Literate without any schooling	Literate without formal schooling	Below Primary	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Higher secondary	Diploma/ Certificate	Graduate	Post Graduate
Females	18.08	0.27	0.16	29.01	22.4	13.34	8.44	4.9	0.35	2.36	0.69
Males	9.81	0.22	0.15	30.91	23.18	15.84	10.01	5.99	0.72	2.54	0.62
Total	13.74	0.24	0.16	30.01	22.81	14.65	9.27	5.47	0.54	2.45	0.65
C.I.E.	-0.6	-0.22	-0.04	0.06	0.03	0.17	0.17	0.2	0.68	0.07	-0.12

Table 3: Choice of educational institution (in percent)

	Government	Local body	Private aided	Private unaided	Not known
Females	64.64	5.12	12.08	17.63	0.53
Males	61.62	4.37	12.59	20.79	0.63
Total	62.95	4.7	12.36	19.39	0.59
C.I.E.	-0.05	-0.16	0.04	0.16	0.17

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Table 4: Education expenditure in Rupees (in percent)

	Below 500	500-1500	1501-2500	2501-3500	Above 3500
Females	35.58	27.56	11.51	6.32	19.03
Males	30.66	27.05	12.29	7.23	22.78
Total	32.83	27.28	11.94	6.83	21.12
C.I.E	-0.15	-0.02	0.07	0.13	0.18

Table 5: Subject preference (in percent)

	General course (upto class X)	Arts/humanities	Science	Commerce	Medicine	Engineering	Other courses
Females	87.50	6.41	2.24	1.60	0.27	0.41	1.57
Males	85.78	6.40	3.09	1.80	0.10	1.07	1.76
Total	86.54	6.41	2.71	1.71	0.18	0.78	1.68
C.I.E	-0.02	0.00	0.31	0.12	-0.92	0.85	0.11

Table 6: Private coaching (in percent)

	Yes	No
Females	8.15	91.85
Males	10.55	89.45
Total	9.41	90.59
C.I.E.	0.26	-0.03

Table 7: Reasons for never enrolling/ drop out (in percent)

	Parent not interested in studies	Financial constraints	Child not interested in studies	Education not considered necessary	Completed desired level/c class	To attend other domestic chores	Unable to cope up or failure in studies	For participating in other economic activities	To work for wage/salary	Others
Females	22.11	17.84	10.62	8.07	7.9	7.57	6.11	1.33	1.31	17.15
Males	9.31	24.8	17.89	4.33	6.47	1.21	8.71	8.54	7.49	11.25
Total	15.83	21.25	14.19	6.23	7.2	4.45	7.38	4.86	4.34	14.26
C.I.E.	-0.81	0.33	0.51	-0.60	-0.20	-1.43	0.35	1.48	1.42	-0.41

Critical Analysis

Note: Tables computed from unit level data of NSS 64th Round, July 2007- June 2008. Row total equals to hundred (for males, females and total). Analysis is done on females and males of age group 5-29 years.

1. Educational level : According to NSS, 18 percent females are illiterate in the age group of 5- 29 years while only 9.81 percent males are found to be illiterate. It is observed that value of C.I.E. is negative in the category of not literate, literate without any schooling and literate without formal schooling. This is due to more proportion of females in these categories compared to males. An increase in value of C.I.E. from below primary till diploma/certificate level is noticed which signifies gender inequality in education level. While a negative C.I.E. value is observed at Post Graduate level (*see Table 2*).

2. Choice of educational institution : Among choice of educational institution C.I.E. value is found to be high and positive at private aided and private unaided. This shows males are preferred over females while sending to private institution. This also became evident from negative value of C.I.S at government and local body (*see Table 3*).

3. Education expenditure and Private coaching : Highest positive inequality is observed in the highest expenditure group.

While negative inequality is being observed at lowest two expenditure group. This indicate that more expenditure is made on males education (*see Table 4*). Even *Table 6*, points that mostly males are given private coaching.

4. Subject preference : A gendered subject choice clearly emerges from *Table 5*. Science, engineering and commerce courses are predominantly male in profile and courses with a care bias i.e. medicine are disproportionately female.

5. Never enrolling/ Drop out : Reason for never enrolling and drop out vary with gender. In Indian society males are trusted with economic duties while females are trusted with domestic duties. This division of work is reflected in reasons of non enrolment and drop out. For both, financial constraints play major role in non enrolment. *Table 7* makes it clear that mostly females are out of education system due to their parents. Their parents are not interested in their study. Females' education is not considered necessary and mostly they indulge in domestic chores. This is evident from high negative value of C.I.E.

Critical Analysis

What about males?

Focussing on female enrolment and retention may sometimes lead to negligence of male. They even suffer from high dropout rate which is mostly due to their participation in economic activity and work (see Table 7).

Conclusion and Recommendation

The above experiences demonstrate that there is under prevailing gender inequality in educational process of India. This can be overcome with effective policy implementation. Education processes should be transformative in terms of preparing students to question existing gender relations present in society. Even schools should act as a space where students should have opportunities for questioning, debating, seeing new perspectives, forming new

identities and relations without feeling threatened or weak. Focus of policy makers should be on enrolment, retention and completion issues.

Other major field which require attention is rural – urban divide. Amongst the rural women, essentially those from the lower socio-religious communities have the lowest access in particular. Provision of more colleges in the rural areas is necessary. It is important that rural women's access has to be considerably enhanced through their physical reach to already existing urban facilities. It is important to plan and design method to incorporate out of school children into some time bound programme for acquiring basic education. At last, Education policy makers need to ensure that gender equality is a real rather than a rhetorical priority.



Critical Analysis

Notes

1. For the paper 'females' refer to girls and women and 'males' refer to boys and men.
2. Negative value of Coefficient of Inequality (C.I.E.) signify proportion of female is more than male and positive value signify proportion of male is more than female. The larger is the value of C.I.E, more is inequality

and vice versa.

3. Non-formal Education Courses (NFEC) or Alternative Innovative Education Programme (AIEP), Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) or Adult Education Centres (AEC). These are informal schooling type. They comprises category of 'Literate without formal schooling'.

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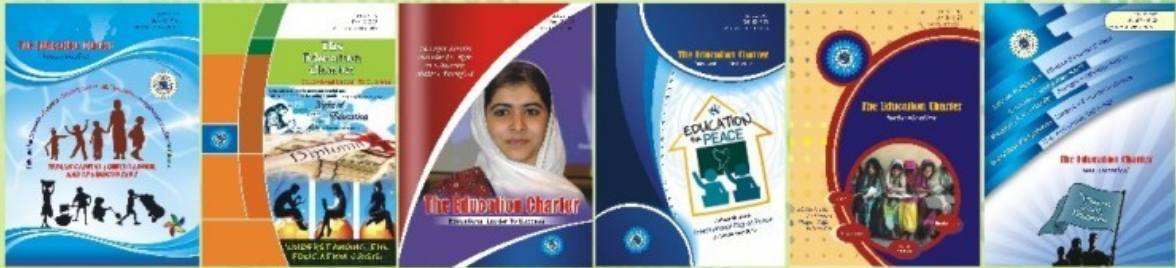
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