

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

1947-1966

EDITED BY

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and

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WITH A FOREWORD BY

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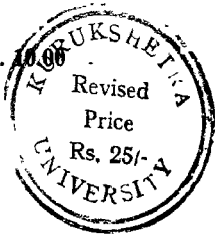
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

KURUKSHETRA UNIVERSITY, KURUKSHETRA (Haryana)

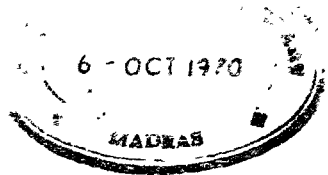
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The fifteenth of August, 1947 is a red-letter day in the history of our country because this day marks the ushering in of a new era. Emancipated from the centuries-old shackles of foreign domination, India took a new stride on this day.

Recognizing that the progress of a nation depends upon efficient planning in the field of education a variety of programmes of educational reconstruction were initiated and implemented during the last two decades by the Central and State Governments. As two decades of freedom are over it seems relevant to review the developments in the different fields of education. Such an academic stock-taking, it is hoped, will help in focussing attention on the need for taking further steps for strengthening efforts in every educational field.

The Department of Education deserves credit for bringing together under one volume thoughts of some well-known persons on the various facets of educational progress during the last twenty years of freedom. The vast amount of information from a variety of sources, the keen and searching analysis and some revealing and valuable inferences which characterise the papers, are evidence of the great labour and patient research that have gone into their making.

The present monograph examines some of the fundamental problems with which our education is faced today, shows how they have to be tackled from various angles and how, if there is to be any advance, there is need for constant re-thinking in the light of our experience and the country's changing needs.

The contributors of the different papers and the Department of Education deserve congratulations for placing, both before the laymen and the educational workers, the progress made in the different fields of education and for throwing some new light on some of the vital problems of Indian Education which are often shrouded in mystery.

I am sure this monograph, containing as it does papers by scholars on educational developments, will be of immense interest to the students and teachers of Education.

I wish the monograph success.

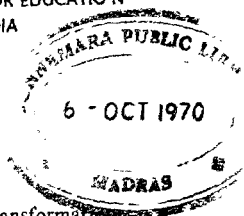
D. C. Verma

Vice-Chancellor

30th December, 1967.



MINISTER OF STATE FOR EDUCATION
GOVERNMENT OF INDIA
NEW DELHI
DECEMBER 27, 1967



FOREWORD

Free India stands to-day on the threshold of a mighty transformation. With the dawn of Independence, adoption and promulgation of the democratic Constitution, launching of the successive Five Year Plans and re-drawing of the political map as a consequence of the reorganization of the States, a new vista of all-round progress and prosperity has emerged before the countrymen inspiring them to undertake the task of building a new India, economically prosperous and socially integrated, with an earnest zeal and enthusiasm.

In any scheme of reconstruction and regeneration, educational development lies at the very base, because education is essentially concerned with the training and development of human resources. That's why a variety of educational programmes for quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement at different levels have been launched since 1947 by the Central and State Governments. As almost twenty years have passed and we are entering the third decade of freedom, it seems relevant to review the manifold developments in the different fields of education and undertake a brief stock-taking of the progress made. Such periodic academic evaluations, there is no doubt, are useful as they not only mirror the past but also indicate the signposts for the future.

I am happy to learn that with this aim in view the Department of Education of the Kurukshetra University invited a few known scholars in the field of Education to contribute papers on different aspects of education highlighting in an outline form the progress made in a particular field during the post-independence era.

The present monograph, I am pleased to note, gives a bird's eye-view of the country's educational progress and programmes envisaged during the last two decades and brings into light some of the fundamental problems with which our education is faced today. The Department of Education of the Kurukshetra University deserves congratulations for bringing out such an informative monograph.

I am sure that the students and teachers of Current Problems of Indian Education will find this monograph interesting and useful.

I send my best wishes for the success of the venture.

Shor Singh



PREFACE

During the span of twenty years of freedom the country has taken many strides. The changes in the realm of education are, perhaps, more conspicuous and gradually education has come to be regarded as the chief means through which social and economic advancement could be made. During this period many schemes aimed at reconstruction and reformation of the entire educational spectrum have been introduced.

When we are entering the third decade of freedom it may be relevant to make an assessment of developments in the various fields of education and evaluate broadly the educational trends in our country in the post-independence era. Such an attempt it is hoped will help in making a realistic evaluation of the progress made in the different fields of education and in identifying some of the problems which confront us.

With this purpose in view the Department of Education planned to bring out a publication on the theme: "Development of Education in India 1947-66" and invited some well-known persons to contribute papers on different aspects and phases of education. A scrutiny of the papers shows that almost the entire field of education has been touched.

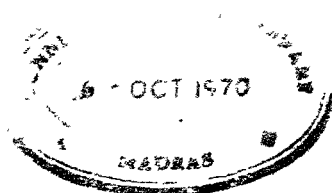
The contributors of the papers deserve our heart-felt gratitude for acceding to our request readily and sending papers in time which have an imprint of scholarship. The views expressed in the different papers are those of the contributors themselves and these do not reflect the ideas of the editors.

If this monograph can be of service and use to the students of Education in the Indian Universities the Kurukshetra University and the editors will feel amply rewarded.

Dr. S. P. Ahluwalia, Lecturer in Education, deserves my thanks for assisting me in the editing of this short but useful monograph.

31st December, 1967.

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PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Pre-Primary education, known by various names such as pre-school education, nursery education and the like, is of recent origin in this country. Carter V. Good defines pre-school education as a "provision for physical, motor, health, nutritional, intellectual, aesthetic, emotional and social development of the pre-school child." Gandhiji, taking a broader view of pre-school education, remarks: "The real education begins from the conception, as the mother begins to take up the responsibility of the child."¹ It is a stage, therefore, which pertains to the child before he enters the portal of the school for formal learning. Hence, broadly speaking, it involves the education of the parents, especially mother, and in narrower but specific terms it means the upbringing of the child and making him ready for the formal learning.

Importance of Pre-School Education

"The present century," in the words of K. L. Shrimali, "is called the century of the discovery of the child." This discovery of the child, although interlocked with industrialization on pragmatic grounds, has been, more than once, established as a primary need with scrupulous accuracy by educational thinkers and psychologists. The age between three and six is known to be the deciding factor for the doings and undoings of later life. The *raison de etre* of the growth of the pre-school education, as stated earlier, is industrialization in the Western world. However, now it is advocated more as a psychological, social, and educational necessity. No doubt pre-school education is important to form a bridge between home and school. Good health, proper nutrition, emotional and mental development and sensorial education are some of the fundamental pre-requisites for formal learning in a school. Such an important stage of life, it is needless to emphasise, has gained more honour with the attainment of freedom in India.

The prime purpose of this paper is three-fold (i) to discern how far extensive efforts have been put by different agencies to strengthen the pre-school education programme; (ii) to identify the deficiencies therein; and (iii) to offer a few suggestions for improvement.

Expansion in Pre-Primary Education

Table 1.1 gives a picture of the expansion of pre-primary education in India.

TABLE 1.1

NUMBER OF PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS

<i>Years</i>	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Rate of increase in schools</i>	<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Rate of increase in enrolment</i>
1950-51	303	—	28,309	—
1955-56	630	52%	45,828	36%
1960-61	1,909	66%	1,21,122	62%
1965-66	3,500	53%	2,50,000	51%

Sources : *Education in India*, Vol. II for various years.
Education Commission Report, 1964-66.

It will be seen from Table 1.1 that the rate of increase in the number of pre-primary schools and scholars has been tremendous. The number of such schools increased from 303 in 1950-51 to 3500 in 1965-66 and in no quinquennium the rate of increase has been less than 52%. Similarly, in the case of enrolment a rapid spurt has been registered. The enrolment increased from 28,309 in 1950-51 to 2,50,000 in 1965-66 giving percentage increase of 36%, 62% and 51% for the years 1955-56, 1960-61 and 1965-66 respectively.

But it is feared, this increase is not sufficient. The number of schools are only insignificant in the context of vast needs of the country. Even the demands of slum areas, where the need of nurseries is the most, are quite inadequately and insufficiently met. Pre-primary schools, in the language of a layman, are still the luxury of the rich. Enrolment, although rapid increase is registered, pales into insignificance when compared with the population in the corresponding age-group. The figures of population for 3-6 age-group are not available. However, the population for age-group 0-4 may serve as a rough indicator to compare enrolment. The total population in 0-4 age-group is estimated to be 53.6 million, 63.8 million, 70.1 million, and 77.4 million for the years 1951, 1956, 1961, and 1966 respectively.² The corresponding figures of children actually receiving pre-school education are 28,309; 45,828; 1,21,122 and 2,50,000. It is doubted if ever a time will come when even the 50% of children of age-group 3-6 shall enjoy the pre-school education. These figures only indicate that still much remains to be done.

Expansion in Rural India

India lives in villages. Let us plainly and simply find out the share of rural areas that enjoys the facilities of pre-school education. Table 1.2 presents, at a glance, the existence of such facilities in rural India.

TABLE 1.2

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT IN RURAL AREAS

Year	Total No. of Schools	No. of Schools in Rural area	Percentage of 3 to 2	Total enrolment	Enrolment in Rural area	Percentage of 6 to 5
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51	303	28	9	28,309	1355	5
1955-56	630	76	12	45,828	3542	8
1960-61	1909	269	14	1,21,122	12322	9

Source : *Education in India, Vol. II for various years.*

It is evident from Table 1.2 that rural area gets a negligible share in respect of pre-primary education. The rural India had only 9% of the total number of pre-primary schools in 1950-51, which increased only to 12% in 1955-56, and 14% in 1960-61. Similarly, in terms of enrolment the children belonging to rural India formed only 5% of the total enrolment in 1950-51, 8% in 1955-56, and 9% in 1960-61. This shows that the rural India is still less cared for and the analysis only strengthens the idea that the pre-primary institutions are still the province of the urban areas where the rich flourish. This state of rural areas is just startling and intriguing in the context of the rapid rate of increase, in such facilities in urban areas.

Finances for Pre-Primary Education

Another governing factor in the progress of education is expenditure incurred. Table 1.3 gives an account of total expenditure on pre-primary education for different plan periods.

TABLE 1.3
EXPENDITURE ON PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Year	Total Exp. on Pre-Primary Education	Percentage increase	Total Ednl. Expenditure	Percentage of 2 to 4
1	2	3	4	5
1950-51	11,98,319	—	1,143,822,000	·15
1955-56	24,99,241	52%	1,996,610,000	·13
1960-61	58,73,417	57%	3,443,801,000	·16
1965-66	11,000,000	46%	6,000,000,000	·20

- Sources : 1. *Statistical Abstracts of the Indian Union, 1961.*
 2. *Education in India, Vol. II, for various years.*
 3. *Report of the Education Commission, (1944-66).*

It is evident from Table 1.3 that pre-primary education has a niggardly position in the educational scheme. It indicates that total national efforts stand in no comparison against what the educational thinkers think about this stage. This also proves that other stages of education have more of the attention of public effort. It is, incidentally, due to this that pre-primary education finds only a very limited mention in educational reports of various sorts.

Table 1.3 shows that rate of increase is quite substantial but this is, it is believed, merely the facial expression and intrinsic picture can only be judged by the percentage expenditure incurred for pre-primary education. And here we find that in a period of 15 years (from 1950-51 to 1965-66) the percentage expenditure increased from .15% to .20%—a very saddening show indeed!

It may be profitable to look to another aspect of expenditure on pre-primary education. Table 1.4 presents at a glance details about the expenditure by sources.

TABLE 1.4
PERCENTAGE EXPENDITURE ON PRE-PRIMARY
EDUCATION BY SOURCES

Year	Govt. Funds	D.Bs.	M.Bs.	Fees.	Endowments etc.	Other Sources
1950-51	26.0	0.1	5.5	45.1	2.9	20.4
1955-56	25.7	0.3	2.9	47.5	5.2	18.4
1959-60	24.1			39.7		
		9.7			26.5	

Sources: *Education in India*, Vol. II for various years.

Table 1.4 points out that fees constitute the major source of financing pre-primary education and undoubtedly establishes that it is still the privilege of the wealthier section of the society, of the persons who can pay fees which are usually exorbitant and also prohibitive for middle and poor sections of the society. It is heartening, however, that next to fees the Government funds form the major source for supporting pre-primary education. But this enthusiasm is saddened by the trend of decreasing pecuniary aid by the government. The government funds contributed 26.0% of the expenditure in 1950-51 which dwindled to 24.1% in 1959-60. It is a happy augury that the contribution of endowments registered an upward trend and in this context there need be more of rationalising the relationship between public and private sectors.

Teachers In Pre-Primary Schools

Another factor in the progress of pre-primary education is teachers employed in such schools.

TABLE 1.5

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Year	Number of Teachers				Total	No. of Students	Proportion of 7 to 6
	Men		Women				
	Trained	Un-trained	Trained	Un-trained			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1950-51	112	3	442	6	563	28,309	1 : 50
1955-56	289		1,591		1,880	45,828	1 : 24
1960-61	273	134	2,393	1,206	4,006	1,21,122	1 : 30

Sources : *Education in India, Vol. II, for various years.*

It can be seen from Table 1.5 that there has been a rapid rise in the number of teachers. During the decennium 1951-1961, there has been nearly eight-fold increase in the total number of teachers. Interestingly, the increase of teachers is more rapid in case of women teachers than the men-teachers. There is more of growth in untrained (men and women) teachers. If the quality of teachers is the alpha and omega of the quality of education, it is just frightening to note that the number of untrained teachers rose from 9 in 1950-51 to 1,340 in 1960-61.

This, naturally, brings us to the question of training of teachers. There were only ten training centres in the whole of India during 1950-51: Bombay, 4; Madras, 4; U.P., 1; and Mysore, 1. After ten years, in 1959-60 there were as many as 26 such training institutions. The State-wise distribution was: Andhra Pradesh, 1; Maharashtra, 12; Gujarat, 6; Kerala, 1; Madhya Pradesh, 2; Madras, 4; and U.P., 1. This means that there is huge paucity of training facilities. There are, perhaps, two major drawbacks in strengthening the pre-primary education programme: (i) lack of money and (ii) dearth of suitable teachers.³

Deficiencies

The problems of pre-primary education can be seen from three strategies, i.e., problems of expansion; problems of finance; and problems of teachers. The preceding discussion helps in discerning some of the major deficiencies in the field of pre-primary education.

The three major deficiencies can be identified as under :

1. Expansion, in terms of number of schools and enrolment, has been steady but largely restricted to urban areas and mostly serving as a luxury for the rich rather than as a necessity for the children of the working mothers and of the slums;

2. Financial provisions and expenditure are quite inadequate and do not meet the needs of this stage of education ; and

3. Increase in number of teachers is accompanied by recruitment of large number of untrained teachers, fewer women teachers, and inadequate arrangements of training of teachers.

To this list of maladies may be added others which are not directly related but by no way less important. Mrs. Amitaben Verma summarizes the problems of pre-primary education as under :⁴

1. Quality is forsaken for quantity.
2. Lack of research-work on rural and urban children.
3. Need for Indianizing the programmes.
4. Lack of co-ordination among various agencies.
5. Lack of availability of literature.
6. Need for a central organisation to plan and co-ordinate the activities of various agencies.
7. Lack of professional literature for teachers.
8. Need for constant and frequent appraisal.

A Few Suggestions

At the very outset it may be borne in mind that the pre-primary education cannot be viewed aloof from total educational programme, particularly in view of the weak finances. It can be considered upon its own merits. It cannot be that there has to be a spurt in opening of such schools every where simultaneously. Priorities of the *Ilaga*, where nurseries are to be opened, shall have to be worked out. Obviously, the slum areas stand first in the list. If better type of future citizens, are to be trained, if juvenile delinquency is to be kept to the minimum, and if pre-primary education is considered a necessity and not a luxury, the care of children of working mothers and of residents of slum areas should get the best attention. In other words the democratic tendencies in pre-primary education, it is believed, shall be measured by the number of schools opened in slum-areas and the number of children of poor working mothers enrolled in the nurseries.

It may be noted that momentum of nursery education has been interlocked with the pace of industrialisation in the West. It should serve as a warning that nursery education does not follow industrialisation, but that both should go side by side so that the need of pre-primary schools is not felt when the germs of delinquency have sprouted in the

industrial areas. It is far more important therefore, that the Government (Central and State) should, in financial collaboration with the industrial management, open a large number of first-grade nurseries catering largely to the needs of working population.

The rich people may for the present be left to themselves because for them pre-primary education is more of a luxury in the sense that they are themselves educated, have sufficient time at their disposal and are also capable of arranging for the education of their wards.

It is suggested that the rural areas may wait for better times. Though such a time, surely, is not within easy reach of visualization. So, in the rural areas there need be a proper co-ordination among Extension Services, Panchayats, and the State Government, for opening of at least one nursery in each big village where some endowment may also be procured.

Regarding finances, it may be stated that the generous contributions from wealthier section of society and suitable provisions by the industrial managements should form the major sources of financing pre-primary education. The Government, it is surmised, is hard up and finds it difficult to even accomplish the demands of Article 45 of the Constitution in addition to other educational charges. The Education Commission (1964-66), while dealing with nursery and the primary education, suggest that private enterprise, "should be mainly concerned with pre-primary education and State should assist through grants-in-aid on a basis of equalization. Accordingly, pre-primary schools catering to the needs of children from the under-privileged groups will have a higher claim on State funds."⁵

In regard to training of teachers, it is desired that the training institutions should enter the stage of munificence. It shall only add to the betterment of pre-primary education if such centres are opened either in the rural areas or in highly industrialised centres. This will ease the situation in so far as rural and slum areas are concerned.

Three major suggestions of the Education Commission are worth trying in each State :

1. Every State Institute of Education should have a centre for development of pre-primary education which may cater to multifarious activities such as training of teachers, preparation of juvenile literature and the like.

2. A net-work of children's play centres should be established with every primary school to be conducted by a especially trained teacher of that primary school who will get due allowance for it.

3. Proper co-ordination among different agencies concerned with child-welfare activities. such as C.S.W.B., I.C.C.W., and the like.

This is all for pre-primary education for children of 3-6 age group.

But if a broader view of pre-primary education is considered, education for the "wiser parenthood" should be strengthened in rural as well as urban areas. It is all the more important for the Home which still serves as a major source of influence in India and the real teachers of the infant are still the MOTHER and the FATHER. It would not be futile, therefore, if the Family Planning Programme, which is blessed with huge pecuniary aid by the Government during the Fourth Five-Year Plan, and the Social Education Programme are interlocked with each other. This will have an indirect but an everlasting influence on schemes of pre-primary education.

This impressionable stage of education, it is hoped, shall be attended to and cared for by the parents and the administrators of the country.

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SARWAN KUMAR

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In the post-freedom era there were atleast three forces that were shaping the policies and programmes in the field of Elementary Education. They were : (1) Growth of literacy, (2) fulfilment of the Constitutional Directive of State policy, Article 45, and (3) Basic Education. Except for the second force the other two were a spill-over of the pre-freedom era. Another motivation was the juxtaposition of educational development in a total national context of five year plans poised to usher in a new industrial, technological and socialist economy. In the light of these preliminaries it would be appropriate to judge what follows.

Universal Education

In the all India Education Conference held in Delhi in January, 1948 it was pointed out by the Honourable Maulana Azad, Education Minister that the programmes which were considered adequate for the old regime would no longer satisfy a free and independent nation. The Government of India then appointed a Committee to draw up programmes of Basic Education, to fix targets to be achieved in the course of the next two or three quinquennia and devise ways and means of financing such schemes. The Government of India undertook also to prepare a syllabus for the Basic Schools—both Junior and Senior and also a handbook for Basic school teachers. The committee set up for this purpose held its first meeting in June, 1947. Its interim report was approved by the C.A.B.E in January, 1948. The committee recommended that the curriculum of Basic Schools should consist of (a) Craft work, (b) Mother Tongue, (c) Mathematics (d) Social Studies, (e) General Science, (f) Art, (including Drawing, Music and Aesthetics generally), (g) Games and physical activities and (h) Hindustani now Hindi. The Handbook for teachers in Basic Schools was mainly intended to deal with the subject of correlation. In 1947-48 the Government of India arranged with Jamia Milia, Delhi and Viswa-Bharati, Santi-Niketan for the training of teachers for Basic Schools. The Basic system of education was recognised to be the national system of education.

Compulsion

In order to make a beginning with the plan of universal basic education the Government of India decided to open 150 Junior Basic Schools in Delhi Province in 1948-49. The 1948 Conference had resolved—“(1) that the period of 40 years contemplated by the C.A.B.E as necessary

for the completion of the work of universal compulsory education should be substantially reduced, (2) that the view of the C.A.B.E. that provision should be made for universal, free and compulsory Basic Education for a period of eight years be endorsed but, if for financial and other practical reasons it is not possible for the educational authorities to make provision forthwith for the whole eight years period, planning in the first instance may be confined to a five years period."¹

In this regard the C.A.B.E. and various educational committees have generally been against the continuance of single teacher schools. The most obvious difficulty is one of their supervision if the teacher is for any reason absent. One of the recommendations of the Kher Committee set up in 1948 to consider 'Ways and Means of Financing educational development' was, that attempts should be made to introduce compulsory education for the children of age-group 6-14 within a period of 10 years but, owing to financial stringency the Centre could make a provision of Rs. 50,00,000 only in their budget for 1949-50. By about 1952, in the salaries of teachers although there was improvement they went up five or six fold in the centrally administered areas—yet it could not be said to be adequate. Gokhale had pleaded on political grounds, that the initiative in the matter of compulsory primary education be left to local bodies. While most of the Compulsory Education Acts were based on this principle, Dr. Desai concludes "Practical experience has however shown that it has not worked satisfactorily. The local bodies have not been enthusiastic over the issue and they have neither pressed strongly for the introduction of compulsion, nor taken effective measures to enforce it."²

A scheme to relieve educated unemployment in the country was started in 1953-54. "Provision was to employ 80,000 teachers in rural schools. The Government of India undertook to pay 75% salary in the first year, 50% in the second year and 25% in the third year and non-recurring grant for School equipment of Rs. 200/- per teacher."³ The 20th meeting of the C.A.B.E. decided in November, 1953 that the Planning Commission should make adequate provisions to realise the Constitutional directive of free and compulsory education to 6-11 group by 1960. This was based on a memorandum on the subject considered by the C.A.B.E. The 21st meeting of C.A.B.E. in February, 1954 examined the Madras Scheme of Elementary Education which sought to reduce the school hours from 5 to 3. The remaining hours were to be devoted in learning some occupation either with the parent or some craftsman. The C.A.B.E. considered the scheme good but only as an interim measure because there was difficulty of supervision arrangements in the occupation. Finally in 1953-54 the Central Government prepared a scheme for giving financial assistance to State Governments in the light generally of the recommendations of the Kher Committee appointed by the C.A.B.E. in 1948. In 1954-55

several grants were sanctioned for the implementation of different schemes of Basic Education under the first Five Year Plan. Scheme No. 6 on expansion of Basic Education was introduced in 1954-55. The progress in different States was not uniform. Hence the Government of India appointed a Committee to assess its progress. A special Basic Education Committee was appointed in 1955-56 as a Standing Committee of the CABE to advise the Government on matters pertaining to Basic Education.

J. P. Naik's Proposals for Universal Education

A practical programme for the introduction of universal, free and compulsory Primary Education in India during the next 10 years was suggested on 1st January, 1956 by J. P. Naik who was on the educational Panel of the Planning Commission. He showed that 33.2% of the age group 6-11 were enrolled in Primary Schools in 1950-51 and this percentage was to increase to 46.2% in 1960-61, age group 11-14 being 18.3% in 1950-51—and 28.1% in 1960-61. Obviously this progress presents a very disappointing picture. At this rate the directive of the Constitution may not be fulfilled even in a period of 40 to 60 years. He traced the causes, which may be well known but his suggestions are worth reproducing. The basis of reform according to him should be among others :

(1) The highest emphasis possible should be placed on programmes of quantitative development for the next 10 years. (2) The programme of qualitative development should not be interlocked with the quantitative development. (3) The shift system appears inescapable (4) The age period of compulsion should be reduced to 7 years instead of 8 and hence he suggested the following targets for the Second Five Year Plan : (1) There shall be a school within a reasonable walking distance from the home of every child. (2) Compulsory education of four years 7-11 should be introduced for boys and girls in all areas wherever primary schools have been in existence for the last three years. Similarly following targets for the third plan were proposed : (1) to provide every village with a school (2) to enrol 90% of the total population of the age group of 6-11 (3) to enrol 70% of the children of the age group of 11-14.

He suggested certain other programmes which could be undertaken simultaneously but separately. Thus in the Second Plan Rs. 200 crores and in the third Rs. 250 crores and in the Fourth Rs. 300 crores were proposed by him. ||

For this purpose, J. P. Naik said, it would be necessary to hold an educational survey of the country to show : (1) the number of towns and villages already served by schools, (2) the number of new independent primary schools required to meet the needs of the remaining bigger villages say of a population of 300 or more, (3) and the number of group

schools, peripatetic schools, that would be needed to meet the educational needs of the smaller villages. Experience of Bombay showed that a sum of Rs. 50,000 was required for the survey of a district. At this rate a sum of about Rs. 20 lakhs would be required for surveying the 378 districts of India. Another sum of Rs. 10 lakhs may be provided for overhead expenses. The project, therefore, may not cost more than Rs. 30 lakhs which should be provided by the Government of India immediately. The Standing Committee of the C.A.B.E. welcomed the suggestion of J.P. Naik. The Government of India accepted the recommendation and sum of Rs. 23 lakhs was provided in the budget for 1956-57 under the Central Schemes of the Second Five Year Plan.

The Second Five Year Plan contains the following note in respect of elementary education: "The problems of education at the elementary level are mainly two, the expansion of existing facilities and the orientation of the system of education on Basic lines. Both are equally urgent tasks and vital to social and economic development." Their various schemes divisible between the Centre and the States may be classified under the following broad categories as given in Progress Report on the Plan for 1956-57: (1) Expansion of elementary education—(i) Opening of new junior and senior basic schools, (ii) Opening of new Non-Basic elementary Schools. (2) Upgrading of Junior Basic Schools to Senior Basic. (3) Upgrading of primary Schools to the middle standard. (4) Conversion of Non-Basic Schools into Basic. (5) Improvement of Elementary Schools and introduction of Crafts in them. (6) Establishment of new Basic Teacher Training Institutions. (7) Conversion of existing Teacher Training Institutions into Basic. (8) Improvement and expansion of existing Basic Teacher Training Institutions. (9) Providing hostels for Basic Teachers Training Institutions. (10) Seminars and Refresher Courses for Teachers and Headmasters of Elementary and Basic Schools. (11) Establishment of Pre-Primary Schools. (12) Establishment of Teacher Training Institutions for the Pre-Primary Schools. (13) Production of Literature for children and for the guidance of teachers. (14) Special Schemes for Girls' Education. (15) Introduction of free and compulsory Education in selected areas. (16) Strengthening and improvement of Inspectorate. (17) Improving salary scales of teachers at elementary stage. (18) Residential accommodation for teachers in rural areas.

There were certain other schemes that were implemented by the Central Ministry itself: (1) National Institute of Basic Education, March 1956. (2) Production of literature and material on Basic Education could not be implemented in 1956-57. (3) Financial Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations. (4) Scheme of giving loans for construction of Hostels attached to Basic Educational Institutions. (5) Establishment of Post-Basic Institutions-to be implemented from 1957-58. (6) Scheme for the expansion of Girls Education and training of Woman

Teachers from 1957-58. (7) Educational Survey. (8) Miscellaneous Schemes : (i) Establishment of an All India Council for Elementary Education, (ii) Seminars and conferences. Regarding the Kher Committee's Scheme for Universal Elementary and free education in 16 years provided Centre undertook to meet at least 30% of the expenses, Maulana said, "I regret to say we have not been able to give effect to this scheme." He attributed this failure to the general view that prevailed in the Government that they should take up only subjects which would give quick returns and, since they held that education could not do this, education was left out of the first draft of the first five year plan.

Basic Education : Methods of Implementation

One of the most important developments between 1947-52 was the acceptance by all States of a programme of converting existing elementary schools into Basic Schools. The position was further strengthened by 1961. The All India Education Conference in 1948 accepted the Sargent Report's period of 8 years for Basic Education unit to be implemented into two stages. The first stage was to concentrate on the Junior Basic of 6-11 and the other of 11-14 for Senior Basic. According to one of the schemes formulated under the First Five Year Plan, the Central Government could select one area in each State for intensive development of Basic Education, without giving up conversion of others into Basic. There was an argument which said that the old type of inspectors had neither adequate knowledge of nor sympathy with Basic Education and that in any case the development of this system could be best served by keeping it outside official control. The Central Government strongly advised that Basic Education must be made a part of the general educational system of the country and must therefore be brought under the overall control of the Director of Education, though special units of Basic Education within the Directorate might be set up wherever necessary.

When Basic Education was first introduced, there was a tendency to confine the choice of crafts to spinning and weaving or agriculture. This sometimes led to curious anomalies e.g., in Kashmir and Assam where one school sought to develop the syllabus based on machine tools. Anyway in his foreword to the "Assessment Committee on Basic Education Report", dated 3rd August, 1956 K.G. Saiyidain said, "The actual suggestions made by the Committee have been considered by the Standing Committee of the CABE on Basic Education and this Committee has generally approved of them. But they have not been considered yet either by the Central Advisory Board or the Government of India and should at this stage be regarded a recommendation made by an expert Committee which merits consideration." The composition of the Committee was (1) G. Ramchandran (Convener). (2) R. S. Upadhyaya (member). (3) Dr. Saeed Ansari (4) Dr. M. D. Paul. The Committee surveyed among others the following subjects—(i) The Compact area system,

(ii) Too many interpretations of Basic Education, (iii) Research in Basic Education, (iv) Teaching of English in Basic Schools, (v) Pulse of Public on Basic Education (vi) Relative costliness of Basic Education, (vii) Productivity in Basic Education, (viii) Comparison of attainments in Basic and Non-basic Schools, and (ix) Developing of Basic Education with Higher Education.

The Committee felt that their report represents the general situation fairly adequately and it will help understanding the all India picture. "Travancore Cochin presented the picture of all the problems and difficulties of a State just beginning the experiment of Basic Education in a planned manner. Mysore began Basic Education more than six years ago on a small scale and then made no progress all these years. Bombay State started off earlier in a much larger way but mainly devoted its attention to making many ordinary schools into craft schools as a half-way house to Basic Education. It had at the same time started three small compact areas of Basic schools which have remained more or less static. Madras State began Basic Education a little later and is now going ahead systematically and on an extensive scale. Other States in India are also in one or the other of the four stages of development seen in these States."⁴

The Committee tried to assess Basic Education at the following levels : (1) At the State Government and ministerial level. (2) At the Administrative level. (3) At the Basic Teacher Training level. (4) At the Basic School level (5) At the Public level. The Committee said in the interim report that "a few generations of boys and girls coming out of Basic Schools can transform India as nothing else can. This is no exaggeration. Basic Education is learning through doing. Doing means more and more productive work as boys and girls advance in Basic Education and learning through such doing becomes more and more real and life-making education at the same time. Productive work itself becomes a mighty thing when millions of young hands join in it. But when such productive work becomes the major vehicle of learning by millions of boys and girls, it becomes even more significant and challenging. In Basic Education boys and girls will not only work but they will learn to love work since they will be learning through work. When a few generations of children pass through such a process of productive work, of love of work and therefore, the joy of work and learning much of what they should know through such work, then what might happen may well be incalculable in terms of the nation's growth in every direction."⁵ The Committee further recommended that a Central Research Institute of Basic Education should be established under proper direction to initiate schemes of research, with scholarships available for research workers and the establishment of a full fledged Post-Graduate Basic Training College. It also recommended that as the development of Basic Education proceeds, an assessment committee

may be appointed to assess scientifically and in a detailed manner Basic Education in the country.

A Conference of Education Ministers considered the Report of the Basic Education Assessment Committee. In 1956-57 the National Institute of Basic Education was set up to conduct research on Basic Education. A scheme of improving salary scales of Primary school teachers was implemented. The National Institute of Basic Education set up in 1956 is supposed to "carry out researches in Basic Education, offer guidance to teachers and administrators, provide suitable material and literature and produce source—books, guide-books for teachers and supplementary reading material for children." The C.A.B.E. while appreciative of the difficulties inherent in any attempt to make an objective assessment of Basic Education, suggested in 1953 that the National Institute of Basic Education might examine the possibility of taking up such an evaluation with the co-operation of the Post-Graduate Basic Training Colleges in the country. "Basic Education is now the accepted pattern of the educational system at the elementary level."⁶ For products of these schools (Junior and Senior Basic) Post Basic Schools have been started so that they may continue their Secondary Education along the basic lines. The curriculum of such schools is different from the traditional secondary schools. The students have difficulties in pursuing their higher studies and in securing employment. To resolve these difficulties a Committee was appointed. It recommended a common scheme of examination for both the types of schools and acceptance of crafts of Post Basic schools as at par with the elective subjects of multipurpose schools.

The Report of the Committee of the C.A.B.E. appointed to consider the productive aspect of Basic Education said in 1952 that "they were not in a position to express a definite opinion on the productive aspect of scheme" even by 1952. Regarding the disposal of the produce of Basic Education institutions the C.A.B.E. reiterated the previous recommendation of the Standing Committee on Basic Education that the profits on this produce should be given to the children in the form of mid-day meals, school uniform and the like. There should be established close co-operation with the existing agencies like the All India Khadi and Village Industries Commission, the Ministry of Community Development, Government Stationery Department and so on.

Again in their meeting in 1953 the C.A.B.E. discussed the productive side of Basic Education in all its aspects and reaffirmed the value of craft work in education. They expressed the unanimous view that even if no economic considerations were involved, the time had come to replace ordinary primary education by Basic Education. On this subject it would be relevant to quote from the report of the Assessment Committee on Basic Education "The challenge to the concept of productive work both

as an educational factor and as an economic factor has tended to dilute the concept and practice of Basic Education. With the idea of productive work and the technique of correlated teaching undervalued, what can remain of the reality of Basic Education? We realised more and became aware of the confusion and reservation which have gathered round the subject.”⁷

Literacy Grows from 15% to 16%

According to the Government publication ‘Education in India’ for 1947-48, the total number of educational institutions in 1947-48 increased to 1,71,056. Of the latter 1,64,548 were recognised and 6,508 unrecognised. The total enrolment in all the educational institutions in the country rose to 1,49,69,537, during 1947-48. The provision which existed in 1947 was for only 30% of 6-11 children less than 10% for 11-17 and less than 1% for 17-23 age groups. In Engineering and Technical education India provided only 930 and 320 graduates respectively. The overall percentage of literacy was barely 15%. The second Five Year Plan on page 8 recorded that in 1950-51 only about 32% of the children between the ages of 6 and 14 went to school. By the end of the First Five Year Plan, this percentage was expected to be 40%. Under the Directive Principles of State Policy the State had to endeavour to provide free and compulsory Education to all children below the age of 14 in this period of ten years. An expansion of about 60% in the facilities for Primary Education had therefore to be aimed at in the Second Plan. Literacy in India in 1960-61 was as shown in Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1
LITERACY IN INDIA IN 1960

Literates			Percentage of literacy		
Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
5,92,61,114	4,56,19,431	1,36,50,683	16.61	24.88	7.87

Source : *India, 1961*, p. 92

The Quinquennial Review of Education for 1947-52 affirmed that actually in 1952 the percentage of children of 6-11 rose to about 40%. In place of 2.37 lakhs students who took S. L. C. or its equivalent in 1947 rose to 5.86 lakhs in 1952. Graduates in Arts and Science rose from 24814 to 35588. In 1952, 2500 graduates in Engineering and 600 in technology went out. Professor Humayun Kabir as Secretary to the Ministry of Education in 1954 said “There is however no ground for complacency. The achievement is still far short of the Indian people judged against the record of other countries in comparable period. India has no cause for shame but she cannot forget that she must multiply her present expenditure almost threefold to provide Rs. 4000 million a year needed to finance a truly National system of education worthy of her traditions and her hopes.”⁸

An Assessment

The Central Government's annual on Education in India for the year 1952-53 recorded that the wastage and stagnation at the Primary stage of instruction continued to be alarming inspite of the growing public awareness of the need for retaining children in schools till they completed the Primary stage: Out of every 100 pupils in Class I, in 1949-50 only 43 were studying in class IV in 1952-53. In 1952-53 out of every 100 pupils in Class I in 1951-52 only 44 were reading in class IV in 1954-55. In subsequent years attention was focussed on both these problems but statistics have not been traced. They do not actually come within the scope of Central Government. The situation with regard to the provision of modern buildings for Primary schools remained unsatisfactory with a deleterious effect on children's health and making it impossible to inculcate in children habits of cleanliness. School cleanliness also received scant attention. A substantial number of schools were accommodated in mud houses with thatched roofs, in village chaupals and in dilapidated buildings. A majority of them were unhygienic and ill-ventilated. The multiplication of schools under the Scheme to relieve educated unemployment and otherwise further exacerbated the evil. In the Second Plan however building activity increased.

P.N. Kirpal, however, remarks in the Year-book 1961 that at the Primary stage the total enrolment in classes I—V has risen from 14.1 million (or 35% of the total population of the age group of 6-11) in 1946-47 to 34.3 million (or 61.1%) in 1960-61. It is expected to rise further to 49.6 million (or 76.4% of the same age group) by 1965-66. The total enrolment at the Middle Stage or in classes VI—VIII has increased from 2.04 million (or 9% of the population in the age group 11-14) in 1946-47 to 6.9 million or 22.8% in 1960-61. It is expected to rise further to 9.75 million (or 28.6%) by 1965-66. Primary schools were single teacher schools. It was generally recognised that they were not running efficiently and they were an important cause of wastage in Primary Education.

For the real increase in the number of Basic schools, Maulana Azad claimed the following successes while addressing the meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education on the eve of the Second Five Year Plan in 1956. He said, "In the field of Elementary Education, a beginning has been made in converting the traditional pattern into Basic. Basic Training is provided at both undergraduate and post-graduate levels. Janata Colleges and Library Services for Adults have been provided." Mahatma Gandhi writing in his foreword to Acharya Kripalani's book on Basic Education 'Latest Fad' said on 6-7-1939 that "Acharya Kripalani who has spent many years as an educationist has tried to show this 'fad' has a sound foundation to it." Acharya Kripalani characterised it as "a

National culmination of Gandhiji's creed of truth and non-violence in political life, evolving through his schemes of Charkha and Khadi, removal of untouchability, Hindu-Muslim Unity, emancipation of women, the revival and the introduction of new village industries. Education has come last."⁹ Naturally education must follow practice. But it is there for the sake of all that has preceded, for the sake of the entire Scheme of Life. Dr. S.B. Adaval of Allahabad University further elaborated this idea of Basic Education when he said "that root of this (Basic) Education went much deeper. It lay in the application of truth and love in every variety of human activity, whether in individual life or a corporate one. The notion of education through handicraft rose from the contemplation of Truth and Love permeating life's activities. Love required that true education should be easily accessible to all and should be of use to every villager in his daily life."¹⁰ There was, however, much debate about the position of Craft. Undoubtedly only that craft work is to be selected which is rich in educational possibilities and which finds natural points of correlation with important human activities and interests. "The Scheme is one of education and not of production. Its main object is to utilise the resources implicit in craft work for education purpose."¹¹

But even the Assessment Committee on Basic Education in 1956 found just too many interpretations of Basic Education. They found from study in the States they visited that Basic Education was interpreted in various ways even by people in high authority. They fully agreed that Basic Education should not be considered as a narrow or static system of Education and that there should be scope for experiment and variety in it. They wrote: "Fanciful interpretations, however, do not help at all. Unfortunately too many people have too many fanciful interpretations." Further they observed that in Uttar Pradesh, productivity was deliberately underpressed and neglected in Basic schools by laying down that the alternative to Productive activity is Creative activity. Basic Education was in the process of undergoing misinterpretation and misdirection in West Bengal. In U.P. it was made clear to them beyond any doubt that people refuted the idea that Basic Education must be based on productive activity with a view to some economic advantage. In Calcutta also they found a certain intellectual aversion to the idea of real productivity in Basic Schools. "What surprised us in U.P. was not so much the fact that often the productive work was not efficiently organised—that is true of other States also—as the attempt to show that the very idea of earning something for the school through any work by children would harm the education of children." The position in 1961 and 1965 is much the same and time has come to reconsider State patronage to it. Kothari Commission 1964-66 has done it now.

Now to the Third Five Year Plan 1961-66. This is the incubation period of the Fourth Five year Plan which is proposed to be of the

order of Rs. 25,000 crores. The estimates of the three plans vis-a-vis education were as given in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2

DISTRIBUTION OF OUTLAY IN THE 3 PLANS IN CRORES

	First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan	Average		
				First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan
Elementary	86	87	209	63.9	41.9	50.0
Secondary	20	48	88	15.1	23.1	21.1
University	14	45	82	10.5	21.6	19.6
Other Programmes	—	4	6	—	1.9	1.4
Social, Physical and Youth Welfare	14	10	12	10.5	4.8	2.9
Others	—	—	—	100	98.1	97.6
Total	133	204	408	—	—	—
Central Programme	—	4	10	—	1.9	2.4
Grand Total	133	208	418	100	100	100

The total outlay of education including Engineering and Technological education was Rs. 153 crores in the first, Rs. 256 crores in the second or Rs. 500 crores in the third plan. If the outlay on Engineering and Technological education is excluded Table 2.2 shows that the outlay on the various stages of education was Rs. 85 crores, Rs. 87 crores and Rs. 209 crores in the three plans for Elementary Education. The enrolment position in respect of various stages of education in the period of the three plans is given in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3

ENROLMENT AT VARIOUS STAGES (in Lakhs)

Stage and age group	1947-48	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 Targets
Primary 6-11	110.6	191.5 (42.5%)	251.7 (52.9%)	343.4 (61.1%)	496.4 (76.4%)
Middle 11-14		31.2 (12.7%)	42.9 (16.5%)	62.9 (22.8%)	97.5 (28.6%)
Secondary 14-17	30.2	12.2 (5.3%)	18.8 (7.8%)	29.1 (11.5%)	45.6 (15.6%)
Total	140.8	234.9 (25.4%)	313.4 (32.1%)	435.5 (39.9%)	639.5 (50.1%)

"Experience of the 1st year of the 3rd Five Year Plan (1961-62) indicates that the plan target regarding enrolment at the primary stage may be substantially exceeded and that a much bigger programme have to be

put through in order to meet the popular demand for education." There are expectations that by 1975 the Constitutional directive may be fulfilled in regard to elementary education. Let us not question it !

The object of Tables 2-2 and 2-3 is to present not only the objective and official picture of the development in respect of education, but also to give an inkling of contemporary climate in which developments are assessed viz. Statistics. An observation however at this point could be made. The warmth and enthusiasm that the Five-Year Plans generated among the people have been steadily but surely whimpering away. They have perhaps not caught the popular imagination and while statistical returns may be vastly imposing, they leave the common man rather cold, the bureaucracy, the contractors and the statisticians notwithstanding. Economic forces have not worked out as planned and the prospect apropos Pakistan and China further exacerbate the mood. It would however be apparent that the nation, hence, attempted no new adventures or tackled no fresh frontiers in the realm of Elementary Education during the last five years.

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BASIC EDUCATION

Here, the development of Basic Education has been dealt with unlike what most educationists and historians of education in India often do. The problem at hand has been approached in a sociological perspective. The implications of such an approach are that instead of delimiting attention only to the tangible aspects of Basic education in an atomistic manner, an effort has been made to take into account all the societal factors which formed the gestalt influencing it at its birth and at other crucial events in its thirty years of life. Thus Basic education has been studied as a social institution. This approach combines all the three approaches—historical, comparative and functional in which social institutions are usually analyzed by sociologists.

Factors Responsible for the Emergence of Basic Education

Mahatma Gandhi gave the idea of Basic education to the country in 1937 in realization of the poverty, illiteracy, backwardness, frustration and degeneration of our masses due to the destruction of cottage industries, and also in consideration of the harmful effects of undue stress on bookish, un-Indian and unrealistic English education introduced by the British rulers of India. "By receiving English education", said Gandhiji, "we have enslaved the nation. Hypocrisy, tyranny and the like have increased. English-knowing Indians have not hesitated to cheat and strike terror into people." He wanted that every child in the country should have the birthright to receive elementary education.

For the regeneration of the Indian people, Gandhiji believed that it was necessary to revive village economic institutions and to relate education to them. In a country like our's where about 60% children had to earn their living from the tender age of eight or nine, work-oriented education seemed to Gandhiji to be the most necessary thing to improve their lot. The cultural traditions of the society had to be revived and revitalized, and cleanliness, co-operation and other useful personal and social habits and values had to be developed in the people.

The noted economist, Kumarappa has rightly pointed out: "He (Gandhiji) was convinced that machine civilisation as fully evidenced in the world today brought enslavement and exploitation of vast sections of a nation and of industrially backward people...For him the freedom and development of individual, however, weak or humble, was more important than a mere multiplication of goods through machines..."

His entire scheme of education is thus rooted in non-violence and love of freedom for the lowest and the lost."²

He wanted to materialize his dream of *Sarvodaya Samaj* wherein vertical as well as horizontal distance between man and man was reduced to the minimum, and this he wished to accomplish by his forward-looking or revolutionary scheme of education which sought to benefit all people. He himself put it in these words :

My plan to impart primary education through the medium of village handicrafts like spinning and carding *etc.*, is thus conceived as the spear-head of a silent social revolution fraught with the most far-reaching consequences. It will provide a healthy and moral basis of relationship between the city and the village and thus go a long way towards eradicating some of the worst evils of the present social security and poisoned relationship between the classes. It will check the progressive decay of our villages and lay the foundations of a juster social order in which there is no unnatural division between the haves and have-nots and every body is assured of a living wage and the right to freedom.³

This original proposal of imparting seven years of compulsory primary education through some manual and productive vocation and through the medium of mother-tongue and for making education self-supporting, contained in his Presidential address at the All India National Education Conference held at Wardha in October, 1937, appealed to most of the participants because they had really sought to bring about a regeneration of the Indian society in a pragmatic as well as an idealistic manner.

The Zakir Hussain Committee, formed at the conference to prepare a detailed scheme of such a national system of education based on the suggestions of Gandhiji, also endorsed most of the original proposals with the exception of moderating targets of self-sufficiency in education. The recommendations of the Zakir Hussain Committee, also known as the Wardha Scheme of Education, were accepted at the Haripura Congress Session in March, 1938. Thus Basic education emerged as an innovation aimed at the total transformation of the Indian society.

Developments in the Pre-Independence Era

The Central Advisory Board of Education appointed in the same year, a committee under the chairmanship of Shri B. G. Kher to consider the future and applicability of the Wardha Scheme. The committee agreed with most of its features with the exception that it recommended eight years' duration (from 6-14 years) for it instead of seven years as was originally suggested by the latter. In 1939 also, the Central Advisory Board of Education appointed the Second Wardha

Scheme Committee under B. G. Kher. The most significant recommendations of this committee were :

- (i) The eight year duration of Basic education should consist of two stages—the first stage, Junior stage, to be of a period of five years and the second stage, the Senior one, to be of three years.
- (ii) Effort should be made by the Provincial governments to provide suitable pre-basic education.
- (iii) The Central government should contribute not less than half the amount of the approved net recurring expenditure on Basic education in each Province, the balance to be found by the Provincial governments and the local bodies entrusted with the administration of compulsory education. (The official members of the Central Advisory Board of Education did not accept the last recommendation although all the rest were accepted by them.)

The implementation of the Basic education followed briskly as members of the Congress party, which was striving for the freedom and upliftment of the country, had formed government in seven States in 1939. Due to the convincing socio-economic background of the scheme, great political support of the Congress ministers, and the prestige-suggestion lent to it by the association of Gandhiji's name with it, Basic education was started enthusiastically in Bihar, Bombay, U.P., M.P., Orissa, Kashmir and Gujarat. Its progress however, came to a stand still in 1939 by the resignation of Congress ministries on the issue of India's participation in the II World War. During the political struggle of 1942-45 the Basic schools remained closed as many of their workers were sent to jails. In 1944, the Central Advisory Board of Education evolved a comprehensive plan, popularly known as the Sargent Plan, for the post-war educational development. It presented a forty years period for the implementation of compulsory and free education for all boys and girls between 6-14. There were 269 Basic education institutions, 261 Basic schools and 8 Basic training institutions in the whole country in 1944.

The economic disaster that followed the end of the Second World War in 1945 hampered the educational progress. But with the return to power of Congress ministries in eight provinces in the year 1946, the development of Basic education again began to take place.

Advent of Independence and the Development of Basic Education

It is necessary to take into account the diverse factors operating in the Indian society at the dawn of India's freedom. Ruled over by the Britishers for about two hundred years, the country was left in a battered and

bruised, tattered and torn condition. Poverty, un-employment, illiteracy, economic under-development, social backwardness, social discrimination, food-shortage and refugee problem emerged as dreadful monsters. The bright side of the picture was the great excitement in masses for the newly-won freedom, staunch faith in the socio-political leadership of Gandhiji in particular and the Congress party in general, growing nationalism and a deep appreciation of the ideas of a Welfare State which the Indian nation had committed itself to become.

Against this background, it can easily be understood why the Government of India decided to adopt Basic education as the national pattern of education and why the All India Education Conference convened under the leadership of Maulana Azad, then Union Minister of Education, came to the conclusion that the period of forty years contemplated by the Sargent Plan for accomplishing the task of universal and compulsory Basic education for children between 6 and 14 should be substantially curtailed to sixteen years—the introduction of compulsion at the Junior Basic stage within a period of ten years and the compulsion to children between 11 and 14 in the next six years.

The Finance Committee appointed under the leadership of B.G. Kher at the recommendations of the above-mentioned conference also agreed to it, and it recommended that a fixed percentage of Central and Provincial resources, about 10% of the Central and 20% of the Provincial, should be earmarked for education by the respective governments, about 70% of the expenditure on education should be borne by Provincial governments and local bodies together, the remaining 70% by the centre. The recommendations of the Kher Committee were generally accepted by the Central Advisory Board of Education at the next meeting, but they could not be implemented satisfactorily due to paucity of financial resources. Maulana Azad complained of the financial crises at the 15th meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education held at Allahabad in 1949 saying that due to it he had to agree to the slowing down of the tempo in the academic development of the country. Next year also while addressing the Central Advisory Board of Education meeting held at Cuttack in January, 1950, he struck almost the same note.

The new Constitution of the country which was accepted on the 26th of January, 1950 laid down that the State should endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution for free and compulsory education for all children till they complete the age of 14 years, but on March, 1952, the Union Minister of Education said that the Kher Committee plan of universal education within a period of 16 Years could be tried only in Centrally administered areas as an experiment and an example for the rest of the country.

Although financial difficulties were there all along, yet the enthusiasm of the Central and State governments for the development of Basic education was unchecked by them. The Central government established a National Institute of Basic Education in 1956 to promote research, training and guidance in Basic education. It has recently been merged in the Department of Curriculum of the N.C.E.R.T. A vigorous programme of training basic teachers, starting new basic schools and converting primary and middle schools into Basic schools was launched in almost every State with the encouragement given by the Central government.

The progress made by Basic education during the last twenty years is shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1
PROGRESS OF BASIC EDUCATION IN INDIA

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61 Estimated	1965-66 Targets
1. Junior Basic schools	33,379	42,971	1,00,000	1,53,000
2. Junior Basic schools as percentage of the total no. of primary (including Junior Basic) schools	15.9	15.4	29.2	36.9
3. Senior Basic schools	338	4,842	11,940	16,700
4. Senior Basic schools as percentage of middle (including Senior Basic) schools	2.9	22.3	30.2	28.9
5. Children (in millions) in elementary schools (Classes I-VIII including those in Basic schools)	22.27	29.46	40.63	59.39
6. Children in elementary schools as percentage of the total no. of children in age-group 6-14	32.0	40.0	48.3	60.00
7. Children in Basic schools as percentage of the total no. of children in classes I-VIII	13.1	17.2	23.3	Not known
8. Children in Basic schools as percentage of the total no. of children in age-group 6-14	4.1	6.9	11.3	Not known
9. Basic training schools	114	520	715	1,424
10. Basic training schools as percentage of the total no. of training schools.	15	56	70	100

Table 3.1 shows that the number of Basic schools has been growing continuously since 1950-51. This of course, does not hold true for the proportion of Basic schools to the total number of primary and middle schools.

The keenness of the Government of India and the State governments in spreading Basic education can be measured by the enthusiasm with which follow up work on the Report of the Assessment Committee on Basic education was undertaken by them. The compact area method adopted by Basic education prior to 1956 was rejected and the orientation scheme was put into operation so that the maximum number of non-basic schools might benefit from the ideology and useful activities of Basic education without requiring a lot of expenditure and specially trained teachers.

The Present Position of Basic Education

The present official position of Basic education was very clearly indicated by M.C. Chagla, then Union Minister of Education, in his message to the National Conference of Principals of Post-Graduate Basic Training Colleges and Officers-in-charge of Basic education in the States, held at Gandhigram from the 26th to 30th of March, 1965. He stated that the Government had accepted production-oriented Basic education as an integral part of not only elementary but secondary education also.⁵

While reviewing progress of Basic education in October, 1965, the Central Advisory Board of Education endorsed the several recommendations of the National Board of Basic Education which sought to make remarkable progress, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the field of Basic education. This also testifies that Basic education still occupies the position of the national system of education. In almost all the States, most of the primary, secondary and teacher training schools still have the name of basic attached with them.

Oddly enough, there is now a surplus of trained teachers in some States where Basic trained boys and girls have to remain unemployed for a year or so before being appointed as basic teachers in some cases and as employees in non-teaching vocations in many cases. The number of educational administrators trained in Basic education has also multiplied in an impressive manner.

Basic Education : A Pertinent Example of Socio-Cultural Lag

The foregoing facts thus show that Basic education has had a very spectacular development in our country in the post-independence era. Unfortunately this is not the whole truth. A careful analysis of the development of Basic education right from the beginning to date bears out that this system of education which is an important socio-cultural institution in our country has been subjected to the sociological concept of 'cultural lag' contributed by William Ogburn, an eminent sociologist of the 20th century.

Thus while the material, physical or tangible aspects of Basic education have developed or progressed in a fairly impressive manner its non-material aspect, which include the ideals, faith, loyalty, sincerity of effort, adaptability and the like have not kept the same pace. Consequently, a serious lag between the two had been caused which was very much detrimental to the real success of Basic education. Teachers' lack of faith and sincerity of efforts in Basic education have been the continuing complaints of the high-ups in Indian education for the last two decades.

The Education Commission (1966) has, it seems, not appreciated the traditional concept of Basic education fully and has desired a radical change in its programme by the introduction of "work-experience"—a concept imported from foreign countries. The Commission has generally not used the word 'Basic' before elementary and secondary schools. It has been claimed that the Commission has given a 'forward look' to the whole programme of Basic education. We have to look into this matter for a while. The original ideas of Gandhiji which shaped Basic education in the beginning also had a forward look but those ideas were not fully implemented. Had they been given a sincere trial, in all probability there would not have been any need of the suggestion to adopt work-experience now. The limitations of the concept of work-experience in practice have not been fully thought of, and its hasty implementation without making full provisions might also meet the fate of the concept of craft in Basic education. In the enthusiasm for achieving technology-based modernization whatever we may like to do, but we should not forget that atleast for the next fifty years or even longer rural crafts and rural vocations will continue to remain the basic means of earning livelihood for a majority of the Indians who live in villages.

Even if we want to industrialize our society fully, we cannot ignore the rural crafts. This, however, is not to say that they should be allowed to remain as hackneyed as ever. They should be improved upon so that maximum benefits may be available, but not at the cost of others' exploitation in any manner. There is need of a balanced thinking in terms of industrialization and rural society. This might possibly be far more advantageous than the concept of work-experience which does not have sufficient traditions in our country. Gandhiji had rightly said once that we should keep the windows of our mind open and let breeze from all directions come in but we should not allow ourselves to be swept off our feet.

In order to comprehend the lag we have mentioned above, it is necessary to take into account the various dimensions of social change in our country since independence. During the last twenty years, the population of the country has increased tremendously and this has staggered all our educational planning. The growing trend of modernization demands that the processes of our cottage industries also should be improved and

modernized. It is a paradox that while the originator of Basic education called it *Nai Talim* (New Education), its greatest supporter Vinoba Bhave called it *Nit Nai Talim* (Everyday New Education) and Mrs. S. Ramchandran called it 'Dynamic Education', Basic education has in fact not shown any real dynamism. In almost every school, one finds the same hackneyed crafts, tools and techniques. Very little of experimentation and research has been done to inspire dynamism and vitality in the programme of Basic education.

It should be recalled that Mahatama Gandhi's ideas on education, as on some other matters did not receive enthusiastic support of the country's intellectuals. The country's most distinguished sociologist, late Professor D.P. Mukherji believed that 'the Indian independence movement was indifferent to academic values, was more emotional than intellectual in nature; in fact its top leadership, particularly Gandhiji, had a dread of the intellectuals and this was one of the reasons why Indian intellectuals as such did not take any important part in shaping its course'.⁸ But on the whole, we in India have strong traditions of hero-worship and our heroes have usually been charismatic leaders. This fact should be borne in mind when one tries to understand the quick acceptance of Basic education by the nationalists in the pre-independence era, its elevation to the status of national pattern of education soon after independence and its quantitative development despite economic hardships and the rigidity of its approach and content. This explains also why with the elapse of more and more time after Gandhiji's death, the faith of the politicians and public in Basic education has gradually slackened.

The bureaucratic inefficiency has been responsible for many ills of the Indian society and this is true in case of Basic education also. The examples of it are too well known to all those connected with basic schools to be repeated here. Coming from the upper middle class, the first generation of our senior educational administrators of basic education, who were mostly untrained in Basic education and inflexible in their attitudes, seem to have harboured a latent sort of jealousy, contempt and apathy for Basic education. For the sake of lucrative promotions, many of them came into the field of Basic education but many of them had neither faith nor conviction in the utility of basic education nor imagination and sincerity to make its programme a success. It was mostly due to them that the teachers generally remained unenthused about Basic education. A lot of blame has been placed at the door of basic teachers for the failures of Basic education, but the attitudes, conduct and quality of the leadership of the administrators of Basic education has not been adequately taken into account and held responsible for the sad state of affairs. G. Ramchandran a well-known Gandhian and a staunch supporter of Basic education has made this point in very clear words :

.....education is still very largely in the hands of those brought up in the older traditions of academic learning. This will change some

day and then we shall be able to work Basic education better.”⁹ Here is a testimony from V.V. John, a leading educationist of the country :

“In most educational matters, the validity of decisions depends largely on the attitudes behind them. We have by experience learnt what would happen even to a sound decision when the administrator sets forth to implement. What we did to Basic education is an example.”¹⁰

While platitudes of soothing theory of the improvement of elementary education under the democratic decentralization scheme are there, those who have seen the actual working of basic schools under the control of *Panchayat Samities* and *Panchayats* from close quarters will possibly testify how much of nepotism, bickering, sense of insecurity and frustration in teachers this change has brought in its train. The difficulties of the Basic teachers are very well known to most people.

In the field of Basic education, as in many other fields of our national life, many of our top priorities have suffered due to lack of funds while there has never been any shortage of funds for many less important matters. There has always been a very great difference between the genuine top priorities and those laid down by the bureaucrats.

There has been a sudden shooting up of rising expectations during the last ten years in our country. Social mobility, vertical as well as horizontal, has become the watch-word of the progress of modern India and society today. As Professor M. N. Srinivas has pointed out, many of our lower castes are now striving hard to gain upward social mobility by leaving aside their traditional, petty and less respected occupations and by copying the ways and manners of the upper castes.

Lure for cities and industrial centres is causing a large-scale migration of rural people to urban areas and forces them to abandon their traditional mode of life in favour of the new ways. The growing importance of education as an economic and social asset has been brought home to the Indian masses by now. This along with the growing per capita income of our people during recent years has motivated many parents, even lower middle class parents, to adopt a very snobbish attitude towards their children's education. They think that the quality of education in Basic schools is poor. So instead of sending them to Basic schools, they send their wards to expensive private schools which are deceptively named as 'Public Schools'. Thus if most people now-a-days do not send their children to Basic schools it certainly is due to their superficial notions of gaining social prestige often pampered by their growing economic prosperity and not necessarily due to any glaring defects of Basic schools as such. This, however, is not to contend that the Basic schools do not suffer from any

shortcomings. The working of many institutions has slackened during these years in the country due to many economic, political and social factors and Basic education is no exception to such a tendency.

Teachers' apathy or disinterestedness towards Basic education has often been mentioned as one of the most important causes of the ineffectiveness of its programmes. One important cause which is often ignored has been that a great number of teachers of Basic schools of rural areas have come from urban population. Whereas the prevailing trend in our society is in favour of migration from villages to cities, the anti-trend of forced migration of unemployed urban youth to handle rural basic schools has also been operative due to their unemployment. This trend has caused dissatisfaction in those teachers and thus stunted the proper functioning of Basic education and the development of Basic schools in general.

If the sociology of the teaching profession is taken into consideration, it can easily be seen that the career of a Basic school teacher affords little scope for any significant vertical social mobility. While even a clerk in a government office can aspire to become an under-secretary or secretary in his career, a Basic teacher is destined to remain only a Basic teacher throughout his career. Knowing all this, how could Basic school teachers be expected to put their heart and soul in their work?

Basic education is blamed often wrongly for its ineffectiveness in imparting proper vocational training. As a matter of fact, it did not want every child to become a skilled craftman after passing out of class seventh or eighth. It was aimed at providing a pre-vocational training only and for a successful living it recognized the need of further vocational training. Although spinning, weaving and agriculture were suggested as basic crafts by the originator of Basic education, yet he recognized the need of flexibility in this respect. While implementing the scheme, the States did not understand these implications, and the parochial conception of Basic education was forced into the minds of teachers and teacher-educators. Thus correlation was made to suffer as a result of undue emphasis on crafts. Spinning and weaving, agriculture and gardening were presented as basic crafts in all schools irrespective of the fact whether the geographical and socio-cultural conditions of many localities suited them or not.

Thus it becomes clear that the ideals, values, faith, sincerity and attitudes which constitute the non-material or intangible aspect of Basic education have lagged far behind its material development in the form of growing number of Basic institutions and teachers. This lag has by now assumed huge dimensions and a situation of anomie or normlessness has set-in in the field of Basic education.

Conclusion

The idea of Basic education emerged as an innovation to regenerate the Indian society in all its aspects. The original scheme was and is still sound from cultural, social, economic, philosophical and psychological points of view, but it has not been properly understood and effectively implemented. It was given the status of national system of education due to its soundness in principles and also due to the association of Mahatma Gandhi's name with it. Our cultural trait of hero-worship had lent it support in the beginning, and so a few years after the death of Gandhiji, it began to lose its position gradually. So many reasons have been responsible for it. Some significant ones were : the poor quality of the first generation of educational administration in Basic education ; administrative weaknesses and large-scale migration of disinterested urban youth to act as Basic school teachers in villages ; lack of adequate provision for vertical mobility to the teaching profession ; development of snobbish attitude in upper and middle classes due to their growing economic prosperity and rising achievement motive ; static, hackneyed and parochial attitudes and practices adopted in the field of Basic education ; and wide-spread tendency of accepting things in haste, not giving them a fair trial, and then soon to start decrying it in superlative terms in an impatient and injudicious manner. Despite the decline of the popularity of Basic education during recent years, it is heartening to note that the Government of India has continued till date to place its reliance in it, and to support its programme ! But social institutions do not keep alive for long on Government support alone. They must have a strong approval and support of the public. The public can give these when it is convinced of their utility. Basic education has yet to pass this test !

Basic education has its failures as well as its successes. Its failures have been greatly highlighted whereas its successes have been largely ignored by people. There is no reason to be disappointed and to lose faith in it due to its failure which should, in all fairness, be treated as a challenge. If Indian education has had any thing original to be proud of, it is Basic education. Let faith, sincerity of effort, hardwork and above all dynamism guide the endeavours in meeting this challenge.

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SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education is an important cornerstone of the edifice labelled Modern Indian Education. It was said of the Holy Roman Empire that it was neither holy nor Roman nor empire. Similarly Modern Indian Education appears to be neither modern nor Indian nor education. The vital elements of modernness, Indianness and educativeness were perhaps, to a large extent, conspicuous by their absence in the Indian secondary education prior to 1947. Even the Radhakrishnan Commission Report¹ of 1949 observed that our secondary education is the weakest link in our educational machinery and needs urgent reform. Though it is the weakest link in the educational chain yet it plays a decisive role in determining the quality of education both at the elementary and at the collegiate levels because secondary schools supply teachers for elementary schools and students for colleges and other institutions of higher level.

Definition of Secondary Education

To begin with, it is necessary to be clear about the term "secondary education". What is meant by the term "secondary education"? "The rough administrative definition," states the Newsom Report (1963), "is that below the age of eleven is primary; what follows eleven is secondary. This is as straight a frontier in time as the 49th parallel is in space.". But there is a snag in this definition! "The trouble", in the words of the Newsom Report, "is that psychologically eleven is no longer the watershed it was once thought to be. Different people cross from childhood into adult life, or rather into the debatable No Man's Land of adolescence, at considerably different ages."

In India it was, interestingly enough, likewise defined as: "simply a prolongation of the primary stage",² "that which follows the primary course".³ A historical retrospect reveals that the definition of secondary education in India has, perhaps, passed through three different stages⁴:

In the first stage, the period of which stretched upto 1876, the expressions "secondary schools" or "secondary education" were practically unknown. Prior to 1854 in Bombay "high school" was defined as a school whose Headmaster was a resident of Europe. During this period, the schools which corresponded to the modern secondary schools were named "English Schools" as English formed a very important subject of their curriculum. They differed from the "vernacular schools" which instructed students through a modern Indian language and taught no English.

In the second stage, which covers the period between 1876 and 1947, the expressions "secondary education" and "secondary schools" came, gradually, into vogue. It was the Hunter Commission of 1882 which made these expressions popular for the first time. After 1882, the "English Schools" began to be called "secondary schools" and their system of education was named "secondary education". This practice continued till 1947 though, in fact, instruction through English was being, by stages, given up since the third decade of this century.

In the third stage, the period of which commences from the day of attainment of Independence, the old connection between secondary education and the teaching of English was severed. Secondary education is now considered as "adolescent education" and secondary schools are defined as those "which impart education, academic or partly academic and partly vocational, suitable for the pupils in the stage of adolescence." This stage of education covers classes IX to XI and the age-group 14-17 years.

Difficulties of Partition and Some Significant Events

Charles Dickens began his story of the French Revolution with these words: "It was the best of times; it was the worst of times." It was such a period in which Indians found themselves on the eve of Independence.

Political emancipation on August 15, 1947 ushered in an era of reform, re-orientation and reconstruction on democratic lines. Certain events that accompanied it, however, shook the entire country and made the accomplishment of an intrinsically difficult task more difficult. Partition of the country disrupted the life of millions and created the knotty problem of rehabilitation of refugees and displaced persons. As a consequence, a major portion of the entire resources in men, money and material had to be diverted to this urgent task. Simultaneous with this, economic difficulties led to the devaluation of the rupee with attendant inflation, rising spiral of prices and scarcity of goods. Periodic flood-havoc and draught often gave birth to almost semi-famine conditions in one or the other part of the country, and thus, added to the economic distress. Much attention hence could not be paid to educational schemes and allied programmes during the first three years *i.e.*, 1947-49.

Despite these difficulties, since 1947, an endeavour has been made to ensure that deficiencies in the prevailing machinery disappear at a steady pace. Some new policies and programmes have been started and strengthened in order to meet the diverse national needs and democratic aspirations. The changed circumstances have, perhaps, resulted in a quickening of political consciousness among the people. The country, for the first time in its history, became unified as a result of the merger of the formerly

princely States into the Indian Union followed up by their complete integration.

This major administrative achievement of the post-independence period was further strengthened by the recommendation of the States Reorganization Commission, 1956. Under the States Reorganization Act of 1956, the political map of the country was redrawn on November 1, 1956 on the basis of linguistic and cultural homogeneity, geographical and historical unity, financial viability, requirement of national development plans and administrative convenience.

The administrative reorganization of the country has made it possible: (1) to develop education rapidly in all areas; (2) to get full data about educational development in all parts of the country; and (3) to work out a programme of equalization of educational opportunity for the country as a whole.

Another significant event of the post-independence period was the acceptance, adoption and consequent promulgation on January 26, 1950 of the Indian Constitution that pledged to "constitute India into a Sovereign Democratic Republic." This commitment to the Democratic Ideal set forth the national goals in clear terms and gave the people an idea of their ultimate destination and the path the country wanted to tread: establishment of a "Welfare State"; "a socialistic pattern of society" through peaceful democratic means. The setting up of the Planning Commission and the decision of initiating programmes of planned development—industrial, economic and educational, through a series of Five Year Plans, perhaps, contributed substantially towards the achievement of democratic dreams.

These events heralded the dawn of a peaceful revolution in the country, set before the people new objectives, imposed on them new responsibilities and underlined the importance of education in the changed context.

Prime Minister Jawahar Lal Nehru, in his inaugural address to the members of the C.A.B.E. attending the first meeting of the Board after the attainment of Independence, made a timely exhortation:

"Whenever conferences were called to form a plan for education in India, the tendency, as a rule, was to maintain the existing system with slight modifications. This must not happen now. Great changes had taken place in the country and the educational system must also be in keeping with them. The present system might have been suited to the past situation, but maintaining the *status quo* in the field of education under present circumstances would do nothing but harm to the country."⁵

"The younger generation," he entreated "is our future hope. The way their faculties were developed and minds moulded would make or mar India's destiny and their education must be given top priority."⁶

Role of the Centre and the States in Education

Education, with some reservations, continues to be, since 1921, a provincial, now a State, subject under the direct control of an elected Education Minister responsible to the State legislature. The Indian Constitution has not deviated from this pattern. Education occurs in List II of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution as Entry 11 subject to the provisions of Entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I and Entry 25 of List III. This provision is of immense significance for permitting States to initiate programmes of educational reconstruction of their choice. From some quarters, however, a voice is often raised for making education a "concurrent" subject and placing it in List III of the Seventh Schedule to facilitate Centre's role of unification and harmonization of different State systems which might accelerate reconstruction of the educational fabric.

In the post-independence period, fortunately, a working partnership⁷ has emerged between the Centre and the States in the field of educational reconstruction and reform. This recent emergence of a working partnership between the Centre and the States in the educational field can be treated as a clear indication of the impact of political emancipation and the resultant democratic set-up. Prior to 1947, the Central government never thought of initiating any direct programme of educational reconstruction or co-ordination of educational developments in the constituent units. But, in the interbellum period, 1947-1966, the planning and implementation of educational programmes have been a joint endeavour of the Central and State governments because of the gradual evolution of a unique cordiality. This trend is reflected in the three categories of educational schemes which are in operation these days : (a) "Central" schemes which are implemented by the Union Government; (b) "State" schemes which are initiated and implemented by the States and financially assisted by the Union Government on some agreed basis and (c) "Centrally-sponsored" schemes which have an all-India coverage and are assisted through funds of the Central sector but are implemented through the State governments.

Growth in Number of Advisory Bodies

People's participation in education is considered useful for the healthy growth of democratic traditions in education. The Ministry of Education, hence, is guided in its policies and programmes by advisory bodies set up for the purpose of aligning expert and, wherever possible, public opinion with its activities. In the field of education, the main advisory body is the Central Advisory Board of Education which was established in 1935.

Apart from the C.A.B.E., the Union Ministry of Education has set up, over the years, several other boards and committees for dealing with specific problems in greater details. These advisory bodies, largely, perform the work of an agency between the Government, the expert, and the people.

TABLE 4.1
ADVISORY BODIES IN THE UNION
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of Advisory Bodies</i>
1935-1947	1
1950-1951	6
1954-1955	11
1958-1959	17
1960-1961	18
1962-1963	26
1963-1964	40
1964-1965	37
1965-1966	39

Table 4.1 shows that prior to 1947, there was only one advisory body *i.e.*, Central Advisory Board of Education functioning in the Central Ministry of Education. During 1947-1961, the number of advisory bodies steadily increased from 1 to 18. In the year 1962-63, there were 26 such advisory bodies functioning in the Central Ministry and their number reached 40 in the year 1963-64. Later on, it was decided to wind up some of these committees. Their number was 37 in 1964-65 and 39 in 1965-66.

Establishment of Central Institutions

The post-independence period has seen the establishment of a number of Central institutions for research, training and extension in the appropriate educational fields. These institutions have, largely, influenced the manifold educational programmes and practices in secondary education and have done a yeoman's service to the cause of democracy in India. Central Institute of Education, the first such institution, was established in December, 1947 for not only training the post-graduate teachers but to also provide facilities for advanced level research in education. The creation of the All India Council for Secondary Education in 1955 was another encouraging step.

In September, 1961, a revolutionary advance was made when a broad-based autonomous organization, known as the National Council

of Educational Research and Training (N.C.E.R. & T.) was established at New Delhi. Its programmes are designed with focus on: (1) research studies and investigations in problems of education, particularly those the findings of which will make a direct contribution to the improvement of schools; (2) training of key personnel in different sectors of education; and (3) providing extension services to the schools and State Departments of Education, with a view to disseminating information of improved school practices and thus promote their increased use. The main agency of the Council is the National Institute of Education, New Delhi and the four Regional Colleges of Education at Ajmer, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar, and Mysore. Some of the Central institutions, such as CIE, CBEVG, NIBE, NIAVE, DEPSE, NFEC and CBTR which were formerly administered as the subordinate offices of the Ministry of Education, were transferred as constituent units to the Council to form the nucleus of the National Institute of Education. With a captivating campus of its own at Mehrauli Road, New Delhi, the N.I.E. is only the reflection of the Central government's eagerness to contribute substantially towards qualitative improvement in education.

Financing of Education

The pattern of financing of education springs from a particular social philosophy and economy. It reflects the cherished ideals and aspirations of a given people at a given period of time. Prior to 1947, the Government of India, almost reluctantly, spent what was desirable as a minimum requirement as it considered educational institutions to be mere economic parasites draining off its hard-earned income and education to be a non-productive activity.

Since 1947, however, it has been gradually recognised that educational expenditure is justifiable because, in the ultimate analysis, the investment in human resources pays higher returns than the investment in non-human capital such as machine and power-plants. "Even when the Planning Commission was set up", Maulana Azad observed, "the situation did not change. When the first draft of the First Five Year Plan was made, education was almost completely ignored. There seemed to be a general view that we should take up only subjects which would give quick returns. Since they (planners) held that education could not do this, education was left out of this first draft."⁸ Later on, good sense prevailed and "the importance of education was soon realised and a Member of Education was added to the Planning Commission. In the final draft of the First Plan some provision for education was, therefore, made but it was totally inadequate to the needs."⁹

The financial allocation for education in the First Five Year Plan may be inadequate but it, nevertheless, made an admirable start in: (1) considering education as a vital part of national effort, and (2) laying down definite policies of financing and assigning priorities in education.

The Second and Third Five Year Plans, however, attempted to make concerted efforts for making the existent deficiencies good by strengthening the proposed programmes of educational reconstruction and reorganisation for achieving quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement.

Table 4.2 presents, at a glance, details of financial allocations for education in the four Five Year Plans. The financial allocations, it is noticeable, show a steady rise.

TABLE 4.2
EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION UNDER THE PLANS

Sub-head	Amount in Crores of Rupees			
	First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan	Fourth Plan*
Elementary Education	85 (55.0)	87 (34.0)	209 (37.0)	721 (38.0)
Secondary Education	20 (13.5)	48 (18.8)	88 (16.0)	431 (23.0)
University Education	14 (9.0)	45 (17.6)	82 (15.0)	237 (12.0)
Other Programmes :	} 14 (9.0)	} 28 (10.8)	} 39 (7.0)	} 210 (11.0)
Social Education				
Physical Education				
Youth Welfare etc.				
Cultural Programmes				
Total on General Education	133	208	418	1599
Outlay on Technical Education	20 (13.5)	48 (18.8)	142 (25.0)	300 (16.0)
Total outlay on Education**	153	256	560	1899
Total Outlay in each Plan	2,356	4,600	7,500	21,500
Percentage of Outlay on Education to Total Outlay in the Plan	6.5	5.6	7.5	8.8

*Based on proposals under consideration.

**Excludes resources expected to be available under the C.D. Programme and the Programme for the Welfare of Backward Classes.

Figures in brackets are percentages of each sub-head to total outlay on education.

Source : *Third Five Year Plan and Yojana*, August 30, 1964.

Commissions and Committees on Education

The country has attempted to move with faith and determination towards the goal of building up an educational edifice suited to the present and future needs of transforming democracy into an actuality. This is reflected in the recommendations of the University Education Commission (1949), the Secondary Education Commission (1952), the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) and a number of Committees that inquired into educational matters during the last two decades. The proposals of educational reform and reconstruction suggested by these Commissions and Committees indicate that these have been, largely, influenced by the demands of democracy and resultant tendencies.

Objectives of Secondary Education

The Mudaliar Report, which is the main plank of the programme of reconstruction and reorganisation of secondary education in the country, unequivocally remarks :

“India has recently achieved its political freedom and has after careful consideration, decided to transform itself into a secular democratic republic. This means that the educational system must make its contribution to the development of habits, attitudes and qualities of character, which will enable its citizens to bear worthily the responsibilities of democratic citizenship and to counteract all these fissiparous tendencies which hinder the emergence of a broad, national and secular outlook.”¹⁰

The Mudaliar Report, there is no doubt, has given a new orientation to the aims and objectives of secondary education. “The aim of secondary education,” the Commission¹¹ says, “is to train the youth of the country to be good citizens, who will be competent to play their part effectively in the social reconstruction and economic development of their country”.

The Indian Education Commission¹² (1964-66), has redefined the national objective and pin-pointed the major aims of education to which the highest priority be given. It has emphasized the need for an urgent reform in education, “to transform it to endeavour to relate it to the life, needs and aspirations of the people and thereby make it a powerful instrument of economic and cultural transformation necessary for the realization of the national goals.” What the Commission has said about education as a whole holds good about secondary education also. “Education”, the Commission¹³ reiterates, “should be developed so as to increase productivity, achieve social and national integration, accelerate the process of modernization and cultivate social, moral and spiritual values.”

Development of Secondary Education : A Statistical Survey

In the post-independence period, there has been phenomenal increase not only in the number of secondary schools and the enrolment therein but also in the expenditure on secondary education. An analytical survey of the statistics of educational development of the last two decades makes this point clearly evident.

(a) Increase in Number of Secondary Schools

In 1946-47, there were only 3,659 high schools (3,073 for boys; 586 for girls) in India. In 1956-57, the number of high/higher secondary schools rose to 11,805 (10,047 for boys ; 1,758 for girls), by 1960-61 the number had risen to 17,257 high/higher secondary schools (14,736 for boys; 2,521 for girls) and at the end of the Third Five Year Plan (1965-66) the number of high/higher secondary schools is estimated to rise to 24,000. This shows that during 1946-1966 the total number of high/higher secondary schools has increased more than six-fold. The schools for boys have increased about five-fold, while those for girls a good more than four-fold.

The opening of new schools and the upgrading of existing schools resulted in the multiplication of higher secondary schools under different managements. There were only 47 higher secondary schools, in the year 1950-51. Their number increased to 503 in 1955-56 and to 3,121 by the end of 1960-61. They are estimated to double themselves by the end of the Third Five Year Plan in 1966.

One good feature of this expansion is that a large increase has taken place in the number of secondary schools in rural areas. From 2,764 (2,672 for boys; 92 for girls) in 1949-50 the total number of high/higher secondary schools in rural areas has increased to 8,965 (8,648 for boys; 317 for girls) in 1960-61 showing more than three-fold increase in the total number of such schools (323.9 percent increase in schools for boys, 344.6 percent increase in those for girls). By 1965-66, the total number of such schools is estimated to have risen to 10,500.

This phenomenal growth has little meaning when it is learnt that the plight of these schools was miserable. Even the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) found the high schools of the country working as single-track institutions offering academic instruction in a limited number of subjects which did not meet the varying abilities, aptitudes and interests of an ever-increasing secondary school population.

(b) Increase in Number of Multipurpose Schools

During the last two decades, hence, steps have been taken to convert almost all high schools into higher secondary schools. Furthermore, a

decision has been taken to evolve new type of institutions popularly known as "Multipurpose schools". "A Multipurpose school", in the words of the Mudaliar Report, not only "seeks to provide varied types of courses for students with diverse aims, interests and abilities but also "endeavours to provide for each individual pupil suitable opportunity to use and develop his natural aptitude and inclination in the special course of studies chosen by him." These schools, thus, are supposed to be democratic communities in miniature and are expected to exercise a wholesome influence on pupils' achievement by making instruction more pleasant and enjoyable.

During the First Five Year Plan period, 255 Multipurpose schools were established. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan their number increased to 2,115. This number rose to 3,873 in 1965 showing about fourteen-fold increase. In the Third Five Year Plan, efforts have been made to strengthen and improve qualitatively these Multipurpose schools. The quantitative expansion of such schools, as a natural corollary, has not been proportionately marked. However, the number of such institutions is expected to rise to 2,446 by the end of the Third Five Year Plan in 1966.

(c) Increase in Enrolment

The expansion of secondary education in the last two decades, interestingly enough has been phenomenal. It surpassed even the targets of development envisaged under the three Five Year Plans. The total enrolment in classes IX, X and XI in 1949 was 1.05 million. It rose to 1.18 million or 5.2 percent of the population in the age-group 14-17 in 1950-51, 1.86 million or 9.4 per cent in 1955-56, to 3.14 million or 11.3 per cent in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to 5.24 million or 17.8 per cent of the corresponding age-group population in 1965-66. This impressive expansion¹⁴ of education at the secondary stage is mainly due to : (i) the extension of facilities of education at the elementary stage especially in the rural areas, (ii) the general awakening among the backward sections of the population and their realization of the need to send their children, particularly girls, to secondary schools, (iii) the extension of facilities for secondary education in the rural areas and (iv) liberal fee-concessions given to girls and pupils belonging to socially and economically backward communities.

A significant feature of this increase is the fact that enrolment of pupils from the rural areas has also steadily risen. In 1949-50, 36.6 per cent of the total pupils enrolled in such schools were from the rural areas while in 1960-61, the said figure rose to 45.6 per cent.

In the year 1951-52, only 6.5 percent of the total school going population in the age-group 14-17 were enrolled in the secondary schools.

This figure has risen to 18.00 percent in the year 1960-61 and further to 26.1 in 1965-66 which shows that there is an increase of 20 per cent even though the existing facilities are hardly sufficient to cater to the needs of one-tenth of the total school-going population in the said age-group. The percentage of enrolment of boys to population of boys in the age-group 14-17 shows an increase of 30.1 per cent in 15 years from 10.1 per cent in 1951-52 to 40.2 per cent in 1965-66.

The position of girls' education in this respect is a little depressing. The percentage of enrolment of girls to population of girls in the age group 14-17, all the same, has hardly increased by 10 per cent in 15 years from 1.7 per cent in 1951-52 to 11.4 per cent in 1965-66. It is revealing that though there is a definite move towards gradual widening of the facilities for secondary education in the country during the last two decades still much remains to be achieved.

A trend of development that aims at broadening of secondary education, however, is visible. The opinion of experts may be divided on the desirability or otherwise of such a trend but it does indicate the impact of democracy. The expansion of secondary education is likely to be even more rapid in the future owing specially to an intention of the political leaders of making education free up to the matriculation stage. Maulana Azad, the then Union Minister of Education, once declared secondary education as a birth-right of every Indian citizen. "Every individual", he remarked, "has a right to an education that will enable him to develop his faculties and live a full human life. Such education is the birth-right of every citizen...Every individual, unconditionally and without qualification, is entitled to education up to this stage. To my mind, the requisite standard for such education is the secondary stage and I am convinced that regardless of the question of employment, the State must make available to all citizens the facilities of education upto the secondary stage."¹⁶

(d) Increase in Expenditure on Secondary Education

During 1946-66, the total direct expenditure on secondary education steadily increased as it was but natural. From 11.93 crores of Rupees in the year 1946-47, it rose to 23.05 crores of Rupees in 1950-51, 37.62 crores of Rupees in 1955-56, 68.91 crores of Rupees in 1960-61 and 118.10 crores of Rupees in 1965-66. This shows that within a period of 20 years the expenditure has risen almost eleven-fold. It may be pointed out that these statistics are at *current* prices and not at *constant* prices. The level of prices of commodities as well as the standard of living has perhaps increased between 1946 and 1966. Unfortunately, there is not much definite data available on the basis of which it is possible to reduce the total expenditure on secondary education during this period to *constant* prices. But it is obvious that a good deal of this increase may have to be under-written

for the rise in prices of commodities and the cost of living and that the increase in total expenditure on secondary education at *constant prices* may be much less than what is indicated by these statistics.

The percentage of expenditure on secondary schools to total direct expenditure on education, however, ranged between 25.5 per cent to 36.8 per cent. It was the lowest in 1957-58 and the highest in 1956-57. The average annual cost per pupil in a high/higher secondary school also steadily increased. It became just almost three-fold in 20 years—from Rupees 44.2 in 1946-47, it reached a height of Rupees 107.0 in 1965-66. These figures in themselves may, perhaps, not speak much but the visible shift in the policies of financing educational endeavours may, rightly, be attributed to the democratization of the Government. Table 4.3 bears testimony to this discernible shift.

TABLE 4.3

**SOURCES OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE AND THEIR
PERCENTAGE CONTRIBUTION**

Percentage of Expenditure Met from

<i>Year</i>	<i>Government Funds</i>	<i>Local Board* Funds</i>	<i>Fees</i>	<i>Other** Sources</i>	<i>Total</i>
1937-38	29.3	*3.9	54.4	12.4	100.00
1946-47	27.3	7.5	50.7	14.5	100.00
1950-51	36.4	2.9	50.4	10.3	100.00
1955-56	39.9	4.2	46.7	9.9	100.00
1960-61	48.0	4.7	39.2	8.1	100.00
1965-66 (estimated)	75.7	4.6	12.0	7.7	100.00***

*Includes District Boards and Municipal Boards.

**Includes Endowments, Donations and other Private contributions.

***The figures are for all types of education.

Table 4.3 shows that prior to 1947, the Government did not spend much money on educational activity at the secondary level. In 1946-47, its contribution to total direct expenditure on high and higher secondary schools reached the lowest ebb, 27.3 per cent—a little more than one-fourth. On the other hand, the pupils were taxed as the fee alone was considered as the main contributing item to receipts. In 1946-47 a major portion—about half—50.7 per cent of this educational expenditure was met from fees.

The advent of Independence and consequent promulgation of the democratic Constitution brought about a decisive change. The figures in Table 4.3 show that in 1950-51, the Government funds met a little more than one-third, in 1955-56, roughly about two-fifth, and in 1960-61 a little less than half of this expenditure. In 1965-66 it grew to about three-fourth of the total expenditure. Simultaneous with this, the percentage contribution met from fees decreased by 11.5 per cent in 15 years between 1946-47 and 1960-61. It further registered a sharp decline of 25.2 per cent in 1965-66. In 1946-47, more than half of the total direct expenditure on education was met from fees, while in 1965-66 fees hardly constituted one-eighth of the total expenditure. This, perhaps, indicates that the Government has recognized the long-ignored responsibility and, hence, is gradually emerging as a major sharer of the educational burden.

The total expenditure on salaries of teachers in high and higher secondary schools has increased from 13.50 crores of Rupees in 1949-50 to 49.81 crores of Rupees in 1960-61 showing more than three-fold rise. Teachers' salaries accounted for about 67 to 77 per cent of the total expenditure of these schools, while the rest was spent on equipment, miscellaneous items and contingencies. The average annual salary of a teacher in a high/higher secondary school also showed a rise. From Rupees 1,162 in 1949-50 it has increased to Rupees 1,959 in 1965-66. The salary index with 1951-52 as base reveals a steady rise—from 100 in 1951-52 to 156.00 in 1965-66. Thus steps are being taken to eliminate the manifold disabilities from which teachers usually suffer by integrating, revising and upgrading teachers' scales of pay and salaries. Such programmes, it may be surmised, may have, in a way, been impelled vicariously by the administrator's democratic intentions.

(e) Increase in Number of Teachers

During 1947-66, a well-deserved emphasis has been paid on the provision of trained teachers. The total number of teachers engaged in high/higher secondary schools has increased from 87,862 in 1946-47 to 3,88,438 in 1963-64 which shows more than four-fold increase. The number of women-teachers has increased from 11,643 in 1946-47 to about 95,000 in 1965-66 which reflects a good more than eight-fold rise. The percentage of women-teachers to the total number of teachers has also steadily increased from 13.3 per cent to 28 per cent during this period. The number of trained teachers has risen from 45,263 in 1946-47 to 3,64,105 in 1965-66 showing about eight-fold increase. The percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has also shown a consistent and continuous rise as it has gradually increased from 51.5 per cent in 1946-47 to 66.0 per cent in 1963-64. The average number of students per teacher in a high/higher secondary school, however, continued to range between 24 and 25 during this period.

These figures become more meaningful when it is noted that the quality of teacher-training has also, perhaps, undergone a change. The courses of teacher-education have been given a democratic orientation to meet the new demands. Moreover, besides enhancing facilities for pre-service training, many programmes of in-service education have been launched. Periodic seminars, symposia, conferences and workshops have, perhaps, become an order of the day.

Most important of all, a scheme of extension services has been launched. Under this scheme, the Extension Services Department of each training college looks after the special needs of a number of selected schools. In the past, individual teachers used to go to training colleges but under this programme the training college goes out and reaches all high schools within the orbit of its operation. In 1960-61, such Extension Services Centres and Units were functioning in about 54 training colleges spread all over the country. In 1965-66 their number rose to 106 (83 Extension Services Centres and 23 Units). An Extension Research Centre has been set up in the Department of Field Services of the NIE with a view to taking up studies, investigations and projects to improve the quality of work in educational extension. Besides, it has been decided to establish 20 field units—one each in each of the major States and Union Territories to develop and try out new techniques in educational extension and implement field programmes efficiently and swiftly.

(f) *Liberalization of Scholarships and Stipends*

A democratic system of education that aims at offering equal educational opportunity to all irrespective of caste, creed or sex should have an integrated scheme of scholarships to enable the deserving and promising students to go higher up the educational ladder unhampered by financial handicaps. Educational opportunities at the secondary stage have, hence, increasingly been democratized through awards of scholarships and stipends, largely, based on criteria of means and merits. The scope and coverage of scholarship schemes have expanded on an unprecedented scale. These schemes are designed for two main purposes: (a) to ensure that able students get a full measure of educational facilities unhampered by economic difficulties; and (b) to equalize educational opportunities by providing special assistance to the students belonging to socially and economically weaker sections of the population. A number of schemes of scholarships are under operation at various stages of education. On the one hand, the deserving students are awarded scholarships irrespective of class or community, so as to maintain standards of excellence. On the other, extensive scholarships are made available to those classes or communities who, for historic reasons, have been denied the opportunity of education.

Almost all the State governments have introduced schemes for the grant of scholarships, freeships, and other financial concessions. Students

belonging to the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, other backward classes and a certain proportion of other pupils on rolls are exempted from the payment of tuition fee. In addition, the children of teachers, displaced persons, ex-servicemen and political sufferers are also given scholarships and financial concessions for pursuing their studies. In some States, the amount foregone by the institutions on account of freeships is reimbursed to the authorities by the Government.

The authentic figures about scholarships and the like are not available for the decennium 1937-1947. Since 1947, however, much has been done to democratize educational opportunities by increasing substantially the amount of grants of scholarships, freeships and other financial concessions. In the year 1959-60, out of the total number of 67,62,546 pupils studying in high and higher secondary schools, 3,48,604 pupils received scholarships and stipends during the year amounting to Rs. 2,37,52,643. Besides, 6,68,182 pupils received financial concessions and the money spent on this account amounted to Rupees. 2,75,24,244. Further, freeships were awarded to 11,04,873 pupils and the amount foregone on this account amounted to Rupees 4,41,22,343. In the year 1960-61, out of 75,11,514 pupils studying in high and higher secondary schools, 3,90,688 pupils were awarded scholarships and stipends of the total value of Rs. 2,63,37,211. In addition to this, 9,72,617 pupils received financial concessions to the tune of Rs. 4,12,93,497. Almost 10,91,265 pupils were awarded freeships and the amount foregone on this account was Rs. 4,52,94,917.

An interesting feature of this development is that the Central government is increasingly sharing this burden. In 1965-66 the number of scholarships awarded by the Ministry of Education was 2,650 with 1,820 at the school leaving stage, 400 at the post-intermediate stage and 430 at post-graduate stage. For the welfare of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes students alone funds amounting to Rs. 222 lakhs were placed at the disposal of the State Governments in 1965-66. The number of scholarships has considerably increased. Total financial provision on this account during 1965 was Rupees 743,050 lakhs at the level of Central government alone.

The outlay on scholarships for meritorious students is expected to reach an amount of Rs. 70 crores in 1970-71. It has been rising rapidly. It rose from Rs. 3.5 crores in 1960-61 to Rs. 35 crores in 1965-66.

Some Major Schemes of Reconstruction

Since 1947, many schemes of educational reconstruction have been launched. Some schemes of reconstruction of secondary education initiated by the Central and/or State governments during the post-independence period are :

1. Assistance to voluntary educational organisations working in the field of secondary education.

2. Promotion of research in problems connected with secondary education.

3. Publication of a special journal entitled "Secondary Education" in 1956. With a view to improve the quality of the journals and to effect economy in the publication work, this journal has been merged with the "Education Quarterly" with effect from January, 1967.

4. National discipline scheme which aims to bring the younger generation under a code of discipline and to infuse in the adolescents the ideals of good citizenship and comradeship.

5. National physical efficiency drive which aims at activating interest in physical fitness throughout the country.

6. Scheme of merit scholarships in residential schools which is intended to make available the benefits of public school education to poor but talented students who otherwise are unable to afford such an education.

7. Scheme of National Loan Scholarships the main object of which is to provide financial assistance in the form of interest-free loans to needy and meritorious students.

8. Scheme of National Awards for elementary and secondary school teachers which aims at raising the social status of the so-called nation-builders by recognising the distinguished services rendered by them to the community.

9. Schemes to improve the emoluments, service-conditions and qualifications of teachers at all stages.

10. Scheme for the the strengthening of science laboratories of schools at secondary level, training of science teachers and the establishment of State Institutes of Science Education.

Conclusion

The foregoing analysis, in short, makes evident that there is phenomenal increase in educational facilities and amenities at the secondary level. A variety of policies and programmes of expansion, reorganisation and reconstruction have stirred and stimulated the teaching and non-teaching personnel engaged in secondary schools throughout India.

The development of secondary education in India during the last two decades, undoubtedly, appears to be gratifying. There is need, however, to pause for a minute and to reflect on whether all this expansion is really satisfactory. The growth in the number of secondary schools and enrolment therein, it need be recognised, has been mainly quantitative.

Quality, there is no doubt, has suffered at the hands of quantity. The academic standards appear to have deteriorated though no objective evidence is available to substantiate this plausible surmise.

Today hard choices are necessary in Indian education. Should priority be given to the training of an elite ? To the rapid production of specialists ? Or to the provision of universal secondary education ? Under the circumstances, in India an ineffective attempt to provide schooling for every child upto the age of 17 might benefit nobody. There is real need today to look at educational policy from the view-point not only of what is desirable but of what is possible under the prevailing financial stringencies. To do so may in the long run prove more beneficial to the Indian society than attempts to achieve impossible and difficult goals.

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UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

A

From the very beginning universities have been places where teachers and students are constantly engaged in the pursuit of truth and excellence in all its forms. The basic objectives of a university and its role in a nation's life are well depicted in his Convocation address to the Allahabad University by late Jawahar Lal Nehru (1947) thus: "A university stands for humanism, for tolerance, for reason, for the adventure of ideas and for the search of truth. It stands for the onward march of the human race towards even higher objectives." This indeed is the ideal towards which higher education in free India is being directed; but the task is indeed a difficult one owing, perhaps, to the mischief done in the field of higher education during the British rule.

Higher education in India had attained a state of excellence under Hindu and Buddhist scholars during ancient and mediaeval times. The Muslim conquest, and later, the British domination changed this flourishing state of higher education in the country. The older system began to wither away and the new rulers could not create a substitute in its place. The only exception to this observation was the period under the British Empire, corresponding to the last about ninety years of their rule, when university education in the modern sense began to be introduced in the country. During this long span of ninety years the number of universities started in the country was twenty.

The earlier Indian universities adopted the London University model and others have been following a similar pattern for decades. Later the London University was reconstituted on modern lines, but the Indian universities continued as before. The result is that "the pattern of university education in India differs from the pattern of university education in the United Kingdom, on the Continent of Europe or in the United States of America, where the universities themselves perform teaching functions at the under-graduate as well as the post-graduate levels and there are no institutions corresponding to the affiliated college, which is a peculiar feature of the Indian educational set up."¹ This peculiar grouping of affiliated colleges, university departments, and institutions which are engaged in work of a university standard, but are not termed universities, has resulted in a complex of higher education with problems of university education peculiar to India.

Growth in University Education

During the last two decades the University education has expanded both quantitatively and qualitatively. Table 5.1 presents, at a glance, growth in the number of Universities in India.

TABLE 5.1
GROWTH OF UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA

Year	Increase in No. of universities	Institutions deemed to be universities
1947 (started or existing)	20	
1948	2	
1949	4	
1950	1	
1951	2	
1952	1	
1954	1	
1955	2	
1956	2	
1957	3	
1958	2	2
1960	5	—
1961	1	1
1962	9	2
1963	—	2
1964	7	2
1965	4	—
1966	2	—
1967	2	—
Total :	70	9

Table 5.1 shows that during the period of twenty years the number of universities has increased about four times. Likewise, the enrolment has also risen more than four-fold. Table 5.2 summarizes the growth in enrolment in different courses and at different levels at the University stage.

TABLE 5.2
ENROLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 (Estimated)
Arts, Commerce and Science				
1. Under-graduate courses in Arts and Sciences	175	295	396	697
2. Under-graduate courses in Commerce	16	27	38	62
Post-graduate				
3. M.A. & M. Sc.	17	25	47	78
4. Research	1	3	4	8
Professional				
5. Under-graduate	50	82	147	227
6. Post-graduate	4	7	13	22
Grand Total :	263	439	645	1094
Percentage of total enrolment to population in the age group (18-23)	0.7	1.0	1.4	2.1

Source : *Education Commission Report, 1964-66* pp. 300.
Figures are in thousands.

Objectives of University Education

Universities stand for the realisation of certain lofty ideals. Like any other stage of education, higher education also has both ultimate and specific objectives to realise. Universities are the places where some of the fundamental values of life find the fullest opportunity to show their superiority over irrationality to which the otherwise rational human being occasionally succumbs. It is not a one way action that the values of life exert on men, but the values are always kept in trim by men who experiment with them in the universities. Among other things universities aim "to deepen man's understanding of the universe and of himself—in body, mind and spirit, to disseminate this understanding throughout society and to apply it in the service of mankind. They are the dwelling places of ideas and idealism, and expect high standards of conduct and integrity from all their members."²

Apart from the ultimate objectives which Indian universities share with their counter-parts in other parts of the world, Indian universities have specific functions to perform to take the country along democratic socialism. "Democracy depends for its very life on a high standard of general, vocational and professional education. Dissemination of learning, incessant search for new knowledge, unceasing effort to plumb the meaning of life, provision for vocational education to satisfy the needs of our society are the vital tasks of higher education...Our policies and programmes must be brought into line with the social purposes which we profess to serve. We may use various institutional forms as time and circumstances may require but we must be steadfastly loyal to the abiding elements of respect for human personality, freedom of belief and expression for all citizens, a deep obligation to promote human well being, faith in reason and humanity...We cannot preserve real freedom unless we preserve the values of democracy, justice and liberty, equality and fraternity. It is the ideal towards which we should work..."³ In the changed state of social, political and educational development Indian universities cannot hope to remain aloof from the life stream of national development, rather "they must learn to serve as the conscience of the nation." Eradication of illiteracy among adults with special reference to women and backward classes, sharing responsibility in the programme of qualitative improvement of education at the school stage, active participation in the planning of education as part of the national planning for development and, launching a programme of qualitative improvement of higher education would "help to bring back the 'centre of gravity' of Indian academic life within the country itself."⁴

Courses of study

In general, Indian universities have a multi-faculty system, each faculty co-ordinating the efforts and looking after the common interests relating to the several subjects of study grouped under it. A tendency has

been in the offing for the separation of certain subjects from the parent faculties to form new faculties. For instance, Education, which was originally grouped under the Arts Faculty, has been, in some cases, separated to form a Faculty of Education; Agriculture and Technology have been together in some universities which are being separated into two different faculties. The formation of new faculties has taken different forms in the universities. There are a few cases of Indian universities, such as Roorkee and Khairagarh, and the newly started Agricultural universities which have a uni-faculty system.

The courses of study in higher education in India are somewhat outdated both in terms of their content and organisation. Courses are not periodically revised and they are grouped under certain ill-defined, rigid categories. The selection of subjects at the higher secondary or pre-university stage binds the students to the study of a limited number of subjects at the degree level. This is a consequence of early specialisation that is a unique feature of the Indian educational system. This has been pin-pointed by the University Education Commission (1948-49) and the Indian Education Commission (1964-66). The remedy suggested is the introduction of general education and adoption of a broad-based and flexible policy of subject combinations at the first degree level. Alongside the general course, there should also be special and honours courses. The Commission (1964-66) defines each of these courses thus:⁵ A 'general' course is one in which the student takes three subjects at about the same depth. In the 'special' course there will be provision for the teaching of three subjects one of which will have to be done in much greater depth. The 'honours' course would be more challenging and require study at a higher level. In fact all these types of courses are provided in some university or other at present, but not all the three are found in any one university. The 'general' course, for instance, corresponds to the present day 'pass' course; the 'special' course is similar to the system of offering one 'main' subject with two 'subsidiary' subjects of some universities and, the 'honours' course in the manner it is defined, already exists in some of the Indian universities. The Commission has rightly brought the point into public notice and stressed the importance of introducing all the three types of courses with a view to present a more flexible plan of courses of study to our graduates than what it is at present. More urgent is the need to properly plan and organise a programme of general education in such a way that "the subject matter to be presented in its (university) classes is widely appraised and so vigorously selected that what is included is never less important than what is left out, and that no more is included than can be mastered by the student in a fair and reasonable share of his time and strength."⁶

At the Master's degree level also the trend is to break the characteristic rigidity and uniformity of course-offerings in the field of Indian higher education. During the last decade border-line subjects like bio-chemistry,

bio-physics, geo-physics, geo-chemistry, and the like have been developed and courses are offered in such subjects. There has also been an increasing concern about the urgency to undertake inter-disciplinary research projects. The matter has also received the attention of the Education Commission (1964-66) that feels that "in addition to our present one-subject-courses, combination courses consisting of, say, one major subject and one or two subsidiary or related subjects" may profitably be provided in the courses for the Master's degrees in Arts and Sciences. This is sure to give a new look to the university courses and would, in the long run, acquaint our scholars with the bulk of research work being carried on in these border-line and inter-disciplinary subjects.

The research front also presents a gloomy picture in that the bulk of research studies being conducted remain unconnected one to the other, and that too are out of date when viewed from international standard. The standard and procedures set for a degree vary from place to place thus presenting difficulties both to a genuine critic and a sincere student of the subject who want to evaluate the studies. Basically the programme for a research degree should be considered only as beginning of research career of the scholar. Its objective "is to train (the student) in research methodology, comprehension of scientific literature, ability to make critical analysis, to draw suitable inferences and to present the findings in a clear, logical and scientific way and to be able to criticise as well as to accept criticism."⁸ It is only stage by stage that a student ultimately turns out to be a good researcher. Selection of a topic and actual embarking upon the problem must be preceded by regular class work in his area of research at an advanced level and also some training in research methodology.

Financing of University Education

Universities in India depend for their finances upon the Central and State government. Education in India being a State subject the role of States in the conduct of education at all levels is supreme. However the Centre through the agency of the University Grants Commission (UGC) assists the universities in meeting their expenses on maintenance and in carrying out their developmental plans. In many cases the States fail to fulfil their obligations to contribute their share of the expenditure resulting in blocking the UGC assistance also. The different States are financially not in the same position and hence there are marked differences in the patronage shown towards universities in different States. This results in uneven growth of universities causing discontent and disillusionment among the intelligensia. In the wake of such tendencies the progress of university education comes to a stand-still resulting in interference by the State in the university's affairs. This further aggravates the situation because, in such cases, the university autonomy is in peril, which is resented by the university authorities. The vicious circle cannot be broken unless a single central body-like the UGC takes

much more interest in all the affairs of the universities, particularly financing them. The gulf in the financial positions of the Central universities and the State universities should be minimised as early as possible.

A characteristic feature of the university education in India relates to its failure to enrol in its portals the best talents available in the country as students and researchers. This is partly due to the failure of the government to provide financial incentives to these young men and women. The result is a colossal wastage of human talent that would otherwise have contributed to the nation's prosperity on a larger scale. "With the swift acceleration of research and discovery that has taken place within a generation and bids fair to continue, the role of higher education cannot but be multiplied in the next generation. The explosion of knowledge and the explosion of population make this inescapable...In these times of mobility of population, any degree of failure in any state is the nation's loss."⁹ Both quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of higher education are necessities which need governmental patronage in the financial sphere on a larger scale than the meagre amount spent at present. The principle should be accepted that 'augmented public investment in human capital is a present and future need of prime importance.'

Establishment of the University Grants Commission (UGC)

The UGC was first started as an advisory committee in 1945 to recommend to the Ministry of Education the grants to be paid to the various universities. It was reconstituted in 1953 to its present form on the recommendation of the University Education Commission (1948-49). It became a statutory body in 1956 under the UGC Act of 1956 of the Parliament. "The Commission is the body through which Government of India discharges its constitutional functions of promoting and co-ordinating university education in the country and determining and maintaining standards of teaching, examination and research in universities. To perform these functions, the Commission is empowered by the Act to inquire into the financial needs of universities and allocate and disburse out of funds, grants for the maintenance and development of such universities or for any other general or specified purpose".¹⁰ The Commission sends Visiting Committees of eminent educationists to different universities to assess their financial needs for the Plan periods. The Commission also co-operates with the activities of the Inter-University Board.

Some of the significant achievements of the Commission include the introduction of the three-year degree course; promotion of research in various fields through its various liberal financial assistance schemes; revision of pay-scales of university and college teachers; improvement in the libraries, laboratories, and staff quarters; introduction of a scheme for examination reforms and raising of standards; establishment of Centres of Advanced Study in selected subjects and organisation of Summer Institutes.

To meet the increasing demand for higher education among the working population, the UGC has initiated a programme of Correspondence Courses. It was first launched in Delhi University on an experimental basis and now a few more universities have also adopted the scheme. There are several other reforms which the UGC wants to introduce. But often the State governments do not come forward with assistance needed to match the UGC's share. At the same time UGC's own funds are not adequate enough to meet the expenses single-handedly. It would be a better arrangement to delegate more powers to the UGC and also place more funds at its disposal so that whatever plans it approves can be implemented without waiting for the State funds.

Creation of the National Council for Rural Higher Education

India has a majority of her population living in the rural areas. Finding living conditions too hard in the rural areas a large influx of this population migrates to urban areas where conditions for more lucrative employment are at hand within easy reach. The sad side of the picture is that these people, economically productive population, become a part of the urban population resulting in overcrowding in urban areas, and starve the rural areas of a large proportion of their potential human capital investment which would have raised their economy considerably. There is both discontent and strain on the economy in the rural areas. So planning for the educational development of rural areas is receiving greater attention on the part of the Planning Commission.

The attempts of the Ministry of Education to plan for higher education in the rural areas culminated in the formation of the National Council for Rural Higher Education in 1956. Its function is to advise the Government of India on all matters pertaining to rural higher education. The Council has to initiate schemes for the development and maintenance of standards of higher education in rural areas and encourage research in problems relating to rural education in all its aspects. During the first two Five Year Plans a net-work of ten Rural Institutes of higher education was started to provide a pattern of education, comparable in standards with university education, but oriented to rural conditions and needs, and which may produce persons of vision capable of providing leadership in specialised spheres of rural service. During the Third Five Year Plan four more such institutes were started. Some of the diplomas awarded by the National Council are recognised as equivalent to post-graduate degrees of universities in certain subjects. It is to be hoped that more and more co-operation would be forthcoming from the National Council for Rural Higher Education, the UGC and the IUB giving direction to the course-offerings in these institutes in such a way that high academic standards do not necessarily conflict with the community service programmes which they are expected to do on a larger scale.

Setting up of Centres for Advanced Study

With the opening of the Centres for Advanced Study in different subjects in some of the well-known universities, the UGC has made a good breakthrough towards raising standards of higher education. At the first instance the selection of the Centres was made on the basis of the quality and extent of work already done by the parent departments, their reputation for good teaching, their contribution to research and their potentiality for further development. These Centres are mostly concerned with post-graduate teaching and research of a high standard through stricter selection of students and staff for the Centres. The ultimate objective is to start 'clusters' of advanced centres in some of the universities by opening Advanced Study Centres in a few subjects within the jurisdiction of each of them. This will ensure healthy co-operation among the Centres and provide scope for inter-disciplinary approach in teaching and research. In the long run, the proposal is to bring more and more departments under the scheme by giving them encouraging five-year grants for recruitment of adequate staff and the acquisition of equipment and books. These departments are to be known as 'aspirant centres'.¹¹ This is an experiment worth trying with proper safe-guards to check falling off in standards in them and to desist them from developing academic snobbishness.

Some Problems of University Education

(1) **University autonomy**—The problem of university autonomy is receiving more and more attention from all corners because of the grave concern and anxiety that non-academic elements in many States are trying to deprive the universities of their academic freedom and responsibility through direct and indirect means. There are cases wherein the State governments have tried to interfere in the internal affairs of the universities through amendments of the University Acts. But these developments have not escaped the serious notice of the academic bodies like the Inter-University Board which passed a resolution on the subject at its 41st annual meeting at Mysore. A portion of the Resolution reads as follows: "The Inter-University Board is firmly of opinion that the mere fact that certain contributions are made by a State government or even the Centre cannot be a justification to bring about changes which will radically alter the composition, the working and efficiency of the universities and humiliate the universities concerned in the eyes of the academic world. The Board is of the opinion that a statutorily established university is practically in the same position as a statutorily established political government and the mere fact that the legislatures of such governments have certain powers of legislation should not be utilised to lower the reputation of Indian Universities and to make their efficient working impossible".¹²

Indian universities, by and large, depend upon the State governments for their establishment and financial assistance. This unique position

gives the States unchallenging freedom to gamble with university legislation but often without the accompaniment to remain responsible for the consequence of such legislative measures. The repercussions of these amendments of the university Acts are often similar to the state of affairs in a totalitarian state. They affect adversely the university autonomy at all levels : autonomy within the university, autonomy of the university in relation to the university systems as a whole (relation of one university to another or in relation to the UGC and the IUB), and autonomy of the university system as a whole, including the UGC and the IUB, and in relation to the Central and State governments.

In its report the Education Commission (1964-66) pleads for increased university autonomy without which "universities cannot discharge effectively their principal functions of teaching, research and service to the community; and that only an autonomous institution, free from regimentation of ideas and pressure of party or power politics, can pursue truth fearlessly and build up, in its teachers and students, habits of independent thinking and a spirit of enquiry unfettered by the limitations and prejudices of the near and immediate which is so essential for the development of a free society"¹³.

The problem of university autonomy needs urgent attention because closely associated with this problem is the problem of raising the standards of university education. The one cannot be handled without giving due attention to the other. The basic issue involved in university autonomy as applied to the Indian situation relates to the respective places to be allotted to the administrative and academic functions of the universities. It is a sound educational principle to give priority to academic matters and arrange all other things around this function. This would mean that the academic bodies in the general university bodies must be allowed greater freedom than is the case at present. The Academic Councils in the universities must be entrusted with the function of looking after all academic matters, and the teaching departments in the universities and the affiliated colleges must be allowed greater autonomy in matters relating to their regular functioning and improvement. On the All-India front the UGC and the IUB should be allowed greater freedom in looking after the general interests of university education in the whole country. The Central and State governments should not bother to take too much power in their hands. The practice of Ministers automatically becoming the officials of universities should also be stopped. These minor adjustments are sure to result in the formation of certain healthy conventions in all aspects relating to university education and would enable the universities to "realise that it would be unwise to expect that effective autonomy could descend as a 'gift' from above ; it has to be continually earned and deserved"¹⁴.

(2) **Educational Standards**—The problem of falling standards is neither peculiar to India alone nor is limited to higher education only. But

it stands in marked isolation in the case of the university graduate because of his better chances for coming into frequent contacts with the intellectual elite either in connection with seeking employment or seeking educational facilities at the higher levels. In either case his general educational standards are exposed. After examining this problem in Indian universities the University Education Commission (1948-49) felt that "many of our universities do not compare favourably with the best of British and American universities in respect of teaching and examination standards"¹⁵. Even though about nineteen years have passed since this observation was made, the condition has not changed to any considerable extent.

It is difficult to attribute the falling-off in the standards to any one single factor; in all probability it arises from a multiplicity of factors presenting such difficulties to the investigator studying the problem that "as soon as one (he) touches one end of this complex symptom one sees the whole chain of diseases in a chronic patient"¹⁶. Nevertheless one thing stands out to be prominent, and that is the indiscriminate admissions into the various branches of higher education. The post-independence period has witnessed the expansion of educational facilities on a scale unknown to us before. This is only natural both in developing and in advanced countries, because of a general desire in them to conserve and foster talent. But this unprecedented escalation in the rate of enrolment at all stages of education during the last 15 years had a markedly adverse effect on standards. But the problem in our country is that the expansion has outstripped the facilities available to receive education of a desirable standard. It is difficult, therefore, to raise the standard without recourse to a process of selective admissions in the field of higher education. This is not something incompatible with our democratic ideology nor is it something unusual in the realm of higher education elsewhere. Equality of educational opportunity in higher education does not mean indiscriminate admissions to all; "it only means that the students who possess the skill but are poor should be supported by the State,"¹⁷ This is the method followed successfully in the advanced countries like the U.S.A., Soviet Russia, and the Great Britain.

Expansion in enrolment has to go hand in hand with expansion of human and material resources that help to provide education of a desired standard. In a developing country like India the need is all the more to plan the expansion of facilities in higher education broadly on the basis of general trends regarding man-power needs and employment opportunities. This is important for the growth of our economy through the maximum utilisation of our talent both in the developed and the developing sectors. At present there is an over-production of educated people in some sectors, on the one hand resulting in their unemployment and wastage in investment for their education, and a shortage of professional

specialists, on the other hand resulting in unnecessary delay in the expansion in economy in those professions. A restriction on admissions may also result in better competition which will automatically raise the standards of new aspirants to higher education.

The problem of wastage or high percentage of failures in the examinations in higher education is related to the question of standards. It is difficult to say which is the cause and which is the effect. A process of scrutiny before admissions may ensure that the standard of the new entrants is satisfactory. If this group is exposed to standard courses in the right manner, there need be no doubt that our standards cannot be raised. This is the direction to be followed in future. There should also be continuous evaluation and this has to go hand in hand with teaching and learning. This would again ensure standards, direct the energies of students towards purely academic pursuits and ensure healthy teacher-student relations.

(3) **Instructional media**—In spite of severe criticism against the retention of English as the medium at the university level, it continues to be the major medium even to-day. The principle of adopting the regional languages as the media at the secondary stage of education has already been implemented. Now it is felt, and rightly so, that in order to maintain standards of education it is essential to impart instruction in the regional languages at the university stage also. But teachers of higher education who are by and large the products of English education believe, perhaps with a tint of bias, that English should continue to be the medium if we have to maintain the standards. Thus the advocates of regional languages as well as the opponents have the common plea of standards as the defence for their respective view-points.

The problem of standards is undoubtedly related to the problem of medium of instruction. There is reason to believe that the mother tongue is the most effective medium of instruction because in that case the language itself does not become a road-block to knowledge. In the present context with English as the medium of instruction one feels reluctant to recommend its continued use for maintaining educational standards. Both the University Education Commission (1948-49) and the Education Commission (1964-66), and more recently, the Parliamentary Committee on Education, have all settled the case in favour of the regional languages; but there is difference of opinion as regards the time-limit set for the change-over.

The difficulties in the way of change-over are many and varied. The process of democratic change in India is still in its initial stages. Any hasty change can only retard the progressive movement of the democratic process. The non-availability of standard books in the Indian languages and the large number of research journals being published only in English and other European languages make the case stronger for the retention of

English atleast at the post-graduate and research levels. The different Indian languages are not in the same stages of development and hence a uniform time-limit for the change-over is not desirable. For all times to come there will be need to maintain liaison between different universities. Thus a link language has to be there. In the solution of the language problem political fervour seems to have got on top. Hindi is accepted as the link language in the Constitution, but it has not secured universal acceptance. The stage of development of Hindi also seems to be no better than many other Indian languages. Thus it is evident that "a sudden change-over from English to the regional languages must result in precipitous lowering of standards more particularly in the field of science where, if we wish to industrialise our country and transform its economy, we need the work and co-operation of our best scientists and our best research scholars."¹⁸ This is true of Hindi also and hence, hasty change-over from English to Hindi will also have depressive effects on the standards of education in the country whatever satisfaction it may bring to the language zealots.

Apart from the likely depressive effect the regional languages will have on the standards, shifting over to the regional languages may also result in lesser contacts among the people of different regions in the country. This calls for the importance of a link language in the country. In the field of education, "we must not do anything which will undermine our national structure and foundation of unity on which the edifice of our Constitution has been raised..... We do not want a day to come when we will need interpreters to interpret one Indian to another."¹⁹

The question of federal link language is still a lively one. English continues to be used side by side with Hindi and it has not grown less in popularity. This is because English has a place in India on its merits. English "constitutes a window through which all the winds of new ideas, new thoughts can blow into our country. It will always remain a language of international relations and a language of science. It is a great cultural asset we possess to-day and it will be a shame and a tragedy if as a gesture to political chauvinism we throw it away."²⁰ We cannot do anything better than quote the words of the University Education Commission (1948-49) on this issue which seem to be true even to-day : "It (English) is a language which is rich in literature...humanistic, scientific, and technical. If under sentimental urges we should give up English we would cut ourselves off from the living stream of ever-growing knowledge. Unable to have access to this knowledge, our standards of scholarship would fast deteriorate and our participation in the world movements of thought would be negligible. Its effect would be disastrous for our political life, for living nations must move with the times and must respond quickly to the challenge of their surroundings. English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world, and we will

act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of a dark curtain of ignorance. ...A sense of one-ness of the world is in the making and control over a medium of expression which is more widespread and has a larger reach than any of our languages to-day will be of immense benefit to us."²¹

Conclusion

The Universities in India have continued to be the torch-bearers of higher academic life in the country during the post-independence period. The task before them has been a challenging one and continues to be so, and fortunately enough they have come up to the expectations in most cases. From the purely affiliating function that was delegated to them in the beginning, the Indian universities have taken to teaching, research and extension work seriously. But for few cases of lapses resulting in direct intervention by the State governments, Indian universities have been doing excellent work within the resources at their disposal. The influence of the Inter-University Board and the University Grants Commission, and the presence of a number of eminent educationists as heads of some universities has resulted in the formation of healthy conventions which act as powerful forces directing the destinies of the universities in India.

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UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

B

The development of higher education in India in the modern period can be traced back to 1781, when a petition was presented to the Governor-General Warren Hastings "by a considerable number of Mussulman of credit and learning,"¹ and the Calcutta Madrassa was established consequently. From that year onward, a number of institutions were founded by different agencies with different motives. But there was no clear-cut policy or system of education upto 1854.

Historical Background

In the strict sense, the modern higher education in India started in 1854 with the Wood's Despatch which wanted the Government to undertake the duty of "creating a properly articulated system of education from the primary school to the university," and which also recommended the institution of universities at the Presidency towns. Accordingly, three universities were established in 1857, one each at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. They were followed by the institution of numerous colleges. Two more universities, one in the Punjab and another at Allahabad, were respectively established in 1882 and 1887. These were also affiliating universities. The result was that many affiliated colleges cropped up, and thus the higher education received great fillip. By 1904, the process of the growth of higher education, due to various socio-economic factors, had picked up pace, and there are evidences to show that some of the people in the Government were really piqued at this growth.

The Universities Act of 1904, which contained many views of Lord Curzon, not only tried to make some radical changes in the character of the universities, but in the name of quality, tried to restrict the quantitative growth also. The new professional middle classes² which, by then, mainly depended upon education for their socio-economic status in the society, resented the implied restrictions on the proliferation of higher education. In fact, "the least that Lord Curzon was charged with was a deliberate attempt to throttle higher education in India."³ Though the official version of the Act was different, yet the charge was not altogether baseless, as the University Commission of 1902, on whose report the Act of 1904 was based, refused to accept the suggestion of creating even a single university at Nagpur for which there was considerable demand.

The growth of higher education continued unmitigated, specially after the initial effect of this Act was over. The Resolution of 1913 on the "educational policy" spoke of securing "a separate university for each

of the leading provinces in India."⁴ The Calcutta University Commission (1917-19) clearly visualized the great demand for higher education, and wanted as such, that the colleges in the mofussil should be so developed as to make it possible to encourage the gradual rise of new University centres by the concentration of resources for higher teaching at a few points. The Hartog Committee Report of 1929 appreciated the idea of the unitary university, but in view of great demand for higher education, recognised the necessity of retention of the affiliating university.⁵

Thus it was becoming clearer that the attempt to restrict the growth of higher education was ill-conceived, and that the public demand for higher education could not be curbed. The result of this public demand and interest was that while in 1904 there were only five Universities, in 1929 their number rose to eighteen.

The story continued in a zig-zag fashion after 1929. Though the number of colleges and students continued to increase after 1929, the increase in the number of universities was not appreciable. The partition of the country in 1947 proved more harmful in this regard as some of the well-established universities went to Pakistan. At the time of partition, the number of universities which came to India was 19. Another university, in the Punjab, was immediately established. Thus the total number of universities in India in 1947 was 20.

Table 5.3 gives an idea about the growth in the number of students in the colleges of general education upto 1946-47.

TABLE 5.3
GROWTH IN NUMBER OF STUDENTS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of scholars at the collegiate stage</i>
1891-92	12985
1896-97	14420
1901-02	17651
1906-07	18918
1911-12	29648
1916-17	46568
1921-22	45175
1926-27	70428
1931-32	79139
1936-37	95945
1941-42	118754
1946-47	193402

Source : *First Year Book of Education* (New Delhi : NCERT, 1961), p. 916.

Social Change and Education

This spectacular progress in the number of universities and students needs to be understood, as the forces responsible for this progress were, by

and large, the forces which were responsible for the growth of higher education during 1947-66. The progress upto 1947 has been attributed to various socio-economic and political changes. It should be pin-pointed here that originally this education was meant for a few people belonging to the elite classes. This idea was shared by such persons as Elphinstone and Macaulay. It was thought fit to "impart a high degree of education to the upper classes than to diffuse a much lower sort of it among the common people."⁶ This "elitist" concept was clearly implied in the "down-ward filtration" theory which unfolded itself by and by in those days. But despite this narrow conception of higher education, it progressed enormously. This progress cannot be understood except in the light of the changes which were occurring in the society and its structure.

The most notable change, which was at once social and economic both, was the emergence of new middle classes. The people belonging to these classes were those who had bade good-bye to their hereditary professions, a distinctive feature of the older Indian social order; and had embraced the new professions which were thrown open to them because of the politico-administrative changes. These professions required education. Thus the rise of professionalism explained the rise of middle classes and growth of education to a great extent. Moreover, since these middle classes solely depended upon education for their socio-economic status, they understandably displayed a hunger for education which baffled many people.

This social change, briefly speaking, was at the root of vast expansion in the field of higher education prior to 1946-47.

University Education in the Era of Freedom

With the attainment of freedom in 1947, India as a Nation, and the Indians as individuals, achieved a new psychological stature. This psychological stature was more important than the fact of mere political freedom, the former, not only gave great impetus to the socio-economic forces already at work, but also, over night, let loose a host of other forces. There were new aims, new hopes and new aspirations. There were new problems also.

These new aims and hopes, many people felt, could be realized through the instrument of education. Again, it was education which was considered to be the chief weapon in facing and solving the new problems. The whole position was explained by the University Education Commission (1949). It stated, "we are to-day faced with great problems, national and social, the acquisition of economic independence, the increase of general prosperity, the attainment of an effective democracy over-riding the distinctions of caste and creed, rich and poor, and a rise in the level of culture. For the quick and effective realization of these aims, education

is a powerful weapon, if it is organised efficiently and in the public interest. As we claim to be civilized people, we must regard the higher education of the rising generation as one of our chief concerns.”⁷

In fact, even the appointment of the University Education Commission owed a good deal to the new psychological stature which India received after freedom. The Inter University Board and the Central Advisory Board of Education passed a resolution recommending to the Indian Government to appoint a Commission on the lines of Hunter Commission in consultation with the State governments “to report on Indian university education and suggest improvements and extensions that may be desirable to suit the present and the future requirements of the country.”⁸ One need specially mark the words “present and the future requirements of the country.” This recommendation was accepted by the Government, and thus was appointed the University Education Commission in 1948. The Commission prepared a comprehensive report in two parts. The first part is divided into eighteen chapters and covers 747 pages. The second part of the report contains figures, statistics and evidences.

Some Recommendations of the University Education Commission

The Commission dealt with the various aspects of the University education. It made recommendations in respect to all of them. The following were the major recommendations of the Commission :

1. Teaching Staff—The Commission considered the problem of teachers at length, as it considered it to be very important. It devoted some attention to the question of the pay, provident fund, leave, working hours and retirement age and the like of the teachers.

The Commission divided the teachers of the university into four categories, viz., Professors, Readers, Lecturers and Instructors. It also recommended the appointment of Research Fellows in the university. It made specific recommendations about the scale of salaries of the university teachers. For the teachers and principals of affiliated colleges with no post-graduate classes, and colleges which had post-graduate classes, the scale of salaries were different.

The Commission fixed the age of retirement for university teachers at sixty years, but the professors could be allowed an extension of four years more.

2. Standards of Teaching—After a detailed analysis of the then existing situation, the Commission made some recommendations, the major of which were, ‘that the standard of admission to the university courses should correspond to that of the present intermediate examination, that is, after the completion of 12 years of study at a school and an intermediate college’. It recommended the establishment of a large number of intermediate colleges

in each province. It also recommended that refresher courses be organised for the teachers of high schools and intermediate colleges.

One of the major and novel recommendations of the Commission in this connection was that it wanted some restriction on the number of students in the universities and the colleges. The Commission also laid great stress on the efficient organisation of tutorials and laboratories.

3. Courses of Study—The most important recommendations of the Commission were in regard to the curriculum of Arts and Science courses. It recommended that the Master's degree be given to honours' students after one year of study beyond the bachelor's degree and to Pass students after two years, beyond the bachelor's degree. One of its important recommendations under this head was that "without unnecessary delay the principles and practice of general education be introduced, so as to correct the extreme specialization which now is common in the intermediate and degree programmes."⁹

4. Post-Graduate Teaching and Research in Arts and Sciences—The Commission laid great stress on research. For the research degree of Ph.D., it stated that the students should put in atleast two years of study and work, and through it, they must attain not only a narrow specialization but a breadth and depth also. The admission to M.A. and M.Sc. classes, as well as to Ph.D. should be made on an all-India level. The Commission also recommended that research fellowships should be granted to capable students during the period of their research work. It wanted the universities to lay more stress on fundamental research in comparison to applied research, although they were not precluded from taking up special applied problems concerning their own regions. The Commission laid more stress on research in Science subjects.

These were the main recommendations which directly concerned the general education in the universities. Apart from these, the Commission made some specific recommendations about professional education, religious education, medium of instruction, the system of examinations, students and their welfare, women's education, and other aspects of higher education.

In view of the increasing demand for higher education, the Commission stood for the proliferation of existing means. It made two notable recommendations in this regard. It stated that in the establishment of new universities, freedom be given for experiment in educational methods. Secondly, in planning new universities, both urban and rural efforts be made to get as good distribution as possible with reference to the total educational needs of the country. The Commission drew attention to 'Rural Higher Education' and recommended that special care be taken of the development of higher education in rural areas. Thus the Commission stressed the need to "broaden and equalize" the opportunity for higher education.

Expansion of University Education

The tempo of growth of university education in India, which was quite fast before independence, became much faster because of the psychological release of many new forces. The number of universities which was 20 in 1947 rose to 64 in 1966.¹⁰ Similar was the case with the number of affiliated colleges and the strength of students. Table 5.4 gives an insight into the growing number of institutions of general education and the strength of students in them.

TABLE 5.4
NUMBER OF COLLEGES AND ENROLMENT

Year	Number of Arts, Science and Commerce Colleges	Enrolment in lakhs
1949-50	488	3.31
1958-59	913	8.00
1965-66 (Target)	1400	13.00

Source : *First Year Book of Education* (New Delhi : NCERT, 1961) p. 807.

A peep into Table 5.4 shows that the total strength of students more than quadrupled during the period. This by all accounts was a stupendous progress. But this progress does not reflect any correct index of the educational aspirations of the people. The expansion in higher education could have been much larger had more institutions been provided in the country side, and secondly, had the economic condition of a vast population of India been better.

How to interpret this tremendous growth? The recommendations of the University Education Commission might have given some impetus because of its such recommendations as 'the abolition of fees progressively', 'provision of free books and stationery', and the "egalitarian" methods of selection. But such recommendations remained, by and large, untranslated into practice, and moreover, in themselves they are incapable of explaining the vast increase in the number of university and college students.

To seek a real explanation of this phenomenon, the changes in the politico-economic and socio-cultural field may be looked into. It can, perhaps, be safely asserted that basically the forces which influenced the growth of higher education before independence, were at work after independence too, but with tremendously increased intensity. Before independence, the university education had become a means of economic subsistence on the one hand and a source of social status on the other. But this idea was limited to people generally residing in towns and cities. This notion spread to villages also after the dawn freedom. The expansion in the means of communications, in the mass-media of propaganda, and the increased social inter-course, all helped in the process of taking those ideas

and aspirations to the villages which were largely confined to cities before independence. Thus the movement of careerism and professionalism also spread to the villages. Naturally many villagers abhorred the idea of living in a village and tilling the land. They, too, wanted to live in the cities and continuously aspired for crossing into the next higher socio-economic group. Some studies of the aspirations of secondary school students show it unmistakably. This is also evidenced by the wide-spread preference of Science subjects by the students. In short, during this period the villagers also wanted to "rise above the past", but did not feel sure and secure about the present and the future. In order to seek that surety and security about the present and the future, they "chased educational degrees".

In the expansion of educational facilities the role of the "local politician" has been tremendous. It was a novel phenomenon after freedom. The local politician often influenced the authorities for opening schools and colleges in his area, and he usually succeeded.

These were the factors which explain to some extent the vast expansion of higher education in India during the period 1947-1966. The Education Commission Report has also given seven such reasons¹¹ for the expansion. Some of the most convincing among them are :

- (i) the traditional social status attached to a university degree,
- (ii) the growing hunger for education among the urban people and the middle classes who have realized that the best and probably the only worth-while legacy they can leave to their children is to give them good education,
- (iii) the awakening among the rural people and the lower classes who are now seeking social advancement, just as the urban and middle classes did during the last hundred years, through education and government service,
- (iv) a rapid multiplication of educational institutions at this level which has made them easily accessible to young persons in thousands of small and out-the-way places.

Growth in Expenditure

This vast expansion in higher education naturally involved an expenditure which was huge by all calculations. Table 5.5 gives the expenditure on different branches of higher education in approximate round figures.

TABLE 5.5

TOTAL DIRECT EXPENDITURE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

	1950-51	1965-66
1. Universities	Rs. 49052000	270000000
2. Research Institutes	Rs. 6256000	65000000
3. Colleges for Arts and Sciences	Rs. 71714000	327500000
4. Colleges for Professional Education	Rs. 42194000	350000000
5. Colleges for Special Education	Rs. 2224000	17500000
Total	Rs. 171440000	1030000000

Source : *Indian Education Commission (1964-66)*, (New Delhi : Government of India, 1966), p. 467.

The figures of Table 5.5 show that, on an average, the direct expenditure on higher education rose more than five times during the period 1950-66. Similar was the story in the case of indirect expenditure, that is, expenditure on inspection, buildings, hostels, scholarships and so on. The average annual cost per pupil has also risen. For example, in the case of Arts and Commerce under-graduates, if it was Rs. 231 in 1950-51, it rose to Rs. 328 in 1965-66. In the case of Science and vocational under-graduates it was Rs. 779 in 1950-51 and Rs. 1167 in 1965-66.¹²

Role of the University Grants Commission

The picture of the development of university education from 1947 to 1966 will remain incomplete without a brief mention of the U.G.C.—its origin, structure and role. In fact this University Grants Commission had a hand in most of the expansion work at the university level.

The University Education Commission Report of 1949 among other things, had also recommended "that the University Grants Commission be constituted as the agency for determining the merits of requests for, recognition as universities."¹³ In fact, the roots of the U.G.C. lay in the University Grants Committee which worked in 1945. This body was purely advisory and often in-effective. The U.G.C. was to be a much more effective body, as it was to be an "expert, qualified, full-time, paid body" the qualities most of which were missing in the previous body.

The U.G.C. was brought into being on December 28, 1953 through an executive order of the Government of India. The U.G.C. Act was passed by the Indian Parliament on March 3, 1956. The Commission was given official status on November 5, 1956, which is the date of its inauguration.

The UGC is a paying, an allocating, and a dispensing body. It supplies all of the funds to the four Central universities, and supports the State universities in many ways.

At present it performs numerous other functions also. Apart from giving grants to individual faculties and colleges, it spends money for new science books, laboratory space and equipment, libraries, printing presses and such other items. It wants to develop the basic subjects in all the universities. Moreover, it has accepted the complete responsibility for the implementation of the three year degree course. It assists colleges and universities to improve facilities, to increase the student-teacher ratio, and to further the programme of tutorials. The U.G.C. also takes interest in increasing and raising the salary scales of teachers.

Among other works, the U.G.C. supports hostel buildings on 50-50 basis. It sponsors recreation centres, hobby workshops and the like. It plans summer sessions for the talented students.

The UGC also does a lot of "information gathering and recommendation making." This information often proves highly useful for all, specially research workers.

The Indian Education Commission (IEC) of 1964-66

The growth of education as has already been seen has been tremendous. It is not only so at the university level, but at other levels also. Despite this growth there was an air of dissatisfaction with education in the country, and consequently a lot of criticism flowed against its various aspects. Nobody was sure as to what was the role of education vis-a-vis nation.

It was in such circumstances that the Indian Education commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari. The resolution of the Government of India, setting up the Education Commission read, among other things "it is now considered imperative to survey and examine the entire field of education in order to realize within the shortest possible period a well-balanced, integrated and adequate system of national education capable of making a powerful contribution to all spheres of national life."¹⁴

The Commission consisted of experts of education from various countries. These experts mostly belonged to highly developed countries like UK, USA, USSR and Japan. It is argued that some experts from the under-developed countries could have been profitably associated with the Commission, as they alone could have appreciated, more than these people, the national aspirations of an under-developed country like India.

The Commission toured the whole country, collected evidence from various sources on all the branches of education, and then gave its report in a volume of 692 pages.

Some Recommendations of the IEC on University Education

The IEC recognised that in the rapidly changing contemporary world, the tasks of the universities are not confined to the two traditional functions¹⁵ of teaching and advancement of knowledge. They must provide the right kind of leadership in all walks of life; they should provide the society with "competent men and women trained in agriculture, arts, medicine, science and technology and various other professions"; they should survive "to promote equality and social justice and to reduce social and cultural differences through diffusion of education." The universities must learn "to encourage individuality, variety and dissent, within a climate of tolerance." Among other responsibilities of the Indian universities, the Commission has listed the development of programmes for adult education, assisting the schools in their attempts at qualitative self-improvement and fostering national consciousness among the students.

The Commission, however, has identified the defects in the existing situation in higher education. It has also admitted that the quality of education is going down at the university level. Keeping in view the present limitations and the new objectives of the university education, the IEC points out, "If these objectives are to be realised, we need a well-conceived and comprehensive plan for the development of higher education, spread over the next twenty years which will include, among other things, the following three programmes¹⁶ of high priority :

- (i) A radical improvement in the quality and standards of higher education and research;
- (ii) Expansion of higher education to meet the man-power needs of national development, and to some extent, the rising social ambitions and expectations of the people; and
- (iii) Improvement of university organization and administration.

The Commission has made some salient recommendations which are enumerated here :

1. **Establishment of Major Universities**—The Commission possibly believed in the "concentration of talent" theory. It has asked the U.G.C. to select about six universities from amongst the existing universities, and develop them as the major universities which have a 'critical mass' of students and teachers of outstanding capacity and promise. The recurring and capital costs of the major universities should be met by the U.G.C.

The Commission has also made certain observations about the improvement of other universities and affiliated colleges, and about teaching and evaluation in them.

The recommendation of the IEC to establish major universities and the idea of "concentration of talent" in them has been a subject of severe criticism. The Commission has made this recommendation in the name of concentrating "scarce human resources". The Commission, it appears, believed that this concentration of talent will lead to the betterment of standards in these universities, and then these universities will be in a position to filtrate the standards to the other universities. The Commission has assigned a "catalytic role" to these universities in the Indian Academic World. But the critics have pointed out that while on the one hand the IEC is quite vociferous about the idea of equality and even has proposed the abolition of special schools (like public schools), it has introduced a contradiction in its own logic by proposing the establishment of major universities on the other. This situation, they fear, will lead to discrimination and enhance the psychological feelings of superiority and inferiority among the students of different universities.

2. Expansion of Facilities and Selective Admission—The Commission recommends that the "expansion of facilities in higher education should be planned broadly in relation to man-power needs and employment opportunities."¹⁷ And since the demand for higher education will be much larger than the provision that can be made for it or is needed on the basis of man-power needs, a system of selective admissions will have to be adopted. The Commission feels that "while the use of examination marks as a major basis for admission may continue until selective methods are devised, their arbitrariness or lack of reliability should be compensated, to the extent possible, by making due allowance for the socio-economic handicaps of students so as to relate selection more directly to innate talent. The final selection should also take into consideration such factors as the school record and the proficiency of the student in fields not tested in examination."

3. Part-time Education—The Commission has recommended that opportunities for part-time education, through correspondence courses and evening classes should be extended.

4. College Size—The Commission recommends that the general policy should be to encourage the establishment of bigger institutions which tend to be more efficient and economic. A college should normally have a minimum enrolment of 500 and it would be preferable to raise it to 1000 or more in as many colleges as possible.

5. New Universities—The Commission observes that "the establishment of new universities is inescapable". The Commission wants that by the end of the fourth Plan, the metropolitan cities of Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras should have two universities each. It has also felt that the demand for additional universities in the States of Kerala and Orissa are just. It has supported the proposal for the

establishment of a university for the hill areas of the North-Eastern Region. The Commission has also laid down certain principles to guide the establishment of new universities in India.

The rest of the recommendations relate to the medium of instruction, courses of study, research and the governance of the universities.

Conclusion

To sum up, the growth of general higher education in India during the period 1947-66 has been *spectacular from all accounts*. The only draw-back is that this education is largely pursued because of the individual aspirations of jobs and better socio-economic status rather than any larger National or Cultural aims.



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TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Professional Education as a part of the institutional frame-work is of a comparatively recent origin. For a long time emphasis was laid on the education in liberal arts and professional education was not considered fit to be a University discipline. The early English education, which has considerably influenced Indian education particularly at the University stage, stressed the training of the "gentleman", who according to Sir Thomas Smith "studieth the laws of the realm, who studieth in the universities, who progresses liberal sciences and to be short, who can live idly and without manual labour and will bear the port charges and countenance of a gentleman....." In England and France, the first schools for the education of craftsmen were founded only in the later part of the 18th century. In the U.S.A., the first technical school was founded in 1823. It started giving degrees in the Civil Engineering in 1835. In Germany, the great Technische Hochschule at Charlottenburg, Berlin was founded in 1879 as part of the University but was subsequently separated from it for administrative convenience.

A Historical Perspective

In India, the first industrial school was established at Guindy in Madras in 1842 and was attached to the local Gun Carriage Factory. In 1854, a school for the training of Overseers was opened at Poona. In 1847 the first Engineering College was set up for the training of Civil Engineers in U.P. which later on developed into the present Roorkee University. Subsequently, 3 Engineering Colleges were opened by about 1856 in the three Presidencies of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. In 1858, the engineering schools at Guindy in Madras and Poona in the Bombay Presidency were converted into Engineering Colleges and granted University affiliation. In 1907, the National Council of Education organised, among others, a College of Engineering and Technology at Jadavpur, which formed the nucleus of the present Jadavpur University.

Technical Education got a great spurt during and after the two world wars. Particularly after the Second World War, the combatant nations realised that an accelerated development of technical education and a scientific approach to manpower planning were essential pre-requisites not only for their survival but also for the rehabilitation of their war-ravaged economies. The importance of building a strong techno-industrial base and organising the training of personnel of the requisite professional and technological competence was further brought home by the amazing

successes gained by the Russians in Space Technology and Nuclear Physics. In the U.K., the White Paper on Technical Education presented to the Parliament in 1956 expressed the deep anxiety of the British people to make vigorous attempts to increase scientific and technical personnel to bring it at par with the technical advances of the USSR and the USA. The U.K. Government initiated the policy of developing Central institutions and technical colleges with large-scale programme involving a capital expenditure of £ 10 million for five years with a further £ 2 million for necessary equipment. In the U.S.A., the Manpower Studies revealed acute shortages in various fields and highlighted the need to enhance and accelerate technical training programme.

The National Manpower Council in the U.S.A. in a study "A Policy for Skilled Manpower" listed the following objectives :

- (1) to strengthen the contribution made by secondary education to the acquisition of skill;
- (2) to develop a more effective programme of vocational guidance;
- (3) to provide more equal opportunities for all individuals to acquire skill;
- (4) to improve the facilities and methods used to train skilled and technical manpower; and
- (5) to increase knowledge about the manpower resources.

In India the first national attempt to estimate the manpower requirement for engineering and technical manpower was made by the Scientific Manpower Committee set up by the Government of India in 1947. The Committee assessed the magnitude of the requirement of trained personnel and suggested a programme for the immediate improvement and expansion of facilities of Scientific and Technical Education, Research and Training.

At the time of preparing the Second Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission appointed the Engineering Personnel Committee in 1956, which made an attempt to work out a general assessment of shortages of supervisory and higher grades of engineering personnel for implementing the Second Five Year Plan in principal fields of national development such as, building and road construction, railways, industrial development in public and private sectors, mining and irrigation and power, and such other fields. The Committee's finding was that the demand for engineering personnel far out-stripped the supply and estimated the short supply in 1960-61 to the extent of 1,800 graduates, and 8,000 diploma holders in different branches. To meet the shortage, it recommended that the existing established institutions should be expanded fully. The minimum programme it recommended was an average increase of 20 per cent in the out-turn of

graduates and 25 per cent in the case of diploma holders in the expansion programme of the established institutions. In addition, they recommended during the Second Plan the establishment of 18 Colleges and 62 Diploma Institutions. Inter-alia, they also made recommendations in respect of recruitment policies, establishment of Technical Manpower Committee of the Cabinet, and a Technical Manpower Division to serve the Cabinet Committee. They further dealt with subjects like the quality of engineering personnel, pay and prospects, apprenticeship training, training of craftsmen and the problem of 'flight of personnel'.

The recommendations of the Engineering Personnel Committee were further considered by the Planning Commission and they appointed a small implementation committee of two members known as the Ghosh-Chandrakant Committee that submitted its report on the 17th January, 1957, on the basis of which development of engineering education both at the degree and diploma levels took place during the Second Plan. The Committee recommended that 19 existing engineering colleges and 50 polytechnics should be further expanded in larger units capable of yielding 2562 additional seats in degree courses and 4885 in diploma courses. For the rest of the requirements estimated by the Engineering Personnel Committee, 3 new engineering colleges and 23 polytechnics were recommended for establishment. The new institutions were estimated to yield 520 seats for degree and 4020 seats for diploma courses.

In regard to the implementation of the manpower policy recommended by the Engineering Personnel Committee, it was considered essential to have (a) an effective and continuous collection of the necessary information; (b) the framing of policy on the basis of information so collected; and (c) execution of such a policy. One step in the direction was to improve co-ordination among the different agencies concerned in this field both at the Centre and States. Arrangement that existed, for example, in the then Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, Ministry of Labour and Employment, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Planning Commission, and so on for the collection and processing of information on the demand and supply of manpower needed co-ordination and scrutiny. It was decided by the Government of India in September, 1956, to establish a Directorate of Manpower and locate it in the Ministry of Home Affairs, which started functioning from November, 1956. It provided the Secretariat for the Cabinet Committee on Manpower and was concerned generally with the co-ordination of manpower policies and programmes while the implementation of the programmes was done by the Ministries and other agencies concerned. This Directorate works in close collaboration with the Divisions of the Planning Commission dealing with manpower and the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and maintains liaison with the Ministries at the Centre through officers

nominated by them to deal with their manpower problems. The Manpower Directorate also co-ordinates the work done in the States. Each State has appointed a Manpower Officer to look after the work in that State and keeps the Directorate informed of development.

To assess the requirements of technical personnel in the Third Plan, the Planning Commission appointed a Working Group on Technical Education and Vocational Training. The Group assessed the requirements of engineering personnel in the Fourth and the subsequent Plans and recommended the creation of an additional intake of 5000 in engineering colleges and 2,000 for the same course by part-time and correspondence; 10,000 in polytechnics and 5,000 for the same course by part-time and correspondence courses. The Working Group also made recommendations about improving the quality of teaching personnel, equipment and the like for engineering institutions.

Progress of Technical Education

(a) *Expansion of Institution*—There has been a spectacular increase in the number of engineering colleges and polytechnics in the post-Independence period. The number of engineering colleges which was mere 18 with an intake capacity of 2940 in 1948-49 increased to 133 with intake capacity of about 25,000 by 1965-66. Similar expansion has taken place in the case of diploma institutions; the number rising from 86 in 1950-51 to 274 in 1965-66. Table 6.1 presents, at a glance, increase in the number of technical institutions, their intake capacity and their out-turn over the years.

TABLE 6.1

NUMBER OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS, THEIR INTAKE CAPACITY AND OUT-TURN

Year	Degree Level			Diploma Level		
	No. of Engg-Colleges	Intake	Out-turn	No. of Polytechnics	Intake	Out-turn
1948-49	18	2,940	1,270	N.A.	3,670	1,440
1950-51	49	4,120	2,200	86	5,900	2,480
1955-56	65	5,890	4,020	114	10,480	4,500
1960-61	102	13,820	5,700	195	25,800	8,000
1965-66	133	24,690*	10,280	274	48,050@	17,700

*The actual intake capacity at the Degree Level was 23,315.

@The actual intake capacity in Diploma Level institutions was 43,984.

Programmes of further expansion of technical institutions have been initiated in some States. If these are also taken into account, there would be 28,570 annual admissions in Degree Courses and 53,330 annual admissions for Diploma Courses including girls polytechnics.

(i) *Degree Level Courses*—Out of the 133 institutions conducting first degree level courses in Engineering and Technology including Pharmacy, Textile Chemistry and Architecture, 8 are institutions established by the Central Government—5 Indian Institutes of Technology; Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad, School of Planning and Architecture, New Delhi and the National Sugar Institute, Kanpur. There are 35 colleges and departments functioning as constituent units of universities and equivalent institutions. Of these the Roorkee University, Jadavpur University, Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani and Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore devote themselves mainly to studies in sciences and engineering. The number of colleges under the management of State Government is 41 while that of private engineering colleges is 35. These are, as stated earlier, affiliated to the different universities within the concerned State. There are also 14 regional engineering colleges which are being developed as a co-operative effort between the Central Government and the State Governments. These colleges are also affiliated to Universities and admit students from all over the country. The distribution of the 23,315 students admitted in these institutions during 1965-66 is given in Table 6.2.

TABLE 6.2

ACTUAL ADMISSIONS MADE IN 1965-66 BY MANAGEMENT OF INSTITUTIONS

<i>Management</i>	<i>Institutions</i>		<i>Students admitted</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>% to total</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>% to total</i>
1	2	3	4	5
Central Government	8	6.1	2,042	8.8
University	35	26.3	5,527	23.7
State Government	41	30.8	7,215	30.9
Private agency	35	26.3	5,646	24.2
Regional Engineering Colleges	14	10.5	2,885	12.4
Total	133	100.0	23,315	100.0

In regard to the relative distribution of seats for the different branches of engineering, the pattern is set by the estimated demand for qualified engineers for the perspective economic development. In view of the large-scale industrial expansion and power generation programmes envisaged in the Fourth and subsequent plans, there is an increasing emphasis on the facilities for Mechanical and Electrical engineering as well

as for Chemical Engineering and Technology. The distribution of the actual admission of students in 1965-66 according to the branches of study is given in Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3

ACTUAL ADMISSIONS MADE IN 1965-66 BY BRANCHES OF STUDY

<i>Branch of Study</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
Civil Engineering	5,821
Mechanical Engineering	8,350
Electrical Engineering	5,970
Chemical Engineering and Technology	1,587
Electronics/Telecommunication/Electrical	
Communication Engineering	617
Metallurgy	834
Others	2,136
Total	23,315

The number of students who graduated from these institutions in 1965 *i.e.* at the end of the academic year 1964-65, is 10,282. Their distribution according to the fields of study is as shown in Table 6.4.

TABLE 6.4

OUT-TURN OF GRADUATES IN ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY IN 1965

<i>Branch of Study</i>	<i>No. of Graduates</i>
Civil Engineering	2,515
Mechanical Engineering	3,136
Electrical Engineering	2,320
Chemical Engineering and Technology	633
Electronics/Telecommunication/Electrical Communica-	
tion Engineering	258
Metallurgy	320
Others	1,100
TOTAL	10,282

(ii) *Diploma Level Courses*—The polytechnics offer diploma courses of three years duration at the post-secondary stage in the main traditional branches of civil, electrical and mechanical engineering. These branches account for 94 per cent of the total admission of 43,984 students in 1965-66. The subject-wise distribution of the admission is as given in Table 6.5.

TABLE 6.5

**ACTUAL ADMISSIONS MADE FOR DIPLOMA COURSES
IN 1965-66**

<i>Branch of Study</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
Civil Engineering	14,566
Mechanical Engineering	14,431
Electrical Engineering	11,944
Textile Technology	517
Pharmacy	388
Telecommunication/Radio Engineering	375
Printing Technology	257
Automobile Engineering	304
Others	1,102
TOTAL	43,984

The facilities offered by way of part-time courses are available at 31 institutions which include 26 polytechnics conducting courses in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, 4 schools of printing technology and one mining school. the admission capacity for these courses is 2870 seats.

All the 19 polytechnics for girls have been set up by the State governments and offer courses in engineering and non-engineering subjects. These courses vary in duration between 1½ to 2 years for library science, 2 years for commercial practice, medical laboratory technology, and civil engineering, draughtsmanship and 3 years for electronics, costume design and dress making, and commercial art.

Some institutions offering courses in various branches of engineering and technology deserve a special mention :

(i) *Indian Institutes of Technology*—The Indian Institutes of Technology have been established with the objective of training of higher grade engineers required for the Industrial development of the country. As already mentioned there are 5 institutes at Bombay, Madras, Kanpur, Kharagpur and Delhi. They are governed by the provision of a common Act of Parliament and therefore, work is coordinated through a Council of the Indian Institutes of Technology. According to the recent recommendations made by the Council, these institutions have to concentrate their efforts on post-graduate courses and research and to provide facilities for a much larger number. At the undergraduate level, their aim is to improve the quality and standard of education. In 1965-66, 1551 students were admitted to the 5 institutes of technology in the first year class of the degree course in engineering and

technology. The distribution institution-wise was Kharagpur 380, Bombay 340, Kanpur 310, Delhi 275 and Madras 240. The total student enrolment at the 5 institutions was 7,984.

(ii) *Institutes for Management and Business Administration*—Two institutes provide education of a university standard in management studies. These institutes are at Calcutta and Ahmedabad which have been set up in collaboration with State Government concerned, Industry and the Ford Foundation. The total intake capacity of the 2 institutes was 233 in 1965-66. The Institutes offer two years full-time postgraduate course in management in addition to conducting short-term specialised courses for executives in public and private sector enterprises. In addition to these two institutes it is also intended to develop 4 regional university centres for post-graduate management education and research and simultaneously to organise a number of programmes to train teachers and develop 4 management libraries. These measures will supplement training programmes offered under the National Productivity Council, the All India Management Association and the Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad for the benefit of a large number of small entrepreneurs. It is also proposed to organise short-term and correspondence courses of a functional nature in modern techniques and methods of managements.

(iii) *National Institute of Training in Industrial Engineering*—The National Institute of Training in Industrial Engineering has been established to provide facilities for training in different aspects of industrial engineering such as work study and measurement, production planning and control for the benefit of supervisory personnel and engineers working in the industry. The Institutes conducted 32 courses ranging from 2-10 weeks in different aspects of industrial engineering, in 1965-66. A total number of 416 persons took advantages of these courses.

(iv) *Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore*—This institution has also been deemed to be a University under Section III of the U.G.C. Act. The Institute provides facilities for post-graduate teaching and research in various science subjects. In 1965-66, the total students strength at the Institute was 894.

(v) *Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad*—This school provides many undergraduate and postgraduate courses in mining. The total students enrolment during 1965-66 was of the order of 580. The school also provides facilities for research work especially in the field of Geology and Geo-Physics.

(b) *Financial Outlays*—There has been considerable step up in the outlays for technical education programme during the first three Plans. Table 6.6 sums up the position :

TABLE 6.6

FINANCIAL OUTLAYS FOR TECHNICAL EDUCATION

	(Rs. in crores)			
	1st Plan (Expd.)	2nd Plan (Expd.)	3rd Plan (Likely Expd.)	4th Plan (Proposed)
Technical Education	20	49	129	253
Total Education	153	273	596	1210
%age to the Total	13	14	22	21

It would be seen that expenditure on technical education in the Third Plan was about $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the expenditure in the first and second Plans taken together. In the Fourth Plan, the outlay proposed for technical education is more than the combined outlays for the first three Plans.

Programmes in the Fourth Plan

It has been reckoned that the probable demand of Engineering graduates in the Fifth Plan will be met by the out-turn from the existing institutions. There will, however, be some demand for specialists in new branches for meeting the requirements of new industries. Provision has, therefore, been made for an annual admission capacity of 1300 students in the Fourth Plan. The entire question of the future expansion of engineering education is, however, being reviewed by a high powered Committee set up by the Union Minister for Education.

At the diploma level it has been envisaged vide Fourth Five Year Plan—A Draft Outline—1966 to raise the admission capacity by 18,100 inclusive of 3400 seats already approved in the Third Plan. It is also proposed that additional facilities will be provided by expanding existing institutions and establishing new ones. It is also proposed to lay emphasis on the development of part-time and correspondence courses to provide opportunities for education to those who for various reasons have to leave educational institutions to enter employment. This aspect will, however, be discussed later.

Certain Significant Problems of Technical Education

(a) *Shortage of Teachers*—Consequent upon the large scale expansion of technical education during the first three Plans, there have been acute shortage of buildings, equipment and teaching staff in technical institutions. An Assessment Survey conducted by the Ministry of Education in December, 1963 revealed a number of deficiencies. Table 6.7 shows, at a glance, the deficiencies found in technical colleges and Polytechnics.

TABLE 6.7

**DEFICIENCIES IN TECHNICAL COLLEGES AND
POLYTECHNICS**

	<i>Colleges</i>	<i>Polytechnics</i>
	%	%
Buildings	38	43
Equipment	56	52
Hostels	53	57
Teachers	39	31

It can be seen from Table 6.8 that while overall shortages of teachers in technical colleges is 38.9, there are marked variations in the State-wise availability of teachers. The range being about 69% vacant places in Rajasthan, 56% in Uttar Pradesh, 53% in Orissa, 47% in West Bengal, 46.6% in Mysore, and 39% in Gujarat. In the case of Diploma institutions also, the proportion of vacant posts was 57.5% in Panjab, 56.3% in Assam, 40.9% in Uttar Pradesh and 40.8% in Bihar. The overall percentage of vacant posts in polytechnics is, however, 31.2 per cent, slightly lower than the colleges.

The acute shortages of teachers are also hindering the proper education and training of the engineering personnel. To meet the shortage of teaching personnel in technical institutions, it would be necessary to invite closer collaboration from the industry. Persons with experience in industry should be invited to participate in teaching programmes for specified periods. Along side, there should be participation by teachers in the operations in the industries. The industry should be encouraged to receive teachers from the engineering colleges and polytechnics for period extending to about one year or more during which they should be called upon to undertake specific tasks and responsibilities. The teachers should be given definite responsibility and not merely invited to observe the working of Industrial undertakings.

The shortages of teachers in the technical institutions have already been alluded to. It is necessary that the shortages should be met through collaboration with the industry as well as by offering teaching fellowships to bright young engineering graduates. At present the Ministry of Education offers 100 fellowships to engineering graduates to prepare ultimately for teaching positions. The fellowships are at present tenable at 12 selected institutions. The number of fellowships should be increased considerably so that a larger number of bright young men are secured for teaching positions.

In Table 6.8 State-wise shortages of teachers in engineering colleges and polytechnics reported by Technical institutions in December, 1963 are shown.

TABLE 6.8

SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

<i>Name of State</i>	<i>No. of Institutions</i>	<i>Sanctioned strength</i>	<i>Teachers appointed as on 31.12.63</i>	<i>Vacant positions as on 31.12.63</i>	<i>Percentage of vacant positions</i>
<i>Engineering Colleges</i>					
Andhra Pradesh	8	351	266	85	24.2
Assam	2	115	54	61	53.0
Bihar	5	602	378	224	37.2
Gujarat	5	223	135	88	39.4
Kerala	6	406	249	157	38.6
Madras	9	549	382	167	30.4
Maharashtra	8	226	210	86	29.5
Madhya Pradesh	7	459	267	192	41.8
Mysore	8	516	352	164	46.6
Orissa	2	190	90	100	52.6
Punjab	5	68	68	Nil	Nil
Rajasthan	2	188	59	129	68.6
Uttar Pradesh	3	281	124	157	55.9
West Bengal	11	552	292	260	47.1
Delhi	1	12	10	2	16.7
All India	83	4,808	2,936	1,872	38.9
<i>Polytechnics</i>					
Andhra Pradesh	19	570	472	98	17.2
Assam	4	110	48	62	56.3
Bihar	11	282	167	115	41.8
Gujarat	11	413	325	88	21.3
J & K	1	15	9	6	40.0
Kerala	14	428	322	106	24.7
Madhya Pradesh	13	420	231	189	45.0
Maharashtra	21	568	395	173	30.4
Madras	25	625	446	179	28.6
Mysore	25	536	422	108	20.1
Orissa	6	144	78	66	45.8
Punjab	10	155	72	83	53.5
Rajasthan	6	114	95	19	16.7
Uttar Pradesh	30	489	289	200	40.9
West Bengal	21	575	367	205	35.8
Union Territories					
Manipur	1	13	8	5	38.5
Tripura	1	20	8	12	60.0
Pondicherry	1	40	30	10	25.0
Himachal Pradesh	1	15	13	2	13.3
All India	221	5,529	3,803	1,727	31.2

Source : Survey of Technical Education carried out by the Ministry of Education in December 1963.

It is necessary that the social and economic status of teachers should be raised. The salary scales of engineering teachers have been revised on the recommendations of the All India Council for Technical Education. The All India Council for Technical Education has also recommended that the number of posts at the level of Professors and Assistant Professors should be in the ratio of 1 : 1 to the number of lecturers and associate lecturers. Other facilities like housing, travel grants, publications and research should also be offered.

(b) *Wastage in Technical Institutions*—The over-all pass percentage at the degree stage in engineering and technological institutions in 1954 was 79.0%. In 1964 i.e. 10 years later it declined to 76.2%. In the case of diploma institutions, nearly 40% of the polytechnics had a wastage rate of above 30%. In some cases, almost half of the students failed to qualify.

(c) *Lack of Practical Training*—The academic preparation of the engineering students is generally at par with that of the students in the advanced countries but there is much room for improvement in the organisation of practical training. In this connection, the remarks made by Sir Willis Jackson, who visited India in 1966 are relevant. He said: "At the professional level, the academic preparation and the analytical faculties of the Indian students were comparable to those in advanced countries but they lacked industrial practice. Under-graduate courses needed to be supplemented so that the graduate should be prepared to carry professional responsibility. This could be done under a programme of planned practical training in industry either informally or formally. How this is to be arranged during the present period of transition when industrial units are not fully developed, needs to be further examined."

It is also necessary that there should be closer cooperation between the industry and educational institutions. Industries should consider themselves as a part of the system of training of engineers. In the U. K. this has been provided for under the Industrial Training Act passed recently which covers all levels of personnel including managerial. Even the nationalised industries accept the obligations under the Act except to the extent that are not subject to the levy for the purpose. To quote Sir Willis Jackson again: "In India, beginning should be made with the enterprises in the public sector. The practising engineers should consider it an integral part of their professional duties to sponsor and initiate new graduates to the profession. They should take up the responsibility for training the fresh graduates in employment. The scheme for the purpose which was implemented by the Heavy Electrical Project, Bhopal proved to be successful and needed to be extended."

At the Diploma level much has yet to be done to relate the courses more closely to the needs of industry and public services. It is considered necessary that there should be diversification of training facilities at this

level to cover the entire range of technicians' functions. Unless the graduates from engineering colleges and polytechnics are able to meet the man-power demands appropriate to their level of responsibility, the large-scale investment made in the plans for technical education would not give full economic return.

(d) *Rationalisation of Engineer/Technician Ratio*—Another deficiency in the operation of technical personnel is the employment of engineering graduates where the real need is for technicians. The ratio of diploma holders to graduates in the total pool of engineering man-power is only 1.4 to 1. This is considerably lower than the ratio of engineers to technicians in advanced countries like England (1 : 3.7), U.S.A. (1 : 4.2), France (1 : 3.7). It has been suggested that steps should be taken to rationalise the ratio between engineers and technicians so that waste of effort could be avoided.

(e) *Unemployment amongst the engineers*—Recently there have been reports of an abnormal increase in the unemployment amongst engineers—degree holders as well as diploma holders. The number of engineering graduates on the live registers of the Employment Exchanges shows a rising trend. Table 6.9 explains the position :

TABLE 6.9

**NUMBER OF ENGINEERING GRADUATS ON THE LIVE
REGISTERS OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES**

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Engg. graduates on the live register of Emp. Exch. as on 31.12.65</i>	<i>Increase over previous year</i>
1962	1676	—
1963	1758	82
1964	2175	417
1965	3426	1251

Notwithstanding the fact that the Employment Exchange registers do not tell the whole story, and that much of the unemployed registered with the Exchanges may be due to 'frictional' unemployment or those desirous of improving their job position, it may be safely assumed that the unemployment amongst the engineering personnel is on the increase

and the future expansion of technical education institutions has to take note of this unfortunate trend.

(f) *Duration of Courses*—The duration of courses in engineering for the first degree is considerably different from State to State. Table 6.10 compiled by the Education Commission explains the position :

TABLE 6.10
DIFFERENCES IN DURATION OF COURSES AND MINIMUM QUALIFICATIONS

<i>No. of Institutions</i>	<i>Duration of Courses</i>	<i>Minimum qualification</i>
90	5 years	Higher secondary or equivalent
31	4 years	I.Sc.
7	3 years	B.Sc.
4	3 years	I.Sc.

Since the training of technical personnel is to be planned on an all India basis, it is necessary that the duration and the contents of the courses should be more or less similar in all institutions so that it may allow for the mobility of students and teachers. As recommended by the Education Commission, "ordinarily for engineering degree, a minimum of 5 years of engineering education after completion of the present higher secondary stage of 11 years or its equivalent is essential. This includes the time spent to acquire production experiences in industry. This may be reduced to 4 years after the Intermediate or its equivalent. But we do not at all favour courses of 3 years duration after I.Sc. because it hardly seems to be possible, except with enormous strain on the students, to attain the required standards therein..... As a general recommendation, we urge that all institutions not conforming to the prescribed standards should be improved or converted into Institutions training technicians, or closed."

(g) *Post-graduate courses*—There has been considerable expansion of facilities at the post-graduate stage, since 1947. The total enrolment in 1965-66 was about 2000 with facilities offered in about 41 institutions. Of these 41 centres, only 7 centres offered facilities for research work leading to Ph.D. with an intake capacity of 125. The total staff of post-graduates in engineering technology was estimated to be around 4,000 in 1964.

It is necessary that the post-graduate courses should be made problem oriented which would necessitate that the admission requirement in post-graduate courses should include among others some experience in industry. The Education Commission have also recommended that selected institutions should be encouraged to organise, in cooperation with national laboratories, research institutions and industries, one or two years post-graduate courses leading to a degree.

It is also necessary that post-graduate and research facilities should be made available in certain newer disciplines. The subjects suggested are : industrial engineering and management, automobile engineering, fluid motion technology, rocket technology, materials science, operational research, automation, radar engineering, welding technology, highway and traffic engineering, hydrology, marine engineering, instruments technology and so on.

(h) *Correspondence Courses*—The idea of education through correspondence courses has been gaining ground since the USSR supplemented its institutional training programme by education through correspondence. The correspondence courses have been widely used in the training of technical personnel in the USA, USSR, Sweden, Australia and Japan. It is necessary that in India also, this method should be tried to train the engineering personnel on a large scale. This can best be employed for those who are already in employment. The Education Commission has also recommended that education through correspondence should be launched in India. The Commission says “The possibilities, however, in this type of training through correspondence are so many and the capital cost involved, if proper planning is undertaken, so small, that we recommend that an immediate beginning be made to develop a wide range of vocational and technical courses through this media.”

It may be mentioned that in the Fourth Plan, it has been provided that education through correspondence should be made available to about 1000 new entrants.

Conclusion

It is difficult to give a comprehensive description of the various facets of technical education. At best, only a very selective approach to the analysis of the variegated problems facing this important aspect of education can be attempted. One thing would clearly emerge from a perusal of the progress made during the last twenty years that while quantitatively our achievements in technical education are not insignificant, qualitatively, there is considerable room for improvement. Knowing that quality of the nation building activities, including the security of the

country is so intimately dependent upon the quality of the technically trained personnel, any delay in removing the deficiencies of the system and improving its potential would only be at our peril. Can we afford this risk ?



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ADULT EL

A review of adult education in India should be preceded by some cobweb cleaning. The confusion around use of terminology which reflects in turn bemuddled programme objectives. Ambiguous terms such as adult education, social education, fundamental education, basic education, primary education, and community education are being used in the literature.

Meaning of Adult Education

In India the controversy has centred around two terms : adult education and social education. The phrase "adult education" had been used ever since the last quarter of the 19th century when adult education work was begun in India. We picked up the new phrase "social education" in 1948 and this later on got official recognition and considerable currency. "Social education" was supposed to be a concept wider than the concept of adult education. In the words of the Standing Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Social Education :

What emerged from this line of thought was a comprehensive concept of Adult Education. It included elements of education for democracy, citizenship and health, and education for desirable social change. This comprehensive concept of Adult Education was called Social education for the reason that the emphasis was on the social aspects of education.¹

We have since gone full circle and the phrase "adult education" is back in use again. The department of "social education" in the National Council of Educational Research and Training is now called the Department of Adult Education. This is indicative of the change that has since occurred. The authors of this paper share the views of the Mount Abu Conference on Adult Education :

...That the term "Social Education" which had received official recognition in 1948, should be replaced by "Adult Education." The latter would be better understood and was also a term accepted by such international organizations as UNESCO and by many countries.²

By adult education we mean here all organized and purposeful educational activities voluntarily undertaken and generally part-time which take place outside the usual formal system of education and which are

ocialization through the family of Adult Education would differ from one culture to another culture. This is a very important component of all adult education. A historical and analytical review of the last twenty years, that is presented here, will show the evolution of activities undertaken under the leadership of the workers and farmers and the development of the Adult Education scene in India—the corresponding adult education.

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At the time of independence an Indian adult educator could take inspiration from a number of the things that had already happened in Indian adult education. He could draw inspiration from the work of people like K. M. M. in Bengal, Visvesaraya in Mysore, Saiyad Mahmood in Bihar, C. Rajagopalacharya in Madras, B.G. Kher in Maharashtra, and Mahatma Gandhi at Sevagram. Experiences from projects like F.L. Brayne's Gurgaon Project (1920), and Spencer Match's Martandom Project (1928) were already available. The great institutions of adult education such as the Bengal Social Service League (1915), Jamia Millia Islamia (1925), Bombay City Social Education Committee (1934), the Indian Adult Education Association (1939), and the Mysore State Adult Education Council (1941), had all come into being and did pioneering work in the cause of adult education in India.

On the other hand on Independence-eve only 12 per cent of the population was literate. Illiteracy among rural people and among women was even more acute. Workers and farmers, the two most productive sectors of Indian economy showed depressing illiteracy rates. Adult education was outside the stream of education and public instruction in India. No college or university was doing any extension work and no teacher training college offered specialization in the concept and methods of adult education. The job of making about 200 million adults literate was one of unmanageable proportions. The new voter had to be given knowledge in citizenship, health and hygiene. The community at large had to be given skills needed for living as independent individuals, who made decisions that touched their own homes, and fields and their shape of the world in which their children would grow up.

The history of the next twenty years of adult education in India between 1947 and 1966, can be described in terms of India's Five Year Plans. There are some important reasons why the history of adult education should be described in terms of the Plans. Adult education in the last two decades was mainly a Governmental effort and depended heavily,

almost exclusively, on the financial commitments and related decisions made in the context of the Plans. Planning has been indeed the most important fact of economic, social and educational life in India during the period and adult education particularly responded to the fortunes of economic planning in the area of agriculture and defence.

The Pre-Plan Period (1947-1951)³

The years of the pre-plan period may be described as "Years of Exploration."⁴ The tone was set by Shri Mohanlal Saxena Sub-Committee appointed by the Central Advisory Board of Education at its 14th annual meeting in 1948. This Sub-Committee emphasised the need for general education of the common masses, provision of funds in State budgets for adult education work and removal of 50% illiteracy in five years. These recommendations were accepted by the Provincial Education Ministers Meeting in February, 1949 and implemented in various forms and to various degrees.⁵ Many a new ideas were given trial and many a new paths were forged. In Bihar literacy and adult education were linked with the formal educational system and school teachers and school librarians were given adult education responsibilities. West Bengal emphasised spread of adult education through the idiom of the people, that is, through folk plays, folk songs and *bhajan mandalies*. It was putting new meanings in old forms. Madras under the Firka Development scheme mobilised teachers and youth leaders for adult education work. The Etawah Pilot Project was tried in Uttar Pradesh. Mysore State Adult Education Council established libraries, and Madhya Pradesh and Jamia Millia, Delhi did very useful work in the production of graded materials for neo-literates. Elaborate audio-visual complexes called the "Caravan of Knowledge" consisting of cinema, exhibition, and drama vans were introduced in Delhi.

The Central Film Library, now part of the National Council of Educational Research and Training also came up at Delhi. Janata Colleges for training village youth for life in the villages were set up all over the country. Mysore set up Vidya-peeths on the pattern of the Danish Folk High Schools. The Delhi Public Library with mobile units for the village readers came into being through collaboration with UNESCO in Delhi in 1951. The Department of Extra-Mural Studies was set up by the Poona University. This as any one can see shows considerable experimentation and a great spurt of activity. In terms of statistics some 5,00,000 pupils participated in 2,000 literacy classes in the country during these years, not including the army personnel who had their own literacy programmes. About 4,500 Community Centres were running in the country doing social education work in the villages. The financial commitment during the period was of the order of 3.25 crores.

The First Five-Year Plan (1951-56)

The most important fact of this period was the launching of the Community Development programme in 1952. Social education was defined as "community uplift through community action" or the educational process responsible for community development and attempt made to absorb it into the Community Development administration of the Centre and the States. This was the beginning of a duality in responsibility between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Community Development which later resulted in much confusion. Two social education organizers, one man and one woman, were posted in each Block to take charge of the social education work which included literacy drives, establishment of village libraries, organization of cultural and recreational programmes, of exhibitions, youth activities, radio forums and community centres.

A very important institution Literacy House which was to play a pioneering role in the area of adult education and literacy came into being at Allahabad in 1953 and later moved to a new campus in Lucknow where it is now situated. Five Social Education Organizers' Training Centres were established to train social education personnel at the Block level.

This plan saw the opening of 63,000 community centres, 450 school-cum-community centres, and 55,000 youth clubs. About one hundred district libraries were set up and 32,000 rural libraries were operating in the country at the end of the Plan. The national commitment to adult education during the Second Five-Year Plan period was of the extent of Rupees five crores.

Professional attention was given to two very important aspects of adult education programmes. In 1951 the Ministry of Education called a meeting of social education workers in New Delhi to bring to their attention the need for producing specially written material for the new literates and the Indian Adult Education Association seminar in 1953 directed its attention to the role of libraries in social education.

The Second Five-Year Plan (1956-1961)

The Second Five Year Plan began on a more optimistic note. As compared with an outlay of Rs. 5 crores in the first Five Year Plan the Second Plan provided Rupees 15 crores for social education work in India.

This plan period also saw further institutionalization of adult education work in the country. The National Fundamental Education Centre for training district level social education personnel came into being in 1956. Eight more Social Education Organizers' Training Centres were opened and the Library Institute came up in Delhi University in 1958 to train librarians for the district libraries to be set up in the country during the Plans. Production of literature for neo-literates got further fillip and



the National Book Trust was established to bring out good books for the general and the new reading public. A very significant addition to the adult education movement around this period was the coming of the paperback book to the new reading public. Another significant addition was the social use of mass media like the film and the radio. The Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting began to make its contribution to adult education movement in India. Rural broadcasts were improved and community radio sets were installed to make radio as the medium of mass education.

In 1956 a study of radio farm forums in Poona region proved the effectiveness of radio as an instrument of adult education,⁶ giving confidence in the plans for making radio as an instrument of education. By the end of 1964, 10,000 radio rural forums were working and by the end of the third Five Year Plan it was proposed to have 25,000 such forums.

The All India Radio began to extend the forum technique to industrial workers and women. By March, 1963, 93 industrial labour forums and 1952 listening clubs for women had been formed. In 1960 an experimental TV set up was also installed in Delhi for use by the farmers which again proved effective. Radio and TV should be considered the bright lights on the horizon of adult education during the coming years.

Two sectors of population that got special attention during this plan period were women's programmes through the Central Social Welfare Board and the establishment of Workers' Education Centres. The Central Board for Workers Education was set up in 1958 under the Ministry of Labour and Employment under the Directorate General of Employment and Training. The various training institutes provided 2700 seats under the apprenticeship scheme and 2100 seats under the scheme of evening classes to industrial workers. Later under the third Plan the number was increased to 11,750 under the apprenticeship scheme and 9,150 under the evening classes.

Under the women's programme perhaps the most significant scheme was women's condensed course which provided needy women opportunities to complete Elementary or High School education to give them a new break in life. The scheme was operated under the auspices of the Central Social Welfare Board and during the second Plan period 216 condensed courses were started in 14 States and three Union Territories. A total expenditure of Rs. 26.08 lakhs was incurred on the scheme. At the beginning of the third Plan 272 condensed courses were operating.

In 1960 the first step was taken to take the university to the community. The University Grants Commission sanctioned a scheme for extension lectures by university professors and by 1963 ten universities were availing of this facility.

The total number of adult literacy centres started during the period of this plan was 1,62,600 and the number of adults made literate was around 40,54,530. The number of reading rooms operating during the plan was 15,326; 8,95,700 young men attended youth clubs; 18,487 Mahila Mandals had 2,63,800 members; and 8,93,092 Gram Sahayak camps were organised.

In spite of all the adults made literate the percentage of literate persons increased only by 7 per cent in ten years. Table 7.1 makes this point clearly evident. In absolute numbers we had 20 million more illiterates in our hands, the illiterate population having swelled from 248 million in 1951 to 269 million in 1961.

TABLE 7.1
LITERACY PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND
FEMALES IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

		Percentage		
		Total	Rural	Urban
1		2	3	4
1951 Census	{ All persons	16.6	11.8	34.6
	{ Males	24.9	19.0	45.0
	{ Females	7.9	4.9	22.3
1961 Census	{ All persons	24.0	19.0	47.0
	{ Males	34.4	29.0	57.6
	{ Females	12.9	8.5	34.6

Source : S.N. Saraf *Technical Paper on Adult Education and volunteers* (New Delhi : Planning Commission, 1967), p. 10.

The total expenditure incurred during the Plan period is estimated at Rs. 9.85 crores out of a total allocation of Rs. 15.00 crores. An unfortunate development for adult education movement in India was the coming of Panchayati Raj in India in 1959 otherwise a happy step towards democratic decentralization. With the coming of this programme the Social Education Organizer in the Block was given the additional duties of looking after panchayats and through the Gresham's Law he was sucked completely into routine and administrative duties involved in the supervision of panchayats. Social education work was completely neglected. This administrative arrangement marks the beginning of the end of social education in community development which itself has not been able to retain good health.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66)

The Third Five Year Plan saw aggression on India's borders, devaluation of the rupee and food shortage in the country. The country woke up with the rude shock that community development had failed to deal with the most important of the problems of development of the country, that is, to become self-sufficient in food. With characteristic emphasis on crash programmes in Indian planning it was decided to put all available effort into producing more food. Adult Education was the first casualty. New job cards were written up for all adult education personnel everywhere in the country and adult education was buried with no signs of sorrow. While the plan had started with an outlay of Rs. 44 crores it is not yet known how much of it was actually spent and whether the expenditure shown against adult education was really spent on bona-fide adult education work.

The plan is not completely barren. Even as adult education went downhill it made some new beginnings. Correspondence courses were started by Delhi University in 1962. The Universities of Mysore, Poona and Rajasthan set up Adult Education Departments. The Indian University Adult Education Association also came into being. Literacy among industrial workers got the special attention of Government and a Panel for Literacy among Industrial Workers was set up by the Planning Commission in 1964 which submitted its report the same year bringing to the attention of educators the need for a Central agency to look after literacy among industrial workers for effective programme planning, production of suitable reading materials, provision of libraries and the need to provide monetary incentives to literate industrial workers.⁷

In the area of literacy a highly production-oriented slant to literacy work came to be accepted. Functional literacy became fashionable. By functional literacy is meant .

.....the ability to read fluently, to participate intelligently in discussion and to know the three R's equivalent to the standard of primary schooling. Functional literacy is something which enables a man not only to carry on his particular occupation more efficiently, but also to live more fully, in close and dynamic relationship with every aspect of his environment.

Food being the most acute deprivation of Indian communities functional literacy has got connected with more food production.

Figures for adults made literate, libraries opened, community centres, youth camps, and radio farm forums established during the Plan are not available. However, it is estimated that the percentage of literacy will rise

from 24 in 1960-61 to about 30 in 1965-66. With the increasing population rates the number of illiterates at the end of the third Plan may still be 344 million, 145 million out of these in the 15-44 age group.⁸

The Education Commission (1964-66) was unduly optimistic when it recommended the liquidation of 80 per cent illiteracy in India by 1976; provision on a national basis of part-time education to young children dropping out of school; and continuing education through correspondence courses by all types and grades of educational institutions. They were, however, more realistic in their recommendation of the selective approach whereby programmes could "be adopted for specified groups of adults which could be easily identified, controlled and motivated for intensive literacy work."⁹ The Commission recommended that we cover only 96.48 million illiterate people in the age group 15-44 which constituted our major work force. The Commission also made an excellent suggestion when they recommended using all available educated men and women in the country for literacy work in under-privileged communities.

The Planning Commission as recently as the last quarter of 1966 was talking of Rupees 71 crores on literacy and adult education programmes in the fourth Five Year Plan. At the time of writing we are talking of merely Rs. 17 crores. Adult educators are advising each other to bide time. We are back in the era of pilot projects which means no possibility of concerted, consistent, and sufficient effort in literacy and adult education during the next few years. Perhaps the Indian economy as it is to day simply cannot bear the weight of universal adult literacy. Perhaps the only way to universal literacy in India lies in the future through the work of universal elementary education supported by extensive use of mass media such as the film, the radio and the TV for bringing new information and ideas to the village people that often times are not even our contemporaries. While literacy skills are unavailable to these people radio literacy and film literacy may do the job of making them absorb ideas, become empathetic and change-prone.

Conclusion

The foregoing details of the progress of adult education in India since 1947 provide the basis on which some generalizations can be made about this twenty years period of the history of adult education in free India.

The last twenty years of adult education present a history of brave words, and poor political and financial commitments. Some great ideas were advanced. Education was understood as investment, and literacy as a generative function of change and progress. Ideas were, however, unmatched by action. Unrealistic hopes brought frustration in the wake. The economy of scarcity could not provide the funds needed for the endeavour. Work in the different States was uneven with Delhi and Kerala leading and Rajasthan, Bihar, and Jammu and Kashmir trailing

behind every other State and Union Territory. Political events on the international borders, devaluation of the Indian rupee and food scarcity all took their toll. It was one step forwards with one step backwards. What was done in the First and Second Five Year Plans was terminated in the midst of the Third. The programme remained a Governmental programme with very little voluntary action in the field. The landscape today shows lots of ruins, some green spots here and there with some half-hearted literacy work in pilot project areas in places across the country. Part of the misfortune of adult education lay in dysfunctional administrative pattern and constant department rivalries.



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WOMEN EDUCATION

The education of women never progressed so rapidly as in the post-independent India. Although the history of women's education begins right from the Vedic period, the earliest time known to us, credit goes to the western missionaries for starting modern types of schools for the girls in early nineteenth century. Indianisation of education in 1921 and provincial autonomy in 1937 gave impetus to the education of girls and women. The general awakening of the people on account of the political struggle, the Second World War, rise in the age of marriage due to social and economic pressure, influence of Mahatma Gandhi and the efforts of different women's organisations were some of the other important factors which led to the growth of education among women. The most important of all events in the history of women's education in India is the dawn of Independence. The period onward up to 1966 is full of programmes and activities.

The University Education Commission Report (1948-49)

The University Education Commission appointed in 1948 under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, the first commission appointed after Independence, emphasised the importance of women's education in India. "There" the Commission observed, "cannot be an educated people without educated women. If general education had to be limited to men or to women, that opportunity should be given to women, for then it would most surely be passed on to the next generation."¹ While writing that women were fitted to carry on the same academic work as men, the Commission put more emphasis on the education of women as women. It should include practical laboratory experience in the care of a home and family. The Commission suggested special courses for women such as home science, economics, nursing, teaching and fine arts.

Constitutional Provisions

With the inauguration of the new democratic Constitution on 26th January, 1950, declaring India a sovereign democratic republic, fundamental rights were bestowed on all citizens. The Constitution lays down some targets which have great educational significance. Some of them are :

Article 15. The State shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them.

Article 16. No citizen shall, on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, descent, place of birth, residence or any of them, be uneligible for, or discriminated against in respect of any employment or office under the State.

Article 45. The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.²

This led to a general quickening of political and social consciousness among women. But the emergence of middle class women from the four walls of their homes was a significant feature of this period. Since Independence many women have occupied some of the highest offices in India and abroad. The election of Smt. Vijay Lakshmi Pandit as the President of the United Nations in 1953, that of Rajkumari Amrit Kaur as President of the World Health Organisation in 1950, and the election of Smt. Indira Gandhi, as the Prime Minister of India in 1966, are some of the glaring examples.

First-Five Year Plan (1951-56)

Shortly after 1947, India felt the need of planning its future development. Accordingly a Planning Commission was set up "(1) to make an assessment of the material, capital and human resources of the country, including technical personnel and investigate the possibilities of augmenting such of these resources as are found to be deficient in relation to nation's requirements; (2) formulate a Plan for the most effective and balanced utilisation of the country's resources."³ The Commission made certain observations as regards women's education. Whereas women constituted nearly half of the population, the girl pupils in the primary, middle and high school stages in 1949-50 were only 28, 18 and 13 per cent respectively of the total number of pupils. The percentage of women students in universities and colleges represented 10.4 per cent of the total enrolment. Large wastage occurred at different stages of education. There was a great dearth of women teachers.

The Planning Commission fixed certain targets to be reached after the completion of the First Five Year Plan period. The percentage of girls of the school going age (6-11) attending schools should go up from 23.3 per cent in 1950-51 to 40 per cent in 1955-56. The percentage of girls at the secondary stage should go up to 10 per cent. In the field of social education atleast 10 per cent of women of the age group 14-40 should receive education in the wider sense of the term. The Planning Commission considered the needs of different age-groups and of those girls who could not continue their studies due to social and economic conditions. Along with prescribing subjects which are essential for discharging household

duties, the Commission proposed to equip women to take up employment. It sought the co-operation of different social worker's organisations for undertaking propaganda work to educate parents to the need of educating their daughters.

With the completion of the first Plan the educational facilities improved considerably. The number of girls institutions and their enrolment increased. But the rate of progress could not match the hopes and the expectations. The target fixed for (6-11) age group could reach only 33 per cent instead of 40. Similar was the case at other stages also.

The Secondary Education Commission Report (1952-53)

During the first Plan period another Commission was set up under the chairmanship of Dr. A. Lakshmanswami Mudaliar to examine the prevailing system of Secondary Education and to suggest measures for its reorganisation and improvement. One of the main defects of the existing system of Secondary Education was, that the special needs of girls were not taken into consideration. The Commission expressed the view that "every type of education open to men should also be open to women."⁴ While suggesting the improvement of home science teaching in schools, it added that it was "not necessarily with the idea that a woman's place is restricted to the home, but because it is essential that she should be educated to fulfil a two-fold duty to the family and society."⁵

Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)

The Second Five Year Plan gave a larger emphasis among other things to the provision of larger opportunities for education of girls and women. It was found that during the first Plan period, the education of girls and women could not compare well with the education of boys and men in all the age-groups. The second Plan observed that special efforts at educating parents, combined with efforts to make education more closely related to the needs of the girls were needed.

The task of training women teachers had to be approached as a matter of urgency, since the shortage of women teachers was one of the main obstacles in the progress of women's education. The provision for better housing facilities for women teachers in villages and opportunities for part-time employment could be useful steps in this direction. Special scholarships scheme was recommended for girls to take up different courses such as nurses, health visitors, teachers and so on. There was great disparity between the literacy of men and women. The second Plan suggested the establishment of fundamental education centres for training social education organisers, in addition to national extension and community development programmes. Though the proposals of the second Plan applied equally to the education of men and women at all the stages, special measures were suggested for increasing the enrolment of girls and

the number of women teachers. In 1957-58 a Centrally sponsored scheme was introduced to accelerate the enrolment of girls in primary schools. Under this scheme assistance was given to the different State governments, for one or more of the following schemes :

- (1) Free accommodation for women teachers in rural areas.
- (2) Appointment of school mothers.
- (3) Condensed courses for adult women.
- (4) Stipends for women teachers for teacher's training.
- (5) Refresher courses.
- (6) Stipends for high school students to take up teaching.
- (7) Attendance Scholarships.
- (8) Exemption from tuition fees.
- (9) Construction of hostels for secondary schools for girls.

As a result, the enrolment of girls exceeded the estimated target fixed for the second Plan period, at all the stages. In the field of higher education, among a number of important development projects, was that of Home Science Education and Research under the Indo-United States Technical Co-operation Programme. Intensive literacy campaigns were also organised. In 1960-61 there were 301077 women on roll in adult centres.

National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59)

One of the chief features of the post-independence period was the enquiry into the special problems of girls' and women's education. A National Committee on Women's Education was set up by the Government of India on 19 May, 1958 under the chairmanship of Smt. Durgabai Deshmukh. The terms of reference of the Committee were : to suggest special measures to make up the lee-way in women's education ; to examine the problem of wastage and adult education ; to survey the nature and extent of material and other facilities offered by voluntary welfare organisations ; and to examine the possibility and methods of encouraging a larger number of women to go into vocational trades by providing suitable vocational training. After painstaking efforts and detailed study the Committee submitted its report in January, 1959. The Committee made valuable recommendations. A few of the recommendations are as follows :

1. The education of women should be regarded as a major and a special problem in Education for a good many years to come and a bold and determined effort should be made to face its difficulties and magnitude and to close the existing gap between the education of men and women in as short a time as possible.
2. The highest priority should be given to schemes prepared from this point of view and the funds required for the purpose should be

considered to be the first charge on the sums set aside for the development of education.

4. Steps should be taken to constitute as early as possible a National Council for the Education of Girls and Women.

5. The problem of the education of women is so vital and of such great national significance that it is absolutely necessary for the Centre to assume more responsibility for its rapid development.

6. There should be a senior officer of the rank of Joint Educational Adviser at the Centre to look after the education of girls and women.⁶

A similar arrangement was suggested for the States. The Committee sought the co-operation of the government, non-official organisations, local bodies, voluntary organisations, teachers' organisations and members of public in the promotion of women's education at all stages.

7. The Planning Commission should set up a permanent machinery to estimate, as accurately as possible, the woman-power requirements of the Plans from time to time and make the results of its studies available to Government and the public.

8. The Government should set up, as early as possible, a high power Committee to examine the so-called wastage in the medical and professional education of women.⁷

The Committee suggested measures to be adopted at different age groups along with suitable hostel facilities, free and subsidised transport, effective guidance service and provision of a number of scholarships. Identical curriculum for boys and girls at the primary stage with the proviso for music, painting, sewing and needle-work and at the Secondary stage a number of elective subjects were proposed by the Committee. Special emphasis was laid on increasing the output of women teachers. The Government was advised to undertake a thorough study of the vocational training needs and employment opportunities for women and to provide seats in existing training institutions or open new ones. Vocational guidance service should be organised on a wider scale. The National Committee made recommendations about the role of voluntary organisations, special educational facilities for adult women, organisation, administration and finance also. To reduce wastage and stagnation, the National Committee gave very useful suggestions by way of improving the quality of education, provision of free books, educational equipment and even clothings to the girls, adjustment of school hours to the needs of the local conditions and enforcement of child marriage prevention law, and compulsory education laws. Similar other important recommendations were made by the National Committee.

This was the first Committee ever appointed to examine in detail the problems of women's education. There cannot be two opinions as to the appropriateness of the recommendations. But their financial implications are not easy to meet. Still many of them were put into practice. The National Council for Women's Education was set-up in 1959 with State councils in the States, to advise the Government on the problems of women's education at all levels. A special unit has been created in the Ministry of Education for this purpose.

Third Five Year Plan (1961-66)

The authors of the Third Five Year Plan had in mind the fact that a very big gap still existed between the proportion of boys and girls attending school. While 80.5 per cent of boys in the six to eleven age group, attended schools, the percentage of girls in this age group attending school was only 40.4 per cent in 1960-61. Among the different States the proportion was below average in Rajasthan (15 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (20 per cent), Jammu and Kashmir (21 per cent), Madhya Pradesh (19 per cent), Bihar (27 per cent), Orissa (24 per cent) and Punjab (36 per cent). The proposals in the third Plan were made mainly on the lines suggested by the National Committee on Women's Education. The third Plan also proposed to take additional steps to enlarge the supply of women teachers and attracting them to services in rural areas. In backward areas, educational institutions were to be so located that almost every child could go to a school within easy walking distance from her home. In view of the importance of the programme for extending education to all children in the age group six to eleven, it was made clear in the third Plan that financial considerations should not stand in the way of its execution in any State.

The Third Plan emphasised the need for the introduction of local community efforts in the form of the organisation of enrolment drives, persuading parents to send girls to the school, the construction of school buildings and provision of additional equipment and furniture for schools and mid-day meals and free clothing for poorer children. The most important objective of the third Plan was to expand facilities for the education of girls at various stages and to increase the proportion of women students in colleges and universities, to take up different occupations. The third Plan sought to continue the liberal assistance for women's colleges and hostels and courses of special interest to women such as home science, music, drawing, painting and the like. In order to encourage women students, special scholarships were further provided.

A proposal for setting up an institute for training women in organisation, administration and management was under consideration. Special emphasis was laid on creating suitable conditions for encouraging parents

to send their daughters to schools and educating public opinion. To help overcome inadequate supply of women teachers, it was proposed to select promising students at the post-matriculation stage and assist them with scholarships and stipends through the entire period of training, with prospects of assured employment. In return they were to be under an obligation to serve for a prescribed period.

Report of the Indian Education Commission (1964-66)

During the Third Plan period an Education Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari on 14th July, 1964 to consider the development of the entire educational system and to formulate a national system of education. The approaches of the Commissions and Committees prior to this, though useful in their own way, were piecemeal. The Education Commission was unique also in the sense that some eminent scientists and educationists from U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R., France and Japan were associated with it.

As regards the education of girls and women, the Commission pointed out that "the significance of the education of girls cannot be over emphasised. For full development of our human resources, the improvement of homes, and for moulding the character of children during the most impressionable years of infancy, the education of women is of even greater importance than that of men ... In the struggle for freedom, Indian women fought side by side with men. This equal partnership will have to continue in the fight against hunger, poverty, ignorance and ill health."⁸ The Commission fully endorsed the recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education on special programmes for Women's Education, educating public opinion, popularising mixed primary schools, providing free books and the like to the girls, expansion of Secondary Education among girls, part-time and vocational education for girls, programmes of scholarship and financial assistance, setting up of a special machinery in the Central Government and the States, to look after girls' and Women's Education and the employment of women teachers.

On the issue of differentiation of curriculum for boys and girls the Education Commission endorsed the recommendations of the Committee on Differentiation of Curricula between Boys and Girls, appointed by the National Council for Women's Education under the chairmanship of Smt. Hansa Mehta. According to this Committee, education should be related to individual capacities, aptitudes and interest, which are not strictly related to sex. Hence there is no need to differentiate the curricula on the basis of sex. Girls should, rather, be encouraged to study science and mathematics and at higher stages should have free access to all types of courses. The Commission suggested that one or two universities should set-up research units to deal especially with women's education. These should take

follow up studies of educated women, consider women's education from the point of view of employment opportunities available to women and ensure proper planning of women's education particularly at the stage of higher education.

Progress of Women's Education

A steady rate of expansion continued in education during the third Plan period. It is estimated that the target of training 9·84 million more girls of six to fourteen age group to schools may have been exceeded by the end of the Plan. Table⁹ 8.1 shows the enrolment at the elementary stage of education,

TABLE 8.1

ENROLMENT AT THE ELEMENTARY STAGE

<i>Enrolment in classes</i>	<i>1960-61 positions</i>	<i>1961-66 Target</i>	<i>1965-66 Enrolment</i>	<i>1965-66 (2+4)</i>
I to V				
Total	34·99	15·30	16·98	51·97
Girls	11·40	8·58	8·47	19·87
VI to VIII				
Total	6·71	3·46	4·27	10·98
Girls	1·63	1·28	1·38	3·01

Similar expansion is estimated at the secondary, college and university stage. Table 8.2 shows the enrolment of girls during the three Plan periods.

As compared to the beginning of the nineteenth century when there was almost no provision of education in the modern sense of the term, the development of education as shown in Table 8.2 is phenomenal. Even if we take only the period during three Plans, the rate of expansion has been very fast, even faster than that of the boys. The number of girls for every 100 boys enrolled has risen considerably at all the stages except in vocational courses of school standard.

The enrolment of girls at the lower primary stage has risen more than three times and at the middle, secondary and university stages, almost six times. In the professional courses it rose ten times. The increase in the percentage of girls in the boys' institutions shows that social barriers are becoming 'less effective'. During this period equal importance has been given to the qualitative improvement by way of improving the quality of the teachers, teaching methods and text-books. Attempts have been made to provide mid-day meals, better buildings and equipments in the schools. Efforts have been made to-

TABLE 8.2

ENROLMENT OF GIRLS IN THE THREE PLAN PERIOD

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 <i>estimated</i>
	1	2	3	4
1. Enrolment of Girls in classes I-V				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	5,385	7,639	11,401	18,145
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	39	44	48	55
Percentage of girls in schools for boys	74.8	79.2	82.1	85.0
2. Enrolment of girls in classes VI-VIII				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	534	867	1,630	2,839
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	21	25	32	35
Percentage of girls in schools for boys	26.7	51.8	68.9	78.0
3. Enrolment of girls in classes IX-XI				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	163	320	541	1,069
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	15	21	23	26
Percentage of girls in schools for boys	21.0	29.7	36.4	40.0
4. Enrolment of girls at the University stage (General Education)				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	40	84	150	271
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	14	17	23	24
Percentage of girls in boys' institutions	56.0	53.1	50.2	48.2
5. Enrolment of girls in Vocational Courses (School standard)				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	41	66	86	120
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	28	31	25	23
6. Enrolment of girls in Professional Courses (Collegeiate standard)				
Total enrolment (in 000's)	5	9	26	50
No. of girls for every 100 boys enrolled	5	7	11	14

Source : *Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66.* p. 136

provide schools in almost all the villages and to enforce compulsory primary education. Almost all the States have revised and improved their curricula. At the elementary stage an integrated curriculum which combines traditional and basic syllabi is more common. The schools now put more emphasis on co-curricular activities. Physical education has received much more attention in the post-independence period. The idea of Secondary Education being purely academic and a stepping stone to university education is being changed completely. It is being made self-sufficient and diversified. Multipurpose schools have been established to prepare children for different vocations and occupations. Educational and vocational guidance bureaux have been established in almost all the States to train guidance personnel. The Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education is also conducting a number of programmes for qualitative improvement. Large scale in-service programmes for secondary school teachers are being organised. A more liberal provision for buildings and equipments is being made. Courses of special interest to girls such as home science, nursing, cooking, drawing and pre-vocational courses have been initiated. At the higher stage, post-graduate study and research facilities are available in many scientific, industrial and technological subjects, while in the humanities and sciences they have expanded considerably. A large number of scholarships are also awarded. Women in good number, have taken advantage of these facilities.

Special Programmes

Besides the establishment of the National Council for Women's Education at the Centre, State Councils have also been established, along with the appointments of special officers for this purpose. The National Council for Women's Education closely watches the progress of Women's Education, makes recommendations to the Government from time to time and appoints committees to look into particular aspects of women's education. During March, 1964 to February, 1965 the two committees appointed by the Council (1) under the chairmanship of Shri M. Bhaktavatsalam, then Chief Minister of Madras to look into the causes of lack of public support for girls' education, particularly in rural areas and for enlisting co-operation and (2) part-time training and employment of women, submitted their reports. A Committee was appointed under the Chairmanship of Smt. Hansa Mehta to look into the problems of differentiation of curriculum for boys and girls.

In view of the directives of the Constitution of India to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of fourteen years, State governments have taken action in this direction. Primary education is now free throughout the country except for a few private schools. In many States it is free to all children of 6-14 age-group. In Rajasthan,

education is free to girls and women at all the stages. Liberal concessions have been provided in other States also. Adult literacy classes have been organised where conditions are favourable. In short, it is clear that the efforts made during the period have proved quite successful.

Some Problems of Women Education

There is the other side of the picture also. The goal set by our Constitution in 1950 to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen years within ten years of its commencement, has not been fulfilled. Even after the completion of the third Plan period, or 15 years after the commencement of the Constitution, the goal is not within sight. In the 6-14 age-group only 46·1 per cent girls were estimated to be in the schools in 1965-66. In other words, for 53·9 per cent girls of the 6-14 age group, elementary education is yet to be provided. No doubt, the extra-ordinary growth of the population has added substantially to the problem. The Plan proposals and the recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education have also not been implemented effectively. In fact, the majority of the educational administrators and workers lack the interest, spirit of dedication, of service—service to the country, service to the nation and sincerity to the duty. Most of them are not even properly trained to take up the job. There are material difficulties also. Obviously proper training of the administrative personnel is very much needed.

Great disparity exists between the education of girls and boys. While 73 per cent of boys of the 6-14 age-group were estimated to be under instruction in 1965-66, the percentage of girls was to be only 46·1. In the 14-17 age-group, percentage of boys and girls in schools was expected to be 23·7 and 6·9 respectively. Similarly while 1·37 million men were to be in higher institutions, the number of women was expected to reach only 310,000. In some States like Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa and Rajasthan, the disparity is greater between the education of boys and girls. Special measures are needed for the education of girls for some time to come, which should be vigorously enforced.

Wastage and stagnation are the most important problems of women's education, while 44 per cent of the boys admitted in class I reached, class IV, girls' percentage was only 37·5¹⁰ during 1961-62. Similarly 66·2 per cent of the girls admitted in class V reach class VII as against 75·6 per cent boys in the same year. Stagnation also is greater among girls. By improving the quality of teaching, wastage and stagnation can be checked to some extent. In the case of girls, early marriage is another hurdle which can be removed by enlightening the attitude of the parents, a task not very easy to fulfil in a short period.

The poor economic condition of the parents forces them not to send their daughters to schools. Even if they send, girls are withdrawn from the schools as soon as they are old enough to assist their over-worked mothers. The remedy lies only in improving the economic condition of the parents, through the development of small-scale industries and such other means.

Most of the schools are also poor as they lack suitable furniture, equipment and trained teachers. The dull surroundings of the schools and unpsychological methods of teaching make the schools unattractive. The conditions of schools need immediate improvement. Local efforts should be sought for this purpose.

The dearth of women teachers adds to the problem of women's education. At the lower primary stage there were estimated to be 24 women teachers against 100 men teachers in 1965-66. Similarly in the higher primary schools, there were 37 women teachers for every 100 men teachers.¹¹ In fact, women teachers make good teachers at lower primary stage and the presence of women teachers attracts more girls to the schools, and even to colleges. Hence the employment of women teachers should be encouraged at all the stages and in all sectors of education. Their pay scale and status in society also needs improvement.

Conclusion

Enough has been said on paper about the problems of women's education. After the findings and the recommendations of the University Education Commission, Secondary Education Commission, National Committee on Women's Education, the Education Commission 1964-66 and the proposals of the three Plans, nothing remains to be added to the gravity of the problems and their solution. What is now needed is action on the part of the Government and the people in general. Instead of waiting only for the Government to do every thing, combined effort of all is most imperative.

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ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

A

The new democratic polity in India, with the attainment of Independence in 1947 and the consequent promulgation of the Constitution in 1950, brought forth new meanings, new hopes, and new horizons to every social activity with every successive quinquennium. This newness has been viewed as crucial to the field of education, a prime social activity. But how could it be without a shift in corresponding values and practices? "Change in educational and social practice", opines Kefauver¹ "involves a shift of loyalties from the earlier values and practices to the new." He further reiterates, "The changing of all practices and the presentation of new ideas is a process which goes on continuously in an active democratic social group." It is against this change that this paper seeks to find and view, certain discernible trends in educational administration in India since 1947.

Educational Administration in India

The objectives of educational administration during the period of the British bureaucracy, it is surmised, were different from those of the freedom era. There was no major shift in the conception of objectives even when 'Education' was made a provincial subject in 1921 for the purposes of administration. Obviously, the educational administration needed to be geared to new conditions. The Secondary Education Commission Report (1952-53) rightly observes: "In any scheme of educational reconstruction which envisages a large scale development of educational institutions of diverse varieties, it is necessary to consider carefully the administrative machinery that should be responsible for the spread of education and for its orderly development."²

In regard to educational aspirations, Maulana Azad, the Union Education Minister addressing a Press Conference on 18.2.1947 said: "Education should have the highest priority in our national budget and should take its place immediately after food and clothing."³ It was another thing that such a pious wish could not take material shape due to several factors, such as rehabilitation of refugees, failure of crops and the like. It was learnt, however, that after we were free "a popular Government without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy or perhaps both." Saiyidain has rightly said that "an uneducated democracy swayed by random gusts of fanaticism and prejudice and invitingly responsive to the machinations of self-seeking demagogues can be even a greater menace to peace, security and happiness than to Government."⁴

It was to enable education play a dynamic role, in social and productive terms, that huge estimates, sometimes beyond the means, were made at different times. The Kher Committee, for instance, estimated an annual expenditure of Rs. 400 crores to provide cent per cent education to school-going children of 6-14 age group besides an expenditure of Rs. 200 crores for training the teachers and another Rs. 272 crores for the construction of buildings. Table 9.1 presents at a glance, increase in educational institutions, students, teachers and educational expenditure over the years.

TABLE 9.1
INCREASE IN INSTITUTIONS, STUDENTS, TEACHERS AND EXPENDITURE

Year	Number of Institutions	No. of Students on rolls in lakhs	No. of Teachers (in lakhs)	Total Expenditure in crores of Rupees
1950-51	2,86,860	2,55.43	8.04	114.38
1955-56	3,66,641	3,39.24	11.07	189.66
1960-61	4,72,362	4,78.11	15.02	335.49

Source : Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, *India—A Reference Manual 1963*, (Delhi : Publications Division, 1963). p. 67.

TABLE 9.2
EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION UNDER THE PLANS

Sub-head	Amount in crores of Rupees							
	First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan	Fourth Plan				
Elementary Education	85 (55.0)	87 (34.0)	209 (37.0)	322 (26.0)				
Secondary Education	20 (13.5)	48 (18.8)	88 (16.0)	243 (20.5)				
University Education	14 (9.0)	45 (17.6)	82 (15.0)	175 (14.5)				
Other Programmes : Social Education Physical education Youth Welfare etc., Cultural Programmes	14	28	39	217				
Total of General Education					133	208	418	1957
Outlay on Technical Education					20 (13.5)	48 (18.8)	142 (25.0)	253 (21.0)
Total Outlay on Education**					153	258	560	1210
Total outlay in each Plan	2,356	4600	7,500	16,000				
Percentage of outlay on Education to Total Outlay in the Plan.	6.5	5.6	7.5	7.5				

** Excludes resources expected to be available under the C.D. Programme and the Programme for the Welfare of Backward classes.

Figures in brackets are percentages of each sub-head to total outlay on education.

Sources : (i) *Third Five Year Plan* (ii) *Fourth Five Year Plan—a draft outline.*

The provisions for education in the four Five-Year Plans may also be seen as a challenge to the educational administrators of post-independent India. Table 9.2 summarizes the expenditure on education as under the four Plans.

The distribution of provisions in Five Year Plans can be looked in the right perspective if the demands of the society in terms of population given in Table 9.3 are properly studied.

TABLE 9.3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

<i>Age-Group</i>	<i>1961</i>		<i>1951</i>		<i>1941</i>	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
0-14	40.9	41.2	37.1	37.9	38.1	38.4
15-34	31.5	32.6	34.3	34.4	35.10	34.6
35-59	22.1	20.4	23.1	21.9	23.0	22.1
60 and above	5.5	5.8	5.5	5.8	4.9	4.9

Table 9.3 gives an idea about the children to be properly educated, forming about 40% of the total population and this reflects the challenge posed before the nation.

The Planning Commission, which is a primary body to look to such colossal challenges in their right perspective, when viewed education for the first time as a part of the total national effort, did not fail to recognise "lack of confidence in the integrity or capacity of the administrative machinery which undermines the foundations for the constructive use of the energy of the people."⁵ The same spirit was echoed five years later: "If the administrative machinery, both at the Centre and in the States, did its work with efficiency, integrity and with a sense of urgency and purpose, the success of the Second Plan would be fully assured."

The discussion that follows makes an attempt to judge as to how far the administrative machinery at the Centre, State and Local Bodies levels has responded to such urgency and purpose.

Centre and Administration of Education

In 1877, Charles Bowen, Minister of Justice in New Zealand, introducing in Parliament an Act which gave his country a National System, described the Central Department which was to be established. "The expenditure on this," he said "will be very small, because a Secretary and a clerk will probably do all the work."⁶

It was endeavoured after independence to provide a national system of education with State Governments as mainly responsible for school education. The Centre, however, could not remain isolated in the efforts to popularise education. And at the Centre simply "a secretary and a clerk could not do".

The Indian Constitution clarifies the role of the Centre in Education. The Entry 11 of List II of the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution of India makes education predominantly, a State item subject to the provisions of Entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I and Entry 25 of List III, all of which fall under the purview of the Central Government.

Besides these entries there are several other important articles in the Constitution of India which directly or indirectly enjoin upon the Central Government to take a keen interest in education and to discharge the duties as efficiently as possible. Some important articles are : Article 45, 46, 351, 382, 14, 15, 16, 17, 23, 26, 28, 29, 30 and Entry 20 of List III. In short the Constitution provides that the Central Government shall be responsible for :

- (i) All subjects included in the Union List and the Concurrent List;
- (ii) Control of education in the Union Territories;
- (iii) Programmes of social welfare;
- (iv) Coordination, collection and dissemination of educational information for the country as a whole; and
- (v) Programmes of international collaboration in education.

The foregoing description makes it evident that the framers of the Indian Constitution believed in the Aristotelian dictum : "The Constitution of a State will suffer if education is neglected". Furthermore, it enables the Centre to provide a constructive leadership in the sphere of education by way of counselling and supervising the States and controlling education in the Union Territories

(a) Ministry of Education and its Personnel

In 1947, the Department of Education got the status of a full-fledged Ministry. Till a few years after 1947 the work of the Ministry was divided into 4 Divisions : Administration and External Relations; Scholarship and Information; Technical Education; and Development and General Education. In 1951, the number of Divisions was raised to five : Administration and External Relations; General Education; Scholarships; Bureau and Development; and Technical Education. In 1961, with the increase in the functions of the Ministry, the Divisions were raised to nine and were reconstituted as : Administration, Elementary and Basic Education; University Education; Physical Education and Recreation; Hindi; Scholarships; Research and Publications (created on May 9, 1960). This position has changed since 1961. In 1966 the Ministry was reorganised into 14 Divisions and 9 units.

It is evident that with the passage of time and democracy beginning to take a firm root the Centre took interest in all the spheres of

education. The making of Research and Publication a separate Division in the Ministry only identified another important area in which the Centre could contribute.

It is also interesting to find that the Ministry of Education had also to bear the additional load of the work of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorates from the Ministry of Home Affairs since January 4, 1960 besides taking over a considerable amount of work from the Ministry of Rehabilitation.⁷

Presently, the Ministry of Education functions under the charge of an Education Minister, assisted by two Ministers of State. Several functions of the Central Government, are discharged by the Ministry of Education through its various programmes of activities by the Ministry itself and through the agency of different bodies such as U. G. C., N. C. E. R. T. and the like.

The work of the Ministry in the year 1966-67 was organised into 14 Divisions and 9 units. The Divisions are headed by Deputy Secretaries or Deputy Educational Advisers as shown in Figure 1. There are also one attached office, 22 subordinate offices and 64 autonomous organizations under its control.

In regard to the personnel, from a staff of six in 1942-43, the Department of Education had grown to 13 in 1945. When the Department was converted into the Ministry in 1947, the number of gazetted officers was 61 and on 31st March, 1952 it was 78. The Ministry of Education, jointly with the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs had a cadre of advisory officers which in 1961 consisted of 6 Deputy Educational Advisers, 25 Assistant Educational Advisers, 20 Education Officers and 7 Assistant Education Officers.

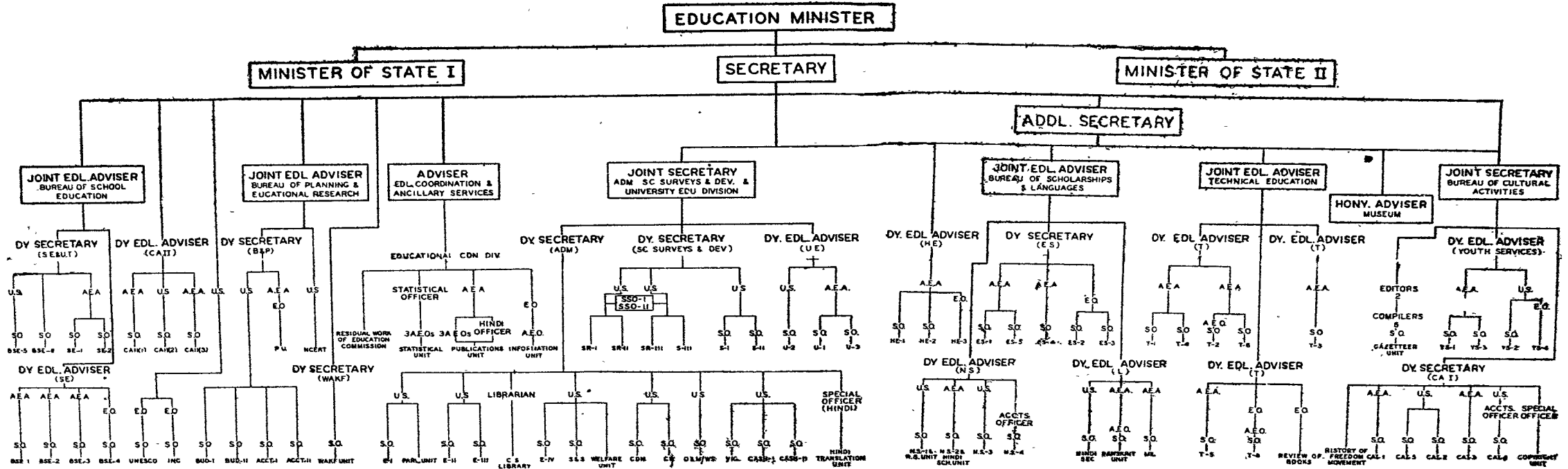
In regard to the working of administrative officers it is held that, "It is only in the Central Ministry of Education that the functions of the expert and the administration have been fused. In fact, it has been prescribed that no person can hold a high administrative post in the Ministry of Education unless he or she has had at least 3 years experience of actual teaching. This system has on the whole worked well at the Centre".⁸

(b) Advisory or Statutory Bodies in the Ministry of Education

A number of semi-official and non-official bodies working under the aegis of the Ministry have supplemented its work besides rendering expert advice. These bodies are constituted of renowned experts as official as well as non-official members. The growth in the number of such bodies is shown in Table 9.4.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHART

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION



LEGEND

- U.S. UNDER SECRETARY
- A.E.A. ASSISTANT EDUCATIONAL ADVISER
- S.S.O. SENIOR SCIENTIFIC OFFICER
- E.O. EDUCATION OFFICER
- A.E.O. ASSISTANT EDUCATION OFFICER
- S.O. SECTION OFFICER

Figure-I

Source : Ministry of Education Annual Report 1966-67 (New Delhi : Government of India, 1967)

TABLE 9.4

NUMBER OF ADVISORY BODIES AT THE CENTRE

<i>Year</i>	<i>Name of Advisory Bodies</i>
1947	1
1951	6
1955	11
1961	18
1966	39

The most important of these bodies is the Central Advisory Board of Education⁹ with a Panel of Education. It has the oldest record of service—yeoman's service indeed! The wide range of other Bodies only suggest the growing and all pervading interest of the Central Government in Education since Independence. The Ministry publishes several publications through various organs and calls conferences and committees of experts to find solutions of various problems in education.

(c) Planning Commission and Education

In 1950, there was Employment and Social Services Division in the Planning Commission and it looked after education. It was only in 1954 that an Education section could find a place in the Planning Commission. Soon in 1957 it gained the status of a Division. Now, this Division headed by a Chief, who is further assisted by a Director and an Assistant Chief, is expected to work out programmes for the development of education of various types and at different levels. "It is expected to assist in the formulation of education plans, defining the stages in which they should be carried out, and the priorities to be observed. It is also expected to suggest the changes in current educational policies necessitated by the nature of developing plans."

It is evident, therefore, that the Education Division of the Planning Commission is a new and a stimulating force for the development of education in the country.

The First Five Year Plan that was launched in 1951, as stated earlier, recognised education as a part of the total national effort, laid down priorities in education and assigned money for the purpose of educational development. The Basic system of education and Article 45 of the Constitution were given some attention.

Almost every year after 1947 the Ministry of Education instituted Committees, called conferences, and held seminars to meet and deliberate on the development of various aspects of education. In 1948 an All

India Educational Conference representing different States and experts was held. After several such conferences the following decisions were taken :

(i) Limiting Universal, free and compulsory education to 6-11 age group and to reduce substantially the Sargent Plan's period of forty years;

(ii) Appointing a Secondary Education Commission; and

(iii) Instituting committees for determining the question of the medium of instruction and to determine ways and means to finance educational development.

All these suggestions were put to effect.

The Central Government set up the University Grants Commission in November, 1953 on the recommendation of the University Education Commission which had submitted its report in August, 1949. The First Five Year Plan started certain pilot projects for various stages of education to be developed intensively subject to the availability of finances.

The Ministry of Education finalised the details of the educational schemes in 1952-53. Several cultural and educational institutions, like the National Art Treasure Fund; Sahitya, Sangeet, Natak and Lalit Kala Academies; and the like were established.

It is evident from the foregoing description that the Central Government, with a spirit of vigour and enthusiasm, made efforts in a comprehensive manner in preference to a selective approach. The elementary education, rather than Secondary Education, remained the main item of care for the Centre. This comprehensive approach in the field of elementary education and in other realms of education and culture resulted in palroun growth in quantity which affected adversely the qualitative aspect.

During the Second Five Year Plan although the emphasis was shifted from elementary education to secondary education but the selective approach was again neglected and the result was that "even on doubling its allocation to education the Second Plan felt that it was too insufficient for a national system of education and urged that "means must be found to overcome current limitations upon efforts in the field of education."¹⁰

The schemes initiated during First Five Year Plan were given a further momentum and new schemes such as establishment of Evaluation Units; enacting the Delhi Primary Education Act, 1960; holding of National Seminars on Compulsory Primary Education and the like were started,

The Third Five Year Plan, considered education as "the most important single factor in achieving rapid economic development and technological progress and in creating a social order founded on values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity" and laid emphasis on the provision of facilities for the education of all children in the age group 6-11, besides improvement of teaching of Science, training of teachers and the like.

During the three Five Year Plans the Indian educational system, it is believed, has not been sufficiently geared to economic development, especially at the primary and secondary levels.

The Central Government, it will be seen, plays sufficiently larger role. It provides financial assistance to many voluntary educational organizations engaged in carrying out significant experiments in school education. The various schemes under this sector are :

- (i) Expansion of school education,
- (ii) Improvement of school education,
- (iii) Training of teachers,
- (iv) Education of girls and women, and
- (v) Other schemes for school education.

The schemes formulated are of different nature. For instance, there are schemes that are Centrally sponsored and Centrally financed such as expansion of girl's education, travel concession to the elementary schools, pilot projects for improved science teaching in Elementary schools, introduction of agriculture in Secondary schools and the like. Most of these schemes are financed on hundred per cent assistance.

The Centre also assists the State schemes on an agreed pattern between the Centre and the States. For instance, improvement of salaries of primary school teachers; relief to the educated unemployed; additional inspectorate; conversion of high schools into multipurpose higher secondary schools and the like.

All these activities of the Centre have resulted in strengthening of the Ministry of Education and the budget provisions of the Ministry of Education of the Government of India have increased to Rupees 91,26,000 in 1965-66.¹¹ During the Fourth Plan period more attention is proposed to be paid on programmes such as improvement or training of Science teachers, correspondence courses and the like.

The foregoing discussion leaves one in doubt that the Centre, in spite of education being a State subject, is becoming more and more enthusiastic in its role than here-to-fore. In fact, the implications of several Constitutional provisions are responsible for the big role of the Centre.

The financial strings have perhaps, accentuated this role in practice than the cold print of the Constitution. This dominant role has become a matter of controversy and it is suggested that the relationship between the Centre and the States should be appraised and redefined at the earliest.

States and Administration of Education

The Indian Independence Act, 1947 partitioned the country and India by virtue of her Constitution became a Sovereign Democratic Republic on 26th January, 1950 with a strong federal government and twenty eight States divided into four categories; ten Part A States were the former Governor's Provinces; seven Part B States were the former Indian States; nine Part C States were mostly the former Centrally administered areas;¹² and Two Part D States administered by the President of India. Soon after, the number of Part C and Part D States decreased to Nine and One respectively with the merger of Cooch-Bihar with West Bengal in 1954.

Entry 11 of List II of the 7th Schedule to the Constitution made the States completely responsible for education subject to entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I and entry 25 of List III. All Parts A and B States and some Part C States had an Education Minister responsible to the Legislature. And education in some Part C States and all Part D States was administered by the Union Minister of Education who was assisted by the State Ministers or advisers.

After the re-organisation of the States in 1956 the educational set-up in all the States became almost similar to the former Part A States, as Part C and Part D States were abolished and centrally administered areas were constituted into Union Territories.

(a) General Pattern of Administrative Machinery

Education being a State subject, the variation in the operation of administration from State to State is natural yet the basic pattern of administrative machinery in regard to purpose and content, does not materially differ from one State to another. It is helpful to remember that the existing pattern of educational administration was instituted almost simultaneously during the fifties of the last century in all the British Provinces by the orders of the Governor General of India for "superintendentship and direction of education." And which type of education? An education for the English, of the English and imparted by the ways and means of the English.

Administrative machinery which automatically follows the purposes of education, could not be more than a controlling and grant-in-aid providing agency. This was a bureaucratic approach wherein the public whose children received education in the institutions controlled or supported by the Government, was not supposed to participate.

With this background it may be supposed that democratic re-orientation started since 1921, in the modern sense, perhaps, influenced the administrative structure. But the matter did not improve as the purpose of administrative organization could not be geared to the democratic perspective. The function of the administration was restricted only to control and direct as per rules and regulations and not to stimulate and re-orientate education. So the inspectors, who were charged to guide the teachers, cared mainly for the inspection, as their designation connoted, and not for the supervision.

Since 1947 the quantitative growth of education began to take bewildering strides. This was followed by the strengthening of the Departments without major reorganization of the same. Even in the post-independent era the administration was supposed to be "superintendentship and direction" and the bureaucratic approach was not got rid of. Clinging to this stern approach was so hard that inspite of several reports of the committees and seminars it seemed difficult to believe in Kandell who says : "There must be a clear and definite line of demarcation between these aspects of an educational system that the State through a bureaucracy may control in the interests of efficiency and uniformity and those that organisation, mechanisation and dictatorial prescription would in the end destroy. In a democracy there is a clear and definite answer to the question. 'To whom the schools belong ?' The answer should be that the State is only a partner in an enterprise in which all cultural groups within it are concerned and involved, and in the determination of which they should, therefore, have a voice."¹³ The Education Commission Report (1964-66), therefore, speaks of the ill-organised State Education Departments in these words : "Unfortunately no adequate attention has been paid so far to their development on proper lines. Their structure, designed during the British period is unchanged even to this date."¹⁴

(b) General Pattern of the State Administration of Education

The Minister of Education, responsible to the Legislature individually and collectively, is overall incharge of educational development, leaving aside special education, in that particular State. He is assisted by the Education Secretary to the State Government. The Education Secretary is usually from I.A.S. cadre and works as a liaison between the Director of Public Instruction and the Government besides holding administrative check over the Director of Public Instruction.

The Director of Public Instruction is the executive head of the Department of Education and is mainly responsible for carrying out the work of general education in the State in pursuance of the Government policy and instructions. In some States like Punjab and Haryana, the Director of Public Instruction controls both the wings of education i.e., School as well as College, while in some other States like Madhya Pradesh he controls only school education, the college education being under the

Education Secretary. The D.P.I. is assisted by several officers subordinate to him like the Joint Director, Deputy Director and Assistant Directors.

In the field there are officers (State Educational Service, Class I) at Circle or Divisional level and second class officers at District levels who are immediately responsible to the D.P.I. With the expansion of education, the officer at the district level often controls all education up to the secondary level with Circle or Divisional officer as the co-ordinating agency. The Divisional or District Education officer is usually assisted by Assistant District Inspectors of Schools/Block Education officers who also control the Primary Education in their respective blocks. Table 9.5 provides a view of increasing strength of inspectorial staff in India.

TABLE 9.5

INCREASE IN NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Administrative Officers</i>	
	<i>Class I</i>	<i>Total number including those in previous column</i>
1937	283	2151
1947	306	2632
1951	180	4125
1956	233	5832
1961	307	8175

Although there is a perceptible trend toward strengthening the administrative staff yet it cannot be considered as sufficient. Another trend to be noticed in this respect is that in view of the recommendations of Commissions such as the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) there is a trend toward pyramid-type of administrative organization yielding place to flat-type of administrative organisation. It is difficult to discuss the implications of this trend. Succinctly stated, the recommendations such as establishment of advisory bodies, setting-up of S.I.E's., State Board of School Education, School Complex and the like are healthy trends toward flat-type of organization inhibiting centralised organization. This is a happy augury.

(c) Advisory or Statutory Bodies at the State level

Besides the State Education Department there are several bodies and institutions which stimulate educational effort and provide a helping hand in the administration of education at the State level. More or less these bodies are replica of the bodies working at the Centre which provides leadership to all the States in India.

These bodies are still largely bureaucratic in constitution and character and they are not, on the whole, as influential and constructive as the Central bodies. It may be noted, however, that these bodies are mostly the product of post-independent era.

These bodies can roughly be divided into two types i.e., (1) Administrative and (2) Instructive. It shows that the trend in the post-independent era is that administration stands not merely for superintendship and control, but also for the guidance and providing leadership in the sphere of education.

There are mainly two controversial issues in regard to the State administration of education : (i) Secretary versus Director; and (ii) Co-ordinating Agency.

(i) **Secretary Versus Director** : Let us, ab initio, see as to what the various Committees and Commissions have to say about this intricate relationship between Secretary and Director.

John Sargent reviewing the progress of education in the country in 1947 held that the authorities in India "have shown themselves almost completely impervious to the experience of other countries so far as educational administration is concerned." He asserted that they had followed a policy which "has often been both extravagant and inefficient and has, I believe, contributed in no small measure to the present unsatisfactory state of affairs in Indian education." Then turning to the direct relationship under review he held that D.P.I's appointed with no administrative experience and put under virtual control of I.C.S. Officers "who have known little" and "cared less about education" was not desirable.

The report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on the Post-war Educational Development in India observed that "there can be no possible justification for interposing an officer without an expert knowledge of education between the Director of Public Instruction and the Ministry or Board to whom he should be directly responsible."¹⁵

The report of the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) while discussing administration reiterate : "If education is not to be treated as a mere administrative problem, we feel that the Director of Education should be mainly responsible to advise the Minister, and, for this purpose, we recommend that where the Director himself is not the Secretary of the Department he should have the status of a Joint Secretary and should have direct access to the Minister."¹⁶

The recent and much talked-off Report of the Education Commission (1964-66), taking a mild and middle path considers the relationship to be a matter of 'personal equation' between the Director of Education and the Education Secretary for "where this has been of the right type, the results have been satisfactory."¹⁷

The Education Secretary, who is essentially not a man of education which in itself is against the canons of educational administration, should not have a dominating role over the Director who is directly charged with the development of education in the State. A tendency is growing to make the District Education office a directorate in miniature to enable the Director play healthy role of constructive leadership rather than the superintendentship and control. This the Director cannot do in case he is dominated by an I.C.S./I.A.S. officer. The Director may be a subordinate of the Education Secretary but this subordination should bear a special status with the provision of direct approach to the Education Minister.

(ii) **Co-ordinating Agency** : The existing practice in all the States is that special programmes of education, i.e., Technical, Medical, and the like, are under the separate Directorates and Ministries. This naturally involves higher cost and results in inefficiency.

This matter has been raised since the Hartog Committee Report (1928) but no fruitful result has been achieved so far. The problem is so complex that neither it seems possible to bring all special education under the control of the present Department of Education nor it can have a separate entity.

The Report of the Education Commission (1964-66), suggests for the creation of "some machinery to co-ordinate the programmes of all these different sectors of education and to take a unified view for purposes of planning and development" and further suggests for the appointment of a Statutory Council of Education at the highest level in the State and a standing committee at the level of the officers.

The report of the Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) also emphasised the need of a co-ordinating agency at the ministerial and at the level of the Head of the Departments.

The Indian Education Commission (1964-66) viewing administration as an element in improvement of standards, has laid stress on co-ordinating agencies and has charged the State Directorate with only two responsibilities; co-ordination of standards and formulation of policy.

In view of the preceding discussion, certain perceptible trends can be identified as follows :

1. Flat organization is replacing the pyrammid-type organization.
2. Administration is being academicized.
3. Administrator, at no stage, can be a self-sufficient individual, as with growth in specialisation, he needs assistance resulting in some decentralization.
4. Democratic tendencies are having their way slowly and steadily.

In view of these factors, it is believed, the existing form of Administrative Organization must yield to some other form.

Local Bodies and Administration of Education

“The local bodies were created by the British rulers,” says Professor Misra, “not so much because they were anxious to grant some autonomy in local administration to Indian people as because they wanted to relieve the district officials of some of their administrative burdens; and later they encouraged them to placate nationalist aspirations.”¹⁸

With such a start, naturally, the local bodies could not function as efficient partners in educational effort. After 1947 there are perceptible trends towards larger decentralization but the extent of decentralized administration at the level of the local bodies is not quite marked, perhaps, because the Constitution of free India has not upgraded them from the position which they had obtained during the British regime.

Article 40 (Directive Principle) enjoins upon the State to “take steps to organise village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government.”

Local Authorities, by virtue of entry 5 of List II of the 7th schedule to the Constitution of India, are under the exclusive control of the States. This entry defines Local Government as “the constitution and powers of municipal corporations, improvement trusts, district boards, mining settlement authorities and other local authorities for the purpose of Local Self-Government or village administration.” This indicates that “this entry gives the provincial legislatures power to create a legal body for the management of municipal affairs to which it can give any powers which come within the competence of the provincial legislature and all incidental powers necessary to carry on and work such municipal institution.”¹⁹

All this discussion is necessary to visualise the legal basis of Local Bodies for it is upon this that they are supposed to function. It is evident that the State Government of a State is the controlling agency for these basic democracies to all intents and purposes. They may, therefore, be better called the agents of the State Governments.

Local Bodies, in India, are broadly classified into two categories : Urban and Rural. In big cities they are known as Corporations and in towns as Municipal Committees or Board. The pattern of Local Bodies in rural areas was restricted to the official dominated District Boards. After 1947, a three-tier structure, popularly known as ‘Panchayat Raj’ has been introduced in most of the States.

In Corporations there are mainly three authorities i.e., General Council of the Corporation, the Standing Committees of the Council and the Commissioner. The Standing Committees elected by the Council carry out the main work of administration covering education, health and

the like. Municipal Boards also function through committees with an Executive Officer to carry out day to day work.

Panchayat Raj involves three-tier structure at village, block and district levels. Special powers and functions have been assigned to these institutions. In regard to educational administration in the Panchayat Raj set up, it is sufficient to mention that most of the States have enacted Panchayat Raj laws but with certain reservations. In seven States (Andhra, Gujarat, Madras, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and U.P.) education has been transferred, in varying degrees, to the Panchayat Raj. In some States (Assam, Bihar, Kerala, M.P., West Bengal and Panjab) Panchayat Raj Acts have been passed but education for the purpose of administration, has not been transferred to these institutions. Jammu and Kashmir and Mysore have not enacted such laws so far.

Table 9.5 shows the association of local bodies with education in regard to their income and expenditure on education.

TABLE 9.5
INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL BODIES
ON EDUCATION

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Boards</i>	<i>Total Income</i>	<i>Assignment to Education</i>	<i>Percentage of column 4 and 3</i>
1	2	3	4	5
District Boards		Rs. in Lakhs		
1948-49	745	3,041	1,543	60.7
1954-55	6,147	2,899	905	31.3
Municipal Boards				
1948-49	663	7,834	391	5.0
1954-55	839	12,732	604	4.7

What the various Commissions and Committees have said about the association of local bodies with education may be seen. Sir Philip Hartog, who probably first raised the issue in 1928, was emphatically averse to the association of local bodies with education. "Local Bodies in India," he observed, "have neither the knowledge nor the experience to organise primary education without the measure of Central control still regarded in England as essential to ensure that the money voted by the Legislature shall be spent wisely and in accordance with its wishes.....One of the characteristics of maladministration of these bodies is the frequent transfer of teachers from one place to another for personal or political reasons."²⁰

The Sargent Report felt that "irremedial harm has been done by handing over responsibility for the education of the rising generation to bodies whose members are in the main uneducated or uninterested in the education or both."²¹ John Sargent at another place reiterated, giving instance of England, "When elementary education was first introduced, it was decided to entrust local administration to ad hoc bodies, called School Boards, as Local Authorities were not competent."²²

In the post-independent era this relationship was quite exhaustively dealt with, probably for the first time, by the Committee on the Relationship between State Governments and Local Bodies in the Administration of Primary Education. The Committee was of the view that the cause of education could not suffer because Local Bodies were associated with education, rather whatever little development in education we find, that may be to the credit of the efforts of Local Bodies. The Committee unequivocally reiterated that the Local Self-government system in India was not given adequate and fair trial; the principles formulated by Lord Ripon, which were to form the basis of the working of the system were not well looked after in the practice; purse did not follow the powers; and the objectives of running these Local Bodies were given wrong priorities. It was, according to the Committee, defective bureaucratic character of the British administration which was at fault.

Another Committee, the COPP Team on Community Development set up under the chairmanship of the Late Shri Balwant Rai Mehta to review the Community Development Programme and its future organization recommended for the strong Local Bodies in rural areas to be vested with adequate authority, to administer all development programmes including primary education.

The Education Commission (1964-66) has asked to decide the issue on a pragmatic basis with reference to ultimate goals and local conditions. The ultimate goal, obviously, is the "close involvement of schools with their communities." At the same time, according to the Report it should be ensured that the Local Bodies should help rather than hinder the cause of education. "The normal practice", suggests the Commission, "should be that a local authority is given the right to administer education as a privilege subject to two conditions—promoting the cause of education and bringing the goal of providing universal education nearer."²³

In theory, the decentralisation of administration is just the *sine qua non* of the democratic polity and way of life. In practice the elements get distorted and bear an ugly face. It is suggested, in the existing set up to associate necessarily the local community with education in the form of advisory body and to stimulate them to contribute towards financing local education as much as possible. The actual administration may be vested in a body with enough of non-official elements with an administrative

officer from the State Educational Service as the Secretary of the body to run the day to day administration. There is no harm if there is periodical inspection by the State Government. The administration by the local bodies should be a matter of privilege and not a right. Let this procedure operate till a citizenry conscious of their duties especially towards education emerges. No one knows when that time can come. Yet the efforts should be that good Local Bodies are encouraged, stimulated and adequately financed by the State Government more or less on the line of Panjab where the village panchayats are adequately rewarded in case of their unanimous election.

John Sargent, who was against delegating any authority to the Local Bodies, could not resist the practical need of the same. In Decennial Review (1937-47) he remarked that "there is a paramount need for a national body which can not only evolve a national plan and establish national standards but can also indicate how local efforts to give effect to these can be co-ordinated in the interests of efficiency and economy."²⁴ And rightly of course, the Planning Commission could not forget to point out "as the administration responds to the need and the wishes of the public, the latter may be expected to react with a positive desire to assist the administration."²⁵

Nevertheless, there is a note of caution for the proper functioning of a Local Self-government. "Local Self-government" it need be remembered according to Toulmin Smith "is not the system of government under which the greatest number of minds and those knowing the most and having opportunity of knowing it, about the special matters at hand, and having the greatest interest in its working have the management of it or control over it."²⁶

It is, however, inevitable that Local Bodies shall have to play a major role in providing educational facilities. Nevertheless, the administration of education at the District level shall have to be strengthened.

Conclusion

The foregoing discussion has centred round the roles played by the Centre, State and Local-Bodies in the quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of school education.

Although education, is a State subject but due to several influences like constitutional, financial and others, it is discerned that the Centre is gradually emerging as the leading role-player. This leads to fear, in certain quarters, that at times the Centre may interfere with the State administration. This did not pose any problem until there was Congress Party rule in almost all the States. This fear, it is opined, is not founded upon sound reasons. For instance, if the Central Government finances a particular project it is her privilege to check if the amount allocated has been properly utilised and spent.

For the betterment of school education, however, it is essential that there should be a healthy corporate relationship between the Centre and the States, each trusting the other. Regarding allocations made by the Centre, it should be placed on the foundation of need as well as the economic standing of a particular State. The principle of equalization of opportunity should be strictly adhered to.

As regards the role of Local Bodies, theoretically it is a sound principle. The Local Community should be associated as much and as profitably as possible. But realities, do not meet the ideals. Even now the political scrambles and financial difficulties weigh largely with most of the Local Bodies. That's why there has been alround provincialisation of Local Bodies' schools in Panjab and Panchayat Raj in schools, in Maharashtra and Rajasthan, is usually put to severe criticism. It is not disputable that on the foundation of democratic principles the local element should be got related with the school education and the accompanying flaws should be eradicated with firm hands.

It is believed that the administrative leadership of the country will rise to the occasion and deal firmly and imaginatively with the growing challenges in the field of administration of education in India.

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ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

B

There has been phenomenal expansion in all sectors of education in India during the post-independence period. As against 2, 18, 171 educational institutions of all types and student population of 18 million in 1946-47, the number of institutions and the students on roll increased to 7,06,348 and 60 million respectively in 1965-66. The number of persons directly involved in the administration of education rose to about 2 million in 1965-66. With the increasing recognition of education as a vital instrument for social and economic development, the unlimited expansion of educational facilities has continued at all levels under the Five Year Plans. This has given rise to a number of complex administrative problems and thus administration of education in this country has become a challenging task for the Government.

In this paper, an attempt has been made to analyse the trends in educational administration in India at the Central, State and Local levels during the period 1947-66.

Role and Constitutional Responsibilities of the Central Government

There was a Department of Education under the Government of India at the time of the transfer of power to the Indian hands in August, 1947. Immediately after Independence, the first step that the Government of free India took was to substitute a Central Ministry of Education, thus signifying the importance which the national Government attached to education. When the Constitution of India was being framed, the spheres of responsibility of the Central and the State Governments in the field of education came up for discussion. According to Entry 11 of List II of the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution, education was essentially made a State subject, with certain reservations. The subjects included in the Union List of the Constitution for which the Union Government was given the sole executive responsibility are: maintenance of the Central Universities and institutions of national importance, declared as such by Parliament by law; all Union agencies and institutions for professional, vocational or technical training or for promotion of special studies or research; and the co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher learning or research (Entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I).

In the subjects in the Concurrent List where the Centre and the States have combined legislative jurisdiction are included: "vocational and technical training of labour" and "legal, medical and other professions" (Entry 25 of List III)

Although education is essentially a State subject, one of the directive principles of the Constitution (Article 45), enjoins that the 'State' shall endeavour to provide free and compulsory education for all children until they attain the age of 14 years. The expression 'State' has been defined in Article 12 of the Constitution to include "the Government and Parliament of India and the Legislature of each of the States and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of Government of India." Thus the Union Government share the responsibility of the State Governments in the matter of spreading elementary education also.

According to another directive principle of the Constitution (Article 46), it is an obligatory responsibility of the Government of India to promote the educational interests of the weaker sections of the people, which include, in particular, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes.

Article 351 of the Constitution places a special responsibility on the Government of India regarding the development of the national language, Hindi.

Article 282 of the Constitution enables the Government of India to give grants-in-aid to the States to develop their educational programmes.

Article 350A of the Constitution places a special responsibility on the Central Government to safeguard the culture, interests of the minorities and to see that they have adequate facilities to receive atleast primary education through their own mother tongue.

Yet another provision in the Constitution which has an indirect but significant bearing upon the role of the Government of India in education is entry 20 of List III, which is concerned with "Economic and Social Planning." Educational Planning being an essential element of economic and social planning, the Government of India and the State Governments have to work together in preparing and implementing the national plans for the reconstruction of education.

The Government of India are also responsible under the Constitution for the administration of the Union Territories and have for this purpose executive and legislative authority for all subjects including education.

The constitutional provisions quoted above envisage that while education is essentially a State responsibility, the Central Government also plays an important role in education. Since the planning era started in (1950-51), a working partnership has been established between the Central and the State Governments in the field of education.

Policy-making in Education, Administrative Co-ordination and Fulfilment of National Targets

As is clear from above, the Constitution of India does not envisage as a function of the Central Government to devise policy for the whole

range of education. The only sectors for which the constitutional provision exists are higher education, research and scientific and technical institutions through co-ordination and determination of standards.

Due to the influence of planning, the Central Government have, however, come to assume larger measure of responsibility for education and the national targets in respect of all sectors of education are determined by the Centre in consultation with the State Governments. The Planning Commission acts as the co-ordinating agency and determines priorities and national targets for different levels of education, although the implementation of the various developmental programmes in education in the State Sector and in the Centrally sponsored Sector is left to the State Governments.

After independence, the increasing interest taken by the Government of India in education is evident from the fact that the Union Government appointed a University Education Commission in 1948-49 and a Secondary Education Commission in 1952-53. An attempt was made during the first and the Second Five Year Plans to implement the recommendations of these two Commissions. The Central Government through the methods of financing the developmental schemes in the plans provided leadership to the educational system and co-ordinated the activities over its whole range.

Again, an All India Council for Secondary Education was set up by the Central Government in 1955, comprising of educationists and representatives of the State Governments which had both advisory as well as executive functions and which was responsible for improving Secondary Education in the country.

During the post-independence period, the Central Government established a large number of advisory bodies for various educational sectors comprising of experts and educationists from different parts of the country. This was again done for the purpose of providing educational leadership and co-ordination in those Sectors of education which, according to the Constitutional provisions, are the responsibility of the State Governments. The advisory bodies set up by the Central Government included : the All India Council for Elementary Education, the National Board for Basic Education, the All India Council for Women's Education, the National Board for Audio-Visual Education, the Central Board of Physical Education and Recreation, the All India Council for Secondary Education, and the National Council for Rural Higher Education. There were similar advisory bodies for Anthropology, Archaeology, Museums, Cultural Affairs and so forth.

The Central Advisory Board of Education is the oldest of the advisory bodies which was revived in 1935 to advise the Government of India on all problems of education ranging from Pre-primary to University

Education including Technical Education. This is the main organ which guides the Government of India in its policies and programmes in the various fields of education.

The State Education Ministers' Conference is another body which has been meeting regularly every year after Independence to consider different problems connected with the reconstruction of education in the country.

Another development which deserves notice is the establishment by the Union Ministry of Education, of a number of institutes for Research and Training. Some of these institutes formed the subordinate offices of the Ministry and some were constituted as autonomous bodies. Some of the subordinate offices were: the Central Institute of Education, the National Institute of Basic Education, the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance, the Central Bureau of Text-books Research, the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education, the National Fundamental Education Centre, the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, the Hindi Directorate, the Directorate of the National Discipline Scheme and the Training Centre for the Adult Blind. The autonomous organisations were: the Central Institute of English, the National Institute of Sports, and the Laxmibai College of Physical Education.

In the beginning of the Third Five Year Plan, the Central Ministry of Education set up an autonomous organisation, the National Council of Educational Research and Training, which is concerned with conducting and promoting research in problems of various Sectors of education and providing advanced level training to key personnel in different branches of education. The Council has established a National Institute of Education as the main instrument for its work. Most of the Institutes which formed subordinate offices of the Central Ministry of Education earlier, viz. the National Institute of Basic Education, the Central Institute of Education, the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, the National Institute of Audio-Visual Education and so on have been consolidated to form different departments of the National Institute of Education. The Council has also set up four Regional Colleges of Education at Ajmer, Bhopal, Mysore and Bhubaneswar for training secondary school teachers in special subjects like Science, Technology, Industrial Crafts, Agriculture, Commerce and Fine Arts. The Colleges are not only training teachers in special subjects introduced in multi-purpose High/Higher Secondary Schools but are also experimenting with a 4-Years Course of Teacher Education combining content teaching with professional education at the first degree level. The Council is also collaborating professionally and financially with the State Departments of Education, University Departments of Education and other Research Organisations in the country in conducting surveys and research studies.

To promote research in science, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research was set up as an autonomous organisation by the Central Ministry of Education, after Independence. This organisation has been doing useful work through the National Laboratories/Institutes ever since its inception. It is also maintaining a national register for scientists seeking jobs in India.

Another development during the last few years is that the Central Ministry of Education has assumed responsibility for establishing and maintaining secondary schools for the children of Central Government employees. These schools are called Central Schools. They were established in pursuance of the recommendations of the Second Pay Commission. The control of these schools vests in the Central School Organisation.

Still another development is the constitution of a Central Board of Secondary Education, which is an examining body for the schools located in the Union Territory of Delhi and can also affiliate schools from any part of the country. The central schools mentioned in the preceding paragraph are affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education.

As already stated, Article 282 of the Constitution enables the Government of India to give grants-in-aid to the State Governments to develop their educational programmes. The Central Government has been giving Central assistance for developmental programmes of education to the State Governments since 1950-51, the first year of the First Five Year Plan. The pattern of Central assistance has been changing from plan to plan. The quantum of Central aid given to the State Governments for Centrally assisted and Centrally sponsored schemes of education during the First, Second and Third Plan periods was as under :

I Plan	N.A.
II Plan	Rs. 61 crores
III Plan (Estimated)	Rs. 105 crores

Yet another responsibility of the Central Government which has gradually developed during the last few years is the international contacts in the field of education. The Ministry of Education through the Indian National Commission for Co-operation with UNESCO has been having these contacts which are likely to acquire greater importance in the future. In the initial stages the Union Ministry of Education participated in the selection and placement of scholars in the training places provided by the different friendly foreign countries. After some time, India started providing opportunities to other developing countries and at present many scholars from the different Afro-Asian countries are studying in the various universities of India.

In the field of cultural activities, the efforts of the Union Government, through the years after the Independence, have been directed not only

towards conserving, unearthing and rediscovering the ancient cultural heritage of India, but also towards assuming some direct responsibility for promoting art and culture. Besides maintaining and developing the few cultural institutions of national importance which were in existence before independence, the Union Government have since set up new institutions viz., Sahitya Akademi, Sangeet Natak Akademi, and Lalit Kala Akademi to provide guidance in the various fields of art, letters, dance, drama, music and culture at an all-India level, and have carried on an extensive programme of strengthening voluntary organisations in different fields of culture.

Other important developments in the recent years, which need special mention, are the revival of the talk of having an All-India Education Service and the thinking about the placing of higher education on the Concurrent List. To consider the latter issue, the Union Ministry of Education appointed in 1963, a Committee of the Members of Parliament (Sapru Committee) which reported in 1964 and recommended that higher education should be transferred from the State List to the Concurrent List, keeping Entry 66 of List I intact.

Still another development is the appointment of an Education Commission in July, 1964, by the Union Government under the Chairmanship of Dr. D. S. Kothari to advise the Government on the national pattern of education. The Commission has since submitted its report which is being widely discussed.

It will thus be seen that during the post-independence period, a number of new dimensions have been added to the functions and responsibilities of the Central Government with regard to policy making, administrative co-ordination and fulfilment of national targets in education.

Administrative Organisation of Education at the Central Level

Education at the Central level is mainly administered through the Union Ministry of Education. Till 1956, it comprised general and technical education including scientific research. It was then bifurcated into two Ministries, Ministry of Education and Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs. In November, 1963, the two Ministries were merged to form the Ministry of Education with the Department of Education and the Department of Science. These two departments were later abolished in February, 1964, by a Presidential order to form a composite Ministry of Education. Social welfare was transferred to a new department of Social Security in the Ministry of Law in June, 1964.

The Ministry of Education was subsequently re-organised on two occasions into Bureaus and Divisions. The Ministry has now the Bureaus of : (i) School Education, (ii) Higher Education, (iii) Physical Education and Recreation, Cultural and External Relations, (iv) Scholarships,

Language and Ancillary Educational Services, and (v) Budget, Planning and NCERT. Each Bureau is under the charge of a Joint Secretary or Joint Educational Adviser. These Bureaus are further divided into Divisions and Units. In addition to these Bureaus, the two major Divisions of the Ministry are : (i) Administration, and (ii) Scientific Research, each of which is under the charge of a Joint Secretary.

Apart from the Ministry of Education, considerable amount of educational work is also being done in other Ministries of the Central Government viz., Ministry of Agriculture deals with agricultural education, Ministry of Health with medical education, Ministry of Labour with Vocational and Industrial training, and so on. The work regarding policy-making and fulfilment of targets in respect of these different types of education is done by the respective Ministries. It is, however, being felt that for purposes of co-ordination, all types of higher education and school education should be brought within the purview of the University Grants Commission and the State Departments of Education respectively.

Determination of Standards in Higher Education including Technical, Engineering, Medical and Agricultural Education

As stated earlier, Entry 66 of the Union list places an obligation on the Central Government for the co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions. In order to fulfil this responsibility, the Government of India in pursuance of the recommendations of the University Education Commission (1948-49), established the University Grants Commission in 1956 by an Act of Parliament. The main functions of the U.G.C. are: allocation and disbursement of grants to Universities, and co-ordination and maintenance of standards in higher education.

The Commission has nine members, two of whom are Government officials and seven are drawn from among the educationists. The qualitative improvement of higher education through the U.G.C. has been going apace ever since the establishment of the Commission. In the Third Plan, the funds allocated to the U.G.C. amounted to Rs. 37 crores as against Rs. 21 crores allotted during the Second Plan. The various programmes for which the University Grants Commission has been giving grants to the Universities include : 3-year degree course; construction of hostels and staff quarters; strengthening of libraries and laboratories; revision of pay-scales of teachers; and the like. To provide facilities to scholars of outstanding ability for advanced study and research work, the Commission has set up 26 Centres of Advanced Study during the Third Five Year Plan. The U.G.C. during the course of the last few years set up a number of Committees, such as, Committee on Examination Reform, Committee on Standards, Committee on Buildings, and so on.

There has been a tremendous impact on the programmes undertaken by the Universities with the financial assistance from the University Grants

Commission during the second and third Plan periods. Although standards have improved to some extent in the colleges and universities, a great leeway has yet to be made up.

Technical Education and Scientific Research have received special emphasis during the post-independence period. The Centre has been playing a leading role in the development of technical education in pursuance of the recommendations of the Sarkar Committee (1945). Since then, the organizations for development of technical education and scientific research at the Central level have grown rapidly. The All India Council for Technical Education was constituted in 1945. Although the Council has only advisory functions, experience shows that its recommendations have been invariably accepted by the Central and State Governments. The Council has four regional Committees each covering a group of States which perform almost the same functions in the development of technical education in their respective regions as does the All-India Council for the country as a whole. These Committees have their regional offices at Kanpur, Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.

The All-India Council for Technical Education has set up 7 Boards of Technical Studies to advise the Council on technical matters, such as, preparation of model courses of studies, laying down standards and regulating the award of National Diploma. On the recommendation of the All-India Council for Technical Education, each State has set up a Board of Technical Education.

Another interesting feature during the period under review has been the establishment of Indian Institutes of Technology at Kanpur, Madras, Bombay and Delhi in collaboration with the Government of U.S.A., Germany, USSR and Britain on the pattern of Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur. These Institutes were declared as Institutes of national importance by an Act of Parliament in 1961. Although they are administered by the Central Ministry of Education, they enjoy a large measure of administrative and academic autonomy. Other specialised institutions which are administered by the Central Ministry of Education are : School of Planning and Architecture, Delhi; Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad; National Institute for Training in Industrial Engineering; and All-India Institutes of Management of Calcutta and Ahmedabad.

The Indian Council of Medical Research and the Indian Council of Agricultural Research are mainly responsible for the co-ordination and maintenance of standards in Medical and Agricultural Education respectively.

Role and Responsibilities of the State Governments

According to the provisions laid down in the Constitution, education is essentially a State subject. All important policy decisions at the school

stage are taken by the State Governments and even in higher education, colleges are set up with their approval. Universities are established through the enactments passed by the State Legislatures.

The responsibilities of the State Governments in education are as under :

(i) The State Governments have to find all the financial resources needed for education.

(ii) Legislating for education is another State responsibility.

(iii) Supervision and inspection of schools is also a State function. Since the States provide large funds required for education and are responsible to account for it to the State legislatures, they have to maintain an agency to supervise the schools in their jurisdiction.

(iv) The State Government have to frame recruitment rules and to lay down the procedure for recruitment and have also to prescribe other service conditions for teachers and other staff in the school and colleges.

(v) Prescription of curricula and textbooks, particularly at the elementary stage is another responsibility of the State Governments. Recently most of the States have even assumed responsibility of producing and distributing textbooks under the scheme of nationalisation of textbooks.

Administrative Organisation of Education at the State Level

The organisational structure of the system of education varies from State to State. The basic structure has, however, undergone little change over the last twenty years.

In every State there is an Education Minister at the apex who is assisted by the Education Secretary in the Department of Education. In some States, there is a Deputy Minister of Education also. The Department of Education has two main organs: (i) the Secretariat, which has policy making and co-ordination function and (ii) the Directorate of education which performs the functions of direction, regulation and inspection.

The directorate of education which is the "hard core" of the machinery of educational administration in each State has developed a tendency in recent years to be concerned mainly with the school level education. Establishment of independent directorates of collegiate education and technical education is another recent trend noticeable in some of the States. In some States, however, technical education is administered by the Department of Industry and in others by the Public Works Department.

The State directorates of education are performing such functions as preparation of education plans, regulation of standards, inspection of schools and colleges, training of teachers, administration and management of finance, data collection, and reporting.

With the phenomenal increase in the range of educational activities during the last twenty years, the organisation of the State Departments of Education has inevitably expanded. In some of the States, the Education Secretary is assisted by a number of Deputy Secretaries who in turn are assisted by Assistant Secretaries. Again, in a number of States, the Director of Education's responsibility is shared by an Additional Director or a Joint Director and in a few States both these posts exist. Next come the Deputy Directors and Assistant Directors who are put in charge of different sectors of education e.g., primary education, secondary education, and the like. They have also to perform different administrative duties e.g., finance, personnel management, and so on. The administrative duties of the officials at the State Departments of Education have increased manifold because of the rapid increase of educational facilities at all levels of education during the post-independence period.

Since independence, legislation has been enacted in the States pertaining to the establishment of new universities or setting up of Boards of Secondary Education or providing for compulsory primary education.

A relatively new development which has taken place in the last few years in the States is that some of the States have constituted advisory bodies to advise the State Governments on matters relating to education. The advisory bodies are represented by non-official and official members. The non-official members are usually nominated by the Government.

Another development which deserves special mention is an enormous increase in the number of areas of special services operated at the State Departments of Education. A number of Units/Bureaus have been set up, such as Textbooks Unit, Bureau for Educational and Vocational Guidance, Unit for Audio-Visual Aids, Evaluation Unit, Curriculum Unit, Planning Unit, and so on. In almost all the States the production and distribution of textbooks is being nationalized, consequent on the alleged failure of private publishers to improve the quality of textbooks.

Still another development that has taken place during the last few years is the provision of a number of useful specialized institutes, viz., establishment of the State Institutes in special subjects to train personnel and to provide other consultative services. Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Madras and Mysore have jointly established an Institute of English at Bangalore to provide special training to the teachers of English. State Institutes of English have also been set up in West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh and are being planned in a few other States. A State Institute of Education, under

the Centrally sponsored sector, has been set up in almost every State by the Central Ministry of Education for the in-service training of elementary school inspectors and headmasters and for under-taking research in the problems of elementary education. A shift is thus noticeable from the purely administrative functions to specialized services with academic bias in the different States.

With the reorganization of the States on the linguistic basis in 1956, areas with different patterns and structure of education were transferred from one State to another. As many as four patterns came into existence in certain States. The process of integrating these different patterns in order to have a uniform pattern in the States is still going on in some of the States, and in some it has been completed.

In the last few years the district has become an important unit of administration and the District Inspector of schools, in some States he is designated as the District Education Officer, has come to be charged with the leadership functions in relation to the district. He supervises the educational institutions at the school level and is assisted by a few Deputy Inspectors and a number of Assistant or Sub-Deputy Inspectors who are responsible for the inspection of primary schools. The status of Inspector of schools has been raised and in almost all districts he is a Class I Officer of the State Educational Service. His main function is inspection and supervision, although he has to perform many other duties such as reporting to the Government on the recognition of schools, hearing appeals from the teachers, representing Government on the Selection Boards to select teachers for local bodies' school, and the like. At the regional level there are Regional or Divisional Deputy Directors of Education in some States.

Primary Education in most of the States is under the administrative control of the local bodies. For the administration of secondary education the responsibility is divided between the Secondary Education Boards and the State Directorates of Education. Every State has a Board of Secondary Education and some States have more than one Board as a result of the States' reorganisation. In 11 States, it is a statutory body and in 4 States it is constituted by resolution of the Government. The constitution and functions of these Boards of Secondary Education vary from State to State. The Boards in all the States conduct the public examinations at the end of the secondary stage and award certificates. They prescribe courses of study and textbooks for the secondary stage, while for the earlier stage, the Directorates of Education prescribe the curricula and textbooks. The Boards also award recognition to the schools for the purpose of examinations conducted by them.

It has been observed in the last few years that the number of pupils a Board has to handle is fast growing. Some of the Boards are also

engaged in bringing about examination reforms and in conducting research in this field. The Department of Curriculum and Evaluation of the NCERT is helping the State Evaluation Units and the Boards of Secondary Education in improving the examination system.

Private management plays a dominant role in the control of secondary schools in the different States. In the country as a whole nearly 64% of the secondary schools are managed and controlled by the private enterprise and the rest by the Government and the Local Bodies. The Department of Education exercise control over private schools through the rules of recognition and the grant-in-aid rules. The grant-in-aid rules differ from State to State. Similarly the quantum of grant also varies from 95% of the net recurring expenditure in some States to 50% in others. The academic standards in these schools show wide variation because of the diversity in their management. Some of the private schools are outstanding institutions while others show very poor results.

The policy adopted by the State Governments towards private enterprise in the field of education differ from State to State and within some States from time to time. On the one hand, some States have placed the whole burden of opening new schools on the private management and on the other, the States like Punjab have been trying in recent years to bring all private schools under Government control.

Another trend which needs special mention is that in some States where grant-in-aid rules have proved to be ineffective to secure standards in the organisation and administration of privately managed schools, Acts have been passed by the State Legislatures to provide for greater security for teachers. The Acts contain a provision which empowers the Government to take over the administration of schools where the management defaults in spite of repeated warnings. This trend is evident from the Kerala Education Act, 1958 and the U.P. High School and Intermediate Education (Amendment) Act, 1958. In other States, the composition of the management is being regulated by maintaining two persons on the Managing Committees by the State Departments of Education.

As regards higher education, in almost all the States, the Universities deal directly with the Education Departments. The Director of Education is generally a member of the Syndicate or the Court of the University. In most of the States, however, Government Colleges are under the administrative control of the Director of Education who is also responsible for releasing grants-in-aid to the non-government colleges. In Uttar-Pradesh, a University Grants Committee has been established to advise the Government on the disbursement of grants to the Universities in the State. The University Grants Committee is only an advisory body and has not been given statutory status.

Educational Supervision and Inspection

During the British regime, inspection was a device to see that an institution receiving grant-in-aid from the Government was utilising the money properly. Another function of the inspector was to extend recognition to the privately managed schools on the basis of certain criteria.

The concept of inspection has now changed and the inspection work tends to promote the professional growth of teaching personnel. The role of inspector is now that of a 'philosopher, guide and friend'. With the recognition of this enlarged concept of inspector's work, many States in India have recently changed the designation of inspector to that of 'Education Officer'.

The Inspectors of schools in the State belong to the State Education Service and are placed in different grades in that service. They are charged both with administrative and academic functions. In 1965-66, the number of inspectorial staff in all the States was 8,050. Although the inspectorial staff has considerably increased during the post-independence period, the increase has not kept pace with the larger increase in the number of educational institutions and the growing complexity of the educational programmes.

It is now being felt that the administrative functions of the inspectors should be curtailed to the minimum so as to allow them more time to guide the teaching personnel in their instructional work. Since an inspector is not supposed to be a specialist in all the school subjects, the latest trend during the last few years in the different States has been to send a team of specialists in the main school subjects to the schools at the time of inspection. The States of Andhra Pradesh and Mysore have started appointing Subject Inspectors at the headquarters. In a few other States, inspection of secondary schools is carried out by a panel of experts drawn from other schools and training colleges.

The Role of Local Bodies

// The organisation and administration of primary education acquired greater significance with the provision of a Directive Principle under Article 45 of the Indian Constitution which relates to the provision of free, compulsory and universal education to all children up to the age of 14. The Kher Committee which was appointed by the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1951 recommended the association of Local Bodies with the administration of primary schools.

Democratic decentralisation in education was, however, introduced in a number of States on the recommendations of the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee report (1959) under which powers with regard to the control of primary education were transferred to local bodies. This was indeed a turning point in the administration of primary education in this country.

The Balwant Rai Mehta Committee identified the Community Development block as the administrative unit and recommended the transfer of control of primary education to the Panchayat Samitis. The Kothari Commission (1964-66) has instead favoured district as the unit of administration.

Rajasthan was the first State to introduce the scheme of democratic decentralisation in education by an Act of the State Legislature which is known as the Rajasthan Panchayat Samiti and Zilla Parishad Act, 1959. Primary education was transferred to Panchayat Samitis and they were required to meet 50% of the cost on contingent and non-recurring expenditure, while the State Government was to bear the entire cost on teachers' salaries.

Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, Madras, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh followed suit. In Gujarat, Mysore and Punjab, the Panchayat Samitis have been formed at Taluka level.

There is a considerable variation in the nature of Local Bodies to which authority over elementary education has been devolved. In some areas, as in Maharashtra, the authority is devolved both on Municipalities in urban areas and on Zilla Parishads in rural areas. In Rajasthan, the transfer of control is confined to rural areas only. In respect of rural areas, the devolution is at the village level in Assam, at the block level in Andhra Pradesh and at the district level in Maharashtra.

Thus there is a dual control over primary education by the State Departments of Education through the prescription of curricula, textbooks, inspection and supervision, legislation, and the like while the administration of primary schools vests in the Local Bodies. The scheme of democratic decentralization in education is yet at the experimental stage and it is too early to make any judgement on it. There is, in fact, a need to make intensive studies on this experiment. //

Conclusion

To sum up, some significant trends are noticeable in the administration of education in India during the period 1947-66. Planning has provided an opportunity to the Central Government to make larger incursions into the field irrespective of their limited Constitutional responsibility for education. Some of the State Governments have introduced a 'caste system' in the organisational structure of the State Departments of Education by setting up separate directorates for school education, college education and technical education. The increase in the inspectorial staff has lagged far behind the increase in the number of educational institutions. New innovations like 'democratic decentralization' in elementary education have started in most of the States. What will be the outcome of these trends, is just anybody's guess!

TEACHER EDUCATION

Since Independence there has been a large scale expansion and a degree of reconstruction, if not great improvement, in the field of education at all levels. In the field of teacher education also there has been not only quantitative expansion but there has also been some qualitative changes with the incoming of the influences of various new trends and other new features. Not only have the training institutions and the enrolment therein increased over the years but changes have come in the out-look for the preparation of teachers. Training of teachers is now better called as education of teachers. In a similar manner new trends with regards to integrated courses, further education of teachers-in service, training of un-trained teachers through correspondence courses and the like are gaining ground in our educational thought and practice since Independence.

It may be worthwhile to review the position of teacher education in India since Independence with regards to its various developing features so that educational administrators, teacher educators and all others concerned with education have not only a stock-taking of the past but have a better vision for the future.

Training Institutions : Courses and Programmes

Before Independence there were three types of training institutions :

1. Normal Schools or Primary Training Schools for Primary Teachers admitting trainees after the Middle Standard Examination.
2. Secondary Training Schools for Middle School Teachers admitting trainees generally after Matriculation.
3. Training Colleges for High School Teachers admitting trainees after the Bachelor's degree.

After Independence there has come a change in the type of these training institutions. By and large we have now training programmes for primary teachers in institutes having mostly a two Year's Course (in some States still 1 Year Course) after matriculation. For secondary school teachers there have been separate training colleges, University Departments of Education or training units attached to ordinary Arts/Science colleges for a 1 year course after graduation.

The training Degrees/Diplomas/Certificates given by these institutions however have been differently named. There has been quite a confusion in the nomenclature, in the co-ordination of the training programmes and in the awarding of Degrees/Diplomas and Certificates. Very often the same State awarded B.Ed. Degree or L.T. or S.A.V. Certificates for the same type of training. Although this confusion is not quite clear yet, as some States still award B.T/B.Ed. degree or L.T. Certificates for the same type of training but by and large the significant change with regards to teacher-preparation has come in looking upon this preparation not as training but as education. It is now believed that for teachers training is not quite a correct word as we train a horse or train a dog for some tricks. To teachers we give a new orientation with a new change in outlook and attitude towards children alongwith the proficiency and skill-in handling the teaching situation in the class-room effectively.

Number of Training Institutions

The number of institutions for training of teachers with the percentage of trained teachers in the schools at all levels has increased since Independence. During 1936-37, there were 27 Training Colleges with 1779 trainees, whereas the number of Training Schools was 539 with 26,206 trainees. During 1946-47, this number increased and there were 34 Training Colleges with 2493 trainees and there were 537 Training Schools with 33,947 trainees. The number of Training Colleges and Training Schools has increased since Independence which can easily be gathered from Table 10.1.

TABLE 10.1

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES FOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS

<i>Item</i>	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 (Estimated)
Number of Schools	782	930	1,138	1,300
Enrolment in Schools for Teachers Training				
Men	51,532	60,143	84,147	1,01,000
Women	17,893	23,324	26,355	39,000
Total	69,416	83,467	1,10,502	1,40,000
No. of Colleges	53	107	about 200	260 (now 275)
Enrolment in Colleges for Teachers Training				
Men	2,600	7,915	33,381	52,480
Women	1,344	3,347	17,354	29,520
Total	3,944	11,262	50,735	82,000

Number and Percentage of Trained Teachers

Alongwith the training facilities in more training institutions the number of trained teachers has increased steadily. Whereas during 1936-37, 56.7% teachers were trained, in 1941-42 this percentage increased to 61.3% and the percentage of trained teachers immediately before Independence was 61.5%. This trend of more trained teachers to an extent, increased after Independence with the result that the percentage of trained teachers in Middle and Senior Basic Schools during 1962-63 was 70.2 and in High/Higher Secondary Schools there were 65.8% trained teachers and this percentage of trained teachers has been increasing steadily with the availability of more training facilities. Although the position is not the same all-over the country as some States have a high percentage of trained teachers and others have a lower. An idea of the percentage of trained teachers in various States in this country could be had from the figures for the year 1965-66 as given in Table 10.2.

TABLE 10.2
PERCENTAGE OF TRAINED TEACHERS IN THE
STATES (1965-66)

Name of State	Percentage of Teachers		
	Secondary Stage	Higher Primary Stage	Lower Primary Stage
1. Andhra Pradesh	82.4%	80.4%	90.0%
2. Assam	18.6	22.4	55.0
3. Bihar	50.2	72.5	82.7
4. Gujarat	66.4	61.4	Included under higher Primary
5. Jammu & Kashmir	25.6	54.2	54.0
6. Kerala	89.0	82.7	93.0
7. Madhya Pradesh	69.0	72.0	80.00
8. Madras	86.3	93.1	96.7
9. Maharashtra	71.4	74.8	Included under higher Primary
10. Mysore	59.5	59.9	Included under higher Primary
11. Nagaland	15.9	8.7	20.3
12. Orissa	52.0	31.0	60.0
13. Punjab	96.0	88.0	89.0
14. Rajasthan	60.0	71.0	75.0
15. Uttar Pradesh	81.9	87.1	73.5
16. West Bengal	35.6	16.3	38.3

Source : Government of India Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66 (New Delhi : Ministry of Education, 1966), p. 81.

With the expansion of education at various levels the number of teachers have naturally increased and an idea of the number of teachers in various schools over the years since Independence can be had from the Table 10.3 from which it may be gathered that after every Five Years the number of teachers has become $1\frac{1}{2}$ times more than what it was earlier so that from 1950 to 1965, the total number of teachers has become about three times.

TABLE 10.3
TEACHERS IN ALL EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

<i>Type of Institution</i>	<i>1950-51</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	
Secondary Schools	1,06,522	19,982	1,26,504
Higher Primary Schools	72,609	12,887	85,496
Lower Primary Schools	4,55,637	82,281	5,37,918
Pre-Schools	170	696	866
Vocational Schools	9,467	2,131	11,598
Special Education Schools	10,764	593	11,357
Total	65,169	1,18,570	7,73,739
		<i>1955-56</i>	
Secondary Schools	1,54,709	35,085	1,89,794
Higher Primary Schools	1,24,550	23,844	1,48,394
Lower Primary Schools	5,74,182	1,17,067	6,91,249
Pre-Schools	289	1,591	1,880
Vocational Schools	13,631	2,966	16,597
Special Education Schools	14,114	906	15,020
Total	8,81,475	1,81,459	10,62,934
	<i>1</i>	<i>1960-61</i>	
Secondary Schools	2,33,958	62,347	2,96,305
Higher Primary Schools	2,61,696	83,532	3,45,228
Lower Primary Schools	6,14,727	1,26,788	7,41,515
Pre-Schools.	3,59,407	3,45,096	4,006
Vocational Schools	23,204	3,948	27,152
Special Education Schools	14,533	1,161	15,694
Total	11,48,525	2,81,375	14,29,900
		<i>1965-66 (Estimated)</i>	
Secondary Schools	3,45,000	95,000	4,40,000
Higher Primary Schools	3,80,000	1,40,000	5,20,000
Lower Primary Schools	8,50,000	2,00,000	10,50,000
Pre-Schools	51,000	5,500	6,500
Vocational Schools	37,100	6,200	43,300
Special Education Schools	17,000	1,386	18,386
Total	16,30,100	4,48,086	20,78,186

Not only the number of teachers and the percentage of trained teachers in the schools has increased after Independence as could be gathered from Tables 10.2 and 10.3, the general educational standards of teachers in Primary/Middle/High/Higher Secondary Schools has also shown marked improvement over the years after Independence.

Educational Standards of Teachers

The number of teachers having general educational qualification of Matriculation and above has been rising steadily whereas the number of Non-Matric teachers in Primary and Middle Schools has been falling. So also the number of teachers having general educational qualification of a graduate degree and above has been rising where as the number of Non-graduate teachers has been steadily falling as could be gathered from the figures of Table 10.4. This augurs well for the educational standards in the schools as better qualified teachers are now manning the teaching posts in schools.

TABLE 10.4

GENERAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF PRIMARY/MIDDLE AND HIGH/HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Year	General Edu. of Pry. School Teachers		General Edu. of Middle School Teachers		General Edu. of Teachers of High/ Hr. Sec. Schools	
	Matric and above.	Non-Matric.	Matric and above.	Non-Matric.	Graduate and above.	Non-Gradu- ates.
1950-51	10.4%*	89.6%	47.3%	52.7%	41.8%	58.2%
1955-56	24.4	75.6	59.4	40.6	47.7	52.4
1960-61	38.2	61.8	64.3	35.7	54.7	45.5
1965-66	51.0	49.0	66.0	34.0	60.00	40.0
(Estimated)						

*All the figures indicate percentage of total number of teachers.

Number of Women Teachers

Another significant point to be noted with regard to education in our schools after Independence, is that more and more women are coming in the teaching profession, although the number of trained women who could be teachers is far larger than those who actually take to teaching as obviously many women do not take to teaching as after marriage they are obliged to give it up and there is undoubtedly a prejudice prevalent in the society that women are not for jobs out-side the homes as the home is

considered their proper place. Moreover many trained women do not like to go to rural schools in villages where the amenities they are used to are not available. The number of women teachers, however, has increased steadily over the years in all schools. Though the number is not so large as it could be or rather should be but for school education of young children women are found to be better suited than men. In the countries like U.K. the school teacher is generally called a She and not a He as the school teachers there are mostly women. However an idea about the number and percentage of women teachers in various schools can be had from the figures of Table 10.5.

TABLE 10.5

**NUMBER OF WOMEN TEACHERS IN PRIMARY/MIDDLE/HIGH/
HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

Year	Number of Women Teachers in :		
	Primary Schools	Middle Schools	High/Higher Secondary Schools
1950-51	82,281 (18)*	12,887 (18)	19,982 (19)
1955-56	1,17,067 (20)	23,844 (19)	35,085 (23)
1960-61	1,26,788 (21)	83,532 (32)	62,367 (27)
1965-66 (Estimated)	2,00,000 (24)	1,40,000 (37)	95,000 (28)

*The figures in parentheses show the number of women teachers for every hundred men teachers.

Source : Government of India, *Report of Education Commission 1964-66*
(New Delhi : Ministry of Education, 1966)

Expenditure On Teacher Education

With the expansion of education the amount of money spent on education, in general, and on teacher education both for primary and secondary schools has increased a number of times over the various Five-Year Plans. The expenses for training of primary teachers has been double and for secondary teachers about three times in the Third Five Year Plan as compared with the Second Five Year Plan, where as the expenses on Secondary Education were four times more in the Third Plan than in the Second Five Year Plan. More money is steadily found for the expanding educational facilities and expenses on Teachers Training very largely are met from public funds to the extent of 85% or more, as can be gathered from Table 10.6. Only a small percentage of the expenses is met from fees and other sources. Although there are certain private agencies which are running some educational institutions but in our

country education being a State subject the large percentage of expenses have to be incurred from public funds which have been steadily increasing over the years after Independence.

TABLE 10.6

EXPENDITURE ON TEACHERS TRAINING PROGRAMME

<i>Item</i>	<i>I Plan, 1950-55</i>	<i>II Plan, 1956-61</i>	<i>III Plan 1961-66</i>
<i>(Money in Crores)</i>			
Total Expenditure on General Education	133	222	460
Total expenditure on Elementary Education	85	95	206
Total Expenditure on Secondary Education	20	51	128
Expenditure on Training Schools for Primary Teachers	NA	12	22
Expenditure on Training Colleges for Secondary Teachers	NA	3	8

TABLE 10.7

SOURCES OF EXPENDITURE ON TEACHER EDUCATION

<i>Year</i>	<i>Total Direct Exp. on teacher training schools (Rs. in Crores)</i>	<i>Percentage of Govern- ment Funds</i>	<i>Exp. met from Local Funds</i>	<i>Fees</i>	<i>Other Sources</i>
1950-51	1.52	84.5%	1.7%	4.7%	9.1%
1955-56	1.98	84.7	0.5	6.2	8.6
1960-61	3.27	87.6	0.3	4.7	7.4
1965-66 (Estimated)	5.18	NA	NA	NA	NA

	<i>Total Direct Exp. on teacher training colleges (Rs. in Crores)</i>	<i>Percentage of Govern- ment Funds</i>	<i>Exp. met from Local Funds</i>	<i>Fees</i>	<i>Other Sources</i>
1950-51	0.35	81.9	—	8.8	9.3
1955-56	0.66	72.7	—	15.8	11.5
1960-61	1.76	76.0	—	14.7	9.3
1965-66	2.86	NA	NA	NA	NA

Backlog of Untrained Teachers : Role of Correspondence Courses

It has been mentioned above that the number of trained teachers has been increasing steadily but still there is a large backlog of untrained teachers which number near about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakh. These untrained teachers are being given certain facilities and opportunities for training. One of the significant innovation for the training of these untrained teachers and even others who wish to be teachers after their graduation is the introduction of Correspondence Or Own-Time Courses. The first experiment in India in this system of instructions through correspondence course was started a few years ago in Delhi University for B.A. and B. Com. degree. The use of this system for training of teachers has been adopted in the Central Institute of Education and the 4 Regional Colleges of Education at AJMER, BHOPAL, BHUBANESHWAR and MYSORE for the B.Ed. degrees. In the 8th Conference of the All India Association of Teachers Colleges held at Tara Devi (Simla Hills) in June 1965, it was resolved that the system of Correspondence Courses should better be utilised for removing the backlog of un-trained teachers and this course was to be restricted to teachers who had 5 years teaching experience in order to enable them to benefit from the course for being properly trained teachers. The Education Commission of 1966 has also strongly recommended the adoption of correspondence courses not only for teacher training but for a variety of other purposes also.

The greatest weakness in the system of instruction through Correspondence for teacher education is a lack of personal contact between the Teachers and Pupils. For Teachers Training, such a contact could be provided by making trainees to attend a Summer School during vacations and it could be made compulsory for all trainees of the Correspondence Courses to attend such summer schools. In these summer schools, teachers and the trainees could come into close contact and whatever is missed by trainees in a regular training college could, to an extent, be made up when the students could be asked to do some assignments and construct some objective tests. Some courses in visual education could be given and they could be made to prepare charts, models, and other Craft work could be done. There could be discussions in an organised manner in certain educational problems. There could be some seminars, study groups when the trainees could present papers or essays. All such type of work has been suggested for these training programmes through correspondence courses. It may be hoped that more and more training colleges start these Courses to reduce the number of un-trained teachers in their own areas.

Concurrent Courses of Teacher Education

After Independence, a new trend for teacher education which is of great significance for the future is the combining of Academic and Professional programmes in the same institution through the Concurrent or

Integrated Courses. In India training of teachers has followed the German or the British pattern and people go for training in a separate institution after having passed the essential examinations in general education. But lately in U.K. also after Lord Robbins Report in 1963, a new trend has come in for teacher preparation and it is expected by Lord Robbins that even in U.K. by the middle of 1970, a substantial number of students would be taking the 4 Years Integrated Course leading both to a University Degree and a Professional Qualification. This type of teachers training where both Academic and Professional subjects are done concurrently and not successively has been long prevalent in U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and even in some smaller countries. In this country the first experiment of this type was started at Kurukshetra in July, 1960, when a new College of Education, was started for the training of secondary school teachers by making them to follow a 4 years Integrated Course after Matriculation leading to the degree of B.A./B.Sc. Education (now re-named B.A./B.Sc. B.Ed.), in which both academic and professional studies are done concurrently. Later, the National Council of Educational Research and Training, started four such Regional Colleges of Education (mentioned earlier) in 1963, for integrated courses in Science, Technology, Commerce, Mathematics, Agriculture and so forth. Although the Education Commission in their report have not fully realised the utility of these Integrated Courses and have not given due importance to this new method of teacher training yet education being a profession like Engineering or Medicine the training of teachers has to be done as the training of Engineers or Doctors in the same institution. It is un-natural to separate the Academic and Professional studies and in this country, poor as we are, we cannot afford the luxury of separate and small training colleges. The professional preparation of teachers and their academic attainments have to be combined and the present training colleges should also be offering academic courses and could thus be converted into Teachers Colleges as in U.S.A. and other countries.

Programmes of In-service Teacher Education

After Independence another important feature of teacher-education has been the organised attempt to increase the efficiency and skill of teachers-in-service. This has been done through the Extension Services Departments. The All India Council for Secondary Education (Later called DEPSE and now called the Department of Field Services of the National Institute of Education) came into existence some 13 years ago and this body organised the Extension Services Departments in 1955 in certain selected training colleges for the re-orientation of teachers-in-service to increase their knowledge and practical skill by making them to participate in various programmes in seminars, workshops, study circles, experimental projects, science fairs and the like. To start with,

23 Extension Services Centres were established in 1955 to which 31 more were added by 1958. Since then more Extension Services Centres and Units have been started in various training colleges. At present there are about 100 such Extension Services Departments located in the Secondary Training Colleges. The expenses of these departments, to the extent of Rs. 18,500/- a year on Centres and about Rs. 5000/- a year on the Units are largely met from the funds provided by the NCERT, but the State departments of education also give grants towards T.A. and D.A. for their participating teachers. Although, the real impact of these Extension Services Departments spread all over the country for improving school education may not be yet so very impressive and effective yet there is no doubt that with the advent of these departments the teachers, administrators, supervisory staff and even parents are becoming more and more alive to the problems of education and more interest is being taken in improving school education. Various assessment teams set up for assessing the impact of the working of these departments have by and large recommended not only the continuance of these programmes but even for their expansion. The effect of this has been that in certain institutes of education the Extension Services Departments have been started for the re-orientation of Primary School Teachers on the same lines as the programmes are organised in the training colleges for the secondary school teachers.

Conclusion

The above treatment is but a hurried and sketchy account of development of teacher education in the country since Independence but as could be made out the trends are both towards quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of teacher-education. These trends, it is hoped, will gain a momentum rather than have a set-back. It can be said with a degree of confidence that in the years to come the Indian Schools will have not only more and more trained teachers at all levels with a better and adequate general education but also with greater professional efficiency and skill to make school teaching what it ought to be.

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UDAY SHANKAR

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

(The study of educational finance in India is a matter of recent origin. It is as fascinating and interesting as the study of educational systems in all advanced countries. In India education has a hoary past. Her system of education has been original and unique and its operation has continued from ancient days with suitable adjustments to times and circumstances with no burden on State exchequer. It never faced the financial problems that are posing now. There are obvious reasons for it.

Historical background

Indian education in the hoary past was basically an endeavour to understand the self and to study the man. But the education in India in modern times is a great deflection from that original, reason behind being that it is a proliferation out of a seed that was transplanted from England in the eighteenth-nineteenth century. This Western framework has been further buttressed and embellished by newer systems and methods of progressive countries like America. At the same time the Indian ideal has not been wholly forsaken. Thus a complex pattern of education has grown in India and strangely enough it draws its sustenance from sources or finances which were prevalent in ancient India, as well as those that are in the modern countries of the West. The onus of maintaining and administering education has thus been placed on both the Society, as in olden India, and the State as in modern world. That explains the present pattern of financial administration—an amalgam of the systems of India and England.

In the pre-British period education was left to the earnest seekers and lovers of knowledge to kindle the light. The society, by and large, maintained teachers. But that attitude was altered when the British came to this land of ours. They wanted education to grow in the pattern as it was then in England with certain local modifications. That was absolutely a necessity for upholding British domination in India. They did not expect that the then conservative Indians, who looked askance at every move of the British, would help the alien system of education grow and spend money for it. The Britishers themselves, therefore, thought of introducing it with men and money, with the assistance of missionaries and teachers and coffers of endowments and public exchequer.

The year 1813 is a great landmark in the history of educational finance in modern India. In this year the first grant was made from the Government exchequer to meet the operational costs of educational institutions.

Educational Finance in Pre-British Period :

In the pre-British period, education was closely connected with religion, piety and cultural standards of the upper stratum of the Society. Educational institutions like the *tols* and *pathsalas*, *madrassahs* and *maktabs* were financed by charitable and munificent persons. The religious teachers throughout the length and breadth of the country laid emphasis on the ethical and religious bias of culture, and they spoke in favour of such education as would make people honest, pure, noble and religious and not in favour of bookish learning that might make men ingible and irreligious, greedy and inhuman. For such a system of education, the people did not care much for public money. The paraphernalia and ostentation were thought to be hindrances to real education. Education was pursued with the ardour of a *tapaswin* or devotee.

The educational finances, in the Pre-British era consisted of :

(a) Grants in cash or land given by the rulers or Zamindars or landed aristocracy or wealthy individuals. The endowments of lands were very much encouraged, as they provided permanent sources of finances.

(b) Presents and perquisites *guru-dakshinas* and *hadya-i-ustad*, given by the parents of the students,

(c) Gifts in cash or kind by the local community

(d) Traditional maintenance of teachers and *tols* through the munificence of rulers, wealthy patrons, local or village communities and sometimes teachers themselves.

Education was mostly run on presents in kind and on feelings of respect and deference that people bore towards teachers. The then social attitude towards teachers was reverential. In response to those feelings the teachers taught pupils *ex-gratia*. "It was a form of labour contribution of teachers that educated a large number of children and the teachers were satisfied if they could somehow maintain themselves on presents". The society had thus not to bear any financial burden. The native genius of India had then socialised education cheaply. The teachers in those days were examples of "plain living and high thinking". They had no mundane ambitions for money. It is pertinent to mention here from Adam's report that the teacher of an elementary school never received more than Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per month.

Besides these low costs for running the institutions, the expenditures on other items were equally insignificant. The expenditure on equipment was very small. It consisted of purchasing writing materials and preparing manuscripts. The buildings presented no problem; for, they were either donated or shared with other charitable institutions. Village *mandaps* were used as schools. It is clear how naively the Society

maintained its wide-spread structure of education with no bone-breaking load of taxation. Decentralised and cheap was the system of education in those days.

This system worked well so long as the local village communities were in perfect function and so long as the economic conditions of the people received no jolt from famines and depressions. It suffered from one defect. There was no statutory obligation on the wealthy charitable persons and so it depended on their sweet will to maintain education or not.

The East India Company was also reluctant in their earlier period of administration to undertake any responsibility of education in India. They came to trade only. But when they noticed weaknesses of the native powers, they dreamt of an empire and ruling it.

About the first decade of the nineteenth Century there grew up an agitation of the people in India and England in favour of public school education. As a sequel in the Charter of 1813 a clause was introduced to provide public revenue for education. One lakh of rupees was granted that year. This was the beginning of public finance for education in modern India.

Between the years 1833 and 1870 there was more and more demand for educational facilities and consequently the government was constrained to find new sources for financing education. By the year 1870 it rose to Rs. 65·7 lakhs. But still it could not be said that this increase of fund was proportionate to the demand.

During these years and subsequently the sources of educational finance took a definite shape. By and by, imposition of fees was brought into vogue and it became an important source of revenue. From tuition fees the shift was towards imposition of other fees like medical, refreshment, games, examination, building and development fees and so forth. Thus income from these sources became very stable. Education was placed on a path of progress.

Then recourse was had to another source viz., *halkabandi* cess which was assessed on the rental value of the land and levied along with the land revenue. This was the precursor of the "education cess" of local bodies of to-day.

In this way, multifarious sources of educational revenue came into being, e.g., Government revenue, local funds for rural areas, municipal funds for urban areas, fees and other sources like donations. These multiple sources had one good effect. When governmental funds fell short, other sources came to replace them. In this way educational expenses were somehow managed. The chances of set-backs were retarded.

But in spite of these resources, education could not make much headway progress owing to financial inadequacies. About the time of

Lord Curzon there dawned a period of financial prosperity. This Viceroy decided that Centre should help education in the provinces and placed huge sums at their disposal. This was, to a great extent, instrumental in the expansion of education. Within a period of 15 years it was noticed that educational expenditure had increased immensely, as will be evident from Table 11.1.

TABLE 11.1
EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

Year	Level of Education (Rupees in Lakhs)		
	Collegiate	Secondary	Primary
1906-7	47	150	155
1921-22	70	487	509

Further, when Diarchy was introduced, it raised great hopes among Indians that education would flourish. But within a few years there ensued a period of economic depression and all new schemes of educational developments were thrown into the cold storage. The educational expenses increased no doubt but in smaller doses. Then came the Second World War and all educational progress was slowed down. By the year 1946-47 the total educational expenditure was as given in Table 11.2.

TABLE 11.2
EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

Year	(Rupees in Lakhs)		
	Collegiate	Secondary	Primary
1946-47	707	1,193	1,526

In 1947, at the end of the British rule in India, the official figures regarding the progress of education are as given in Table 11.3.

TABLE 11.3
POSITION OF EDUCATION IN 1947

Stage of Education	Population in British India in 1941	Educable population	No. enrolled	Per centage.
Primary Stage (Age-group 6-11)		3,70,25,000	1,30,36,248	35%
Secondary stage (Age-Group 11-17)	29,61,56,755	78,67,298	44,73,720	57%
University stage (Age-group 17-23)	—	2,56,444	245846	98%

From Table 11.3 it is apparent that the percentages of the number enrolled to educable population at the primary, secondary and university stages were 35%, 57% and 98%. The corresponding figures in 1936-37, as available from official records, were 31%, 40% and 50% respectively. The highest increase was in the field of University education, whereas the lowest increase was in the field of Primary education. Obviously the craving was for higher education.

Educational Finance in the Post-Independence Period

After the Independence in 1947 the National Government took an objective view of the state of things. Five Year Plans were outlined and endeavour was made to fulfil the targets as far as possible. Uptill now three plans have been seen through. Education, like other objectives, was analysed. It was thought desirable to make larger allocations to all branches of education. Some priorities were also determined. The first priority was attached to training of teachers followed by basic and social education, technical and University. Primary and technical education received their due share.

Table 11.4 shows the progress of education in the post-Independence period through figures of expenditure on records

TABLE 11.4
EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN THE THREE PLANS

Expenditure (in millions)	I Plan 1950-51	II Plan 1955-56	III Plan 1960-61	1966 (Estimated)
1. Total Educational Finance	1,444	1,897	3,444	6000
2. Educational Ex- penditure per capita	Rs. 3.2	4.8	7.8	12.1
3. Total Educational Expense as Percent- age of National Income	1.2	1.9	2.4	2.9
4. Average annual rate of growth of Total educational Expenditure	10.6%	12.7%	11.8%	11.7%

Source : Form A of the Ministry of Education.

From a survey of the educational expenses during the first 3 plans it is obvious that the finances required for education in coming years will run into astronomical numbers. The present state of educational facilities is only too minimum, and there is cry for "more education" everywhere. If it has to be made just the optimum, the finance will pose problems for educational administrators. This is making them worried over the situation.

Problem of Educational Finance

India to-day is a Sovereign Democratic Republic. A democracy can survive long if there is mass education. An English statesman had rightly foreseen and stated, "if democracy was to be perpetuated, we must educate our masters" that is, the general public. The common man has a great potential strength and is a source of vitality in the body politic,

and democracy would demand, for its own longevity, that equal educational opportunities are provided to all educable children irrespective of caste, creed or class. That can be made possible if the Government takes upon itself the sacred duty to escalate and improve education with a view to improving the social and economic status of all. It is incumbent upon the Democratic Republic of India to provide extensive facilities of education for all.

(With this end in view the Constitution of India has incorporated a directive principle that "each State was to endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years." This will have the effect of broad-basing the foundations of education. The edifice of education may, thereafter, grow up magnificent and high.

Apart from the considerations of democratic living, there are a number of other socio-economic factors which go to heighten the demand for education in present times. There has been an increase in the mobility of individuals and communities in search of occupation and social rehabilitation. Free intermingling of people has given rise to hopes and aspirations amongst all owing to imitation of the better class of people; and better classes of people are better today because of better academic attainments. It has therefore become an incumbent duty upon a Welfare State to provide better scope for education. Over and above, industrialisation is growing apace. Industrialisation would only naturally necessitate more and more scientific and technological education. All these and many other sundry factors are having an impact on the demand for education.

The increase in population is itself a pointer to "educational economists"; they are confronted with the utter need of mounting finance if they are to provide for education of all educable children and adults *pari passu* with the rate of increase of population, which is simply alarming.) Let us take a stock of the rate of increase of population in the last four censuses :

Year	Rate of increase
1931	11·0%
1941	14·3%
1951	13·4%
1961	21·5%

Taking into consideration all demographic factors, the official view is that population will explode enormously in future and it will have a terrible impact on educational finances as well as other aspects of society. When we take into account the educational costs, we consider the relations between the 'productive' age-group population and school-age population.

Normally in advanced countries of the West the people of 20-69 age-group, which is taken to be the productive age-group, is five times the school-going age-group of 5-14. They have, therefore, a much smaller proportion of population to educate. But in India the picture is dismal. Here the productive age-group people are only twice the school-age-group. So a larger proportion of pupils is to be educated here. It means that there is need to spend more on education. The statistics go to show that the educable age-group population is

Age-group 5-14	27·0%
Age-group 14-20	25·6%
Total	<u>52·6%</u>

As against this proportion the percentage of 20-69 age-group is about 49%. So from the above figures it will not be difficult to see how ticklish is the problem of educational finance in India.

Besides the staggering problem of large population to be educated, the educational administrator has to cope with the problem of dimensions of the country where schools are to be run. Within this vast expanse there are areas, inhabited but difficult to approach, where inaccessibility has made the problem of education all the more straining.

The country, as it is, has a preponderance of peasant population. It is necessary that the education should be such as would make their children better equipped for the national growth in the fields of agriculture, industry and scientific advancement. Accordingly the pattern of education as it is now, which is rather cheap and productive of clerks and sundry workers much in excess of the requirement, is greatly in need of change. That would mean huge costs. On the contrary the present system is wasteful. Between the two, one wasteful and the other costly, education need be properly rehabilitated and costs are to be determined cautiously.

There are a few other problems which go to make education a costly affair. There are many areas which are sparsely populated, difficult to approach and communicate with and inhabited by poor people and tribals or backward classes. To implant education in such areas is not an easy job. The educational administrators have come across many impediments. These impediments can be overcome if a climate of educational activities could be set up with sufficient finances. So for a few educational institutions of Christian missionaries or of Ramakrishna Mission or Religious *Sanghas* of private efforts have filled the vacuum here and there. Education in these areas would mean double the costs in crowded or comparatively well-populated areas. It must be said that no longer

such state of neglect should be allowed to persist. In a democratic republic if a section of population be allowed to live in deep ignorance and watch their neighbours progress hard, it will recoil on the society and body politic very adversely. So whatever might be the costs, the backward areas deserve special considerations and looking after.

The educational finance has to reckon with the needs of the country and the standard of living of the people. The needs of the country are many, so far as education is concerned. There are needs of executives and workers, teachers and researchers, technical and agricultural adepts, craftsmen and artisans, shopkeepers and so forth. All would need education, either general or of special nature. If everything is to go on smoothly, education should there be at the root. From this it can be visualised how all-pervading is the jurisdiction of education. In fact, if education is to be taken seriously it is a costly business for any country. To what extent can education be furthered and to what length of cost the nation can afford to go are the questions which are connected with educational finance. Perhaps it would be very difficult to answer in the circumstances. The hiatus is there; the hiatus will there be, however one may try to bridge. This eternal enigma for an educational administrator or planner will persist. But his best performance will be when he finds the gap only too little.

The problem of educational finance is often complicated by the standards of living which are always on the side of ascent. Any rise in the standard necessitates better emoluments for teachers, larger expenditure on school equipment and capital outlay for buildings and the like. These factors go to raise the costs of education sky-high. It becomes a difficult job to find educational finance to meet all these.

Sources of Educational Finances

(Finding finances to meet the costs of education is a difficult job of the educational administrators throughout the world. It is all the more complex in India) for reasons set out earlier. The complexity grows as the demands for educational expenditures increase after the system takes a momentum. That explains how the problem of today differs from the problem of 1813. It was only Rupees one lakh in 1813 that sufficed for educational expenses, but today even Rs. 600 crores is supposed to be insufficient to meet the present need. And there is cry every where, "we want more education, more schools and colleges and more pay for teachers."

And why this short-fall of money for educational expenditures? If we take into consideration the basic resources of finances for

education in almost all countries, we find that almost all countries fall back on :

- (1) Taxes or rates, including tax benefits such as exemptions for non-profit and philanthropic agencies.
- (2) Grants by municipalities or district boards.
- (3) Fees or individual payment for educational services,
- (4) Profits arising from sale of goods or services,
- (5) Income from endowments or other productive investments,
- (6) Non-recurring income from gifts, charity or bequests,
- (7) Loans.

Besides, some countries have endeavoured to secure local co-operation in organising capital outlays towards building schools. In Egypt some special school building services have been financed through loans. In some countries like the United States the trend is to increase federal grants to education, while in others the State Governments have increased their subventions. Some under-developed countries are looking for increased assistance from foreign sources and to private munificence in their own countries.

Besides the governmental finance and private resources, certain special measures in the nature of local activities have been used in some countries for assisting schools. These special measures are like these : organising school festivals and shows, sport events, holiday camps, issue of special stamps, lotteries, tickets, money-raising appeals and sale of school products and services.

So far as India is concerned, the educational finance, also, is of multi-sources. Education is financed by :

- (a) the Central Government
- (b) the State Government
- (c) local authorities
- (d) fees, and
- (e) other sources, including endowments, donations and other voluntary contributions from the public.

All these have helped to raise more resources in the aggregate than would otherwise have been possible. Table 11.5 shows the contribution of each source has increased :

TABLE 11.5
EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN INDIA BY SOURCES

<i>Source</i>	<i>Year</i> 1950-51	<i>Year</i> 1955-56	<i>Year</i> 1960-61	<i>Year</i> 1965-66
(In Rs. thousands)				
1. Government funds (Per centage of total expenditure on education)	652, 678 57.1	1172, 049 61.8	2, 340, 914 68.0	4, 271, 856 71.2
2. Local Bodies Funds (Per centage of total expenditure on education)	124, 987 10.9	163, 548 8.6	224, 914 6.5	378, 031 6.3
3. Fees (Per centage of total expenditure on education)	233, 272 20.4	379, 033 20.0	590, 258 17.1	918, 077 15.3
4. Other sources (Per centage of total expenditure on education)	132, 885 11.6	181, 980 9.6	287, 715 8.4	432, 036 7.2

From Table 11.5 it will be seen that the largest increase has taken place in the expenditure from Government Funds. In 1950-51 it was 57.1 per cent, but in 1965-66 it came to 71.2 per cent of the total expenditure. Consequently the contribution of other sources has proportionately declined. This is sufficiently clear that the education in future will have to be financed by Government in a larger measure. Other sources will tail off in the long run. The trend is quite obvious. The Education Commission, 1964-66 opines, "taking an overall view of the situation, therefore, it appears that the funds of the Central and State governments would have to bear about 90 per cent (or even more) of the total educational expenditure."

TABLE 11.6
AVERAGE ANNUAL RATE OF GROWTH

	<i>I Plan</i>	<i>II Plan</i>	<i>III Plan</i>	<i>Total 3 plans</i>
(a) Government grants	12.4	14.8	12.8	13.3
(b) Local Bodies Funds	5.5	6.6	10.9	7.3
(c) Fees	10.3	9.2	9.2	9.6
(d) Other sources	6.5	9.6	8.5	8.1

But the Education Commission notes a warning that "while it is true that most of the responsibility for the support of education should

thus be squarely placed on governmental funds, a total centralisation of all financial responsibility for education would also not be desirable, because it deprives the agencies at the School and local levels of all initiative in the matter. Even though the resources thus raised may not be large, the provision of administrative arrangements under which such initiative can exist and is even encouraged is of very great educational significance and will stimulate parental and local interest in education and help to raise standards. We, therefore, recommend that attempts should continue to be made to raise as much contribution as possible from local communities, voluntary organisations and local authorities to support educational development."

Can education pay its way ?

Mahatma Gandhi had thought of a bold plan in his scheme of Basic National Education. While learning, the pupil can earn by sale of goods produced by him. He endeavoured to procure some funds thereby and make education popular and self-supporting. But in course of time it was not assiduously followed. The Sargent Plan did not encourage Gandhiji's ideals and methods. Efforts were made at some quarters to experiment economic and self-supporting education schemes, but results were not encouraging. In more advanced countries e.g., in U. K. costs of education were carefully scrutinised and attempts were made to set up a self-financing educational service, but the possibilities were found to be very much disappointing. It is now accepted on all hands in all countries that education at no stage can be made to pay its way in full. Education and full education to all in a free country is the goal and so the State should arrange for its proper conduct.

The Government should endeavour to lessen the load of taxes and encourage permanent endowments by industrial concerns and munificent persons and charitable institutions. A few suggestions are given below :

- (i) **Land Lease Institutions**—There is a laudable tradition in rural India to make gifts of land for establishment of schools and colleges as also for their day-to-day upkeep. The Government should encourage granting recognition to schools and colleges provided the local people and organisations assign lands and properties with fixed incomes (e.g., agricultural arable lands, rent-fetching houses and godowns and so forth) to these institutions. Their income should be such as would run these institutions at par with any government institution. If this is encouraged there will be no lack of local enthusiasm for such schools? Ultimately it will be seen that a large number of schools are self-financing.
- (ii) **Bonus-fed Institutions**—India has taken long strides in the field of Industrial development. Manufacturing firms have been

earning huge profits. A portion of these goes towards bonus. It will be in fitness of modern tendencies if a portion of this bonus is allowed to feed the entire costs of schools and colleges that may be set up in the interest of children of the factory workers. In the first instance this may be only for local institutions. Later on, a levy on bonus may be imposed and the entire amount may be employed towards the educational finance of the country.

- (iii) **Education cess on life insurers**—Education cess is imposed by Local Bodies to maintain their educational institutions. But that is found to be insufficient in many places. The enhancement of the rate of cess is also disliked by many. So there is hardly any progress through Local Bodies. Yet it is necessary to realise more funds than now. It is suggested that all insurers, whether of life, general fire, marine, risk and the like, are made to pay 1% more on the total annual premium paid. The L.I.C may pay this amount to the State Government in which it is collected. This being a noble object, the insurers may not object to it.
- (iv) **Tax Concessional Institutions**—Income tax laws have relented rigidity and provided tax concessions on incomes, if these are spent for charitable and philanthropic institutions. The Government may lay down special concessions, if the amounts are spent on setting up and running public schools on the pattern to be laid down by the Government. In one sense, these schools will be maintained by industrial firms and trusts on behalf of the Government. In West Bengal such an institution viz., Agricultural College at Kalyani had been established out of the Birla funds on grounds of tax concessions. Similar institutions can be multiplied.

From the fore-going analysis, the problem of finding adequate finance to meet the needs of education is really a source of trouble. Yet we must endeavour all together to resolve it otherwise we cannot move forward. Education, like food production in India, is to be treated on a war-footing. For, education is a war against ignorance. All our efforts are to be converged on one aim, namely, to provide education to all and to find sinews of war, against ignorance that is finance.

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GUIDANCE MOVEMENT

The subject of guidance has gained great importance in America and several other countries. But in India, planned efforts in this direction have been made only recently. It was only after Mudaliar Commission's emphasis on providing guidance at Secondary stage that it has gained increasing importance. Prior to it efforts to provide guidance have been made only in a few States. Before, reviewing briefly the guidance movement in India, it seems essential to review briefly the educational development in India after Independence.

The Central Advisory Board of Education at its meetings in 1948, 1949 and 1951 repeatedly emphasized the need of appointing a Commission to consider the reorganisation of Secondary Education in India. Accordingly, the Government of India appointed a Secondary Education Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. A.L. Mudaliar in September 1952.

The Commission commenting upon the then existing pattern of education has revealed that there was wide variation not only with regard to the different stages of education but also the types of institutions imparting education at each of the stages. There were different types of Nursery Schools, Junior Basic Schools, Higher Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools and Higher Secondary Schools. Certain other types of institutions like Trade Schools, Industrial Schools, Occupational Institutes and Polytechnics also came into existence.

Besides Secondary Education, the Commission has considered higher education also. At University level also there were variations in degree course in different States.

In view of the defects of the then existing system of education, such as : it being narrow and one-sided; isolated from life, inadequate and mechanical methods of teaching, large size of class reducing the personal contacts between teachers and pupils, too much emphasis on examination, and so forth, the need was felt to re-organize the educational system to suit the system of democracy in the country. In order to fit our educational system within the frame-work of our developing democratic nation drastic changes were proposed by the Commission in the existing pattern of education.

It recommended that education should commence after a four or five years, the period of primary or Junior Basic education and

should include Middle or Senior Basic or Junior Secondary Stage of 3 years and the Higher Secondary Stage of 4 years. Elementary or Junior Basic education (up to the age of 13+) should be compulsory for all children. There should be provision of diversified courses for pupils at the High School or Higher Secondary Stage. Multipurpose Schools should be established wherever possible to provide varied courses to pupils. The principal aim of Elementary Education is to discipline the mind and body of the pupil to help him to develop into a good citizen of the country. The chief aims of Secondary Education are the training of character and good citizenship, improvement of practical and vocational efficiency of education and the development of abilities and interests. In other words, the aim of Secondary Education is the full all round development of the individual personality. Secondary Education, as pointed out by the Commission, should be a complete unit by itself, that is, the student should be in a position to enter into the life as a responsible citizen and take up some vocation if he so desires.

Keeping these aims in view the courses should include a number of compulsory subjects along with a variety of electives that can match with the aptitudes, skills, interests, attitudes and temperament of the individual. Some of these courses should prepare for higher studies at University level and others equip a person to enter a suitable job or join a Vocational Training Course.

Later on, attempts were made to re-organize the Secondary Education along the lines suggested by the Mudaliar Commission in the last decade. A remarkable success has been achieved with regard to higher education, that is, Three Years Degree Course has been introduced in every State except in the Universities of U.P. and Bombay University. Same degree of success has not been achieved with regard to converting High Schools to Higher Secondary Schools. Only about 25 per cent of the Secondary Schools in the country were converted into Higher Secondary Schools by the end of the III Plan. But no uniform pattern of school and college education has emerged as a result of re-organisation. There are still almost as many patterns of education as there were before the scheme was launched. Therefore another Education Commission was appointed by the Government of India in 1964 under the chairmanship of Prof. D.S. Kothari to advise Government on the national pattern of education and general principles and policies of education at all stages.

The Commission has revealed that the broad pattern of education in our country which was imported from abroad still contains the foreign elements irrespective of suitability. With a view to bring about a change to suit the needs of our country, it has made certain proposals. Before outlining the new educational structure suggested by it, it is important to note that the Commission is not in favour of imposing a uniform pattern of school and college classes in all parts of the country. Certain

characteristic features of the Indian situation, such as vastness of the country, immense diversity of local conditions and traditions and the like, demand a certain amount of flexibility. Another feature of the proposal is related to the lengthening of the total duration of school and college education, as can be seen in the recommendations made by the Commission.

Regarding the new educational structure, it has recommended that it should consist of (i) one to three years of Pre-school education, (ii) a ten year period of general education comprising of a Primary Stage of 7 to 8 years and Lower Secondary Stage of 3 or 2 years of General education or 1 to 3 years of vocational training, (iii) a Higher Secondary Stage of two years of general education or 1 to 3 years of vocational education and (iv) a higher education stage having a course of 3 years or more for the first degree course and followed by courses of varying durations for the second or research degree. The Secondary Schools should be of two types: High schools of 10 years duration and Higher Secondary Schools of 11 or 12 years duration. Every Secondary School should not be upgraded. Only the bigger and efficient ones should be upgraded to the status of Higher Secondary School and the Higher Secondary Schools which do not deserve the Higher Secondary status should be downgraded. A new Higher Secondary course, *i.e.*, the specialized studies in different subjects should be instituted in XI and XII classes instead of IX class which is too early a stage for specialisation to begin. The Pre-University Course should be transferred from University and affiliated colleges to Secondary Schools by 1975-76 and the duration of the course should be lengthened to two years by 1985-86.

While reviewing the educational developments in our country in the last two decades, we cannot leave aside the subject of guidance as it has to play a very important role in the field of education.

It will be seen that the concept of guidance is not new to the field of education. Pupils in the past as now, have been coming to teachers seeking help in matters related to various aspects of their life. Which College they should join after completing School Education? Whether to continue the studies beyond school or take up a job? What are the best methods of study? How one should prepare for the examination? Even parents came to teachers seeking advice for their wards. But the guidance given in such cases was informal. No systematic efforts were made to provide guidance to pupils and guardians. It is only recently that the emphasis is being given on providing guidance in a systematic way.

Although the concept of guidance has been understood differently by different persons, the generally acceptable approach, as pointed by the Mudaliar Commission also, is one that regards it as an integral part of education. Its objectives are the same as those of education. It aims at awakening the child's potentialities and talents and develop these potentialities and talents to the maximum making use of available opportunities

so as to help him achieve personal and social efficiency. Viewed in this context, guidance is a comprehensive process emphasising the total development of the child through an organized programme of various developmental and adjustive activities. To appreciate fully the role of guidance in education, it is felt necessary to point out in brief the aims of education.

The basic aim of education in a democratic society like ours, is not only to prepare the child for a good citizenship but for an efficient life too. The education has to help a child develop physically, morally, socially, intellectually and spiritually so that he grows into a good citizen and develops himself vocationally in order to become an efficient worker. As an integral part of education it emphasizes more fully the aims of education. With the help of latest discoveries in the field of education and psychology regarding human development and learning it helps the educationists to plan education accordingly. The growing complexities of life require education to be viewed in the newer context. Guidance helps to view education in the newer perspective.

Along with education, it has to help in the development of the nation. The Government has launched a series of five-year plans. The success of these plans depends to a great extent on the planning and preparation of nation's man-power potential. Planning and preparation of man-power can best be done in Secondary Schools. Here guidance is of special significance. It can provide direction for the planning of man-power preparation.

For the proper man-power preparation at Secondary Stage, the Mudaliar Commission has recommended for the provision of diversified courses of instruction at this stage. On account of diversified courses of instruction, the school administrator and the teachers have an additional responsibility for providing proper guidance to pupils. Therefore, the Commission has stressed that the educational authorities should give greater attention to educational guidance. It has further emphasized that the services of trained Guidance Officers and Career Masters should be made available gradually to all the educational institutions and the Government should open training centres for guidance personnel in different regions. A Central Research Organisation may also be established for carrying out research in educational and vocational guidance and preparing psychological tests to suit the Indian conditions. For co-ordinating the guidance activities Educational and Vocational Guidance Bureaus should be established in every State. Besides, it has briefly outlined the qualifications of a Guidance Officer and the principles to be observed in connection with guidance. It has also pointed out the responsibility of the Centre as well as the role of the Career Master, Teachers and the Government Agencies with respect to guidance. It has also considered the place of Visual Aids and importance of Career conference in Guidance.

Emphasizing guidance and counselling as an integral part of education, the Kothari Commission has pointed out that it should be meant for all students and not only for those who deviate from norm in some or the other direction. It should aim at assisting the individual to make decisions and adjustment from time to time. But it will be seen that guidance has not been given due attention. Guidance services are rendered by trained counsellors and career masters. By the end of III plan, nearly 13 per cent of the schools provided guidance. Most of these schools have Career Masters offering information services only. Very few schools provide full time or part time guidance which includes testing and counselling.

In order to promote well-planned and efficient guidance services at Secondary Stage, the Commission has proposed a minimum guidance programme. It recommended that guidance should begin at the primary school from lowest class with principal aims in view to help pupils make satisfactory transition from home to school, diagnosing difficulties in learning, identifying pupils in need of special education, develop in them favourable attitude towards work and so on. Till qualified counsellors are provided, well-trained teachers can perform some of the guidance functions. At secondary school guidance should aim at helping principals and teachers to understand their students and to create situations for effective learning, to help in identification and development of abilities and interests of pupils and to help pupils make realistic educational and vocational plans.

The minimum guidance programme to be provided to all Secondary Schools includes one Visiting School Counsellor for every ten schools located within a reasonable distance of one another and the allocation of simpler guidance functions to the teachers. Comprehensive guidance services should be set up in a few selected schools, one in each district to some as models. Adequate training programme for Career Masters should be provided at State Bureaus and training colleges. Necessary supervisory staff to inspect and offer consultation to guidance workers should be appointed in the State Bureaus of Guidance. All Secondary School teachers should be given some understanding of guidance concepts through pre-and in-service training. Every training college should have one staff member with training essential for school counsellor. This is the minimum guidance programme suggested by the Kothari Commission. It will be seen that guidance movement in India is still in its infancy stage.

The Calcutta University has the privilege to introduce this movement in our country. The first psychological laboratory was established in 1915 by this University. In 1936 a separate section of research in Applied Psychology was opened by G.S. Bose, the Head of the department with a view to adopt Psychological tests prepared in America to suit Indian conditions, formulate vocational guidance procedures and collection and

classification of vocational information. But the actual work of guidance to students was started in 1939.

This movement was shifted from Calcutta to Bombay in 1941 when a guidance institution was established by Batliboi, the retired accountant of Calcutta and Mukerjee, the psychologist from Calcutta University. This institution was known as Batliboi Vocational Guidance Bureau. It did valuable work for six years. The one significant activity was the organisation of short term orientation course in guidance for guidance workers in Bombay by this agency. This course later on, became the basis of the training course for Career Masters and Counsellors.

In 1945, the Department of Applied Psychology, and Institute of Research and Service was established in Patna University. Since then it is functioning and is engaged in teaching, research and service. It provides personal counselling to students in addition to Vocational Guidance thus widening the scope of guidance by including in it personal guidance also. It has constructed a number of psychological tests also.

The Parsi Panchayat Vocational Guidance Bureau was set up by the "Office of the Trustees of the Parsi Panchayat Funds and Properties, Bombay," in 1947 for providing guidance services to the members of the Parsi Community. The psychological tests and other material which were with Batliboi Bureau were transferred to this institution. Dr. H.P. Mehta was its first director. With the establishment of this Bureau, Career Conferences became popular in Maharashtra as well as in other States. This Bureau for the first time in the country conducted the training course for Career Masters with the help of the Indian Institute of Education and Headmasters Association of Bombay. In the beginning the Bureau confined its services to Parsi Community only and later on it conducted guidance programme in certain selected schools of the city.

In the same Year, U.P. Government established the Bureau of Psychology at Allahabad on the recommendation of the Acharya Narendra Deva Committee. This was for the first time that a State Government shared interest in Guidance. The chief aim of this Bureau was to provide Educational and Vocational guidance to school going children as well as to other individuals. Since then, the Bureau has also developed various group verbal and non-verbal tests in Hindi of general mental ability and adapted a number of foreign tests to Indian conditions. Five district Bureaus were also established at Varanasi, Lucknow, Kanpur, Bareilly and Meerut, thus paving the way for other State Governments to do some work in this direction. However, these district Bureaus were later on closed down.

In 1950, the Government of Bombay established the Vocational Guidance Bureau with these objectives: (1) the collection and

dissemination of occupational information (2) preparation of a cumulative record card for Secondary Schools and (3) the standardisation of psychological tests for school use. In 1957 this Bureau was renamed as Institute of Vocational Guidance. Official recognition to the guidance movement by the Government of Bombay provided incentive to other State Governments for introducing guidance programme in their States.

In 1952, the Vocational Guidance Association of Bombay was formed to co-ordinate the efforts of various individuals and agencies in the field of guidance in Bombay. The first effort to co-ordinate guidance activities all over the country was made when a workshop on Vocational Guidance was organized at Delhi in 1953 under the direction of Dr. W.L. Barnette, Jr. the visiting Professor of Psychology. The workshop provided guidance professionals and other interested persons with an opportunity of meeting each other and discussing their common problems. At the second meeting in 1954, a decision was taken to form an All India Educational and Vocational Guidance Association, although such an Association was formed two years later, that is, in 1956, at Baroda.

The Association held its first Conference of the Heads of Government Bureaus of Guidance in 1960 and the second in 1962 for the implementation of the Centrally sponsored scheme for guidance. The purpose of this Conference was to review the progress of guidance activities in Secondary Education during the II Plan, to plan for the III Five Year Plan and to work out measures for co-ordinating the activities of the various Government agencies working in the field of guidance.

The guidance movement assumed an All India character with the establishment of Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance at Delhi by the Ministry of Education in 1954. The Government of India offered financial assistance to the various State Governments for setting up Bureaus of Guidance or expanding the existing ones. Several State Governments took advantage of this offer with the result that after 1955 eleven Bureaus were established in different States. At present there are 13 Government Bureaus and several other private agencies working in the field of Guidance.

It is important to note that a comprehensive guidance programme consists not only in helping the individuals plan their educational and Vocational Careers but also implementing their plans. Placement is generally not considered within the scope of school guidance programme. It is here that National Employment Services play an important part. Their function consists of collecting occupational information, conducting employment market surveys and registering persons at the Exchange for placement in suitable jobs. In the second Plan, Vocational Guidance and Counselling were given a greater attention. Consequently, special

units called the Vocational Guidance Unit with a Youth Employment Officer have been started. Such units have been set up at 95 exchanges in the country. These services have been started with the purpose to cater to the occupational needs of youth after they leave school and are seeking a suitable employment. This unit is to co-ordinate its activities with guidance services provided in the school. For purposes of co-ordination in the two fields, education and employment, a Central Co-ordination Committee was established. In addition, there are Co-ordination Committees at State level and in some places there are such Committees at district level also.

Thus, we find that guidance, which is gaining increasing importance, is still in a developing stage.



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POLICY OF EDUCATION

India attained Independence in August 1947. The Indian leaders, who were now called upon to administer the Government at the Centre and in the States, knew too well the shortcomings of the British system of education in India. They had often criticized the alien educational policy of *accordng greater emphasis and priority to imperial needs over social services and to higher education over mass education.* It was, therefore, natural that on assumption of office, their attention was drawn to education as the Union Education Minister's address to a Press Conference on 18th February 1948, showed : "Education should have the highest priority in our national budget and should take its place immediately after food and clothing."

But gigantic problems raised their grisly heads at the birth of the biggest democracy in the world. The partition of the country caused migration of population which had to be rehabilitated. The princely states had to be consolidated to prevent balkanization of the country. The after-effects of the Second World War brought inflation and rising spiral of prices which caused severe stringency. The nature too frowned a little too harshly so that floods and drought wrought havoc across the land. When problems of food, clothing and shelter for the masses faced the new Government of free India, education receded to the back-ground.

We find the Central Minister of Education telling the members of the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1950, "In 1947 the problems of refugees absorbed almost all the energies and a major portion of the finances of the nation. There was, therefore, no hope of adequate funds for educational expansion in the immediate future, but in spite of these difficulties the budget for 1948-49, saw an increase in provision for education. Our intention was to provide for an amount of Rs. 11 Crores for 1949-50, as this would enable us to start the basic education programme and undertake preliminary work for social education. In spite of our best efforts, we were, however, unable to provide sufficient funds even for this very modest programme of expansion. We hoped that during 1950-51 conditions will improve sufficiently, but to our great disappointment even this expectation is now belied. We have to face a financial crisis of such magnitude as to force a reduction of ten to twenty per-cent in the already approved budget."¹

Educational Policy

Even in these difficulties and stringencies, the grass was not allowed to grow under our feet. A number of conferences and committees of

educationists, State Ministers of Education, Vice-Chancellors, Directors of Education and other experts were called to discuss the problems of education and thrash out solutions and programmes for reconstruction of education in the country. A committee on Secondary Education was appointed which submitted its report in 1948. A commission on University Education published its Report in 1949 and in 1950 a committee investigated the 'Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development in India.'

In the mean-time the Constitution of India inaugurated in January 1950, laid down the broad educational policies and apportioned the responsibility for education between the Union and the States thus generally providing for the development of education in the country. Primarily all education including universities was made the responsibility of the States subject to the exceptions specified below which were the responsibility of the Centre.² The Union Government was made responsible for :

- (i) The institutions known as the Benaras Hindu University, the Aligarh Muslim University, the Delhi University and the Vishwabharti and any other institution declared by Parliament to be an institution of national importance;
- (ii) Institutions for scientific and technical education financed by Government of India wholly or in part and declared by the Parliament to be institutions of national importance;
- (iii) Union agencies and institutions for professional vocational or technical training, for the promotion of special studies or research and for scientific or technical assistance,;
- (iv) Coordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions;³
- (v) Vocational and technical training of labour⁴; and
- (vi) Ancient and historic monuments, places and records and objects of artistic or historic interest declared by or under law made by Parliament to be of national importance.⁵

Besides this division of responsibility for education between the Centre and the States, the Constitution provided a fundamental right to an individual to get education when it said "No citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State Funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them."⁶ It incorporated a directive principle to ensure minimum fundamental education to all in Article 45 which requires that "the State shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education

for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years." In another article it guaranteed the promotion of educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people particularly the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.⁷

The Constitution gave the right to the minority communities to establish and get aid for educational institutions of their own. Article 30 says.

(i) All minorities, whether based on religion or language shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.

(ii) The State shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority whether based on religion or language. In Article 350 it protected the language of the minorities too. "It shall be the endeavour of every State and of every local authority to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups; and the President may issue such direction to any State as he considers necessary or proper for securing the provision of such facilities. A special officer for linguistic minorities was to be appointed. Later by an order this facility was extended at the secondary stage of education, too by requiring provision for instruction in a minority language if the number of students rose to be forty.

It protected the educational grants of the Anglo-Indian Community by requiring that for the first three years the same grants shall be made to them as were made in the financial year 1947-48 and these grants could be reduced by ten percent every trinumium till the end of ten years from the commencement of the constitution when they would cease.⁸

The Constitution adopted Hindi in Devanagari Script and the international form of Indian numerals for the official language of the Union and specially directed that "it shall be the duty of the Union to promote the spread of Hindi language, to develop it so that it may serve as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India."⁹

In 1961 a three-language formula was evolved by the Government of India, in consultation with the State Governments for adoption at the Secondary stage of education which required the teaching of language subjects as follows.¹⁰

- (a) The regional language and mother-tongue when the latter is different from the regional language;
- (b) Hindi or in Hindi-speaking areas, another Indian language; and
- (c) English or any other modern European language.

The Government accepted the recommendations of the Vice-Chancellor's Conference held in September 1967 to change over systematically to regional languages as media of University Education.¹¹

Thus the Constitution enunciated the educational policy by fixing the responsibility for education on the Government, prescribing the minimum education that each child should receive and by safeguarding the educational interests of the weaker sections and minority communities which were backward in educational development.

The Financial Policy in Education

The Constitution provides for equitable distribution of revenues between the Union and the States and certain Central grants in Articles 275 and 282. It constituted a Finance Commission to recommend allocations of funds for committed expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of India and a Planning Commission to deal comprehensively with the national resources and allocation of funds for developmental programmes. The Finance Commission rarely makes a specific grant for education, but the total expenditure of the State which also includes educational costs is considered for giving grants. The Planning Commission gives specific grants for educational programmes in the States and goes into the proportional distribution of the grant over various sectors, nay schemes of education and lays down priorities.

Article 275 of the Constitution provides "Such sums as the Parliament may by law provide shall be charged on the Consolidated Fund of India in each year as grant-in-aid of the revenues of such States as Parliament may determine to be in need of assistance and different sums may be fixed for different States.

Provided that these shall be paid out of the Consolidated Fund of India as grant-in-aid of revenues of a State, such capital and recurring sums as may be necessary to enable that State to meet the cost of such schemes of development as may be undertaken by the State with the approval of the Government of India for the purpose of promoting the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes in that State or raising the level of administration of the scheduled areas therein to that of the administration of the rest of the areas of that State."

The special grants to financially weak States in order to remove their disparities of resources may be called discriminatory and our Constitution does not permit discrimination. Hence, this Article takes away the unconstititutional nature of discrimination in the matter of making grants.

Article 282 provides "The Union or the State may make any grants for any public purposes notwithstanding that the purpose is not one in respect to which Parliament or the Legislature of the State, as the case may be, may make laws."

This Article saves the spending power of the Union or the State from becoming coterminous with the legislative powers and gives an unlimited scope in the matter of expenditure, provided the purpose is public. It enables the Government to give grants to the institutions and universities specified in Entries 63 and 64 of List I of the Constitution. It also legalizes expenditure on religious institutions and endowments if they have been taken over by the Government in the interest of 'public order, morality or health.'

Policy in the First Five-Year Plan

The First Five-Year Plan which started in 1951, for the first time in the educational annals of the country, viewed education as a part of the total national effort, attempted to establish and strengthen its links with other aspects of national life and assigned clear-cut priorities for the various developmental programmes of education.

It realized that education was of basic importance in the planned development of a national as it determined the quality of the manpower and social climate. Its role in a democracy was crucial as it trained people for co-operative effort, disciplined behaviour and local leadership which ensured their intelligent participation in the affairs of the country. It helped the growth of creative faculties, critical appreciation and capacity for enjoyment of all that is best in arts, literature and culture.¹²

Although the First Plan gave top priority to agriculture, industries, power and transportation, but it admitted that no plan could succeed unless it invested on improvement of human material, and even from the point of view of increasing production, social services like education and technical training brought in significant returns.¹³ Realizing the inadequacy of Plan provision for education it urged that "it is extremely urgent that all other possible sources of help should be discovered and fully utilized for educational development."¹⁴

It pleaded for sharing the burden by the people themselves. It found evidence that the people were keen to contribute for education in cash, kind, labour or land and the Government should explore this avenue and harness this urge in the people by using their influence, judiciously providing technical aid and grants, stimulating and spreading emulation among local Communities.¹⁵

The sources of educational income continued to be the same as in the pre-independence days except that one more source of foreign aid was added. But this aid is generally received in the form of scholarships, equipment, expertise and cost of certain developmental programmes through the agency of the Union Government and need not be reckoned separately from Central grants. The main sources of educational income

are the Centre, the State, the Local Bodies, Fees and the Private munificence. The Constitutional directive to provide free education upto the age of fourteen years and efforts to democratize education by granting a number of free studentships has considerably reduced the fee-receipts. The First Five-Year Plan, therefore, distributed the financial responsibility for education on these four sources :¹⁶

- (i) **CENTRE**—In view of the present limited resources, the centre should exercise utmost care at their disposal in order to obtain maximum results. Except for helping specially backward States, in the field of the pre-University education it should confine itself to helping on a contributory basis such States as are willing to conduct certain activities of national significance like research in educational methods, training of specially selected personnel, production of literature, conducting pilot experiments and the like. Grants-in-aid should be given for other schemes which may be guided, co-ordinated and watched by an expert committee appointed by the Centre.

For University education, the Centre should set up a University Grants Commission to aid, guide and co-ordinate higher education and maintain standards. It should look to the promotion of federal language. Thus sound foundations should be laid for the expansion programme when more funds become available.

- (ii) **STATE**—The States are primarily responsible for the education in their areas. The Committee on Ways and Means of Financing Educational Development in India suggested that each State should spend atleast twenty per cent of its budget on education. The Plan discovered grave disparities between different States in the matter of provision of finances and facilities for education. It desired that the internal distribution of expenditure should be so arranged and the Central grants should be so dispensed that atleast the serious inequalities between States tend to disappear.¹⁷
- (iii) **LOCAL BODIES**—There should be progressive decentralization in the administration of education at lower levels consistent with a broad uniformity of educational policy and efficient and impartial administration. This will help to secure maximum local help and co-operation and to build atleast primary education closely round the life of the people.
- (iv) **PRIVATE AGENCIES**—It should be the major aim of State policy to help private agencies to develop their capacity fully and function effectively in view of their experience of social work including education, their capacity to manage affairs

cheaply and their freedom from red-tape. Priority should be given by the Central and State Governments of help them financially.

The Plan also suggested how the various categories of education should be financed with the help of various agencies. Pre-school education in rural areas should be provided by private bodies supported by grants-in-aid in urban areas mostly by local bodies, and in labour areas by the industry. The State should shoulder only the limited responsibility of evolving suitable methods and training teachers for such schools and running a few model *balwadis*.

Free and universal primary education was enjoined to be the responsibility of the State. But the Plan desired that resources should be concentrated on basic education and improvement and remodelling of primary schools on basic pattern. "Although the State resources will be concentrated largely on basic education, the people should be encouraged to provide themselves with whatever education they can with the co-operation of voluntary agencies. Students can make a substantial contribution if their efforts are properly mobilized."¹⁸ Basic schools should be opened where local inhabitants are prepared to donate atleast five acres of land and the local community or the State provides initial equipment and other capital expenditure.¹⁹ The procedure of giving building grants for schools should be so simplified that grants which are meant to stimulate public efforts are not so long delayed as to damp it.²⁰

For Secondary education, the Plan recommended that the capital expenditure should be provided partly by the State and partly by the local people. In the rural areas, the local people should help in providing land and free labour in the construction of building and the like. It should be given a vocational bias. Economic activities like agriculture, cottage industries, small scale industries, and so on should be encouraged which would help to recover atleast a part of the recurring expenditure.²¹ In the field of pre-university education, the Centre should substantially help very backward States and only subsidize others.

In the universities, the sources of income have reached their limit, therefore, the financial burden for their improvement must be borne chiefly by the States. Economies should be effected by preventing unnecessary duplication and coordination of work in various universities. The University Grants Commission should check the opening of new universities without adequate finances and new colleges without financial stability should not be recognised. The Central Government should help to establish atleast one rural university for providing higher education suitable to rural areas.

The Plan estimated that the average annual expenditure on social education would be Rs. 27 Crores for the next ten years in order to make

every body literate. The expenditure may be shared by other departments of the Government like agriculture, health, veterinary, co-operatives and community projects, for whatever activities fall within their purview. State resources should be concentrated on planned programmes and in training of workers and research in methods of improving literacy. The social education approach should permeate all programmes of State aid to the people which should meet some immediately felt need of the local community whose meagre resources should not be frittered away in a number of uncoordinated activities. This work in industrial areas should be aided by the employer and labour unions.²²

The responsibility for technical education should be borne by the Central and State Governments on the one hand and industry and commerce on the other. For research and advanced courses, the Centre should bear the major responsibility. For under-graduate work and technical bias in secondary education the State should shoulder the financial burden. For diploma and certificate courses and training of industrial workers the Centre and the State should share the expenditure. The junior technical and apprenticeship courses should be conducted by the State Government with the assistance of the industry. Commerce and industry should help to the best of their capacity technical institutions at all stages and institute research scholarships and fellowships for their employees and for investigating their problems. All development in technical education should be co-ordinated by the All India Council and its Regional Committees.²³

The Plan suggested that the capital expenditure should be provided partly by the State and partly by the local community. In rural areas the local people should help by providing land, material and free labour in the construction of buildings and equipment of furniture and apparatus. The Plan recommended that every State Government should within the limits of their resources, raise the teachers' salaries and give teachers additional facilities in the form of accommodation, concessions to their children's education and cultivable land.²⁴

Priorities and Targets

The paucity of funds made it necessary to fix carefully the priorities for the development programmes in education. The Plan recommended that the highest priority should be given to the consolidation and improvement of existing facilities on right lines. To an extent this will necessitate according high priority to experiments and research in improved educational methods, the training of teachers and preparation of literature for teachers, children and adults. The special needs of the Plan will require high priority for basic and social education, technical and vocational education at lower level and development of facilities for training high grade technicians in certain selected fields. In the field of university

education high priority should be given to improvement of standards and development of post-graduate work and research.

The quantitative targets to be achieved during the Plan period were the provision of facilities for 60 per cent of age group 6-11 to be made as early as possible to bring children upto the age of 14 into schools and for 15 per cent, of the age-group relevant to secondary education. In the sphere of social education the target should be to bring 30 per cent of the age-group 14-40 within the purview. In the case of girls the respective targets should be 40 per cent, 10 per cent and 10 per cent. The number of trained persons in technical institutions would increase by 63 per cent and in industrial schools by 48 per cent.²⁵

Policy in the Second Plan

The Second Five Year Plan drafted on the experience gained during the First Plan period, realised that allocation of resources for education was a difficult issue in drawing up a plan of economic and social development of the country.²⁶ It pleaded for larger resources from public authorities and local communities of greater progress in education and asserted that means must be found to overcome current limitations in the field of education.²⁷ While it did not see the fulfilment of the Constitutional directive in regard to elementary education, it desired that Governmental resources should be supplemented in an increasing measure by local community efforts and recommended legislation for levying of an educational cess by the local authorities for this purpose. The local effort should be encouraged by providing adequate grant-in-aid.²⁸ Since the teacher occupies a pivotal position in education, the Centre offered to pay fifty per cent of this increase in salaries of the primary school teachers and recommended bringing them into State Service cadres.

The Second Plan viewed with alarm the colossal wastage and stagnation at the elementary stage and recommended compulsion should be introduced and quality of instruction improved. The girls' education which lagged far behind should be speeded up by educating the parents adjusting the curriculum to their needs and providing more trained women teachers. In order to make the maximum use of the available physical facilities shift system should be adopted and improvised accommodation for holding the classes should be accepted. The local community assisted by Government should provide needed buildings of cheap type. To meet the relative high cost of basic education, its productive aspect should be encouraged. The school should be provided free land for agriculture which should supplement income regularly.²⁹ The targets fixed for the age-group 6 to 14 years were 70 per cent for boys and 28 per cent for girls making up the total of 49 per cent for both by the end of the second Plan.

The secondary education, which missed emphasis in the first Plan because a commission was to enquire into it, received great emphasis next to basic education in this Plan. The diversification of courses, introduction of craft and upgrading of high schools into higher secondary and multi-purpose schools was recommended. The higher secondary course was to be of three or four years duration followed by three years degree course. The enrolment of girls at secondary stage was to be increased by providing special scholarships and the training of teachers for new courses was to be improved. The targets fixed for this stage were conversion of 937 more schools into multipurpose and 1150 schools into higher secondary schools. The enrolment in the age-group 14-17 was to be raised to 15 per cent, three per cent more than the achievement of the Second Plan. The financial allotment for secondary sector was more than doubled in this Plan.

The university education was to be given greater purpose and direction to fit closely into plans of economic and social development. Seven new universities were to be established and the salaries of teachers to be improved. It was desired that the greater part of the expenditure should be made for consolidation and increased provision for technical and scientific education in the universities.

In the sphere of technical education the programme in the Second Plan consisted of expansion of existing facilities, starting special courses, improvement of quality and provision of scholarships and hostels. The out-turn was to be increased to twice as many graduates and three times as many diploma holders as at the end of the First Plan.

Social education was to emphasise effective participation of the individual in economic and civic activities besides literacy. Rural education should provide training in a variety of functions for the rural community and for which purpose ten rural institutes were to be started.

Policy in the Third Plan

The Third Plan declared : 'Education is the most important single factor in achieving rapid economic development and the technological progress and in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity. Programmes of education lie at the base of the effort to forge the bonds of common citizenship, to harness the energies of the people, and to develop natural and human resources of every part of the country.'³⁰ Thus education becomes the focal point of all planned development.

Determining the priorities the Plan said, "The main emphasis will be on the provision of facilities for education of all children in the age group 6-11, extension and improvement of teaching science at the secondary and university stages, development of vocational and technical education,

improvement of teacher training and increase in scholarships, freships and other assistance.''³¹ It desired a special concentration on enrolment of girls, orientation to basic pattern and development of a feeling of national unity. The outlay on education was more than double of the Second Plan. It was expected that transfer of responsibility for elementary education to *punchayats* and other local bodies will ensure greater effort and the total expenditure on this branch of education would increase considerably.

✓ The pre-primary education which depended mainly on voluntary efforts was to be helped by the Government by opening new *balwadis* and six training centres for *balsevikas*.

At the elementary stage the main problems to be tackled during the Plan period were increasing the enrolment of girls and providing educational facilities in the scattered and sparsely populated areas. For the first problem, persuasion of parents and increasing the supply of women teachers would be intensively undertaken; for the second, a school within the walking distance from every home would be provided even though it would relatively be more expensive. It was proposed to bring all children of the age-group 6-11 under instruction during this plan period and 28.6 per cent of the children in the age-group 11-14. The Plan thought these targets were of such crucial importance that it desired that financial considerations should not be allowed to come in the way of their achievement in any stage.³² The other programmes envisaged in this sector were the expansion of teacher training and extending its course for two years, conversion of schools to basic pattern and provision of midday meals. The Plan desired mobilization of local resources for the purpose.

In secondary education the Plan proposed to make this stage self-contained and terminal, to diversify the curriculum and to enlarge the facilities for vocational education and in-service training of teachers. The high priority given to science education was to be continued and general science made compulsory. A Central organization would be developed to provide good text-books and supplementary material besides training laboratory assistants.

The other programmes in this sector were to increase the number of State bureaux of educational and vocational guidance, the extension services in the training colleges, and model school libraries in the demonstration schools. The target for the age-group 14-17 was 15.6 per cent of the relevant population.

In university education too, the emphasis was on science education, and equipping the laboratories for which manufacture at cheap cost would be undertaken in the country. The next priority was to post-graduate studies, research and qualitative improvement. The enrolment of girls was to be

increased. It was proposed to start a dozen more universities and about 400 more colleges.

Programmes in technical education laid emphasis on increasing trained personnel in different fields and at all levels, securing teachers in sufficient numbers, providing scholarships and fellowships to talented students, and introduction of part-time, short-term, special and correspondence courses.

The Third Plan hoped that appreciable progress would be made in social education and adult literacy by the combined efforts of the Ministries of Education and Community Development. But the Plan thought that by far the most important objective in the field of education was to expand facilities for the education of girls at all levels.

Evaluation

The fourth Five-Year Plan which was published in 1966 represented a crucial stage in the development of education but it went on a holiday till 1969. The enormous expansion of education in the last three Plans has been to a measure in-coherent and loose and urgently needed consolidation and cohesion. The disparities in various sectors and the shortfalls of previous Plans have to be made up. The craze for expansion of numbers has brought in deterioration of quality. There was a big gap between the enrolments of boys and girls and large disparity in the resources of the States to spend on education.

A close scrutiny of educational developments will show that it has not been linked up with social and economic development and has not grown in response to the social urges and economic needs of the country. The educational system as it expanded during the period developed certain stresses and strains which need to be weeded out as early as possible.³³

There has been enormous wastage of effort and expenditure at all levels of education. The wastage and stagnation in the school sector particularly in primary education has been marked. The higher secondary stage could not become terminal so that there is still rush for higher education. The output of professional and technical institutions has not been linked up with the man-power requirements of the country so that technicians are on the streets demanding 'jobs and not speeches'. The educational administration has not kept pace with the expansion of education in all these years so that it fails to grip at the problems. It needs to be reorganised both quantitatively and qualitatively. There is unrest among the students and teachers and they seem to have lost their moorings. The fissiparous tendencies have increased in recent times and call for education for national and emotional integration. No concerted effort seems to have been made during all these years to evolve a national system of education

suited to the requirements of the society and the genius of the people of India.

A comprehensive Education Commission was appointed to enquire into these problems and it submitted its Report in June, 1966. But the controversy on the Union language and the three language formula has kicked up such a row that its policies and recommendations are being shelved.

The distribution of responsibility in respect of education between the Centre and the States has generally worked well. There have been co-operation and understanding between the two in policy-making and planning of developmental schemes of education. A major cause for this might have been one political party governments both at the Centre and in the States. There appears to have been a desire for the Centre to take more and more responsibility for education but the States have tended to resist it. A committee was appointed in 1963 to examine the provision of the Constitution regarding the responsibility of the Central Government in the field of higher education with a view to finding out the extent to which the Centre could assume greater responsibility in this field. The Sapru Committee Report,³⁴ as it is sometimes called, recommended that the University and higher education should be transferred from the State List to the Concurrent List. But the States did not countenance the idea. An attempt to form an All-India Educational Service was similarly scuttled by the States. But the establishment of several Central institutions in various States and the University Grants Commission has given the Centre greater control over higher and University education.

During the last fifteen years the expenditure levels in the States have risen nearly three times and the funds received from the Centre have gone up four times. This considerable financial assistance has naturally increased the Central control over the States. The expenditure in one Plan becomes the committed expenditure in the next Plan and the whole of it becomes the financial liability of the State which continues to increase with successive Plans. The resources of the States are almost inelastic and their revenue account expenditure thus goes on mounting. This leads to a widening gap between the income and the expenditure of the States which results in the neglect of the maintenance aspect of everything done in the previous Plan periods. The States, therefore, have to look upto the Centre for more help which when given makes them accept the Central directives too in regard to its utilization.

Almost all planning in education is done by the Planning Commission of the Government of India and at the State level there is hardly any planning machinery worth its name. Therefore, the States cannot but help accepting the programmes proposed by the Commission with slight modifications if necessary. This tends to achieve the vertical integration between the Centre and the State agencies but not the much needed

horizontal coordination at the State level. The different agencies of the State think in terms of their departmental responsibilities rather than the overall needs of the State. The uniform pattern of schemes prepared by the Commission hardly take into account the heterogeneity of the States in respect of needs and circumstances.

There is some difficulty arising out of the Centre's allocation of funds for specific purposes and for broad heads of development. In the former case the Centre is able to determine the direction of development and implement a national policy. In the latter type of allocations the States have freedom to utilize the funds according to the needs in that area; but they may be subjected to local and political pressures which may vitiate the national goals. Certain Central grants require a matching contribution from the States. This goes hard with some States because of disparities in resources. Should this 'matching' be proportional to the resources of the States? Somehow it seems that the States have lost incentive to raise funds and the demand for more Central assistance is on the increase. There is thus bound to be a squabble for money and this may create inter-State rivalries.

The Constitutional directive to provide education to all children upto fourteen years within ten years of the commencement of the Constitution yet remains to be fulfilled. Although the achievements in this sector in the last two Plans were higher than the targets fixed, the Fourth Plan does not expect it to be achieved before 1981. The fulfilment of the directive, thus, will be twenty years behind time.

Nevertheless the progress made in education has been considerable. The time has come to consolidate the gains and review the policy of financing education in the light of the experiences of the three Plans. The ineffectiveness has to be weeded out so that every rupee spent is put to good purpose. The disparity in the resources of the States and the in-equality in the enrolment of girls have to be overcome. Greater co-operation of local community is necessary to solve some of the problems that education faces today.

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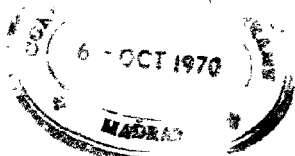
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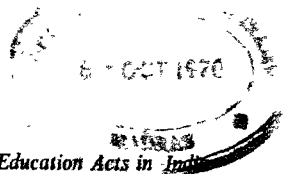
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