1.1 Teacher Education Program in India

The focal importance of teachers in the total educative process is not new to educational thinking. "No people call rise above the level of its teachers" avers. The National Policy on Education-1986. The University Education Commission 1948-49 and the Secondary Education Commission 1952-53 have emphasized the central place of teacher in the National Reconstruction of the Country. But with the changes in the theory and practice of education, the concept of teacher preparation has undergone considerable change. With the advent of broader concepts of education including within its fold the total personality of educated and aiming at his teacher have increased many fold. There have, therefore, been a shift in the character of teacher preparation for their academic achievement from one of apprenticeship to one suited to a profession. The substitution of the word "Education" from "Training". The recent years in connection with the preparation of teachers is implicitly indicative of this shift in emphasis. Teachers education therefore, is a term rather recent in its origin.

In a broader sense "Teacher Education and their Academic Success" refers to the total of educative experiences which contributes to the preparation of a person for a teaching position in the schools, but the term is more commonly employed to designate the programme of courses and other experiences offered by all educational institutes for the announced purpose of preparing persons for teaching and other educational services and to contribute for their growth in competency and academic achievement. Such teacher education programmes are
offered in teachers colleges and normal schools and in colleges and universities.

The term teacher education perception and their academic achievement is interpreted according to its common uses as stated above, is accepted for the proposed study and is used in that sense only throughout the report.

It has now been realized that improvement of teacher education perception in achieving academic achievement call help to improve all education. Teacher education has therefore attracted the attention of various educational thinkers and research workers. Attempts are being made all over the world to play effective programmes of teacher education, to use scientific procedures in selecting right type of personal to teach education course, to determine the significant that correlates teaching success in teacher education course. It may be pointed out here, that the present study is an attempt to determine the value of educational perceptions in predicting success in teaching through teacher education course.

To understand the background of the intended study a brief reference to serve relevant matters has been made in this introductory chapter. These are:

1. Brief historical retrospect of primary teacher education in general in Karnataka.

2. Brief historical retrospect of Hindi primary teacher education in Karnataka.

It is evident from the brief historical retrospect of primary teacher education in Karnataka presented earlier that,

1. There has been unprecedented expansion of facilities for the education of primary school teachers in the post independent period.
2. Suitable agencies are setup in charge of teacher education.

3. Attempts are being made for the qualitative improvement of students of primary teacher education, and

4. Attempts are also being made to provide in-service education to teachers through Summer Institutions, Orientation Courses, Workshops, Seminars, etc.

In this context, there is an urgent need for considerable thinking and research with reference to the following:

1. Formation of objectives of teacher education.
2. Evolving of objective based and dynamic programmes of pre-service and in-service education.
3. Setting up of norms for Teacher Education Institutions.
4. Selection of right type of personals to teacher education course.
5. Study of correlation of success in teacher education and in practical teaching.
6. Education of teacher educators.
7. Objective, evaluation of success in teacher education course and subsequently in teaching profession.
8. Dearth of duly qualified teacher-educators.

Studies conducted in these directions may very well provide rational for meeting challenges in the field adequately and reforming teacher education which in turn results in the overall improvement of education in general and primary education in particular.

It must however be acknowledged that, all other factors in teacher education objectives, curricular, syllabi, buildings, equipment, instructional materials, organization, qualified teacher educators and allied expenditure or of no avail unless right type of personal are obtained for teacher education. People with certain personal qualities and academic background may be more successful in teacher education
course and teaching profession than those without these qualities and qualifications.

Secondly an increasing number of students applying for admission into teacher education courses. Selection to educational colleges should be carefully established so as to admit only those who hold the highest promise of becoming successful teachers. An issue that is thus becoming more and more vital is the successful prediction of success in teacher education course and practical teaching.

The present study therefore is an attempt to investigate educational perceptions that may contribute towards the prediction of success in teacher education course and practical teaching. This information should be of interest to the administrators prospective, undergraduate teachers, graduate teachers and teacher educators.

1.2 Professionalization of Teacher Education

It may be worthwhile to recall that just a century ago teaching was mastered mainly by gaining experience. No formal, theoretical or professional training was considered necessary. Every new teacher learnt under the guidance of an elderly and experienced person. Usually, this was taken up after having completed academic study in a subject area. Gradually, physiological and pedagogical knowledge developed. It was found relevant to the work of teachers. It was also felt that training in these areas could lead to professionalization of teacher education.

The desire of more and more people coming within the fold of education resulted in the need for training of teachers. For long, it was generally accepted that, acquisition of relevant knowledge base was sufficient for good teaching and the rest is learnt on the job. However, there was sufficient proof of the poor application of this knowledge
base. One of the understanding of teacher education was conceived as a translation of theory of good teaching education was conceived as a translation of theory of good teaching into practice. The question usually faced, how to implement academic knowledge in the practical setting? Now with experience the question has turned out to make teachers aware of their practical knowledge-conceptions, beliefs and personal theory exceed in their everyday teaching and how to develop in teaching both a feeling of responsibility for the goals and effects of their teaching and skills required to work towards those goals?

There has been a visible shift from general theory about good teaching towards more appreciation of individuality of each teacher. Integration depends critically on the teacher variables, two, which are very pertinent in the present context: willingness of the individual teacher to take on this task and secondly his professionally preparedness and ability to perform the task effectively. The two variables are interconnected. These depend on other variables also. However, no other professionals, as teachers, would be willing to carry out tasks for which they have the necessary skills and resources. Whenever someone possesses a repertoire of skills, the same generates a desire to use them. You need to provide the corresponding professional support to teachers. Policy alone is not sufficient. It has to be followed up to the implementation level and the outcomes monitored regularly.

Teacher education, now includes every aspect of the student teachers personality. We may define teacher education as such institutionalized educational procedures that are aimed at the purposeful organized preparation or further education of teachers who are engaged directly or indirectly in educational activity as their life work. This concept of teacher education does not exclude members of
other professions who prepare for teaching as secondary or supplementary activity.

The aim of teacher education is the formation of an educated and cultured persons concerned with education. The aims and objectives of teacher education are intimately related to ideals of education. In the past it is believed that those who have acquired knowledge need no particular skill to transmit it. It follows, therefore, anyone who knows a subject well can teach others also.

Training is now a matter of vital national importance in all countries, and is properly regarded as major concern for educationalists and government departments responsible for economic planning and development. Education and training are recognized as the prerequisites of manpower development and economic growth and, therefore, as a national investment for the future. In the developing countries, the need for trained manpower is actually felt and where trained instructors with the necessary skills and knowledge of what to teach and how to teach are often lacking. This situation calls for special efforts to be made in the field of teacher education in developing countries, where the many innovations in educational technology are being readily accepted and adopted with even greater enthusiasm than in the industrially developed countries. The lives of millions of people depend on rapid economic development and the effective utilization of the vast human resource of the substances economy countries.

The developing countries must have more trained teachers and instructors, and in their struggle for economic development they cannot afford to neglect any innovation or opportunity towards the efficient and effective training of manpower. Owing to the expansion of training programme all over the world and the demand for more and more trained instructors, there is still an urgent need of premises for
instructors and others who are caught up, without much warning in the training revolution. Training is concerned necessary in all countries, with the development of human resources, which is essential for economic growth and the alleviation of hunger and poverty.

Proper training to teacher is of great importance in improving the quality of education. The kinds of improvement which have been made in the teacher education programmes in our country are very marginal in nature. It depends on what type of teacher training it is. With the rapid changing condition in the life of people in the world, the old system of teacher training no longer seems to meet the requirement of our schools and society.

It is, however, difficult to reform the teacher-training system very quickly and in a direction which is not heavily based on the mastery of subject matter. There is still considerable scope for research in training in order to discover the specific competence which the teacher should develop. It is equally important to develop a training system which not only encourages the development of such competence in the short run, but will also sustain it at a desirable level.

The teacher-preparation programme can serve a great deal in the modification of the behaviour of prospective teachers in the desired direction. Hence there is a vast field of knowledge to be explored through continuous, objectives and research to study the effects or various newly developed teaching strategies in many dimensions of the modification of teacher-behaviour.

1. The training should develop confidence and positive attitudes in the student teachers.

2. The training should make a trainee to keep abreast with technical aides for more effective teaching.
3. The training should make the student teachers expertise in group activities and should be aware of participatory principles of group dynamics.

4. If initial training helps the teachers to make a confident start in his career, the teacher’s subsequent training could be built on it profitably.

5. In service training should be of short duration but more frequent so that constant feedback is available for reducing and restricting the strategy.

1.3 State Board of Teacher Education

This board was in existence before 1985. Its role was policy making, overall direction and control in respect of starting, recognition, grant in aid, staffing, initiating reforms, area of curriculum, activities and examinations. In other words its role was to advise the State Government and Universities on all matters relating to teacher education. But after completion of period of two years the Government has not yet reconstituted it. However the comprehensive Education Act has provided for the formation of such a board and the government is busy in formulating rules and regulations for this board. As stated earlier there is a separate section for “Teacher Education” in the DSERT (Department of State Educational Research and Training) which is the state authoritative body for academic and training programmes in “Teacher Education”.

1.4 One Year Shiksha Snatak Course of DBHPS

The one year course is meant for undergraduates leading to the award of shiksha snatak degree by University of DBHPS on the successful completion of the course. The course normally consists of
part one comprising six theory papers (Four general and two special methods of teaching) and part two entailing practical work (Practice teaching a prescribed number of lessons ranging from 20 to 30 in both the method subjects together, laboring work and psychology and language labs and co-curricular activities including physical education library services, computer education, etc.). There is public external examination for part one subjects conducted by the respective universities of DBHPS and internal assessment in all aspects of part two subjects. A special mention needs to be made here of Ramakrishna Institute of Moral and Spiritual Education in Mysore which is the only full-fledged residential teacher college with moral education as a complete method subject in the course.

1.5 Historical Retrospect of Hindi Shikshan Training Colleges, Equivalent to D.Ed.

Hindi had a prominent place in the scheme of school education as one of the languages in "Three Languages Formula" in all the States and Union Territories of India. Karnataka State has been very liberal in encouraging Hindi in schools and colleges. Hindi is one of the languages to be passed at the end of standard X as per the syllabus and curriculum requirements. The schools need qualified Hindi teachers. For a long time appointments to the posts of Hindi teachers in upper primary and secondary schools were made from amongst candidates who had passed P.U.C. with Hindi subject, Hindi-Ratna or all equivalent to P.U.C. In 1952 those who had passed the Hindi Prachars Course run by Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha Chennai were appointed for the posts of Hindi teachers. Pedagogic training was not an essential qualification for the appointments.
Hindi Shikshak Course came into existence in 1953. This course was run by the Mysore Hindi Sahitya Parishad of Bangalore and the examination Board Bangalore upto 1954-55. The Mysore Hindi Riyasat Samithi's and the Mysore Hindi Sahitya Parishad continued the Hindi Shikshana Course. But in 1956 the State Government withdrew the permission given to these institutions and the Government started the Hindi Shikshana Training Course at Mysore and two more colleges at Bagalkot and Gulburga in 1957-58 with the financial assistance from Central Government. After one year in 1959 the Gulburga college was shifted to Raichur, but due to lack of sufficient strength the Bagalkot college was converted into Kannada Mahila Shikshan Training College. In 1981, all the three training colleges were closed.

In 1983, the Hindi Shikshana Paragath Course of one year duration was started in Mysore by the State Government. During 1984-85 State Government gave permission to start the Hindi Shikshan Training College under the Management of Kannada Mahila Hindi Seva Samithi Chamrajpet, Bangalore and the examination of this course is being conducted by the Karnataka Secondary Education Board Bangalore.

In 1993-94 State Government constituted a committee under the Chairmanship of Sri. A. Ramakrishna Rao the Joint Director of Public Instruction Bangalore to frame a common syllabus for Hindi Shikshak course of one year duration. The State Government approved the syllabus and their course is now treated as equivalent to the regular D.Ed. course for the purpose of appointment of Hindi teachers. University undergraduates/graduates or its equivalent are admitted to this course.
### Table-1.1: Scheme of Study and Weightage of Shiksha Snatak Examination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Group A. (Theory Group and subjects)</th>
<th>Weightage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>External</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Educational Philosophy</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Educational Psychology</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Educational Problems and Trends</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Educational Administration</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teaching of special subject</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Teaching of special subject</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Group A. Total | 120 | 480 | 600 |

| Group B. (Practice in Teaching) | 200 | 200 | 400 |

#### Group B. Total

Grand total (A+B) groups together | 320 | 680 | 1000 |

At present there are seven Shiksha Snatak Training colleges of DBHPS are running in different places of Karnataka state, which are as follows:

1. Mahaveer Shiksha Snatak College, Hassan.
3. M. Vasudeva Shiksha Snatak College, Mangalore.
5. B.D. Jatti Shiksha Snatak College, Bijapur.
1.6 Role of Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha in the Field of Student-Teachers Education and their Academic Achievement

A Historical Retrospect

If competent teachers can be prepared, the likelihood of attaining desirable educational outcome is ensured to a great extent. The making of teachers needs to be given the highest priority in any form of national planning. It is a nation’s dedication to academies rather than its affluence or technological dominance that leads to superior education. A sound teacher education programme is a crucial component of an effective educational system. The quality of teacher reflects upon the quality of education. With the advancement in science and technology a number of innovations have been brought into make the education process more effective. However success of any educational innovation depends on the quality of the teachers, which in-turn depends to a great extent at the quality of the teacher education programmes. Naturally each and every educational document of India since independence has put special thrust on the significance of teacher education and the need for improving it.

Education is related to socio-economic transformation of society. The teacher occupies an important place in the whole process of transformation. Hence it becomes imperative to constantly review the programmes of teacher education with special reference to national objectives, needs and aspirations of citizens and overall national development. This is to improve upon not only their work, efficiencies and skill but also their status, self esteem, work commitment and the sense of professional ethics. In the recent past teacher education had specific objectives. The objectives were to develop the teacher, his cognitive development, his knowledge in science and skills in language etc. The main thrust was particular subject such as Kannada and the
contents of the curriculum imbedded for teaching. In other words the main objective was transmission of knowledge, skill and cultural elements. So as to enable the teacher to understand and assimilate.

It is evident from the above account that the role of teachers in the past was to pass down to the younger generation the knowledge, experience, the values of the cultural heritage through the study of mythology and the classics of a study evolving society. But the role of a modern teacher has changed due to the changes that have taken place over years of progress and experimentation.

The last two decades of the nineteenth country proved to be so eventful that the teacher education became established as a substantial structural setup. The institutional structure diversified into normal schools, secondary training schools and training colleges run by state and private enterprises with well differentiated training inputs as well as procedural and certification details. The other recommendations relevant to teacher education in the Government of India resolution of 1904 were:

i) The equipment of training college should be as important as that of an arts college.

ii) The training course of undergraduates should be one-year University of DBHPS course leading to a University Degree, while training courses for under graduates should be of one year.

iii) The theory and practice of teaching should be included in training courses.

iv) A practicing school should be attached to each training college.

v) Every possible care should be taken to maintain a connection between a training college and schools.
With the changed socio-economic context after independence and the revised role of education therein, a new concept of teacher education has emerged. The erstwhile concept was replaced by the more comprehensive concept of "teacher education". The teacher required not only to be trained to perform a few skills but was to be educated to play various roles in a wider sense. As such, there was need for a sound professional education for the teacher. Several commissions, committees, study groups and such others were constituted after independence to look into the relevance, adequacy, appropriateness and efficacy of the education system in the country which were addressed with concern to the various issues regarding teacher education.

The University Education Commission observed that while university standards could not improve unless the quality of teaching in schools and intermediate colleges improved, it was for the universities to provide a continuous supply of highly trained and efficient teachers for these institutions. The commission recommended vacation refresher courses for in service education of teachers. The commission stressed that teacher training colleges should be remodeled more time should be given to practice teaching and more weightage to practical examinations, proper schools should be selected for practice teaching in the training colleges, teacher educations should be recruited from those who possessed sufficient teaching experience, students with long teaching experiences should be admitted to M.Ed. course and professors and teachers in education should do take up research work on all Indian basis.

It was by the end of first half of the 21st century that the term teacher training was substituted by the term "Teacher Education" with a view of making the concept more comprehensive. Mere training was
felt inadequate in preparing the teacher for playing the multi-furious roles necessitated by the changing socio-economic context of the nation. The concern for quality in teacher education surfaced quite strongly in the post independence era.

The responsibility of secondary teacher education in India is main with colleges of education/teacher colleges popularly known shiksha snatak colleges affiliated to DBHPS. The universities of DBHPS are responsible for framing the curricular and syllabi, conducting examinations, awarding degrees and maintaining standards of these secondary teacher education institutions. Qualitative improvement of education at all levels; repeated emphasis in the national policy on education in 1986 is inseparably linked with the quality of teachers which in-turn is linked with the method teacher education is organized.

Gandhi wished to render the will of propagation of Hindi in the South self reliant. In July 1927, all Karnataka Hindi Prachar Sammelana was held in Bangalore. Gandhi presided over the Sammelan. At this occasion it was decided that the will of propagation of Hindi in the South be bifurcated from the Hindi Sahitya Sammelan Prayog and be entrusted to an independent institution. The newly organized institution was named Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha. The proposer of this was none other than Jamanlal Bajaj. The Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha was registered as an voluntary autonomous institution the same year, 1927. Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha Ek Parichay Sainiki 1999, Madras : D.B.H.P. Sabha 1999.

The wide spread impact of the movement of propagation of Hindi in the south accelerated the process of growth and expansion of the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha day by day. With the expansion of the programme of teaching and learning Hindi several needs were on increasing. The sabha had to rise to the occasions and
take steps to fulfill the needs even from the days of its identity as the south branch of Hindi Sahitya Samachar Prayog prior to its distinct identity as Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha. The programme of propagation of Hindi through the activities of the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha caught the imaginative of the general public in the south and aspirates in large numbers began to be attracted towards the campaign. To bring out books needed for teaching and learning Hindi the sabha felt the need for having a printing press of its own. Hence it was setup in rented home or Tiruvellikkeri Madras. As the awe of propagation and spread of Hindi increased the necessity for Pracharars in large numbers surfaced most. The sabha felt the need for preparing Hindi teachers through structurised training programmes. Accordingly the sabha opened a Hindi Prachar Vidyalaya school for Hindi propagators in a rented house or erode in 1922. In 1924 Hindi Prachar Vidyalaya was opened in Madras where subsequently young persons form all the four states of South India – Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Kerala received training and engaged themselves in the term of propagating Hindi. The provincial branches of the Dakshin Bharata Hindi Prachar Sabha set up in 1937 were known as Pranteeya Hindi Prachar Sabhas of their respective states. Now they are recognised as Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabhas of the respective states. The head quarters of the Pranteeya Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabhas are now situated or the places shown below.

- Karnataka - Dharwad
- Tamil Nadu - Chennai
- Andhra Pradesh - Hyderabad
- Kerala - Ernakulam
Hindi became the official language of the Indian Union from the date of commencement of the constitution of India (26th January 1950). Propagation of Hindi in the Southern States was a dire necessity and a duty of the central government as content pleased in the articles 343-351 of the constitution. Keeping the above aims and objectives and the situations in view and also the noble awe done by Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha from the year 1918 the government of India declared the institution of national importance by an Act of Parliament No. 14 of 1964.

The sabha opened the awe of higher education and research in Hindi. On behalf of this institute literary and applied courses at post graduate level are being conducted. Regular classes for M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D., D.Litt., Shiksha Snatak, D.Ed. equivalent, B.Ed., and M.Ed. are being conducted and degrees are awarded. The sabha also organizes translation courses, short hand courses and typing courses in Hindi. The sabha is conducting courses in computer education in Hindi at Madras and Hyderabad cities. At Hyderabad centre studies in Journalism and Library Science through Hindi Medium are taught. In all the four states of south institutes, higher education and research centres are opened. The Golden Jubilee of the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha was celebrated on 29th and 30th April 1974. Hon. Late V.V. Giri the then President of India. Sabha also started a periodical known as Hindi Prachar Samachar. It has its own printing press with modern facilities. The objectives and propagation and spread of Hindi is to render the language powerful in use. The meaning of rendering the Hindu language powerful is to include in the language of culture the strength of the language of civilization. The Hindi language would not acquire dynamism and strength as a universal language in the real sense until and unless the parlance of different branches of knowledge.
viz. Sociology, Psychology, Anthropology, Zoology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, etc. is not carried through the medium of Hindi. Fusion of a language among the masses would be possible only when the language becomes medium of instruction at different levels of education. It is particularly so at teacher education level. The Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha has done well by starting Hindi Medium teacher education institutions popularly known as shiksha snatak and B.Ed. colleges (Hindi medium) run by the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha in South India specially in Karnataka.

In addition to shiksha snatak colleges the sabha conducts several undergraduate/graduate teacher training colleges offering “Shiksha Snatak” certificates to the trained candidates.

Teacher education course generally known as shiksha snatak and B.Ed. course conducted and run by the Karnataka of Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha is a professional course having three major components: i) theoretical orientation; ii) school experience; iii) practical awe. Sound exposure to all the three aspects is a pre requisite for the preparation of a competent teacher.

1.7 Challenges within the Practicum Programme

The archaic methods of instruction used within the teaching diploma program influenced the pedagogues and philosophies of its graduates. The overload of courses and assignments, the large volume of content and the insular operation methods of lecturers encouraged rote learning and minimal effort to pass and complete courses (Auamina-Aiyejina et.al. 2001). It is difficult, despite the progression to full Bachelor’s program, to determine if these factors still exist. A large majority of lecturers within the UTT program previously taught at the teaching colleges and technical schools. A significant number of
lecturers were graduates of the teacher education programs themselves and some did not complete education and pedagogical courses external of their teaching diplomas. The transition from the training colleges and technical institutes was acute and rapid. With less than a full academic year to adapt, lecturers from predated institutions were expected to acclimatize to modernized curricula and a new organizational structure. The new division of labour placed the responsibility of course design and methods of instruction in the course coordinators and instructors. With this change, the influence of educational theories and research became evident in the design of the courses. The format of the practicum courses for in-service teachers retained many similarities to the preparation for effective teaching program that was administered in the predated institutions.

The design and content differs greatly from pre-service practicum courses. The focus of the in-service practicum program is to build upon previous experiences while providing students with the opportunity to observe, question and critically discuss their own practicum experiences of teaching (Moore, 2010). Freedom is given to the instructors and lecturers of the in-service program with regard to instructional methods and actual content included in sessions under the course assigned topics. This is different from the pre-service program where assigned topics with designated objectives dictate the content included within the course sessions.

This context provided a rich ground for the study. There is evident need to examine the effectiveness of the practicum courses in achieving its course goals and objectives; namely a paradigm shift from rote learning philosophies to a learner-centered educational philosophy.
1.8 Perception and Person Perception

Perception refers to the way we try to understand the world around us. We gather information through our five sense organs, but perception adds meaning to these sensory inputs. The process of perception is essentially subjective in nature, as it is never an exact recording of the event or the situation.

Perception is the process by which we organize and interpret our sensory impressions in order to give meaning to the environment. As pointed out, a situation may be the same but the interpretation of that situation by two individuals may be immensely different.

Definition: Perception is the set of processes by which an individual becomes aware of and interprets information about the environment.

The perceptual process can be depicted simplistically in the following way:

The model of perception helps one to understand the basic processes involved in human perception in a rather simplistic way. At a point of time, we are flooded with a myriad of stimuli impinging on our sense organs, like now as you are reading this particular page in front of you, light rays from the page are reaching your eyes. But these are, by no means, all. Light rays from every possible direction are also
impinging on your retina as well. At the same time you are also receiving a host of auditory stimuli the humming of the air conditioner, somebody talking out aloud outside, the rustling of the papers on your table, etc. Similarly, every sense organs of your body are bombarded with a number of different stimuli simultaneously. But our brain and the nervous system are not capable of processing so many pieces of information all together. As it is now happening with you, you are, in all probability, hardly aware of all these sensory inputs reaching you. Thus what happens is that we only selectively choose from among a host of stimuli and process only those. If we examine the model above we will find that only those stimuli are given entry to the process of 'registration' which have got adequate attention or have aroused our interest.

1.9 Factors Affecting Perception

Internal Factors

Sensory Limits and Thresholds: Our sensory organs have specialized nerves which respond differently to the various forms of energy they receive. For instance, our eyes receive and convert light waves into electrical energy which are transmitted to the visual cortex of the brain to create the sensation of vision and subsequently leading to perception. But each sense receptor requires a minimum levels of energy to excite it before perception can take place. The minimum level is called the absolute threshold a point below which we do not perceive energy. The differential threshold is the smallest amount by which two similar stimuli must be different in order to be perceived as different.

Psychological Factors: Psychological factors such as personality, past experiences and learning and motives affect an individuals' perceptual
process to considerable extent. The internal set or the inclination to perceive certain stimuli in a particular way also influences one’s perception. These largely determine why people select and attend to a particular stimulus or situation over other. Things compatible to one’s learning, interest, attitude and personality are likely to get more attention than others. As you must have noticed, a person who is sitting aloof from your group in a far away corner, automatically turn to your direction the moment you utter his name. Similarly, if you happen to hear the word ‘management’ or ‘organizational behaviour’ while traveling in a public transport, your attention is surely going to the conversation. This happens because of one’s strong association (with one’s won name) or the current interest in the topics. Likewise, one’s expectancy can affect and even distort one’s perception. We hardly rely too much on pure sensory inputs and perceive the reality in our own subjective way. Our past learning also affects the perceptual process and lends a typical orientation in what we perceive. The accountant often becomes unduly suspicious when he finds a large bill and tends to believe that as an inflated bill.

**External Factors**

**The Target:** The characteristics of the target that is being observed can affect perception. We have earlier noted that a pre-requisite of perception is attention. It has been found that there is a tendency to give more attention to stimuli which are:

1. Large in size
2. Moving
3. Intense
4. Loud
5. Bright
6. Contrasted
7. Novel
8. Repeated
9. Stand out from the background

The Situation: The situation or the context in which we see objects or events is important to shape our perception. The presence of a policemen near the police station hardly draws any attention, but if one is found in your classroom will certainly be the topic of the day. The word 'terminal' can be perceived quite differently in the context of say, the ICU of a hospital, an airport or the computer lab.

Person Perception: Our perceptions of people differ from the perceptions of inanimate objects like tables, chairs, books, pencil, etc. mainly because we are prone to make inferences regarding the intentions of people and thus form judgment about them. The perceptions and judgments regarding a person's actions are often significantly influenced by the assumptions we make about the person's internal state. Attribution theory refers to the ways in which we judge people differently, depending on what meaning we attribute to a given behaviour. Whenever we observe the behaviour of an individual, we attempt to determine whether it was internally or externally caused. Internally caused behaviours are those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual or have been done deliberately by him. Externally caused behaviour is seen as resulting from outside causes, that is the person is seen as having been compelled to behave in a particular way be the force of the situation, and not because of his own choice. When after repeated requests your friend failed to turn up at the special old school boys' meet you might ascribe his absence as a deliberate move on his part, and you will feel hurt since it appeared that
he is quite unconcerned and careless about your feeling. But if someone points out about his recent increased responsibilities in the business after his father's untimely death and acute time shortage, you tend to condone him as you are now ascribing his absence to the external factors.

The determination of internally or externally caused behaviour depends chiefly on the following three factors:

- **Distinctiveness** which refers to whether an individual displays different behaviour at different situations. If the behaviour (say being late in the class on a particular day) is unusual, we tend to give the behaviour an external attribution; and if it usual, the reverse.

- **Consensus** refers to the uniformity of the behaviour shown by all the concerned people. If everyone reports late on particular morning, it is easily assumed that there must be a severe traffic disruption in the city and thus the behaviour is externally attributed. But if the consensus is low, it is internally attributed.

- **Consistency** is the reverse of distinctiveness. Thus in judging the behaviour of an individual, the person looks at his past record. If the present behaviour is consistently found to occur in the past as well (that is being late at least three times a week), it is attributed as internally caused. In other words, the more consistent the behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to external causes.
There are often some errors or biases in our judgement about others. When we make judgment about other people’s behaviour, we tend to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal or personal factors. This is called fundamental attribution error. Another noticeable tendency, called self-serving bias, refers to the inclination for individuals to attribute their own successes to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors.

**Self-fulfilling Prophecy or Pygmalion Effect:** An interesting aspect of people perception is the fact that people’s expectations are often found to determine the actual performance level. If a manager expects excellent level of performance from his subordinates, chances are quite high that they will actually reach up to his expectation and will make impossible possible. Surely the contrary is also true. If you feel your
subordinates are a worthless bunch of people, they will only prove the same.

Attributions are found to strongly affect various functions in an organization, e.g. the process of employee performance evaluations, nature of supervision or guidance or the general attitude towards the organization in general. As mentioned earlier, we also tend to make various types of errors while judging others. A few of the frequently committed mistakes are given below:

- **Selective Perception:** People have a tendency to selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experiences and attitudes. We hardly have either time or inclination to process all the relevant inputs and we automatically select a few. Naturally chances are there to miss some important cues in the process.

- **Halo Effect:** It refers to the tendency of forming a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic. The smartly dressed guy who is very fluent in English often tends to create a favourable impression on the interviewer even when the job is of an accountant or engineer, requiring little or no verbal fluency.

- **Contrast Effect:** It refers to the process of rating individuals in the light of the other people’s performance which are close in time frame. You might be rated excellent in your project presentation if your predecessor makes a mess in his presentation.

1.10 **What do Student Teachers learn? Perceptions of Learning from Mentoring Relationships**

Student teachers view the practicum experience, in general, and the relationship with their cooperating teacher, in particular, as the
most significant aspects of learning to teach. However, what student teachers perceive to learn about teaching practice from their cooperating teachers remains largely an unanswered question. We attempted to answer this question by collecting data reports of perceptions of learning from student teachers' pedagogical journals. Student teachers reported their perceptions of learning in the full range of academic, technical, practical, personal and critical categories according to the theoretical framework of orientations to teaching and teacher education of Calderhead and Shorrock (1997). Based on the results, recommendations are made for supervision of mentoring relationships.

A shift in teacher education to increased time spent in the school (Farrel, 2003; McNally, 1994; Tang, 2003) appears to be taking place worldwide. Research shows that student teachers and teacher educators view the fieldwork experience as the most significant aspect of teachers' professional learning (Ben-Peretz, 1995; Lanier and Little, 1986; Tang, 2003). However, as McNally et.al. (1997) report, although it is clear that student teachers regard the formal and informal relationship with the cooperating teachers as the most important aspect of the fieldwork experience, what student teachers learn from them about teaching practice remains largely an unanswered question. Wang (2000) also calls for further exploration of what novices actually learn in practical teaching situations. Zeichner (1995) and Feiman-Nemser and Buchman (1987) claim that the first question that needs to be asked about practicum experiences is what the pre-service teacher is learning about being a teacher, about pupils, classrooms and the activities of teaching. However, they believe that learning to deal with immediate classroom situations is not enough; educative mentoring must also present experiences for student teachers' future learning.
There appears to be a gap between what student teachers themselves actually perceive or are able to describe about what they learn and what educators and researchers prescribe as learning in teacher education programs. Since teaching is a practice endeavor, implicit. Orientations that reflect different perceptions of teaching are seldom made explicit. Orientations that reflect different perceptions of teaching are seldom made explicit. Orientations to teaching and teacher education describe different clusters of attitudes, beliefs, values and skills that underlie educational practice. While different, and often conflicting, orientations are embedded in schools and in teacher education programs, student teachers develop their own perceptions that tend to emphasize certain orientations over others. In our study, these orientations are reflected in what student teachers report that they learn from their cooperating teachers in their pedagogical journals.

In order to bridge the gap between theory and practice, we sought to connect the empirical data from the perspective of student teachers with a theoretical framework of orientations to teaching and teacher education. We choose the theoretical framework of Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) for describing the wide range of content areas that are reflected in the perceptions of learning reported by the student teachers. Calderhead and Shorrock distinguish five orientations, namely; the academic, the technical, the practical, the personal and the critical orientation. They claim that different orientations to teaching and teacher education that have often competed with each other for dominance can actually be seen as complementary and as encompassing the range of knowledge and skills that are required for learning to teach. We attempted to identify the specific content areas of the perceptions of learning reported by student teachers according to
these orientations. We viewed this framework as all-encompassing model for teacher education.

The main question of this study pertains to what kind of knowledge and skills student teachers perceive to learn from their cooperating teachers. More specifically, the research questions that guided the study reported on in this chapter are:

a) What do student teachers perceive to learn from their cooperating teachers in the mentoring relationship?

b) Which orientations to teaching and teacher education are reflected in the perceptions of learning of the student teachers of this study?

Based on the answers to these questions, we make recommendations for mentoring and supervision of student teachers in pre-service practicum programs.

1.11 Student Teachers' Perceptions of Learning and Theoretical Orientations to Teaching and Teacher Education

There is scant information in the literature on what student teachers actually say they learn in the schools in relation to their cooperating teachers. Eraut (1985) writes of the complexity and difficulty of codifying professional knowledge that is learned through and grounded in experience. Research on student teachers' reported learning outcomes gives evidence that student teachers have a hard time articulating what they learn and refer to their developing mastery of teaching as a "holistic feeling of gained competence" (McNally, 1994). The idiosyncratic nature of what individual student teachers learn is another factor contributing to the difficulty of research in this area (Bullough, 1991; McNally et.al. 1997). Zeichner (1995) claims that reports by student teachers of their fieldwork experiences are largely
influenced by their need to survive in the classroom in the pre-service stage and are, therefore, not representative of the full range of learning that takes place.

Constructivist perspectives of learning in higher education, as well as in teacher education, are increasingly being recognized and interpreted as a process through which student actively construct their own interpretations in interactions with others and relate the new information to their existing understandings (Delandshire, 2002). Recent literature has focused on the epistemological meaning that students make about what constitutes knowledge and how this affects their learning (Court, 2004). In order to capture learning as it unfolds, we choose as our data source student teachers’ reports of what they learn from their cooperating teachers in the “situative” context of ongoing fieldwork experiences (Volet, 2004).

Previous attempts to connect empirical data with theoretical formulations of what student teachers learn were greatly influenced by the developmental stage theories based on Fuller’s original conceptualization (1969). He described teacher learning and induction as: (1) early idealism, (2) concerns for survival, control of the class and the content of instruction, (3) recognizing difficulties including limitations and frustrations of the teaching situation, and (4) concerns about students’ learning and the impact of teaching on this learning.

Among research findings that support the existence of the initial survival stage, McNally et.al. (1997) and Dunn and Taylor (1993) report that student teachers focus on matters of immediate practical significance when thinking about their learning. They value practical advice about pupils with whom they have difficulties and tips about coping in the classroom that provide the basis for initial technical survival. Getting to know the class, the pupils in it and the work and
routines constitute the first stage of student teachers' learning. Despite recent findings that support the stage theory (Conway and Clark, 2003; McNally et al. 1997), Bullough and Baughman (1993) caution against a rigid perspective of development through stages and the need to keep in mind that teacher development and learning are individual and idiosyncratic.

Conceptualizations of teacher education programs concerning what student teachers should learn have predominantly been formulated by educators, policymakers and researchers according to diverse political and socio-cultural dictates. Eisner and Vallance (1974) describe five belief orientations that guide teachers' (as well as policymakers') decisions according to the classification of cognitive processor, self-acutalizer, technologist, academic rationalist and social reconstructionist. Similarly, Zeichner's (1993) conceptualization of four traditions in teacher education, the academic, the social efficiency, the developmentalist and the social reconstructionist, focuses our attention on different aspects of teaching expertise and program identities.

Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), on the other hand, propose five orientations to teaching and teacher education that combine many of the different theories of learning to teach. Although each educational orientation has taken precedence and competed to teach. Although each educational orientation has taken precedence and competed with the others in different times and places in the history of teacher education, they view the orientations as equally valid and complementary to each other.

In order to connect our empirical data to a theoretical formulation of what student teachers should learn, we choose the orientation categories of Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) as background to our study. We selected these orientation categories for the following
reasons. First, the orientations to teaching and teacher education of Calderhead and Shorrock are representative of the knowledge and skills that we believe to be important in teacher education. Second, the orientations to teaching encompass the diverse and idiosyncratic range of student teachers’ reported perceptions of learning. Third, the framework of orientations is nonhierarchical that, it presents a non-judgemental perspective that views the different teaching orientations as equally valuable to student teachers’ learning. The orientations to teaching and teacher education of Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) are presented here as follows:

i. **The Academic Orientation** emphasizes teachers’ subject expertise and sees the quality of the teachers’ own education as his/her professional strength. It is concerned with the transmission of subject matter knowledge and assessment of pupils’ achievements. The role of the student teacher is to learn why, what and how to transmit expert knowledge.

ii. **The Technical Orientation** emphasizes the knowledge of behavioural skills that teachers require to control and manage classroom situations. It is concerned with rules and regulations that are often taught through microteaching and competency based approaches and derives from a behaviorist model of teaching and learning. The role of the cooperating teacher is to model techniques of standard classroom management. The student’s role is to master these techniques and implement them in the planning stage of teaching.

iii. **The Practical Orientation** emphasizes the artistry and classroom technique of the teacher, viewing the teacher as craftsperson. This view attaches importance to classroom experience in diverse contexts. It is concerned with suggesting
solutions for coping with practical classroom dilemmas, problems and unexpected situations. The role of the cooperating teacher is to share reflections and concerns for learner diversity. The student teacher is seen as an apprentice who participates in "hands-on" learning experiences.

iv. **The Personal Orientation** deals with student teachers' developing sense of confidence to explore and discover personal strengths through interpersonal relationships in the classroom in a safe environment of support. In this view, the role of the cooperating teacher is one of support and encouragement. The role of the student teacher is to learn about teacher characteristics that are conducive to positive teacher-pupil relationship and to engage in the process of personal development.

v. **The Critical Orientation** emphasizes the role of schools in promoting democratic values and reducing social inequities and views schooling as a process of social reform. The goal of teacher education is to help teachers become critical, reflective change-agents. It views the cooperating teacher as a professional who sees the classroom as a microcosm of society and seeks to empower student teachers to question their own values and those of the educational system.

We wanted to investigate to what extent the different orientations were represented in student teachers' report of what they perceived to learn from their cooperating teachers in the mentoring relationship.
1.12 Academic Achievement

Measurement of the academic outcome of the students is an age-old process. This phenomenon of educational measurement seems to fall in and out of favour in cyclic fashion over the time. Usually the era of a peak demand is followed by a period of increasing criticism of the inadequacies of testing and of the inability of tests to address the educational problems. But the most recent escalation in the use of tests gained impetus from such educational movements as “excellence”, “effective schools”, “public accountability”, and “minimum competency”. Teachers have to give classroom tests to assess learning outcomes and to motivate their students to learn. And schools continued to administer standardized testing programs to monitor the progress of each grade group and to assess curricular strengths and weakness. Thus students and teachers alike found themselves in some phase of testing-preparing to take a test, administering a test, review or explaining the results from a test.

Measurement data enter into decisions at all levels of education, from those made by the individual classroom teacher to those made by the minister of education. We have found the following classification approach, suggested by Thorndike and Hagen (1977), useful for understanding the various types of decisions that can be made in schools. The categories range from specific everyday in class decision making to much less frequent administrative decisions. The categories of decisions discussed below are instructional, grading, diagnostic, selection, placement, counseling and guidance program or curriculum and administrative policy.

(a) Instructional Decisions: Instructional decisions are the nuts and bolts type of decisions made by all classroom teachers. These are the most frequently made decisions in education. Since
educational decisions at lower levels have a way of affecting
decisions at higher levels, it is important that these types of
decisions be found ones.

(b) **Grading Decisions:** Educational decisions based on grades are
also made by the class teacher but much less frequently than
instructional decisions. The teacher considers test scores and
decisions. Other factors such as attendance, ability, attitude,
behaviour and effort are also sometimes graded. Although each
of these factors represents an area of legitimate concern to class
teachers and although assigning grades for one or more of these
factors is perfectly acceptable, these grades should be kept
separate from grade for achievement.

(c) **Diagnostic Decisions:** Diagnostic decisions are those made about
student's strengths and weakness and the reasons for them. In
schools formal diagnostic decisions are often made by specialists.
These may include the resource teacher, school psychologist or
educational diagnostician. In making diagnostic decisions, these
specialists normally rely primarily on standardized tests and
secondarily on tests of their own construction.

(d) **Selection Decisions:** Selection decisions involve test data used in
part for accepting or rejecting applicants for admission into a
group, program or an institution. The scholastic aptitude test is
used to select students for a particular college.

(e) **Placement Decisions:** Placement decisions are made after an
individual has been accepted into a program. They involve
determining where in a program someone is best suited to begin
work. Standardized achievement test data are often used in
elementary and secondary schools for placing students in courses
that are at their current level of functioning.
(f) **Counseling and Guidance Decisions:** Counseling and guidance decisions involve the use of test data to help recommend programs of study that are likely to be appropriate for a student.

(g) **Curriculum Decisions:** The curriculum decisions are usually made at the school district level after an evaluation study comparing two or more programs has been completed. Teachers are often required to participate in these studies and even to help collect test data for them.

(h) **Administrative Policy Decisions:** Administrative policy decisions may be made at the school, district, state or national level. Based at least in part on measurement data, these decisions may determine the amount of money to be channeled into a school or district, whether a school or district is entitled to special funding or what needs to be done to improve a school, district or the nation's achievement scores.

(i) **Evaluation and Measurement:** The purpose of evaluation is to make a judgment about the quality or worth of something - an educational program or student attainment. The terms formative and summative were introduced by Seriren (1967) to describe the various roles of evaluation in curriculum development and instruction. Formative evaluation is conducted to monitor the instructional process, to determine whether learning is taking place as planned. Summative evaluation is conducted at the end of an instructional segment to determine if learning is sufficiently complete to warrant moving the learner to the next segment of instruction.

Measurement is the process of assigning numbers to individuals or their characteristics according to specified rules. Measurement requires the use of numbers but does not require that value judgements
be made about the numbers obtained from the process. We measure achievement with a test by counting the number of test items a student answers correctly, and we use exactly the same rule to assign a number to the achievement of each student in the class. Measurement is useful for describing the amount of certain abilities that individuals have.

Tests represent one particular measurement technique. A test is a set of questions, each of which has a correct answer that examines usually answer orally or in writing. Test questions differ from those used in measures attitudes, interest or certain other aspects of personality.

All tests are a subset of the quantitative tools or techniques that are classified as measurements. All measurements techniques are a subset of the quantitative and qualitative technique used in evaluation.

The goal of education is to develop in students a command of substantive knowledge. Achievement of this kind of cognitive mastery is certainly not the only concern educators. Parents and students, but it is the central concern. Also is the kind and nature of the achievement.

Thinking, understanding and performing are among the significant goals of education, but none of this behaviour can be produced without a substantive knowledge base. Thinking is a process and knowledge is a product but the two are intimately related (Aaron 1971). New knowledge cannot be produced internally or used without thinking and thinking always involves knowledge. Thought processes are wholly dependent on the knowledge being processed. Knowing how to think can be distinguished from knowing what so is but cannot be separated from it. Acquiring knowledge and learning how to think thus would seem to be interdependent goals.

In order to assimilate new information learners must incorporate it into their own structure of knowledge. They must relate it to what
they already know. The relating is understanding. The understanding of any separate thing involves seeing it's relative to other known things. And knowledge that is understood is more useful than knowledge that is only information.

Teachers can give information to pupils. But they cannot give them understanding, for a person's understanding is private, personal possession created by the one who seeks it. How much we know about a subject depends not only on how much information we have obtained from others or from our experiences. It depends also on how much we have thought about that information, related to it and tested it against other elements of information we have received. This is a primary purpose of study.

Educational achievement means acquisition of command over a store of usable knowledge and in developing the ability to perform certain tasks. Abilities usually include anything from ability to explain, ability to apply knowledge, to ability to take appropriate action in practical situations.

The terms that some educators have used to identify or describe achievement are more impressionistic than demonstrative. Their categories of achievement are based on hypothetical mental functions like comprehension, recognition, analysis, scientific thinking or synthesis; functions that are not directly observable or readily understood. All important aspects of achievement can be described by the type of behaviour required to demonstrate attainment of the achievement.

The fundamental concern of test developers in the process of translating the relevant structure of knowledge into tasks (test items) that require a demonstration of the knowledge and abilities of that specific structure. To do so of require that the elements of the structure
be identified so that test items can be written based on them. These elements can be represented in a variety of ways propositions, instructional objectives or goal statements and with varying levels of specificity.

The knowledge and understanding on which the instructional efforts in our schools are focused on the same knowledge and understanding that tests of achievement ought to measure. The specific knowledge we expect students to learn, represented by the instructional objectives. The teacher's job is to define the structures of knowledge, the concepts and relationships that should form the basis of instruction. Statements of instructional objectives can be useful of instructional planning, for promoting intentional learning and for developing tools for performance assessment.

1.12 Need and Significance of the Study

Individuals effort for academic attainment are always under the influence of psychological, sociological and affective domain components we may call these components as motivational factors for the academic achievement of student teachers of shiksha snatak course of DBHPS. The success and failure in the life of an individual to a certain extent depends on his/her success or failure in academic attainment in turn which is also depends on the way of his/her perception about the course. The perception means it is the process by which he/she organizes his/her sensory impressions in order to give meaning to the environment. Perception is the set of processes by which an individual become aware of and interprets information about the course. Hence there is need to correctly perceive the educational programmes meant for shiksha snatak course of DBHPS then only student-teachers will be able to achieve the academic accomplishments.
In this context the investigator decided to study the effect of educational perception on the academic achievement of student teachers of shiksha snatak course.

In the present study investigator has decided to study the educational perception in terms of curriculum perception, student perception, instructional role perception, instructional goal perception, educational evaluation perception and teaching profession perception which are correlates of academic achievement of shiksha snataka student-teachers of DBHPS. As the investigator is a teacher education with expertise in the classroom observation and teaching and he is more concerned about the involvement of teacher, parents and learner in the academic well being of the shiksha snataka student-teachers of DBHPS. The present study is intended to investigator the relationship and effect of educational perception on academic achievement of shiksha snataka student-teachers of DBHPS. Hence, in this direction, there is a need and has significance to study in the educational perception and academic achievement of shiksha snataka student-teachers of DBHPS.