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Assignment No. 1

Q.1 Define comparative education and its scope. Differentiate between comparative education and international education. Also discuss the historical development of comparative education.

Comparative education is a discipline in the social sciences which entails the scrutiny and evaluation of different educational systems, such as those in various countries. Professionals in this area of endeavor are absorbed in advancing evocative terminologies and guidelines for education worldwide, enhancing educational structures and producing a context to which the success and effectivity of education programs and initiatives can be assessed.

Objectives and Scope

According to Harold Noah (1985), and Farooq Joubish (2009)¹ comparative education has five purposes:

1. To describe educational systems, processes, or outcomes.
2. To assist in the development of educational institutions and practices.
3. To highlight the relationships between education and society.
4. To establish generalized statements about education that are valid in more than one country.
5. To help the current generation understand the now a days education systems with reference to the past.

Comparative education is often incorrectly assumed to exclusively encompass studies that compare two or more different countries. In fact, since its early days researchers in this field have often eschewed such approaches, preferring rather to focus on comparisons within a single country over time. Still, some large scale projects, such as the PISA and TIMSS studies, have made important findings through explicitly comparative macro analysis of massive data sets. Recent examples in this regard include studies analyzing intra-European and intra-American teacher education.

Rationale for the Field

Many important educational questions can best be examined from an international and comparative perspective. For example, in the United States there is no nationwide certificate of completion of secondary education. This raises the question of what the advantages and disadvantages are of leaving such certification to each of the 50 states. Comparative education draws on the experience of countries such as Japan and France to show how a centralized system works, and what the advantages and disadvantages of a centralized certification are.

Critics of comparative education refer to it as Policy Borrowing

Disciplinary vs. Interdisciplinary Identity

Comparative education is closely JPD to, and may overlap with, international education, international development education, and comparative sociology. While in some countries, comparative education is fully established as a distinct field of educational research, in others it might best be regarded as an interdisciplinary field that brings together scholars from diverse specializations. For instance, specialists in math education, social studies education or various arts subjects may develop research designed to enable meaningful comparisons between national educational systems with a focus on their specific subject area of expertise. It follows that comparative education research can examine schooling holistically and globally (macro-level analysis), or may alternatively focus on the status of a particular subject area in a specific region of the world, thereby benefiting from subject-area or regional expertise (meso- or micro-level analysis). Each approach may have characteristic advantages and disadvantages.

Comparative and International Education Society

The Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) was founded in 1956 to foster "cross-cultural understanding, scholarship, academic achievement, and societal development through the international study of educational ideas, systems, and practices."

Difference between Comparative and International Education

Comparative and International Education is a vast, rich, and growing field of inquiry that is concerned with the academic study of a wide range of key educational issues and themes across a range of cultures, countries and regions. Comparativists come from a range of disciplinary backgrounds and therefore come to the field with different subject expertise and ideas about how best to conduct research in the field. There has been much debate over the theoretical, epistemological and methodological frameworks and tools that should be used when carrying out research in comparative and international education as well as discussions over the future directions of the field. The SIG welcomes interest and contributions on these important debates.

Examples of issues that have been researched by our SIG members include (but are not at all limited to): EU education policy; citizenship and human rights education; global education policy; students' and teachers' identities; learning and teaching; assessment and achievement; effects of gender, race and social class on learning and achievement; textbook research; parental choice; international schools and intercultural education; education in developing countries.

Evidently, much of our research fits in comfortably with other SIGs, but what we are all essentially concerned with as Comparativists is exploring similarities and differences between the structures, processes, dynamics, policies and practices of different education systems. Much of the work we do is also international in nature. We strongly encourage BERA members whose work fits in to this field to join the SIG and contribute to knowledge exchange, especially through submitting abstracts to BERA conferences. We stress the importance of learning from comparing and remind members of the important words stated by Robert Edward Hughes (1901: 52) in his seminal text 'Schools at Home and Abroad' that 'the basis of all knowledge is comparison'.

Aims

to provide a forum within BERA for academics, practitioners and students from a range of disciplines who are involved in research in comparative and international education to engage in dialogue and debate, share theoretical and empirical research, and exchange knowledge and ideas to raise the profile of comparative and international education through the annual conference and by hosting seminars to encourage the publication of high quality research papers within BERJ and other journals

Many scholars of comparative education have ventured into the discovery of the genesis of comparative education. On the whole there seems to be no specific time in which the discipline of comparative education originated. However the search for the origins of comparative education has made many scholars to look back hopefully to time immemorial. For example, Fredrick Schneider and Franz Hilker of Germany sought European precedents in education. William Brickmann in the U.S.A. led the quest and search for the origin of comparative education and educators. His work includes several articles on the subject which dates back as far as to Herodotus (484-425Bc) as a competent cultural comparativist was assumed in the ancient world.

For purpose of this course, the genesis of comparative education will therefore be looked at in light of phases or stages based on major characteristics activities of each phase.

These phases are;

- The phase of Travelers Tales i.e. Pre-history to end of 18th century.
- Period of Pioneers or Phase of Selective Education Borrowing i.e. during the 19th century.
- The phase of concern for Cultural Context or Period of Philosophers i.e. from 1900 to end of World War II.

iv) The phase of Social Science perspective i.e. from 1945 to the present.

The phases used here are to signify changes in the historical development of comparative education and are actually retrospective and imposed ones. They do not indicate precise or sudden turning points. These changes are gradual. This means that towards the end of one phase the next phase was already evident in the work perspective observers. At the same times entry into a new phase does not mean a complete break from the previous phase. There is always an over-lap of the phases in time and space. We now look at each phase at independently;

The Phase of Traveler's Tales

Historically people visited places for various reasons such as commerce, conversation, curiosity or conflict. However everyone who has ever been interested in the upbringing of children or in education in general has always tended to find out what goes on in other communities. Studies of early writers of comparative education indicate that they drew examples from other societies that they visited or heard about. They actually tended to look for differences and similarities in respect to education of other communities and their own.

This phase was marked by descriptive reports of travelers who comprised military conquerors, business expeditions and even explorers. The motives for accounts of travelers' tales were partly curiosity and the need for comparison. They gave descriptive account of features in foreign systems of educational as they saw them. Their reports on education was fragmental, generally unsystematic, exaggerated at times and understatement at other times. Although they were stimulating they were superficial and piecemeal and as such were of little comparative value but worth considering. Some of the contributors during this phase were;

Herodotus (484-425 BC) - in his commentaries on the Persian wars he attempted a comparison of culture.

Xenophon (430-355 BC) - An Athenian, he gave a detailed account of the education for citizenship given to the youth in Persia. He compared the aims and structure of education in Persian and Sparta. According to him, he admired the Spartan education and wished that the Athenians could copy it.

Plato - A Greek philosopher compared the aims and structure of the Spartan and Greek systems. In his two books i.e. "The law" and "The Republic" he compared education system in Sparta and Athens. Like Xenophon

he admired the Spartan education system which was state controlled and emphasized on discipline which was military type. He went ahead and argued that the Athenian education was likely to bring about permissiveness and lack of social order. He therefore recommended that the Athenians should copy Sparta.

Julius Caesar (102-42BC) - As the Roman emperor he also described how children were educated in countries beyond Rome. He also admired especially the Spartan state controlled education system. He also commented on education of the Belgian, Aquitanians and Celts as indicated in his writings on Gallic wars.

Cicero (106-43BC) - He made comparisons between Greek and Roman education. In his book "De Republica" (57BC) he explained that he favoured state controlled system as opposed to a family centered system. In his "De Oratore" he claimed that Greece was far better than every other nation in the practice of eloquence and hence in education.

Tacitus (AD 55-116) - He contrasted the education in his own day with that of earlier periods, He even began the long history of the "past versus the present" debate.

Marco Polo (13th century) - He traveled to the court of Kublai Khan in China and reported about the Chinese education system. He observed that there were no quarrels in schools in China and that honesty and truthfulness were emphasized. He further observed that men and women lived together peacefully in China a fact he attributed to the education system. However in the 19th century it was noted that the Chinese education system contributed to the corrupt government system and breaking of laws such as cruelty to prisoners.

Ibn Khaldun (1332-1506) -A Tunisian born scholar who made comparison between the Eastern Moslem culture and that of the west. He emphasized the need to establish similarities and differences between the present and the past. He also advocated for the need to know the causes of the similarities in certain cases and of the differences in others.

Jacop Middendorp (German) -was sent by his government to find information about universities in France, Italy, Denmark, Poland and Bohemia.

Erasmus (1496-1536) - a scholar during the Renaissance, he gave detailed information about education in different countries, comparing the state of education in England in his time with that of Italy.

Montaigne (1533-1592) - From France he traveled widely to Germany, Italy and other European countries and gave account on the education of the people he visited.

William Petty (1623-1687) - A professor of Anatomy at Oxford University and founder of the Royal society, presented a more scholarly approach to the observation of foreign counties in his book "The methods of enquiring into the state of any country."

Le Chatolais (1773) and Diderot (1776) - From Russia, they compared the Russian education with that of France.

Condorcet (France) - After the French Revolution, he compared the French education system with that of England, Italy and Germany. He gave his report to the National Assembly.

From the account of the scholars mentioned above, it should be noted that during ancient time, there were examples of individuals with interest in comparisons of all kind. During the (13th-15th centuries) travel of one kind or another became greater in length and more comprehensive in character. During the 16th century cases of embryonic comparative education research became more frequent. This was partly due to the impetus of geographical exploration and discovery of the time. As such there were writings, of traveling scholars and others sent to other countries to study education. During the 17th century there was increasing and more significant international contacts as foreign travel not only became more possible, but more and more common. During this time, travelers guide books, became available and recommended that the travelers should observe school activities in the countries they toured. They were also to consider and gather information on libraries, lectures, school debate, among other key educational activities. Learning institutions especially universities during this period and after the Renaissance and Reformation in Europe also made some contributions to the development of comparative education.

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative_education#:~:text=Comparative%20education%20is%20a%20discipline,as%20those%20in%20various%20countries.

<https://brainly.in/question/3190998>

<http://camponotes.blogspot.com/2013/01/development-of-comparative-education.html>

Q.2 Discuss in detail the approached to comparative education

There are a number of methodological approaches used by scholars in their approach to the study of comparative education. It is important to note that methodology in comparative education, as in other educational disciplines, is determined by the purpose of the study. Like other social sciences, comparative education has been studied at different times of its development with different methodological approaches. A close look at the various developmental phases reveal that, each phase has produced a different type of work, that mainly depend on the dominant views and motives for comparative education study. Starting with the simple narratives of education abroad during the phase of Travelers Tales, the methodological approaches of comparative education have progressively evolved into the current application of the sophisticated and complex methods of social sciences, which in most cases are empirically based. With a large clientele arising from its multi-disciplinary nature, comparative education scholars have not been able to agree on a single, universally accepted method of study. This view has resulted in a multiplicity of debates and opinions of what method is best suitable for use.

In this regard therefore, we note that methodological approaches used in comparative education are divided into two broad categories, namely traditional approach and modern approach. Under the traditional approach we have the descriptive/statistical method and the historical approach. Under the modern approach we have sociological, analytical and synthetic approaches. We now look at each method independently:

The statistical/ Quantitative method

This method emphasized the collection, interpretation, verification and comparison of data in education by using statistical/Quantitative analytical charts. The main aim was to facilitate borrowing of useful information or lessons from foreign countries.

In this method various type of educational data are collected about a country. For example, the data about the number of students at a certain stage of education, expenditure on them, the percentage of passes and failures at various stages of education, expenses on teachers' salaries, school building and other items are all collected and the same compared with identical data of another country. Thus, the progress or decline of education in any country is statistically analyzed.

Although the method is still in use today, it is faced with certain shortcomings worth

mentioning such as:-

- The unreliability of statistical data, particularly the inaccuracy of local record, which are compiled by officials who may exaggerate figures in order to hide any shortcomings. Generally, due care is not taken in the collection of data. Consequently, many of them are false.
- There is also the imprecision of certain non-standardized term, when applied in different national context. In many cases, the terms used do not connote the same sense. Therefore their statistical analysis is falsified.
- There is also the problem of feasibility of data interpretation without due regard to social influences and values and how they affect education.
- This means, through the statistical method, we cannot understand the educational characteristics that could be as a result of social, cultural, economic, political, and religions situations of a country.

The verification of data in international studies is not always possible due to cost and travel constraints. Evidently the use of the statistical method is very limited.

Limitations of this approach

Descriptive Method

This method was used in the 19th century because the main purpose then in comparative education was to incorporate the good points of another country. This approach therefore called for a detailed description of educational affairs of another country. So many comparative educationists presented detailed descriptive accounts of the educational systems of the countries they visited. Among them were Marc Antoine Jullien de Paris, Victor cousin, Horace Man, Henry Bernard and Mathew Arnold. John Griscom of U.S.A (1918-19) visited Great Britain, France, and Holland, Switzerland and Italy and wrote a book entitled "A year in Europe", he described their educational systems in detail. From his report, an attempt was made in U.S.A to incorporate

some of the admirable characteristics of the educational system contained in his book. Victor Cousin of France in (1831) published a report on the education system of France.

Some of the educational characteristics of Prussia that he described in his report were emulated in Great Britain and France. However, he did not make a comparative study of educational systems of other countries in his report. This meant that his report could only be evaluated by only persons who had a good knowledge of educational systems of other countries.

Mathew Arnold of Great Britain and Horace Man of U.S.A also did some work in the area of descriptive method approach. M. Arnold studied the educational system of France and Germany and published a report about France in 1859 and about Germany in 1865. In his description, he drew the attention of his readers to those factors which distinguish the educational system of one land from the other. Arnold's method was also followed by Sir Michael Sadler and Paul Monroe. From their views, the study of comparative education became better organized.

Horace Man visited Germany, Ireland, Great Britain, France and Holland. In 1843, he published a report on the educational systems of these countries. He pointed out the special characteristics of the educational systems that he had studied and specifically pointed out the specific elements that should be imitated by others.

He also paid attention to the evaluation of the educational characteristics and their utilities. As a result of his work, later educationist also paid attention to the evaluation and utilities of characteristics of educational systems of other countries.

Henry Bernard published thirty one volumes of "The American Journal of Education" between 1856-1881. In these volumes, he described the educational systems of the various states of U.S.A. and many other foreign countries. He interpreted the historical background of each educational system that he described. Michael Sadler on his part emphasized the point that we should study all those national factors, which influence the education system of a country and are responsible for its development and decline. To him, he considered the study of comparative education as useful for one to understand his own system of education. Thus, we can argue here that, in the 19th century only those persons who were able to understand comparative education are those who had a good knowledge of educational systems of their own country. These few examples, are

accounts, that show the descriptive method of comparative education and as a method, and was advocated for by those educationists who were interested in promoting and popularize the study of comparative education.

Limitations of this approach

Critically analyze the limitations in this approach.

The Historical Method Approach:

In this approach we study the modern educational problems. The method reveals the basis on which the modern education system is based. Knowledge gained at this point may help us in eliminating undesirable elements in the system and further strengthening of the desirable ones. It is important to note that, we employ historical method not only to know the past in order do to understand the present better, but so that we may improve the future by hinting at those factors which may be more useful. In this approach we also try to understand all those geographical, social, racial, political, religious and linguistic factors which influence the educational system of a country.

Scholars such as Nicholas Hans, Isaac Kandel, Schneider and Michael Sadler are known for popularizing this method. They basically agreed that selective cultural borrowing was possible and also emphasized that educational policies and practices have both cause and effect which is found in each society's unique historical experience, that Horace man called the national character. Most of these scholars suggested the development of a science of comparative education in which one could use to discover the universal causes or determinants of educational practices and also to establish terms of education.

Although the scholars who advocated for this approach did not offer a definite procedure to be followed, it is generally agreed that three things, stand out;

- One should study each national system separately in its historical context, taking note of differences in terminologies and methods of collecting and classifying data.

- One should also analyze the forces, and factors responsible for the noted differences that are grouped into four categories i.e. natural, religious, social- economic and political.
- One should also adopt only those ideas and practices that best approximate and can be adapted to the recipient country's historical context.

This approach however is faced by the following short comings;

- The data on which we base one study may not be reliable because in the collection of the same, due care is often not observed. As such the conclusions derived may not be very useful. One should therefore keep in mind that historical materials about education systems of various countries are generally not very reliable. This in turn limits the utility of historical data. Hence it suggests the need for more research do make the data more reliable.
- The other shortcoming is that, historians are generally not impartial in their accounts. In most cases they want to conceal undesirable elements about the history of their own country and look on facts relating to other countries with some perceived prejudice. In this scenario the truth is not known. Consequently we cannot reach the right conclusions using this approach.
- The third limitation of this approach is that, the past is unduly emphasized. Consequently the study of comparative education can be said to be unbalanced.

Activity

How would you use this approach in tackling educational problems in your country?

The Analytical Method Approach

This approach brings together the relationship that exists between the educational system of a country and its social, political and economical conditions. In any comparative study we have to use analysis. This is because

through analysis one can separate the various elements and understand the importance of each independently. The analytical method is considered useful only when the social and educational organizations are compared.

The analytical method therefore follows the four main aspects of analysis.

i) Collect Educational Data: -This is where all educational information is gathered through descriptive and statistical methods and this forms the basis for the analytical method.

ii) Interpretation of related data: - This involves interpreting social, political, economic and historical data which is necessary in order to understand similarities and differences found in the educational systems of various countries.

iii) Determining standard for comparison: -In order for us to compare the educational systems fairly, we need to do so by having a certain standard. This standard will help us compare the similarities and differences of the various educational systems. The analytical method often formulates these standards. For example, the political philosophy, aims of education and the method of control of education are good examples of standards, for comparison. It is on the basis of these standards that one can analyze and understand the similarities and differences of the various educational systems of various countries. On the basis of these standards, for example, one can say that since there is a difference between the political philosophies of Kenya and Tanzania, then, we find differences in their educational systems

iv) Interpretation and conclusion; -From the above three aspects of analysis, we are able to interpret the collected data and make certain conclusions on the basis of comparison of the various educational systems of various countries.

However, the analytical method approach is also faced with the following two limitations;

i) This method does not pay adequate attention to the totality of the educational systems.

ii)The method is also prone to ignoring the inherent similarity, which exists in educational systems in spite of the differences in educational systems of the various countries.

Challenges of this approach

How would you address the challenges in this approach

The Synthesis Method Approach

This method has been largely advocated for by Edmond King a renowned comparative educationist in his look "World Perspective in Education". In this approach, the study of comparative education from an international point of view is considered to be of great significance. In this approach the problems of education are considered and studied on an international frame. This is evidenced by the fact that, when we study the problems of education in various countries, we find some universal truths in their inherent differences the main reason being that, there is much similarities in the needs and aspirations of the people of the globe. For example the United Nations organization, like UNESCO has contributed much towards the consciousness of this similarity. It is important to note that, the method of synthesis has not been fully developed, since it is at its infancy stage and comparative educationists need to develop it further. However an attempt to use it as a comparative study approach is still significant in comparative education.

The Scientific Method Approach

The scientific method approach emerged in the current phase of the development of comparative education. Its time frame dates, back from 1960s. However during this period intense methodological debate centered on the following:

- The feasibility of relying on a particular method as opposed to a multi-dimensional approach.
- The feasibility of the nation- state as the dominant research framework as opposed to intra-national, regional, continental and world systems analyses.
- The over reliance on quantitative (statistical) as opposed to qualitative and descriptive research, and finally

- The range of research concerns that have traditionally dominated studies in comparative education.

The results of the methodological debate culminated in new approaches to the study of comparative education. Some of the scholars have engaged in developing new approaches to comparative education study, while bearing in mind the dynamic nature of the discipline. In fact, some scholars have demanded and attempted to develop a science of comparative education that would finally place comparative education in the family of social sciences and at the same time maintain its distinctive position from them.

As such, the methods considered to be scientific that have seen developed, differ in their procedures and focus. Some of these methods include;

The Systematic Area Studies Method Approach;

This method was developed and popularized by G.Z.F. Beredy in his book "Comparative Method in Education" (1964). He used the interdisciplinary approach to systematically survey and analyzes education in different countries. The aim is to understand differences and similarities before borrowing and making any predictions. He argues that, since the study has to make sense out of similarities and differences among different educational systems, it is possible to seek assistance from other fields of study such as History, Sociology and Philosophy. In fact educational facts are so enmeshed in a matrix of other social sciences that comparative education cannot be studied in isolation. According to Beredy, the following steps are to be followed;

- i) Description of aspects of Education; - This involves identification of the problem by clearly describing the problem from eye witness accounts, observations or even reading.
- ii) Interpretation and explanation using the interdisciplinary approach; -

This involves giving explanation of the data collected, of the way things are in each country. Some of the reasons could be historical, social, cultural or religious.

- iii) Juxtaposition or classification of data; - This involves putting the information into groups in categories of contrasting and comparable features. In this way similarities and differences can be easily and clearly seen.

iv) Comparison; - This involves comparing features in one system with those of another system. This helps in the formulation of possible hypotheses.

v) Conclusions and generalization; -This involves testing of the hypotheses generated, drawing of valid conclusions and recommendations while focusing on the causes of similarities and differences.

The Problem Solving Method Approach.

This method was developed and popularized by Brian Holmes in (1964) in his book entitled "Problems in Education: A comparative Approach". He borrowed the ideas of John Dewey (a famous American Educator) based on the five stages of reflective or critical thinking which Brian applied to the study of comparative education to solve educational problems. The stages are;

i) Problem Identification

ii) Problem Analysis

iii) Proposed problem solutions

iv) Specification of the context - this involves looking at the factors, and conditions that are likely to influence the outcomes of the proposed solution; such as, conservative mental states like traditions, morals and beliefs. Also it involves prediction of anticipated results - i.e. making informed guesses about expected outcomes.

v) Comparison and conclusion; - This involves comparing the predicted outcomes (based on the proposed policy solutions) with the actual observable practices. It is more of an evaluation stage (i.e. have things worked out as anticipated?). It also involves making recommendations and conclusions from the observations, and then new lines of action are made.

According to Brian Holmes, he argued that, in the face of a problematic situation, possible solution may spring to mind. On further reflection the problem is better formulated. This further directs the solution to a certain kind of data out of which emerge refined possible solutions, which are then put forward as a hypotheses, which are then tested one after the other and a solution is arrived at.

The Scientific Method Approach

This method was developed and population by Harold Noah and Marc Eckstein in 1960, when they wrote a book entitled "Toward, a Science of Comparative Education". In this approach, they recommended the following procedure;

- i) Problem identification and review of literature
- ii) Definitions of central concepts, terms and indicators
- iii) Selection/sampling of units of study or cases o be studied
- iv) Data collection
- v) Data Analysis and manipulation
- vi) Interpretation of data -finding & results
- vii) Drawing of conclusions and recommendations

As already mentioned earlier, comparative education uses different methodological approaches in its study. For example, some of the scholars in the 1980s such as Robert Arnove, Edmond King and Philip Altbach also wrote on methodology in comparative education. To them they questioned some of the assumptions on which the scientific methods developed earlier were based. However, instead of recommending any particular method for comparative education study, they proposed a combination of methods approach (an eclectic). To them, they

argued that the method to be used should largely be determined by the purpose and design of each study. They were indeed skeptical about the possibility of developing an exact science that would allow where possible accurate predictions as had been suggest by the scholars of the scientific method approach (i.e. Noah and Eckstein). In this regard, it is important to note that methodological debate continues to date, which is a sign of a continued evolving and development of a dynamic discipline that deals with the equally ever-changing and complex field of education i.e. study of comparative education discipline.

Comparing the synthesis approach

Compare and contrast the **Scientific Method Approach** and the **Problem Solving Method Approach**.

<http://camponotes.blogspot.com/2013/01/methodological-approaches-in.html>

Q.3 Compare the primary education of Pakistan with UK and Sri Lanka

International comparisons in education and training are of great importance to understand the recent innovations and developments in countries. Pakistan is a federal territory with sufficient provincial autonomy. On the other hand, the UK is a union of four countries – England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, with an English Parliament a central government, but with Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland having devolved powers. All the four countries have many common features with some differences. No doubt, some studies exist in regard to inter-comparisons of the four countries in the United Kingdom; a few are available on interprovincial comparisons in Pakistan. But perhaps no study is available considering triangular comparisons:

- 1) inter-provincial comparison in Pakistan
- 2) inter-countries comparison in the UK
- 3) international comparisons between Pakistan and the UK, and this is the core objective of this study. The comparison is delimited to six key dimensions i.e. responsibility of education, educational structure, curriculum, assessment and evaluation, inspection, supervision and management, and teacher education and training.

Responsibility of Education and Training

In Pakistan, education is a federal as well as provincial function. There is a Ministry of Education at Islamabad, which formulates the policies and plans at national level. It involves the provinces in the formulation of national education policies and plans. The provinces develop their own plans and execute according to their situations and available resources in the light of national education policies. Since the introduction of devolution plan in education sector in 2002, most affairs of the school education are dealt with the Executive District Officers (Education). For example, policy implementation, and supervision and monitoring of schools, recruitment and transfers of teachers are the main functions of the district governments. EDO (Education) is supported by district education officers (DEOs) and deputy district education officers (Dy. DEOs) and other staff. The other key roles and responsibilities like policy formulation, teacher training, and budget allocation to district governments to a large extent are still with the provincial governments. At provincial levels, the administrative head of the Education Department is 'Secretary' or in certain cases there are two secretaries: one for schools, designated as 'Special Secretary (Schools)' and the other 'Special Secretary (Higher Education)'. They are supported by a number of additional and deputy secretaries and other staff. In the UK, on the other hand, education is the responsibility of each country. In each country, there is a separate institution which deals with all the affairs of education, though the role and functions differ more or less. For example, in England, there is a Department for Education and Skills (DfES); in Wales, Welsh Office; in Scotland, Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED); and in Northern Ireland, the Department of Education. There are some other bodies in each state like Training and Development Agency (TDA) in England; there is no such agency in Scotland, rather General Teaching Council (GTC) undertakes all such functions. Each country is responsible for framing its own policies and plans.

Educational Structure: Institutions, Students' Age and Duration of Schooling

In Pakistan, the education system is three-tier: elementary (grade 1-8), secondary (grade 9-12), and tertiary or higher education, after 12 years' schooling. Elementary education is split up into primary (grade 1-5) and elementary/middle (grade 6-8) and is catered in primary and elementary schools. Education is not a compulsory or statutory requirement, even at primary level in Pakistan, and hence has resulted in low literacy rate and participation rate at all levels. This can be seen from that over 5.5 million children (age group 5-9) are out of school (Government of Pakistan, 1998). In primary or elementary schools, the children are usually enrolled at the age of five; but this is not statutory as in England, or even like Scotland where though children entry is at the age of five, but not statutory like England. In Scotland, as Matheson (2000) states unlike England, there is rarely a hard and fast cut-off dates for the so-called 'rising fives'. In the rural schools of Pakistan, children some times join a primary school at the age of six or even more. In some countries of the UK, primary level is further split up into two stages like in England and Wales, the six years primary is split up into Key Stage 1 (year 5-6) and Key Stage 2 (year 7-11). In Scotland, primary education lasts for seven years, as Matheson (2000) states

‘The Scots always have to do seven years primary school and there are no middle schools as compared to the English having, in general, six years of primary except where there are middle schools’.

Secondary education in Pakistan lasts for four years (grade 9-12). It is catered in government secondary and higher secondary schools; most of these schools have middle classes as well. In all the provinces almost the same types of schools and colleges exist to cater secondary classes. In the UK, secondary schools generally cater education of age group 12-16 or sometimes 12-17 or 18 wherein students join A-Levels. In Northern Ireland, difference in institutions exist in the context of religious communities/sects; schools are managed by three groups – Protestants, Catholics and parent/community-supported (integrated schools), as stated by Dunn (2000) ‘the characteristic of the education system in Northern Ireland is ‘segregation’ by religion which is not seen in other countries of the United Kingdom (p. 88). The parental attitude to sending children in schools of other religions is rarely seen in Northern Ireland. English education system allows Anglican, Jewish, Muslims and Roman Catholic schools. In the public sector, the uniformity or little diversity of the schools in Wales is more similar to Pakistan.

In Pakistan, all state schools are primary, elementary, secondary, higher secondary; there are some comprehensive, pilot secondary and technical schools, but all comprise a little proportion like Wales wherein among the 2048 schools in 1994, few specialist schools for drama and 15 Grant Maintained (GM) schools, altogether constitute a fewer less than 1% compared to more than 4% in England (Halpin et al, 1997). The organization of secondary education is selective in Northern Ireland (Wilson, 1987) whereas in Scotland, Wales and (a little more equivocally) England are comprehensive (Raffe, 2000, p.11). In the UK, 14- 16 years education is compulsory, which does not exist in Pakistan. A striking difference between Pakistan and the UK can be seen with regard to resources in state schools. In comparison to the UK, Pakistani educational institutions lack in trained teachers, and handful teaching and physical resources (Hayes, 1987; The British Council, 1988; Farooq, 1990; Saeed, 1997; Mahmood, Ghafoor & Saeed, 2003). The infrastructure in some good private schools in Pakistan can be considered at par with the UK Higher education in Pakistan starts after the completion of grade 12.

It is carried out in universities, colleges and other such institutions. The universities and degree awarding institutions are autonomous but are characterized by their respective provincial governments and the Higher Education Commission Pakistan. In the UK, like Pakistan students on the completion of secondary education enroll in universities or other general or professional colleges. The degree programmes vary in duration across the different countries. For example, in England first degree programmes are usually of three years for full time students (part-time students might take up to five years to complete their first degree), but in Scottish universities the Honour’s degree is of four years. As Matheson (2000) states ‘until recently, it was a common practice in many of Scotland’s universities for students to take an ordinary degree before proceeding to

Honours'. In Pakistan, the first degree under the traditional or conventional stream is of two years, but under the new stream this is of four years. The degree programmes in medicine and pharmacy are of five years; the duration of first degree in agriculture and engineering is either four or five years in different universities. In the UK, master degree is usually of one year, but in Pakistan, master is of two years. In both Pakistan and the UK, the duration of PhD is at least three years; and mostly routed through M.Phil. in the relevant discipline.

Reference:

<https://neqmap.bangkok.unesco.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Education-system-of-Pakistan-and-the-UK-Comparisons-in-context-to-inter-provincial-and-inter-countries-reflections.pdf>

Q.4 Describe the scope of secondary education. Compare the secondary education of Pakistan with USA and Malaysia

Secondary education covers two phases on the International Standard Classification of Education scale. Level 2 or **lower secondary education** (less common **junior secondary education**) is considered the second and final phase of basic education, and level 3 (**upper**) **secondary education** is the stage before tertiary education. Every country aims to provide basic education, but the systems and terminology remain unique to them. Secondary education typically takes place after six years of primary education and is followed by higher education, vocational education or employment. In most countries secondary education is compulsory, at least until the age of 16. Children typically enter the lower secondary phase around age 11. Compulsory education sometimes extends to age 19.

Since 1989, education has been seen as a basic human right for a child; Article 28, of the Convention on the Rights of the Child states that primary education should be free and compulsory while different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, should be available and accessible to every child. The terminology has proved difficult, and there was no universal definition before ISCED divided the period between primary education and university into junior secondary education and upper secondary education.

In classical and medieval times, secondary education was provided by the church for the sons of nobility and to boys preparing for universities and the priesthood. As trade required navigational and scientific skills, the church reluctantly expanded the curriculum and widened the intake. With the Reformation the state wrestled the control of learning from the church, and with Comenius and John Locke education changed from being repetition of Latin text to building up knowledge in the child. Education was for the few. Up to the middle of the 19th century, secondary schools were organised to satisfy the needs of different social classes with the labouring classes getting 4 years, the merchant class 5 years, and the elite getting 7 years. The rights to a

secondary education were codified after 1945, and some countries are moving to mandatory and free secondary education for all youth under 19.

Definition

Secondary education is in most countries the phase in the education continuum responsible for the development of the young during their adolescence, the most rapid phase of their physical, mental and emotional growth. It is at this very education level, particularly in its first cycle, where values and attitudes formed at primary school are more firmly ingrained alongside the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

— From UNESCO, *Secondary Education Reform: Towards a Convergence of Knowledge Acquisition and Skills Development*, 2005^[2]

The 1997 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) describes seven levels that can be used to compare education internationally. Within a country these can be implemented in different ways, with different age levels and local denominations. The seven levels are:

- Level 0 – Pre-primary education
- Level 1 – Primary education or first stage of basic education
- Level 2 – Lower secondary or second stage of basic education
- Level 3 – (Upper) secondary education
- Level 4 – Post-secondary non-tertiary education
- Level 5 – First stage of tertiary education
- Level 6 – Second stage of tertiary education

Within this system, Levels 1 and 2 – that is, primary education and lower secondary – together form **basic education**. Beyond that, national governments may attach the label of **secondary education** to Levels 2 through 4 together, Levels 2 and 3 together, or Level 2 alone. These level definitions were put together for statistical purposes, and to allow the gathering of comparative data nationally and internationally. They were approved by the UNESCO General Conference at its 29th session in November 1997. Though they may be dated, they do provide a universal set of definitions and remain unchanged in the 2011 update.

The start of **lower secondary education** is characterised by the transition from the single-class-teacher, who delivers all content to a cohort of pupils, to one where content is delivered by a series of subject specialists. Its educational aim is to complete provision of basic education (thereby completing the delivery of basic skills) and to lay the foundations for lifelong learning.

Lower secondary education is likely to show these criteria:

- entry after some 6 years of primary education

- the requirement for more highly qualified teachers teaching only within their specialism
- exit to Level 3 courses, or vocational education, or employment after 9 or more total years of education.

The end of lower secondary education often coincides with the end of compulsory education in countries where that exists.

(Upper) secondary education starts on the completion of basic education, which also is defined as completion of lower secondary education. The educational focus is varied according to the student's interests and future direction. Education at this level is usually voluntary.

(Upper) secondary education is likely to show these criteria:

- entry after some 9 years of basic education
- typical age at entry is between 14 and 16 years
- all teachers have level 5 qualifications in the subject they are teaching
- exit to Level 4 or 5 courses or to direct employment.

More subjects may be dropped, and increased specialism occurs. Completion of (upper) secondary education provides the entry requirements to Level 5 tertiary education, the entry requirements to technical or vocational education (Level 4, non tertiary course), or direct entry into the workplace.

In 2012 the ISCED published further work on education levels where it codified particular paths and redefined the tertiary levels. Lower secondary education and (upper) secondary education could last between 2 and 5 years, and the transition between two often would be when students were allowed some subject choice.

Terminology for secondary schools varies by country, and the exact meaning of any of these varies. Secondary schools may also be called *academies, colleges, gymnasiums, high schools, lyceums, middle schools, preparatory schools, sixth-form colleges, upper schools, or vocational schools*, among other names. For further information about nomenclature, see the section below by country.

Comparison of secondary education in Pakistan and USA

As I found an opportunity to study in United States for one semester and I am writing today about the differences in education of Pakistan and United States that i observed here.

Major Selection:

As far as major selection is considered, it is very flexible, you can change your major at any stage of your Undergraduate Degree. It is also common here to have two or more than two majors in a degree. You have

choice to study whatever you want, no matter in which subject or major you were enrolled for the first time. There are no hard and fast rules to switch your major.

In Pakistan, this situation to have multiple majors is not common. No doubt, in many universities Pakistani students have choice to choose their majors after two years of study in their four years Bachelors degree. In Pakistan students can study their Masters degree in a different subject rather than their First major. Conclusion is this that all these options to switch major are not easy to avail sometimes but it exists.

Class Rooms:

It would not be wrong if I say that class room culture in American Universities is almost totally different from that in Pakistan in both aspects, Behaviors of Students/Teachers and resources availability.

An American teacher has more resources available in class room than that are available to Pakistani teacher. Almost class rooms of every university are smart class rooms, Teachers can record their lectures that are easily available to students later. Lecture recording is not common in Pakistan but still class rooms in Pakistani universities are equipped with multimedia systems.

Behavior of teachers with their students is more friendly than in Pakistan.

Financial Situation of An American Student:

When I compare the Financial situations of American and Pakistani university students. I found it very worse for American students and I realized that my country is blessed in this regard.

A Pakistani student who has never traveled to United States, its hard for him/her to even imagine how expensive is education in USA.

Most of the students has thousands of dollars loan when they complete their education. During their student life they also have to work hard to manage their finances.

In Pakistan, more option of financial assistance are available to students. And best part is that students have not to return this money after completing their education.

Quality Education:

When we talk about the quality of education in Pakistan and United States. It is reality that overall Pakistan is far away from developed countries in this comparison.

During a comparison, different points came to mind from curriculum development to teaching styles and behaviors of students.

If I compare the behavior of students in Pakistan and United States. US students are more keen to learn new things, they do not stick to just their course work. While in Pakistan this trend is not common, one of the tragedy in Pakistan is that students do not read text books but only Power point presentations that is different from United States.

As far as teaching style is concerned, In US class rooms, teachers engage student in different Interactive and problem solving activities, use of work sheets and to discuss real life scenario is common. Lectures are not boring and easy to understand in US colleges and Universities.

Community Service in US Universities:

Volunteer work and community service in US universities is very common. Students have a belief that to serve back community helps them to groom their personality and it gives satisfaction.

secondary schools for children in the schooling system in Malaysia...

Secondary education is for children from 12 to 17 years old and lasts about five years. Each year is called a form (*tingkatan*):

- Forms 1 to 3: Lower Secondary (*Menengah Rendah*)
- Forms 4 to 5: Upper Secondary (*Menengah Atas*)

Children who have successfully completed primary school go straight into Form 1, but if they do not meet the grade requirement for Malay subjects they may have to attend a year-long transition class, called "Remove" (*Kelas/Tingkatan Peralihan*),

As well as academic subjects, secondary school students have to do at least two extra-curricular activities, for example, drama or sports.

Types of secondary schools

- **Chinese Independent High Schools:** Largely funded by the Malaysian Chinese community, students study in three junior middle levels and three senior middle levels, similar to the school structure in China. These schools also have a science and arts stream and recently have begun offering other streams, such as electrical engineering and food and beverages. Classes are taught in Mandarin and students use simplified Chinese characters for written work. There are standardised tests such as the Unified Examination Certificate (UEC), which has a number of levels and is accepted internationally at many higher educational institutions, but not Malaysian public universities. Therefore some independent Chinese schools allow students to sit the recognised Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM)
- **Elite schools:** These include Malacca High School, Royal Military College (Malaysia) and SMK Bukit Jambul. They are selective and only accept students with outstanding academic results in primary school
- **Islamic religious schools:** There are both primary (*Sekolah Rendah Agama* - SRA) and secondary (*Sekolah Menengah Agama* - SMA) Islamic religious schools, which are also known as *Sekolah Agama Rakyat* (SAR). These schools teach an Islam-related curriculum, with subjects such as Arabic language and Fiqh. As universities in Malaysia no longer recognise results from these schools, many students only attend them as part of their education
- **MARA Junior Science College** (*Maktab Rendah Sains* - MARA)
- **National and National-type schools:** Most secondary schools use either Malay or English; however, there are schools with other languages, such as Chinese
- **Religious secondary schools** (*Sekolah Menengah Agama*)
- **Residential schools** (*Sekolah Berasrama Penuh*): Also known as science schools, which are modelled on British boarding schools. They are also very selective in their admissions
- **Technical schools** (*Sekolah Menengah Teknik*)

Examinations in secondary school

At the end of Form 3 students sit the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) or *Penilaian Menengah Rendah* (PMR) examination.

In Form 4, students choose an Art or Science stream; however, their PMR results influence the stream a student is allocated.

At the end of Form 5 students take the Malaysian Certificate of Education or *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* (SPM), which is an end of school certificate, equivalent to a GCSE. English papers are marked and graded according to British GCSE level grades and students are awarded this along with their SPM grade.

Further Secondary Education

Students who pass the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM), can then study further in Form 6, and take the Malaysian High School Certificate (STPM) or *Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan Malaysia* examination, which is equivalent to British A levels or the American High School Certificate. The STPM qualification takes two years to complete (Lower Form 6 and Upper Form 6) and is recognised internationally.

It is also possible for students to complete a matriculation certificate after secondary school, in either a one- or two-year programme, although this certificate is not recognised internationally, only at Malaysian Universities. The matriculation programme is less demanding than the STPM programme.

Students can also take pre-university courses such as the British A level programme, the Canadian matriculation programme, or other national equivalent programmes at private colleges.

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Secondary_education

<https://medium.com/@tosifjamil/a-comparison-between-higher-education-in-pakistan-and-united-states-482d3f50dae7>

<https://www.angloinfo.com/how-to/malaysia/family/schooling-education/secondary-education>

Q.5 What is Bologna process in higher education? Write the similarities and differences of higher Education of Pakistan and India.

The **Bologna Process** is a series of ministerial meetings and agreements between European countries to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher-education qualifications. The process has created the European Higher Education Area under the Lisbon Recognition Convention. It is named after the University of Bologna, where the Bologna declaration was signed by education ministers from 29 European countries in 1999. The process was opened to other countries in the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe, and governmental meetings have been held in Prague (2001), Berlin (2003), Bergen (2005), London (2007), Leuven (2009), Budapest-Vienna (2010), Bucharest (2012), Yerevan (2015), Paris (2018), and Rome (2020).

Before the signing of the Bologna declaration, the Magna Charta Universitatum was issued at a meeting of university rectors celebrating the 900th anniversary of the University of Bologna (and European universities) in 1988. One year before the declaration, education ministers Claude Allègre (France), Jürgen

Rüttgers (Germany), Luigi Berlinguer (Italy) and Baroness Blackstone (UK) signed the Sorbonne declaration in Paris in 1998, committing themselves to "harmonising the architecture of the European Higher Education system". The Bologna Process has 48 participating countries.

Signatories

Signatories of the Bologna Accord, members of the European Higher Education Area, are:

- 1999: Austria, Belgium (Flemish and Walloon Communities separately), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom.
- 2001: Croatia, Cyprus, Liechtenstein, Turkey, European Commission
- 2003: Albania, Andorra, Bosnia and Herzegovina, North Macedonia, Russia, Serbia, Vatican City
- 2005: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine
- May 2007: Montenegro
- 2010: Kazakhstan
- May 2015: Belarus

All member states of the EU are participating in the process, with the European Commission also a signatory. Monaco and San Marino are the only members of the Council of Europe which did not adopt the process.

The ESU, EUA, EURASHE, EI, ENQA, UNICE, the Council of Europe and UNESCO are part of the process' follow-up. Other groups at this level are ENIC, NARIC and EURODOC.

Rejected countries

Four countries are not members of the process. Although Kyrgyzstan ratified the Lisbon Recognition Convention in 2004, it is not a party to the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe and there are no known plans to expand the convention's geographical scope.

Israel

Israel is not a party to the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe, although it has observer status. Although Israel is not geographically part of Europe, it is part of the UNESCO European Region. Israel is also a signatory of the Lisbon Recognition Convention but, under the criteria of the Berlin Communiqué, ineligible for the Bologna Process.

Kosovo

Kosovo is not a party to the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe. Although Serbia is a party, Kosovo declared independence from it and has theoretically been a part of the Bologna Process since the 1999 war. It was suggested that Kosovo could be associated with the process in a category appropriate to its situation, such as guest or special-observer status.

Qualifications framework

The basic framework is three cycles of higher-education qualifications. The framework adopted by the ministers at their meeting in Bergen in 2005 defines the qualifications in terms of learning outcomes: statements of what students know and can do on completing their degrees. In describing the cycles, the framework uses the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS):

- First cycle: typically 180–240 ECTS credits (a minimum of 60 credits per academic year), usually awarding a bachelor's degree. The European Higher Education Area did not introduce the bachelor-with-honours programme, which allows graduates to receive a "BA hon." degree (for example, in the UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada) which (in the UK, Australia and New Zealand) may enable graduates to begin doctoral studies without first obtaining a master's degree.
- Second cycle: typically 60–120 ECTS credits (a minimum of 60 ECTS per academic year), usually awarding a master's degree.
- Third cycle (doctoral degree): There is no concrete ECTS range, since the disciplines vary in length and comprehensiveness. However, some countries have minimum credit weight requirements on doctoral degrees. Those country-level requirements typically require 120–420 ECTS of study.

In most cases, it would take three to four years to earn a bachelor's degree and another one or two years for a master's degree. Doctoral degrees usually require another two to four years of specialization, primarily individual research under a mentor. Degree names may vary by country. One academic year normally corresponds to 60 ECTS credits, equivalent to 1,500–1,800 hours of study.

Reception

The basic idea behind all educational EU-plans is economic: the basic idea is the enlargement of scale of the European systems of higher education ... in order to enhance its 'competitiveness' by cutting down costs. Therefore a Europe-wide standardization of the 'values' produced in each of the national higher educational systems is called for.

Effects by state

The process, an intergovernmental agreement between EU and non-EU countries, does not have the status of EU legislation. Since the Bologna Declaration is not a treaty or convention, there are no legal obligations for the signatory states; participation and cooperation are voluntary.

Although the declaration was created without a formal affiliation with EU institutions, the European Commission (which has supported European projects such as the Tuning and TEEP projects) plays an important role in implementing the process. Most countries do not fit the framework, using their traditional systems. The process, which will result in bilateral agreements between countries and institutions which recognise each other's degrees, is moving from strict convergence in time spent on qualifications towards a competency-based system which will have an undergraduate and postgraduate division (with a bachelor's degree in the former and a master's and doctorate in the latter).

In mainland Europe, five-year-plus first degrees are common. Many do not complete their studies, and many countries are introducing bachelor-level qualifications. The situation is evolving as the Bologna Process is implemented.

Some countries introduced the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) and discussed their degree structures, qualifications, financing and management of higher education and mobility programmes. At the institutional level, the reform involved higher-education institutions, their faculties or departments, student and staff representatives and other factors. Priorities varied by country and institution.

Andorra

In Andorra, degrees are awarded by the state in all three cycles (bachelor's, master's and doctoral). The University of Andorra has adapted its classroom studies to the European Higher Education Area in accordance with the Bologna Agreement. The degree workload is counted in European credits, with a European equivalent of 180 credits (three years) for bachelor's degrees and 120 credits (two years) for master's degrees.

Austria

Austria's situation is similar to Germany's, with the lowest undergraduate degrees the Magister (FH) and Diplom (FH) (designed to take three or four years). The lowest graduate degrees are Magister and Diplom, which typically fulfill a thesis requirement (including final examination and thesis defence) and can be obtained after four to six years of study. In 2000 many curricula began to be converted into bachelor's degrees (*Bakkalaureat*; the term was replaced by "bachelor's" in most curricula by 2007) and master's (*Magisterstudium*) programmes, with nominal durations of six semesters (three years) and three to four semesters (18 months to two years) respectively.

Enrollment in a doctoral programme generally requires a master's degree in a related field. Although the nominal duration of doctoral programmes is two or three years, the time to graduate varies considerably and is generally longer.

Armenia

Armenia ratified the Bologna Process in 2005 and is a member of the European Higher Education Area.

Azerbaijan

Azerbaijan is a full member of the Bologna Process since 2005.

Belarus

Belarus became a member of the European Higher Education Area at a conference in Yerevan, Armenia, in May 2015.

Croatia

In Croatia, implementation of the Bologna Process began during the 2005–2006 academic year. *Diploma* degree became *baccalaureate* (bachelor's degree, Croatian: *prvostupnik*), and the programmes were shortened from four to about three years. *Magisterij* (master's degree) is achieved after two additional years of post-graduate study. The *doktorat* degree (doctorate) may be received after three more years (eight years total).

The typical length of study is three years for a bachelor's degree (*baccalaureus*), two years for a master's degree (*magistar*) and three years for a doctor of science (*doktor znanosti*). A local distinction is made between vocational and academic degrees at the baccalaureate level, and between engineering and other programs at levels below the doctoral.

There are several exceptions. The first degree in economics still takes four years, and the master's degree is obtained after an additional year at the University of Zagreb's Faculty of Economics and Zagreb School of Economics and Management. The four-plus-one-year system also applies to fine arts and music. Medical and related studies replace the bachelor's degree with six-year first professional degrees and graduate Doctor of Medicine (*doktor medicine*) degrees.

The old degrees are translated as follows:

- *Diploma* holders hold master's degrees (*magistar inženjer* for engineers and *magistar* for others).
- The old master's degree is grandfathered into *magistar znanosti* (Master of Science), an intermediate title between the new master's degree and a doctorate for local use.
- Doctoral degrees remain the same.

In May 2008, about 5,000 students protested weak funding, imprecisely defined new rules and the poor results of the Bologna reform.

Denmark

Denmark introduced the 3+2+3 system in 1971 with an education-management working group of the Society of Danish Engineers and a 1984–85 group of the Federation of Danish Industries, both headed by Hans Bruno Lund. Before the adoption of international standards, the lowest degree normally awarded at universities in Denmark was equivalent to a master's degree (Kandidat/cand.mag). Although bachelor's degrees have been obtained after three years of study, most students continue the additional two years required for a master's degree. Mid-length (two-to four-year) professional degrees have been adapted as professional bachelor's degrees (3+½ years).

Finland

In the Finnish pre-Bologna system, higher education was divided between universities and polytechnics. In universities, degrees were divided in most fields into a three-year bachelor's degree (*kandidaatti*) and a two-year master's degree (*maisteri*). In these fields, the Bologna Process resulted in no change.

In engineering, universities only offered a 5+½-year master's program (*diplomi-insinööri*). This has been replaced by a three-year bachelor's degree (*tekniikan kandidaatti*) and a two-year master's degree (*diplomi-insinööri*), for which the English names are Bachelor of Science (Technology) and Master of Science (Technology). A corresponding change has been made in military higher education, where the officer's degree was divided between bachelor's and master's programmes. Finnish Universities of Applied Sciences, which have offered bachelor's-equivalent engineering programmes, began offering master's-degree programs in 2005. Some Master of Engineering (*insinööri (ylempi AMK)*) programmes are taught in English.

Only medicine and dentistry retain their non-standard degree structure, where the Licentiate (higher than a master's degree, but less extensive than Doctor of Medicine or Dentistry degrees) is the basic degree. A six-year program of at least 360 ECTS credits leads to the Licentiate of Medicine (*lääketieteen lisensiaatti*) degree. There is an intermediate title (but not an academic degree) of *lääketieteen kandidaatti*, and no master's degree.

Polytechnic degrees are considered bachelor's degrees in international use. In domestic use, bachelors transferring from polytechnics to universities may be required to amass a maximum of 60 ECTS credits of additional studies before beginning master's-level studies. In conjunction with the Bologna Process, polytechnics have the right to award master's degrees.

France

In France the *baccalauréat*, awarded at the end of secondary education, allows students to enter university. Before the LMD reform which implemented the Bologna Process, it was followed by a two-year *Diplôme d'études universitaires générales* (DEUG) and a third-year Licence (the equivalent of a UK bachelor's degree).

Students could then pursue a *Maîtrise*, a one-year research degree which could be followed by a one-year vocational degree (the *Diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées* or DESS) or research degree (the *Diplôme d'études approfondies*, or DEA). The DEA, preparation for a doctorate, was equivalent to the M. Phil. Students could then pursue a *doctorat* (PhD), which took at least three years.

The DESS was created in 1975 for students who completed four-year degrees. Intended as a doctorate with a more practical approach than research, it included the production of a 120-page paper which was defended to a jury of three international specialists in the field. The mini-thesis was kept in the libraries of the university issuing the DESS, unlike a PhD dissertation (distributed by its author to every French university library).

Higher education in France is also provided by non-university institutions dedicated to specific subjects.

The *Diplôme d'ingénieur* (engineering diploma) is awarded to students after five years of study in state-recognized *Écoles d'ingénieurs*, particularly the Grandes Écoles such as Mines, Centrale and ENAC.

Although the *baccalauréat* and *doctorat* are unchanged in the Bologna system (known in France as LMD reform), the DEUG and *licence* have been merged into a three-year Licence. The *Maîtrise*, DESS and DEA have been combined into a two-year master's degree, which can be work- (*master professionnel*) or research-oriented (*master recherche*). The *Diplôme d'ingénieur* degree is still separate from a university degree, but holders may legally claim a master's degree as well.

Strikes occurred in 2002 and 2003 and 2007 protesting LMD reform, focusing more on under-funding of French universities since May 1968 than on the Bologna Process. Although the two major student organisations object to some aspects of its application to the French system, they generally welcome the European process.

Georgia

Although Georgia joined the Bologna Process in 2005 at the Bergen summit, steps towards the establishment of the European Higher Education Area were completed earlier. Since the end of the 1990s, many Georgian universities (mostly private) have introduced limited educational programs allowing students to graduate with a bachelor's degree (four years) and earn a master's degree (one to two years) while preserving the old five-to-six-year scheme. During the Soviet era, the only degree was the discontinued Specialist.

Cycles of higher education are divided into first (bachelor's degree with 240 credits), second (master's degree, 120 credits) and third (doctorate, 180 credits). Human and veterinary medicine and dentistry (300–360 credits) are integrated programs with a qualification equal to a master's degree.

Greece

Greece joined the Bologna Process in 1999. Since 2007, more-intensive steps towards the establishment of the European Higher Education Area were completed.

Hungary

In Hungary, the Bologna system applies to those who began their university education in or after September 2006. One hundred and eight majors were available for selection (compared with over 400 in 2005), of which six are exempt from the bachelor's-master's division: law, human and veterinary medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and architecture.

According to an online poll by the National Tertiary Education Information Centre, 65 percent of respondents thought it unnecessary to adopt the system. The new system provides less of a guarantee that students will obtain a master's degree, because many will complete their education after the three-year bachelor's degree. Students are expected to study more unrelated subjects during the first three years, due to the smaller number of majors.

Iceland

In Iceland, bachelor's degrees are usually three years in duration; master's degrees are two years, and doctoral degrees range from three to six years.

Ireland

In Ireland, bachelor's degrees are commonly three to four years in duration; master's and doctoral degrees are basically similar to those in the UK. Bachelor's degrees are first-cycle qualifications. Except for the MA at the University of Dublin, a master's degree is always a postgraduate degree (teaching or research). The generic outcomes for Irish degrees are laid out in the 2003 National Framework of Qualifications. In 2006, Ireland was the first country to verify the compatibility of its national framework with that of the EHEA.

Italy

Italy fits the framework since its 1999 adoption of the 3+2 system. The first degree is the *Laurea triennale*, which may be obtained after three years of study. Selected students may then complete their studies with two additional years of specialization leading to the *Laurea Magistrale*.

The *Laurea* corresponds to a bachelor's degree; the *Laurea Magistrale*, corresponding to a master's degree, grants access to third-cycle programmes (post-MA degrees, doctorates or specialized schools) lasting two to five years (completing a PhD usually takes three years). A five-year degree, *Laurea Magistrale Quinquennale* (Five-Year Master of Arts) is awarded in law (*Facoltà di Giurisprudenza*), the arts (*Accademia di Belle Arti*) and music (*Conservatorio di Musica*). The title for BA and BS undergraduate students is *Dottore* and for MA,

MFA, MD and MEd graduate students *Dottore magistrale* (abbreviated *Dott.*, *Dott.ssa* or *Dr.*). This should not be confused with PhD and post-MA graduates, whose title is *Dottore di Ricerca* (Research Doctor).

The Italian system has two types of postgraduate degree (called "Master", not to be confused with the master's degree). *Laurea Magistrale* (120 ECTS) allows access to third-cycle programmes, and *Master universitario* (at least 60 ECTS) may be divided into first- (second cycle) and second-level master's degrees (third cycle). A first-level master's degree is accessible by a first-cycle degree and "does not allow access to PhD and to 3rd cycle programmes, since this type of course does not belong to the general requirements established at national level, but it is offered under the autonomous responsibility of each university".

Kazakhstan

Kazakhstan has been a full member of the Bologna Process and European Higher Education Area since 2010.

In the event Difference Between Education System In India And Pakistan that we discuss the investigation level in urban regions there are much offices and openings are accessible for the understudy to learn yet rustic regions do not have these offices in both Pakistan and India. For the advance of a nation no uncertainty training is the most vital factor however for execution of this factor appropriately the instructor ought to likewise assume a model part. Continue perusing this article till so as to think about the distinction between Education System in India and Pakistan. Education is one of the critical variables of a state who gain it ready to ground. The nation's prosperity can be judged by proficiency rate and the nature of instruction serving in the nation. The proficiency rate of any nation demonstrates the value of its nation. The improvement of instruction in Pakistan and India is an example of overcoming adversity. There are such a large number of sensible strategies and tenets are made in the Education arrangement of Pakistan however tragically there are still a portion of the shortcoming are cleared out.

Difference Between Education System In India And Pakistan

Education System of India:

The education system of India is very well established and maintained since last few years. There are about 400 universities and 16000 colleges in India which covers three head of Technology, Management, and Medical Science. In the management and Finance domains, the ISB is ranked in no 12th among World's MBA School by Financial Times of London. The education system in India is much established as compared to Pakistan and we have to learn from Indian Education reforms. All India Institute of Medical Science has been forefront in the development of Medical Treatment in India. India is the fastest growing economy in the world today.

Education System of Pakistan:

The education system of Pakistan is one of the best systems having a strong infrastructure. The education system of Pakistan is divided into Primary, Secondary and Higher School Level. There is a huge number of excellent schools, colleges and universities are present in Pakistan which is serving the best standards of education under the supervision of highly qualified, experienced and trained faculty. Pakistan is spending only 3% of its GDP on its Education. The Time Higher Education Ranking has ranked the National University of Science and Technology (NUST) at no 376 and further three universities have been ranked in the top 300 in the field of Natural Sciences. For further you must read the key difference Difference Between Education System In India And Pakistan.

Difference Between Qualitative And Quantitative Research Methods

Key Difference Between Education System In India And Pakistan:

- The literacy rate of Pakistan is 57% whereas the literacy rate of India is 74%
- The male literacy rate in Pakistan is 68% whereas the male literacy rate in India is 75%
- The female literacy rate in Pakistan is 48% whereas the female literacy rate in India is 53%.
- Pakistan Government spends about 3% of its GDP on Education whereas the Government of India is spending 3.5% of its GDP on Education Sector.
- The education system of Pakistan is not uniform due to the instability of Politicians whereas the Indian education system is progressing day by day due to economic and political stability.
- The ratio of Pakistanis having no schooling is 60% whereas the ratio of Indian having no schooling is 43% but still Indian Education System is better established and maintained as compared to Pakistan

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bologna_Process

<https://mydifferencebetween.com/difference-between-education-system-in-india-and-pakistan/>