

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Elementary education has undergone many changes in its objectives, content, methodology of instruction, evaluation, etc. since ancient times. Many thinkers and educators gave direction and new ideas to mould it to the changing needs and the thinking of the society. Many Commissions were set up from time to time which reviewed elementary education also and gave suggestions and recommendations for its improvement. In the following sections, elementary education has been reviewed under the following heads:

- I. Historical Perspective
- II. The Traditional Model and its Alternatives
- III. New Programmes
- IV. Educational Development since Independence
- V. Review of the Research

2.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

India has an ancient and age-old educational system, 'Education', writes F.W. Thomas, one of distinguished indologists, 'is no exotic in India. There is no country where the love of learning has so early an origin or has exercised so lasting and powerful an influence.'¹

In the ancient times education was sought not for its own sake, but for the sake of and as a part of religion. It was regarded as a means of salvation or self realisation, as the means to the highest aim of life viz. Mukti or emancipation. Manuscripts were prepared on Bhoj Patras. There was no facility for multiplying the copies of the manuscript. As such the instruction was oral and there were no prescribed course. The subject matter was based on the Vedic and Upanishadic literatures. Brahmin sages were the teachers of society. The

schools were run far away in jungles at the hutments of sages or in the religious places. The Brahmin, Kashitriya, and Vaishya had the right to study the religious literature. Sudaras were not allowed to study.

As regards the Buddhist system of education, organised educational institutions came into existence. Education was imparted in Vihars in Pali and Sanskrit. Students belonging to different castes, creeds and classes came to these Vihars from remote corners of the country. Some of the Vihars attracted students from abroad. Education was broad-based. It included Theology, Philosophy, Logic, Religion, Astronomy cum Astrology, Medicine, Jurisprudence, etc. Taxila was the most renowned seat for the study of medicine and surgery.

During the tenth century A.D. with the establishment of Muslim rule the mosque became the centre of education and learning centre. These learning centres were known as Maktabas and Madarsas. In Maktabas elementary education was imparted and Madarsas were centres of higher learning. The education was based on the study of Koran Sharif. The teaching included Religion, Philosophy and Persian Language.

Under the Charter Act of 1813, the British Parliament directed the East India Company to accept the responsibility for education of the Indian people and to spend a sum of not less than Rs.100,000 a year.

Macaulay wrote his famous Minute in 1835 which is a document of historical importance. He strongly recommended that the objective of education in India should be the spread of Western learning through the medium of English Language. He advocated the Downward Filtration Theory. The government decided to give good education (which then meant education in and through English) to a few persons who would voluntarily seek admission to the new secondary schools and universities and then leave to this class of educated in English to give education to the masses through the Indian Languages. The Downward Filtration Theory was the acknowledged goal up to 1853 and dominated official policy throughout the nineteenth century. The theory failed as most of the educated men got

comfortable jobs under the government and were more concerned in bettering their prospects than in sharing their learning with the masses. Thus the educational interests of the masses suffered a lot.

Despatch of 1854 observed that mass education had been very much neglected in the past and directed that active measures be taken for its promotion. It suggested that the attention of the government in future be directed to the neglected but more important problem of conveying useful and practical knowledge to the great mass of people.² But the policy of Downward Filtration Theory lingered on. The emphasis continued to be on higher education and the primary education suffered. A large part of government funds were spent on higher education. Primary education was largely transferred to local bodies. Private enterprise in education was restricted in extent and popular contribution to it were far less generous than in case of secondary schools.

The Indian Education Commission (1882-83) commonly known as Hunter Commission, the first Commission on Education in India, made the principal object of its enquiry the present state of elementary education throughout the Empire and the means by which this can everywhere be extended and improved.

The Commission observed that much progress had been made in high and middle stages than in primary education although the importance of the last had been strongly pressed in the past. It recommended that strenuous efforts of the State should be directed to the elementary education of the masses in a still larger measure than before; that primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will fit them for their position in life and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the university. A large number of leaders suggested to the Commission for the adoption of a law for compulsory education. The Commission did not pay any

heed to this demand but only suggested that government should make earnest efforts for the spread of primary education as widely as possible.

A great demand for education of the masses came up because in 1870 compulsory education was sanctioned in England. In 1885 the Indian National Congress was set up. There was a demand for rapid expansion of education among the people. By the closing decades of the century, educated Indians began to travel abroad and when they saw the progress of education in other countries, they started advocating the spread of education in India. They pressed their views on the government through official channels as well as central legislature of the period. Maharaja Sayajirao, Gaekwar of Baroda, introduced the compulsory education in the Amraeli division of his state in 1893. Inspired by the success of the experiment Maharaja, in 1906, extended compulsory education to the whole State. The lead given by the State of Baroda inspired Sir Ibrahim Rahimtola and Sir Chaman Lal Setalvad to campaign for compulsory education in Bombay. As a result of their campaign a committee was set up by the government to examine the feasibility of compulsory education in the city of Bombay (1906) but unfortunately the committee came to the conclusion that the time was not then ripe for the introduction of compulsory education.³

Gopal Krishan Gokhale was a staunch advocate of compulsory education. He introduced a resolution in the Central Legislature in 1910, to demand the appointment of a commission to report on the compulsory education. But the resolution was withdrawn on an assurance from the government that the problem would be carefully examined. A year later Gokhale introduced a private bill in the Central Legislature to provide the introduction of compulsory education. It came up for consideration in 1912. While speaking for the bill, Gokhale said, "My

Lord, I know that my bill will be thrown out before the day closes. I make no complaint. I shall not even feel depressed. The bill, thrown out to-day shall come back again and again till on the stepping stones of its dead selves, a measure ultimately rises which will spread the light of knowledge throughout the land... But, my Lord whatever fate awaits our labours, one thing is clear. We shall be entitled to feel that we have done our duty, and, where the call of duty is clear, it is better even to labour and fail than not to labour at all!

The labours of Gokhale and other veterans who struggled for the cause of compulsory education were not wasted. Their efforts made so much of an impression on the government that it had to rethink on the policy of education. Vigorous efforts began to be made to educate the masses. Between 1901-2 and 1916-17, there was an unprecedented expansion of primary education on a voluntary basis.

Vithalbhai Patel, in 1917, moved a bill in the Bombay Legislative Council for the introduction of compulsory education in the municipal areas of the State. The bill was passed and it became Law in 1918. This was the first legislation to accept the principle of compulsory education. Between 1918 and 1930 every province directly under the British Rule had Acts on compulsory education. The Indian States also followed suit. Some progressive States like Mysore and Kohlapur passed laws on compulsory education.

The Government of India Act 1919 created provincial legislatures with a large majority of elected representatives of the public and Departments of Education were transferred, in 1921, to the control of Indian Ministers responsible to legislature. This initiated the development of mass education.

In May, 1928, a royal commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir John Simon. The Commission appointed an auxiliary Committee commonly

known as Hartog Committee. The Committee submitted its Report in 1929. Its observations and recommendations on Primary Education are as follows:

Throughout the whole education system there is waste and ineffectiveness. In the Primary education which from our point of view should be designed to produce literacy and the capacity to exercise an intelligent vote, the waste is appalling. So far as we can judge, the vast increase in number in primary schools produces no commensurate increase in literacy, for only a small proportion of those who are at the primary stage reach class-IV, in which the attainment of literacy may be expected. The wastage in case of girls is even more serious than in case of boys. The Committee made the following recommendations on primary education :

1. A policy of consolidation should be adopted.
2. The standard of general education of primary teachers should be raised.
3. The large extent of stagnation and wastage be reduced.
4. The Government should assume necessary powers of control to improve the efficiency of administration.
5. No hasty attempts should be made to introduce compulsion.

The recommendation of the Hartog Committee proved to be a set back to the movement of compulsory education.

In 1937, the Congress assumed office in seven provinces and they had to face a dilemma. On the one hand the Congress was committed to the popular demand for the introduction of universal, free and compulsory primary education in the shortest possible time and on the other hand the Congress could not raise huge sums of money for its implementation by fresh taxation. Mahatma Gandhi came forward with a proposal that if schooling could be made self supporting through useful and productive work, then paucity of funds would not come in the way of universal free primary education. This proposal was placed before the public through a series of articles in the Harijan. This proposal was discussed at length at Wardha on 22nd and 23rd October, 1937. The following four resolutions were passed.

1. That in the opinion of this Conference free and compulsory education be provided for seven years on a nation-wide scale.
2. That the medium of instruction be the mother tongue.
3. That the Conference endorses the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi that the process of education throughout this period should centre round some productive form of manual work and that all other abilities to be developed or training to be given should, as far as possible, be integrally related to the central handicraft chosen with due regard to the environment of the child.
4. That the Conference expects that the system of education will be gradually able to cover the remuneration of the teachers.

The Zakir Hussain Committee submitted a detailed report known as Wardha Scheme of Basic Education. It was approved by Mahatma Gandhi. The Indian National Congress at Haripur Session (1938) passed a resolution incorporating the first three points of the resolution of Wardha Conference. Basic Education received a big boost under the Congress Government.

The Central Advisory Board of Education headed by John Sargent, the then Educational Adviser with the Government of India was asked to submit a plan on Post-War Educational Development. In 1944, it submitted a detailed report on Post-War Educational Development in India, commonly known as Sargent Report. Regarding basic (Primary and Middle) education it was mentioned in the Report that a system of universal, compulsory and free education for all boys and girls between the ages of six and fourteen should be introduced as speedily as possible though in view of the practical difficulty of recruiting the requisite number of trained teachers it may not be possible to complete it in less than forty years.

The framers of the Constitution made it a Constitutional obligation of the government to provide free and compulsory elementary education. Article 45 under Directive Principles of State Policy in the Constitution states: The State shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution, free and compulsory education to all children until they complete the age of 14 years.

As per this principle the goal of free and compulsory education should have been achieved by 1960. The goal is still eluding us even in 1990. The Central and State Governments have been making efforts to achieve the objective of universalisation of elementary education since the commencement of the Constitution. In the five-year plans huge funds were allocated for the expansion of education and tremendous education growth in terms of number of schools, enrolment and teachers has been achieved.

Education Commission (1964-66) reviewed the fulfilment of the Constitutional Directive of free and compulsory education. It said that the country should be able to provide five years of good and effective education to all the children by 1975-76 and seven years of such education by 1985-86.

In the National Policy on Education (1968), the Government reiterated its resolve for an early fulfilment of the Directive Principle under Article 45 of the Constitution seeking to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 and recommended that suitable programmes should be developed to reduce the prevailing wastage and stagnation in schools and to ensure that every child who is enrolled in school successfully completes the prescribed course. In the Fifth Five-Year Plan (1974-79), the Government included elementary education in the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP)—the needs which are basic to the community and huge allocations were made for the promotion of elementary

education. The MNP continued in the subsequent Plans.

In the Draft National Policy on Education (1979), emphasised universalisation of elementary in the following words. Highest priority must be given to free education for all up to the age of 14 as laid down in the Directive Principles of the Constitution. Education up to this stage should be general and not specialised, and should give pupils a confident command of language and tool subjects and inculcate a scientific attitude. Elementary education should be an integral stage.⁴

In order to expedite the universalisation of elementary education, it was included in New Twenty Point Programme announced by the Prime Minister on the 14th January, 1982. Point 16 of the 20-Point Programme reads as follows:

'Spread universal elementary education in the age-group 6-14 with special emphasis on girls and simultaneously involve students and voluntary agencies in programmes for removal of adult illiteracy'.

National Policy on Education (1986) lays down: The thrust in elementary education will emphasise two aspects (i) Universal enrolment and universal retention of children up to 14 years of age and (ii) a substantial improvement in the quality of education.

The movement of free and compulsory education was started in the first decade of the Twentieth Century and it met with success in 1950 when it was made Constitutional obligation of the government to provide free and compulsory education to all children till they complete the age of fourteen years. Since then both the Central and State Governments are making efforts to achieve this objective. In National Policy on Education (1968), the Government resolved for an early fulfilment of the Constitutional objective and the resolve was again reiterated in National Policy on Education (1986). Presently education in classes I-VIII in all

government, local body, aided schools in all States and Union Territories of the country is free barring Uttar Pradesh where boys' education in classes VI-VIII is yet to be made free. Legislations for compulsory primary education are available in sixteen States and three Union Territories namely Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, A & N Islands, Chandigarh and Delhi.

2.2 THE TRADITIONAL MODEL AND ITS ALTERNATIVES

The History of elementary education in the industrialised countries which could provide a certain minimum of general education on a free and compulsory basis follows a well-known course. They started with the traditional model of public education system--a single point entry, sequential and full-time system of institutional instruction provided by professional full-time teachers. They could afford this system because the general development of the society and improvement of economic condition of the masses preceded the universalisation of elementary education. With the success of universalisation of elementary education, their economy improved and they could pump in more money into education for improving the standards of elementary education and to lengthening the process of education.

In the case of developing countries like India, the position is different. They realise the importance of education for economic development and as such they want to achieve the universalisation of education within a very short time. Their dilemma is that as they are in the process of development, they cannot spare sufficient funds for education. They cannot adopt the Traditional Model as such which is costly. Some alternatives to the traditional model have been suggested from time to time.

2.2.1 TRADITIONAL MODEL

The modern system of education in India was created by the British in the nineteenth century. The system suited the upper social classes of the country who could afford full-time instruction for their children. The system is book-centred and as such cultivates the white collar attitude and hatred for manual work. As stated earlier, single point entry in class I at about an age of six years, sequential annual promotion, full-time instruction by professional teachers, etc., are some of the main features of the system.

Ordinarily a child joins class I around six years of age. In some States the minimum age of admission to class I is fixed. Children who have studied privately may be examined and may be allowed admission as per their abilities in a class higher than class I. Such admissions are very rare. The practice of admitting children to class I around the age of six has the advantage of having a homogeneous age-group cohort in class I which tend to rise year after year to successive classes and it makes the classroom instruction easier.

By and large, the system functions in a sequential manner and the children rise every year from class to class. A child completes one class every year and gets into the next class after having the annual examination. Many children fail to pass the annual examination and are detained in the same class. On the other hand a few children may complete two classes in a year and be given double promotion.

The system requires the children to be in school to have full-time institutional instruction. This system suits those children whose parents are well-off and can afford their children to attend full-time school. In our country many children are compelled to work at home or outside to add to the family income. Girls have to stay at home to help the mother, who attends farm work, in the house.

hold work and to look after younger brothers and sisters. Such children cannot have the luxury of attending school on full-time basis. As such this system does not suit the masses.

The system utilises the services of full-time professional teachers and this makes the system very costly. There is a continuing increase of costs due to rise in salaries and allowances of teachers. The costs are likely to go still higher when the single teacher schools are converted to two teacher schools.

2.2.2 THE GOKHALE-PARULEKAR MODEL

As stated earlier, Gopal Krishan Gokhale was a great advocate of universal primary education and he put forward a bill in the Central legislature in 1910-12 to provide for a four year compulsory education for all children. His main objective of compulsory education was to have universal literacy. He knew that if the objectives of elementary education were pitched higher, the duration would have to be longer and cost per pupil would go up. He wanted the curriculum to be simplified so as to help in the acquisition of Three R's. According to Gokhale, the liquidation of illiteracy of our masses would be a substantial achievement and the quality of education could be taken care of after literacy had been banished from the country.

The Government of India did not accept the idea of compulsory education on financial and administrative grounds. Compulsory legislation was passed by the Provincial Governments during 1918 and 1930 and their implementation was initiated but the paucity of resources was a great handicap in the implementation of the programme of universal primary education. R.V.Parulekar who accepted Gokhale's basic thesis in his books-Mass Education in India and Literacy in India, made the following proposals on the compulsory elementary education.

- i) The basic purpose of elementary education is to banish illiteracy. The quality of education becomes relevant only after that objective has been attained.
- ii) The first step in the programme of national education, therefore, is to concentrate all funds and energy on the liquidation of mass illiteracy. To this end, the primary course should be simplified to cover mainly the Three R's in a period of four years and be provided on a free and compulsory basis within a very short time, say, five to ten years.
- iii) The age of admission should be raised to seven plus. This will reduce stagnation.
- iv) An extensive programme of part-time education should be introduced for grown-up children who have to earn and learn.
- v) The most important factor which influences costs is pupil-teacher ratio. If a large pupil-teacher ratio is adopted, the cost per pupil will go down and the programme of universal education will become financially feasible. For younger children in class I and II, therefore, a double shift system should be adopted in which the hours of instruction are reduced to about three hours a day and the same teacher manages two shifts of 30 or so pupils each per day. In classes III and IV also a shift system is inevitable because most children have to work and can attend school on a part-time basis.

In support of high pupil-teacher ratio, Parulekar writes:

Let us now enquire into the past practices in the several countries of Europe and America and in Japan. The present figures for these countries would not be so instructive on this point as those of the past; for, as a nation advances in education and consequently in prosperity, it is but right that it should try to make its schools more and more efficient. It cannot be denied that one of the most important factors in the imparting of effective instruction in schools is the number of pupils entrusted to each teacher. The writer is fully conscious of the fact that the lesser the number of pupils per teacher the better it is for the pupils. The question is how far a nation can march towards the ideal of smaller classes consistently with its wants and its resources.

The following is the summary of the Rules of some of the countries regarding the maximum number of pupils allowed per teacher:

Country	Year	Maximum number of pupils allowed per teacher
England	(from 1894 onwards)	60
France	1906	50
Germany	1896	80
Germany	1909	70
Germany	1923	60
Hungary	1905	80
Hungary	1910	60
Switzerland	1905	70
Italy	1932	60
Portugal	1905	80
Serbia	1905	70
Czechoslovakia	1924	80
	1906	70 (Ordinary Elementary School)
Japan	1915	60 (Higher Elementary School)
	1923	In both cases the number may be raised by 10 by special sanction.

Contrast with these figures the Bombay Primary Education Rules of 1924 (Rule No.57) which are in force today: The number of pupils on the rolls of a class, and if a teacher is in-charge of more than one class the total number of pupils on the rolls of all such classes shall not exceed 40.

It may be urged that an average Bombay primary school teacher will not be able to teach so many pupils at a time, that the percentage of trained teachers in Bombay is small compared to that in other countries, that wastage and stagnation will increase resulting in a waste of public money and that the combination of two or more standards in one class, with such large numbers as are here advocated will result in hopeless inefficiency. To all these and similar questions, it may be replied that the Bombay teacher is not so incompetent as compared to teachers of other countries, and that the percentage of trained teachers today in Bombay (about 50) is not less than what it was in England in its most active period of expansion of primary education (up to 1885), when each teacher was teaching on an average more than 50 pupils. In almost all the countries referred to above, the maximum number of pupils allowed for each teacher is to consist of children of not only one standard, but all the standards into which the school pupils could be divided according to their stages of progress. Why should not a Bombay teacher look after a far larger number than he is doing today.⁵

The first two proposals are exactly the same as were put forward by Gokhale. The suggestion of raising the age of admission to seven plus was not favoured by the masses. According to them a child of six is more a nuisance rather than a help at home and as such he should be in school at that age. The teachers

as a group do not favour the idea of high teacher-pupil ratio as it may result in a fewer number of posts of teachers. Moreover their plea is that in the teacher training institution they were not trained in handling large classes. The elite group are not in favour of double-shift. They want to send their children to schools on full-time basis. The suggestions given by Parulekar were not given serious trial.

2.2.3 THE BASIC EDUCATION MODEL

The State Governments wanted to implement the programme of free and compulsory education at primary stage but paucity of resources was a big bottleneck. Gandhiji formulated the scheme of Basic Education in 1937. The scheme was discussed at length in a conference in Wardha in 1937. As stated earlier, the conference passed the following resolution.

- i) That in the opinion of the conference, free and compulsory education be provided for seven years on a nation-wide scale.
- ii) That the medium of instruction be the mother tongue.
- iii) That the conference endorses the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi that the process of education throughout the period should centre round some form of manual and productive work and all the other abilities to be developed or training to be given should as far as possible be integrally related to the central handicraft chosen with due regard to the environment of the child.
- iv) That the conference expects that this system of education will be gradually able to cover the remuneration of teachers.

The Congress accepted the scheme as its programme of national education in its Haripura session of March, 1938.

In the initial stages, the Basic Education received a big boost under the Congress Governments which were in office in different provinces of India between

1937 and 1939. After the attainment of Independence the scheme of Basic Education, got another fillip. Government of Uttar Pradesh suddenly converted all its elementary schools to the basic pattern. In other States, the programme was introduced in selected schools or selected areas or in both.

For various reasons, the programme of basic education did not make as satisfactory a progress as was desired. A modified scheme, called 'Orientation to basic education' was, therefore, introduced in 1956. Under this scheme, a simple and limited programme of activities was introduced in all elementary schools to begin with, and, as trained teachers and funds became available, the schools were to be converted to full basic pattern.

Basic education did not make satisfactory progress. There is apathy for manual work and fascination for book centred education among the masses in general and in classes in particular. Among crafts Agriculture had a higher potential of success but because of non-availability of land it was introduced in a few schools. The scheme was introduced in a large number of schools but the right kind of trained teachers could not be provided in them. Moreover, the necessary facilities for running such schools, were not provided. The system proved to be very costly. The initial cost of starting a basic elementary school was much more than that for a traditional ordinary school.

Though the basic education did not succeed but it had its impact on the traditional model. It is now recognised that education must be linked to productivity and that the education of children at the school stage should contain activities and programmes of learning by doing, a considerable amount of manual work and participation in socially productive work and programmes of social and national service.

2.2.4 THE RAJGOPALACHARI EXPERIMENT

Rajaji while he was a Chief Minister of Madras (now Tamil Nadu) made an experiment in Education. He tried to make a compromise between the Gokhale-Parulekar model with its emphasis on high pupil-teacher ratio (or the double-shift system) and the concept of basic education. He wanted to save money that is usually spent on setting up and running a basic school. He proposed that at the primary stage the school should work on double shift system and instead of providing for the teaching of craft in the school at considerable public expense, the children might be required to work at home in their own family craft. The children could use their four days in the work following the occupation of the parents and take schooling during the other three days. This would double the capacity of schools and teachers, for it would mean that the teachers could take two sets of children in a week leaving one day off for the rest from labour. Rajaji thought that the financial problem would be greatly eased by this arrangement.

The experiment was a good one in the sense that the children in the rural areas, majority of whom generally took up parental occupation after their schooling, would learn the trade or craft of their parents while in school and at the same time would be of great help to parents. But the experiment did not find favour with the public. This experiment envisaged two systems of education--one for the rural areas and another for urban ones. There was a lot of agitation against the scheme and the experiment had to be dropped.

2.2.5 THE ONE-HOUR SCHOOL

The Basic Education in spite of revolution in content, functioned within the framework of the traditional system of education, namely the formal system of a single-point entry, sequential character and full-time institutional instruction by professional full-time teachers and that the acceptance of this pattern of formal system created problems for basic education itself. As such, ways and means

had to be discovered to provide basic education in a non-formal manner as well. Secondly, basic education was costly as such it could not be extended to masses. Acharya Vinobaji put forward the idea of 'one-hour school' incorporating the non-formal aspect of basic education and of providing it at a very little cost. The experiment of one-hour school is given below in the words of Vinobaji.

There is a great deal of time wasted in the schools which are being run nowadays for our little five - year olds. If the children were really busy reading and writing for the whole five hours, it would be too much for them. Moreover, really poor children cannot attend the schools and the education given to them is of no real value.

My suggestion is, therefore, that we should have a one-hour school.... It would be held in the early morning, about sunrise, so that the children would be free to work during the day, and every child in the village, even the poorest, would be able to attend. The morning class would be for reading - for the three R's.

In the evening, there would be an hour's class for adults; what one may call a 'Hearing Class' for it would not teach reading and writing. There would be reading from such books as the Ramayana and the Bhagvat. There would be stories and hymns of the saints. There would be discussion of village problems, new ideas and suggestions for agriculture. There would be songs and bhajans. This class would deal with every type of knowledge needed in practical life. The children would all go to the morning class to learn to read but for general knowledge they would go to the evening class.

The teachers of these one - hour schools would also be occupied with their own work during the day, so they would not need large salaries. The villagers would give them a share of the yearly harvest in return for their hour's service.

If the village council organises village industries efficiently, the children will be able to learn those industries during the remainder of the day, and will be occupied in their fields or other work. It is not the duty of the school to organise such industries, but that of Gram-Panchayat or Village Council. The expenses which may have to be incurred will be borne by the Panchayat, not by the Council. The school will have very few expenses and the children will become expert craftsmen. 6

This experiment suggests that basic education should not merely be confined to the formal system of full-time instruction but also to be provided largely on a non-formal basis and at such reduced costs as to make it financially feasible in the present state of the nation's economy.

2.2.6 THE EDUCATION COMMISSION MODEL

The Education Commission (1964-66) came out with a new model for the elementary education system. The following are its main features.

1. The Neighbourhood Schools-- The Commission felt that the present educational system created an undesirable segregation between the classes and the masses. The children of the classes attended private, fee-charging better schools while the masses utilised publicly maintained poor schools. In order to eliminate the segregation, the Commission recommended the adoption of the neighbourhood school concept at the lower primary stage in the first instance and at higher primary stage a little later. This concept implies that each primary school would be attended by all children in the neighbourhood irrespective of caste, creed, community, religion, economic condition or social status. The Commission felt that this scheme would strengthen social and national integration.

2. Content-- The Commission broadly accepted the scheme of basic education and of relating education to productivity. Instead of emphasising the teaching of crafts, the Commission suggested that the school curriculum should include work experience which implied participation in socially useful productive work.

3. Multiple-Entry and Part-time Education-- The Commission brought in the concepts of multiple-entry and non-formal education through part-time courses or self-study. The Commission suggested two programmes.

- a. All children in the age-group 11-14, who are not attending schools and who have not completed the primary stage of education should be required to attend special classes organised on a part-time basis, for a period of one year at least. The Commission has said:

Experiments conducted by some institutions in the country have shown that if we begin with grown-up children of this age-group and provide them with part-time education (of about one and a half to two hours per day for about three days a week), it is possible to make them functionally literate in the course of one year. Such classes can be conveniently organized by teachers in primary schools outside the regular school hours, utilising the buildings and equipment of the same schools. The timings of the classes would have to be elastic: they should be determined by local conditions and the needs of the children attending, in the sense that attendance in such classes should not interfere with the work they do for the families. In most cases, they will be organised on a part-time basis for about one and a half hours per day, either in the morning or in the evening. For girls, some time in the afternoon is always more convenient. The teachers should be adequately remunerated for the purpose. There need be no separate curricula; but as the size of the average class will be small, it may be possible for teachers to give individual attention to each child and to make them functionally literate during this period. The cost of running these classes will be comparatively small, not more than about Rs.40 per child per year, but its results will be very substantial.⁷

b. To offset the wastage due to economic reasons, a programme of part-time education should be provided for all children who have completed the lower primary stage and desire to study further, but cannot afford to do so on a full-time basis. The Commission has said:

1. The number of such children is large even at present and it will increase as education reaches the still poorer sections of society. The only way in which these children can receive education is on a part-time basis. It should be a deliberate objective of policy to provide such education on as large a scale as possible.
2. The content of this part-time education would have to be elastic and should be determined according to the needs and aptitudes of the children receiving it. For some children who desire to complete this stage of education and prepare themselves for the next, it should be patterned on the lines of the full-time courses. But for those who do not wish to do so and these would be the large majority—the content of education should have a large vocational element and should be so developed as to serve their immediate needs.⁸

The recommendations of the Commission have been implemented partly. The neighbourhood school concept has not been implemented. Work experience has become an integral part of the school curriculum and part-time education has been started in the non-formal education centres.

By and large, people are unhappy with the traditional model. During the last few decades, there has been a lot of thinking and experimentation to evolve a model alternative to the traditional model. There has not been much success. The traditional model has come to stay in spite of its weaknesses and short-comings. Work experience has been accepted as an integral part of the school curriculum. The need, role and importance of part-time education has been accepted and it has been started in the non-formal education centres.

2.3 NEW PROGRAMMES

In recent years, several comprehensive programmes dealing with different aspects of UEE have been initiated both at the national and State/Union Territory levels. Prominent among them are experimental/innovative projects/programmes for developing non-formal system of education, development and renewal of curriculum, strategies for improving the functioning and performance of educational institutions to increase their attracting and holding power, etc. Some of the important and significant programmes/projects are discussed in the following sections.

2.3.1 NON-FORMAL SYSTEM OF LEARNING

During the past decade there has been a growing concern about the limitations of formal education in achieving the universal elementary education. A large number of children who have to work to supplement the meagre income of their families, are unable to attend full-time regular schools, and thus remain outside the education system. In order to provide education to these children, a non-formal system of education suited to the needs of diverse groups of children in terms of duration of the course, place and time of study, learning content, methodology of instruction and evaluation has been developed.

Initially the Non-Formal programme was introduced in the Fifth Five-Year Plan in nine educationally backward States as a measure to enrol non-enrolled children and retrieve drop-outs in the age-group 9-14. In 1986 (as per Fifth All India Educational Survey) all States and Union Territories except Goa, Nagaland, Tripura, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry had non-formal education centres.

The instructional programme of non-formal education varies from State to State. The scheme of the Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India under which financial assistance is given to States for establishing non-formal education centres, visualises three types of instructional programme as a condensed version of the syllabus of the formal system. The entire curriculum of five years of primary stage is condensed into a two-year curriculum based on graded units. The second pattern of instructional programme is centred round home-craft, child-care, etc. for girls who are not interested in the continuation of education in the formal system but are to settle down as housewives. The emphasis is on functional course which would help them to be successful in life and to face situations in life gracefully. Another type of instructional programme is to be built around traditional professions like carpet weaving, pottery, etc. in which children are already engaged. The programmes focus on literacy, numeracy and citizenship training along with instruction about the crafts as well as on marketing of products. By and large, the non-formal education centres are following the instructional programme centred around a condensed version of the curriculum at the elementary stage.

Special instructional materials have been developed keeping in view the diverse environmental situations and needs of each State. The duration of instruction every day is about two hours. The time is decided by the community. In most cases the classes are held between 6 p.m. and 9 p.m. The instructors for the centres are mostly selected from among locally available persons. They are imparted short training before they start teaching at the centres.

The country had over 1.2 lakh non-formal education centres having over 36 lakh enrolment in 1986 (Fifth All-India Educational Survey).

2.3.2 EARN WHILE YOU LEARN SCHEME

In order to provide educational opportunities to the children of economically weaker sections of the society and to attract the out-of-school children to non-formal education centres and to retain them till they complete the elementary stage of education, an innovative scheme known as 'Earn while you Learn Scheme' is being implemented in the State of Madhya Pradesh. Under this scheme children who are enrolled in the non-formal education centres are provided with opportunities to perform some sort of productive work to earn money. They are involved in the production of chinks, mats, sealing wax and school furniture. The produce is purchased by the Education Department. The scheme is operated in collaboration with the Khadi and Village Industries Board in the State.

The production centres remain open during the day and even on holidays so that children can utilise their leisure time on production work. About 300 production centres attached to non-formal education centres were in existence in 1984 and attempts are being made to expand the scheme by opening more production centres attached to non-formal education centres.

2.3.3 COMPREHENSIVE ACCESS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION (CAPE)

The UNICEF assisted project "Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)" implemented by NCERT in collaboration with the SIEs/SCERTs in States and Union Territories was started in the year 1979-80. The project aims at developing a non-formal system of education and to evolve flexible, problem centred and work-based decentralised curricula and learning materials (learning episodes) relevant to the needs and life situations of diverse groups of learners. Under the project locally relevant learning materials (learning episodes) have been developed for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. The episodes have been developed through the introduction of a training-cum-production mode into the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) and/or into the inservice training course for primary school teachers. The episodes developed by the teacher trainees and/or inservice teachers, after processing, refinement and publication are being used in the network of learning centres.

The major concern of Project CAPE is on learners from the disadvantaged populations, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, backward classes and girls. Among these learners are those children who did not join school at all and those who have dropped out at the early stage of elementary education. The project also caters to the needs of slow learners attending formal school. The educational programmes developed under Project CAPE are characterised by openness in time and duration of learning, openness in curriculum, openness in methodologies of instruction and openness in evaluation. They are so designed as to enable learners to progress at their own pace on part-time basis according to their convenience.

The learning materials developed under the project have relevance to the needs of learners, flexibility, local specificity and relationship to socially useful productive work as well as social services related to the welfare of the local

community and its needs. The process of curriculum development is decentralised. The personal, family, community, vocational, social and developmental problems and activities, inclusive of socially useful productive work represent important sources of content for learning materials. Problems are identified on sites or localities where the disadvantaged children reside. Learning materials are thus self-contained and independent learning units. A learning material so developed is called learning episode. These episodes being problem-centred and work-based have natural integration of different subject areas and disciplines taught at the elementary stage of education. Under the project learning materials have also been developed for use in situations where more formalised and structured learning are required especially in core areas such as literacy, numeracy, environmental awareness and science related skills. These learning episodes are developed keeping in view specific Expected Behavioural Outcomes.

One of the major outcomes of Project CAPE is the availability of a large number of relevance-based, problem-centred and work-based learning episodes for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14.

Another outcome of the project is the improvement in the competence of large number of teacher educators and teacher-trainees of TTIs in developing locally relevant learning materials. The introduction of training-cum-production mode into the curriculum of TTIs for development and try-out of learning episodes by teacher trainees form the basis for developing a functional and task-oriented elementary teacher education. Under this mode, teacher trainees are required to visit localities of disadvantaged population, conduct surveys to identify real-life problems and develop and try-out learning episodes for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. Thus this mode helps in making training processes in elementary teacher training institutes more practical and responsive to needs and problems of different groups of learners.

2.3.4 PRIMARY EDUCATION CURRICULUM RENEWAL

Uniform curricula, learning materials and instructional strategies have not been always relevant to the needs and life situations of diverse groups of children. One of the major concerns in elementary education has, therefore, been to evolve new curricula or curriculum approaches to meet the requirements of diverse groups. For this consideration, certain innovative projects on development and renewal of primary education curricula with the propose of improving relevance of formal schooling have been undertaken in recent years. Prominent among these projects is UNICEF-assisted project "Primary Education Curriculum Renewal (PECR)" implemented by the NCERT in collaboration with SIEs/SCERTs in States/U.Ts. The project aimed at developing innovative curricula and instructional materials relevant to the needs of different groups of children and to adjust the existing curriculum to the life style of the child. It also aimed at creating within States and Union Territories the necessary competence among educational planners and workers at different levels for developing and implementing curricula which by their content and methodology would reflect the major socio-economic, geographical and cultural environment.

The pilot stage of the project was initiated in 1975-76 in thirteen States and two Union Territories covering 30 experimental schools, located in three districts of each State/U.T. representing fairly wide variations in terms of social, cultural, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. This stage, which was completed in the year 1980, covered 450 primary schools and 45 elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) in the country. During this phase, relevant instructional materials for classes I-V in regional languages as well as appropriate teaching-learning strategies were evolved for education of children studying in the project schools.

Instructional materials included textbooks, guidance materials for teachers and workbooks. After the pilot phase, the project was introduced in all States/U.Ts except one U.T.

The curriculum was designed on the basis of the data obtained with the help of a detailed socio-economic and educational survey of each of the areas in which the project was implemented. In some States surveys had indicated wide variations between different regions in terms of social and cultural set-up, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. In these State differential sets of instructional materials for children from different regions were developed. Some States preferred to have a common set of textbooks accompanied by cluster-wise teachers' guides. While learning situations/activities were drawn from the environment of the child curriculum was directed to attainment of essential competencies by the child. A list of competencies related to computation (Mathematics), Communication (Language), healthy living, environmental studies, artistic and creative expression and socially useful productive work (SUPW) were identified. These were then reduced to the most essential (minimum) ones to be learned at the mastery (learning) level and graded in a sequence (continuum). Based on this, a 'Minimum Learning Continuum (MLC)' indicating the competencies expected to be attained by a learner at the end of primary stage of education was developed. The MLC provides guidance as well as reference to curriculum framers and writers of instructional materials for use by children and teachers of the project schools.

Some States have initiated steps for wider infusion of the curriculum and instructional materials developed under the project into their educational system.

2.3.5 ASHRAM SCHOOLS

Children belonging to the Scheduled Tribes are generally first generation learners. Parents, being illiterate, cannot help their children in studies. Poverty does not allow them to continue their studies. To counter these problems, Ashram

Schools have been opened for tribals. These schools attempt to provide culturally relevant education in the setting of children's own environment. Free boarding and lodging facilities are made available in these schools.

Many States have set up these schools. These provide education at elementary and secondary levels. Exclusive schools for girls known as Kanyashrams have also been established. In these schools emphasis is laid on cultural activities, arts and crafts.

Ashram Schools have been very popular. This is indicated by the fact that they run to their full capacity. The incidence of wastage and stagnation is very small in them.

2.3.6 INTER-VILLAGE SCHOOLS

Tribal areas have a large number of small habitations with population less than 200. According to the norms laid down by various State governments, schools are opened only in villages which have a population of 300 or more. Many tribal villages do not qualify for having a school. In order to provide schooling facilities to these villages, the Arunachal Pradesh Government has started opening inter-village schools. Small hamlets with sparse population are identified and central village, almost equi-distant from all the feeder villages, is selected. The inter-village school with a hostel is opened in the central village and children from all the feeder villages are admitted and housed in the hostel. Thus small children are saved from commuting long distances to attend schools. They do not get isolated from their own village life; they are allowed to go back to their villages during holidays. These schools provide free boarding and lodging to children.

An inter-village school is a much better alternative to single-teacher school.

2.4 EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

There has been tremendous educational development during 1950-86. The number of schools has grown manifold. The middle schools are up by nine times. The increase in the enrolment at the elementary stage has been phenomenal. The increase in girls enrolment is exceptional. In classes VI-VIII, it is up by 18 times. There has been no less significant increase in the number of teachers in general and women teachers in particular. The number of women teachers in middle schools is up by 23 times. The figures speak very highly of the achievement attained in various areas of education during the last thirty five years.

2.4.1 SCHOOLS

In order to achieve UEE, a number of primary schools were opened all over the country. During the period 1950-86, 318408 primary schools were added giving an increase in the number primary schools by 1.5 times and yielding a compound growth rate of 2.67% per annum.

Statement 2.1

Growth of Primary and Middle Schools in the Country

Year	Primary Schools		Middle Schools	
	Number	% Increase for the decade	Number	% Increase for the decade
1950-51	209671		13596	
1960-61	330399	57.58	49663	265.28
1970-71	408378	23.60	90621	82.47
1980-81	494503	21.09	118555	30.83
1985-86	528079	6.79*	134074	13.09*

Note:*Percentage Increase for 5 years

- Sources 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Govt. of India, 1987.
2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86, M.H.R.D., Govt. of India, 1987.

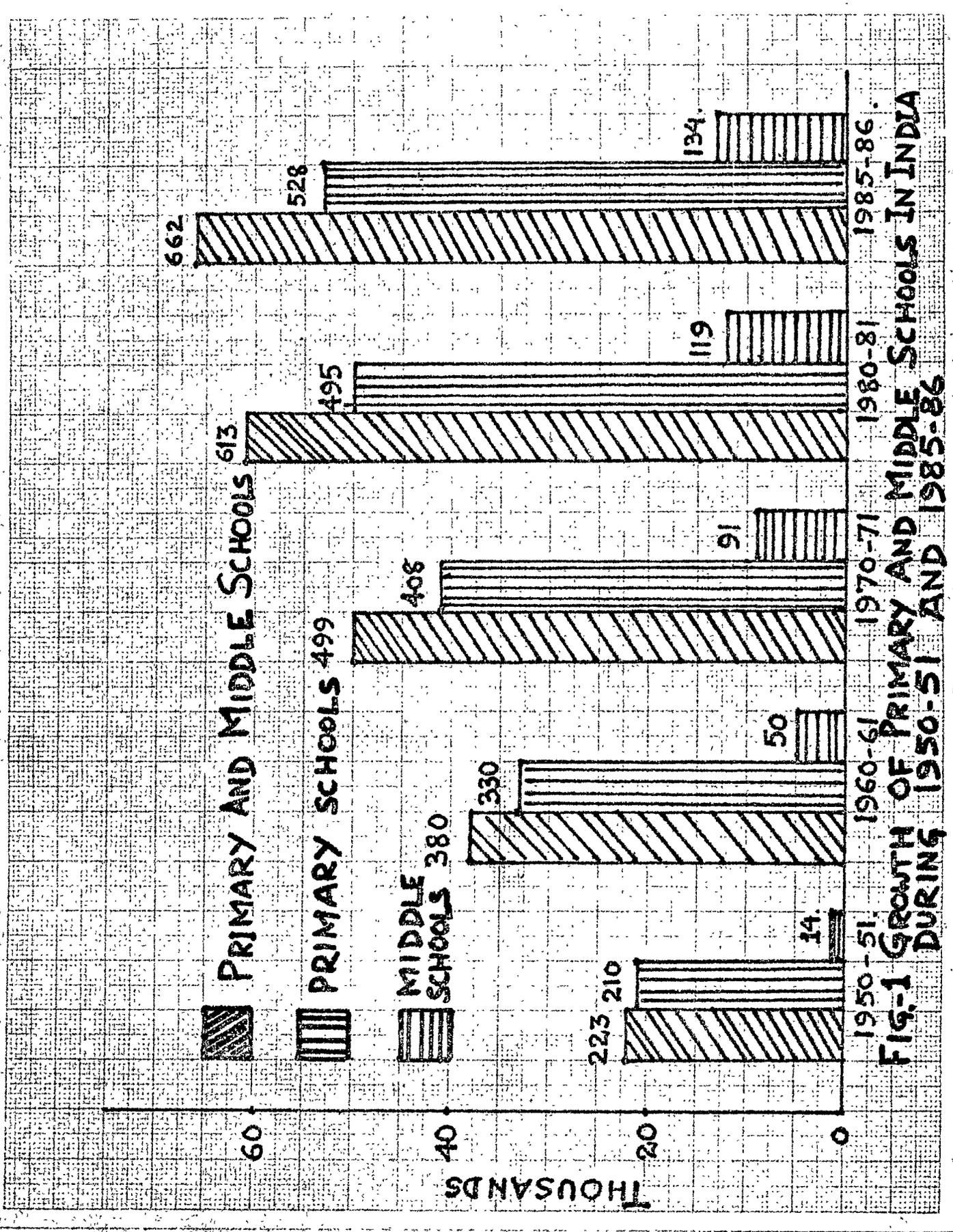


FIG.-1 GROWTH OF PRIMARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN INDIA DURING 1950-51 AND 1985-86

The percentage increase in the number of schools was the highest (57.58) during the fifties. During the sixties and the seventies, the expansion was not as pronounced as in the fifties. During these two decades the emphasis was on consolidation rather than on expansion.

The increase in the number of middle schools was notable. The number rose from 13596 in 1950-51 to 134074 in 1985-86, thus registering an increase of 120478 schools. As such the number of middle schools was up by 9 times. A compound growth rate of 6.76% per annum was achieved.

In terms of percentage increase, it was the highest (265.28) in the fifties as in case of primary schools. During the sixties, the increase was 82.47%. During seventies, the emphasis was on consolidation rather than on expansion.

2.4.2 ENROLMENT

The enrolment in classes I-V has been on the increase since 1950-51. It rose from 191.5 lakhs in 1950-51 to 864.7 lakhs in 1985-86 registering an increase of 3.5 times and yielding a compound growth rate of 4.4 % per annum which is considerably higher than the population growth rate per annum. The percentage increase was the highest (82.69) for the fifties, followed by 63.02 for the sixties.

The increase in the enrolment for the classes VI-VIII was also impressive. The enrolment increased from 31.2 lakhs in 1950-51 to 281.2 lakhs in 1985-86. The increase was to the tune of 8 times and the compound growth rate was 6.48% per annum. The increase is over 50% for all decades, the highest (114.90) being in other cases, for the fifties.

Statement 2.2

Growth of Enrolment at the Elementary Stage

Year	Classes I-V		Classes VI-VIII		Classes I-VIII	
	Enrolment	% increase for the decade	Enrolment	% increase for the decade	Enrolment	% increase for the decade
1950-51	19154457		3119958		22274415	
1960-61	34993829	82.69	6704810	114.90	41698639	87.20
1970-71	57045441	63.02	13315170	98.59	70360611	68.74
1980-81	73774187	29.33	20724364	55.64	94498551	34.31
1985-86	86465189	17.20*	28124756	35.71*	114589945	21.26*

Note: * Percentage increase for 5 years

Sources: 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, 1987

2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86 M.H.R.D., Government of India, 1987.

The enrolment in classes I-VIII increased from 222.7 lakhs in 1950-51 to 1145.9 lakhs in 1985-86 registering an increase of 4.1 times. This increase yields a compound growth rate of 4.79% per annum - higher than the population growth rate. The highest percentage increase (87.20) was for the fifties closely followed by 68.74% for the sixties.

The percentage increase in enrolment of girls out-stepped that of boys at the elementary stage. The enrolment of girls in classes I-V increased from 53.8 lakhs in 1950-51 to 347.3 lakhs in 1985-86, registering an increase of 5.5 times. The compound growth rate for the period works out to be 5.47% per annum which is higher than the compound growth rate for the total enrolment (4.40%). Here too, the percentage increase was the highest (111.74) for the fifties.

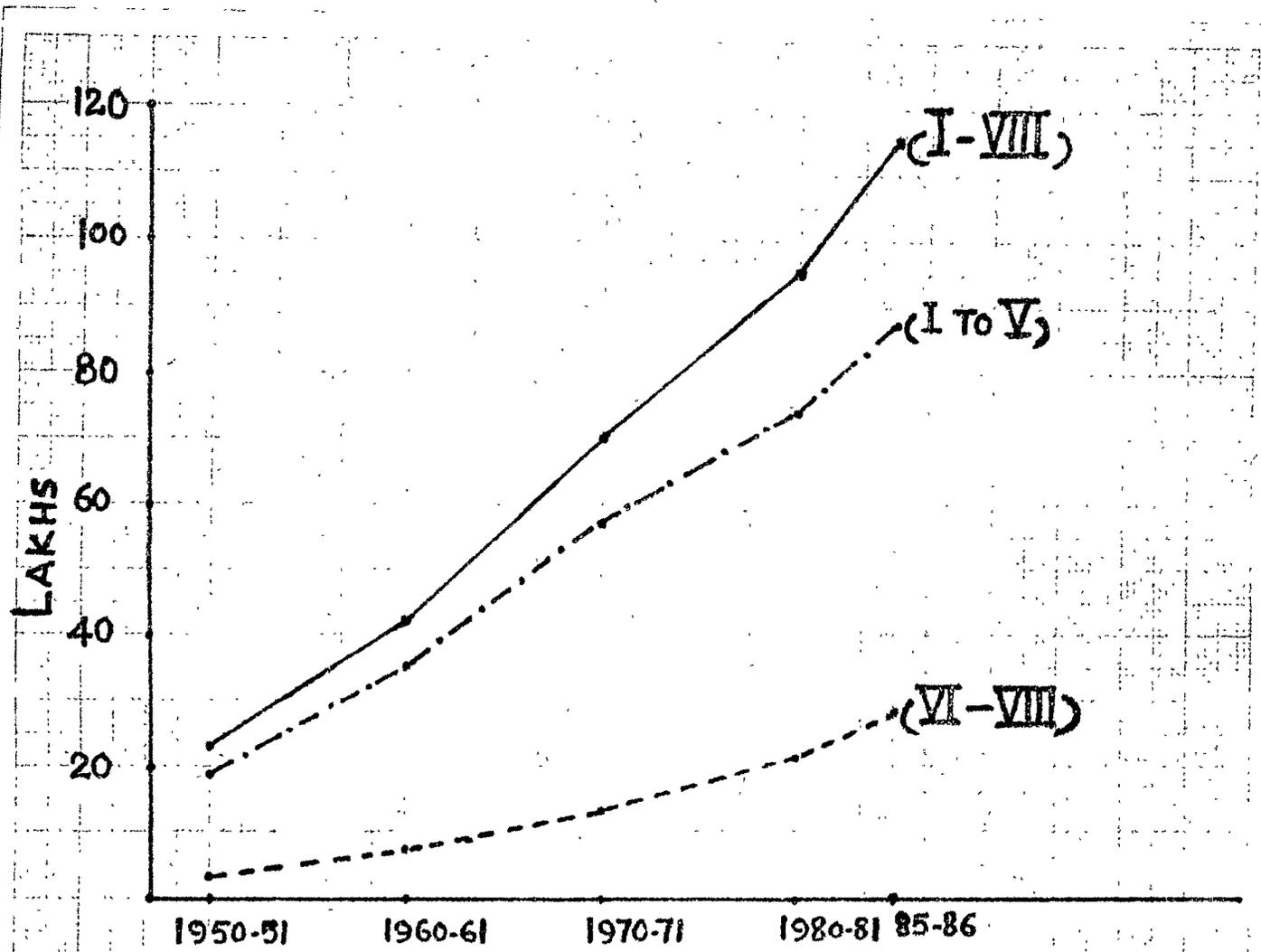


FIG.-2 GROWTH OF ENROLMENT AT THE ELEMENTARY STAGE (CLASSES I-VIII) IN INDIA DURING 1950-51 AND 1985-86.

Statement 2.3Growth of Girls Enrolment at the Elementary Stage

Year	Classes I-V		Classes VI-VIII		Classes I-VIII	
	Enrolment	% increase for the decade	Enrolment	% increase for the decade	Enrolment	% increase for the decade
1950-51	5384602		534217		5918819	
1960-61	11401102	111.74	1630465	205.21	13031567	120.17
1970-71	21306220	86.88	3889473	138.55	25195693	93.34
1980-81	28488056	33.71	6790399	74.58	35278455	40.02
1985-86	34732763	21.92*	9992955	47.16*	44725218	26.78*

Note: *Percentage increase for five years

Sources: 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, 1987

2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86 M.H.R.D., Government of India 1987.

The increase in enrolment in classes VI-VIII was very striking meaning thereby that more girls were pursuing their studies beyond class V. The enrolment was up by 17.7 times registering a compound growth rate of 8.73% per annum which is appreciably higher than the corresponding rate for the total enrolment (6.48). There was a gradual increase in enrolment throughout the period under reference but the percentage increase was the highest (205.21) for the fifties followed by 138.55% for the sixties.

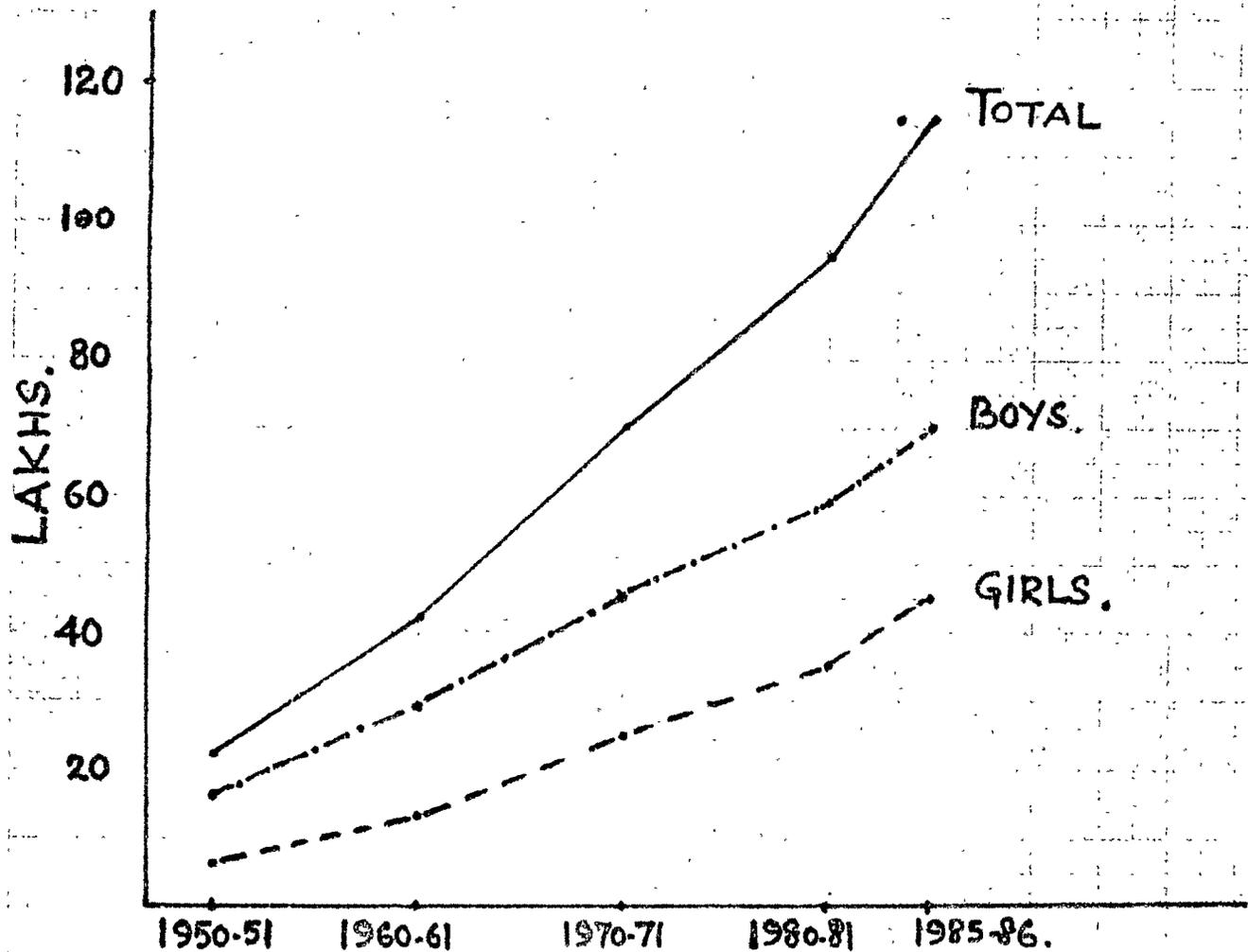


FIG.-3 GROWTH OF ENROLMENT OF BOYS, GIRLS AND TOTAL AT THE ELEMENTARY STAGE (CLASSES I-VIII) DURING 1950-51 AND 1985-86.

Considering the enrolment of girls in classes-I-VIII the enrolment was up by 6.6 times during 1950-86. Thus compound growth rate per cent per annum was 5.95 higher than the rate for the total enrolment (4.79%). Here too, the percentage increase was the highest (120.17) for the fifties.

2.4.3 TEACHERS

The number of teachers in primary and middle schools increased appreciably. The number of teachers in primary schools rose from 537918 in 1950-51 to 1509910 in 1985-86 registering an increase of 1.8 times. The compound growth rate works out to be 2.99% per annum. The increase has been gradual and steady. The percentage increase was the highest (42.94) for the sixties. For the fifties it was 37.85%.

Statement 2.4

Growth of Teachers in Primary and Middle Schools

Year	Teachers in Primary Schools		Teachers in Middle Schools		Teachers in primary & Middle School	
	Number	% increase for the decade	Number	% increase for the decade	Number	% increase for the decade
1950-51	537918		85496		623414	
1960-61	741515	37.85	345228	303.79	1086743	74.32
1970-71	1059950	42.94	637569	84.68	1697519	56.20
1980-81	1363217	28.61*	851517	33.56	2214734	30.47
1985-86	1509910	10.76	967988	13.68*	2477898	11.89*

Note: *Percentage increase for five years

- Sources: 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, 1987
 2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86 M.H.R.D., Government of India 1987.



The increase in the number of teachers in middle schools was phenomenal. The number of teachers in middle schools increased from 85496 in 1950-51 to 967988 in 1985-86, thus registering an increase of 10.3 times and yielding a compound growth rate of 7.18% per annum. The percentage increase in the number of teachers was the highest (303.79) for the fifties.

Considering the number of teachers working in primary and middle schools, the percentage increase is equally high. The number of teachers increased from 623414 in 1950-51 to 2477898 registering an increase of 3.0 times. The compound growth rate works out to be 4.02% per annum. As in other cases, the percentage increase was the highest (74.32%) for the fifties.

The percentage increase in the number of women teachers in primary and middle schools was much higher in comparison to the corresponding increase for all teachers. The number of women teachers in primary schools rose from 82281 in 1950-51 to 414323 registering an increase of 4.0 times and yielding a compound growth rate of 4.73% per annum. The percentage increase in the number of women teachers was the highest (77.15) for the sixties.

The number of women teachers in the middle schools rose from 12887 in 1950-51 to 307157 in 1985-86 registering an increase of about 23 times with a compound growth rate of 9.48% per annum. The percentage increase for the fifties was as high as 548.19 and for sixties the increase was 108.91.

Considering the number of women teachers working in both primary and middle schools, the number increased from 95168 in 1950-51 to 721480 in 1985-86, thus registering an increase of 6.6 times and yielding a compound growth rate of 5.96% per annum. For the fifties, the percentage increase was to the tune of 121.00.

Statement 2.5Growth of Women Teachers in Primary and Middle Schools

Years	Women Teachers in Primary Schools		Women Teachers in Middle Schools		Women Teachers in Primary & Middle Schools	
	Number	% increase for the decade	Number	%increase for the decade	Number	%increase for the decade
1950-51	82281		12887		95168	
1960-61	126788	54.09	83532	548.19	210320	121.00
1970-71	224610	77.15	174506	108.91	399116	89.77
1980-81	341942	52.29	253326	45.17	595268	49.15
1985-86	414323	21.17*	307157	21.25*	721480	21.20*

Note: * Percentage increase for 5 years

Sources 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, 1987.

2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86 M.H.R.D., Government of India, 1987.

2.4.4 GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) at primary stage (classes I to V) corresponding to age-group 6 to 10+ is the percentage of children enrolled in classes I-V to the estimated child population in the age-group 6 to 10 +

$$\text{GER at primary stage} = \frac{\text{Enrolment in classes I-V}}{\text{Estimated Child Population in the age-group 6 to 10 +}} \times 100$$

This is an indicator of the success of the programme of universalisation of education for the age-group 6 to below 11. Though it is a crude indicator, yet it is the most commonly used.

The enrolment in classes I-V includes children who are under six and over 11 years. That is why, in some cases, the GER exceeds 100.

Statement 2.6Gross Enrolment Ratios at Primary and Middle Stages

Year	Primary Stage (Classes I-V)			Middle Stage (Classes VI-VIII)			Elementary Stage (Classes I-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	60.8	24.9	42.6	20.8	4.3	12.9	46.6	17.4	32.2
1960-61	82.6	41.4	62.4	33.2	11.3	22.5	65.4	31.1	48.7
1970-71	92.6	59.1	76.4	46.5	20.8	34.2	76.7	46.0	61.8
1980-81	95.8	64.1	80.5	54.3	28.6	41.9	81.2	51.7	67.0
1985-86	108.8	77.1	93.4	65.0	38.1	52.0	92.6	62.8	78.1

Note: GERs for classes I-VIII have been derived.

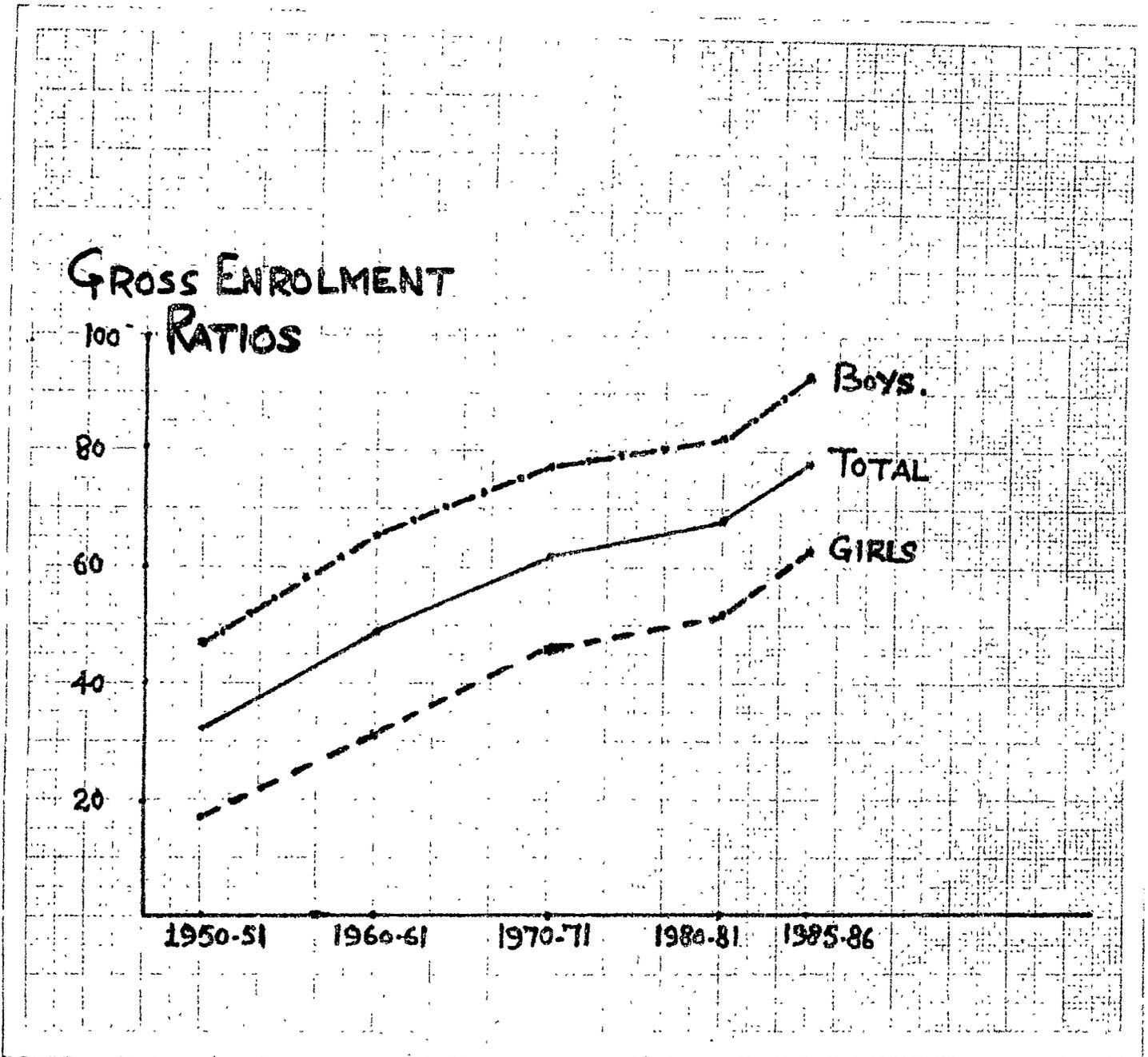
Sources 1. A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, 1987.

2. Selected Educational Statistics 1985-86 M.H.R.D., Government of India, 1987.

3. *Elementary Education in India, A Promise to keep*, J.P. Naik, 1975 (for 1950-51)

The GER increased from 42.6 in 1950-51 to 93.4 in 1985-86. These figures speak very highly of the achievement made in bringing a large number of children in the age-group 6 to below 11 within the school-fold. The GER for boys increased from 60.8 in 1950-51 to 108.8 in 1985-86 and for girls it increased from 24.9 to 77.1. The increase in GER for girls is substantial.

The GER at middle stage (classes VI-VIII) corresponding to the age-group 11 to 13 + is the percentage ratio of the enrolment in classes VI-VIII to the estimated child population in the age-group 11 to 13 + .



Neelgagan

FIG.-4 GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS AT THE ELEMENTARY STAGE (CLASSES I-VIII) (AGE GROUP 6 TO 13+) DURING 1950-51 AND 1985-86.

Neelgagan

Enrolment in classes (VI-VIII)

$$\text{GER at Middle Stage} = \frac{\text{Enrolment in classes (VI-VIII)}}{\text{Estimated child population in the age-group 11 to 13+}} \times 100$$

The GER at Middle stage corresponding to the age-group 11 to 13+ increased from 12.9 in 1950-51 to 52.0 in 1985-86. For boys, the GER increased from 20.8 to 65.0 and for girls from 4.3 to 38.1. It can be said that higher percentage of girls in the age-group 11 to 13 is now attending school.

The GER for elementary stage (Classes I-VIII) corresponding to the age-group 6 to 13+ rose from 32.2 in 1950-51 to 78.1 in 1985-86. For boys the GER went up from 46.6 to 92.6 and for girls from 17.4 to 62.8. This indicates that a high proportion of children in this age group were enrolled in schools. In spite of the substantial increase in the number of children enrolled in schools, a sizeable number of children were still out of school. A planned effort needs to be made to bring all eligible children to school in the near future.

2.5 Review of the Research

There have been a number of research studies on elementary education covering its various aspects. Some of these are on the availability of educational facilities for various school stages. The most prominent among these are All-India Educational Surveys. Some studies deal with the development of education in a State e.g. studies on Assam (Chakravarty 1971), Bihar (Prasad 1967), Madhya Pradesh (Bhave 1967), Manipur (Nagar 1975), Gharwal Division (U.P.) (Budhori 1981), etc. In these studies two types of approaches have been used. In the first approach growth of education is studied on the basis of Acts, Charters, Commission Reports, Policy Resolutions etc. This approach has been followed by Nurullah and Naik in their publications. The second approach involves the use of statistics on schools, pupils, teachers, etc. to delineate growth.

Some studies are on history and survey of districts. These are microlevel studies conducted to study the process of growth and problems and issues associated with it. e.g. Parisnis on Thane (1958), Rege on Ratnagiri(1961), Nabar on Bombay (1964), Yadav on Jabalpur (1970), Landage on Sholapur (1980), etc.

Some studies are sectional in nature e.g. Kamalamma's problems of primary education in Kerala (1969), Tiwari's primary education in Uttar Pradesh (1964), Das's on Orissa (1968), Basik's on West Bengal (1965),etc.

Women education has received reasonable attention. Some of the studies in this area are Misra (1961), Vakil (1965) on Bombay, Desai (1976) on Gujarat, Das (1979) on Assam, etc.

A few studies relate to the development of education of weaker sections of the society viz. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, e.g. Goyal (1973) and Singh (1981) in Varanasi Education Region (U.P.)

The studies on elementary education have been discussed under the following heads.

1. Studies on the availability of educational facilities
2. Studies on the development of education
3. Studies on the education of girls.

2.5.1 Availability of Educational Facilities

These studies relate to the provision of educational facilities for primary and middle stages of education. In these studies the availability of facilities has been discussed in terms of number of villages/habitations having the facility and the population covered for each school stage in the habitation of residence or within a defined walking distance. Some of these studies are given below.

1. NCERT (1989) : The Fifth All-India Educational Survey (1986) revealed that 51.36% habitations accounting for 80.34% rural population had facilities for primary stage within the habitation and 84.45% habitations and 94.60% rural population

had this facility within a walking distance of 1km. Only 13.25% habitations accounting for 36.98% population had facility for middle stage within the habitation and 75.80% habitations and 85.39% rural population had this facility within a distance of 3 km. The earlier surveys viz. All-India Educational Survey (First) (1957), Second All-India Educational Survey (1965); Third All-India Educational Survey (1973) and Fourth All-India Educational Survey (1978) had also information on these variables.

2. Abrol and others (1969): Intensive surveys of four community blocks - one each in Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, Bihar and Madhya Pradesh, was conducted to study the origin of education facilities, growth and development of educational facilities, the existing educational facilities against the historical and cultural background of the block.

3. Misra and others (1973): A comprehensive survey of education in Manipur was conducted in 1972-73 to make data available to the Government of Manipur helpful to them in taking policy decisions and in formulation of plans of educational development. The survey attempted an investigation into availability of educational facilities, teachers, syllabi, text-books, school buildings, facilities for teacher education at elementary and secondary stages, etc.

4. Ministry of education and social welfare (1978): This study was part of the Project : Intensive Study of provision and utilization of schooling facilities in Selected Blocks in seven States. The study was undertaken as a collaborative project by Ministry of Education, Planning Commission and the NCERT. The study involved the four blocks of Chamba District in Himachal Pradesh. The availability of educational facilities was discussed in terms of number of primary and middle schools in the selected blocks. The study revealed that a few primary schools (42) and middle schools (10) were added during the last decade.

5. Kaul(1980): The study was on sample basis involving the three selected blocks of Jalgaon district of Maharashtra. The percentage of villages in blocks having primary schools/sections ranged from 84.5 to 97.9 and the percentage of population having primary schools/sections ranged from 97.9 to 99.8. Classes I-VII constituted the primary stage.
6. Bhargava (1980): The study was a sample study involving three selected Taluks of Bijapur district of Karnataka. There was almost universal provision of educational facilities for primary stage in the three Taluks. All the villages in the three Taluks had primary schools/sections either in them or within a walking distance of 1 km. As far as the middle stage was concerned there were short variations between the Taluks on the availability of facilities. One Taluk had as high as 57.93% villages having middle schools/sections in them and another as low as 40.99% villages having this facility. In case of population, these variations were less marked. The percentage of population having middle schools/sections in the village ranged from 72.23 to 79.31.
7. Bhargava and Mittal (1988): The study involved two districts of Rajasthan - one predominantly tribal district (Dungarpur) and another having a sizeable population of Scheduled Castes (Bharatpur). All habitations predominantly populated by scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in these two districts were studied for availability of educational facilities for primary and middle stages. Bharatpur had higher percentages of habitations and population served for primary and middle stages of education.
8. Bhargava(1989): The Study involved the two educational districts of Orissa - Keonjhar Sadar, a tribal district and Anandpur, a non-tribal district. The study revealed that higher percentages of habitations and population of Anandpur district (non-tribal district) were served than those of Keonjhar Sadar (the tribal district).

2.5.2 Studies on Development of Education

The studies reveal that in ancient times there was a wide spread system of village schools in Bengal which imparted elementary education of utilitarian character. The system died out due to deliberate policy of neglect pursued by the new ruling classes, the competition from the missionary enterprise, competition from private Indian enterprise to set up new vernacular and English schools and economic impoverishment of the village community (Basik 1965).

The pace of progress of education was very slow in the first half of the nineteenth century. It started picking up after Wood's Dispatch (1854). Studies highlight the problems which came in the way of development of education e.g. Das(1968) reported a high incidence of wastage and stagnation, non-availability of trained teachers and educational backwardness of backward classes.

Lack of finances and non-provision of schools were the main hurdles in the expansion of education. Where the schools were there, cent per cent enrolment was not there. Some children did not join school and some left school after some time. Poor educational values, tradition, caste and occupations were mainly responsible for this (Goel 1968). According to Tiwari (1964) the reasons of low enrolment in Uttar Pradesh were poverty, unsuitability of school hours, long distances, lack of accommodation, indifference of parents, child labour, religious considerations, lack of competent teachers, single-teacher schools, admission through-out the year, lack of effective supervision, lack of separate schools for girls, etc.

There was high incidence of wastage and stagnation (Vakil 1965, Das 1968, Chakravarty 1971, Bhawe 1967). The study of Sharma and Sapra (1969) on Wastage and Stagnation revealed the following facts:

- i) Up to class V, the extent of wastage was 65%
2. Up to class VIII, the extent of wastage was 75%
- iii) Wastage was 50% in class I.
- iv) Incidence of wastage and stagnation was more among girls than that among boys.
- v) Incidence of wastage and stagnation was more in rural areas than that in urban areas.

They also pointed out that illness, mental retardedness, economic backwardness, social maladjustment and problems at home were the main causes of drop-out.

Chandrasekaran (1978) reported poor retention rates of both boys and girls in Bangalore rural district (Karnataka). Kamamma (1969) reported high rates of stagnation in grades I and II in Kerala. Gandhi (1977) reported an increase in the incidence of wastage among girls in Greater Bombay. However, some studies have reported the decline of wastage in education (Muregham Doappa 1972, Sharma 1977).

Studies reveal that the schools were deficient in physical facilities as well as in qualified teachers. Kamamma (1969) pointed out the following deficiencies in the primary schools of Kerala.

1. Majority of the government schools did not have adequate covered area as per Kerala Education Rules.
2. The provision of play-grounds was unsatisfactory.
3. Ancillary services like drinking water, sanitary arrangements, etc. were unsatisfactory.

4. Provision of special teachers was unsatisfactory in almost all the schools.
5. A very small number of teachers had undergone inservice teacher training.

Budhori (1981) in his study on Gharwal Division (U.P.) found that the condition of libraries, hostels, laboratories, playgrounds, reading rooms, etc. was very discouraging. Nagar (1975) complained about the lack of qualified teachers in Manipur and about the inadequate facilities of teacher training.

Various organisations besides government helped in the spread of education. The studies point-out that missionaries played an important role in spreading education in general and of girls and tribals in particular. They also opened teachers training institutes in Assam. (Lakhar 1976), Sharma (1975) highlighted the contribution of organisations like D.A.V., S.D., the Jains, Singh Sabha, Dev Samaj, etc. in the spread of education. Nabar (1964) compliments the co-operation between government officials and individuals in the spread of education in Bombay. Studies indicate that the incentives like mid-day meals, free textbooks, free uniforms and scholarships to girls and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes helped in improving enrolment and retention in schools. Chandrasekran (1978) reports that parents, headmasters and officers felt that the enrolment in schools had improved since the introduction of mid-day meals scheme and about 88% headmasters confirmed that the attendance scholarship scheme for girls had led to the improvement of attendance of girls in schools in Karnataka. Kamalamma (1969) found that the mid-day meals scheme led to the improvement of enrolment in Kerala. Saxena and Mittal (1985) found that Mid-day meals programme had a positive effect on the enrolment in primary schools as well as on the retention of children in schools.

2.5.3 Studies on the Education of Women

In the ancient times girls had equal right to study sacred Vedic Literature (Desai 1976).

The progress of girls education has been slow. Social prejudice, child marriage, tradition and beliefs were responsible for the slow progress Thakkar (1976). According to Vakil (1965), the reasons for slow progress were economic, social and physical. Conservatism and social customs were responsible for slow progress (Desai 1976). The girls education was more backward in rural areas than in urban areas (Vakil 1965).

Dave (1971) gave the following reasons for the backwardness of girls' education (in Gujarat).

- i) The girls were considered as a burden on their parents until they were married.
- ii) In a family, the girls or women had no right to property.
- iii) There was custom of child marriage.
- iv) The family system was parental and the eldest male member was the final authority.
- v) The role of woman was limited and restricted to home life especially looking after children, elders and their husbands.
- vi) The girls looked after their younger brothers and sisters while the parents worked in the fields.

Prasad (1967) gave the following reasons for the slow progress of female education (in Bihar).

- i) Dearth of lady teachers
- ii) Prevalence of child marriage
- iii) Pardah system
- iv) Absence of monetary gains in education of girls.

Basu (1975) gave the following reasons for the slow progress of girls education (in Bihar).

- i) Social customs of child marriage and pardah
- ii) The scarcity of women teachers
- iii) The general unwillingness on the part of parents to spend money on the daughter's education.

According to Tiwari (1964) the following were the main reasons for the slow progress of girls education in U.P.

- i) Social prejudice
- ii) Poverty
- iii) Early marriage
- iv) Lack of separate schools for girls
- v) Shortage of women teachers.

Das (1979) reports that in Assam there was a wide gap between the educational facilities and educational opportunities to men in comparison to women. He further reports that there has been positive changes in the economic, cultural, political, religious spheres of the social life in the state with the spread of women education.

The main hurdle in the development of women education was wastage and stagnation (Vakil 1965, Misra 1961). The retention rates of girls were poorer than boys (Chandrasekaran 1978). According to study of Sharma & Sāpra 1969. The incidence of wastage and stagnation was more among girls than that among boys.

In the expansion of girls education in Assam missionaries played an effective role. They opened teacher training institutes. (Lakhar 1976). Private efforts were responsible for the spread of girls education (Vakil 1965). Social reformers helped in the removal of social prejudice against the education of women (Dave 1971).

Since the beginning of the Twentieth Century, the thirst of the Government had been on multiplying educational facilities and enrolment at the elementary stage. The call made by Gokhale for free and compulsory primary education in early part of this century culminated in the inclusion of free and compulsory education in the Directive Principles of the Constitution in 1950. Since then the government is making efforts towards the achievement of UEE. These efforts have resulted in tremendous expansion both in the educational facilities and enrolment at the elementary stage. During the last five decades or so many experiments like Basic Education, three-day school of Rajaji, one-hour school of Vinobaji, non-formal education, etc., have been made to find an alternative to the traditional model. All the research studies during this period like All-India Educational Surveys were an effort directed towards universal provision of educational facilities. Efforts are also being put in for universal enrolment and universal retention at the elementary stage.

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