

VIDYAPITH ACADEMY

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NURSERY

TEACHER

TRAINING

(NTT)

TOPIC 1: THEORY OF EDUCATION

TOPIC 2: EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

TOPIC 3: TEACHING METHODS & MATERIALS

TOPIC 4: SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

TOPIC 5: CHILD PSYCHOLOGY, CARE & HEALTH

PRACTICAL LAB ASSIGNMENT & VIVA VOICE

Theory of Education

Education theory seeks to know, understand and prescribe educational practices. Education theory includes many topics, such as pedagogy, andragogy, curriculum, learning, and education policy, organization and leadership. Educational thought is informed by many disciplines, such as history, philosophy, sociology, and psychology.

For example, a cultural theory of education considers how education occurs through the totality of culture, including prisons, households, and religious institutions as well as schools. Other examples are the behaviorist theory of education that comes from educational psychology and the functionalist theory of education that comes from sociology of education. The earliest known attempts to understand education were by Greek philosophers and sophists.



Educational thought is not necessarily concerned with the construction of theories as much as it is the "reflective examination of educational issues and problems from the perspective of diverse disciplines."

A Focus on Learning

Over the past 30 years there have been major advances in our understanding of human learning. Behavioral psychology that dominated education for more than half a century began its demise in the late 1970's and pretty much collapsed in the 1980's. Almost all competent educational psychologists have moved toward cognitive rather than behavioral models of human learning; Ausubel was simply much ahead of his time with this. Moreover, advances in neurobiology are also revolutionizing our thinking about human learning capabilities and better understanding of how our brains work delayed introduction of instruction in abstract concepts and a mythology now thoroughly debunked by recent cognitive research with infants and young children (Cary, 1985; Gelman, 1999; Keil, 2011). Recent studies of human brain functions show the complexity of brain mechanism and the complex interrelationships in the functioning of various parts of the brain.

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own "rules" and "mental models," which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences.

What is knowledge?

My own thinking about nature of knowledge and knowledge creation (also referred to as epistemology) was initially stimulated by Conant's (1947) book, *On Understanding Science*. A later book by one of Conant's assistants was Kuhn's, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962). That book and Toulmin's (1972), *Human Understanding*:

The collective use and evolution of concepts, helped to shape my thinking. The latter book was especially helpful not only in explaining the origins of concepts but also how they are used and how they evolve over time both for an individual and within a discipline. A definition of concepts, the primary building blocks of knowledge, emerged as: perceived regularities or patterns in events or objects, or records of events of objects designated by a label, usually a word. Most of the words in any language are concept labels, and sometime the foreign word has a slightly different meaning, since it evolved in a different milieu. Two or more concepts are combined with "linking words" to form propositions, and these are descriptive statements about some event of object.

Subject Matter

So much of school learning entails with memorization of a sea of information with little differentiation of the "big ideas" that can be so powerful in helping students build powerful knowledge structures. I recall my fascination with history after reading Muller's (1958) *The Loom of History* where he presents a series of big ideas that help to make sense out of all the details commonly taught in history classes. Similarly, Bonner's (1962) *The Ideas of Biology* showed how several major ideas help to understand all of biology. These and similar works helped me to see that any discipline is not just an ocean of facts and figures but rather a framework of big ideas, what Ausubel called super ordinate concepts, and when these were understood, all the subordinate concepts made much more sense. In other words, subject matter in all disciplines needs to be organized to first present the major ideas of a discipline and then these will help to learn and understand the usual kinds of detailed information thrown at students who may otherwise have little recourse other than to memorize the information. Of course, coming to understand a big idea such as evolution, the Renaissance, or derivative in mathematics also requires learning subordinate concepts and thus sequencing instruction around big ideas is not an easy task.

The Teacher

Typically the teacher's role has been to stand before her class and dispense information to her students for them to memorize. Evaluation typically consists of multiple-choice tests that require little more than recall of information and no evidence that the meaning of this information is understood. This model has survived for years, even though it should have collapsed after the invention of the printing press in 1440 and certainly after the development of cheap computers and the Internet in the 1990's. For most school and university classes, the traditional model of teaching remains dominant today, albeit there are some noteworthy exceptions. It is important to recognize that ideally, teachers are also learners and they "negotiate meanings" with their students. This is a complex interaction where all five elements of education should be involved.

The Context for Educating

In the past two decades, we have witnessed an explosive growth in globalization. China and India have grown exponentially in economic development and their economies will surpass the US in as little as two decades. These economic realities combined with enormous growth in the number and quality of their universities mean that American workers and corporations will face even more global competition than they do today. Add to this the rapid growth of the Brazilian and Australian economies, plus a number of other countries, and we shall see a much fiercer world economic competition. This changing global context will necessitate creating much more effective educational programs for any country that seeks to maintain or raise its living standards. For the last century, education has been the principal driver for upward mobility of individuals and countries and this is even more likely to be the case in the future.

The guiding principles of Constructivism:

- Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning.
- Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.
- In order to teach well, we must understand the mental models that students use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models.
- The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the "right" answers and regurgitate someone else's meaning. Since education is inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning

is to make assessment part of the learning process, ensuring it provides students with information on the quality of their learning.

How Constructivism impacts learning:

Curriculum - Constructivism calls for the elimination of a standardized curriculum. Instead, it promotes using curricula customized to the students' prior knowledge. Also, it emphasizes hands-on problem solving.

Instruction - Under the theory of constructivism, educators focus on making connections between facts and fostering new understanding in students. Instructors tailor their teaching strategies to student responses and encourage students to analyze, interpret, and predict information. Teachers also rely heavily on open-ended questions and promote extensive dialogue among students.

Assessment - Constructivism calls for the elimination of grades and standardized testing. Instead, assessment becomes part of the learning process so that students play a larger role in judging their own progress.

Behaviorism is a philosophy of learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts mental activities. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior.

Experiments by behaviorists identify conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioral pattern:

- Classic conditioning occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus.

The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Essentially, animals and people are biologically "wired" so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response.

- Behavioral or operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced.

Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviorist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley.

How Behaviorism impacts learning:

- Positive and negative reinforcement techniques of Behaviorism can be very effective.
- Teachers use Behaviorism when they reward or punish student behaviors.

The Brain-based Learning Theory is based on the structure and function of the brain. As long as the brain is not prohibited from fulfilling its normal processes, learning will occur.

Every person is born with a brain that functions as an information processor. Traditional schooling, however, often inhibits learning by discouraging, ignoring, or punishing the brain's natural learning processes.

The core principles of Brain-based Learning state that:

- The brain is a parallel processor, meaning it can perform several activities at once.
- Learning engages the whole physiology.
- The search for meaning is innate.
- The search for meaning comes through patterning.
- Emotions are critical to patterning.
- The brain processes wholes and parts simultaneously.
- Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception.
- Learning involves both conscious and unconscious processes.
- We have two types of memory: spatial and rote.
- We understand best when facts are embedded in natural, spatial memory.
- Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat. ➤ Each brain is unique.

The three instructional techniques associated with Brain-based Learning are:

Creating learning environments that fully immerse students in an educational experience.
Trying to eliminate fear in learners, while maintaining a highly challenging environment.
Allowing the learner to consolidate and internalize information by actively processing it.

The Control Theory of Motivation, proposed by William Glasser, contends that behavior is never caused by a response to an outside stimulus. Instead, the behavior is inspired by what a person wants most at any given time.

Responding to complaints that today's students are "unmotivated," Glasser attests that all living creatures "control" their behavior to maximize their need satisfaction. According to Glasser, if students are not motivated to do their schoolwork, it's because they view schoolwork as irrelevant to their basic human needs.

Glasser identifies two types of teachers:

- **Boss teachers** use rewards and punishment to coerce students to comply with rules and complete required assignments. Glasser calls this "leaning on your shovel" work. He shows how high percentages of students recognize that the work they do, even when their teachers praise them, is low-level work.
- **Lead teachers**, on the other hand, avoid coercion completely. They make the intrinsic rewards of doing the work clear to their students, correlating any proposed assignments to the students' basic needs. These teachers use grades as indicators of what has and hasn't been learned, rather than a reward. They will "fight to protect" highly engaged, deeply motivated students who are doing quality work from having to fulfill meaningless requirements.

How the Control Theory impacts learning:

- **Curriculum** - Teachers negotiate both content and method with students. Students' basic needs literally help shape how and what they are taught.
- **Instruction** - Teachers rely on cooperative, active learning techniques that enhance the power of the learners. Lead teachers make sure that all assignments meet some degree of their students' need satisfaction. This secures student loyalty, which carries the class through whatever relatively meaningless tasks might be necessary to satisfy official requirements.
- **Assessment** - Instructors only give "good grades" to certify quality work. Student assessment uses an absolute standard, rather than a relative "curve."

Observational Learning, also called The Social Learning Theory, occurs when an observer's behavior changes after viewing a behavioral model. An observer's behavior can be affected by the positive or negative consequences - called vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment - of a model's behavior.

The guiding principles behind Observational Learning, or Social Learning Theory:

- The observer will imitate the model's behavior if the model possesses characteristics - things such as talent, intelligence, power, good looks, or popularity - that the observer finds attractive or desirable.

- The observer will react to the way the model is treated and mimic the model's behavior. When the model's behavior is rewarded, the observer is more likely to reproduce the rewarded behavior. When the model is punished, an example of vicarious punishment, the observer is less likely to reproduce the same behavior.
- A distinction exists between an observer's "acquiring" a behavior and "performing" a behavior. Through observation, the observer can acquire the behavior without performing it. The observer may then later, in situations where there is an incentive to do so, display the behavior.

Learning by observation involves four separate processes:

- **Attention:** Observers cannot learn unless they pay attention to what's happening around them. This process is influenced by characteristics of the model, such as how much one likes or identifies with the model, and by characteristics of the observer, such as the observer's expectations or level of emotional arousal.
- **Retention:** Observers must not only recognize the observed behavior but also remember it at some later time. This process depends on the observer's ability to code or structure the information in an easily remembered form or to mentally or physically rehearse the model's actions.
- **Production:** Observers must be physically and intellectually capable of producing the act. In many cases the observer possesses the necessary responses. But sometimes, reproducing the model's actions may involve skills the observer has not yet acquired. It is one thing to carefully watch a circus juggler, but it is quite another to go home and repeat those acts.
- **Motivation:** In general, observers will perform the act only if they have some motivation or reason to do so. The presence of reinforcement or punishment, either to the model or directly to the observer, becomes most important in this process.

Attention and retention account for acquisition or learning of a model's behavior; production and motivation control the performance.

How Observational Learning impacts learning:

- **Curriculum** - Students must get a chance to observe and model the behavior that leads to a positive reinforcement.

- **Instruction** - Educators must encourage collaborative learning, since much of learning happens within important social and environmental contexts.
- **Assessment** - A learned behavior often cannot be performed unless there is the right environment for it. Educators must provide the incentive and the supportive environment for the behavior to happen. Otherwise, assessment may not be accurate.

A New Model for Education

With further refinement of learning theory and instructional practices that facilitate meaningful learning, the further development of Cmap Tools to facilitate use of Internet and other resources, and the explosive development of the WWW, it is now possible to effect what we call a New Model for Education. This New Model has three principal components:

- The use of expert “skeleton concept” maps to scaffold learning. “Expert skeleton” concept maps are small (10-15) concepts arranged hierarchically by and expert in the knowledge domain for learners to use as a starting point to “scaffold” their learning. Possible additional concepts may be suggested in a “Parking Lot” to be integrated into the skeleton cmap.
- Use of all features of CmapTools, including collaboration tools, to build over a span of days or weeks a personal “knowledge model” for the domain studied. This may be preserved on DVD’s or hard drives and used in future years to accelerate further learning in this domain.
- Explicit instruction in metacognitive learning and the use of metacognitive tools.

Normative Theories of Education

Normative theories of education provide the norms, goals, and standards of education.

Educational philosophies

"Normative philosophies or theories of education may make use of the results of philosophical thought and of factual inquiries about human beings and the psychology of learning, but in any case they propound views about what education should be, what dispositions it should cultivate, why it ought to cultivate them, how and in whom it should do so, and what forms it should take. In a full-fledged philosophical normative theory of education, besides analysis of the sorts described, there will normally be propositions of the following kinds:

1. Basic normative premises about what is good or right;
2. Basic factual premises about humanity and the world;
3. Conclusions, based on these two kinds of premises, about the dispositions education should foster;
4. Further factual premises about such things as the psychology of learning and methods of teaching; and
5. Further conclusions about such things as the methods that education should use."

Examples of the purpose of schools include: develop reasoning about perennial questions, master the methods of scientific inquiry, cultivate the intellect, create change agents, develop spirituality, and model a democratic society:



Common educational philosophies include:

- Educational perennialism,
- Educational progressivism,
- Educational essentialism,
- Critical pedagogy,
- Montessori education,
- Waldorf education, ➤ Democratic education.

Curriculum theory

Normative theories of curriculum aim to "describe, or set norms, for conditions surrounding many of the concepts and constructs" that define curriculum. These normative propositions are different than the ones above in that normative curriculum theory is not necessarily untestable. A central question asked by normative curriculum theory is: given a particular educational philosophy, what is worth knowing and why? Some examples are: a deep understanding of the Great Books, direct experiences driven by student interest, a superficial understanding of wide range knowledge social and community problems and issues, knowledge and understanding specific to cultures and their achievements.

Descriptive theories of Education

Descriptive theories of education provide descriptions or explanations of the processes of education.

Curriculum theory

Descriptive theories of curriculum explain how curricula "benefit or harm all publics it touches".

The term hidden curriculum describes that which is learned simply by being in a learning environment. For example, a student in a teacher-led classroom is learning submission. The hidden curriculum is not necessarily intentional.

Instructional theory

Instructional theories focus on the methods of instruction for teaching curricula. Theories include the methods of: autonomous learning, coyote teaching, inquiry-based instruction, lecture, maturationism, socratic method, outcome-based education, taking children seriously, transformative learning.

The nature of the learner and of learning

Philosophical Anthropology

Philosophical anthropology is the philosophical study of human nature. In terms of learning, examples of descriptive theories of the learner are: a mind, soul, and spirit capable of emulating the Absolute Mind (Idealism); an orderly, sensing, and rational being capable of understanding the world of things (Realism), a rational being with a soul modeled after God and who comes to know God through reason and revelation (Neo-Thomism), an evolving and active being capable of interacting with the environment (Pragmatism), a fundamentally free and individual being who is capable of being authentic through the making of and taking responsibility for choices (Existentialism).

Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is an empirical science that provides descriptive theories of how people learn. Examples of theories of education in psychology are:

- constructivism,
- behaviorism,
- cognitive, and
- motivational theory

Sociology of education

The sociology of education is the study of how public institutions and individual experiences affect education and its outcomes. It is most concerned with the public schooling systems of modern industrial societies, including the expansion of higher, further, adult, and continuing education. Examples of theories of education from sociology include: functionalism, conflict theory, social efficiency, and social mobility.

Educational anthropology

Educational anthropology is a sub-field of anthropology and is widely associated with the pioneering work of George Spindler. As the name would suggest, the focus of educational anthropology is obviously on education, although an anthropological approach to education tends to focus on the cultural aspects of education, including informal as well as formal education. As education involves understandings of who we are, it is not surprising that the single most recognized dictum of educational anthropology is that the field is centrally concerned with cultural transmission. Cultural transmission involves the transfer of a sense of identity between generations, sometimes known as enculturation and also transfer of identity between cultures, sometimes known as acculturation. Accordingly thus it is also not surprising that educational anthropology has become increasingly focused on ethnic identity and ethnic change.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The term "psychology" is derived from two Greek words – psyche (soul) and logos (science or study). Thus, literally it means study or science of soul. But now it is no more considered as science of soul. It has moved away from this focus and established itself as a scientific discipline which deals with the various processes and behavior of organism. Most of the contemporary psychologists agree on a definition of psychology as the scientific study of behavior and mental processes of organism. For more definitions of psychology. There are three key terms in the above definition of psychology which have been clarified below Scientific study means using techniques such as observation, description, and experimental investigation to collect information and then organizing this information. Mental processes refer to private and cognitive process such as attention, perception, remembering (memory), problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, feelings, thinking, motives etc. Behaviour refers to all the actions or reactions of an organism (person or animal) in response to external or internal stimuli. The behaviour of an individual, in a broad sense, refers to anything the individual does. According to Leagans (1961), behaviour refers to what an individual knows (Knowledge), what s/he can do (skill -mental or physical), what s/he thinks (attitude), and what s/he actually does. Behaviour may be simple or complex, short or enduring. Human behaviour may be overt (expressed outside) or covert (expressed inside). While symbolic adoption is an example of covert behaviour, use adoption is an example of overt behaviour. Both overt and covert behaviour can be measured. People who study psychological phenomena are not necessarily limited to the study of human beings only; they also study the behaviour of animals. They study the behaviour and mental processes of individual not of group/community. Thus, when they are studying groups, the focus is generally on how individuals perform within the group rather than the study of the group as a whole.

Education

In order to know the educational psychology; we have to first understand what is education. The world education is derived from Latin word educare which means to bring-up. Education is also derived from another Latin world educere which means to lead out. Education as educere is more acceptable as it means leading an individual from ignorance to knowledge. Education can be defined as the process of imparting or acquiring knowledge and habits through instruction or study. It can also be defined as a process in which human behaviour is modified so as to be in closer agreement with

some model or ideal determined by the values of society. If education is to be effective, it should result in changes in all the behavioural components.

Educational psychology

Educational Psychology is a combination or overlapping of two separate fields of study; psychology and education. It is a distinct discipline with its own theories, research methods, problems and techniques. Educational psychology is distinct from other fields of psychology due to its focus on understanding the processes of teaching and learning that takes place in formal environments. Educational psychologists study what people think and do as they teach and learn a particular curriculum in a particular environment where education and training are intended to take place. They help in developing instructional methods and materials used to train people in both educational and work settings. They are also concerned with research on issues of relevance for education, counseling and learning problems.

Social, Moral and Cognitive Development

To understand the characteristics of learners in childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age, educational psychology develops and applies theories of human development. Often represented as stages through which people pass as they mature, developmental theories describe changes in mental abilities (cognition), social roles, moral reasoning, and beliefs about the nature of knowledge.

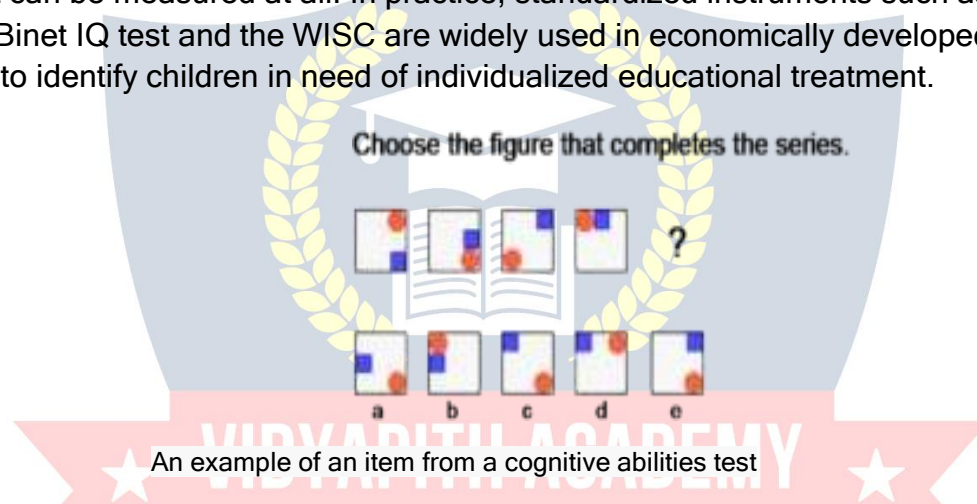
For example, educational psychologists have conducted research on the instructional applicability of Jean Piaget's theory of development, according to which children mature through four stages of cognitive capability. Piaget hypothesized that children are not capable of abstract logical thought until they are older than about 11 years, and therefore younger children need to be taught using concrete objects and examples. Researchers have found that transitions, such as from concrete to abstract logical thought, do not occur at the same time in all domains. A child may be able to think abstractly about mathematics, but remain limited to concrete thought when reasoning about human relationships. Perhaps Piaget's most enduring contribution is his insight that people actively construct their understanding through a self-regulatory process.

Developmental theories are sometimes presented not as shifts between qualitatively different stages, but as gradual increments on separate dimensions. Development of epistemological beliefs (beliefs about knowledge) have been described in terms of gradual changes in people's belief in: certainty and permanence of knowledge, fixedness of ability, and credibility of authorities such as teachers and experts. People develop more sophisticated beliefs about knowledge as they gain in education and maturity.

Individual differences and disabilities

Each person has an individual profile of characteristics, abilities and challenges that result from predisposition, learning and development. This manifest as individual differences in intelligence, creativity, cognitive style, motivation and the capacity to process information, communicate, and relate to others. The most prevalent disabilities found among school age children are attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), learning disability, dyslexia, and speech disorder. Less common disabilities include mental retardation, hearing impairment, cerebral palsy, epilepsy, and blindness.

Although theories of intelligence have been discussed by philosophers since Plato, intelligence testing is an invention of educational psychology, and is coincident with the development of that discipline. Continuing debates about the nature of intelligence revolve on whether intelligence can be characterized by a single factor known as general intelligence, multiple factors (e.g., Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences), or whether it can be measured at all. In practice, standardized instruments such as the Stanford-Binet IQ test and the WISC are widely used in economically developed countries to identify children in need of individualized educational treatment.



★ An example of an item from a cognitive abilities test ★

Children classified as gifted are often provided with accelerated or enriched programs. Children with identified deficits may be provided with enhanced education in specific skills such as phonological. In addition to basic abilities, the individual's personality traits are also important, with people higher in conscientiousness and hope attaining superior academic achievements, even after controlling for intelligence and past performance.

Scope of Educational Psychology in Agricultural

Educational psychology deals with the behaviour of human beings in educational situations. Its main concerned is to identify various psychological factors affecting teaching and learning process. It describes and explains the learning according to scientifically determined principles and facts concerning human behaviour. Educational psychology addresses the questions – “why do some individual learn more than others” and "what can be done to improve that learning." Therefore, its subject matter is

revolved around teaching and learning process and educational psychologists attempt to discover:

- The extent to which the factors of heredity and environment contribute to learning.
- The nature of the learning process.
- The educational significance of individual differences in rate and limit of learning.
- The inner change that occur during learning.
- The relation of teaching procedures to leaning outcomes.
- The most effective techniques for evaluating progress in learning.
- The relative effect upon an individual of formal learning as compared with incidental or informal learning experiences.
- To value the scientific attitude towards education.
- The psychological impact upon learner's attitude of sociological conditions.

Importance of Educational Psychology

The importance of educational psychology in agricultural extension is immense as both disciplines deal with human behaviour in educational environment. Following are the some of the reasons which explain the importance of educational psychology in agricultural extension.

- Educational psychology helps the extension agent to know the learner, his interest, attitudes, aptitude, level of aspiration, intelligence, interests, individual behaviour in group, etc. which plays a major role in one's learning.
- Its main concern is on teaching and learning. This helps in formulating training programmes for improving the knowledge and skill of extension agent and farmers. It also helps in selection of teaching methods and aids for organising effective learning situations and suggests technique of learning as well as teaching.
- It helps in imparting better education by organising the subject matter of learning experience, preparation of different text books, development of assessment patterns, etc for heterogeneous learners.
- Educational psychology helps in acquainting learner with the mechanism of heredity and environment.

- It also deals with the problem-solving which is very important for extension agent to develop problem-solving skills amongst farmers.
- It helps extension agent to find causes of prejudices, the habit of sticking to old practices of farming and ways of doing things, the doubts and lack of confidence and factors affecting motivation.
- It also helps them to know the emotions and feelings of farmers, how farmers learn new practices.

Learning and Cognition

Two fundamental assumptions that underlie formal education systems are that students (a) retain knowledge and skills they acquire in school, and (b) can apply them in situations outside the classroom. But are these assumptions accurate? Research has found that, even when students report not using the knowledge acquired in school, a considerable portion is retained for many years and long-term retention is strongly dependent on the initial level of mastery. One study found that university students who took a child development course and attained high grades showed, when tested ten years later, average retention scores of about 30%, whereas those who obtained moderate or lower grades showed average retention scores of about 20%. There is much less consensus on the crucial question of how much knowledge acquired in school transfers to tasks encountered outside formal educational settings, and how such transfer occurs. Some psychologists claim that research evidence for this type of far transfer is scarce, while others claim there is abundant evidence of far transfer in specific domains. Several perspectives have been established within which the theories of learning used in educational psychology are formed and contested. These include behaviorism, cognitivism, social cognitive theory, and constructivism. This section summarizes how educational psychology has researched and applied theories within each of these perspectives.

Motivation

Motivation is an internal state that activates, guides and sustains behavior. Motivation can have several impacting effects on how students learn and how they behave towards subject matter:

- Provide direction towards goals
- Enhance cognitive processing abilities and performance
- Direct behavior toward particular goals
- Lead to increased effort and energy
- Increase initiation of and persistence in activities

Educational psychology research on motivation is concerned with the volition or will that

students bring to a task, their level of interest and intrinsic, the personally held goals that guide their behavior, and their belief about the causes of their success or failure. As intrinsic motivation deals with activities that act as their own rewards, extrinsic motivation deals with motivations that are brought on by consequences or punishments.

A form of attribution theory developed by Bernard Weiner describes how students' beliefs about the causes of academic success or failure affect their emotions and motivations. For example, when students attribute failure to lack of ability and ability is perceived as uncontrollable, they experience the emotions of shame and embarrassment and consequently decrease effort and show poorer performance. In contrast, when students attribute failure to lack of effort and effort is perceived as controllable, they experience the emotion of guilt and consequently increase effort and show improved performance.

The self-determination theory (SDT) was developed by psychologists Edward and Richard Ryan. SDT focuses on the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in driving human behavior and posits inherent growth and development tendencies. It emphasizes the degree to which an individual's behavior is self-motivated and self-determined. When applied to the realm of education, the self-determination theory is concerned primarily with promoting in students an interest in learning, a value of education, and a confidence in their own capacities and attributes.

Motivational theories also explain how learners' goals affect the way they engage with academic tasks. Those who have mastery goals strive to increase their ability and knowledge. Those who have performance approach goals strive for high grades and seek opportunities to demonstrate their abilities. Those who have performance avoidance goals are driven by fear of failure and avoid situations where their abilities are exposed. Research has found that mastery goals are associated with many positive outcomes such as persistence in the face of failure, preference for challenging tasks, creativity and intrinsic motivation. Performance avoidance goals are associated with negative outcomes such as poor concentration while studying, disorganized studying, less self-regulation, shallow information processing and test anxiety. Performance approach goals are associated with positive outcomes, and some negative outcomes such as an unwillingness to seek help and shallow information processing.

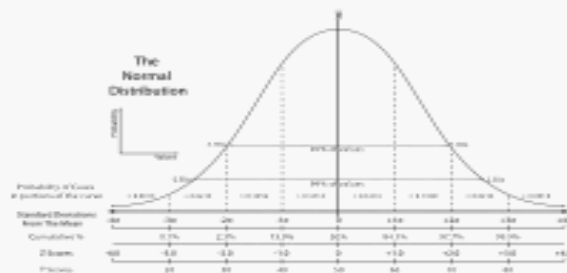
Locus of control is a salient factor in the successful academic performance of students. During the 1970s and '80s, Cassandra B. Whyte did significant educational research studying locus of control as related to the academic achievement of students pursuing higher education coursework. Much of her educational research and publications focused upon the theories of Julian B. Rotter in regard to the importance of internal control and successful academic performance. Whyte reported that individuals who perceive and believe that their hard work may lead to more successful academic

outcomes, instead of depending on luck or fate, persist and achieve academically at a higher level. Therefore, it is important to provide education and counseling in this regard.

Research Methodology

The research methods used in educational psychology tend to be drawn from psychology and other social sciences. There is also a history of significant methodological innovation by educational psychologists, and psychologists investigating educational problems. Research methods address problems in both research design and data analysis. Research design informs the planning of experiments and observational studies to ensure that their results have internal, external and ecological validity. Data analysis encompasses methods for processing both quantities (numerical) and qualitative (non-numerical) research data. Although, historically, the use of quantitative methods was often considered an essential mark of scholarship, modern educational psychology research uses both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Quantitative methods



Test scores and other educational variables often approximate a normal distribution.

Perhaps first among the important methodological innovations of educational psychology was the development and application of factor analysis by Charles Spearman. Factor analysis is mentioned here as one example of the many multivariate statistical methods used by educational psychologists. Factor analysis is used to summarize relationships among a large set of variables or test questions, develop theories about mental constructs such as self-efficacy or anxiety, and assess the reliability and validity of test scores. Over 100 years after its introduction by Spearman, factor analysis has become a research staple figuring prominently in educational psychology journals.

Qualitative methods

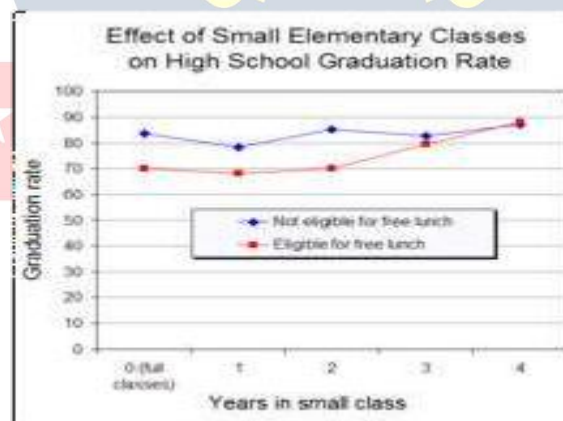
Qualitative methods are used in educational studies whose purpose is to describe events, processes and situations of theoretical significance. The qualitative methods

used in educational psychology often derive from anthropology, sociology or sociolinguistics. For example, the anthropological method of ethnography has been used to describe teaching and learning in classrooms. In studies of this type, the researcher may gather detailed field notes as a participant observer or passive observer. Later, the notes and other data may be categorized and interpreted by methods such as grounded theory. Triangulation, the practice of crosschecking findings with multiple data sources, is highly valued in qualitative research.

Case studies are forms of qualitative research focusing on a single person, organization, event, or other entity. In one case study, researchers conducted a 150minute, semi-structured interview with a 20-year-old woman who had a history of suicidal thinking between the ages of 14 to 18. They analyzed an audio-recording of the interview to understand the roles of cognitive development, identity formation and social attachment in ending her suicidal thinking.

Applications in teaching

Research on classroom management and pedagogy is conducted to guide teaching practice and form a foundation for teacher education programs. The goals of classroom management are to create an environment conducive to learning and to develop students' self-management skills. More specifically, classroom management strives to create positive teacher-student and peer relationships, manage student groups to sustain on-task behavior, and use counseling and other psychological methods to aid students who present persistent psychosocial problems.



Introductory educational psychology is a commonly required area of study in most North American teacher education programs. When taught in that context, its content varies, but it typically emphasizes learning theories (especially cognitively oriented ones), issues about motivation, assessment of students' learning, and classroom management. A developing Wikibook about educational psychology gives more detail about the

educational psychology topics that are typically presented in preservice teacher education.

Careers in Educational Psychology

Education and training

A person may be considered an educational psychologist after completing a graduate degree in educational psychology or a closely related field. Universities establish educational psychology graduate programs in either psychology departments or, more commonly, faculties of education.

Educational psychologists work in a variety of settings. Some work in university settings where they carry out research on the cognitive and social processes of human development, learning and education. Educational psychologists may also work as consultants in designing and creating educational materials, classroom programs and online courses.

Educational psychologists who work in k-12 school settings (closely related are school psychologists in the US and Canada) are trained at the master's and doctoral levels. In addition to conducting assessments, school psychologists provide services such as academic and behavioral intervention, counseling, teacher consultation, and crisis intervention. However, school psychologists are generally more individual-oriented towards students.

Professional Organizations

Holding membership among Division 15 of the American Psychological Association and/or multiple divisions of the American Educational Research Association is common among educational psychologists. These organizations each host 1-2 conferences each year and provide peer-reviewed journals of current research in the field.

Employment outlook

Employment for psychologists in the United States is expected to grow faster than most occupations through the year 2014, with anticipated growth of 18-26%. One in four psychologists are employed in educational settings. In the United States, the median salary for psychologists in primary and secondary schools is US\$58,360 as of May 2004.

In recent decades the participation of women as professional researchers in North American educational psychology has risen dramatically. The percentage of female authors of peer-reviewed journal articles doubled from 1976 (24%) to 1995 (51%), and has since remained constant. Female membership on educational psychology journal

editorial boards increased from 17% in 1976 to 47% in 2004. Over the same period, the proportion of chief editor positions held by women increased from 22% to 70%.

Research Journals

There are several peer-reviewed research journals in educational psychology tracked by Journal Citation Reports. The most highly cited journals related to educational psychology are currently Child Development, Educational Psychologist, and Journal of Educational Psychology.



TEACHING METHODS AND **MATERIAL**

INTRODUCTION

The Social Studies curriculum over the past one decade has changed drastically both in content and methodology. The recognition of culture, differences of various ethnic groups has directly influenced the content and approaches to Social Studies. The nature of Social Studies is that it is a study where the nature of man is its major central focus of attention. Social Studies therefore organize its content around relevant knowledge, values and skills that constitute the wide sphere of man. The subject has also been seen as a prime discipline adopted to socialize our young and function as a means of promoting progress towards the major social education goals that have been identified for emphasis - civic duties or development of citizen participation skills, acquisition of desirable attitudes and values, disciplined life etc. The scope of Social Studies therefore, varies depending on the level one wants to cover. Its scope involves the" determination of what aspects of the various constituent contents would be most valuable for the realization of the objectives of Social Studies. It is therefore obvious that Social Studies is by its very nature a dynamic discipline which is wide and cannot be expected to have distinct boundaries. The scope certainly covers both immediate and distant environment in content and Methodology. The exquisite and transfer of

knowledge require some instructional strategies. The Social Studies teacher needs to acquire competence in his approaches to the teaching of Social Studies. These competences include content competence; competence in transmitting the content to the learner and competence in the use of variety of instructional strategies, and competence in evaluating instruction. The teaching and learning processes involve some methods and means of enhancing meaningful learning through the use of instructional resources. What makes a teacher good? Is the teacher an artist or a scientist? And why teach? What are the advantages? These are the issues in this section.

Characteristics of Constructivist Teaching

One of the primary goals of using constructivist teaching is that students learn how to learn by giving them the training to take initiative for their own learning experiences.

According to Audrey Gray, the characteristics of a constructivist classroom are as follows:

- the learners are actively involved
- the environment is democratic
- the activities are interactive and student-centered
- the teacher facilitates a process of learning in which students are encouraged to be responsible and autonomous

Role of teachers

In the constructivist classroom, the teacher's role is to prompt and facilitate discussion. Thus, the teacher's main focus should be on guiding students by asking questions that will lead them to develop their own conclusions on the subject. Parker J. Palmer (1997) suggests that good teachers join self, subject, and students in the fabric of life because they teach from an integral and undivided self, they manifest in their own lives, and evoke in their students, a capacity for connectedness".

David Jonassen identified three major roles for facilitators to support students in constructivist learning environments:

- Modeling
- Coaching
- Scaffolding

A brief description of the Jonassen major roles are:

Modeling – Jonassen describes Modeling as the most commonly used instructional strategy in CLEs. Two types of modeling exist: behavioural modeling of the overt performance and cognitive modeling of the covert cognitive processes. Behavioural modeling in Constructivist Learning Environments demonstrates how to perform the activities identified in the activity structure. Cognitive modeling articulates the reasoning (reflection-in-action) that learners should use while engaged in the activities.

Coaching – For Jonassen the role of coach is complex and inexact. She acknowledges that a good coach motivates learners, analyzes their performance, provides feedback and advice on the performance and how to learn about how to perform, and provokes reflection and articulation of what was learned. Moreover, she posits that coaching may be solicited by the learner. Students seeking help might press a “How am I Doing?” button. Or coaching may be unsolicited, when the coach observes the performance and provides encouragement, diagnosis, directions, and feedback. Coaching naturally and necessarily involves responses that are situated in the learner’s task performance (Laffey, Tupper, Musser, & Wedman, 1997).

Scaffolding - Scaffolding is a more systemic approach to supporting the learner, focusing on the task, the environment, the teacher, and the learner. Scaffolding provides temporary frameworks to support learning and student performance beyond their capacities. The concept of scaffolding represents any kind of support for cognitive activity that is provided by an adult when the child and adult are performing the task together (Wood & Middleton, 1975).

METHODS OF TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES

Teaching is a process by which one interacts with another person with the intention of influencing the learning of that person. It is the interplay between the teacher and the learners. Teaching, as a useful and practical art calls for intuition, creativity, improvisation and expressiveness.

Though there are many teaching methods and techniques associated with the integrated Social Studies, there is no single mode of teaching which fits all the learning situations. A teacher of Social Studies has to be abreast of the innovations in teaching methods. In order to be effective, a teacher of Social Studies has to be a source of information, and a guide, an organizer of opportunities for learning and a person who can stimulate any environment for effective learning using the following teaching modes, among others, available to Social Studies teachers

1. Simulation Method

This is a simplified model of a real-world situation. Simulation is usually used for teaching concepts and principles that are not easily observable such as theoretical concepts. They are dynamic and lively ways of presenting ideas, problems, issues and realities in our past and present societies. Simulation comes from the Latin word "Similis" which means, to act like, to resemble. It is therefore expected that through this method, a situation will be created in which activities are presented as if they are real life. There are three major kinds of simulation methods. These consist of historical simulation, simulation activities and simulation games. Historical simulations are dramatizations in which past incidents are relived and real characters portrayed. Examples include the hoisting of the Nigeria Flag on the first independence day, the crowning of an Oba or the turbaning of an Emir. Simulation activities include practical exercises wherein students play role or act what really happens in an occasion of organisation e.g. a mock state house of assembly, ECOWAS meeting, O. A. U. meeting, bank, etc.

Simulation games or instructional games are used for educational purpose. They are activities that involve rules, competitions and players. The outcome of the game are determined less by chance and more by decision made by the players. Thus, simulation games are commercially sold-board-games of which "Monopoly" is very common. There are other games which model social, economic, and political events, but "Monopoly" is a simulation of buying, developing and renting of properties. There are other games that can simulate economic operations, election procedures, historic battles, miniature stock market operations, career choice etc. There seems to be evidence that these games are effective in dealing with the learners' attitudes.

2. Laboratory Method

The Laboratory Method in Social Studies involves the employment of source materials, supplementary references, mechanical devices, audiovisual aids and many other lifelike activities to supplement textbook instructions and to increase the effectiveness of presentation and mastery. Laboratory mode of teaching does not refer to a special place or a special class period, but to an activity. The activity can occur in a regular classroom, outside the classroom or in a specially designed room. The important point to note in this method is that students manipulate concrete objects, equipment, etc. under the direction of the teacher. Since the teaching of Social Studies in both primary and Secondary Schools is done in units, the laboratory method provides opportunities for the application of knowledge and skills. The advantages of this method may not fully be realised because of lack of the facilities and equipment necessary for the effective use of this method. This method can be used for almost all the topics in Social Studies. Interview and discussions on issues can be recorded on video-taped and be played back to the class.

3. Inquiry Method

Inquiry or discovery method encourages divergent thinking, allows students to find out information by themselves and it generates students' enthusiasm at examining issues logically. The process of inquiry method involves identification of a problem, analysis of these information in order to arrive at possible solution and using the solution to generalize. Students can be required to find out the reasons for fuel shortage in the country, power failure, scarcity of some goods etc. A very desirable aspect of the inquiry technique is its emphasis on the use of higher levels of thinking.

4. Project Method

A project can be carried out by an individual student for his end product or by a group of students co-operating to produce something much larger than an individual student's project. Project method involves doing concrete things and it is self-motivated. Project method needs extremely careful planning by the teacher but the aim is to get the students to co-ordinate his information in an intelligent manner, Using all the sources of information available to the students is fundamental to "learning how to learn"

5. Demonstrations

Demonstrations are the repetition of series of planned actions designed to illustrate certain phenomena. Demonstrations can be presented by the students or teachers. The use of demonstration is to make some information clear. Demonstration can also be used to introduce a certain topic for study by presenting some vivid illustrations. It can be used either as the starting point for a unit of instruction in Social Studies or to provide a convincing conclusion.

6. Question and Answer Method

This is a common teaching method used by teachers. The teacher in this method asks a question and then recognizes one student who answers the question. The teacher then reacts verbally to the student's response. The sequence can continue with the teacher asking questions and a student at a time responding to the question. A situation may arise where another student can be asked to react to the previously given answer. Question and answer is, therefore, a process whereby the teacher asks a question, a student responds, the teacher then reacts and asks another question which is answered by another student and so on.

7. Field-Trips

Field-trips involve journey with the pupils to observe and investigate situations outside the classroom. Many of such expeditions might go no further than the school corridor, the school building or playgrounds. Within the school itself the teacher may find illustrative examples, for. his students. In the immediate vicinity of the school there may be available for examination and observation such things as different soils, vegetation, a river etc. The teacher may sometimes invite the co-operation of local industry or public services and visit places like the Oba's palace, museum etc.

8. Discussion Method

This method refers to student - to - student talk with occasional intervention by the teacher. The method involves the use of small group of students where each group will have a leader who initiates the discussion of the issue or subject matter. It should be noted that the students are more active than the teacher when this method is used. But care should be taken to avoid the discussion being dominated by some students. Every member of a small group should be given equal opportunity or chances of making contributions to any discussion.

9. Lecture Method

This method is the most commonly used mode by the teachers. This expects the students to quietly sit and listen to the talk about the subject matter. In this situation, students are expected to take notes and sometimes the teacher may write notes on the chalkboard. Often the lesson may end up with a summary and few recapitulate questions. A teacher would have no option than to use the lecture method when the topic is abstract. Topics like Faith, Reason, Man and His Beliefs, Supernaturalism, Justice etc. can be explained through the lecture method.

10. Problem - Solving Method

This method enables the students to think about a problem, try to understand the problem and finally evaluate information in order to find solution(s) to the problem that has been identified. The method demands the use of Scientific approach in the teaching and learning processes. The method recognises that there is an orderly procedure in the thinking process. The method focuses the learner's attention on activities which may involve arrangement, classification, sorting out and interacting with facts with the ultimate goal of finding a logical answer to a specific problem.

11. Dramatization Method

It is one of the most effective methods of stimulating the students in what they learn. It is a natural way by which students express freely their understanding of the life around them. The method allows for a great deal of involvement and participation by the

students physically, emotionally and mentally. In a situation where a lesson or topic is dry, dramatization could effectively help to sustain the students' attention and interest. Dramatization involves direct and simple techniques such as mining playlet and roleplaying which can be allocated for such techniques.

12. Home Assignment

This is not a method but a device which can be used to engage the students outside the lesson period. In the light of students' attitude to home assignment, the teacher should give assignments that can be completed within a short time. Such home assignment must be interesting and relevant to the subject matter. It should not be given, as punishment, otherwise, students would develop negative attitude to anything assignment outside the classroom. Home assignment can be given in any topic in Social Studies. It could be reading assignment, finding answers to some questions or seeking information about a particular topic etc.

Construction Method

This method helps the students to learn by doing, to be initiative and to engage in self directed activity. The construction activity can be of two kinds. One involves the use of print materials like newspaper construction, file folder, scrap book, vertical file, magazine construction and book construction. On the other hand, some materials are used to make items like models, sculptures and other instructional constructions. It is the role of the teacher to guide in the initiation of construction method. Construction method could be used for the following topics in Social Studies: The Family Structure, The Systems of the Government, Social Organisations, Cultural pattern etc.

Material for Teaching

Materials consist of the major tools the teacher employs in transmitting knowledge, e.g. environment resources, printed materials which could be textbooks or semi-text (i.e. charts, maps, pictures, photographs which are commercially made) and non-texts which include models, real objects, video, films and audio aids. From the foregoing, it is evident that some schools are now able to make greater use of some of the more dynamic and attractive techniques of education now possible with the device of educational technology.

1. Textbooks

Textbooks are, of course, another traditional instrument of instruction. In its most rigid form a textbook represents a series of lessons which demands the teacher's initiative. In almost every study, pupils are required to move from textbooks to specialised

references for kinds of data such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, information almanacs, government bulletins, commercial publications and miscellaneous periodicals. Textbooks are among the most instructional materials readily available for the use in the classroom for the implementation of Social Studies curriculum, hence the heavy reliance on textbooks particularly in the developing countries.

2. Newspapers

Raymond (1965) observed that "since many Social Studies teachers direct the attention of their classes frequently to contemporary problems and to topical issues which can be woven into the on-going course of study, they can make significant contribution to enlightened citizenship by examining newspaper with the student". This simply means that the teacher could use newspapers and other resources to sensitize students to the need for caution and to broaden reading habits. This is also to say that newspaper remains the most current of any printed source available. But unfortunately, only few teachers border to utilize this resource.

3. Pictures and Charts

Pictorial presentation is effective particularly for students having reading difficulties or small vocabularies. Pictures help to illustrate and bring a sense of reality to what is taught, while charts contain the lesson material itself. While pictures stimulate interest, create correct impression and bring lesson to life, charts, on the other hand, are valuable in the presentation of materials to be taught in their simplest form. When pictures are used, the teacher should use a variety of them in order to impress his points on the students. When charts are used to stress some important facts, they should be clear and large enough to be seen from any part of the classroom.

4. Maps

The studying, drawing and interpreting of maps are activities essential in the teaching of Social Studies. Maps indicate economic and physical features, location of places, political boundaries cultural limitations, occupational zones etc. The teacher should, therefore, expose the students to the use of maps so that correct interpretations can be given to the maps used in social Studies.

5. Models

Tillman (1976) emphasized the use of models in helping the teacher organize relevant information in the process of teaching. He asserted that "when information is presented 'in the format of an instructional model, we have a ready made plan or the kinds of teacher-behaviour that brings about desired student-learning. Hence, models and specimens have distinct appeal to children and attract their close attention better than a

chart. The usefulness of models cannot be over-emphasized because they reduce to handy sizes things that would otherwise be difficult to study.

6. Real Object

The category of materials resources that can be valuable in the teaching of Social Studies is the use of the actual or real object in the classroom. These things are called REALIA and can have a powerful impact on students' interest and motivate them to learn. Example of these items include weapons, clothes, machines, implements etc. These things bring the real outer world into the classroom. Real objects are valuable in teaching topics that are related to culture, agriculture, currencies etc.

7. Resource Centres

A resource centre has different meanings. But generally, it refers to a place or space where the students and teachers may find information and instructional materials not available in the classroom. Among these may be toys, maps and references or library materials, instructional equipments, real objects or specimen and artifacts. Some major resources centres of educational values to Social Studies are the library, the immediate environment, museums and national archives. The provision of school library with adequate supply of books should be a priority item for schools. It is the major resource centre for learning activity. The resource offered include not only books in abundance, but also microfilm, charts, filmstrips, videotapes and other materials.

8. Audio-Visual Devices

There is at present varieties of instructional tools known as audiovisual devices and materials. The application of these instructional tools range from the use of small cameras by an instructor to show close - ups within his classroom to an airborne studio broadcasting to many states. Self-contained classroom television system, camera, video tape recorder, radio and filmstrips offer exciting possibilities for all sorts of teaching. Video tape would be of help in the class role-playing activities. It is in the light of this, that Route (1958) concluded that "from the video screen, the child learns to recognise the fallible and the humorous aspects of life", while. Gordon (1969) asserted that "by allowing the use of video tape recorder, students see themselves as they are actually seen by other students could gain realistic insights into their own personalities and idiosyncrasies". From this type of simulated activity, the teacher and the class could judge the effectiveness of their respective participants vis-a-vis the actual expectations for such a role.

9. Chalkboard

The chalkboard or the blackboard is the commonest visual aid 'utilized by the teacher. The chalkboard is used to write outline or summary, to illustrate what the teacher intends to teach and to draw sketches, maps and pictures. The teacher should note that whatever he or she writes on the board should be clear visible, bold and legible. The chalkboard should, after use, be kept tidy.

There are many teaching methods and resources available to Social Studies teachers. The methods among others include simulation methods which include historical simulation, simulation activities and simulation games: laboratory method which involves the employment of source materials; supplementary references, mechanical devices, audio-visual aids and other lifelike activities to supplement textbook instructions. Others include inquiries, projects,

demonstration, question and answer, field-trip, discussion, lecturer, problem-solving methods etc. It should however, be noted that no single methods of teaching Social Studies can adequately fill all learning situations. The combination of other methods would definitely help in achieving the desired instructional objectives.

Teaching resources on the other hand mean any thing that can assist the teacher in promoting meaningful teaching and learning. Resources in Social Studies include human, place and materials resources. The teacher (human resources) is concerned with the management of instructional materials. The places include places of interest that have much value for the purpose of classroom teaching. Places of interest could be museums, factories, geographical features and sites, historical buildings etc. Material resources consist of the major tools of teaching and learning. These include printed materials like textbooks or semi-text (i.e. Charts, maps, pictures) and non-texts which include models, real objects, video, films and audio aids. It should be noted that the teacher's choice of resources should be determined by what is available and relevant to the students' age, ability and interest. The resources available should be well organized for effective and meaningful learning.

SCHOOL **ORGANIZATION**

School organisation is a part of educational process in the country. A well organised school is the backbone of the education. Since they are known as mini societies, their

organisation plays an important role in developing the education among die masses. Students of the school learn and acquire knowledge in the well organised school.

Schools are known as institutions and have all the important characteristics which an institution has. Besides, schools are mini society and represent almost all the sections of the society. There is no discrimination on the basis of caste, creed, faith or religion etc. among the school children. They are well disciplined and have a definite set up, organisation. Its main function is to develop the personality of the students and make them independent and an ideal citizen of the country.

School has physical structure consisting of several elements such as library, laboratory, physical education and general growth, cultural activities, co- curricular activities, medical assistance and if possible hostel accommodation etc. Besides, education and teaching work students enjoy other activities as well, which make the student all-rounder.

Schools have different standards in their structural organisation. First stage is called Pre-Primary, or Primary, then Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools. They are managed both by private management and by the Government Department of Education. Besides different Organisations/Institutions are responsible to look after these different schools of different stage like local bodies, municipalities, cooperates etc.

Different kinds of set up are being maintained in the organisational structure of different levels, i.e. Nursery, Kindergarten, Pre-nursery and Primary levels. Under the different set up Public School, generally, have a complete range of standard i.e. from preprimary, secondary, and then senior secondary, but local bodies and Government schools are separate at each standard.

DEFINING THE LEARNING ORGANISATION

The concept of a learning organisation originated in systems thinking and is typified by Senge's (1990) model of the five disciplines of a learning organisation.

System thinking integrate knowledge from across the disciplines, focuses on wholes rather than parts, goes beyond events to their underlying structure and leads to experiencing the interconnectedness and inter-relationship of things.

Personal mastery drives people to expand their ability to achieve their goals. Since "organisations learn only through individuals who learn" (Senge, 1990, p.139), individuals must be able to learn continuously and improve so that the lifelong learning of adults is just as respected as the goal of fostering lifelong learning in students (Isaacson and Bamberg, 1992).

Mental models refer to the subconscious, taken for granted beliefs that limit thinking about how the world works for example, the mental model that students are vessels for teachers to fill constrains our ability to change. Mental models determine not only how use is made of the world but how people act and what they perceive. They are theories-in-use (Argyris, 1982). Bringing mental models to awareness and re-examining them in the light of espoused beliefs brings about change.

Team learning is a critical discipline because “teams, not individuals, are the fundamental learning unit in modern organizations”. Senge argues that if teams learn they become a microcosm for learning throughout the organisation. Teams learn through an iterative process of movement between practice and performance. Most important organisational decisions are made in teams. Cooperative learning for students is encouraged but teachers are not provided with the time, structures, cultural norms nor language to promote team learning. Most staff development programs support the learning of individuals.

Shared vision emerges from people who truly care about their work, who possess a strong sense of personal vision and who see the collective vision as one that can encompass the personal visions of all. It aligns what we do with what we say we want. Senge calls this the rudder that can keep the organisation on course during times of stress, and stress is epidemic in most schools today.

A group of people pursuing common purposes (individual purposes as well) with a collective commitment to regularly weighing the value of those purposes, modifying them when that makes sense, and continuously developing more effective and efficient ways of accomplishing those purposes.

Schools have several main human resources in their organisational set up. For wider knowledge and educational activities schools maintain different associations, such as students association which has elected/nominated students, parents association, parent- teacher association, teachers associations and staff, ministerial staff and others.

All these establish into a human resource development.

1. Planning
2. Organization
3. Direction
4. Coordination
5. Controlling

1. Planning:

When we prepare a planning for a nursery student first of all we must know our means and facilities we can get from the government and private sectors. For proper planning avoid off hand decision gaps, overlapping and any wasteful expenditure. There should be no scope for accidents in education as we are dealing with a very tender material in the form of children. When the plan for a school we always think about the time and the environment we can have in future.

2. Organisation:

Organization means to create such atmosphere in school so that nobody feels inconvenience. Besides that time, strength and means of the school should be utilized maximum organisational works in two types:

- (a) To organize the human elements.
- (b) It also organizes the non-human elements.

Organization has a good coordination between human and non-human elements. If we do not have human or furniture in the school, that place is not called a school. On the other hand, without the help of the students and teachers, we cannot run the school.

Human Elements Non-human Elements

- 1. Teachers
- 2. Students
- 3. Principal
- 4. Peons
- 5. Fans

3. Direction:

To have a good administration in school direction has a great role normally in schools all important work and activities are done with the help of parents and staff members. Only direction itself cannot work but if proper planning, Organization and proper coordination

is there then it has a great role in school. Normally direction is given by the principal and followed by the parents and teachers.

4. Coordination:

The elements keep coordination in between school activities and studies. In a school different types of people work and there are so many variety of activities and this coordination gives us smooth working to each and everything in a school. If we have a good coordination in a school then there is no confusion between the school activities.

5. Controlling:

Controlling means to have a full control on each and every thing and activity of the school. Only after that we can have a proper administration. In a school, some things are required to be controlled like books, time-tables, co curricular activities budgets, etc.

School organization” refers to how schools arrange the resources of time, space, and personnel for maximum effect on student learning. The school's organizational plan addresses those issues that affect the school as a whole, such as the master schedule, the location of staff in different rooms, and the assignment of aides to teachers or teams

Relationship to the Framework

How a school is organized is a matter for the staff to determine, and a school's organization should reflect the staff's commitment to the success of all students. Every aspect of the instructional program will convey the values and goals of the staff toward students and their learning.

High-Level Learning for All Students

Through a school's organizational patterns—whether the school is divided into teams or houses, for example, or whether it adopts a traditional or a block schedule—the staff can convey to both students and their parents that learning is important, that the business of the school is learning, and that the different elements of the school's organization are structured to support that learning. The master schedule, for example, is not established merely for the convenience of the transportation department, although bus schedules are important and must be accommodated. Nor are teams established only so that members of the faculty who are friends can work together. All arrangements must reflect an unwavering focus on student learning.

A Safe and Positive Environment

The wise deployment of space can go a long way toward ensuring a physically safe environment, particularly for young children. If classrooms, the art room, restrooms, and the library are all within easy walking distance, and if the paths to each are safe, children will feel secure going alone. In addition, a school's arrangement of teachers into teams, houses, and the like can contribute to a feeling of community, and therefore emotional safety, for students; they should feel part of a group small enough that their absence or illness would be noticed.

A Culture of Hard Work and Opportunities for Success

A focus on success is not a matter of spoon-feeding. A good school organization will offer students the optimal degree of challenge, stretching them while at the same time ensuring that they can succeed if they exert the necessary effort. Students need to know (and may need to be reminded) that it is up to them to exert the effort. For example, elementary-school teachers might let their students know that they are free to go to the computer lab or learning center once they've completed their work and mastered certain tasks; similarly, students in middle or high school could be told that if they are willing to commit to a heavy workload and fill any gaps in their understanding, they can enroll in Spanish II or an advanced placement course. Such opportunities should not constitute an exclusive club, open only to a few students; they should be open to any students willing to commit to them. The master schedule must be arranged to permit students to make these commitments and demonstrate their desire to participate in the most challenging opportunities the school has to offer.

When a school adopts a success orientation, it also commits itself to a flexible deployment of resources: nothing is carved in stone, and no one adopts a “take it or leave it” attitude. Students are assumed to be capable learners, and the school accepts its obligation to ensure successful learning by all students. Students should be able to get additional help when they need it, and to challenge the curriculum when they so choose; they should not be obliged to sit through a year of algebra if they can demonstrate, through a valid assessment, that they already understand the content. On the other hand, a student struggling with how to write a clear paragraph, for example, should be able to get help as needed.

School Organization

The research on school organization is clear: in general, small schools yield better results than large ones. This suggests that educators at large schools can help more students learn by creating subunits—schools within a school. Moreover, studies on teacher collaboration and teaming have shown that students benefit when teachers work together to promote student learning. Some schools in rural areas, of course, are too small, unable to provide a reasonable range of curricular or extracurricular offerings. But while educators in large schools can generally devise ways to break up into smaller units, those

in small schools can't usually do much about their limited resources (although the Internet now provides students with learning opportunities that were not previously available).

Components of School Organization

Of course, most school staffs inherit a preexisting organizational structure. For many educators, certain aspects of the school's organization—such as the number of classes in the master schedule in a high school or the houses in a middle school—are part of the school's very identity. This reality can make altering the school's organization slow and difficult. Still, educators should consider the following aspects of the school to determine which ones, if any, should be changed.

At the elementary-school level, units are usually instructional teams or grade-level groups, in which teachers work with students from classes other than their own homerooms. For example, three 4th grade teachers might choose to work together to teach all 100 children in the grade. Many middle schools have houses in place, which might be led for instance by four teachers, each representing core curricular areas, working together with a group of 100-125 students. (When these are multi-age groups and students remain with the same teachers over several years, teachers and students grow to know one another particularly well.) Many high schools establish schools-withina-school to create smaller and more personal learning communities. Some of these are grade-based, whereas others are organized around an instructional focus, such as technology or the arts.

Master Schedule

The influence of the master schedule is hard to overstate. The schedule structures the pace of the interactions between students and teachers, and class length affects the nature of instruction and the depth to which students are able to go at any given time. At the elementary- and middle-school levels, the master schedule conveys the relative importance of different areas of study: for example, when language arts are allocated 90 minutes a day, and science is allocated 30 minutes twice a week, students and teachers receive powerful messages about the supposed value of each subject.

Alternatives to traditional scheduling practices at the middle- and high-school levels have been widely discussed in the educational literature under the general heading of “block scheduling.” Although not a panacea, block scheduling can materially affect the quality of student-teacher interactions and the nature of teacher collaboration. The main characteristic of these approaches is that they organize instructional time into longer blocks than the traditional pattern, thus allowing teachers and students greater flexibility in how they use their time. With longer blocks of time, students can embark on projects that would be difficult to complete in only 43 minutes. Teachers accustomed to relying on lecturing find that they need to vary their approach under block scheduling, enabling students to engage in deeper and more sustained exploration of content.

Deployment of Instructional Personnel

Most elementary schools assign classroom teachers groups of 20-30 students, although there are usually other teachers available as well: specialists for subjects such as art, music, and physical education; state-funded remedial reading or math teachers; Title I teachers; and teachers funded through district or external funds to serve migrant students, ESL learners, or “gifted” students. In fact, some elementary schools have more “extra” teachers than they do regular ones! The situation is different at the middle- and high-school levels, where students rotate among content specialists. In schools committed to enhancing student learning, teachers go to considerable effort to integrate “special” subjects with more “academic” disciplines. Even when the schedule demands that a class of 3rd grade students goes to art class at, say, 11:00 a.m. on Thursdays, the art teacher and the home-room teacher work to ensure that what the students are learning in the two classes is not completely separate.

Many schools—particularly at the elementary level, and sometimes motivated by state statute or by the promise of additional funds—have created more classes with fewer students in each. These efforts have had mixed results, partly because when overall class sizes are reduced, other expenses are inevitably increased—for more classroom space and for additional content specialists (and the classroom space that they need). In addition, there are frequently not enough qualified teachers to teach the new classes, especially at very large schools, resulting in at least a short-term reduction in teaching quality.

Although the research on class size has been inconclusive, studies suggest that reductions in size don't have much of an effect on student achievement unless the classes consist of 15 students or fewer. In any case, it is not the size of the homerooms that matters, but the size of instructional groups; consequently, if the entire teaching staff can be deployed in a manner that greatly reduces the size of instructional groups, results are likely to improve. A school organizational structure that supports the use of all teaching staff (including those paid for by categorical funds) to provide basic instruction can result in much smaller instructional groups than are traditionally found in schools.

Grouping Strategies

A school aiming to improve student performance must develop a reasoned approach, even a philosophy, toward the grouping of students for instruction. Such an approach should not include permanent tracking. When elementary-school students are clustered as “bluebirds” or “canaries” according to their real or perceived abilities, the groups often become permanent: those who are identified early on as particularly able tend to be the ones permitted to enroll in advanced courses in high school.

Permanent tracking harms all but the highest-performing students, who themselves gain only slightly from the practice. Short-term skill grouping, however, can be highly beneficial for all students. Students who do not understand, say, subtraction with regrouping should

receive targeted instruction on the concept before moving on to a skill that depends upon it (such as division). But there is no reason for students who have already grasped subtraction with regrouping to spend any more time on the topic; they should instead be more productively engaged in other topics. Hence teachers need the flexibility to create skill groups when needed, particularly for concepts that are prerequisites for later lessons.

The school's approach to scheduling and deployment of staff must support the formation of short-term skill groups when needed. In addition, the school's organization must allow for skill groups to be formed quickly and changed frequently; flexibility, in other words, is the key.

Implications for Different Levels

I have discussed the above issues separately, as though educators addressed them one at a time. In reality, of course, the various aspects of a school's organizational structure are highly intertwined and tightly related to other aspects of the school, such as curriculum, student assessment, and learning support. Still, there are important differences among schools at different levels.

Elementary Schools

Teacher teams at the elementary-school level may comprise anywhere from two to eight teachers each; more than eight, however, can become unwieldy. These teams may be organized around a single grade level (a “2nd grade team”) or as “family” teams of, for example, the 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades. Each arrangement has its advantages and disadvantages. Students in single-grade teams, of course, tend to be closer to one another academically than are those in family teams. On the other hand, these same students must relearn the ropes each year with a different group of teachers, and the teachers must become acquainted with a large new group of students. Academic levels may vary in family teams, but students stay with the same group of teachers for several years, reducing the startup time required at the beginning of the school year.

Middle Schools

The “middle-school philosophy”—which recognizes that young adolescents learn best when given a fair degree of autonomy, while at the same time “belonging” to a relatively small group of teachers and other students—has become dominant in schools serving the 5th or 6th to 8th grades. Students at this period in their lives experience rapid physical, emotional, and intellectual growth, matched in scope only by the first three years of life; they are experiencing fast and sometimes confusing changes. Middle schools, therefore, must provide both stability and stimulation, respecting the students' age-related concerns.

I have already suggested the major recommendation for middle schools: teachers should work in small teams, composed typically of four teachers, representing the core subjects. Additional subjects should be offered as “exploratory” opportunities for students. In

addition, time should be scheduled—and instruction provided. in long blocks, permitting teachers the maximum degree of flexibility to meet student needs (and to alter internal arrangements as these needs change). When the school organization allows for the integration of various . support. teachers. Title I, remedial, migrant, gifted, and so on. teachers within each team have the best opportunity to arrange a combination of core and supplementary instruction for each student.

High Schools

Some high schools institute schools-within-a-school (SWAS), often for their 9th grade students. This structure is designed to mirror (and hence ease the transition from) the middle-school experience. If they can be managed, SWAS are recommended, as they provide students with smaller instructional units and permit them to learn the ropes of the high school—by interacting with a greater number of students and teachers, not to mention abiding by typically more structured rules of conduct—without also having to learn how to find a classroom or juggle the multiple demands of too many different courses.

Scheduling is the main aspect of school organization at the high-school level. Many high schools have by now implemented some form of block scheduling, in which students attend three to four classes on any given day rather than seven to nine. There are two basic patterns for block scheduling: four-by-four and A/B. In four-by-four schedules, students complete four “yearlong” courses each semester in periods of about 90 minutes each day. In the A/B schedule, classes are held on alternate days over the entire year; students may still be carrying six to eight courses, but they attend only half of them on any given day.



Child Psychology, Care & Health

Child psychology is one of the many branches of psychology and one of the most frequently studied specialty areas. This particular branch focuses on the mind and behavior of children from prenatal development through adolescence. Child psychology

deals not only with how children grow physically, but with their mental, emotional and social development as well.

Historically, children were often viewed simply as smaller versions of adults. When Jean Piaget suggested that children actually think differently than adults, Albert Einstein proclaimed that the discovery was "so simple that only a genius could have thought of it."

Today, psychologists recognize that child psychology is unique and complex, but many differ in terms of the unique perspective they take when approaching development. Experts also differ in their responses to some of the bigger questions in child psychology, such as whether early experiences matter more than later ones or whether nature or nurture plays a greater role in certain aspects of development.

The Different Contexts of Child Psychology

When you think of development, what comes to mind? If you are like most people, you probably think about the internal factors that influence how a child grows, such as genetics and personal characteristics. However, development involves much more than the influences that arise from within an individual. Environmental factors such as social relationships and the culture in which we live also play essential roles.

Some of the major contexts that we need to consider in our analysis of child psychology include:

The Social Context: Relationships with peers and adults have an effect on how children think, learn and develop. Families, schools and peer groups all make up an important part of the social context.

The Cultural Context: The culture a child lives in contributes a set of values, customs, shared assumptions and ways of living that influence development throughout the lifespan. Culture may play a role in how children relate to their parents, the type of education they receive and the type of child care that is provided.

The Socio-economic Context: Social class can also play a major role in child development. Socioeconomic status (often abbreviated as SES), is based upon a number of different factors including how much education people have, how much money they earn, the job they hold and where they live. Children raised in households with a high socioeconomic status tend to have greater access to opportunities, while those from households with lower socioeconomic status may have less access to such things as health care, quality nutrition and education. Such factors can have a major impact on child psychology.

Remember, all three of these contexts are constantly interacting. While a child may have fewer opportunities due to a low socioeconomic status, enriching social relationships and strong cultural ties may help correct this imbalance.

Topics within Child Psychology

Child psychology encompasses a wide range of topics, from the genetic influences on behavior to the social pressures on development. The following are just some of the major subjects that are essential to the study of child psychology:

- Genetics
- Environmental Influences
- Prenatal Development
- Social Growth
- Personality Development
- Language
- Gender Roles
- Cognitive Development
- Sexual Development
- Final Thoughts

Understanding what makes kids tick is an enormous task, so the study of child psychology is both wide and deep. The ultimate goal of this field is to study the many influences that combine and interact to help make kids who they are and to use that information to improve parenting, education, child care and psychotherapy other areas focused on benefiting children. By having a solid understanding how children grow, think and behave, parents and professionals working with children can be better prepared to help the kids in their care.

What Is a Child Psychologist?

A child psychologist is a type of psychologist who studies the mental, social and emotional development of children. Typically, child psychologists look at development from the prenatal period through adolescence. Some of the major topics of interest in this field of psychology include genetics, language development, personality, gender roles, cognitive development, sexual development and social growth.

Child psychologists may work with a range of clients including infants, toddlers, children and teens, or they may specialize in working with a particular age group. No matter what population a child psychologist chooses, his or her focus will be on helping understand, prevent, diagnose and treat developmental, cognitive, social and emotional issues.

Some related career options include:

Abnormal child psychologist: Works with children suffering from psychological disorders including anxiety, mood and personality disorders.

Adolescent psychologist: Works with adolescent clients between the ages of 12 and 18 who suffer from psychological illness or distress including eating disorders, depression or anxiety. **Developmental psychologist:** May study childhood development, but may also focus on development throughout the entire lifespan.

School psychologist: Works within the educational system to help children with emotional, social and academic issues.

Educational psychologist: Involves the study of how people learn, including topics such as student outcomes, the instructional process, individual differences in learning, gifted learners and learning disabilities.

What Does a Child Psychologist Do?

So what exactly does the average child psychologist do during a typical day? The answer to this question can vary a great deal depending upon exactly where a child psychologist works. Some professionals counsel young clients in therapeutic situations, while others work in research to explore different aspects of child psychology including giftedness and development disabilities.

While specific job duties depend on where a child psychologist chooses to specialize, a few of the typical tasks may include:

- Diagnosing and treating learning or developmental disabilities
- Working with clients to manage behavioral issues
- Administering psychological tests
- Conducting scientific research on childhood development
- Working with a health care team to create a unique treatment plan for a client
- Educational Requirements to Become a Child Psychologist

While there are some opportunities in the field of child psychology with a masters degree, most people will find that job options are more plentiful at the doctoral-level. There are some programs that offer a degree in child psychology, but many choose to earn a Ph.D. or Psy.D. degree in either clinical or counseling psychology.

The American Psychological Association reports that nearly 75 percent of all doctorate psychology degrees are Ph.D.'s, but the Psy.D. is becoming an increasingly popular option for those interested more in professional practice rather than research. Learn more in this article on the differences between a Ph.D. and a Psy.D. degree.

After earning a degree, child psychologists must complete a supervised clinical internship that usually lasts two years and then pass state and national tests in order to become licensed in the state they wish to work. For this reason, it is important to check with your state to determine the licensing requirements.

Where Does a Child Psychologist Work and What Are Some Typical Job Duties?

Child psychologists may be employed in a variety of settings including schools, courts, hospitals and mental health clinics. Those employed in school settings often diagnose learning disorders, counsel students, conduct assessments and work with families to help students cope with academic problems, social issues or disabilities. Some individuals may work in court settings to help young clients who have come into contact with the criminal justice system, help prepare children to testify in court or work with children in the middle of child custody disputes.

Child psychologists who work in hospitals or private mental health offices often work directly with clients and families to overcome or cope with psychological illnesses. These professionals evaluate clients, diagnose mental disorders, administer psychological tests and conduct therapy sessions among other things.

How Is the Job Outlook for Child Psychologists?

According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook published by the U.S. Department of Labor, the job outlook for psychologists is expected to grow as fast as the average rate through the year 2018. Job prospects are expected to be the strongest for those who hold a doctorate degree in an applied specialty area. The increased awareness of child mental health should also help spur the demand for child psychologists.

CARE and HEALTH

Many health care treatments that were once offered only in a hospital or a doctor's office can now be done in your home. Home health care is usually less expensive, more convenient, and just as effective as care you get in a hospital or skilled nursing facility. In general, the goal of home health care is to provide treatment for an illness or injury. Home health care helps you get better, regain your independence, and become as self-sufficient as possible. Medicare pays for you to get certain health care services in your home if you meet certain eligibility criteria and if the services are considered reasonable and necessary for the treatment of your illness or injury. This is known as the Medicare home health benefit.

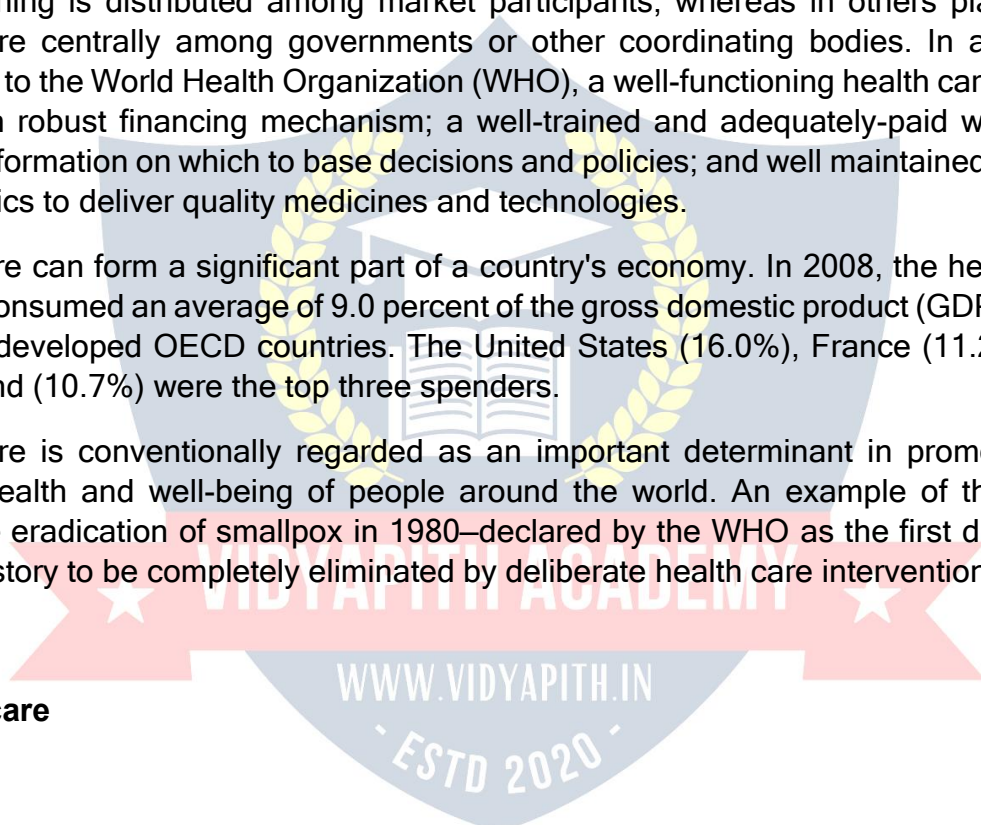
Health care (or **healthcare**) is the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of disease, illness, injury, and other physical and mental impairments in humans. Health care is delivered by practitioners in medicine, optometry, dentistry, nursing, pharmacy, allied health, and other care providers. It refers to the work done in providing primary care, secondary care and tertiary care, as well as in public health.

Access to health care varies across countries, groups and individuals, largely influenced by social and economic conditions as well as the health policies in place. Countries and jurisdictions have different policies and plans in relation to the personal and populationbased health care goals within their societies. Health care systems are organizations established to meet the health needs of target populations. Their exact configuration varies from country to country. In some countries and jurisdictions, health care planning is distributed among market participants, whereas in others planning is made more centrally among governments or other coordinating bodies. In all cases, according to the World Health Organization (WHO), a well-functioning health care system requires a robust financing mechanism; a well-trained and adequately-paid workforce; reliable information on which to base decisions and policies; and well maintained facilities and logistics to deliver quality medicines and technologies.

Health care can form a significant part of a country's economy. In 2008, the health care industry consumed an average of 9.0 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP) across the most developed OECD countries. The United States (16.0%), France (11.2%), and Switzerland (10.7%) were the top three spenders.

Health care is conventionally regarded as an important determinant in promoting the general health and well-being of people around the world. An example of this is the worldwide eradication of smallpox in 1980—declared by the WHO as the first disease in human history to be completely eliminated by deliberate health care interventions.

Primary care



Primary care is the term for the health care services which play a role in the local community. It refers to the work of health care professionals who act as a first point of consultation for all patients within the health care system. Such a professional would usually be a primary care physician, such as a general practitioner or family physician, or a non-physician primary care provider, such as a physician assistant or nurse practitioner. Depending on the locality, health system organization, and sometimes at the patient's discretion, they may see another health care professional first, such as a pharmacist, a nurse (such as in the United Kingdom), a clinical officer (such as in parts of Africa), or an Ayurvedic or other traditional medicine professional (such as in parts of Asia). Depending on the nature of the health condition, patients may then be referred for secondary or tertiary care. In the United States, the National Health Interview Survey has been conducted since 1957 to estimate the health and the health behaviors of the population. In 2013, a study of 142,377 Midwest patients found that skin disorders (42.7%), osteoarthritis and joint disorders (33.6%), back problems (23.9%), disorders of lipid metabolism (22.4%), and upper respiratory tract disease (22.1%, excluding asthma) were the most common health issues.

Primary care involves the widest scope of health care, including all ages of patients, patients of all socioeconomic and geographic origins, patients seeking to maintain optimal health, and patients with all manner of acute and chronic physical, mental and social health issues, including multiple chronic diseases. Consequently, a primary care practitioner must possess a wide breadth of knowledge in many areas. Continuity is a key characteristic of primary care, as patients usually prefer to consult the same practitioner for routine check-ups and preventive care, health education, and every time they require an initial consultation about a new health problem. The International Classification of Primary Care (ICPC) is a standardized tool for understanding and analyzing information on interventions in primary care by the reason for the patient visit.

Common chronic illnesses usually treated in primary care may include, for example: hypertension, diabetes, asthma, COPD, depression and anxiety, back pain, arthritis or thyroid dysfunction. Primary care also includes many basic maternal and child health care services, such as family planning services and vaccinations.

In context of global population aging, with increasing numbers of older adults at greater risk of chronic non-communicable diseases, rapidly increasing demand for primary care services is expected around the world, in both developed and developing countries. The World Health Organization attributes the provision of essential primary care as an integral component of an inclusive primary health care strategy.

Secondary Care

Secondary care is the health care services provided by medical specialists and other health professionals who generally do not have first contact with patients, for example, cardiologists, urologists and dermatologists.

It includes acute care: necessary treatment for a short period of time for a brief but serious illness, injury or other health condition, such as in a hospital emergency department. It also includes skilled attendance during childbirth, intensive care, and medical imaging services.

The "secondary care" is sometimes used synonymously with "hospital care". However many secondary care providers do not necessarily work in hospitals, such as psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, occupational therapists or physiotherapists, and some primary care services are delivered within hospitals. Depending on the organization and policies of the national health system, patients may be required to see a primary care provider for a referral before they can access secondary care.

For example in the United States, which operates under a mixed market health care system, some physicians might voluntarily limit their practice to secondary care by requiring patients to see a primary care provider first, or this restriction may be imposed under the terms of the payment agreements in private/group health insurance plans. In other cases medical specialists may see patients without a referral, and patients may decide whether self-referral is preferred.

In the United Kingdom and Canada, patient self-referral to a medical specialist for secondary care is rare as prior referral from another physician (either a primary care physician or another specialist) is considered necessary, regardless of whether the funding is from private insurance schemes or national health insurance.

Allied health professionals, such as physical therapists, respiratory therapists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, and dietitians, also generally work in secondary care, accessed through either patient self-referral or through physician referral.

Tertiary care

The National Hospital for Neurology and Neurosurgery in London, United Kingdom is a specialist neurological hospital.

Tertiary care is specialized consultative health care, usually for inpatients and on referral from a primary or secondary health professional, in a facility that has personnel and facilities for advanced medical investigation and treatment, such as a tertiary referral hospital.^[12]

Examples of tertiary care services are cancer management, neurosurgery, cardiac surgery, plastic surgery, treatment for severe burns, advanced neonatology services, palliative, and other complex medical and surgical interventions.

Quaternary care

The term **quaternary care** is also used sometimes as an extension of tertiary care in reference to medicine of advanced levels which are highly specialized and not widely accessed. Experimental medicine and some types of uncommon diagnostic or

surgical procedures are considered quaternary care. These services are usually only offered in a limited number of regional or national health care centres. This term is more prevalent in the United Kingdom, but just as applicable in the United States. It can be thought as a hospital where virtually any procedure is available where as there may not be sub-specialist with that training at a given tertiary care hospital.

Home and community care

Many types of health care interventions are delivered outside of health facilities. They include many interventions of public health interest, such as food safety surveillance, distribution of condoms and needle-exchange programmes for the prevention of transmissible diseases.

They also include the services of professionals in residential and community settings in support of self care, home care, long-term care, assisted living, treatment for substance use disorders and other types of health and social care services.

Community rehabilitation services can assist with mobility and independence after loss of limbs or loss of function. This can include prosthesis, orthotics or wheelchairs.

Many countries, especially in the west are dealing with aging populations, and one of the priorities of the health care system is to help seniors live full, independent lives in the comfort of their own homes. There is an entire section of health care geared to providing seniors with help in day to day activities at home, transporting them to doctor's appointments, and many other activities that are so essential for their health and wellbeing.

With obesity in children rapidly becoming a major concern, health services often set up programs in schools aimed at educating children in good eating habits; making physical education compulsory in school; and teaching young adolescents to have positive selfimage.

Health care industry

A group of Chilean 'Damas de Rojo' volunteering at their local hospital. The health care industry incorporates several sectors that are dedicated to providing health care services and products. As a basic framework for defining the sector, the United Nations' International Standard Industrial Classification categorizes health care as generally consisting of hospital activities, medical and dental practice activities, and "other human health activities". The last class involves activities of, or under the

supervision of, nurses, midwives, physiotherapists, scientific or diagnostic laboratories, pathology clinics, residential health facilities, or other allied health professions, e.g. in the field of optometry, hydrotherapy, medical massage, yoga therapy, music therapy, occupational therapy, speech therapy, chiropody, homeopathy, chiropractics, acupuncture, etc.

In addition, according to industry and market classifications, such as the Global Industry Classification Standard and the Industry Classification Benchmark, health care includes many categories of medical equipment, instruments and services as well as biotechnology, diagnostic laboratories and substances, and drug manufacturing and delivery.

For example, pharmaceuticals and other medical devices are the leading high technology exports of Europe and the United States. The United States dominates the biopharmaceutical field, accounting for three-quarters of the world's biotechnology revenues.

Health care research

The quantity and quality of many health care interventions are improved through the results of science, such as advanced through the medical model of health which focuses on the eradication of illness through diagnosis and effective treatment. Many important advances have been made through health research, including biomedical research and pharmaceutical research. They form the basis of evidence-based medicine and evidence-based practice in health care delivery.

For example, in terms of pharmaceutical research and development spending, Europe spends a little less than the United States (€22.50bn compared to €27.05bn in 2006). The United States accounts for 80% of the world's research and development spending in biotechnology.

In addition, the results of health services research can lead to greater efficiency and equitable delivery of health care interventions, as advanced through the social model of health and disability, which emphasizes the societal changes that can be made to make population healthier. Results from health services research often form the basis of evidence-based policy in health care systems. Health services research is also aided by initiatives in the field of AI for the development of systems of health assessment that are clinically useful, timely, sensitive to change, culturally sensitive, low burden, low cost, involving for the patient and built into standard procedures.

Health care financing

There are generally five primary methods of funding health care systems:

1. general taxation to the state, county or municipality
2. social health insurance
3. voluntary or private health insurance
4. out-of-pocket payments
5. donations to health charities

In most countries, the financing of health care services features a mix of all five models, but the exact distribution varies across countries and over time within countries. In all countries and jurisdictions, there are many topics in the politics and evidence that can influence the decision of a government, private sector business or other group to adopt a specific health policy regarding the financing structure.

For example, social health insurance is where a nation's entire population is eligible for health care coverage and this coverage and the services provided are regulated. In almost every jurisdiction with a government-funded health care system, a parallel private, and usually for-profit, system is allowed to operate. This is sometimes referred to as two-tier health care or universal health care.

Health care administration and regulation

The management and administration of health care is another sector vital to the delivery of health care services. In particular, the practice of health professionals and operation of health care institutions is typically regulated by national or state/provincial authorities through appropriate regulatory bodies for purposes of quality assurance. Most countries have credentialing staff in regulatory boards or health departments who document the certification or licensing of health workers and their work history.

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