

Research at M.Phil. Level in Indian Universities

A REVIEW

LOKESH KOUL

BACKGROUND

The M.Phil. programme in India does not have a very long history, its seeds having been sown in Indian Universities only in the early 70s. Historically, its roots can be traced to as far back as 1969 when, in Meerut University, its first Vice-Chancellor, Dr. R.K. Singh, started M.Phil. courses in Education, Psychology, Agriculture Botany, Sociology, Mathematics, Botany and Physics in the Institute of Advanced Studies of the university. A couple of years later, in 1973, the Himachal Pradesh University also launched M.Phil. programme in the faculties of Science, Arts, and Commerce and Business Administration, after giving the programme a trial in 1972 with an M.Phil. programme in Education. Here again it was Dr. R.K. Singh, as its first Vice-Chancellor, who was the guiding spirit behind the experiment. In both the universities, Meerut and Himachal Pradesh, the course was primarily meant for professing and prospective college teachers. The minimum requirement for admission was a first or second class postgraduate degree in the subject concerned. In the case of second class postgraduate degree holders, candidates were required to have an overall second class academic career, taking into consideration high school, intermediate and graduate degree examinations.

Since there is a considerable influence of societal systems on education, the pioneers of the M.Phil. programme in Education felt that candidates with postgraduate degree in other disciplines would have a better understanding of the growth of social systems, how

other factors have influenced them, an interdisciplinary approach to the study of the problems of education would be fruitful for arriving at their solutions. In view of this, for the M.Phil. degree in Education candidates with a postgraduate degree in any discipline was admitted and no previous degree or diploma in education was a pre-requisite. However, students desirous of working towards an M.Phil. in Education without taking a previous degree in education were required to pass three core courses: (i) Logic and Philosophy of Social Sciences, (ii) Methodology of Research in Behavioural Sciences, and (iii) Measurement and Testing. In addition, these students had to offer four required courses: (i) Psychology of Learning, Teaching and Motivation, (ii) Social Foundations of Education, (iii) Comparative Study of Educational Systems, with special reference to India, the UK, USA, and USSR, and (v) Educational Technology; and three electives out of each of six groups: (i) Languages (Teaching of English, Hindi or Sanskrit); (ii) Social Sciences (Teaching of History, Geography, Economics or Civics); (iii) Sciences (Biological or Physical); (iv) Mathematics; (v) Programme Learning; and (vi) Teacher Behaviour. Though there was no provision for dissertation work, the students were required to develop a 'Research Proposal'. The latter was more or less a review exercise in the form of a running course. Its aim was to stimulate a questioning mind; promote an understanding and appreciation of the role of research in developing the theory and practice of education; develop an ability to identify problems from research source material; and competence to apply research findings in

educational practice. The M.Phil. degree was to be obtained in 12-18 months (12 months for regular students and 18 months for college teachers), mainly through course work and development of a research proposal followed by a written examination. The evaluation of the research proposal took the form of 'approved' or 'rejected', after an open, comprehensive viva voce test.

It appears that M.Phil. programmes in various disciplines in Indian universities, including those in the field of education, were started directly under Western influence. However, instead of copying any existing Western model, an attempt was made to develop our own. In this experiment, the M.Phil. degree in Education, as that in other disciplines, was intended to be a terminal degree for the vast majority of students and an intermediate one between the postgraduate and doctorate degrees for a very small minority. Its main objectives were to: (i) afford students an extra year in university after getting a postgraduate degree in education (M.Ed. or M.A.) for removing possible deficiencies in their previous training through wide-ranging but intensive and depth study; (ii) offer enriched and refresher courses to teachers working in degree and teacher-training colleges; (iii) encourage research talent and potential amongst university students as a majority of them were often just not equipped to cope with a research situation immediately after taking a postgraduate degree in Education; (iv) develop original and reflective thinking among college teachers and teacher-educators in the teacher training colleges, as their earlier education did not demand reflective and original thinking so essential for Ph.D. work; (v) provide training and orientation in understanding and appreciation of the role of research in the theory and practice of education; (vi) narrow the qualitative gap between colleges and universities; and (vii) provide a challenge to teachers, in the university teaching departments, generally engaged in teaching stereotyped courses in the traditional manner.

A significant twist to the programme was witnessed from 1976 to 1980 when the majority of Indian universities running M.Phil. programmes in Education made a postgraduate degree in education (M.A. or M.Ed.) a prerequisite for admission to an M.Phil. course in Education. This requirement was introduced because students who had completed their M.Phil. in Education without a postgraduate degree in education could not get employment either in colleges, teacher-training institutions, or departments of education of various universities. The volume of course work was also reduced

considerably by eliminating some courses which the students usually pursued at the under-graduate and postgraduate levels. Moreover, a full-fledged dissertation, in place of a mere research proposal, was introduced. The universities were persuaded to award marks for dissertation writing and its comprehension through a viva voce test. The argument which was advanced in favour of this shift is a convincing one, the mere development of a research proposal being considered a purely theoretical exercise. It was thought that the introduction of full-fledged dissertation work would provide practical orientation in terms of: (i) selecting and identifying problems from the priority areas of educational research by developing an ability to comprehend the essentials of reported research; (ii) collecting and analysing evidence and data for the solution of problems with the help of appropriate tools and techniques; (iii) descriptive reporting of findings based on rigorous application of reasoned criticism, (iv) developing an ability to apply research findings in educational practices.

PRESENT POSITION

Presently, an M.Phil. programme in Education with an emphasis on some core and specialized courses and research work in the form of a dissertation is being offered by some 18 Indian Universities in the country. However, the practice of developing a research proposal rather than a full-fledged dissertation is still prevalent in Meerut University.

It may be observed from the brief report in the *Commonwealth Universities Year Book*¹ that there is considerable competition for entry to M.Phil. courses in various disciplines, including Education, in the Indian Universities. There are two main reasons for this. First the UGC made an M.Phil. or Ph.D. an essential qualification for persons seeking appointment as lecturers in colleges. Secondly, many in service college teachers seek admission to M.Phil. courses either for earning future increments or for getting selection grades. But it is worth noting that a large majority of Indian universities have not so far started M.Phil. programmes. This may be due to the fact that provision of M.Phil. instruction depends upon a number of factors related to facilities in terms of adequate teaching staff, space and equipment in the teaching departments. Moreover, the most

¹ *Commonwealth Universities Year Book*, 1986, Vol., 3, p. 1438.

fervent advocates of M.Phil. courses have not been able to differentiate this programme distinctly from post-graduate degree programmes in terms of quality and excellence of courses and dissertation work.

CLASSIFICATION OF RESEARCH STUDIES IN DIFFERENT AREAS OF EDUCATION

Education derives its content from well-established disciplines of philosophy, psychology, sociology, economics and other social sciences, and the physical and biological sciences. In view of this, it is difficult to demarcate its boundaries and define its content areas distinctly and, hence, the classification of research studies into different areas is bound to entail some overlapping, vagueness and controversy. However, in order to minimize confusion for the purpose of this review, the research studies have been classified in the following fifteen areas: philosophy of education; sociology of education; history of education; comparative education; economics of education; learning, motivation and personality; guidance and counselling; evaluation, tests and examinations; curriculum, methods and textbooks; educational technology; correlates of achievement; teacher education; educational management and administration; non-formal education; and education of the exceptional. The area-wise distribution of the studies is presented in Table 31.1 provides an overall picture of the M.Phil. research completed across different areas of education from 1973 to 1987.

In order to provide a comprehensive picture, a complete list of research studies approved for the M.Phil. in Education in different universities has been drawn and is appended to this chapter. Out of the total 853 M.Phil. research studies, 252 are only 'research proposals', and 601 are full-fledged dissertations. As mentioned earlier, it is only under the M.Phil. programme of the Meerut University that students are required to submit only a research proposal. This practice was also prevalent in Himachal Pradesh University from 1973 to 1977 and was discontinued there from 1978. The present survey does not envisage a detailed review of all the 602 dissertations. As such, only some studies have been reported to indicate the nature, scope and trend of research in different classified areas.

Table 31.1

AREA-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDIES AT M.PHIL. LEVEL FROM 1973 TO 1987

Area	Number of Studies Completed during			Total
	1973-77	1978-82	1983-87	
1. Philosophy of Education	—	13	14	27 (20)
2. Sociology of Education	7	24	43	74 (56)
3. History of Education	1	6	17	24 (21)
4. Comparative Education	1	4	3	8 (7)
5. Economics of Education	1	9	9	19 (16)
6. Learning, Motivation and Personality	10	75	76	161 (117)
7. Guidance and Counselling	4	13	18	35 (24)
8. Evaluation, Tests and Examinations	2	15	23	40 (30)
9. Curriculum, Methods and Textbooks	—	13	51	64 (52)
10. Educational Technology	18	12	21	51 (30)
11. Correlates of Achievement	6	15	43	64 (48)
12. Teacher Education	13	45	79	137 (78)
13. Educational Management and Administration	6	35	51	92 (61)
14. Non-formal Education	—	8	21	29 (24)
15. Education of the Exceptional	4	7	17	28 (18)
Total	73	294	486	853 (601)

Note: Of the total number of studies undertaken in the concerned area, the number in parentheses indicates the number of the dissertations, the rest are only research proposals.

Philosophy of Education

In the area of philosophy of education 27 research studies at the M.Phil. level were reported during the periods 1973-87. This number is not impressive, especially considering the close relationship between education and philosophy and the fact that philosophy of education is one of the foundation courses in the discipline of Education.

From an examination of Table 31.1, it is evident that hardly any study in the area of philosophy of education was undertaken during 1973-77. In the next quinquennium, 1978-82, about a dozen of studies in this area were conducted. However, most of these are devoted mainly to the study of the philosophies of religious

saints and social reformers and their impact on some aspects of education (Kainth, 1979; Kewal, 1979; Singh, 1981; Anwar, 1982; Singh, 1982). Other studies during this period pertain to the concept of nationalism in educational philosophy as advocated by Tagore and Iqbal (Bharti, 1978); philosophical analysis of the concept of equality (Mathur, 1979); epistemological enquiry into the methods of educational research (Tyagi, 1980); and implications of existentialism in the context of theory and practice of modern education (Nanda, 1981).

The emphasis on research in the study of philosophical thoughts of religious saints, poets, social reformers and political thinkers in the context of education remained almost unchanged during the period 1983-87 (Ahanger, 1986; Mathin, 1986; Sahoo, 1986; Powar, 1987; Sahoo, 1987). Studies relating to Kant's theory of education in the context of preparing children for a better life (Palsbikar, 1985); a philosophical inquiry into environmental education (Bhol, 1986); the philosophy of higher education (Pradhan, 1986); the thoughts of Tagore and Gandhi (Jena, 1985); and that of Gandhi and Dewey (Kaur, 1986) in the comparative perspective were also conducted during this period.

The nature of the M.Phil. studies in the philosophy of education indicates that most of them either pertain to educational thought in the writings of Gandhi, Tagore, Iqbal, Sri Aurobindo, Dewey, etc., or to an historical survey of an idea or a set of educational ideas spread over a particular period, without any concern for a systematic and coherent account of educational philosophy. Generally, these studies have not contributed to the development of a theory of education from the Indian standpoint. Changing aims and values in education; philosophical issues of tradition and modernization; recent philosophical trends in curriculum construction and instructional strategies have been mostly neglected. Researches undertaking philosophical analysis of the problems of value-crises, indiscipline, unrest, disobedience of authority, national integration and international understanding are practically absent.

Sociology of Education

Although the sociology of education is now recognised as an important area of research, yet, in all, only 74 studies in this area at M.Phil. level were approved during 1973-87. It will be seen from Table 31.1 that the total number of studies completed in sociology of education during 1973-77 is very small. However, it soon picked up momentum and registered a phenomenal in-

crease during the decade 1978-87.

It is noteworthy that a large number of M.Phil. researching pertain to the study of various socio-psychology variables, including personality traits and adjustment, intelligence, creativity, socio-economic status, sex, achievement motivation, level of aspiration, self-concept, morality, mental health, attitudes, values, needs, family size, academic achievement, educational facilities, etc. of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, women, and slum dwellers and other disadvantaged communities (Kojam, 1978; Lal, 1979; Krishnaraj, 1980; Dass, 1981; Negi, 1981; Sahu, 1982; Bhalwal, 1983; Narania, 1983; Jamila, 1984; Mishra, 1984; Ravikirti, 1984; Pradhan, 1984; Tripathi, 1985; Chawla, 1986; Kaur, 1986; Sahoo, 1986; Dash, 1987; Naik, 1987; Tickoo, 1987). Most of these studies have either explored the relationship between various variables using a sample drawn from a particular disadvantaged community or made comparisons on some variables among the advantaged and disadvantaged groups in formal school, college and university settings. However, there are two studies which have been conducted in non-formal settings. One pertains to the attitudes and adjustment of tribal students in an ashram school (Chitnis, 1987) and the other relates to the inmates of an Observation Home for boys and girls (Rohini, 1987). In one experimental study, Sethi (1984) has explored the effect of effective treatment on the cognitive development of a group of children drawn from economically deprived families.

A few studies deal with specific social problems and issues at school, college and university level. These pertain to career stresses on research scholars (Aggrawal, 1978); causes of student unrest (Verma, 1979; Farooq, 1981); political awareness of college students (Sigamani, 1980); utilization of educational opportunities by scheduled castes (Garg, 1981); impact of development plans on Gojar and Non-Gojar students (Ganaie, 1981); attitude of students towards participation in politics, political democracy, etc. (Khatua, 1983; Premilae, 1987); incidence of drug taking among post-graduate resident girls (Tanwar 1985); and educational development of scheduled castes (Rajhans, 1985).

A number of studies on population and environment education and other related factors were also reported during 1983-87. One category of these studies pertain to attitudes of school teachers, university students, illiterates and neo-literates towards population education; population awareness; population dynamics; family size and structure; and marriage (Sharma, 1983; Kaur,

1984; Sethamarai, 1984; Narayana, 1986; Luthra; 1986). The relationship between various factors, viz., education, family size, social class, teacher-training, population awareness, number of siblings, birth order, etc., have been explored in other types of studies (Kaur, 1985; Saxena, 1985; Narayan, 1986).

Three studies pertaining to the education of women deal with the occupational and socio-economic background of women students at the university level (Sehgal, 1979); status of women education in Jammu & Kashmir State (Güpta, 1982); and incongruencies and tensions in the process of the education of girls in the context of modern urban India (Varinda, 1987).

The studies pertaining to the sociology of education have, so far, yielded few educational implications in the sociological perspective. Some important issues like social changes, population explosion and changes, demographic trends, and the impact of political and social pressures on the educational system in the Indian context, have been totally neglected. Moreover, no worthwhile attempt has been made to study the relation of education with the economy and polity; the educational needs of different communities in their social and cultural perspective; problems relating to tribal culture, the rural community, community development, industrialization and urbanization; educational aims, curriculum content, methods and techniques in the teaching-learning process conducive to socio-economic and politico-cultural situations prevailing in the country; problems of the classroom as a social system; and obstacles and constraints in the inculcation of democratic and secular values among children and youth.

History of Education

Research at the M.Phil. level pertaining to the history of education has received little attention. Only 24 studies at this level in this area have been conducted during 1973-87. The number of studies in this field reported during 1983-87 is more than double that for the decade 1973-82. The nature of the studies indicates that the emphasis has been mostly on the growth and development of education in different cities, districts or states in post-independence period. These include studies the development of school education (Chauhan, 1979; Kataria, 1980; Minerva, 1985; Patil, 1986; Ahmad, 1987); higher education (Kaur, 1979); education in general (Singh, 1979; Jadhav, 1984; Ramnarayan, 1986); teacher education (Akhtar, 1983); and art

education (Bose, 1987). However, a few studies pertain to the growth of education during the pre-independence period also (Nirmala, 1983; Sarawade, 1984; Muruganatham, 1987; Bhokta, 1987). A couple of studies relate to the development of education in the perspective of some foreign countries (Das, 1986; Pararajesingam, 1980). Only one study has explored the contribution of missionaries towards education in India (Melba, 1987).

Keeping in view the long heritage and multiplicity of social, cultural, linguistic and religious groups in India, the number of studies in the history of education at M.Phil. is quite small. Almost all the studies pertain to the historical development of education in a given area and within a small, specified period. The history of education in ancient India and medieval India has been completely ignored. Moreover, not a single study has been undertaken to explore the impact of industrialization on education; the impact of social, political and religious movements on education; education of women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes during a specified period and in a specified area; and the history of education in the content of urbanisation.

Comparative Education

Looking at the area-wise distribution of M.Phil. researches shown in Table 31.1, it is clear that the study of educational systems of different countries in comparative perspective has remained a neglected area. In all, eight studies in this area were undertaken during 1973-87. These studies include comparative studies of educational systems in Kenya and the Punjab State of India, (Kaushal, 1982); curriculum development strategies in the UK, USA and India at the higher secondary stage (Gakhar, 1980); administration of higher education in Thailand and India (Phangcham, 1981); status of continuing education in India and Britain (Suri, 1981); educational policies in Japan and India (Taploor, 1984); aims of higher education in India and Somalia (Sahal, 1985); and approaches to non-formal education in developing countries (Singh, 1985).

The trend of the studies in comparative education completed during 1973-87 indicates that there is hardly any study on crucial issues relating to education for development; education for multicultural societies; education of the socially, economically and culturally disadvantaged; vocationalization of education; education of ethnic minorities; non-formal education; teacher-education programmes; and distance education, con-

ducted in the comparative perspective. Moreover, comparative studies on different aspects of education covering different states and Union territories at the national level are also practically absent.

Economics of Education

The economics of education is an important area of educational research devoted as it is to applying the principles of efficiency of the educational system at different levels and to identifying the role of education in social and economic development. But the research effort at the M.Phil. level in this area does not present an encouraging picture as only 19 studies were completed during the period 1973-87. Table 31.1 indicates that only one study in this area was conducted in the first five years of the period, 1973-77, and that the number of studies in the entire decade of 1978-87 is only 18. Five of these studies deal with cost-benefit analysis, educational and unit costs, expenditure and investment. These include a study of the growth of Madurai Kamraj University with respect to institutional cost and enrolment (Nagendiran, 1981); unit cost and efficiency of certain colleges (Rajapushpam, 1981); parents' investment on primary education (Khaguli, 1984); private cost of elementary education of girls in a rural setting (Duggal, 1985); and growth rates of enrolment and expenditure (Kayarkanni, 1985).

Studies pertaining to other issues include correspondence education and economy (Gupta, 1978); the role of science and technology in economic growth (Srivastava, 1979); earning differentials among employees of selected sectors (Srinivasan, 1981); profiles and priorities in educational planning (Kumar, 1982); planning for compulsory elementary education (Jain, 1982); manpower planning and the position of professional education (Kaloo, 1983); factors affecting response to educational opportunities in a slum locality (Patwardhan, 1983); educational growth and economic growth (Dhanaraj, 1983); impact of free mid-day meal on education (Chinnappan, 1985); and trend analysis of educational growth and estimations of material requirements (Verma, 1985).

From a perusal of the studies in the economics of education, it is evident that practically no worthwhile endeavour has been made to study problems pertaining to human capital formation; manpower planning; education and economic development at state, regional and national levels; the role of central government, local bodies and private enterprise in education; expenditure

in primary, secondary, higher, technical and professional education at the state and national levels; disparities in financing education in the states and trends in educational expenditure; evaluation of low-cost alternative systems of education; educated unemployment; and the economics of educational reforms and innovations.

Learning, Motivation and Personality

Learning, motivation and personality are at the core of educational psychology. Because of the application of theories of learning and motivation in the teaching-learning process involving personality characteristics and adjustment of learners and teachers, the number of research studies pertaining to these themes has been greater in comparison with other areas. It will be seen from Table 31.1 that 161 studies in this area were completed during 1973-87. The number of studies in the first five-year period, 1973-77, is significantly low. However, it increased considerably in the decade 1978-87.

The studies may be classified in various categories. One category relates to learning and development (Amreeta, 1979; Kour 1981; Kang, 1984; Panigrahi, 1984; Rajeshwari, 1984; Shahi, 1984; Kumari, 1985; Pani, 1985; Swain, 1985; Tawade, 1985; Ahmad, 1986; Pandh, 1986; Pavithran, 1986; Zambre, 1986; Kour, 1987). A new trend in the study of cognitive development processes in the Piagetian perspective has also caught the attention of a few researchers (Katiyar, 1978; Sunderarajan, 1981; Chikara, 1984; Mishra, 1985; Sapra, 1986; Gupta, 1987). Although no systematic attempt seems to have been made to study the role of motivation in learning, some studies of a descriptive nature have been conducted in this area (Dutt, 1979; Raina, 1979; Isher, 1980; Mahapatra, 1980; Sareen, 1980; Deka, 1983; Kour, 1984; Kohli, 1984; Malhotra, 1985; Sandhu, 1985; Chahal, 1987).

A second category pertains to descriptive surveys and correlational studies of learner characteristics and environmental variables, viz., intelligence, personality traits, and adjustments, creativity, values, needs, self-concept, anxiety, aggression, self-esteem, locus of control, interests, frustration, attitudes, socio-economic status, family environment, residential background, mental health, level of aspiration, etc. (Sahu, 1978; Dagaur, 1978; Singh, 1977; Nutan, 1979; Khurana, 1979; Ambardar, 1979; Mohan, 1979; Sharma, 1979; Soloman, 1979; Vaid, 1979; Maitra, 1980; Chawla, 1980; Gautam, 1980; Mohanta, 1980; P. ... ndi.

1980; Sareen, 1980; Verma, 1980; Trakroo, 1980; Kundu, 1981; Meena, 1981; Kumar, 1981; Mehta, 1981; Tripathi, 1981; Ahmad, 1986; Gupta, 1982; Patel, 1982; Seenapati, 1982; Padham, 1982; Suresh, 1982; Sushil, 1982; Gandotra, 1982; Khan, 1982; Magray, 1982; Kiran, 1982; Bhat, 1982; Panda, 1983; Pattanayak, 1983; Verma, 1983; Razdan, 1983; Kumari, 1983; Dixit, 1983; Sharma, 1983; Koul, 1984; Jena, 1984; Mohanty, 1984; Sahoo, 1984; Varimee, 1984; Kak, 1984; Dhar, 1984; Ahuja, 1984; Odyuo, 1985; Singh, 1985; Thilaka, 1985; Saproo, 1985; Bai, 1986; Mohanti, 1986; Dalbehera, 1987; Mishra, 1987; Devi, 1987; Chopra, 1987). A few studies in this category also relate to personality patterns of various socio-metric groups (Kohli, 1984; Singh, 1985; Gill, 1986).

A third category of experimental studies is concluded with the effect of oral and written advance organizers on learning from text (Barik, 1980); the effect of verbal classroom behaviour of different types of teachers on retention (Zarger, 1982); the effect of instructional questions on retention (Rana, 1983); the management of test anxiety by reciprocal inhibition therapy (Malika, 1984); the effect of yoga technique on speed on learning (Chhatra, 1985), and the effects of different models of concept attainment on the achievement of students with different cognitive styles (Prasad, 1986).

Although the number of the research studies in the areas of learning, motivation and personality is significantly large, they seem to have few educational implications for the teaching-learning process in the Indian context. Moreover, hardly any study in these areas involving longitudinal and case study approaches has been undertaken. Work motivation of students and teachers; efficacy of programmes for enhancing achievement motivation among students; concept formation and curriculum designing for different grade-levels; effectiveness of programmes for enhancing school adjustment of students through environmental variations; cultural communication; and mental health of students have been practically neglected.

Guidance and Counselling

Due to an increasing demand for guidance and counselling services in schools, colleges and universities, the guidance movement in India has picked up considerable momentum. However, research in this area at the M.Phil. level is hardly satisfactory. It may be seen from Table 31.1 that, in all, 35 studies in the area of guidance and counselling were undertaken during 1973-87. Most

of these pertain to occupational aspirations, choices and preferences (Archana, 1980; Singh, 1981; Sidhu, 1983; Ahmad, 1987); vocational attitudes, interests and maturity (Kumar, 1979; Takshak, 1984; Misra, 1984; Mangat, 1984; Porus, 1985; Sindhu, 1985; Singh, 1985); study habits (Seetharam, 1977; Singh, 1979; Sharma, 1979); subject choices (Kaur, 1983; Lamba, 1985); and educational aspirations (Verma, 1982; Kaur, 1984) of students at the school level. Two studies deal with the theme of counselling at the school level. One relates to the impact of counselling on neglectees and isolates (Rather, 1981) and another to the effect of individual counselling on the achievement of bright under-achievers (Khan, 1987). There is only one study on an evaluative nature pertaining to the evaluation of the personnel services of Delhi University (Sathe, 1981). The studies on psycho-social correlates of job-satisfaction of anganwadi workers (Lekhi, 1986); vocationalization at the +2 stage in India (Samarakoon, 1986); and education, occupation and morale of railway employees (Ganesan, 1987) are also worth mentioning.

A perusal of research studies in the area of guidance and counselling over 1983-87 at M.Phil. level reveals certain serious gaps. There is hardly any study pertaining to the evaluation and follow-up of guidance and counselling activities, and guidance personnel preparation programmes. Studies on the effectiveness of individual counselling in relation to specific problems of students at the school, college and university levels have been practically neglected. No worthwhile research effort seems to have been made for exploring the guidance and counselling needs of school, college and university students; the educational and vocational needs of exceptional children, handicapped children and children belonging to disadvantaged communities; and the implications of vocationalization at the +2 stage.

Evaluation, Tests and Examinations

Although problems pertaining to evaluation, tests and examinations at different levels of instruction are of vital importance at the national level, yet the number of studies in this area at M.Phil. level is not impressive. Table 31.1 indicates that only 40 studies have been reported during the period 1973-87. Only two studies were undertaken in the first five-year period, 1973-77, and the rest of during the decade 1978-87.

In the studies relating to test development the emphasis has been on tests measuring locus of control

(Mohapatra, 1981); socio-economic status (Visvas, 1982); vocational interests (Selvamuthu, 1982); creativity (Shan, 1983); attitudes (Pradhan, 1985); achievement; and norm referenced and criterion referenced tests (Bala, 1985; Singh, 1985; Dash, 1985; Godbole, 1985; Kulkar 1987). Construction of diagnostic tests and preparation of appropriate remedial instructional programmes have also caught the attention of a few researchers (Pingle, 1986; Jagtap, 1986; Borude, 1986; Angal, 1987; Wagh, 1987).

Some significant issues and problems concerning several aspects of evaluation and the examination system have also been explored. These include studies pertaining to re-evaluation at the university stage (Patel, 1978; Singh, 1980); innovations in the examination system at school or university stage (Bhatnagar, 1978; Bhardwaj, 1979); internal and external systems of evaluation (Gupta, 1978; Gupta, 1981); question banks in different school subjects (Ahmad, 1986); and evaluation procedure at the primary stage (Par 1a, 1986).

A couple of investigations of an experimental nature pertain to the effects of unit tests on retention, achievement motivation and the test anxiety of school students (Bhadwal, 1979); the effect of continuous evaluation and feedback on achievement (Srivastava, 1982); and the comparative effectiveness of verbal and non-verbal methods of assessment and acceleration on the development of the concept of number among young children (Gupta, 1983).

From a perusal of the studies it is evident that the focus of research in test development has been almost exclusively on secondary school students. At the school level also there is hardly any test which has been constructed specially for use on children living in hill, backward and tribal areas. Studies relating to the problems of mass copying and the use of other unfair means in examinations; the grade system of marking; orientation of paper setters; setting of good question papers and evaluation of answer-books; reliability and validity of external examinations and school, college and university levels, use and effectiveness of unannounced tests; the semester system; formative evaluation; and evaluation in the context of non-formal and distance education are practically absent.

Curriculum, Methods and Textbooks

The role of curriculum, teaching methods and textbooks is well recognized in the total teaching-learning process. Meaningful research in these areas provides a

sound basis for developing well-designed curriculum, preparing good textbooks, and evolving effective instructional strategies. But the research in this area received very little attention in the decade 1973-82. It is evident from Table 31.1 that the number of studies increased quite speedily in the quinquennium 1983-87. In all, 64 studies at M.Phil. level on curriculum, methods and textbooks were conducted during the period 1973-87.

In the context of curriculum research, a number of researchers have analysed the curriculum at school, college and university levels in different subjects in various parts of the country (Gupta, 1981; Rajdan, 1982; Ibrahim, 1982; Awaneendra, 1982; Selvaraju, 1985; Jothi, 1986; Pandya, 1986; Reddy, 1986; Chetanlal, 1987; Nongrum, 1987). A few studies pertain to curriculum analysis and development of professional courses (Jayalakshmi, 1978; Bhat, 1982; Yadav, 1983; Dora, 1984; Puri, 1985; Dandavate, 1986; Behari, 1987).

On the understanding that a curriculum programme is brought into action through appropriate instructional strategy, some researches studying the comparative effectiveness of different techniques and methods have also been undertaken. These studies cover the efficacy of the discussion-cum-demonstration method (Pathania, 1985); the Piagetian model (Senapaty, 1985); the Bruner and Ausubel models (Kaur, 1986); the information processing model (Kaur, 1986); the non-directive model (Sahani, 1986); reception and selection oriented models of concept attainment (Sohani, 1986); the jurisprudential inquiry model (Gangrade, 1987); the inductive thinking model (Hota, 1987); and the advance organiser model (Rajoria, 1987) on the achievement and learning of students in comparison with the efficacy of conventional methods of teaching. The effects of brainstorming on divergent thinking (Sharma, 1980) and development of creativity using synetics (Venkataraman, 1985) have also been studied.

A number of studies relating to evaluation of prescribed textbooks in different subjects have also been undertaken (Sneh Prabha, 1979; Patyal, 1980; Sharma, 1980; Kour, 1982; Sharma, 1982; Aggarwal, 1984; Rajeshwari, 1984; Gawari, 1985; Kaur, 1985; Dhanesekaran, 1985; Kulkarni, 1985; Padma, 1985; John, 1986; Joshi, 1986; Merchant, 1986; Nannar, 1986; Samal, 1987). Only one study pertains to evaluation of elementary school mathematics textbooks in relation to Piagetian development stages (Bajwa, 1986).

A perusal of the research studies conducted during

the last 15 years in the area of curriculum at M.Phil. level indicates that very few relate to real issues and problems of curriculum development at school, college and university levels. There is hardly any study on the development of a need-based curriculum for the non-formal stream of education. Field experimentation and long-term follow-up studies with a focus on teaching methods and strategies and actual classroom processes have been practically ignored. Most of the studies relating to teaching methods have compared some innovative methods or models with the vaguely described conventional 'chalk and talk' method only to brand the former more effective, without going into the reasons for their efficacy. Moreover, the focus of the all these studies has been almost exclusively on secondary schools; there is hardly any study which pertains to teaching methods at college or university level. The studies in the area of textbook evaluation have been mostly conducted in isolation of curriculum research and actual classroom practices, experiences and needs.

Educational Technology

The concept of educational technology has now broadened to include a spectrum of operations, strategies and formats pertaining to both formal and non-formal systems of education. The research studies in this area are not, therefore, confined to the theme of programmed instruction but also to the use of hardware like radio, projectors, television, CCTV, and other instructional strategies and techniques in formal and non-formal settings. At the M.Phil. level, a good beginning in terms of the number of studies was made from the very beginning and progress though slow has remained steady throughout the periods 1972-83. Table 31.1 indicates that, in all, 51 studies in the area of educational technology have been undertaken during this period.

A perusal of the studies indicates that most of the studies were confined to the field of programmed learning. One category of such studies pertains to development and validation of different styles of programmed instructional material (Goyal, 1979; Joshi, 1979; Devi, 1980; Gupta, 1980; Dhanbir, 1984; Sahoo, 1984; Raj, 1984; Nayal, 1985). A second category includes the development of different styles of programmed instructional materials and the study of their effect on achievement in comparison with instruction through the conventional approach of teaching or textbook material presentation (Brahma, 1983; Parida, 1984; Thatte, 1984). A third category of studies is confined to the de-

velopment of different types of programmed instructional material and a study of their effects on various psychological variables, viz., locus of control; academic achievement, creativity, intelligence, academic motivation, and personality characteristics (Arora, 1979; Gupta, 1980; Sharma, 1981; Rath, 1983; Senapati, 1986).

A few studies relate to effects of mastery learning strategies on certain variables. These include the effects of Bloom's mastery learning strategy on self-concept and achievement motivation (Singh, 1978), retention (Chand, 1981), attitudes (Sharma, 1983); comparison of the effectiveness of Bloom's strategy and Keller's Personalized system of instruction on achievement (Sethi, 1985; Guru, 1987).

The role of hardware, mass media and distance education has also been explored in few studies: the effect of instruction through a tape recorder on memorising ability and pronunciation of nursery children (Dhamija, 1981); relative effects of an ETV programme and conventional teaching on achievement and attitude in relation to socio-economic status and intelligence (Mishra, 1983); the concept of secularism and the role of mass media in its dissemination (Rishi, 1984); organization of school broadcast programmes and their utilization in education (Giri, 1986); the role of distance education in India and abroad (Sanghavi, 1986); attitude of students towards country-wide Doordarshan programmes (Chakravarty, 1987); and use of the computer as an instructional tool (Bhattacharya, 1987).

An examination of the studies conducted during the period 1973-87 at M.Phil. level shows that programmed learning has been the main focus of research in the area of educational technology. There is hardly any study of educational programmes broadcast by radio and T.V., especially of those for the education of disadvantaged groups in rural and far flung hill areas of the country and the designing of self-instructional material specially for the use of children studying at non-formal centres and children of mobile tribes. There have been no studies on systems analysis and cybernetics; computer education; the use of educational technology in the universalization of education, vocationalization, mass literacy, open-learning, and higher forms of intellectual activities relating to decision-making processes, effective management.

Correlates of Achievement

Academic achievement is considered mainly a function

of cognitive variables which include intelligence and aptitude, and a fairly large amount of achievement variance is attributed to these cognitive variables. But in recent years there has been a growing realization among the researchers that non-cognitive variables, viz., personality traits and adjustment, interests, values, needs, attitudes etc. must also be assessed in order to diminish the margin of error in the prediction of academic achievement. Hence, research in correlates of achievement assumed special significance with a view to deriving maximum benefit for curriculum development, effective instruction and better academic achievement. The number of studies pursuing this objective at M.Phil. level in the decade 1973-82 was fairly low. However, it increased significantly during 1983-87.

Table 31.1 indicates that 64 studies in the area of correlates of achievement were undertaken in 1973-87. Most of these are descriptive and pertain to the relationship between academic achievement either with various personality characteristics and adjustment (Patel, 1978; Kaur, 1980; Chander, 1982; Kour, 1984; Kumari, 1984; Parmar, 1985; Saryu, 1985) or with some of the other psychological variables like intelligence, creativity, memory, achievement motivation, study habits, attitudes, values, interest and anxiety (Balachandran, 1977; Kalra, 1982; Kaur, 1983; Bisht, 1983; Sohe, 1983; Gajria, 1984; Kumar, 1984; Debi, 1984; Pattnaik, 1984; Kumari, 1985; Nesa, 1985; Rawat, 1985; Joshi, 1987).

The influence of variables relating to environment, school and family on academic achievement has been studied by a number of researchers. These variables include socio-economic status, educational and cultural level of the family, family size, birth order, institutional climate and facilities, single teacher and multi-teacher schools and teacher behaviour (Sharotri, 1979; Kaur, 1980; Sahoo, 1981; Swain, 1981; Numuk, 1983; Das, 1983; Imchen, 1983; Chakraborti, 1984; Mathew, 1984; Misra, 1984; Shekhar, 1985; Shaiq, 1986; Kaur, 1987). A couple of studies pertain to factorial analysis of certain variables directly or indirectly related to academic achievement (Shishu, 1981; Kour, 1982).

The phenomenon of over- and under-achievement and scholastic backwardness has also been explored in some studies (Kaur, 1980; Dhillon, 1983; Mujawar, 1986; Gupta, 1986; Dhawan, 1987; Butt, 1987).

There has been hardly any research at M. Phil. level which pertains to effectiveness of instructional strategy, curriculum designing or evaluation procedures in rela-

tion to academic achievement. Moreover, studies involving in-depth experimentation or case study approaches for identifying under-achievement and suggesting remedial measures have been practically ignored.

Teacher Education

Teacher education refers to total educative process of preparing an individual for a teaching job. It includes various training and orientation programmes, both pre-service and in-service, offered by teacher's training institutions, universities and other organizations like the NCERT and SCERT. Research into the goals of teacher education and means of achieving them contribute significantly to qualitative improvement of education at various level.

Research in the area of teacher education at the M.Phil. level during the first quinquennium, 1973-77 made a modest beginning. However, it received a significant impetus in the decade 1978-87. The total number of studies, in this area during the period 1973-87, as indicated in Table 31.1 is 137. Most of the studies are descriptive and pertain to characteristics and various problems and issues, e.g. adjustment problems, attitudes, academic qualifications, morale, marital status, values, job satisfaction, achievement, self-concept, creativity, intelligence, professional growth and ethics, social status, role conflict, and mental health of different categories of pre-service and in-service teachers (Preneja, 1978; Kumari, 1978; Sharma, 1979; Bala, 1980; Sharma, 1980; Mehta, 1980; Dutta, 1980; Chandel, 1981; Safaya, 1981; Brehmbhatt, 1981; Aruldoss, 1981; Kour, 1982; Kumari, 1982; Patel, 1983; Bhat, 1983; Patel, 1984; Bhatia, 1984; Sarangi, 1984; Kamble, 1984; Nanda, 1985; Amorn, 1986; Dhar, 1986; Milton, 1986; Maner, 1986; Shete, 1987; Balakrishna, 1987; Gupta, 1987).

Teacher effectiveness in relation to creativity, emotional maturity and self-acceptance (Patel, 1980); Psychological traits (Kumar, 1982); self-actualization (Kashyap, 1982); teaching skills (Chawla, 1982; Patel, 1983); life satisfaction (Kaur, 1984); schools showing good and poor results (Kumar, 1985); and attitude towards teaching and professional commitment (Thampan, 1987) have also been studied.

Some studies deal with teacher behaviour in the context of socio-economic status in the rural background (Solomon, 1977); teaching of languages and social studies (Kaushal, 1978; Thakur, 1980; Sharma, 1982);

teaching aptitude (Kumari, 1982); general anxiety (Vasudev, 1979); teacher morale (Singh, 1981); creativity (Behera, 1982; Kumar, 1986); lecturing at school and college levels (Mishra, 1983); and questioning (Kaur, 1985).

A few experimental studies pertain to the efficacy of various teaching strategies and models in relation to the development of teaching competence and skills and student achievement. These include studies of the comparative effect of immediate and delayed feedback and sequence of skills on general teaching competence of pre-service teachers (Sharma, 1978); effect of modular instruction on the development of certain teaching skills among in-service teachers (Amirdhasagaram, 1979); effect of the Diode Model of Integration of Skills on general teaching competence of pre-service teachers (Naik, 1980); impact of micro-teaching training of in-service teachers on students' achievement (Behera, 1984); effectiveness of the Inquiry Training model on teaching competence of in-service teachers; and efficacy of micro-teaching on teaching competence in languages (Gupta, 1984; Mishra, 1984); effectiveness of training strategy in the learning concept attainment model at B.Ed. level (Bihari, 1986; Das, 1986); and relative effects of models like holist versus partist training strategies in the jurisprudential enquiry model, advance organizer model etc. (Mohanty, 1987; Patel, 1987; Satapathy, 1987).

Hardly any study on the effectiveness of integrated teacher-training programmes run by some institutions in the country composed to most existing teacher-training programmes has been undertaken at M.Phil. level. Also, no worthwhile attempt seems to have been made to study the impact of training teachers with various innovative teaching strategies and models on the learning, attitudes and other important characteristics of students. There are practically no studies of creative teaching, problems of teacher recruitment, service conditions of teachers of private aided schools, working conditions of women teachers, especially in rural and hill areas, and problems of single-teacher schools.

Educational Management and Administration

Research relating to the problems and issues of educational management and administration has received very little attention at the M.Phil. level in the period 1973-77. However, research on these topics took great strides in the next quinquennium, 1978-82; and this progress continued with the same momentum during

the later years, from 1983 to 1987. As noted in Table 31.1, 92 studies were reported during 1973-87 in the area of educational management and administration which may be classified in various categories.

One category includes studies that deal with problems and evaluation of administrative and organisational structures (Kalpana, 1979; Joseph, 1980; Kuppusamy, 1980; Shukla, 1982; Kumar, 1982; Puri, 1982; Wairji, 1982; Kadam, 1983; Sopechi, 1984; Gupta, 1984; Balich, 1985; George, 1985; Begam, 1985; Bhawe, 1985; Kotikela, 1985; Nayak, 1987). A second category of studies are concerned with issues of supervision, planning, finance, leadership behaviour, role perception, teaching, institutional activities, and educational needs and opportunities (Rani, 1980; Singh, 1980; Fehmeeda, 1980; Kokoty, 1981; Sudha, 1981; Baurai, 1982; Shinde, 1982; Chauhan, 1983; Rahek, 1984; Sawant, 1984; Deshmukh, 1984; Misra, 1984; Vaidya, 1985; Korde, 1986; Ahire, 1986; Kraeusing, 1987; Nair, 1987; Nayak, 1987).

The studies on the organizational, school and classroom climate in relation to various variables belong to third category (Gupta, 1980; Sharma, 1980; Aggarwal, 1981; Sharma, 1982; Santhapan, 1983; Murugesan, 1983; Puri, 1985; Pradhan, 1986; Jyoti, 1987; Chopra, 1987; Shah, 1987). A fourth category of studies investigates problems of wastage, stagnation, detention, dropouts and indiscipline (Sud, 1984; Sharad, 1984; Rawool, 1984; Thomas, 1985; Patil, 1985; Chontre, 1986; Masooda, 1987).

A fifth category of studies pertains to management and organization of special types of programmes and institutions. It include studies of balwadis (Banu, 1980); balvikas programmes (Sambhi, 1980); the school complex system (Sharma, 1980); the system of education in *maktabs* and *madarsas* (Fahim, 1984); formal and informal processes of education in rural settings (Nazki, 1987).

The nature of the studies conducted in the area of educational management and administration indicates that no worthwhile endeavour has been made to study the implications of role conflict in educational institutions; factors influencing the universalization of education, non-enrolment and dropouts in the context of the children of deprived and disadvantaged communities; implications of various laws and acts relating to education; role of students' and teachers' unions; issues relating to a code of conduct for teachers; problems in development of leadership qualities among teachers and students; institutional viability in terms of curriculum

content and offering; constraints in the effective administration and management of colleges and universities; problems in management of vocational courses in secondary schools; motivational characteristics relating to effective management at school, college and university levels; issues relating to management of distance education; role of universities in social and economic development; and the implications of students participation in decision-making bodies of colleges and universities.

Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education programmes in the form of adult education, social education, lifelong education, extension education etc. have been in operation in India for many years. In recent years, it has attained a special significance in view of the current emphasis on universalization of education and mass literacy, but there have been very few research studies on this subject at M. Phil. level. In all, 29 studies in this area were reported during 1973 and 1987. Reference to Table 31.1 will show that hardly any study in non-formal education was undertaken during 1973-77 and that the number of studies conducted during 1983-87 is more than double the number of those undertaken during 1978-82. These research studies are confined mostly to two distinct categories; adult education and non-formal education for children.

The studies in adult education mostly pertain to its growth and development in various parts of the country (Kaur, 1982; Gupta, 1983; Acharya, 1985; Kalia, 1985); evaluation of the working and functionality of adult education programmes in different states (Joshi, 1979; Multani, 1982; Paintal, 1986; Gill, 1987); objectives, learning experiences, value orientation and learning needs of adult learners (Krishan, 1980; Mann, 1980; Mishra, 1983; Bahera, 1984); development of experience on using the metric system in teaching mathematics to neo-literates (Chopra, 1984); organizational problems faced by instructors in rural, urban and tribal adult education centres (Das, 1985); attitudes of participants and dropouts a comparative perspective (Tirpathi, 1985); construction of need-based curriculum for rural adults (Gill, 1980), and training programmes for adult education functionaries (Naik, 1979; Sahasrabudhe, 1984).

Studies on non-formal education of children are very few in comparison to those on adult education. These studies are confined to comparison of interests and

achievement of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children with those of other children in non-formal education centres (Imrapur, 1987); evaluation of non-formal education centres in different parts of the country (Gupta, 1982; Satyanarayana, 1984); and future needs of non-formal education in Thailand from 1984 to 1994 (Nuancharean, 1985).

Hardly any worthwhile systematic effort has been made at M.Phil. level to study the philosophy and objectives of non-formal education in the Indian context; the needs, characteristics and interests of participants in non-formal education programmes; problems and issues pertaining to curriculum, learning materials, use of media, and instructional aids; development of need-based curricula for children and adults belonging to disadvantaged groups; management and administration of non-formal education programmes; training and orientation of functionaries of these programmes; efficacy of non-formal education programmes in terms of learning outcomes and motivation of the learners through case-study and follow-up approaches; and development of interdisciplinary approaches and strategies for the successful implementation of non-formal education programmes.

Education of the Exceptional

The area of education of the exceptional is confined to the education of the groups of children who are either handicapped in some way or are especially gifted, either generally or with regard to specific abilities. Children may be handicapped physically, mentally or socially. Gifted children are bright and exceptionally fast learners. They are high in intelligence, special abilities or creativity.

Research in the area of education of the exceptional has attained special significance in the recent years. However, the number of research studies in this area at M.Phil level, as evident from Table 31.1, is very small. Only 28 studies were conducted during 1973-87. Some of these pertain to physically disabled children (Devi, 1985; Murugesan, 1987; Rajaguru, 1987; Patil, 1987). Studies relating to socially handicapped children include causes of delinquency in relation to intelligence and socio-economic status (Singh, 1979); characteristics of problem children (Dogra, 1981; Kour, 1987); levels of intelligence and scholastic achievement in relation to delinquency proneness (Shamshada, 1984); development of prison education (Daniel, 1987); and problems of children in orphanages (Onyango, 1984).

There is also a study of the concept disability (Saha, 1987) and one on learning and behavioural characteristics of disabled children (Panda, 1983).

The studies relating to gifted children include those on an enrichment programme in biology for talented youth (Vashishtha, 1979); the social and academic problems of creative teenagers pursuing different curricula (Roy, 1982); parental attitudes and personality types of gifted children (Khan, 1986); and adjustment problems of creative male and female children (Dhar, 1987).

Studies pertaining to evaluation of educational programmes for physically, socially and mentally handicapped children; rehabilitation of delinquents and destitutes; development of instructional and learning materials for physically and mentally handicapped children; orientation and training of teachers and specialists for educating various types of teachers and specialists for educating various types of handicapped children; development of the tools for early identification of those exceptionally gifted in intelligence, special abilities and creative thinking, especially among the children of disadvantaged communities; designing enriched curriculum for different types of talented children; and community awareness and motivation for educating the physically, mentally and socially handicapped children, are practically absent.

OVERVIEW

A clear-cut and definite trend emerges from this review of research studies. Our analysis reveals some significant insights concerning the direction, scope and quality of the research which has been undertaken in different areas of education in various universities at M.Phil. level during 1973-87. These are set out below.

1. Research output at the M.Phil. level, in general, is marked by mediocrity and poor quality. The research topics are not significantly different in depth, scope and relevance from those researched at the postgraduate (M.A. or M.Ed) level. This trend may be attributed to the following:

(i) The real burden of implementing the M.Phil. programme in all disciplines, including education, fell mainly on those who were themselves not fully aware of its true purpose and objectives. As mentioned earlier, the main objectives of this programme were: (a) to provide for students an extra year at the university immediately after their postgraduate degree for wide-ranging

and intensive study with a view to removing any possible deficiencies in their previous training; and (b) to encourage research potential among those who exhibited real ability and competence for Ph.D. work. In other words, this programme was, in a major way a 'Talent Search Scheme for identifying students with a genuine aptitude for research. Thus the course, in the true spirit, was intended to be a terminal degree for a majority of the students and an intermediate one for a selected few. However, owing to lack of awareness of these broad objectives among the teaching faculties responsible for running the courses, the inherent purpose of introducing the programme was lost at the very beginning. The situation worsened further when every student enrolled for the M.Phil. was considered as a potential Ph.D., with all the necessary abilities and expertise for pursuing research. Consequently, the M.Phil. became an examination-oriented degree, like any other postgraduate (M.A. or M.Ed) degree in Education.

(ii) The linking of the M.Phil. degree with college teaching posts encouraged universities, one after the other, to introduce this course in every discipline, including education. To cope with the situation, M.Phil. courses were framed in a hurried manner by university teaching departments, borrowing the models of universities which had already introduced the programme and, in this process, the real objectives of the M.Phil. course were sacrificed wholly or partially. In fact, no serious thought was given by the teaching faculties in providing a sound and appropriate theoretical framework and rigorous practical orientation to the M.Phil. course.

Generally, the courses have been categorized as 'core' and 'optional/specialisation' ones. The student is also required to write a dissertation on a selected topic. The number of core and optional courses at M.Phil. level differs from university to university. A thorough analysis of the M.Phil. courses offered by different universities reveals that their content is more or less the same as that offered at the postgraduate level. In most universities, the only difference between the M.Phil. and M.Ed. or M.A. (Education) courses appears to be the nomenclature. In some courses at M.Phil. level, merely the word 'advanced' has been added to the topics of the courses which are generally taught at the postgraduate levels, after making minor modifications. Moreover, the treatment of the courses, core as well as optional, at the M.Phil. level through instruction has been casual, with the sole objective of preparing the student to pass the examinations, rather than providing an

orientation towards Ph.D. work and making good deficiencies of training at the postgraduate level. Also, the students generally select topics for dissertation and start working on them without any theoretical background of the total education system, its problems and priority areas, and methodological issues. This lapse is quite evident from the titles of M.Phil. research studies which seem to have been generally stated without any conceptual basis in selecting the variables of the study. The linkage of the M.Phil. with jobs resulted in mass entry into the course and every student managed to get a hundred or more pages bound in a hard cover as his/her dissertation on a trivial topic. This ad hoc and arbitrary approach led, in many cases, to plagiarism and, finally, resulted in the production of sub-standard M.Phil. dissertations.

(iii) The quality of research at M.Phil. level is also associated with the treatment meted out to the Research Methodology course which is compulsory in M.Phil. courses in almost all the universities. However, instruction and training in this discipline is generally reduced to mere theoretical lectures, with hardly any provision for strengthening it by discussion, seminars and practical exercises. The course is generally taught in isolation from the core as well as the optional subjects. Consequently, the student is neither able to comprehend the essentials of reported research nor does he develop competence to apply research findings in educational practice. The lack of practical orientation through seminars, tutorials and discussion creates problem blindness among the potential researchers as no training is provided to them in exploring the already available literature for identifying problems of practical relevance in the perspective of local, regional and national needs.

(iv) The very casual evaluation of dissertations has also led to the production of sub-standard research at the M. Phil. level. Mostly, the students as well as the supervisors are in a hurry to complete the dissertation in the shortest possible time and submit it for evaluation. The examiners also evaluate dissertations superficially, just as they do at the postgraduate level, and are quite liberal in awarding marks. Only rarely is a dissertation rejected. The viva voce test is just a ritual and no student is failed in it, even if he or she is not able to defend the dissertation.

2. Most M. Phil. research studies are based purely on arbitrary combinations of variables relating to psychology, sociology, philosophy, pedagogy, technology, etc., without much relevance to either the theory or practice of education in the Indian context. The topics generally

lack long-range perspective and seem to have been selected and studied purely for writing the dissertation and getting the degree. Each title seems to be an isolated event, without any relevance to the past or future perspective. The educational problems, needs and issues of local, regional or national importance, especially in the context of deprived and weaker sections of the society, have been mostly ignored.

3. The general trend of M.Phil. research studies indicates that a large number of them are related to the areas of learning, motivation and personality; teacher education; and educational management and administration, whereas the areas of philosophy of education, comparative education and history of education are represented to a lesser degree. The titles indicate that researchers have mostly made use of the descriptive survey approach and quantitative techniques of analysis. The case study approach and qualitative data analysis techniques have been given less preference by the researchers at the M.Phil. level.

CONCLUSION

Those who are entrusted with the job of planning and providing instruction at the M.Phil. level, instead of copying any existing model, should make a serious attempt to develop a scheme of courses distinctly in advance of those offered at the post-graduate level. The focus should be on essential concepts and principles meaningfully selected on the criteria of relevance, utility, cognitive consonance and harmony. Different points of view, explanations, principles and concepts offered by different schools of thought with relevance to the process and practice of education must be interrelated and integrated or synthesized to form a unified cognitive structure. The whole programme should be designed in a manner that makes it helpful in identifying the small minority of researchers who have the necessary potential and ability to pursue research at the Ph.D. level and orient them with the necessary expertise and competence for achieving this goal. Moreover, the effort should be to weed out those who are not cut out for pursuing Ph.D. studies as the present trend of treating all M.Phil. students in Education as potential Ph.Ds. is extremely dangerous. Those lacking the necessary ability and aptitude must be taught to be satisfied with the lesser degree.

In order to improve standards of educational research at the M.Phil. level, the students should be pro-

vided with a strong theoretical background and conceptual framework relating to various aspects and dimensions of education. This will help them in understanding educational problems at the local, regional and national levels in the context of social, political, cultural and economic needs. The tendency among the students to select and formulate problems in an ad hoc, arbitrary and trivial manner needs to be discouraged. The students should be adequately trained in studying the available literature pertaining to the area of their competence and interest. This will not only provide them the conceptual framework under which a problem needs to be investigated but will also orient them for interpreting the findings.

The treatment of the course in Research Methodology deserves special emphasis. It should stimulate a questioning mind seeking truth, and help in distinguishing between fact and opinion, impressions and proven evidences, and subjective and objective interpretations. A serious effort needs to be made to dispel the persistent prevailing notion that the use of statistics is the only essential component of educational research or that a piece of research in education is valued more if it incorporates the use of statistical or quantitative techniques. Moreover, the belief that the scientific method, with its well-structured steps, is the only method of inquiry needs to be corrected. The students should be well familiarized with techniques of qualitative analysis, and descriptive reporting of findings based on rigorous application of reasoned criticism. The use of positivistic and dialectical approaches, the case-study method, and content analysis also need to be emphasized, especially in the context of problems relating to the philosophy, sociology and history of education. To avoid misuse of statistical techniques and data collecting tools, students need rigorous orientation in the theory and principles of probability and non-probability sampling techniques, along with their uses and limitations; development and uses of various research tools; and assumptions and uses of various sophisticated and advanced techniques.

The theoretical treatment of the course in research

methodology needs to be strengthened with practical orientation by providing opportunities to the students to prepare reviews of reported researches; to select problems from various fields of education, keeping in view their practical relevance, and formulate them in suitable form, along with the hypotheses (if any); to prepare and develop research tools for collecting various types of information, data and evidence; to design various types of research studies; and to prepare research reports based on the findings of some research studies.

In all courses at M.Phil. level, instruction through lectures should be minimized; in the least they should be converted into interactive discussions with a lot of student participation. Student learning, individual and group, through guided or independent study, theoretical and practical assignments, tutorials, panel and seminar discussions etc. needs to be maximized.

A comprehensive scheme of evaluation, with due emphasis and weightage to different units of course content employing a variety of techniques and tools, must be planned and notified at the beginning of each M.Phil. programme. Adequate formative internal evaluation through classroom interaction and discussion; presentation and discussion in tutorials and seminars; quizzes; and theoretical and practical assignments, need to be tried out experimentally.

The dissertation should not be regarded as an end in itself. The topic should be selected in such a way that it could later be extended further for Ph.D. submission. At the M.Phil. stage, the dissertation may be considered a pilot project only to judge the competence and ability of the student for pursuing the research further for the Ph.D. On the completion of the dissertation, it should be subjected to a thorough evaluation by experts followed by a comprehensive viva voce test. However, no marks should be awarded for dissertation work. Its evaluation should be in the form of 'approved' or 'not approved'. If it is approved, the student should be allowed to proceed further to do a Ph.D. If the dissertation is not approved, the student should be adjudged to be not cut out for Ph.D. work and be awarded the M.Phil. degree if he has passed in course work.

M.Phil. Edu. Dissertations from Indian Universities

1973-1987

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

- AHANGER, Gh. HASSAN, *A Critical Study of Objectives of Gandhian Philosophy of Education*, Kash. U., 1986.
- ANWAR, SUHEELA, *Alama Anwar Shah Kashmiri—A Study of His Contribution to Education*, Kash. U., 1982.
- BHARTI, M.C., *Critical Study of Concept of Nationalism in Educational Philosophy of Dr. Mohd. Iqbal and Rabindra Nath Tagore*, Pan. U., 1978.
- BHOL, P.P., *A Philosophical Study of Environmental Education*, DAVV, 1986.
- GULATI, R.M. *Educational Thoughts and Philosophy of Matthew Arnold*, Mee. U., 1982.
- JENA, S.K., *Naturalistic Trend in Educational Philosophy of Tagore and Gandhi*, Kur. U., 1985.
- IRSHAD, SAJIDA, *A Study of the Islamic Concept of Education as Reflected in Holy Quran and Sunnah*, Mee. U., 1986.
- KAINTH, KAMALJIT KAUR, *Guru Nanak's Concept of Education*, HPU, 1979.
- KAUR, R., *A Comparative Study of the Educational Philosophy of Mahatma Gandhi and John Dewey*, Pbi. U., 1986.
- KEWAL, L., *Re-awakening in Indian Education with Special Reference to Aurobindo Ghosh*, Pan. U., 1979.
- MATHIN, H. R., *Strategies and Ethical Teachings of Jesus Christ*, MKU, 1986.
- MATHUR, JAYSHREE, *Philosophical Analysis of the Concept of Equality -- a Problem for Implications in Educational Theory*, Del. U., 1979.
- NANDA, G.C., *Implications of Existentialism for Modern Theory and Practice of Education*, Kur. U., 1981.
- PALSHIKAR, S., *Preparing Children for Good Life: A Study of Kant's Theory of Education*, Poona U., 1985.
- PANDEY, R.K., *Educational Philosophy of Sri Satya Sai Baba*, Mee. U., 1980.
- PANNU, D.S., *Contribution of Sheikh Farid to the Philosophy of Education and its Critical Evaluation in the Present Context*, Pan. U., 1987.
- POWAR, V.S., *A Critical Study of the Contribution of the Rajarshi Chhatrapati Shahu Maharaj to the Field of Education in Kolhapur State*, Shivaji U., 1987.
- PRADHAN, S., *Philosophy of Higher Education*, Pan. U., 1986.
- SAHOO, K.C., *An Analytical Study of the Educational Principles Implicit in Sarvodaya Philosophy*, DAVV, 1986.
- SAHOO, P., *An Analytical Study of the Economic Principles Implicit in Sarvodaya Philosophy*, DAVV, 1987.
- SHARMA, R.S., *Humanism in the Educational Philosophy of Sri Aurobindo*, Mee. U., 1980.
- SINGH, KALA, *Contribution of Guru Amar Dass to Education*, HPU, 1982.
- SINGH, *Guru Nanak and Guru Gobind Singh on Education for National Integration*, HPU, 1981.
- SINHA, DHANESHWARI, *Educational Philosophy of Prominent Hindi Poets of Nirgun Bhakti Stream*, Mee. U., 1984.
- SOTI, S.C., *Educational Philosophy of Sri Aurobindo*, Mee. U., 1978.
- TIWARI, B.D., *A Study of Humanistic Educational Philosophy of Rabindra Nath Tagore*, Mee. U., 1984.
- TYAGI, S.K., *An Epistemological Enquiry into the Methods of Educational Research*, Del. U., 1980.

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION

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