

# **EDUCATION COMMISSION**

**ELEVENTH MEETING TO BE HELD AT SRINAGAR  
(May 30—June 13, 1965)**

## **AGENDA PAPERS (PART I)**



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**University Grants Commission Building  
BAHADUR SHAH ZAFAR MARG,  
NEW DELHI  
1965**

ELEVENTH MEETING  
OF  
THE EDUCATION COMMISSION

AGENDA PAPERS  
PART I

EDUCATION COMMISSION  
U.G.C. Building, Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg,  
New Delhi  
1965

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A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Note

- ( 1. This brief paper puts forward the main points which may be considered for inclusion in the report of the Education Commission regarding the creation of a National System of Education in India.
2. Special attention is invited to Annexure I which deals with the problems of providing a value-orientation to our educational system)

Education Commission  
University Grants Commission Building,  
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New Delhi.

A NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

The principal objective of educational reconstruction should be to evolve a national system of education which would be adequate in quantity and quality and which would enable the country to realise its national goals and to meet successfully the challenges facing it from time to time.

The national system of education need not have a uniform pattern in all the States; and in fact, there should be a deliberate attempt to encourage innovation and experimentation. All the same, the system should also have a core of common 'purposes and programmes' which would form the underlying 'unity' in the 'diversity' of forms which it may come to have in the different parts of the country.

Purposes:

- (1) To promote a national consciousness and to assist in the process of national integration;
- (2) To foster democratic values and attitudes (such as dignity of the individual, freedom, self-control, tolerance, mutual goodwill and willingness to understand and, where necessary, to concede to the 'other' points of view) and help build up a democratic way of life;
- (3) To promote science and technology while, at the same time, taking care to harmonize the scientific and humanistic trends in education;
- (4) To relate education to productivity, to assist in securing rapid economic growth and to eliminate the existing polarisation between 'workers' and 'thinkers';
- (5) To provide full scope for the development of the individual while, at the same time, training him for social responsibility and motivating him for social service;
- (6) To promote values and attitudes which accelerate modernisation and the creation of a social order based on justice, equality and love;
- (7) To bring about a cultural renaissance through the creation of a large and competent intelligentsia committed to the development of the country and the service of the masses and consisting of the talented persons from all strata of society;
- (8) To evolve a national language policy and to implement it with speed and efficiency;
- (9) To provide equality of educational opportunity for all;
- (10) To pursue excellence by striving continuously to identify talent and assisting it to realise its potential to the full;

(11) To promote academic freedom and to encourage initiative, creativity and experimentation; and

(12) To be responsive to the contemporary great movements of thought and action in the world.

Programmes:

I. Quantitative: The ultimate ideal of the national system of education should be to bring each child under the influence of the educational system at as early an age as possible and retain him under such influence throughout his life by means of an integrated system of school, university and adult education, whole-time or part-time, formal or informal. From this point of view, the national system of education should provide the following programmes :-

(1) Free and compulsory education for all children in the age-group of 6-14 to be provided by 1981 at the latest and to be extended, as soon as practicable, to 16 years;

(2) Adequate facilities for professional, vocational and technical education at the school stage so as to meet all the requirements of middle-level man-power needed for national reconstruction;

(3) Adequate facilities for higher education and research which would provide all the high level manpower needed for the social, political, cultural and economic reconstruction of the country and which would cover all students who have the competence to profit from it;

(4) A large-scale and intensive programme of adult education built round a core of civic responsibility, vocational efficiency and family planning and intended to liquidate adult illiteracy by 1976 at the latest, supplemented by a system of public library services and programmes for the professional growth and personal enrichment of farmers, industrial workers and other professional persons;

(5) A large programme of scholarships, both at the school and college stages, to ensure that no talented child is deprived of education on account of social or economic considerations;

(6) A fair-sized programme of formal or informal pre-school education; and

(7) Adequate special facilities for the socially and economically handicapped persons and other weaker sections of the community.

II. Qualitative: Education is a double-edged tool and may lead a nation to progress or deterioration, depending partly on its quantum but mainly on its quality. The national system of education should, therefore, strive intensively to maintain

as high standards as possible at all stages of education. In particular, the standards at the university stage should always compare favourably with those in the advanced countries. From this point of view, the system should include the following programmes :-

(1) Providing a value-orientation\* to the educational system as a whole with a view to building up such attitudes in the student body as would accelerate social, cultural and economic transformation, side by side with the cultivation of appropriate skills and imparting of knowledge;

(2) Creating a competent body of teachers at all levels of education so as to plough back a fair proportion of the talented students of each generation into the teaching profession through the provision of reasonable social status, adequate remuneration and old-age benefits, satisfactory and stimulating conditions of work, a high level of general and professional pre-service education, and a large-scale and intensive programme of in-service education and growth;

(3) Providing adequate and essential facilities to students at all stages of education including health services, free (or low cost) supply of high quality textbooks, guidance and counselling services, enrichment or advanced programmes for the gifted students and special assistance to the retarded ones;

(4) Maintaining all educational institutions at essential levels of efficiency so that no institution would make a negative contribution to education while, at the same time, developing a fair proportion of them as 'quality' institutions and creating a small number of pace-setting ones which would serve as 'peaks of excellence'

(5) Organizing the activities of all educational institutions in such a way that the facilities available would be utilized to the best extent possible and a climate of hard-work and proper motivation would be created;

(6) Revising the curricula at all stages in keeping with the purposes of the national system of education and adopting methods of teaching;

(7) Strengthening the teaching of mathematics and the sciences at all stages;

(8) Improving evaluation techniques and reducing stagnation to the minimum;

(9) Prescribing, in consultation with the States and the Universities, national standards of attainment at two levels - at the end of class X in the school stage and at the award of the first degree in higher education - and creating an adequate machinery for defining, revising, evaluating, coordinating and raising these standards from time to time; and

(10) Providing adequate and satisfying opportunities to students at all levels to participate in programmes of national reconstruction.

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\*Please see Annexure I for details.

A national system of education of such extent and excellence will obviously need a large and competent administrative machinery to keep it in trim. In addition, it will need a far larger investment in education than is being made at present. That is even more important, a new strategy will have to be adopted if such a system is to be created at an early date and within the resources that are likely to be available for educational development in future.

J.P. Naik  
Member-Secretary.

Annexure I .

Value Orientation of the Educational System

The existing system of education has hardly any value orientation. Its main objectives are to impart knowledge and to teach a few incidental skills, the problem of building up character or proper attitudes and values being generally ignored. If some students do get the proper value orientation under the present system, it is mostly an incidental affair, the values having been developed under the influence of the home, social events or some good teacher. What is needed is a planned and intensive effort to give a value orientation to the educational system as a whole so that the average student coming out of it would acquire the proper interests, attitudes and values.

2. The first step in the programme is to state these values as comprehensively and clearly as possible. The following may be taken as a basis for consideration:

I. Physical, Intellectual and Aesthetic:

- (1) A proper pride in one's body and significance of health and proper habits;
- (2) Realising the dignity of Manual Labour and preparedness for hard-work;
- (3) Willingness and adaptability to change;
- (4) Respect for knowledge and a desire to pursue it relentlessly in a spirit of enquiry and humility;
- (5) Maintaining a scientific attitude in the pursuit of knowledge;
- (6) Acceptance of the universality of knowledge and in particular, respect for others' contribution to knowledge;
- (7) Lively curiosity and habits of self-study;
- (8) Capacity to think and judge for oneself;
- (9) Appreciation of Art.

II. Socio-Cultural:

- (10) Love of the motherland, a discriminating awareness of its heritage, and faith and confidence in her future.

- (11) Commitment to the goals and programmes of national reconstruction;
- (12) Sense of civic responsibility and citizenship; respect for public property and funds;
- (13) Good manners; consideration for others; tolerance, accommodation (i.e., willingness to understand and, where necessary, to concede to the 'other' point of view), mutual goodwill; conscious effort to eliminate prejudices and stereotypes; secularism;
- (14) Natural and healthy outlook towards the sexes;
- (15) Commitment to the principles of justice, equality and love and a pledge to the creation of a social order based on them; compassion for the weaker sections; social responsibility for individual welfare and the individual's debt to society; spirit of social service;
- (16) Humanism, unity of mankind; the concept of one-world; the significance of peace, co-existence and international cooperation;

### III. Moral and Spiritual:

- (17) Truth;
- (18) Sense of duty;
- (19) Zest for life;
- (20) Brotherhood and equality;
- (21) Service and charity;
- (22) Compassion (Karuna) and Ahimsa (with its significance for world peace);
- (23) Humility;
- (24) Self-restraint; simplicity; austerity;
- (25) The ultimate desire to rise above the physical and into the realm of the cultural and spiritual desire for self-knowledge and the realisation of the transcendental ultimate reality (God)

3. How are these values to be put across? Direct instruction about them can do very little. Most of these would be informally 'caught' rather than formally 'taught' through literature, curricular and co-curricular programmes, the atmosphere of the school community, and the behaviour of teachers. The home and the society also play a very significant role - they can supplement the effort of the school or even undo it.

4. It is possible to put across these values through a programme of teaching denominational religions - in fact that is how these values were generally taught in the past. In a

secular society, it is not possible to teach denominational religion in school, except under very limited circumstances. It is, therefore, proposed that, in the national system of education, value orientation can be given on the following lines:-

(a) It is possible to put across all these values (except the last) on a purely secular and rational basis. This should be done and steps should be taken to train teachers for the purpose. The teachers of the last value may be left to the home.

(b) The principal method of teaching these values would be the indirect method. That is to say, they should be taught through the curricular and extra-curricular programmes of the school and the social atmosphere of the school community. There is, however, no objection to the use of a carefully prepared textbook on moral instruction.

(c) Since all these values can also be supported from the scriptures of all religions, it may be desirable to use a specially prepared book in which quotations are given from the scriptures of all religions in support of these values. This book should be used by children of all religions, especially as it will give them an awareness of the basic tenets of the other religions and bring into prominence the similarities, rather than differences, of the various religions. The preparation of these books is extremely important and will have to be done by the experts from different religions at the national level in the first instance. They should then be translated into the different languages of the country.

(d) It is possible that some persons may not quite agree to the proposal enunciated above in (c). In such cases, this instruction may be provided in schools subject to the conscience clause laid down in Article 28(2) of the Constitution under which any parent who objects to such instruction has a right to withdraw his child from it.

(e) Some persons may object to the above proposals on the ground that they are no substitute for instruction through denominational religion. Such persons have a right under the Constitution to establish private educational institutions in which such instruction can be provided subject to the conscience clause.

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING AT THE SCHOOL STAGE

by

Shri A.R. Dawood

Member

Education Commission

E D U C A T I O N   C O M M I S S I O N  
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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING AT THE SCHOOL STAGE

I. Aims and Functions

1. One of important programmes for effecting qualitative improvement in education is that of guidance and counselling services in our schools. The function of guidance services is to help the pupils to do the following

- (a) to identify and develop their abilities and interests;
- (b) to understand and accept themselves - their strengths and limitations, their motivations, attitudes and emotions;
- (c) to do school work at the level of their own ability;
- (d) to gain information about educational and vocational opportunities and requirements;
- (e) to make realistic educational and vocational choices and plans; and
- (f) to find solutions to their problems of personal and social adjustment.

Guidance services also enable headmasters and teachers to understand their pupils better and to create and develop situations in which the pupils can learn more effectively.

2. Guidance has thus a wider scope and function than that of merely assisting pupils in making educational and vocational choices. Its aims are both adjustive and developmental, and it should be regarded as an integral part of education. Guidance is meant for all pupils and not merely for those who deviate from the norm.

3. In so far as it can help, identify and develop human potential to the maximum, guidance may be regarded as an instrument of national development. It can help to reduce the wastage of educational facilities and pupils' abilities, to correct the existing imbalances in the employment situation by channelling young people into proper occupations, and to establish a close link between education and the manpower needs of the country.

4. In order to be fully effective guidance must be a longitudinal process, continuing over a period of time. However, there are critical points in the pupil's life (as in every individual's life) at which he requires more assistance than at other times.

## II. Guidance at the Elementary Stage

1. A complex and Formidable Problem: Guidance received official recognition from the Government of India with the publication of the Report of the Secondary Education Commission in 1953, which stressed the need for guidance at all levels of education, but particularly in secondary schools. While some steps have been taken for providing guidance and counselling services at the secondary stage, hardly any attention has been paid to the necessity of such a programme at the elementary level. Yet the need for educational guidance at this stage is becoming increasingly greater every day, as with the tremendous expansion of compulsory primary education, more and more children who are first generation learners and therefore require extra help to make satisfactory progress are pouring into the elementary schools.

2. There is no doubt that the problem of guidance at the elementary level is of great magnitude and complexity because of the very large number of schools to be covered, the low qualifications of the teaching staff in the schools and low priority given to qualitative programmes at this stage. When we have not been able to provide even enough trained teachers for the elementary schools, it is unrealistic to think in terms of the appointment of trained guidance personnel.

3. The existence of single teacher schools in several areas presents another formidable difficulty

in the way of an effective guidance programme at this level.

4. Proposals for a Modest Programme: In view of the above difficulties and limitations a very modest programme of guidance services can be recommended for the elementary stage. The following suggestions may be considered:

(a) For guidance services in the elementary school one has to depend on the elementary school teacher who will have to add educational guidance to his many duties and responsibilities. The teacher will be able to perform this task if he has had simple training in guidance during his two-year course in the primary training institution. This training should consist of some knowledge about the general principles of educational guidance, the use of simple tests for locating pupils' weaknesses and remedial teaching. The paper in educational psychology in the training course should have relevance to the school situation at the elementary stage and include not merely information on individual differences but the implications of these differences for classroom practices. The syllabus should include more practical work such as observation of children and discussion of cases.

(b) In the teacher training schools at least one lecturer should be able to deal with the subject of principles of guidance and mental hygiene, simple tests for finding out pupils' weaknesses in basic skills and remedial teaching, so that the trainees may receive some training in educational guidance.

(c) Guidance services should be introduced in teacher training institutions and in schools attached to the institutions so that the trainees may be able to see the services in operation. This would be a good way of convincing them of their value and preparing them to

use guidance when they take up teaching work. The introduction of a guidance programme in the demonstration schools would not only enable the trainees to see guidance in action but also give them practice in meaningful participation in the programme. They can obtain first-hand knowledge of the problems involved in its organisation and discuss these in class.

(d) Remedial teaching is a very important guidance activity which should be taken up by teachers of the elementary school according to the needs of individual children and the resources available.

(e) Wherever possible short in-service courses in educational guidance should be provided for elementary school teachers.

(f) Simple literature for children on occupational orientation may be prepared so as to give the pupils insight into the world of work and the preparation required for different kinds of jobs. The literature may be available as supplementary readers in the regional languages, particularly in the middle school classes (Classes V-VIII).

(g) The external examination at the end of the elementary stage (Class VII or VIII) will have a large say in the matter of <sup>the</sup> selection of pupils for further education (general or vocational). But the selection should not be determined by the examination results alone. It should be helped by some kind of guidance and counselling service in the last class. If trained graduate teachers are in charge of the upper elementary classes (and the proposal is that at least the headmaster of the middle school should be a trained graduate), they should be able to guide the pupils of Class VII or VIII regarding further education, particularly if they themselves have received orientation in guidance.

(h) Since the kind of guidance mentioned above will not be available to the vast majority of children in the elementary schools, the parents of these children have to be oriented to the problem of subject choices at the secondary stage and the relationship of such choices to educational and vocational plans. This may be done through the media of newspapers, radio, film and social education programmes and also through the organisation of parent-teacher associations. With the help of these associations, the teachers can make the parents become active partners in the task of keeping children from dropping out of school at an early stage of the elementary course.

### III. GUIDANCE AT THE SECONDARY STAGE

1. Present Position: As a result of the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission, the Government of India established the Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance and encouraged the States by means of financial assistance to establish their own State bureaus and to provide guidance services in their secondary schools. But the programme has developed at a very slow pace, partly on account of the meagre financial allocation, and partly because of lack of proper appreciation on the part of State Governments of the need for guidance and the nature of the guidance services. It is reported that, out of the 23,000 secondary schools in the country, about 3,000 have some kind of guidance workers on their staff, the vast majority of whom are only career masters who offer occupational information to the pupils. Very few of these schools have full-time counsellors.

2. In a long-range programme, guidance and counselling would receive a high priority in educational policies and provision would be made for the introduction of guidance

services in all secondary schools, with a trained counsellor in charge of the services. A really comprehensive proposal would require the appointment of one counsellor for not more than 300 students. But as neither financial resources nor training facilities would be available for such an ambitious scheme, however valuable it might be, for a long time to come, we have to be satisfied with a short-term programme, the details of which are given below.

3. Future Programme (a) During the next fifteen years a limited guidance service should be provided to as many schools as possible, with one counsellor serving two schools (three days in each school) and concentrating his work mainly in Class VII or VIII (wherever this class is attached to the secondary school), Class X and Class XII (wherever this forms part of a higher secondary school). During the Fourth Plan, at least a thousand counsellors should be trained and provided to 2000 schools, and the trained personnel should rapidly increase in number in successive Plan periods, till the majority of schools are covered by the limited guidance programme as outlined above by the end of 1981.

(b) At the same time, even during this short-term period, a comprehensive guidance programme may be introduced in a few selected schools in each State (including the 'model' or 'quality' schools proposed to be established at every stage), in order to demonstrate what comprehensive guidance and counselling services stand for and what they can achieve. Such a programme would include a pupil information service, an educational and occupational service, a testing service and a counselling service. In the selected schools

where all these four services would operate one counsellor would be provided for every 300 pupils.

(c) In the remaining secondary schools, which will not have even the limited guidance service described in (a) above, provision should be made at least for an educational and occupational information service. The function of this service is to collect and disseminate information about educational courses, training facilities, scholarships and other forms of student aid and also about occupational opportunities in the community. It also aims at developing in the pupils desirable attitudes towards studies and work. An information corner should be maintained in the school and group programmes organised. The time-table should be scheduled in such a way that one period a week for the top classes of the elementary school (Standard VII or VIII), the high school (Standard X) and the higher secondary school (Standard XII) is set aside for the programmes referred to above. The information service can be run by careers masters trained in an extensive, three weeks course in the principles of guidance and the use of occupational information.

(d) Supervisory staff for offering advice and assistance to school guidance workers should be provided by the State Bureaus of Guidance.

(e) The Bureau of Guidance, both at the Centre and in the States, should give high priority to programmes such as seminars, publications and other extension activities for promoting the understanding of the nature and importance of guidance services among guidance workers, teachers, headmasters and educational administrators.

(f) Schools should be assisted in organising such hobbies, recreational activities and also part-time employment opportunities as would provide meaningful experiences for the pupils.

(g) There should be co-ordination between the guidance services in the schools and those in the colleges, universities and employment exchanges.

(h) In the proposed reorganisational set-up of educational administration in the States, the State Department of Education is expected to have, in addition to an administrative wing, an academic wing consisting of a number of departments, each devoted to a major aspect of education (such as curriculum, teacher-education, evaluation and guidance and counselling), and each being staffed by its own cadre of specialists. If such a reorganisation takes place, there will be a Department of Guidance and Counselling in the academic wing, with an officer of the status of Joint Director or Deputy Director at its head and with its own cadre of specialists working under him. The services of these specialists will be placed at the disposal of any government department, institution or organisation that needs expert advice on guidance and counselling services. The supervisory staff mentioned under (d) above will be drawn from this cadre of specialists. The existing State Bureaus of Guidance will merge with proposed Departments of Evaluation.

CURRICULUM FOR THE SCHOOL STAGE

By

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CURRICULUM FOR THE SCHOOL STAGE

The Commission had constituted a Working Group on Curriculum to prepare a draft outline of the revised curricula for classes I-XII. The Group has begun its work and taken up the problem of preparing a curriculum for the first ten years. After this phase of its task is completed, the curriculum for classes XI and XII would be attempted, if time permits.

2. I enclose herewith the following two documents:-

Annexure I: A draft outline of the report of the Curriculum Group.

Annexure II: A draft outline of the Curriculum for the first ten years in School.

3. I request the Commission to discuss the issues raised in both these annexures in detail. In particular, its directives on the fundamental issues raised in Annexure II would be of great use to the Working Group.

S. Panandikar  
Member,  
Education Commission.

ANNEXURE I

DRAFT OUTLINE  
OF THE  
REPORT OF THE CURRICULUM GROUP

- I. A Statement of National Goals.
  - II. A Statement of Attainable Goals of General Education in School.
  - III. A general chapter on the Organization of the School, dealing with
    1. General Hints on Methods to be followed in attaining the goals of general education
    2. Co-curricular Activities: games, sports, student-government, military training clubs, hobbies, etc.
    3. Ancillary Services: health services, guidance services, community services, etc.
    4. Provision for differences in ability and the maintenance of standards
    5. Teacher-pupil relations
    6. Teacher - administrator relations.
  - IV. A Statement on the Components of the Curriculum.
  - V. Suggested Time Allotment.
  - VI. Detailed Subject Syllabuses.
    1. Identification of subject objectives with the attainable goals of general education. (This step must be gone through by every subject group, though a statement on this may not actually be prepared).
    2. Statement of Subject Objectives(stage-wise or class-wise) in terms of Understandings, Attitudes and Skills.
    3. Course Content.
    4. Hints on Methodology, Instructional Materials and Evaluation.
- NOTE. Wherever possible, the Course Content will be spelt out in detail.

ANNEXURE II

CURRICULUM FOR THE FIRST TEN YEARS IN SCHOOLS

I. SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES:

The curriculum detailed below is meant for the first ten years of schooling, divided into three sub-stages of 4 3 3 years. It reflects the needs of a good general education, technical or vocational education being left out of consideration at the present moment, to be fully dealt with elsewhere in the Report.

Thus, the needs of a general education being the paramount consideration, no diversification of courses is envisaged during the first ten years in school. There is, therefore, no provision for option except in the choice of a Craft or of the second and the third language, but even there, the facilities offered by the school and the Language policy of the States are likely to be deciding factors. The enrichment programme and additional courses in some subjects suggested in the curriculum for the gifted pupils (which has been explained in some detail on page 5 below) does not in fact provide either for option or for diversification. Its sole purpose is to give proper exercise to the superior talents of a few through an additional programme aimed at drawing the best out of them.

Little explanation is needed here for the inclusion of the specified subjects in the Curriculum. Their need is determined by the objectives of the country's educational development and will receive adequate attention in the pages that follow. Only the components of the Curriculum and some basic principles followed in determining its organization are mentioned here.

### The First Four Classes

These classes comprise what is usually known as the primary classes. Of these, the first two classes constitute one unit. Why that has been done is set forth in the following paragraphs.

Both research and experience have gone to show that wastage and stagnation, the rate of which is appalling in our system of primary education, is at its highest in class I. This is due, it is said, to the child's inability to adjust himself to the new atmosphere of the school, a heavy curriculum, insistence on formal methods of teaching from the very beginning, absence of a proper impetus for education among the first-generation school pupils and several other factors, some of them economic in nature.

The curriculum as proposed here recognizes the psychological difficulties of the child in the midst of new surroundings and suggests, therefore, that the first two years at school be regarded as one unit. This will give the child greater time to adjust himself and enable him in the initial months to proceed at his own pace without the compulsion of a formal examination rigidly setting the standard of competence to be attained at the end of the first year. Though such a curriculum as this cannot except in broad outline explain the methods of teaching to be followed, it recommends less formal and better methods that would not scare the child away from school. The proposed curriculum is also simple, for it reduces the load of formal subjects. Only language and elementary Mathematics are emphasized with a view to developing the basic skills necessary in reading, writing and mathematics; the Study of the Environment is chiefly informal, aimed at making the child just aware of his immediate social and physical environment and also

at encouraging him to talk in class so as to improve his verbal expression. While activities would permeate the teaching methods everywhere, special activities in the form of art work, dramatics and crafts are provided. Health Education principally stresses the formation of good health habits.

Mention may here be made of the practice in some States of running double shifts for the first two classes and of prescribing a simplified curriculum for them. It should be made clear that the curriculum suggested below is the minimum that should be taught in every school and that there is no place in the proposed scheme of things for a simplified or a diluted curriculum. Where double shifts mean a lesser number of instructional hours in a day, it is presumed that the full curriculum suggested here will be gone through by correspondingly increasing the number of instructional days in the year.

In class III, Social Studies and Science are introduced as regular studies, but emphasis on Language, Mathematics and Crafts continues. In class IV the same pattern is followed, with the slight change that Science receives relatively greater attention in this class than in class III and there is a little less emphasis on language Skills.

#### Classes V, VI and VII.

So long the stress was on the acquisition of language and number skills, creative work, adjustment to the surroundings. The methods of teaching were chiefly informal and activity-based. The curriculum was not heavy.

Much of this has to change when the pupil reaches class V. Learning has now to be more systematic and greater emphasis laid on subject disciplines. The

curriculum needs to be widened in respect of subject-coverage and deepened in respect of the content in each subject. Teaching methods are to be systematic; standards of attainment more specific and definite than before.

The second and the third languages have now to be introduced if by the end of the tenth year a reasonable proficiency in them is to be attained. Which language is to be designated as the second and which the third should of course be left to the States themselves. Mathematics and Science have to receive their due share. Social Studies would now take up the study, separately, of History, Geography and Civics. Arts and Crafts would figure more prominently. Neither are Health Education and Games to be ignored. In short, class V marks the beginning of formal and serious general education.

#### Classes VIII, IX and X.

When a pupil joins class VIII of an academic school, he more or less announces his decision that, competence permitting, he aims at further education, academic or vocational. Class X will therefore mark the end of the period of general education. Consequently, though the same subjects as were studied in the three earlier years are continued, their study has to gain considerably in rigour and in depth. Subject competences being important in these classes, a good grounding in every subject has to be provided, keeping in view the phenomenal advances made in recent years in every field of knowledge. The emphasis on Arts and Crafts is now reduced and only about six per cent of the time is set apart for the pursuit of some creative arts or crafts or Housecraft; and the same amount of time to Physical Education. The rest of the time is to be devoted to the

academic subject disciplines in the curriculum.

II. COMPONENTS OF THE CURRICULUM

The subjects to be studied in different school classes are now given:

Classes I & II

1. Language
2. Mathematics
3. The Study of the Environment
4. Arts and Crafts
5. Health Education and Games.

Classes III & IV.

1. Language
2. Mathematics
3. Social Studies
4. Science
5. Arts and Crafts
6. Health Education and Games.

Classes V, VI & VII

1. Languages - First, Second and Third.
2. Mathematics
3. Social Studies - History, Geography and Civics.
4. Science - Physics Chemistry and Biology.
5. Crafts/House Craft
6. Arts
7. Physical Education.

Classes VIII, IX & X.

1. Languages - First, Second and Third.
2. Mathematics
3. Social Studies - History, Geography, Civics and Present-day Problems.
4. Sciences - Physics, Chemistry and Biology.
5. Physical Education.
6. Arts/Crafts/House Craft.

### III. ENRICHMENT PROGRAMME AND ADVANCED COURSES.

As has been said earlier, the curriculum provides also for the gifted pupil. This has been done through enrichment programmes in classes III to VIII and advanced courses in the next higher classes.

It may be explained why this provision was thought necessary. Talent has to be discovered and fostered in the school from the very start. Also, talent can develop only when it is challenged by tasks out of the ordinary.

It is well known that since the general curriculum in school is meant for the average pupil, the gifted pupil has perforce to slacken his pace of learning or to mark time by the end of the year, for he can complete the usual course in a shorter period of time than what will be needed by the average pupil. He thus needs something more to keep him busy and this is where the Enrichment programme and the additional courses come in.

The Enrichment programme may start as early as in class III. The principal idea here is not breadth in the curriculum so much as depth. In other words, the gifted pupil does not study more topics or learn more concepts than the others. He goes deeper into what is studied in class. He applies his perserverance, intelligence and superior talent to more extensive reading on the curricular content, to a keener appreciation of abstract ideas and concepts, to a more fruitful application of acquired knowledge. He proceeds at his own pace in class and devotes the time he gains by finishing his tasks earlier to more rewarding work which challenges his talent and keeps it keen, and also satisfies his inherent desire and capacity to absorb more knowledge.

It should however be pointed out that the execution of a satisfactory enrichment programme lies entirely with the classroom teacher and its success almost wholly depends upon him. He needs, of course, to be a creative and dedicated teacher, mindful of the welfare and needs of the gifted pupils placed in his charge, but he will also need guidance and assistance. This should come to him in the shape of carefully graded textbooks and assignments, special types of workbooks for pupils and such other materials which will make this difficult task easier.

The programme for the gifted may, however, take a different form after class VII. Here it should gain in breadth or in depth or in both and would be in the shape of additional credits gained through additional or advanced courses in some subjects over and above the general courses the gifted pupil is already studying in class along with his fellow pupils.

Additional courses are being provided in the curriculum in Languages, particularly the First Language, Mathematics, Sciences and Social Studies. As it is a new programme for both the teachers and the taught, the following restrictions may be applied in the initial years:

1. No student will be allowed to offer additional courses in more than two subjects in the curriculum.
2. The teaching of these courses may not start earlier than in the ninth year at school.

It is not expected that the number of pupils offering these courses would at first be very large. It is to be remembered that the courses are meant only for the talented few and the percentage of such pupils is usually put at 15. Not all pupils who desire to offer them may be equipped well enough to pursue them. The schools must, therefore, devise as best as they

can methods to select such pupils as are expected to profit from these courses from those who would only court failure by offering them.

Instituting these courses in school will initially give rise to administrative complications, for it is obvious that these additional courses will mean special classes. The school schedule is already too crowded to allow additional time for the purpose.

That school, however, which is convinced of the need for such a programme and its advantages will find way or the other out of the obvious difficulty. Clearly, these courses need additional time out of the regular school hours, which are just sufficient for the general courses. If such a school is small, it would not expect a very large proportion of the gifted on its rolls. It may be possible to arrange for the special coaching of such pupils out of school hours by suitably recompensating the teachers who would be assigned this important work. A large school with a proportionately larger number of teachers and gifted pupils will arrange for regular classes out of school hours or on holidays and the same arrangement for recompensating the teachers will have to be followed.

#### IV. ALLOCATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME IN SCHOOL

The allocation of time detailed below refers only to instructional days, which do not take into account such working days as have to be spent by the school on admissions, examinations and other work of a routine nature. A distinction has thus been made here between 'instructional' and 'working' days, which is important in the present context.

While schools should be left free to adjust their schedule of work to their peculiar conditions and circumstances, it has been thought necessary to suggest the following broad pattern to which they may generally

conform and which they may make use of as a guide for fixing the time of actual instruction in school.

<u>Classes</u>	<u>Total No. of instructional days in a year</u>	<u>No. of instructional hours in a week.</u>	<u>Total No. of instructional hours in a year.</u>
I & II	208 (34 weeks)	24	816
III & IV	204 (34 weeks)	28	952
V, VI & VII	228 (38 weeks)	32	1206
VIII, IX & X	228 (38 weeks)	32	1206

In addition to the instructional hours suggested above, each school day is expected to have 1 to 1½ hours more, depending upon the class, which should be utilized for the daily assembly, one or two recesses as the case may be, co-curricular activities, library work, etc.

The duration of the school day will thus work, roughly, to the following schedule:

<u>Classes</u>	<u>Instructional Time</u>	<u>Daily Assembly</u>	<u>Recess</u>	<u>Other Activities</u>	<u>Total</u>
I & II	4 hrs.	10 min.	40 min.	- -	4hrs.50 min.
III & IV	4hrs.40 min.	10 min.	40 min.	30 min.	6 hrs.
V, VI & VII	5hrs.20 min.	10 min.	40 min.	40 min.	6 hrs.50min.
VIII, IX & X	5hrs.20 min.	10 min.	40 min.	40 min.	6 hrs.50min.

#### V. SUBJECT-WISE ALLOCATION OF TIME

##### A. CLASSES I TO IV.

The subject-wise allocation of instructional time has been left flexible and only the total number of instructional hours proposed for each component of the curriculum in a year has been indicated. This would allow the teacher (who has to reach in the primary school all the subjects in the curriculum to at least one class) the necessary freedom to adjust his daily schedule to the needs of his class. At the same time, a broad indication of the

time allotment would keep him conscious of the many demands on the instructional time of his class.

<u>Classes I &amp; II.</u>	<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Percentage of the total time to be allocated</u>	<u>No. of instructional hours available in a year.</u>
	Language	40%	About 325
	Mathematics	20%	About 162
	The Study of the Environment	11%	About 90
	Arts & Crafts	16%	About 134
	Health Education and Games	13%	About 105
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<u>Class III.</u>	Language	30%	About 286
	Mathematics	20%	About 190
	Social Studies	15%	About 143
	Science	10%	About 95
	Arts & Crafts	15%	About 143
	Health Education & Games	10%	About 95
<hr/>			
<u>Class IV.</u>	Language	25%	About 238
	Mathematics	20%	About 190
	Social Studies	15%	About 143
	Science	15%	About 143
	Arts & Crafts	15%	About 143
	Health Education & Games	10%	About 95

B. CLASSES V TO X.

Since subjects gain in importance now, it will be useful to allocate the total instructional time in a week to the teaching of specific subjects in terms of 40-minute periods. This will help in the preparation of the time schedule for a class and also in the systematic

organization of work in the subjects.

<u>Classes V,VI &amp; VII</u>	<u>SUBJECTS</u>	<u>No.of periods in a week</u>	<u>Total No. of instructional periods in a year</u>	<u>Percentage of the total time allocated</u>
	Languages	16	608	33.3%
	First	6 )	228 )	
	Second	6 )	228 )	
	Third	4 )	152 )	
	Mathematics	7	266	14.6%
	Social Studies	6	228	12.5%
	Science	6	228	12.5%
	Crafts	6	228	12.5%
	Arts	3	114	6.3%
	Physical Education	4	152	8.3%

Classes VIII, IX & X.

Languages	16	608	33.3%
First	6 )	228 )	
Second	6 )	228 )	
Third	4 )	152 )	
Mathematics )	18	684	37.5%
Science )			
Social Studies	8	304	16.6%
Physical Education	3	114	6.3%
Arts/Crafts/ Housecraft	3	114	6.3%

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

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PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

The Report of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Post-War Educational Development in India of 1944, popularly known as the Sargent Report, contains a chapter on Pre-Primary Education which begins with the following most significant remarks:

"It is one of the many consequences of the general lack of educational planning in India that a very impressionable, plastic and educationally potent period of child's life has received so little attention. Outside India the nursery school has come into its own and has taken a well-defined place in the fabric of public instruction, but the importance of looking after the physical and mental welfare of future citizens from their earliest years has still to be brought home to the responsible authorities in this country."

2. For the first time Pre-Primary Education of children of 3-6 was recommended as a State responsibility. Until then it used to be considered - and the trend has still continued - that because the objectives of Pre-Primary Education were such as could be realised in the home and because the number of children involved was stupendous, it need not be the responsibility of the State to provide pre-school education.

The main objective of Primary Education is to promote physical growth and foster all-sided mental development of children of 3-6 by providing suitable environment. Traditionally, children in India, particularly in the rural areas, have been looked after by the family. But with the breaking up of the joint family system and due to increasing poverty and ignorance, the homes do not offer an atmosphere that is congenial for development. Hence the Sargent Report has stated that where the home cannot provide a good environment such as is necessary for the development of the child, it is the business of the State to intervene.

3. The analysis of several longitudinal studies of the development of children made by Dr. B.S. Bloom in his book "Stability and Change in Human Characteristics" also points in the same direction. The studies used for analysis reveal three important factors about human development, that (a) the most rapid period of change and development is in the early years of life, (b) the environment influences such development significantly and (c) variations in the environment have greatest quantitative effect on characteristics during the period of rapid development. It is clearly indicated there that the entire educational development of the child may be retarded if the early childhood environment is impoverished and inadequate. At this stage the young child needs experience more than education and pre-school education aims at providing such with a view to forming good habits and fostering general development of the body as well as the mind.

The Sargent Report made the following recommendations with regard to Pre-Primary Education:

- (a) An adequate provision of pre-primary instruction in the form of Nursery Schools or classes is an essential adjunct to any national system of education. The provision in this respect at present is negligible.
- (b) In urban areas, where sufficient children are available within a reasonable radius, separate Nursery schools or departments may be provided: elsewhere Nursery classes should be attached to Junior Basic(Primary) Schools.
- (c) Nursery Schools and classes should invariably be staffed with women teachers who have received special training for this work.
- (d) Pre-Primary education should in all cases be free. While it may not be feasible to make attendance compulsory, no effort should be spared to persuade parents to send their children to school voluntarily, particularly in areas where housing conditions are unsatisfactory and/or mothers are accustomed to go out to work.

- (e) The main object of education at this stage is to give young children social experience rather than formal instruction.

It was suggested that provision should be made for 1 child in 21, or roughly 5% of the children of the age-group of 3-6 to receive pre-primary education. This figure was one-third of the percentage of enrolment in Nursery schools in England in 1940. The Sargent Report proposed to provide places for 10,00,000 children in pre-school institutions. At the rate of Rs. 31.84 as the annual cost per child, basing it on the teacher-pupil ratio 1:30 and on Rs. 42.5 per month as the average salary of the teacher, the total estimated net cost of Pre-Primary Education was expected to come to Rs. 3,18,40,000.

Since 1944, Pre-Primary Education has developed rapidly in the urban areas. The Member-Secretary in the Section on Pre-Primary Education in the 'Reorganisation of Education' has indicated the present position as follows:

"Pre Primary education has been developing slowly and steadily since independence. The number of pre-primary schools recognised by the Department has increased from 303 in 1950-51 and is expected to rise to 3500 in 1965-66; the total enrolment in pre-primary classes has increased from 28,309 in 1950-51 to 1,78,642 in 1960-61 and is estimated to rise to 3,00,000 in 1965-66; the total number of teachers in pre-primary schools has increased from 866 (696 women) in 1950-51 to 4,006 (3,599 women) in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to 6500 (5800 women) in 1965-66; and the total expenditure has increased from 14.3 million (Rs. 46.4 per pupil) in 1950-51 to Rs. 58.7 million (Rs. 48.5 per pupil) in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to Rs. 150 million (Rs. 50 per pupil) in 1965-66. Besides, the Central Social Welfare Board and the Community Development Administration have been running about 20,000

teachers, mostly women. In addition there are a large number of pre-primary schools, especially in urban areas which do not seek recognition. The number of such institutions has been estimated at about 12,000 with an enrolment of about 6,00,000. It may, therefore, be said that the country will have, in 1965-66, about 35,500 pre-primary schools and similar institutions with a total enrolment of about 1.5 million or 3.6 per cent of the corresponding age-group (3-6)."

At present there are pre-primary schools of the following different types so far as financial assistance from Government is concerned.

- (1) Pre-primary schools, chiefly in urban areas, where high fees are charged and no grant-in-aid is received.
- (2) Pre-Primary schools in urban and semi-urban areas where low fees are charged and where grants, generally up to 25% of the admissible expenditure, are received.
- (3) Unrecognised pre-primary schools in urban areas, usually charging high fees and receiving no financial assistance from Government.
- (4) Pre-Primary Schools run by Industrial Managements for the children of the workers, as required under the Company Act.
- (5) Balwadis run by Community Development and Social Welfare Boards.
- (6) Classes attached to primary schools in rural areas.

In many of these pre-primary schools the teachers have not been trained in methods of pre-school education. In 1961-62 it was seen that only 56.6% of the pre-primary teachers were trained.

If pre-primary education is accepted as a State responsibility, the role of the State in pre-primary education has to be conceived clearly and plans for the development of pre-primary education made accordingly.

The first problem is: Should the Government assume direct responsibility for pre-primary education? It is obvious that such responsibility cannot be accepted on a large scale and the role of the Government will be mainly one of assisting private organisations and local bodies. But the recommendation made by the Committee on Pre-Primary Education in Mysore State (1961) is worth consideration. It recommended that while the establishment of pre-primary schools by local bodies and other private agencies should be the general pattern of expansion in this grade of education, the Government should also establish schools on its own (i) to serve areas which are specially backward economically and educationally and (ii) to function as demonstration centres in the rural areas."

Besides this direct responsibility, the State must assist in the development of Pre-Primary Education. In this connection its first responsibility would be by way of giving grants-in-aid to pre-primary schools which charge low fees or no fees at all. These grants will vary from 40 per cent to 100 per cent assistance.

Secondly, the State will have to play an important role in the preparation of teachers by laying standards for the training of pre-primary teachers, by suggesting courses of studies and conducting examinations and by giving liberal grants to pre-primary training institutions. The State will also have to provide leadership in the matter of preparing children's literature and guides for the teachers and in producing the equipment that is necessary for pre-primary schools and training institutions. In rural areas attempts will have to be made to make people realise the value of pre-primary education.

When there is a demand for pre-primary schools or classes from the people, land and buildings should be expected to be donated by the local community. The Government or the local body should provide grant-in-aid or bear full expenditure for the salary of teachers and mid-day meals.

Government can help the development and expansion of Pre-Primary education by providing Model Child Development Centres at the rate of one per district. Each such Centre should have a pre-primary school, a training school for pre-primary teachers, a children's park, a children's museum, a children's library and a health clinic. It will thus be a complex of a nursery school, a training institution as well as a centre for health and recreation programme. It should become a centre for providing the children in the area with a rich environment for the development of their sensitivities, health, hygiene and character. The recurring expenditure for one centre would be Rs. 40,000 on the salaries of the staff, 2,500 on equipment, 2,500 for contingencies. The total being Rs. 45,000 per centre per year. The non-recurring expenditure per centre should be Rs. 25,000 if some labour or a part of building costs can be given by the community for the purpose.

About 15% of the children of the age-group 3-6 can be expected to be in one or other of the different types of pre-school institutions by 1980-81. The total expenditure on Pre-Primary Education will be as follows:-

- Capital
  - To be met by the community for pre-primary school.
  - Rs. 8 million, non-recurring cost for 320 Model Child Development Centres.
- Recurring
  - Rs. 560 million for 8 million children, on the basis of Rs. 70/- per child, the higher cost being due to employment of trained teachers, with higher scales of salaries.
  - Rs. 40 million for teacher training, pilot projects, model schools research and publication, supervision etc.
  - Rs. 15 million for 320 Model Child Development Centres.

Total Recurring = Rs. 615 million

Total non-recurring- Rs. 8 million

Of the recurring expenditure, the cost to the State will be:

- (1) Rs. 40 million - For State responsibilities as indicated above
  - (2) Rs. 260 million - For grant-in-aid for an enrolment of 5 million (the balance of 3 million being in unaided schools)
  - (3) Rs. 15 million - For 320 Model Child Development Centres
- Rs. 315 million

There are several other problems that need consideration with regard to pre-primary education. Pre-primary education on a larger scale than that of 15 per cent of the age-group appears to be necessary. It is obvious that it cannot be provided on a large scale through the types of institutions mentioned above, on account of limitations of financial resources and difficulties in getting trained teachers to go out into the rural areas. It is, therefore, for consideration whether some system of providing pre-primary education in a more economical manner can be devised. Such systems are in operation in the State of Madras being sponsored by Government and in the State of Gujarat through two centres under private managements. In the Madras scheme the need for imparting pre-primary training to children in the formation of correct habits of mind and body has been recognised by Government and a detailed scheme for the care of pre-school children between the ages 3-6 has been prepared. This scheme is introduced as a pilot scheme in Chingleput District at Kanchipuram in a Pilot Project Block. For this purpose 43 village women were selected as Balsevikas by the Panchayat Union Women Welfare Committee assisted by the District Women's Welfare Officer, and the Commissioner for running the Pre-school centres. They were trained for a

period of three months by the Mukhyasevika specially trained for this purpose. They have been put in charge of pre-school centres where they are expected to attend to the personal hygiene of children individually and to conduct the programme of play, story telling, dramatisation and in-door and out-door games according to the programme arranged for the centre. They are also to help in the admission of school age children to elementary schools. They are paid a remuneration of Rs. 20/- p.m. One of the members of the Working Group on Pre-Primary Education who visited these centres has reported that the amount of work turned out by these Balsevikas for such a small remuneration is indeed amazing. They have to go to the homes, collect the children, prepare the mid-day meals for them and run a full Balwadi programme. Although they have received only a short training of three months and had only sub-standard general education, it was seen that they were able to provide the kind of environment and guidance that is necessary for the development of children. If this cheaper method of pre-primary education is considered to have some value then it will be possible to extend pre-primary education to a larger percentage of children than 15% in the rural areas and it is in the rural areas that the need for such a pre-primary education is most urgent.

A Conference recently held in Gujarat on pre-primary education suggested that local bodies i.e. Municipalities and Panchayats should take up the programme of pre-school education and that whenever panchayats were unable to afford the establishment and maintenance of Balwadis they should definitely maintain clubs or play grounds. These should be run under proper supervision.

Local women trained for the purpose would require in addition to an orientation course of six months constant refresher courses to bring their knowledge of handling children up to the mark.

Another problem is regarding co-ordination of the work of different agencies working in the field of pre-school education. At present several different organisations are dealing with pre-primary education. The agencies which sponsor pre-primary education or gives grants for the purpose are (1) The Central Social Welfare Board, (2) The Social Welfare Department, (3) Education Department, (4) Block Community office and (5) Gram Panchayat or Municipality. There is thus an urgent need for coordination among these different agencies in order that duplication of effort may be avoided and that pre-primary education may be provided on a rational and even basis. There appears to be a need for a central agency which would channelise funds received from the various sponsoring authorities. It may even be desirable if the funds for pre-primary education from all these agencies were pooled together as suggested at the Conference on Pre-Primary Education held in Poona recently and the disbursement of grant-in-aid made on an equitable basis. One suggestion has been that the State should bear the expenditure on the salaries of teachers and the rest of the expenditure on non-teacher items should be met by these different agencies which sponsor pre-primary education. Some co-ordination is necessary also in the matter of the programme of activities and the preparation of teachers.

A very urgent problem in the field of pre-primary education is the existence of large number of unrecognised pre-primary schools, especially in the bigger urban areas. Some of them by using English as the medium of instruction,

others by preparing the children for the primary schools, so that they can be admitted to II or III class at a very early stage prove attractive to the parents. Many of these unrecognised pre-primary schools work in conditions which are positively harmful to the proper development of the child. It is for consideration how these schools could be abolished or improved. If it is not possible to abolish them by a law, it appears that organisations concerned with pre-primary education may use persuasive methods of getting the schools to provide proper minimum conditions which are necessary for pre-primary education.

The main problems to be considered by the Commission are:

- (1) Should Pre-Primary Education be accepted as a State responsibility?
- (2) If so, what provision should be made for providing and expanding pre-primary education of the right type?
- (3) What role should the State play
  - (a) in the preparation of teachers and in the supervision of training institutes,
  - (b) in the production of apparatus and material,
  - (c) in the preparation of guides for teachers,
  - (d) in the production of children's literature, and
  - (e) in providing comprehensive model institutions such as Model Child Development Centres?
- (4) How should the efforts of the different agencies working in the field be co-ordinated
  - (a) in the matter of pooling resources and distributing grants, and
  - (b) in evolving some common principles for the programme of activities?
- (5) How should unrecognised Pre-Primary Institutions be dealt with?

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THE ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL AND STATE  
COUNCILS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

by

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1965

The Establishment of National and State  
Councils of Teacher Education.

The need for suitable administrative machinery to plan, administer, supervise and finance teacher education at all levels, has been felt for some time.

At present, except in the State of Uttar Pradesh, secondary teacher training is under the control of the Universities which frame the curriculum, conduct examinations, award degrees and arrange for periodic inspection and supervision of constituent and affiliated training colleges. The problems connected with teacher education are discussed in the different bodies of the Universities. A few universities have Faculties of Education, but in the case of majority, Education is either under the Faculty of Arts or the Faculty of Social Sciences.

In the teacher training colleges affiliated to a university, there is <sup>a</sup> common course of study and an approved programme of work. Regulations about the size of a college, the pupil-teacher ratio, the qualifications of the members of the staff, the qualifications of students, requirements of laboratories and libraries etc., govern the working of the colleges. Through the examinations conducted by the university and through periodical inspections by committees of experts an attempt is made to maintain standards. The administrative and financial arrangements rest with the managements of colleges which are either Government or private.

In universities, where there are Departments of Education and constituent Teachers Colleges, the University as a whole provides active leadership and the inter-disciplinary background and contacts which are necessary features of a university organisation, have a salutary effect on teacher training. Under these conditions, the University exercises a beneficial influence on the training of graduate teachers by way of maintaining

standards and by raising the level of the work done to a higher academic level. The autonomy which the University enjoys is, to some extent, shared by the training colleges and there is a broad spirit at the basis of their work. On the other hand where Education is included under another faculty, the other subject - departments of the faculty after exercise and cramping effect on education and the specific needs and requirements of teacher-educator get neglected for the sake of uniformity within the faculty.

The dependence on the universities can be an advantage as well as a disadvantage. The training colleges, though affiliated to the University under the same conditions as Arts and Science Colleges, are not in the main stream of university life. Because of the difference in age, maturity and attitudes, the students and the staff of training colleges cannot share fully in the activities of the university.

There is also a certain anomaly in the situation. Teacher education is preparation for a profession, yet the teaching profession has very little to say with regard to the curriculum and the other aspects of the programme of training. Professional interests are not represented in the universities and professional standards do not receive the emphasis that they should. Teachers are being prepared for work in secondary schools and the universities have hardly any say regarding their curriculum and their aims and objectives. As the International Team pointed out in its report in 1954 "If the determination of the policy of teacher training is the function of one body and the determination of the policy of the schools of another, there is likely to be a rift or a gap between the two which may result in the training not being real preparation for work in the schools".

There is a bewildering variety in the curriculum, the programme and the requirements under different universities,

sometimes in the same State, which leads to a variation in professional standards in the State and in the country as a whole. Although it is not desirable that there should be a complete uniformity in all respects in teacher education programmes, common standards must be aimed at and achieved. In the case of the medical profession these common standards are emphasised and the Indian Medical Council lays down standards and minimum requirements in some detail. As a result, though medical colleges are affiliated to universities and their courses are approved by the universities, which also hold the examinations, certain common all-India professional standards are maintained scrupulously.

Another lacuna in the present system of the universities controlling secondary teacher training institutions is that the planned development of teacher education that is necessary to meet the requirements of teachers, is being neglected. All this is a matter of urgency in the teaching profession and the Departments of Education.

As regards teacher training at other levels and in special fields - primary, pre-primary, vocational and technical and specialised - it is usually under the State Department of Education. The two distinct agencies of control and administration of teacher training, the universities in the case of secondary teacher training and the State Departments of Education in the case of other teacher training create an undesirable barrier between teacher training at different levels. The universities are not in any way concerned with teacher training at lower levels and secondary teacher training colleges being influenced by that attitude have themselves taken very little interest in teacher training at the lower levels. As a result, teacher education has been deprived of its integrated character and teaching has failed to win a recognition as a profession requiring a specific type of preparation.

Under the State Departments of Education, teacher education has often not received the attention it needs because of the various problems in the vast field of education that the Department has to tackle. In the Departments pre-occupation with expansion of educational facilities, the problem of qualitative improvement of teacher education programmes is likely to recede into the background. Inspections of a routine nature serving merely as a check-up do not succeed in helping the teacher training institutions to develop on the right lines. It is often seen that with a view to meeting teacher requirements on a large scale, the training courses are shortened and quality of training lowered.

Thus it is seen that the present arrangements for the control of teacher education are quite inadequate because -

- (a) Teacher education is not treated as an integrated process but is compartmentalized;
- (b) Professional standards do not receive the emphasis that is necessary; and
- (c) Planning and development for teacher education are not done systematically.

Dissatisfaction with this set-up has been mounting and practically every Commission or Committee or Study Group that has specifically dealt with teacher education has recommended the establishment of some agency for controlling and administering teacher education at all levels and all categories. The Secondary Education Commission accepted that the training of graduates should be under the universities, but it recommended the establishment of a Teacher Training Board for supervising and laying down the conditions necessary for the proper training of undergraduates and for suggesting, for the consideration of the universities, improvements that may be needed in the training of graduates. This was followed up by the recommendation of the International Team on Secondary Teachers and Curricula regarding the need to set up an Area Training Organisation which will integrate,

control and supervise all training of teachers.

Though these recommendations were not implemented or perhaps even examined from the point of view of implementation, from 1954 to 1965 a need for such an agency has been expressed firmly and definitely. In 1962 the Study Group on Training of Elementary Teachers in India made a specific recommendation that in every State there should be a State Council for Teacher Education to deal with teacher education at all levels - pre-primary to secondary.

This recommendation was endorsed and further expanded by the Study Group on the Training of Secondary Teachers and was accepted by the All India Association of Teachers Colleges, at its 7th Conference held in 1964. The establishment by statute of a State Council for Teacher Education composed of representatives of the universities, the State Departments of Education and other specialists and the establishment by law of an appropriate organisation at the national level called the National Council for Teacher Education charged with the responsibility for planning, organising, supervising and financing teacher education were recommended.

The Study Team of the Committee on Planned Projects envisaged the establishment of such State Councils, but they considered that they should exercise only advisory functions. They were of the opinion that "for our conditions the simpler machinery would be to make universities responsible for the academic control of the total training programmes, both at the primary and secondary levels and that Government and private institutions may continue to have the administrative control". They recommended for consideration of the universities and State Governments the possibility of setting up Area Training Organisations which will integrate and supervise by training of teachers at all levels in the respective areas with the assistance of an advisory council. The Study Team favoured the view that teacher education

should be with the universities and that primary teacher training should also be brought within the University's purview.

In U.K. since the McNair Committee's Report in 1944 the Universities have been closely connected with the whole training programme, through Area Training Organisations and Institutes of Education. The Robbins Committee's recommendations would make this relationship even closer and better integrated. They have recommended:

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(IX) 35. The Colleges in each University's Institute of Education and the University Department of Education should be formed into a School of Education.

36. On the academic side, each School should be responsible to the university senate for the degrees awarded to students in Colleges of Education. Each School of Education should have its own academic board and boards of studies.

37. Local education authorities should be appropriately represented on the governing bodies both of the colleges for which they are at present responsible and of the School of Education.

38. The Minister of Education should appoint assessors to the governing bodies of Schools of Education.

39. The Colleges should have independent governing bodies and should be financed by earmarked grants made by the Grants Commission through universities to the Schools of Education.

40. The voluntary colleges should be included in schools of Education subject to some modification of the general financial arrangements.

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These recommendations involve a transfer of administrative responsibility from the local education authorities to the universities and the change involved is considered to be a logical next step from the Institutes of Education that were set up following the McNair Report. The training colleges in U.K., specially in England, are anxious to maintain their integral relationship with the universities.

The general trend among those connected with teacher education in India, however, seems to be in favour of the establishment of autonomous statutory councils for teacher

education at State and national levels. The main reasons for this view appear to be that universities in India have not made a significant impact on teacher training nor have they exercised any leadership worth the name in teacher training even at the secondary level. So far as elementary teacher training is concerned, they have not taken any interest in it. There is, therefore, general agreement about the need for teacher education councils. It is generally agreed that functions of the council will be as follows:-

- (1) to prepare, in consultation with the universities and State Departments of Education concerned, programmes for the development of Teacher Education in the State and to supervise their implementation.
- (2) to assess the needs to train teachers of different categories and make this information annually available to Teacher Training Institutions for their guidance in making admissions.
- (3) to set standards for teacher education by preparing curricula and syllabuses for pre-service and in-service training programmes at all levels of teacher education.
- (4) to prescribe minimum requirements for Teacher Training Institutions as regards staff, equipment and accommodation with a view to maintaining standards.
- (5) to organise an evaluation or examination programme for the Training Institutions and to award certificates or diplomas.
- (6) to accredit or recognise training institutions and to arrange for periodic inspections of Training Institutions and to supervise and give necessary guidance for their development.
- (7) to coordinate and promote training programmes and collaborate with other agencies in the State and outside in the furtherance of objectives of teacher education.
- (8) to prepare plans and programmes for the development of teacher education in the State, qualitatively, by periodic reviews of curricula and syllabuses and by arranging for a built-in mechanism for reviewing the curricula.

About the composition of such Councils also there is broad agreement on the interests that need representation. It is agreed that State Teacher Education Councils should consist of:

- (a) representatives of the Government and the Department of Education;

- (b) representatives of Universities in the State;
- (c) representatives of Training Institutions at all levels;
- (d) representatives of training institutions in special fields such as Physical education, Vocational education, Art education etc., and
- (e) educationists connected with schools and teachers' organisations. The main questions to be considered with regard to the establishment of such Councils are as follows:-

1. Teacher Education Council and Universities:

How should it be ensured that the beneficial influence of the university in graduate teacher training, to the extent to which it does exist in good universities, is preserved and extended to undergraduate training? How should the universities be given scope to exercise leadership in training programmes? How could the beneficial effect of the interdisciplinary atmosphere of a university continue to be realised?

How could the active cooperation of the universities in the matter of organising content courses, summer institutes continue to be secured?

2. Teacher Education Councils and Government or State Departments of Education.

Should such Councils be set up by law or statute and be statutory bodies and should they be autonomous in the matter of planning and development of teacher education on the quantitative as well as the qualitative side?

Should they have administrative and executive functions in addition to their functions of supervision and guidance? Should they be in charge of making grants to teacher training institutions? If the Teacher Education Councils are to be effective it appears that they should have administrative, executive and financial powers and functions besides supervisory and guidance functions. In that case, it would be necessary that funds should be placed at their disposal for grants to Teacher Training Institutions and for meeting all the expenditure on teacher education, which would necessitate a strong secretariat with responsible officers in charge. The composition of the Councils is also to be considered.

It has also been recommended that, besides State Education Councils, there should be a similar Teacher Education Council at the national level. The main functions of the Council at the national level would be as follows:-

- (a) to coordinate and set standards for teacher education at the national level.
- (b) to prepare plans for the development of teacher education in the country.
- (c) to establish inter-State parity in standards.
- (d) to promote measures for improving the standards of teacher education throughout the country.
- (e) to give development grants to State Councils on Teacher Education and Teacher Training Institutions.

The composition, the functions and the powers of the Council at the national level requires to be considered in detail.

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EVALUATION AT THE ELEMENTARY  
AND SECONDARY STAGES

BY

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EVALUATION AT THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY STAGES

1. Introductory

(i) Since the establishment of the Central Examination Unit by the Government of India in 1958 the programme of examination reform has gathered considerable momentum. The Unit has been making a multipronged attack for the acceptance of the new concept and techniques of evaluation. It has worked with thousands of secondary school teachers in seminars and workshops, introduced hundreds of training college lecturers to the new techniques, established a very large pool of test items, trained paper-setters attached to different Boards of Secondary Education, published a lot of literature on evaluation and carried out or sponsored several studies and investigations on various practical problems in examinations. So valuable was the work done by the Unit that the Government of India approved of the establishment of State Evaluation Units during the Third Plan period. So far State Evaluation Units have started functioning in 12 States and one Union Territory.

(ii) But all the efforts made for examination reform during the last six years have been confined to the field of secondary education. No attention has been paid to the reform of examinations at the elementary stage and hardly any to the problems in this area at the university stage. Proposals for a programme of evaluation at the university stage will be dealt with separately. In this paper we shall consider only the proposals regarding evaluation at the elementary stage and at the secondary stage.

2. Basic Premises

The programme of examination reform is based on

the following premises:

- (i) that evaluation forms an integral part of the total system of education and is intimately related to the objectives of education;
- (ii) that evaluation processes wield a great influence on students' study habits and teaching methods;
- (iii) that evaluation not only helps to measure educational achievement but also to improve it;
- (iv) that evaluation is a continuous process and is useful in assessing the comparative achievement of pupils within and between schools;
- (v) that the process of evaluation can itself become a learning experience, for good testing material can be used as an effective teaching material also;
- (vi) that the techniques and tools of evaluation are dependent upon the nature of educational objectives; and
- (vii) that techniques of evaluation are processes of collecting evidences about pupil development in desirable directions and should be valid, reliable, objective and practicable.

### 3. Major Goals of Examination Reform:

Based on these premises, the major goals of examination reform are:

- (i) to improve the written examination, which is about the only method of evaluation used at present, so as to make it a more

valid and reliable measure of educational achievement;

(ii) to extend the use of evaluation techniques beyond the written examination so as to obtain evidences regarding those aspects of pupil growth which are not assessed by the written examinations; and

(iii) to make the evaluation process a vital means of improving instruction and other aspects of education.

4. Evaluation at the Elementary stage:

(i) One of the main purposes of evaluation at the elementary stage is to help the pupils to improve their achievement in the basic skills with reference to the objectives of elementary education. These objectives and their implications for evaluation should be made clear to the teachers. It must be pointed out, however, that evaluation of the development of habits and attitudes at this stage is as important as evaluation of achievement in the 3R's.

(ii) (Classes I-II). The first two years of school education should be treated as a single ungraded unit. This will put an end to the existing practice of detentions in Class I and the drop-outs and wastage resulting from it. It will also provide for continuity and flexibility in the educational programme of the first two classes. The two-year block may be divided, wherever possible, into six month units for the purpose of transferring

a child from one unit of learning to another. Such an arrangement will also help slow and fast learners to move at their own pace. If this programme succeeds, such an ungraded arrangement may be extended to Classes III and IV.

- (iii) Classes III-V. From Class III onwards the use of diagnostic tests will help teachers in locating pupil weaknesses and in taking suitable remedial measures.

For the age-group 6-10 observation techniques in a planned and systematic manner should be adopted.

- (iv) At the end of Class IV or V there should be some form of common examination. This common examination will not be an external examination of the traditional type. The 'common' element will be the evaluation tools which will be the same for a number of schools in a district, but which will be administered by the teachers in their respective schools. A common examination will help (a) in the proper selection of pupils to further courses, (b) in making inter-pupil and inter-school comparison of standards, and (c) in providing incentives to schools and teachers for maintaining standards and adopting the diagnostic approach.
- (v) The common examination should test the development of skills and abilities rather than the knowledge content. The evaluation tools may be prepared at the State level,

to be administered at the district level. These tools should be highly refined so that the examination results are accurate and the decisions taken on the basis of the results are dependable. The programme should be phased out, starting with a common examination in one subject area and in a few selected schools in the district, and being gradually extended to practically all subject areas and a larger number of schools.

- (vi) Primary school teachers should be helped with a rich supply of evaluation materials prepared by specialists, particularly in the form of standardised tests and diagnostic tests.
- (vii) Cumulative record cards may be introduced in these classes but they should be very simple so that they can be used by primary school teachers with a little additional training. Detailed instructions regarding the use of the cards should be given to the teachers. In the first instance, the cards may be introduced from Class IV onwards in about 10% of selected schools as an experimental measure. Once the teachers get trained in evaluating certain important aspects of the child's personality and in maintaining records, the cards may be introduced from Class I. Techniques such as observation of children's behaviour, which do not take up much time but require only sensitivity and a keen awareness on the part of the teachers, should be adopted in an increasing measure particularly for the age group 6 to 8.

- (viii) (Classes V-VII or VI-VIII). At present evaluation in these classes is carried out largely by means of written examinations. Due importance should be given in these classes to oral tests which, in the initial stages, may form a part of the internal assessment. As experience is gained in developing oral tests, it might be possible at a subsequent stage to devise a suitable machinery for administering these tests at the external examination.
- (ix) The maintenance of proper cumulative records should continue in all these classes.
- (x) There should be an external examination at the end of the elementary stage (i.e. at the end of Class VII or VIII). This will help in (a) the proper selection of students for further education (general or vocational), and (b) the maintenance of standards at the elementary stage. This examination will not be of the traditional type but will seek to test the basic skills with reference to objectives of education at this stage. The examination will be organised at the district level and may be for certain selected subjects of the elementary school course. For the proper selection of students for further education (general or vocational), the external examination will not be the only determining factor if some counselling and guidance services are provided, at least in the last class of the elementary school to help the pupils to make the right choice.

5. Evaluation at the Secondary Stage

- (i) Since the external examination at the end of the secondary stage will continue for a long time to come and will exercise considerable influence on curriculum, textbooks and methods of teaching, it is necessary to bring about improvements in the procedures of this examination so that these improvements might have an impact on teaching techniques and learning experiences in the class room.
- (ii) Most of the defects in the present system of the external examination are due to defects in the questions and the question papers set for the examination. This is because the paper-setters do not possess the necessary knowledge of the construction of valid and reliable tests. It is important therefore to improve the technical competence of paper-setters, who should be appointed not only on the basis of seniority, but also with reference to their skill in constructing valid and reliable achievement tests. Every examining body should undertake immediately an intensive programme of training paper-setters. Each Board of Secondary Education should have a panel of paper-setters in each subject, preferably of three members, with an expert on evaluation and measurement as a consultant member of the committee.
- (iii) The question paper should seek to find out the developed skills and abilities of the pupil and not merely his mastery of subject-matter.
- (iv) Questions in written examinations should be improved by (a) basing them on specific

instructional objectives, (b) framing them in suitable form - essay, short answer or objective type (c) wording them in clear and definite terms, using language within the range of the pupil's comprehension, and (d) directing them at the desired levels of difficulty and discrimination.

(v) Question papers should be improved by (a) determining weightage for various objectives in testing, (b) giving weightage to the different units of the content, (c) deciding the number and forms of questions to be used and their weightage, (d) rationalising the scheme of options, if any, and (e) carrying out such other improvements as editing each question paper, breaking it up into sections, preparing a detailed scheme of marking, etc.

(vi) Scoring procedures should be improved by improving the questions, using the scheme of marking, issuing comprehensive instructions to examiners, developing a system of checking the uniformity in scoring, and using appropriate scaling procedures.

(vii) The process of marking scripts and declaring results should be mechanised so as to make it more accurate and expeditious.

(viii) Practical examinations in certain subjects are one of the important techniques of evaluation and this technique should be made more reliable. It should have a fair range of sampling and should test the pupil's ability to solve problems in practical situations.

(ix) Corresponding to the improvement in the external examination, school evaluation should also be reorganised. The internal

- assessment conducted by schools is of great significance and should be given increasing importance. It should reflect the principles and concepts of the new approach to evaluation. It should be a comprehensive assessment of all the measurable and assessable aspects of pupil growth; that is to say, it should evaluate all those aspects that are measured by the external examination plus those personality traits, interests and attitudes which cannot be assessed by it. Internal assessment should be built into the total educational programme of institutions.
- (x) Internal assessment should be used more for improvement than for certifying the level of achievement of the pupil. All items of internal assessment need not follow quantified scoring procedures. Some of them may be assessed in descriptive term and the results should be kept separately and not combined artificially with other results to form aggregate scores.
- (xi) The written examination conducted in schools should be improved on the same lines as the external examination. Other techniques of collecting evidence about the pupil's achievement in respect of various objectives should be used. The instruments necessary for such a comprehensive evaluation should be constructed and teachers should be trained to use them. For certain aspects of achievement, rating scales will be used instead of marks; for certain other aspects, a descriptive appraisal may be given. On

the completion of the secondary school course, a separate certificate should be given to the candidates in the form of a school record which will bear the seal of the school as well as that of the Board of Secondary Education.

- (xii) The results of the internal assessment and the external examination should not be combined, because the purposes and techniques of the two kinds of evaluation are different, and also because the results of the internal assessment of different institutions are not strictly comparable. The two results should be shown separately in the certificates given at the end of the course.
- (xiii) Schools should maintain a cumulative record for each student indicating his personal data, home background, scholastic achievement and other aspects of his growth. Teachers should be trained in the use of these cumulative records which will enable them to help the student in improving his attainments. Guidance services will help considerably in making the programme of evaluation more effective.
- (xiv) Along with the improvement in evaluation, a comprehensive programme should be undertaken for improving the curriculum and for specifying the objectives to be achieved at each stage, the concepts to be emphasised and the learning experiences to be provided. Textbooks and teachers' guides should be written

to suit such curriculum and evaluation requirements.

- (xv) Existing teachers will have to be trained in the new techniques of teaching, learning and evaluation through a network of inservice programmes. This should be supported by the introduction of educational evaluation as part of the course in the training schools and colleges.

6. Administrative and Organisational set-up.

- (i) The comprehensive programme of evaluation described in detail in the preceding paragraphs requires for its effective implementation a well-organised machinery both at the State and the Central levels. At the State level the organisation should be under the overall control and guidance of the State Department of Education. At the same time, it should have sufficient freedom to pursue its academic functions untrammelled by red tape and executive routine.
- (ii) In the proposed reorganised set-up of educational administration in the States, the State Department of Education is expected to have, in addition to an administrative wing, an academic wing consisting of a number of departments, each devoted to a major aspect of education (e.g. curriculum, teacher-education, evaluation etc.) and each being staffed by its own cadre of specialists. If such a reorganisation takes place, there will be a Department of Evaluation in the academic

wing; with an officer of the status of Joint Director and Deputy Director at its head and with its own cadre of specialists in evaluation working under him. The services of these specialists will be placed at the disposal of any government department, institution or organisation that needs expert advice or guidance on the subject of evaluation. Accordingly, specialists in evaluation will work with State Boards of Secondary Education to guide the officers concerned and the panels of paper-setters in these Boards in introducing improved methods of evaluation. The existing State Evaluation Units will merge with the proposed Department of Evaluation.

- (iii) The arrangement suggested above will require the training of high-level leadership as well as a large body of qualified persons in the new Department of Evaluation for the purpose of constituting the new cadre of evaluation specialists. The constitution of such cadres for different departments will help in bringing about more fruitful inter-departmental co-ordination than what exists at present. Specialists in evaluation will then work with the Departments of Curriculum, Textbooks, Teacher Education, Guidance and Counselling etc. and experts from these departments will similarly help the Department of Evaluation.

- (iv) In view of the fact that the organising and conducting of examinations is essentially an administrative function quite distinct in nature and scope from the academic work of improving evaluation procedures, the existing Boards of Secondary Education will be reorganised so that their main responsibility will be that of conducting the examination or examinations at the secondary stage. The educational functions which some of the Boards discharge today regarding the grading of the curriculum, the preparation of the textbooks, the organisation of programmes of evaluation etc. will be taken away from them and handed over to the Departments concerned in the academic wing of the State Department of Education.
- (v) The processing of results in the Boards of Secondary Education should be mechanised in order to quicken and objectivise the processes of tabulating and declaring results.
- (vi) The Department of Evaluation will conduct research into evaluation techniques, try them out in schools in the State, organise training courses in evaluation, give guidance to schools, training colleges and all bodies conducting public examinations, construct test items, produce evaluation literature and promote in general the programme of evaluation. It will also maintain close co-ordination with the Department of Curriculum and see that the teaching-learning principles of evaluation are incorporated in curriculum construction.

(vii) At the Central level, the N.C.E.R.T. may set up an Advisory Board of Evaluation which will co-ordinate the different programmes conducted at the State level. The executive organ of this Advisory Board will be the Central Examination Unit suitably enlarged and reorganised. The Board and the Examination Unit will have to expand their coverage to include all levels of school education, from the primary stage to the higher secondary stage.

(viii) The function of the Advisory Board of Evaluation will be:

- (a) defining and evaluating national standards;
- (b) conducting surveys of educational attainments in various fields;
- (c) organising co-operative testing programmes;
- (d) providing centralised data processing services (with computers)
- (e) building up and maintaining an all India library of tests;
- (f) carrying out research studies of various types;
- (g) training of leadership personnel in evaluation;
- (h) producing literature on evaluation;
- (i) maintaining international contacts;
- (j) providing guidance to the Departments of Evaluation in the different States in introducing improved evaluation techniques.

The training programme will be one of the major tasks of this Advisory Board and will take priority over all other programmes.

PATTERN OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EDUCATION

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Pattern of School and College Education

According to its terms of reference, the Education Commission is expected to advise Government on 'the national pattern of education in the country'. In the public mind the concept of a national pattern is tied up with the idea of the adoption of a uniform pattern of school and college classes for the whole of India. This is understandable in view of the confusing variety of educational patterns existing in different parts of the country. But while a common educational structure for the coordination and maintenance of standards is desirable, no attempt should be made to impose a single pattern of school and college classes on all the States and Union Territories completely ignoring local traditions and practices. What should be insisted upon is not the acceptance of a uniform educational pattern everywhere but the incorporation of certain essential features of a common structure in the educational patterns of the different States. These essential features and the changes involved if they are incorporated in different educational patterns are discussed in the following pages.

1. The total period of school and college education required for taking the first degree will be at least 15 years.
2. The first 12 years of education will constitute the school stage. No student will be admitted to the university or higher education stage unless he has successfully completed 12 years of education at the school stage. The first degree course of the university will be of three years.

3. The school stage is made up of the elementary stage of seven or eight years (preferably seven) and the secondary stage of five or four years (preferably five). The secondary stage may be further sub-divided into the high school stage of three or two years (preferably three) and the higher secondary stage of two years. But though the recommended pattern of school classes is 7+3+2, the manner of the break-up of the first ten years is not an essential feature of the common pattern.

4. An integrated course of elementary or first level education will be provided for the seven or eight years of schooling at the elementary stage, but for administrative reasons it may be necessary in certain areas to break up the elementary school into: (a) a primary section consisting of five or four classes; (b) a middle school section may exist as a separate unit or may be attached to the high or higher secondary school.

5. All types of education beyond the elementary stage and up to the age of 18 or the time of the student's joining an institution of higher education will be regarded as secondary education. Accordingly, secondary education will include not only education provided at the high school stage or the higher secondary stage, but also education imparted in different kinds of vocational institutions which are mentioned below under paragraphs 6 and 10.

6. At the end of the elementary stage while a large number of students will pursue general education at the secondary level, a substantial proportion will be diverted into vocational institutions, such as junior technical

schools, junior agricultural schools, trade schools, industrial training centres, institutions providing apprenticeship courses and other similar institutions giving full-time or part-time vocational education. The duration of the courses may vary from one year to three years, depending upon the nature and scope of the vocational courses.

7. For the proper selection of students for different types of courses, general and vocational, mentioned above, and also for the maintenance of standards in the elementary schools, there will be an external examination at the end of the elementary stage to be organised at the district level.

8. At the secondary stage, non-vocational schools will provide a course of general education up to Class X, without any diversification of courses or provision for elective groups of subjects and with compulsory teaching of two or three Languages, Mathematics, Social Studies and Science. Options, however, may be provided in subjects such as crafts, hobbies or even the third language to meet the special aptitudes and interests of the pupils.

9. In the high school classes, there will be courses at an Advanced (A) or Special Level as well as at an Ordinary (O) or General Level, so that gifted children may have an opportunity of striving for a higher standard of attainment in certain subjects in terms of knowledge, understandings and skills. Such students will be permitted to take one or two subjects, but not more than two, at the Advanced Level for the external examination.

10. There will be an external examination organised at State level at the end of the high school stage (or Class X) which is a most important terminal stage

in school education. A certain number of those who pass this examination will join the higher secondary or pre-university course of two years and undertake specialised studies in certain subjects as preparation for admission to the university. But a much larger number of the successful candidates are expected to take up vocational courses provided in different kinds of institutions such as polytechnics, teacher training schools, health schools (for training nurses, midwives, health visitors etc.) agricultural training schools, industrial training institutions, home science schools, institutes giving training in commercial and secretarial practices etc. etc. The duration of these courses will vary from one year to three years, depending upon the nature and scope of the vocational training.

11. The higher secondary or pre-university course of two years (Classes XI-XII) which is college preparatory or university bound will again provide courses at O and A levels. Those students who have passed the high school leaving examination at A level in certain subjects will be permitted to take specialised courses in these subjects in these two classes. But there will be a certain amount of flexibility in the scheme so as to allow the admission of exceptional children with an O level certificate to these specialised courses.

12. Classes XI and XII belong to the school stage, as the work done in them is essentially school work and the pupils attending them (generally between the ages of 15 and 18) will be of the school age. But as most schools do not have the necessary accommodation, equipment, staff and other facilities required for higher

secondary education of the standard indicated above, these classes will be attached, in the first instance, to selected schools only. Till such time as a very large number of schools can be effectively upgraded, Classes XI and XII will be mostly located in colleges so as to provide the two year pre-university course or they may even form a separate institution of the junior college type.

13. The junior colleges may be planned, wherever possible, as comprehensive or multipurpose institutions providing pre-university education for admission to the three year degree course of the university, pre-engineering or pre-medical courses for admission to the professional colleges, and also some terminal vocational courses of two years' duration of the kind mentioned in paragraph 11 above.

14. At the university or higher education stage, Pass and Honours courses for the B.A., B.Sc., or B.Com. degree will be provided corresponding to the Ordinary and Advance Level courses at the school stage.

15. The minimum age of admission to Class I of the elementary school should be five plus, and preferably six plus. The minimum age of admission to the first degree course of the university should be 17+ and preferably 18+.

16. The educational programme at the school stage will be sufficiently flexible so as to allow for transfer of students from the vocational to the academic courses and vice versa subject to certain conditions.

17. Provision will be made at all stages of education beyond the elementary stage for part-time courses or

correspondence courses for those who wish to pursue their education further but are unable to join a regular full-time institution.

18. The recommendation that the total duration of the school and college courses leading to the first degree should not be less than 15 years will have certain important financial and administrative implications for those States which have at present a 14-year educational pattern. These implications will have to be carefully worked out for each State in terms of the accommodation, equipment and teaching staff required, the cost involved, the financial aid needed and the organisational adjustments that will have to be made if the States are called upon to implement the recommendation. In the other States, where the 15-year course of school and college education already exists, the problems mentioned above will still be there, though perhaps in a less acute form; but the main difficulty in most of these States will arise on account of the readjustments in existing educational patterns demanded by the new proposal. Great care should be taken to see that the educational reorganisation proposed in both groups of States does not lead to disorganisation.

19. In conclusion, it must be emphasised that the situation in India is essentially pluralistic and it is wrong to expect a single educational pattern to operate efficiently in all parts of the country. The pattern, after all, is only an external form of the educational system. Our objective should be to have national standards in education rather than a uniform national pattern of education. There should be a national

standard of attainment at the end of the high school stage to be reached, wherever possible, after not more than ten years of schooling. The national standard will have to be carefully defined in terms of the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be developed at the end of the stage with particular reference to the national goals. This standard will be higher than the existing high school leaving examination standards in the different States. Each State should make efforts to see that the standard of its high school leaving examination comes up to the national standard within the next ten or fifteen years i. e. by the end of the Fifth or the Sixth Plan period.

20. There should be a second national standard of attainment, carefully defined in the same way as the first, at the end of the university or higher education course leading to the first degree, to be reached, generally speaking, after 15 years of school and college education. This national standard in the advanced Honours course will be comparable with the standards of the first degree course in Western countries. Every university should make efforts to see that its first degree standard approximates to the national standard by the end of the Fifth or the Sixth Plan period.

PROBLEMS OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

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PROBLEMS OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

1. In order to envisage the tasks of University administration in their proper perspective, it is necessary to have a clear vision of the functions of a University. Administration cannot be carried on as if it was a function by itself; it must be designed to serve the basic purposes of the University. This is not the place to discuss these purposes in detail but reference might be made to some of them.

2. A University is certainly one of the main centres of professional and technical education and it should help in the development of the total national resources and increase productivity. But this is not the whole of its function. It is also concerned with giving its students an integrated view of man, his achievements, and his limitations. Thus the pursuit of knowledge and truth for its own sake becomes one of its primary objectives. Also, Universities have in their nature an element of 'universalism'. Even in the pursuit of special subjects, they seek such elements and endeavour to relate them through inter-disciplinary approaches. In the recruitment of their staff and students, they should (and sometimes do) cut across caste, communal, regional and provincial boundaries - sometimes even the national boundaries - and aspire to make their alumni spectators of all space and time. If they fail to do so at least, to some extent, and do not make their students a citizen of the world as well as the world of meaning, they are missing one of their most important objectives.

3. Secondly, a University is basically a stronghold of reason in a world which is often dominated by fanaticism, prejudice and unreason. It teaches - or should teach - its students how to come to judgements dispassionately, after careful weighing of all relevant arguments, and its teachers should be imbued with the spirit of enquiry and tolerance. If these qualities are not to find room in the University, where else can they flourish? When there are manifestations of intolerance, unreason and violence in the Universities, one wonders whether it has been worthwhile to provide higher education for such persons. They may acquire a certain amount of knowledge but their minds and emotions remain basically uneducated, unconcerned with the world of values and with the world of men. In his "Age of the Scholar", Pucey has noted that modern Universities have made a brilliant contribution to health, longevity, defence and to a more varied and productive economy; they have not contributed spectacularly 'either to strengthen order or to deepen satisfaction and elicit creativity in individual lives. Power has been immensely increased but reason's hold on it is not notably more secure'.

The business of the true scholar is to increase the influence of the mind in the world and for this purpose he must engage himself in the dual task of the pursuit of truth and training his students to assimilate and appropriate knowledge and culture. Thus teaching and research - in an ambitious or a modest measure - both come to be his responsibility.

4. Now, no system of University administration can be regarded as satisfactory if it does not promote these and other - basic objectives of higher education. A University is primarily an academic community in which scholars and students come together with the object of carrying on their academic activities in an atmosphere of fellowship and, out of this pursuit of knowledge, they cultivate certain social and moral qualities of great significance. It would, therefore, be obviously undesirable to run the University as a Government office, even an efficient Govt. office. But the tendency in India from the outset - when the first of the modern Universities was set up in 1857 - has been to organise them largely on the pattern of Govt. offices. As far back as 1900, Arthur Mayhew had criticised this tendency in his Education of India saying "A start had to be made in higher education and Government had to make it. What they could and should have done was to provide the seed from which, as years passed, a University would gradually and naturally have grown, very unlike the Universities which from 1854 onwards have been hatched in office where worried Secretaries sat like brooding hens on eggs laid by mixed Committees of officials and non-officials - Universities whose raison d'etre appears sometimes to be the complicated nature of their governing bodies and statutes framed with such care that no offence and very little of anything else can be given in any quarter". This is obviously a very undesirable state of affairs and we should take all necessary steps to change it. What these steps should be is for each University to decide for itself. But the main ideas and principles underlying the change can be spelt out here.

5. Firstly, there is need for the sharing and delegation of authority as widely as possible and practicable. There is too much centralisation at present, with the result that Chairmen, Deans and other 'authorities' of the University are often apt, and expected, to monopolise all the power to themselves. Their junior colleagues usually take orders and carry them out, instead of discussing issues and problems and coming to agreed decisions. What is needed is a two-way traffic in which improvements can be initiated both from above and below. Every member of the University should feel that he is free to express his honest opinions and offer his constructive suggestions for the good of the College or the University and they will be received with an open mind. At present, in many Universities, junior members are often too timid to do so and senior members show a degree of impatience or intolerance of views different from their own, which aggravates this tendency. If moral laryngitis becomes an epidemic in a University, its essential raison d'etre will be lost. Opportunities and forums should, therefore, be provided at various levels to

encourage free exchange of ideas and the administrative wing has no business to dominate the academic. Its various bodies at present are generally too unwieldy to function effectively. There are usually more than 100 members in the Senate and as many as 25 in the Board of Studies, many of whom are ex-officio, with the result that the problems which these bodies are supposed to discuss do not get sufficient attention. It has been represented to us that sometimes one or two particular items in a Senate agenda - which may be of interest to members for certain extraneous reasons - take up major part of the time and a hundred items may be passed in a few minutes. Similarly, the Boards of Studies discuss the syllabuses in a cursory way instead of giving them their time and patient attention. It would be a good thing to cut down the Senate to about 60 members and the Board of Studies to about 15 and not give representation on them to all Principals etc. in an ex-officio capacity. The Boards of Studies should include specialists in the subjects, a few representatives of related departments and a few educationists of wide vision who can take an over-all view of academic requirements. At present their function is often confined to the prescription of text books and appointment of examiners. This is a narrow view. They should also be concerned with a careful and leisurely examination of the syllabuses instead of passing hurriedly the draft prepared by some obliging member of the Board.

We have been informed that, in some postgraduate Boards of Studies, many of the members are persons who have done no postgraduate teaching and they are there merely because of their seniority and ex-officio position. It would be an advantage to make room in them for brilliant teachers and research scholars - whatever their position in seniority - so that new and advancing frontiers may be reflected in the syllabus. It would be advisable to have separate Boards of Studies for undergraduate and postgraduate courses, in which representation will be given to the other Board so as to secure continuity and coordination. Some method could also be devised to enable graduates who have recently passed out, to make their comments and suggestions regarding the syllabus and the curriculum. These need not necessarily be accepted but they would provide a useful indication of the consumer's angle, with which our Universities are often out of touch.

6. Faculties, as at present constituted in our Universities, require a second look. Departments of Studies are assigned to their 'own' Faculty and they have no contact with other Faculties, although the best areas for advanced study and research are often to be found where the frontiers of different subjects, apparently unrelated, meet. In some of the new Universities in the U.K. they are called 'Schools of Studies' and a Department may be allotted to more than one of these Schools. This enlarges the sphere of its activities and enables it to chalk out new lines of development. If this principle of organisation is approved, it may need changes in the traditional patterns of undergraduate and postgraduate education.

7. One of the main causes which disrupts the academic life of the Universities is the system of electioneering for membership of various bodies and authorities - particularly those that have to do with examinations, prescription of text-books and other similar money making or power making devices. It is true that 'democracy' postulates elections but we are doubtful whether, in view of the abuses to which elections have been subject, they should become the normal method of choosing members of academic bodies. After all, there are other avenues in which electors can be trained for democracy! In any case, we would like to suggest that, wherever the system of elections has proved particularly objectionable, it should be replaced by some procedure of rotation. Rotation is certainly open to some difficulties e.g. some of the teachers who may be asked to work as Deans or Chairmen may not have sufficient strength or depth to hold such offices. But this is a risk which has to be taken. It is also possible that administrative positions will, in due course, lose their exaggerated importance and attraction and some members of the faculty, who are more interested in their teaching and research, will not even care to seek them. Even now, in a few cases, this has happened in India and it is quite common in other countries. Even where elections are held, we are of the opinion that it would be advisable to abolish postal voting which leads to grayer malpractices.

8. There is also a general practice in some Universities that teachers of other Universities and Colleges contest elections to their Senate, Academic Council, Boards of Studies, etc. In some cases, this has had very undesirable results. This practice should be stopped. When teachers of other Universities are to be appointed - as they should certainly be - to these bodies, they should be invited in view of their special eminence and suitability as honoured guests. There is no point in their fighting elections through manipulating party factions and identifying themselves with one or other group in the University.

9. The question of University autonomy bristles with many difficulties and is linked up with several issues. It is true that there is no absolute autonomy in the modern world, that the Universities which depend very largely on public finances have to be responsive in some ways to public opinion, Parliament or State Legislatures. If this supervision is exercised within proper limits, no University can reasonably object to it - e.g. the proper expenditure of funds, the careful above-board recruitment of the staff, the framing of their academic programme and courses in such a way as to meet the national objectives and needs etc. But there are large areas of its activity where the University should be completely free from political pressures, whether exercised by Government, political parties, financial interests or even the Parliament and State Legislatures. There have been cases where the freedom of the University has been restricted by various pressure groups and even the Chancellors have failed to respect and safeguard its autonomy. Political parties have sought to draw teachers and students into their political coils and exploit them for election purposes; they have given the students their support in strikes, agitations and disorderly behaviour; they have influenced the recruitment of staff. Governments, likewise,

have sometimes placed, directly or indirectly, limitations on their freedom of opinion and expression. In some Legislatures questions have been raised which clearly violated their autonomy. It is true that, in some cases, the Universities - its students, its staff, its administrative authorities - have behaved in such a way that it provided a plausible excuse or even adequate justification for their interference. It is largely a matter of how the academic community of the University fulfils its responsibilities and recognises its rights as well as academic and social obligations. But it is well to remember that freedom has its risks which should be taken as an act of faith: that no institution or organisation can grow into freedom and the responsible discharge of its duties, if it is kept in leading strings. The emphasis should constantly be on built-in devices of self-correction, on the recruitment of the highest quality of personnel, on the creation of conditions which would eliminate unhealthy rivalry. It is not the issue of whips by Government or political parties - as in Parliament - that would improve the working of the Universities but a frank and full-recognition by them of the obligations implicit in this freedom and a firm determination by Governments to respect this freedom. If the various political groups could also be a party to this understanding, it will improve matters considerably. Otherwise, the Universities should have the courage to go their independent way, without being deterred from the right path by their pressure.

10. It has been suggested to us - and we are inclined to agree - that there is no particular justification for each University having two honorific offices - the Visitor and the Chancellor. They could both be combined into the office of the Chancellor who could be nominated by the President in consultation with the Vice-Chancellor. There is no reason to make the Governor of the State an ex-officio Chancellor - in some cases he may be quite unsuitable for this office, not having had any university experience. Even where for reasons of personal eminence, a Governor is so nominated it should be done in his personal capacity making it clear that this was not an ex-officio appointment, so that he may not depend for all his decisions on the State Government.

11. The Vice-Chancellor is normally the academic as well as the executive head of the University and as such he occupies a very eminent and responsible position. It is vitally necessary that, so far as humanly possible, he should not be identified with any particular group or party and he should be accepted, by his personal eminence and standing, as worthy of this office. In spite of adopting different methods of selection for the post, the present practice of often appointing politicians who have to be accommodated, retired Government servants who have to be rewarded, people who are so advanced in age that they can bring no energy or enthusiasm to their task has lowered the status of the post as well as the standards of the Universities. Any appointing authority

that indulges in such practices should be ashamed of itself.... However, it is easier to criticise than suggest ways of overcoming this difficulty. Apart from the fact that good and suitable men and women are few and far between, various procedures of selection have been devised and almost all of them have failed to guard against the possibility of keeping unsuitable men out. The balance of the advantage would seem to be in favour of the nomination of a panel of three names by a small Committee of distinguished persons, unconnected with any partisan group, and the selection of the Vice-Chancellor by the Chancellor from amongst them.

12. The Vice-Chancellor should be fully empowered to deal with all acts of indiscipline, taking into consideration the recommendations of the Board of Discipline and he should have adequate powers to control lapses in administration. Very often, it becomes difficult to locate responsibility for whatever happens, for lines of authority are not clearly laid down. There should be, as we have suggested, a wide dispersal of authority but persons entrusted with it should learn to exercise it and be answerable to the Vice-Chancellor for failure to do so. Provision should also be made for dealing with any emergency situations that may arise, as is not unoften the case in some of the Universities.

13. Normally there should be one Pro-Vice-Chancellor or Rector to assist the Vice-Chancellor in his work. But as and when a University develops other campuses - as many bigger American Universities have done - each campus should be in the charge of a competent Pro Vice Chancellor who will work under the general direction of the Vice Chancellor but will be largely free in the details of the administration.

14. We are not in favour of any purely affiliating Universities being established - universities which would be merely examining agencies with no postgraduate teaching and research. Such a 'University' is a mere device of convenience - it does not fulfil any of its essential functions. However, in the situation that exists in India, it will be necessary to have affiliating-cum-teaching Universities which will be responsible not only for organising postgraduate teaching and research but also for improving the quality of work in the affiliated Colleges - by circulating their good teachers, establishing libraries, setting up Centres of postgraduate studies, etc. The relationship between the University and its constituent and affiliated Colleges will have to be defined with care. Instead of weakening the good Colleges by taking over all postgraduate work, it will actually strengthen them and recognise them for postgraduate studies if they have the necessary staff, library and equipment. It may also locate a particular postgraduate department of its own in the College. Sometimes, a good Professor or a group of teachers in a College build up a progressive department of studies. If the Professor is taken away from them - e.g. by his transfer to the University - his work is interrupted and he may not be able to build up another good team easily. In such circumstances, the University should show sufficient imagination and vision to let the selected Professor carry on his work in the College and let him have all the needed resources. There is no particular sanctity in a particular geographical location.

15. It has been strongly argued before us that the Universities should recognise a certain number of good Colleges, with fine traditions of work, properly qualified staff, sufficient equipment and other resources as 'autonomous Colleges'. One or two Universities have actually framed ordinances for the purpose. We are in favour of this proposal as it will encourage experimentation and alter the stereotyped methods and curricula which are to be found in most of the other Colleges. They will frame their own curricula, adopt new methods of teaching and examination and try out new procedures of administration. These Colleges will conduct their own examinations and forward the results to the University which will confer the degree. This is necessary because the people are not yet generally used to degrees being conferred by the Colleges. But since the examination will be conducted by them, this will be only a formal matter. This status should, however, be conferred only on the really deserving Colleges so that it comes to be recognised as a privilege. If the experiment is tried in a few select Colleges under proper ENCOURAGEMENT and supervision, it can make a valuable contribution to teaching techniques, examination procedures and the formulation of the curricula. If, however, at any stage, the University becomes convinced that a particular College has abused the privilege or has become incapable of bearing the responsibility, there should be no hesitation in withdrawing this status.

16. In the last couple of decades, many new Universities in India have been established in a hurry, as it were, without a full appreciation of their financial implications as well as the availability of the personnel needed. It has often been done for political, regional or emotional reasons. One recognises the strength of these reasons and also that, at present, it cannot be said that, for the size, the country has too many Universities. Actually, in years to come, it is likely that we shall need more Universities. But in view of the limitation of our resources in men and money for the present and with the object of ensuring that certain standards of quality are maintained, it is desirable that this process of expansion should be slowed down, that the existing Universities and Colleges should be strengthened and that a definite procedure should be laid down for the establishment of new Universities. It is suggested that, as a precondition for setting up a new University, an ad hoc Board of a few educationists and administrators should be set up to prepare carefully and patiently a detailed plan or a blue-print of the proposed University, giving its *raison d'être*, indicating its nature and functions, its location, its academic and administrative requirements and their financial implications for at least the first five years. The proposal should be supported by an undertaking from the State Governments - or any other sponsors - that they will meet their share of the expenditure, recurring and non-recurring, before the proposal comes up to the U.C.C. whose concurrence should be obligatory. If some such a procedure is insisted upon, it will discourage the sponsors from acting in a hurry and repenting at leisure. It may also be added that usually new Universities should grow out of the best Colleges or the autonomous Colleges expanding their postgraduate teaching and research or University centres which are already functioning as sub-Universities. Also,

in the establishment of these new Universities, care should be taken to see that they do not become identical copies of the older universities. They should show courage and imagination to chalk out new patterns of constitution, new lines of work, new approach to syllabuses, methods and examinations. Some of the newer Universities in the United Kingdom have actually broken new ground and are trying to meet the challenges posed by the recent explosion of knowledge, by the needs of modern economy and by the demands which the new social situation makes on them. In India we are economical not only in our financial outlay on higher education - for which there is some justification but we are also niggardly in the expenditure of creative thought which is an entirely unjustified economy. There is a tendency to follow mechanically the two or three patterns that have developed in the past and be content with them.

17. If new Universities are to escape the stranglehold of older practices and older Universities are to adventure along new lines, there should be in each University a high powered machinery for the assessment of its basic aims, objectives, policies, methods of teaching and research and its system of examinations. This body should consist of about ten members from the various faculties, chosen on the basis of their merit and capacity for creative thinking, irrespective of their position in seniority, and include a few eminent educationists from outside. The Vice-Chancellor should be preferably the Chairman of this body. They should not be concerned with matters of routine or detail but only address themselves to broad matters of policy and organisation - how academic standards can improve, how the University can be brought into living contact with the community, how research and postgraduate teaching can be encouraged, etc. It should act as a 'brains trust' for the University. We were told that in the U.S.S.R. each University and even individual Departments have an academic body which puts up well considered proposals for the reform of the syllabus or the methods etc. for the consideration of the Senate. Unfortunately, the minds of many of our University teachers are not open to new ideas; they work in a rut and are opposed to change. Such a body will strive to raise the University from inertia, routine and complacency to a mood of creative endeavour. At present many members of the staff are not really interested in academic problems but are usually playing for power or petty personal advantages. If this atmosphere is not changed and creative thinking and courageous experimentation is not encouraged, future of our Universities will be dark, indeed. This seems a truism but a truism which will bear repetition. The appointment of such bodies will give a new orientation to the thinking of the University faculty and, so far as possible, wean them away from preoccupation with irrelevant or undesirable activities.

18. In order to carry on the work of the University it is certainly necessary to have a proper constitution and, for this purpose, each University has its Act, Statutes and Ordinances laid down by Government and it frames its own Regulations which it is competent to alter. It appears to us that there is too meticulous a prescription of what a University can and cannot do which is unnecessary. The freedom of the University is further fettered by the fact that neither the Statutes nor the Ordinances can be modified by it. Even a minor change in them has to be sent up to the Ministry of Education where, sometimes, clerks and Superintendents with no university experience scrutinise them in the first place and offer their comments on what are supposed to be the well-considered proposals of the Academic and the Executive Councils and the Senate. Even where higher Secretariat officials do so, there is sometimes the tendency to regard certain powers as the 'property' of the Government which the University is trying to annex. In our view, it will be enough to retain certain essential provisions in the Statutes for whose modification Government has to be approached, transferring all other provisions to the Ordinances which the Universities will be free to modify. It is true that there are some Universities which may not do so with proper care or impartiality but the cure for incompetence is to eradicate the root causes and not to perpetuate it by denying to all the Universities the responsibility which naturally belongs to them.

19. It has been represented to us that in some Universities the appointment of staff is not free from political or caste or communal pressures. Instead of recruiting the best available persons, there is a tendency to select candidates who belong to particular castes or communities or are favoured by persons of influence. This evil is even more rampant in some of the affiliated and privately managed Colleges. It need hardly be stressed that nothing can do more damage to the standards and reputation of an educational institution than the poor quality of its staff - in point of intellect or character. It is necessary, therefore, to prescribe detailed qualifications for each post and to insist on them in all appointments. In the case of any particular candidate who has some other very outstanding qualifications, the relaxation of essential qualifications should require the sanction of the University where college appointments are concerned. In the Universities, wherever such a departure is made, the reasons for it should be given in detail by the Selection Committee and scrutinised by the Executive Council which formally makes the appointment. Another method which has been tried in Bihar for making appointments to private, affiliated colleges is through a statutory University Services Commission which consists of three permanent members and coopts experts in the subjects concerned as advisers. We feel that this is a promising procedure provided the experts are given the right to vote - they are not treated merely as advisers - and some representative of the management is coopted on it.

Such a Commission is likely to be able to resist the caste and communal pressures better than the private managing Committees which at present make appointments. The rules framed by the Universities for the appointment of Professors should also provide for the possibility of selection by negotiations. Sometimes, eminent teachers do not care to apply for posts when they are advertised. In such a situation, it should be open to the Vice-Chancellor to invite a distinguished person from another institution to occupy the Chair. All that should be required is a careful scrutiny by the University authorities of his qualifications, experience and publications. It is not enough that the selected candidate possesses the minimum qualifications required for the post. The University should go all out to secure the services of the very best men wherever they may be found. Sometimes even high powered Selection Committees, appointed under the ordinances, do not serve the purpose in view and occasional horse trading is not unknown. The Vice Chancellor should have the power and the courage to intervene effectively whenever he suspects that the appointment is not above board.

20. It has been often urged that there should be a larger number of Readerships and Professorships than at present so as to provide openings for brilliant junior members of the staff. To have just one Professor in a Department who becomes a fixture till he retires is not in the interest of the University and, if by any chance, he is lazy or incompetent or opposed to change, he can become a menace to its development. The U.G.C. has, to some extent, recognised the validity of this demand and we endorse the proposal and suggest that it should be made more generally applicable. In the case of a Lecturer's appointment, it should be made in the first instance on a contract basis for a period of 3 or 5 years and after his interest in work, his intellectual competence, his personal qualities have been adequately judged, he should be confirmed. This practice is actually followed by many Universities in the world and, in some of them, the first contract appointment of five years is followed by a second of the same duration. There should be a provision, even after confirmation, for the removal of an incompetent or undesirable teacher which can be legally effective. For instance, all appointments could be subject to the condition that they can be terminated on 6 months' notice on either side or payment of salary in lieu thereof. To protect the teachers from misuse of this provision, they can be given the right of appeal to the Chancellor against the decision of the University authorities. Of course, these suggestions will only be useful if we can ensure that, by and large, University men and women will work with integrity and a sense of responsibility and not allow themselves to be swayed by extraneous considerations.

21. It is necessary to give careful attention to the problems of the students and suggest ways and means of solving them. For this purpose, a permanent body should be created in the University consisting of some senior members of the staff, some junior members who are not far removed in age from the students and some selected students who have done well in their studies and other fields of activity. This body will advise the Vice Chancellor about the students' genuine needs and problems and their legitimate grievances and suggest proper methods of securing their active and helpful participation in raising the standards of work and behaviour in the University.

22. While the reforms in the system of examinations are discussed elsewhere, it is desirable that reference be made to the setting up of a proper administrative machinery for the purpose necessary to create, in universities where it does not exist at present, an office of the Controller of Examinations who should be responsible for organising them and be the custodian of all confidential papers. Special measures should be designed to ensure the safety of Examination papers and scripts. At present, from time to time, there is a leakage of university papers and there are malpractices in the evaluation of answer books. When the lack of reliability and validity which is a characteristic of the present system are added to these abuses, one can imagine the consequences. We were told on very high authority that in one University, most of the question papers were 'out' before the examinations and were being sold like hot cakes, with the result that the Chancellor had to cancel the examinations and hold them afresh. Such scandals mar the reputation of a University beyond repair and it is imperative to root out this evil. Whenever there is evidence to show that there has been a leakage or unfair methods have been used, those responsible should be given an exemplary punishment, instead of the University trying to smooth over or camouflage the happenings!

23. The University should have a strong Accounts Section and a vigilant audit section under a competent Finance Officer. It is also necessary to introduce the system of pre-audit. A great deal of wastage of funds goes on in many Universities because avenues of reasonable economy are not explored. Sometimes for want of efficiency in Government offices - which deal, for instance, with foreign exchange - the funds are not released in time and the new apparatus and equipment needed cannot be made available. Sometimes, very costly apparatus is treated as 'personal' property by Chairmen of Departments and their use is not permitted to other Departments. This is a dog-in-the-manger policy which should be strongly discouraged and all such apparatus should be regarded as the property of the University which every bonafide member and research worker is entitled to use.

24. The University has been up against a new difficulty in recent years - it has had to face a number of litigations and spend its time, energy and funds in dealing with them. One can understand that, once in a while, there may be a case in which an employee has a legitimate grievance and he can take recourse to law to have the grievance examined and adjudged. But

a tendency has developed recently that not only members of the staff but also students file writ petitions against the University - sometimes on very flimsy grounds! If a student fails in an examination, or is detained or is expelled or rusticated for misbehaviour or some other action is taken against him for the breach of university rules and regulations, he files a writ in a court of law. The Court usually issues a stay order and, sometimes, on a purely technical ground, the student is able eventually to get off. This is a very undesirable state of affairs. The relations between the University and the students are not those between an employer and an employee or between a Government and a private citizen. Such a view, which often underlies the court judgement, undermines completely the nature of their relationship. When a student joins the University, he undertakes to abide not only by its written rules and regulations but also by the unwritten code of conduct and ethics of an academic community. If he breaks them repeatedly and unrepentently and corrupts the atmosphere by his presence, the University should have the unchallengeable right to turn him out. The Commission may well consider what would be the best way to safeguard the interests of University education and protect it from such frivolous encroachments on its autonomy.

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE UNIVERSITY TO  
THE COMMUNITY

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE UNIVERSITY TO THE COMMUNITY

Indian Universities have not, as a rule, recognised their true relationship to the community. They were, at first, mainly concerned with providing trained scholars who will be able to discharge their duties as Government servants and, latterly, they have given some attention to research and post-graduate education. There are many lacunae in these directions also but I am not concerned with them in this paper. My object is to highlight the responsibility of the University - and its colleges - to improve the life of the community and to impinge on its manifold activities purposefully and vigorously so as to raise its standard in all directions.

2. I venture to suggest that so far a large majority of our Universities have not only not done so but there is not even a recognition on their part that it is part of their essential responsibility. This failure is really built into a long standing university tradition which has held away in many western countries also. They, too, were mostly concerned with professional or technical education or training for services or preparing scholars to carry on the pursuit of new knowledge. However, many of the western universities, amongst others, have now recognised that they cannot limit the scope of their services to a narrow field, nor live in an ivory tower but must extend their sphere of influence over the whole range of community life. This has become necessary because, in addition to other things, these problems have become more complicated and complex and they need the knowledge and the expertise of the university mind to be applied to them. Also, from

the point of view of proper education of the individual, it is important - particularly in developing countries like ours - that he should realize the intimacy of his relationship with the community and participate in the constant process of improving it.

3. Let me give a few examples to underline this point.

- (a) There are many universities and colleges in different parts of the country which are situated in unhealthy, unhygienic, unattractive surroundings which have done nothing to improve them, either in their own interest or in the interest of the local community. They have allowed slums to grow near them or in the area around them and taken no steps even to draw the attention of the civic authorities to them, let alone any actual steps being taken to remove them.
- (b) The economic condition of the people living in their vicinity has failed to attract their attention. They are not concerned about it. Even their Departments of Economics & Sociology do not usually carry out surveys of the position and apply their expertise to solving the problems which harass their neighbours. One knows of certain universities which started with scientific surveys and found themselves plunged into service.
- (c) Universities with Departments of Agriculture and Colleges of Agriculture have usually not played any effective part in raising the efficiency of agricultural operations in their neighbourhood. It is only recently that some

Extension Service activities have been started but a general complaint is still voiced that they are cut off from life in the villages and do not carry over the fruit of their research and experience into the field.

- (d) Medical Colleges have likewise had little impact on the health situation. It is not contended that, during the period of their training, the students can devote a great deal of their time to providing medical services to the people. But the College, as a whole, with its staff and students, forms a powerful unit for carrying on medical education of the neighbouring community and can render some active service.
- (e) Ignorance and illiteracy have merrily thrived under the walls of the university and the colleges, even when they have been functioning in a particular locality for decades. Even all the servants living in the university area have not acquired literacy. There have been sporadic attempts at starting literacy campaigns but they have petered out after some time. There is, to my knowledge, no University or College which can claim that it has fully eradicated illiteracy from its campus.
- (f) One of the most important functions of a University is to carry on Extension Services, to organise continuation classes, to offer part time education of varying kinds and to conduct correspondence courses.

for members of the community. Many of the European, American and Russian universities have recognised this as an essential part of their duties and have extended their facilities enormously in this direction. In India, only a few Universities have made a beginning in this direction somewhat apologetically. But there is no general recognition of their importance yet and consequently no schemes are being implemented.

One can give many other instances but it is not necessary. What can we do about it?

4. (a) I feel that every University should have an Extension Department, adequately staffed and financed, which will be responsible for all the instructional work to be attempted by the University. As more resources become available, the scope of the work can be increased but every University should immediately make a beginning depending on its local situation. The various Departments of the University should give their closest cooperation to the Extension Department.
- (b) Students of the various Departments should be closely involved in activities necessary for the good of the community. The type of activities selected will depend on the aptitudes of the students, the leadership offered by members of the staff and the opportunities offered by members of the staff and the opportunities offered by the local situation. Some of the activities

will, therefore, be determined by the special training received by the students. There will be others in which all types of students will participate to organise projects which are of value to the community.

- (c) The University should regard itself as an agency to which problems can be referred for solution. These will be of various kinds, economic, technical, sociological, and one of the purposes of the University should be to find ways and means of tackling them. It should carry on surveys of various kinds, take some of the problems to the laboratories and apply its techniques of study and research to them. While the University has, on the one hand, to concern itself with issues which are universal, it is also concerned with the special problems of its region in which it is situated. A study of these problems should, therefore, be a particular responsibility of each University.
- (d) Social Service Camps should be organised regularly by the University to enable the students to come into educative contact with the rural (or urban) population and their problems and they should be given the opportunity to serve the locality in various ways. There are other possible variations of the idea, e.g. the 'adoption' of a neighbouring village or some particular mohalla in the city to which groups of students may go regularly in order to carry on campaigns of literacy, sanitation, reform

of social customs or to suggest possible ways of improving the economic position. Experience of this kind is of far greater value than, say, the training given by the N.C.C.

- (e) It has been suggested that every student should give back in the form of service the debt which he owes to society for providing him with the benefits of higher education. This should be built into the traditions of all institutions so that he may come to accept it as a part of his normal duty.

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INTER-DISCIPLINARY APPROACHES TO THE  
STUDY OF EDUCATION

BY  
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EDUCATION COMMISSION  
UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION BUILDING  
BAHADUR SHAH ZAFAR MARG, NEW DELHI  
1965

INTER-DISCIPLINARY APPROACHES TO THE  
STUDY OF EDUCATION

Inter-disciplinary approaches to the study of Education have been conspicuous by their absence in India and this is probably the main reason why our understanding of the problems of Indian Education leaves much to be desired. In practice, if not in theory, we have identified 'education' with 'training of teachers' or pedagogy.

2. One of the important programmes in deepening our understanding of the problems of Indian education is, therefore, to develop inter-disciplinary studies in education covering such areas as (a) education and philosophy; (b) education and sociology; (c) education and economics; (d) education and public administration; and (e) education and psychology. The last of these areas has been studied to some extent; but hardly any beginning has been made in respect of the first four. In the programme of the Commission, however, some pioneer work in all these four areas has been planned.

3. Philosophy of Education: With regard to an inter-disciplinary study of philosophy and education, a Seminar was organised at Poona (18-20 May, 1965) with the assistance of Prof. D.D. Vadekar and Dr. Chitra Naik. The report of this Seminar is being submitted to the Commission separately; and there will be some follow-up studies in two specific areas which could not be fully covered in this seminar, viz., (i) tradition and modernity in Indian education; and (ii) the moral and spiritual education. Regarding the first, it is proposed to bring

out a volume entitled 'A Philosophy for Indian Education' containing a set of thematic papers on the subject written by eminent philosophers and educators. The project will be financed by the NCERT. Regarding the second, further work is being done in collaboration with a few interested persons and it also proposed to hold a seminar to discuss the problem in all its aspects. It is hoped that both these supplementary follow-up studies would also be completed by the end of October 1965.

4. Sociology of Education: With regard to the inter-disciplinary study of education and sociology, a Seminar was held at Bombay (12-14 December, 1964) with the assistance of Dr. M. S. Gore, Director, Tata Institute of Social Sciences. The report of this seminar has already been submitted to the Commission. As a result of this seminar, two follow up studies have been taken up: (1) preparation of a special volume on sociology of education in India which would contain thematic papers written by eminent Indian Sociologists; and (ii) the organisation of a research study into the social effects of the educational system. Both these projects are being financed by the NCERT and their results are expected to be available by December 1965.

5. Education and Economics: In respect of the inter-disciplinary study of education and economics, some preliminary preparation is being done in the Task Force on Educational Finance and it is proposed to follow it up with a seminar sometime in September 1965.

6. Education and Public Administration: As regards the inter-disciplinary study on education and public administration, the following programmes have been planned:-

(1) a Seminar on Secularism in collaboration with the Indian Law Institute (the project is being financed by the Ford Foundation and some assistance is being asked for from the U.G.C. also);

(2) a Seminar on Educational Implications of the Constitution, for which preparations are being made in collaboration with the Indian Law Institute;

(3) Compilation of a Digest of all Cases relating to Education and decided by all High Courts and the Supreme Court between 26.1.1950 and 31.3.1964, in collaboration with the Indian Law Institute. The project will be financed by the NCERT; and

(4) a Seminar on Educational Administration in collaboration with the Indian Institute of Public Administration.

All these projects will be completed by December 1965.

It is hoped that these efforts would give us a better understanding of the problems involved and thereby help us in drafting the final report of the Commission. Incidentally, they would also help us to make concrete and precise recommendations regarding the manner in which inter-disciplinary studies of this type can be developed in future.

J.P. Naik  
Member-Secretary

RAISING OF STANDARDS IN THE UNIVERSITIES

By

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1965.

RAISING OF STANDARDS IN THE UNIVERSITIES

1. The central problem of education in India is, in some ways, the raising of its standards all through - from the lowest to the highest stage of education. But this becomes more urgent as we pass from the primary to the secondary and secondary to higher education. On account of various pressures and expediencies, it is possible to compromise, to some extent, with quality at the lower stages of education but to do so at the stage of higher education will be disastrous. If the country is to be provided with leadership of the right quality, it is necessary to ensure that education in our Colleges and Universities will insist on creating high standards of intellect and scholarship as well as character. One is not anxious to reduce the number of students at that stage; in fact, with the growth of science and technology and the demands of the national situation as a whole, an ever increasing number of highly qualified young men and women will be needed in future. But there is no understandable reason for continuing the present policy of admitting large numbers of students in universities who are not competent or capable of working with the requisite degree of seriousness of purpose and application. What is more such students are not only admitted in colleges but the conditions in many colleges are so unsatisfactory that they are unable to work properly even if they wanted to do so. Moreover, many students find admission to reasonably good Colleges who, for want of intellect or character, refuse to work seriously. On account of a number of socio-political causes, the Principals of many Colleges and the Vice-Chancellors of many Universities are unable to show them the door even when they are satisfied that they will not make the grade and will exercise a positively demoralising effect on the rest of the students. If education is to be retrieved from disaster, we must come firmly to the policy decision that such students will either not be admitted or not retained in the College, whatever the price we have to pay for this decision.

Because of a lack of firmness or misplaced charity or lack of courage, we have followed a policy of least resistance and dignified it with various deceptive names, like equality of educational opportunity, democratic urges and what not. Equality of opportunity does not mean that every one has the right to receive higher education of the same kind and democracy is not synonymous with spending our scarce resources on the education of the incompetents. If we were living in an affluent society, we could afford to provide institutional higher education for all and sundry but such is not the case. If something like two-thirds of our students in the universities and colleges fall by the road-side, it is a criminal waste of resources which we cannot afford.

2. The raising of the standards, therefore, demands, in the first place, a rational policy of admission. Some of the implications of this policy have been examined in another paper. If admissions can be controlled properly, the first and most important condition will be satisfied. The second condition is the recruitment of staff of good quality, arrangements for their inservice training and the adoption of various measures to improve their professional efficiency. This involves a large number of factors. There is, for instance, the question of fixing reasonable grades for them. In recent years, thanks to the assistance of the U.G.C., the grades of teachers in the universities have been revised upwards and although teachers are not yet fully satisfied, there is not much dissatisfaction in the universities where they have been introduced. It would be necessary, however, to introduce them into the rest of the universities also. But a far greater educational and financial problem is the revision of the grades in the Colleges in India which are generally unsatisfactory and the cause for considerable heart-burning. The position has become so acute that, in many first-class Colleges, which are doing excellent work, it is becoming

increasingly difficult to retain their staff. In some of them, the head of the postgraduate department with many years of teaching experience, gets a grade which is little better than the grade of a lecturer in a university. It has been suggested that there should be only two grades in institutions of higher learning, with appropriate efficiency bars which should be enforced carefully, so that every one who does good work is assured of a reasonable future. Under the present system, a Lecturer cannot look forward to a Readership or a Reader to the Professorship unless the incumbent goes to some other place or retires or dies. One of the motivations to do good work is thus rendered inoperative. It is, therefore, essential to undertake a review of the salaries of college teachers with a view to make it more or less commensurate with those of university teachers with similar qualifications and doing similar work. If this is not done as a matter of urgency, there is a danger that many of the comparatively few colleges which are still doing good work will lose their traditions of quality and their character - which will be an educational tragedy of great magnitude.

3. However, more than a question of salary is involved here. There are various other amenities which are as important - if not more - than the emoluments paid and, if these were provided, the members of the faculty will be able to carry on their work with an ease of mind. Amongst these are some which are well-known - housing provision, adequate provident fund and insurance policies, facilities for the education of their children etc. There are others which are educationally even more important - adequate facilities for study and research, library and/or laboratory facilities, companionship of congenial minds, a proper atmosphere for creative work etc. For persons who are genuinely interested in teaching and research, the provision of conditions which favour such activities outweighs, within reasonable limits, the comparative financial handicaps from which they suffer.

4. There is another important condition necessary for getting good work out of the faculty. A University or a College should not be conducted like a Government office where rules are laid down and orders are issued which every one is expected to carry out. (In fact, it is doubtful whether that is the proper procedure even in the case of most Government offices). Creative teaching and research require a great deal of freedom - freedom in the formulation of programmes of work, freedom in the choice of teaching methods and techniques, freedom in assessment etc. When one speaks of the autonomy of colleges and universities, one is thinking of the difference that should exist between a regimented office and a community of scholars, junior and senior, who are knit together for the purpose of teaching and learning and who are free to experiment with new ways and techniques of teaching and research. This is the ideal towards which every educational institution should move. One recognises that there are institutions which, due to a variety of reasons, are not capable of bearing the burden of this responsibility, and they will be given the necessary freedom as and when they are able to shoulder it. But the movement should be in that direction and the weaker institutions must be helped to do so by removing the conditions which fetter their growth. But, in the meanwhile, there is no reason why good colleges and universities should not be allowed to exercise necessary freedom in the choice of their curricula and courses, teaching methods, examinations, etc. Or why they should be fettered by the same irritating rules of the Department and/or the Managing Committees which restrict the freedom of the weaker Colleges. Perhaps it is the desire to 'play safe', to avoid public criticism that is behind this policy of applying exactly the same rules and procedures to all types of institutions - good, bad and indifferent. It is necessary to break through this courageously and recognise that there are Colleges and Universities - of different degrees of excellence

(or otherwise) and they deserve to be treated differently in the matter of grant-in-aid, the degree of autonomy allowed to them etc. If this principle is generally accepted, it will tend to encourage the better Colleges to improve their standards further and also possibly help the poorer Colleges to overcome their handicaps. In any case, there is no justification to allow doubts and suspicions - which may have some justification in the case of inferior Colleges - to determine the policy of universities and Departments of Education towards all colleges.

5. The next question that calls for consideration is the inservice training of teachers - the old as well as the new. At present, we proceed on the assumption that any one who has passed the M.A. or M.Sc. examination - preferably in the 2nd Division - is good enough to teach. No training of any kind is considered necessary for the purpose. It is usual to find an M.A. or M.Sc., with little or no teaching experience, who is selected for appointment, being entrusted with the full quota of his teaching load. He does not know even the mechanics of teaching, to say nothing of understanding the psychology of the students of the objectives of education or the purposes of the courses which he is to teach. Even a visit by the Chairman of the Department or some other senior colleague is considered infradig. Under the circumstances, it is understandable why many members of the faculty go under and a matter for gratification that many do not! To deal with this situation, several proposals have been made. One of them is that the period of probation should be considerably lengthened - three to five years - and no new teacher should be confirmed unless he has given, during this period, due evidence of being interested in his work, including both teaching and research, and possessing the personal qualities which are considered essential for a teacher - capacity to get on pleasantly with his fellow members of the faculty, ability to handle students, courage to express his opinions and loyalty to the institution.

Five years is a long enough period to form a proper estimate of his ability and character. The fear has been expressed that this lengthening of the period of probation - or a contract appointment - may result in creating a feeling of insecurity in the teachers concerned or they may spend most of their time in trying to court the favour of the Chairman etc. The risk is certainly there but it has to be taken for, on the other hand, is the much greater risk of the college being encumbered by an incompetent or undesirable person for thirty years or more. The procedures for getting rid of a confirmed employee are so difficult and complicated and legal issues arise out of such action so frequently that we cannot rely on them.

6. It has been suggested that it would be a good idea to recruit the best of the old alumni of the institution for some of the junior posts. They will be well-known to the members of the staff and their real merit - not merely in academic terms but in terms of character and personality also - can be judged better. The only condition is that, so far as humanly possible, personal favouritism should not come into the picture. The procedure has been suggested for the junior posts only, because it is necessary to avoid in-breeding and get fresh intellectual breeze into the classrooms of the Colleges.

7. To arrange the in-service training of faculty, some measures have been taken in recent years, e.g. the institution of Summer Institutes, organising of seminars, workshops, refresher courses, conferences of faculties. These need to be organised on a larger and more systematic basis. In addition, it is necessary to widen the opportunities for work for the old and new members of the faculty, e.g. by exchange of teachers amongst colleges and universities, by the introduction of the sabbatical year etc. Some money should be provided in the budget of each university which would make it possible for suitably qualified members of the faculty to go as visiting teachers to other universities. This will be a source

of special encouragement to comparatively junior members of the staff whose merit will be recognised in this way. It should also be the responsibility of senior members of the faculty to offer tactful guidance to their junior colleagues in methods of teaching and handling classes and there should be no objection to the senior or junior members attending each other's classes. This is a fairly common practice in some countries, e.g. the U.S.A. where members of the staff often attend the seminars or lectures of their colleagues.

It has been alleged, not without justification, that there is sometimes "pettiness and jealousy amongst colleagues" and the Chairman and senior members of the Department resent their brilliant junior colleagues and are apt to hinder their research and advanced studies - lest they should be outshone by their achievements. These junior teachers are, therefore, discouraged not only by lack of opportunities to advance to higher posts but by the attitude of indifference or hostility that the senior teachers adopt towards their research activities. As the so-called "proper channel" approach is insisted upon in universities almost as much as in Govt. offices, all requests and proposals have to go through the Chairman and/or the Dean. If they are unsympathetic, they can hold them up just by taking no action! Such a relationship is unworthy of university men and women, and unless the Vice-Chancellors, Chairmen, Deans and public opinion of the university improve human relationships, nothing worthwhile can be done.

8. It would be a good thing to build up, in some of the bigger universities, a Conference centre which would provide facilities for holding seminars, round-table conference, orientation courses for university teachers in which some senior and distinguished teachers of other universities may also be invited to participate. Another possibility that can be tried is to establish, on a regional basis, something corresponding to a permanent 'staff

Administrative Training College' to organise short-term training courses of various kinds for the members of the faculties of different universities.

9. A separate note is being prepared on post-graduate teaching and research. It is only necessary to state here that the promotion of these is an integral part of the improving of standards. It is not suggested that every teacher of the university should be able to carry on publishable research or make original contribution to knowledge. Such research would naturally be confined to a comparatively small number of the faculty but it is of the utmost importance that all teachers should, in due course, have a chance to associate with post-graduate teaching, which offers a special intellectual challenge. Secondly, it is essential that every teacher should carry on some research or investigate or study for the sake of his own intellectual health and the stimulation of the students' intellectual interests. Arrangements should also exist in every university for exchange of ideas amongst teachers working in different areas of knowledge because the growing points of thinking and research often lie along the frontiers of different studies. Inter-departmental and intra-departmental meetings should be held from time to time to encourage exchange of ideas and promote research.
10. Another point of concentration in this campaign should be the systematic and imaginative encouragement of reading on the part of students - the effective use of the Library. It is true that, in this respect, students suffer from various handicaps - they cannot afford to buy books; many of the colleges have quite inadequate libraries and the servicing is defective; their knowledge of English is often not good enough for the study of books in English, and there are not enough significant books in the various regional languages. But even granting all this, the basic cause is the lack of interest on their part in reading. In many

universities, good libraries have been built up recently but many of the students do not take full advantage of them, though the response to the Text Book libraries is, on the whole, better. Various factors have contributed to this deplorable situation, amongst which perhaps the most important is our system of examinations. The students and the teachers are usually concerned with getting through the examinations, guessing (or trying to obtain!) The question papers, confining their 'study' only to those questions likely to be asked and reading, for this purpose, lecture notes, market notes or books directly bearing on the preparation for examination. Methods must be devised which will shift the stress from memory work to intelligent comprehension, analysis and application of knowledge. (This problem is being tackled by the appropriate group in the Commission). At present, the situation is so ludicrous that, if an examiner asks a question which differs from the stereotype, students are apt to feel aggrieved, to go on strike and take the examiner to task. The university authorities, too, generally consider that, in setting such questions, the examiner has not played fair with students!

11. A word may be added about the impact of the syllabi and courses on the standard of teaching. There is a great deal of dead weight and out-dated matter in the syllabus of various subjects, but significant, up to date subject matter has not been incorporated in many of the syllabi. Under the circumstances, the intellectual powers of the students are not stretched to the full; they and their teachers fail to make a correct estimate of their own powers; they are not challenged, stimulated or inspired by a love for scholarship. A concerted attempt should be made by all the universities to modernize their courses. There is reason to believe that such efforts are deprecated or discouraged by some of the senior teachers of the universities because they are not themselves conversant with the new dimensions in their subject and are afraid it will require serious study on their part which

they are not prepared to put in. Sometimes, there is a single Board of Studies which lays down both the undergraduate and postgraduate courses of studies. Its members include many undergraduate teachers who are not anxious to raise the standards of postgraduate courses lest this should lead to raising the standards of the first degree examination! This provides a kind of built-in mechanism for keeping standards of the courses low both at the postgraduate and undergraduate level. The present machinery in the Universities is too slow and conservative to make for quick, desirable changes. Perhaps a closer association of the younger members of the staff with the syllabus making bodies would be desirable. Also, the association of many ex-officio members with the Academic Council, which finally approves the changes in the syllabi, tends to perpetuate the status quo. In some Universities the Senate has more than 150 members, the Academic Council more than 100 and even the Boards of Studies have as many as 25. The size of these bodies as well as the manner of their composition make it impossible to prevent non-academic considerations from playing an important part in their deliberations. Necessary changes should be introduced in the constitution of these bodies to ensure that new and creative ideas receive a fair hearing.

12. In many Universities, a physical growth in size is confused with academic development. New buildings are constructed, new Departments opened and new teachers appointed without a careful scrutiny of the proposals from the point of view of the University as an academic community. There is no special Committee specifically charged with the task of thinking out problems of academic development. There is no exchange of ideas, in many cases, between the Departments and the Administration about these problems and, therefore, even if there are any new creative ideas they do not come to the fore. It is desirable that every University should have such a Committee.

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with some distinguished outside members, concerned with issues of academic development and their opinion should be invited wherever such problems are under examination.

POLICY OF ADMISSIONS

by

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1965

POLICY OF ADMISSIONS

1. This note is written against the background of the paper on Problems of University Education and of the discussions that have taken place in and outside the Commission on the policy of admission in the Universities. It attempts to formulate certain broad general conclusions that have so far been reached on the issue.

2. There is fairly general agreement that at present there is no carefully thoughtout policy which determines admission to Colleges and Universities. Subject to the availability of space - and in many cases without regard to space - everyone who applies is admitted, except in a few select institutions which are concerned with the maintaining of their standards and reputation or in institutions providing medical or technical education and in science courses where the availability of laboratory facilities has to be taken into account to some extent. The only effective check applied so far has been by the U.G.C. which has laid down that Colleges will not be entitled to any grant if they do not bring down their enrolment to a thousand or hold out an assurance of doing so by gradual stages. Or, they can increase the enrolment if they have made provision in their building, staff and equipment for larger numbers. This has not, however, had an adequate impact on all the Colleges because they do not come under the purview of U.G.C. grants. Moreover, the new conditions that have arisen in recent years make it necessary that we should explore the possibilities of building up large Colleges, with a greater enrolment, without, however, bringing down the standards.

3. It has been proposed that at the end of class X, we should develop something like a Junior College which will serve two purposes. It will provide a point of

diversion for those who want to go into various technical, occupational and secretarial courses and thus reduce the pressure on the Universities. At present far too many students go on to join the College in the hope of taking the B.A. degree and then seek some kind of training for a profession. There is no reason, for instance, why a person should seek to become a clerk after taking the first degree. Secondly, this Junior College will provide intensive training for two years for those who wish to join the University. During this period of training, corresponding somewhat to the sixth form training in the British educational system, the students will be prepared intellectually for the work of the University. They will master the techniques of independent learning, will learn English more adequately and use it for acquiring knowledge. Incidentally, some of the students in this College may realize that they do not have the capacity to proceed further in Arts and Science education and may be diverted into other channels. The Junior College will, therefore, serve as a buffer between the school and the university and take off some of the pressure from the latter.

4. This should not, however, lead us to the conclusion that the problem of admissions will be solved by establishing the Junior Colleges. There will still be very large numbers of students wishing to join the Arts and Science Colleges in the belief that the taking of a Degree will open to them many doors of advancement, which will otherwise remain closed to them. There is a measure of truth in this belief which cannot be ignored. The question has, however, to be faced whether putting inferior students through a three years course will ultimately be in their own interest. Apart from the fact that with our comparatively meagre resources we cannot afford to go on opening new

Colleges and Universities indefinitely, it is a moot point whether provision of liberal education for some of these students, who have neither love of scholarship nor the capacity for academic learning, is worth while. If our resources were unlimited, there would be something to be said for providing liberal education to all young men and women - it will give them a kind of polish and enable them to spend a few years in a pleasant academic atmosphere. But we are generally speaking not in a position to invest in purely decorative education for students who are either mentally unfitted or not prepared to work seriously. Speaking, therefore, to some extent in my personal capacity, I would be disinclined to open the doors of higher education to such candidates.

5. How shall we admit students then to our Colleges and Universities? We have to make up our mind regarding the policy to be followed in this behalf. The 'open door' policy followed in some States is obviously undesirable. Two alternative methods have been proposed to deal with the situation. One of them is to stop the growth of sub-standard institutions which are also the worst sinners in this regard. Students who are unable to find admission in good Colleges are generally able to get admitted in these other Colleges which lack the necessary resources and personnel. The suggestion has been made that the University should insist on certain standards being maintained and conditions being satisfied in all recognised Colleges. The second approach to the problem is following a policy of selection, which grows gradually more strict from the first degree to the B.A. (Hons), M.A. and the Ph.D. There are at present Universities which allow any III class M.A. to take up research! The real difficulty, however, lies at the first degree level where the pressure of ill-qualified candidates is most acute. At this stage, we can either lay down a certain percentage of marks or debar from admission, say,

all III class candidates, as is done by the Delhi University. Marks are by no means an adequate criterion for selection but, while admitting this, we must recognize that no other easy-of-use criterion is available for making a selection from the very large number of applicants who wish to join Colleges. In view of this difficulty, I would be prepared to bar out third divisioners, provided that those who wish to be admitted are allowed to take a competitive test, administered by the College. This would ensure that a candidate is not debarred for ever if he scores two or three marks less than the minimum required for II Division. He will still be given a chance to show that his merit is higher than indicated by the marks obtained in his last examination. In addition every candidate shall be asked to produce his cumulative record card and a testimonial from the Headmaster which would give an assessment of his work and capacity. If the number of seats in Colleges does not permit all eligible candidates to be admitted, these cards and testimonials will enable the Principal to make his selection.

6. In the first year of the 3-year degree course, all students should, in the first instance, be admitted to B.A.(Pass). During this year, their work will be watched carefully by the teachers concerned and they will decide, in consultation with the student, whether he should be admitted to the B.A. (Hons) course. In the Universities where admission to the Honours courses has been made carefully, there is little wastage and a large majority of students are able to pass creditably.

7. In the M.A. no admissions should be made on the basis of charity. The Honours students will all be admitted - unless there is some special reason to deny admission to a particular student. All the first class students and students taking above 50% in the B.A. (Pass) will also be admitted. If any of the others wish to join, they will have

to take a competitive test and, subject to the availability of seats, those who secure the highest marks should be admitted.

8. For admission to the Ph.D. only first class and second class M.A's should be admitted after the College or University authorities have satisfied themselves that they are really capable of carrying on research. It should be for the University to consider, after <sup>at</sup> least one year of work, whether the candidate possesses the type of mind to embark on a piece of original research. In case he fails to give evidence of this capacity, he should be firmly told that he will not be allowed to do research.

9. The College or the University should, at all stages, exercise firmly the right to weed out students who refuse to, or are incapable of working satisfactorily. This should be preceded of course, by an attempt to understand the factors responsible for their backwardness or lack of attention and by sympathetic advice and guidance. But, if after these things have been done and due notice given, he fails to show improvement or continues to be a bad influence on other students, he should be asked firmly to leave the institution. Nothing is gained by showing undue charity to such students.

10. In the case of specially backward and under-privileged classes, students who fail to fulfil these minimum targets, may be selected for admission subject to two conditions. Firstly, amongst such students the most meritorious should be selected and when they have been admitted - preferably a couple of months before the session is due to begin - special arrangements should be made to provide coaching for them in methods of learning as well as linguistic ability. For, they are often weak in expression and need special coaching. It is, however, to be understood that, even in the case of these students, those who refuse to work satisfactorily will be weeded out like the others.

11. Even after all these measures have been taken to control education, there will be more candidates desirous of pursuing higher education than the seats available in the Colleges and Universities. In order to meet this demand to some extent, openings will be provided for such candidates in Evening Colleges, Correspondence courses and the concession of appearing privately in the examination. The degrees obtained by these marginal routes will also make students eligible for Government service and semi-Government for which a B.A. degree is essential. An indication will, however, be given of the manner in which the degree has been obtained by the candidate.

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WORKING DAYS AND HOURS OF INSTRUCTION FOR  
SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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WORKING DAYS AND HOURS OF INSTRUCTION FOR  
SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

It is necessary to create a climate of hard work and motivation in our schools and colleges. In this connection, the following issues need discussion:-

(1) The number of days for vacations should be reduced.

The total duration of all vacations in a given year should not exceed eight weeks.

(2) There is at present a good deal of difference between the vacations given to schools and colleges. There is no reason for such discrimination. In future, the vacations to all educational institutions - both at the school and the university stage - should not exceed eight weeks in an academic year.

(3) The total number of holidays in a year should not exceed three weeks for any purpose whatsoever (including general or local holidays).

(4) This will leave a total of 41 weeks for work. Out of this, not more than two-or three weeks should be set aside for examinations and other purposes so that the total time available for teaching shall be not less than 38 weeks and, if possible, even 39 or 40 weeks.

(5) The educational institutions at all levels should function for  $5\frac{1}{2}$  hours per day (excluding the time for recess<sup>and</sup> for extra-curricular activities like the school assembly) or for  $6\frac{1}{2}$  to 7 hours on week days and for 3-5 hours on Saturdays. The total time for which the educational institutions work in a week should vary from 34 to 40 hours. There should be no differentiation in the hours of working for the schools as well as for the institutions of higher education.

(6) The total number of instructional hours (actual instructional hours in the class-room - excluding home-work assignments, self-study periods, days set aside for examinations etc) per school year should be 1200, for all

educational institutions. This period may be reduced, on educational considerations, for pre-primary and primary schools. But there should be no reduction in the work-load of teachers for whom special programmes may be organised at these stages.

(7) There is also a good case to declare that all educational institutions should work all the year round as non-vacation departments. This will need some additional staff; but in spite of it, the utilization of facilities will improve and there would be a much better return on investment than at present.

(8) A regular programme should be drawn up to make a better use of vacations. For this purpose, the long vacation should come, not at the end of the school year, but in its middle.

(9) The school and university academic years should be the same and not different as in Bihar and Bengal.

An interesting article on this subject by Mr. George Taylor is enclosed for information.

J.P. Naik  
Member-Secretary  
Education Commission.

WORK STUDY IN THE CLASSROOM

by

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One thousand hours - this is not an alternative version of the present Government's first hundred days but the total time devoted each year by the rising generation to learning in school. Five and a half hours a day, five days a week, for thirty-eight or thirtynine weeks a year. Students, we learn from the recently issued appendix to the Robbins Report, work approximately a thirty-hour week (inclusive of private study) during term time. The equivalent of 900 hours annually this is about the same time as infants spend in school.

An increasing number of expensive buildings are being provided for this limited use by children and students, but little thought is given to the level of productivity achieved by the considerable capital expenditure involved. Suggestions are made from time to time, and received in silence, that universities and training colleges should be used more intensively, that four-term years should be established, libraries and laboratories utilised during evenings and weekends.

Inadequate Use

Surprisingly, proposals to mitigate a shortage of practical facilities and to secure a more economic use of costly staff as well as buildings have not so far been made relative to secondary schools, although similar expansionist factors are operating here to those in higher education. More children are remaining at school to complete a five-year course, and, in addition, most sixth forms have doubled in the last six years. To meet this expansion, governing bodies press for increased specialist facilities, more laboratories and practical rooms, and larger libraries - all to be used like those already in service for a mere

thousand hour each year. And yet a casual visitor walking through any large school on a normal day will encounter empty room after empty room, vacant because children are in the gymnasium or swimming bath, on the playing fields or studying art and science and housecraft in practical rooms. A visit to a comprehensive school will reveal a vast empty hall designed to accommodate some 1,600 children for the daily corporate act of worship required to comply with the Education Act. An organisation and methods team would have much to say in criticism of the inadequate use made of the school plant.

How can the productivity of buildings be increased? The obvious answer is a lengthening of the school day. This measure would affect the school buildings, the teaching staff, and the pupils in different ways. An addition of two hours a day to the timetable would permit a more economic and less rigid use of libraries, practical rooms, laboratories and gymnasia. In fact, it increases the availability of specialist rooms by 40 per cent; a simple calculation reached by adding two to five hours of the normal daily use of rooms (the remaining half-hour being spent in assembly and break). To express this in another way, an extended timetable enables five laboratories to replace seven.

This proposal does not, however, imply a longer working week for teachers, although it will involve an adjustment of hours for all teachers; an adjustment which would provide a welcome free morning or afternoon and make easier the absorption of part-time teachers into the work of the school.

#### Effective Study

For children, a longer school day has its advantages; it would include time for grammar school societies and for preparation to be supervised by non-teaching ancillary staff. Supervised private study with all the necessary books to hand and without the interruption of television and the unhelpful presence of other members of the family could be an effective

use of time, and to leave school at 6 p.m. with work finished for the day would enable children to participate more actively in family life and to have more free time for their own interests. Objections on the grounds of hunger and fatigue could be met by the provision of snacks from the school kitchen, another very under-used part of the school plant; paper rounds would suffer and domestic duties at home would not be performed, but they should give way to educational considerations. It may be suggested that transport will present problems and in rural areas this is more than possible. The majority of children are, however, city dwellers and transport undertakings might prove most cooperative in making special arrangements after the peak rush hour is over.

#### Unproductive

The unproductive use of schools during the twelve weeks of holiday cannot be omitted from any discussion of productivity. During holiday periods, the serious older boy and girl could profit from working or reading in the school library; the practically minded and those who have insufficient time for practical or artistic pursuits during the term would welcome access to workshops and art rooms; sixth-form linguists could make good use of audio aids; schools fortunate enough to possess a swimming bath could relieve the pressure on the meagre public provision by opening its doors to their own pupils.

Measures along these lines during holidays will increase the bill for salaries and wages, but this is inevitable when plant is used to capacity, whether it be in industry or education; the net gain is in the better service provided for pupils.

The economic development of staff and space in the education of sixth-form student raises another perhaps more familiar aspect of productivity. It is not unusual

in sizeable towns for four schools to present a total of nine candidates at 'A' level for music; for three schools within easy reach of one another to have among them seven taking Spanish, while children at the fourth are unable to offer this subject and for three children at two schools to include Greek in their 'A' level course. Streamlining would eliminate extravagant use of scarce (and costly) manpower and classrooms, and in the examples quoted, to which others could be added, nine teachers and nine classrooms could be reduced by two-thirds. Even large comprehensive schools are not an answer to the economic provision of courses in the less popular subjects, and the contemplated establishment of a large number of small comprehensive schools, all with 'A' level courses, will lead not only to an even more extravagant use of manpower and space but also to a reduction in the choice of subjects open to individual pupils. A longer school day and the consequent greater flexibility of timetables will make easier the concentration of the less common subjects in particular schools without the necessity for children to sever completely their connection with their own school.

Compared with schools, local colleges of higher education are models of productivity. In use morning, afternoon and evening, with canteens serving meals and snacks throughout the day and classes duplicated to provide a wide choice without timetable clashes, they give an excellent return on capital expenditure.

The better way

In the context of productivity, it is perhaps rash to mention the education of infants. Their working life consists of five hours a day, five days a week, for thirty-nine weeks in the year, a total of 900 hours, in a class of forty or more which will become fifty strong before long owing to the shortage of space. Is this arrangement to be preferred to a daily three-hour session for thirty-nine weeks (a total of nearly six hundred hours) in a class of twenty-five? There can be little doubt which of the two alternatives is the better educational experience and therefore the more productive.

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CONTINUATION EDUCATION

By

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CONTINUATION EDUCATION

Scope of the Problem

Education is a life long process "from the cradle to the grave". "Continuation education" refers to provision of opportunities of education to those whose education was either neglected or partial or those who wish to continue their education in one form or another outside the formal school system. It is designed to enable those who have not completed a stage of education to complete it and, if they wish, to proceed to the next; to help every educated person to have further education without formally enrolling in educational institutions; to enable a worker to acquire knowledge, ability and vocational skills in order to be a better worker and to improve his chances of earning more; to help to refresh the knowledge of the educated person and to enable him to keep pace with the new knowledge in the field of his interest; and to give opportunity to a person to learn a skill or a craft or an art or whatever subject it may be which he wishes to learn.

2. The Major Issues.

(a) Remedial Measures:

A pass at the examination taken by the children at the age of 14 should be treated as the national minimum of education for all. It is presumed that the regular school system would consider provision of part-time education, if possible on the basis of compulsion, to children up to the age of 14 who have 'dropped out' of the primary and middle schools. This measure which merits high priority will by itself be only partially adequate. There would still be;

(i) many above the age of 14, who had to leave

the school without attaining the minimum standard of education; and

(ii) many more who have become literates through the adult education campaigns and who are prepared to continue their education.

It is imperative that every possible effort should be made to bring education of persons in the two categories mentioned above up to the minimum standard. The gains of adult literacy campaigns must be consolidated by part-time instruction in primary and middle schools and in special centres for adult education. It should, therefore, be made the responsibility of the governments, assisted by the local bodies, municipalities, corporations and voluntary organisations to ensure:

(a) that the schools are adequately staffed and equipped to meet these requirements;

(b) that there is adequate supply of books and teaching material necessary for teaching purposes;

(c) that the teachers work beyond school hours for this purpose as a part of their normal duties;

(d) that adequate number of properly equipped, staffed and serviced adult education centres are established in suitable places to meet the needs, and

(e) that necessary pressures are maintained to keep up the spirit and create the climate favourable for adult education activities - through radio and other audio-visual aids, and

(f) that this work is helped by systematic supervision and inspection.

(b) A Parallel System

Every adult, who wishes to do so, should have the opportunity through a parallel system of continuation education to acquire education and to qualify for examinations which are normally open to those formally enrolled in schools, colleges and other educational institutions. It may be that the adult will take more time to complete courses and take the examinations than is taken normally by regular students. But the adult will have advantage of maturity and of determination to do so. The parallel system need not be confined to general education; in fact it is more desirable in the fields of vocational, technical and agricultural education. The parallel stream for continuing education can be rendered possible by the following measures:

(a) the doors of all educational institutions should be thrown open outside normal working hours for part-time education in special classes for adults seeking education;

(b) the staff in these institutions should be required as a part of their duty to provide instruction and guidance in these classes;

(c) additional staff of the type required should be provided wherever necessary, for it will be necessary to offer some relief particularly to the over-worked teachers in the secondary schools;

(d) correspondence courses should be initiated by the Boards and Universities, and if necessary, by private agencies, for training candidates for high schools, universities and other examinations;

(e) candidates who prepare on their own should be allowed to appear at the Board and University examinations privately - and assistance should be given to them by strengthening libraries in schools and colleges and throwing them open in the evenings to adults who wish to profit by them;

(f) (i) assistance of radio should be organised for teaching certain difficult themes;

(ii) tapes and gramophone records for containing talks and lessons by the best of teachers on certain important themes should be prepared and kept in the school, college and public libraries for use by serious students;

(iii) there should be a section of library of well chosen educational films in certain central libraries and facilities for projecting them for the benefit of the adult students;

(iv) where there is a sufficiently large group of serious private students or students in evening schools or those taking correspondence courses, brief peripatetic visits by experts should be organised to give guidance to encourage the adults.

(v) adult students who are required to do practicals in science, vocational or other subjects should be given opportunity for performing experiments or for workshop practice and the other practical work in the laboratories and workshops of schools, colleges, universities, technical institutions and agricultural institutions; and

(vi) the place of adult students in the night schools, of those learning through correspondence courses and of those preparing privately in the system of education should be recognised and they should be entitled to the best assistance which can be made available.

(c) Special Courses

A comparatively large number of adults will not be keen on studying for the usual certificates and degrees awarded by the Boards and universities. They would certainly be interested in taking short courses of studies in subject of special significance to their field of work. This applies to all fields of general, technical, agricultural and professional education. Such courses normally constitute parts of extension work undertaken by the various departments of universities, colleges and technical and agricultural institutions. The scope of these activities is enormous, but the initiative in the planning of these courses must come from the universities and technical institutes which will naturally consult the employers as well consider the special requirements of the people. These special courses can be a valuable instrument for assisting the quality of production and for enabling intelligent participation of the workers in economic production. In the fields of science, technology, agriculture and other similar fields, these lectures can be made most interesting by demonstrations and experiments and distribution of suitable literature.

This approach is particularly suited for putting across to the adult population with the assistance of

experts and of audio-visual means the significance of some of the urgent national problems such as population control, eradication of untouchability, national integration and production-mindedness. Imaginatively used this form of adult education can become a source of great national strength.

The system of continuing education should include provision of facilities for instruction in subjects not related to the vocational or career interests of the adult nor to ambition for formal education. He may wish to learn for his personal enjoyment a subject such as music, painting, sculpture, a craft or printing.

Institutions which can and voluntary agencies should be encouraged and assisted to undertake this type of education.

(d) Re-education

The educated people engaged in work, whether in the profession of teaching or in other professions, tend to become stale. While knowledge not fully used tends to get rusted, the growth of new knowledge provides challenge even to the vigilant students. Continuing education should provide opportunities to refresh knowledge and to get acquainted with the trends of its growth. The teachers, lawyers, doctors, administrators, commercial men - all need to renew knowledge in order to keep abreast with the times. The responsibility for education of this nature obviously rests with the universities and centres of higher technical and agricultural education and their extension services.

ERADICATION OF ILLITERACY

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ERADICATION OF ILLITERACY

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Eradication of Illiteracy

I. Statement of the Problem

A discussion on the problem of illiteracy in India needs to take into consideration the following points among other significant factors:

1. (a) In 1961 about 76% of our population was totally illiterate.

(b) Of about 24% of the literates whose education is below primary level is 63.1% (62% among men and 66% among women).

2. Total effort through primary education and adult education programmes during the last 60 years account for poor progress in literacy

Percentage of literates

Census Year	Total	Men	Women
'1901	6.2	11.5	1.7
'1911	7.0	12.6	1.1
'1921	8.3	14.2	1.8
'1931	9.1	15.3	2.4
@1941	14.6	- Not available -	-
*1951	16.6	24.9	7.9
*1961	24.0	33.9	12.8

(a) Since 1941 to 1961, which has been the most significant period in Indian history, the progress of literacy has been very poor; and the rate of growth during 1951-61 was roughly about 0.7% per year. In the decade referred to above, the progress has been 7.4% but consequent to the growth of population during this period (357 to 439 millions) there were 36 million more illiterates at the end of the decade. This indicates the defeat of

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' Figures taken from progress of illiteracy in various countries - Unesco publication. The figures refer to population in age-group of 10 years and over.

@ Figures noted from Statesman Year Book.

\* From Census Reports.

progress.

- (b) (i) Illiteracy among women as it stood in 1961 is appalling (82.7%).
- (ii) The rate of growth of literacy during the decade ending in 1961 has been tardy (4.9%) among women.
- (iii) Literacy among women is mostly concentrated in the urban areas (34.5%) and that in the rural areas it is hardly perceptible (8.9%).
- (c) (i) The gap in literacy in rural and urban areas is wide (19% and 47% respectively).
- (ii) The rate of growth in rural areas during the last decade has been much slower than in the urban areas (12.1% to 19% and 34.6% to 47% respectively).
- (iii) In 1961, 131 million of the age-group 14-45 - which is a significant group from many points of view - were illiterate.
- (iv) Position in industrial areas as reported by the Committee on Plan Projects is equally depressing. Some facts are quoted below:-
- |   |        |
|---|--------|
| Illiteracy (age group 16-45) among workers in |        |
| (a) tea plantations is                        | 81%    |
| (b) coal mining areas is                      | 83.15% |
| (c) jute mills                                | 70.68% |
| (d) cotton textiles                           | 62.85% |
| (e) Iron and steel mills                      | 73.7%  |
- (d) (i) The state of illiteracy and the rate of progress in its liquidation varies widely from State to State and Union Territory. Seven States and 3 Union Territories are

below the national level of 24% of literacy and the quality of literacy is negligible.\*

(ii) The range is much wider at district level. Out of 328 districts, 40 have literacy below 10% and 178 ranging from 10% to 19.9%. 67% of the districts are below national average literacy of 19% in rural areas.

## II. A Survey of the efforts to eradicate illiteracy

(i) Attempts to contain illiteracy among the adults are of recent origin. Except for a short-lived attempt in Bihar in 1937, a recent limited attempt in Maharashtra, mass movement based upon mass appeal has not been launched. Inspired and devoted leadership, which is the sustaining force of a movement of this nature, has not appeared in the country.

(ii) Much creditable systematic work has been done by voluntary organisations such as those in Bombay, Mysore and Literacy House in Lucknow. In 1961 there were 43,000 adult education centres where about 7,00,000 persons were made literate<sup>@</sup>. To this must be added the results of literacy work carried out in the Community Development Blocks. (Actual figures are being ascertained. They are not high). Most of the attempts are carried out by voluntary agencies confined mostly to urban areas; Some of these efforts have been very well conceived and worked out.

(iii) Since independence, the concept of social education was developed, laying greater stress on training in citizenship and democratic way of life. Literacy was no doubt an essential ingredient in the programmes of

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\* COPP Report on 'Social Education, Planning Commission, August, 1963. Page 11.

@ Third Five Year Plan, Chapter on Social Education.

social education and considerable stress was laid on it in the earlier stages of its development as in Madhya Pradesh and Delhi in early 1950s. The character of social education changed with its association with the scheme of Community Development.

(iv) There are at present 5238 community development blocks each one of which has a social education organiser. Whatever may be the gains in the field of training in citizenship and recreation, social education direction in the Community Development blocks has had negligible impact on eradication of illiteracy.

(v) A little digression may be justified in referring to a scheme which has great bearing on combating illiteracy. Perhaps one of the most systematic plans to prepare for removal of illiteracy among women was initiated by Mrs. Durgabai Deshmukh in 1957. The scheme had the merit of attending to the most essential requirement for adult education as well as other areas of welfare activities for women viz., the training of the personnel - by providing condensed courses to women whose education remained incomplete. The gains of the movement are that 9530 women received condensed training of which 429 are engaged in the work of teaching and 585 are undergoing teacher training (figures are for December, 1964)\*. This is one of the tried methods for creating personnel required particularly for educating of women.

(vi) Another experiment which has made a significant contribution was made in Maharashtra where the Social background was most helpful; the Scheme of "The Gram Shikshan Mohin". The Mohin aimed to arouse mass consciousness in the villages and relying on the

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\* Provisional figures from Central Social Welfare Board, New Delhi.

local enthusiasm and resources of personnel and material it endeavoured to wipe out illiteracy from villages. The main motivation was pride in the village and desire to place it in a position of advantage in the rural community. This movement has shown that with proper handling village societies can be enthused to organise successful literacy movements through self-effort and mutual cooperation which is one of the necessary ingredients of any scheme for liquidating illiteracy.

(vii) One of the most serious drawbacks of adult education drives is that the quality of literacy provided has been, generally speaking, too poor to be effective. Literacy is of little value unless the adults consciously realise, in a practical way, its effectiveness in the vital functions of their life - social, economic and personal. This they have not realised and the consequence has been relapse into illiteracy. Even the results of the Gram Shikshan Mohin have been diluted by the relapse into illiteracy of 46.1% of the adults made literate.

(viii) Survey of the recent efforts in the field of adult education reveal that ever since independence there has been no expression of the national will to drive out illiteracy from the land and of willingness to pay the price which such an endeavour demands. The quiet doggedness which characterised Russian determination to banish illiteracy after the Revolution and the total all-out drive planned by Russian leadership to that end, provided us with much to admire and little to emulate. A great moment to build up a national effort commensurate with the magnitude of the problem immediately after independence was allowed to let pass. Political leadership expressed its faith in attainment of full literacy but it found other areas of national venture more gainful. The

result of this lukewarm attitude is reflected in the meagre provision for adult education in the three successive plans:

	I Plan	II Plan	III Plan
Ministry of Education	Rs. 5 crores	Rs.5 crores	Rs. 25 crores
Ministry of Community Development	Nil	Rs.10 crores	Rs. 19 crores

A recent study of how these funds were spent on adult education made by the Planning Commission shows that about half the States in this country utilised less than 50% of the provision made for the purpose and that some States did not spend as much as 78.8 per cent of the provision.\* This indicates lack of seriousness of purpose, if not administrative incompetence; but this state of affairs is not understandable in the absence of a well-defined national policy. (An attempt is being made to find out the precise sum spent by the Ministry of Community Development on the removal of illiteracy. The assumption is that it was a mere fraction of the allotment for social education in the Plan).

(ix) The gains of whatever little efforts towards improving the state of literacy among the adults are lost by weak supporting services such as library service, provision of suitable material for neo-literates and other measures to keep literacy functionally alive. Some good work was done in this field in Madhya Pradesh, Jania Millia, Maharashtra, Madras and other places, but considering the vastness of the problem the effort is neither adequate nor well-sustained. It is found that strong and well-organised supporting services require serious endeavour in adult education in order to ensure its effectiveness.

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\* COPP Report on Social Education, Planning Commission, p.12

(x) What has the illiterate adult gained by being made literate through one or the other of the adult education schemes? A little prestige? - perhaps yes. Perhaps also a little ability to read simple literature - if it is available. Reading and writing of letters require better skill than can be imparted through simple literacy programmes. The extent to which a neo-literate can use the tools of literacy for his personal, social and economic betterment cannot be very great. Programmes of adult literacy can become worthwhile only when they are pursued vigorously and persistently till it becomes a meaningful weapon at the service of the adult and lead him on through continuation classes and special classes, self-study and other known means to a wider world of knowledge in his quest for personal enrichment, economic betterment and effective social participation. If adult education aims at less, it has less chances of success. As it is, the rate of relapse into illiteracy among the neo-literates should not be surprising if it is high.

### III. Why Adult Literacy Campaign?

When resources for education are restricted and many claims are made on them, some difficult choices are inevitable. It is necessary, therefore, to examine carefully the basis of the justification for adult literacy movement of any magnitude.

The Constitutional Directive requires all children to receive education up to the age of 14 and that gradually and by stages almost all States are moving in the direction of attainment of the objective. It is hoped that if plans go well, 76% of the children of the age group 6-11 will be in the schools by the end of the third Plan and 90% at the end of the fourth. In fact, some States hope to

provide education to all children between the ages of 6 to 11 well within a decade. Even the more tardy ones will approximate to fulfilment of this stage within a foreseeable future. It is thus assumed in certain circles that given full attention to the development of primary education, attainment of full literacy is only a question of time. Illiteracy among the adults is a dying phenomenon and there should be very strong reasons for hurrying its disappearance and hastening a natural process.

However, even the most robust optimist will have to admit that illiteracy takes a long time to disappear, however successful the schemes of primary education may be. To illustrate, out of 100 enrolled in class I in 1959-60, as many as 58 did not reach class IV in 1963. During this period, falling off among the boys was 55.4% and among girls 62%. With the best of efforts it will take time to remedy this phenomenon. The rate of growth of primary education in the past three plans has been considerable, but it has registered little effect on the state of mass illiteracy which in some ways is worse than a decade ago. There can be little gainsaying that the battle for literacy must be fought on both the fronts, primary and adult with equal sense of urgency. A lesser effort must face the danger of defeat. A total approach alone can shake off mass inertia and provide the basis for social upheaval which the country desperately needs. Prof. Alexandrov, during his talk with the members of the Commission, wondered how a national system of education could succeed in a society in which vast masses of people continued to be illiterate.

In a recent Harvard study made by Dr. Adam Curle, it is argued that when illiterate adults are made literate, their quality as workers is hardly affected. Thus from the point of view of investment in man, the returns in the

economic sense are negligible. If Dr. Adam Curle is right, one should be prepared for the possibility that the vast sums of money on adult may not produce marked improvement in the productivity of workers. Dr. Adam Curle has also pointed out to the need of ensuring quality in adult education programmes. The Times Education Supplement comments:

"The 'jam of literacy' should not be spread thinly and indiscriminately, thundered Dr. Adam Curle a year ago .... The jam, as he pointed out, is expensive and its supply is scarce." \*

There is no material available to support or to contradict Adam Curle's views regarding the effect of literacy on productivity but considering impressionistically and in the context of the Indian situation, it is expected that a worker in whatever field it may be will be a better worker if he is made literate. The literate is bound to acquire more confidence in himself and a sense of security and he would be able to communicate and understand better than before. Adult literacy does not merely aim to impart skill in the use of the tools of reading and writing; properly understood, it aims to improve the quality of the man which in turn must have bearing on his productive ability. In any circumstances, it would be well nigh impossible to isolate the single factor of literacy from a complex of other influencing factors and to assess its precise bearing on the quality of an adult worker. It is safe to assume that improvement in the quality of man consequent to his becoming literate will improve his quality as a worker.

Experience in Russia should provide a pointer. Mass education along with other attending factors changed

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\* The Times Education Supplement March 26, 1965  
- Editorial comment on page 911.

the character of the race and transformed it psychologically for active participation in social reformation. The success of the giant endeavour for the education of the illiterate masses aroused a sense of achievement and of national pride. It will be difficult to deny that the success of the schemes of mass education accounted in a big way for the progress made by Russia in the various fields, including the economic. Speaking at a recent Press Conference at Paris, Prof. Makhmoutov (Minister of Education of the Soviet Republic of Tatarastan) reminded the Indian correspondent who asked whether India could profit from Russia's experience especially in her attitude to local languages that there were 64 languages in the Soviet Union. "Before the revolution half the people did not speak Russian. After the revolution the students went out in the wilds and taught. There were no new methods, no machines, only pencils, papers and school rooms full of children by day and adults by night. The Government set aside large sums of money and delayed other projects until the Soviet Union was entirely literate. Literacy schemes are expensive." \* The attitudinal change in the outlook of the masses and the emotional energy created by the great educational effort cannot but be reflected in the limited economic evaluation.

The gulf between the educated few and the illiterate masses was a matter of deep concern for Mahatma Gandhi. He felt that the deepening of this new and more dangerous type of class distinction corroded the social fabric in the country to an extent that no social reform, not even educational, could be effective. The masses of illiterates feel neglected, isolated and uninvolved in the social process and suffer with a sense of fatalistic frustration, the arrogant snobbery and

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\* The Times Educational Supplement, March 26, 1964, page 923.

exploitation by the so-called educated. No law or administrative system can protect the illiterate and the ignorant and the boast of social justice in a society in which the vast bulk of the people are illiterate is vain.

It is unwise not to consider the risks we have taken by the neglect of mass education. Our much talked of democracy is a mere form and in actual working a grand farce. There is no real democracy when masses are illiterate. Power to vote is meaningless to an adult unless he has the means of enquiring and knowing what is at stake every time he casts his vote.

The country needs a social revolution to modernise a traditional society; but continuance of illiteracy will only strengthen hostility to change. It is futile to expect a revolutionary change in the attitudes and habits of the illiterate masses towards vital national problems such as population control and economic productivity. A formidable effort to eradicate illiteracy and educate the masses, the tremendous emotional upsurge necessary to sustain the effort, the determination and the sense of achievement and pride which the effort must of necessity involve, these and other attending factors will awaken the race from its traditional slumber and give it its dynamic character. Crash programmes for elimination of illiteracy are equally essential to national integration and to building up of a sense of national prestige.

It is the fundamental right of a human being to be literate. Avenues of knowledge, which the written word provides, should be open to him so that he may learn what is meaningful to him, communicate intelligently with his fellow beings in the world which is getting crowded more than ever before and to improve the quality of his life. The ignorant cannot remain free "

"knowledge is liberation", liberation from the dogmatic

traditionalism which characterises life and thought of the people and keeps them in shackles. Any delay in mounting a tremendous effort to banish illiteracy and open out avenues of enlightenment, will inevitably retard modernisation of the society and realisation of that freedom of mind which is the mainspring of all intellectual growth. Postponement of a massive effort planned effectively to eradicate illiteracy is fraught with grave national peril from which even the plans for economic growth will have no escape.

#### IV. The Strategy

##### 1. Some Assumptions

Following assumptions will determine the scope, direction and effectiveness of a planned strategy for elimination of illiteracy:-

##### (a) A National Policy

No plan can work unless it is backed by a national determination to mount an all-out drive to eradicate illiteracy, within the shortest possible period. Sincerity of purpose and willingness to pay the price are of essence. In practical terms, this means a decision to mobilise the entire manpower resources available, professional and non-professional and to utilise them imaginatively by means orthodox and unorthodox to eradicate illiteracy.

##### (b) Need for quality

The inertia among the adults can be overcome only if they realise that education given to them is worthwhile. It will do small good to make people literate and leave them alone. The following measures are essential to ensure that the gains of educational efforts endure:-

(i) Persistent follow-up efforts until the adult is able to use the tools of literacy for his own ends

and until he feels able to continue his own education;

(ii) Continued programmes of audio-visual education to keep alive interest and faith in education and learning.

(iii) Linking up literacy education with other programmes of adult education in order to enable the initiate to receive the advantage of more advanced forms of education imparted in evening schools, continuing classes, correspondence courses and other areas of adult education. Once literate, the world of education should be open to him provided he has the will.

(c) Literacy Drive and National Purpose

Education of the masses in order to be meaningful must not be confined merely to the knowledge of the tools of learning but it should be inspired by practical interest and a sense of involvement in the vital national problems such as the following:--

- (i) Patriotism: national integrity and solidarity.
- (ii) Production mindedness: among agricultural and other workers.
- (iii) Population control.
- (iv) Democratic responsibility: implications of socialistic pattern: cooperatives.
- (v) Eradication of untouchability.
- (vi) Health and sanitation.

Education in these aspects would best be imparted through the media of mass-communication and it should help to awaken the illiterate adult from his indifference. In fact, education through the media of mass-communication should be vigorously organised then in those areas where for some reason literacy education cannot for the time being commence. Education of the masses should not be delayed if literacy approach is of necessity tardy. This type of education should precede, accompany and follow literacy programmes.

2. The Attack

The magnitude of the problem is such that bold, unorthodox and crash programmes are essential to cope with it. Assuming that due priority will be given to earliest realisation of the Constitutional Directive to provide education to all children up to the age of 14, the following five-pronged attack on illiteracy is proposed:

(a) Plugging the leaks at the Primary Stage

The base of adult literacy is efficient primary education. Primary education should not only forge ahead to provide education to all children of the school-going age, but effective measures should be taken to deal effectively with the large number of drop-outs.

Special part-time education needs to be provided in schools to boys and girls who are not formally enrolled in schools, preferably, on a compulsory basis, until they reach the age of 14 or qualify in a special test held by the Education Departments.

If the leaks in primary education are not plugged, the magnitude of the problem of adult literacy will not be appreciably affected. Efforts in this direction are entitled to the highest priority. This question will receive fuller consideration in the discussion relating to "Continuing Education".

(b) Mass Campaign

A national mass movement inspired by an appeal to patriotism and spirit of service should be vigorously mounted and a nation-wide effort organised by the leaders of all parties to eradicate illiteracy. At one time, immediately after independence, patriotic feeling could have mobilised forces for eradication of illiteracy. The grand opportunity having been lost, a massive campaign for achievement of universal literacy should be launched

with the inspired help of all personnel that can be mobilised in order to awaken that sense of patriotic duty and spirit of service which has been the saddest casualty since independence. This campaign should be directed not merely to achieve universal literacy but also to arouse patriotic spirit and to build up national character and sense of solidarity which is the fundamental objective of national education. An awakening of this nature is also essential to give momentum to the most vital national programmes which aims to raise national production, minimise birth rate, and to make democracy a reality in the country. Such an awakening is not less essential to national security. These considerations would justify putting the movement on a war-footing. If properly inspired and conducted, the gains would be far more rewarding than, for example, those from the schemes of compulsory service in the N.C.C. In fact it would be of no small advantage to convert the N.C.C. into national army for literacy. One aspect of this massive programme which utilises the service of the youth will need to be dovetailed with youth movements and compulsory enrolment in the N.C.C.

(c) Consolidation and Progress

The gains of the literacy movement should be consolidated and continued through institutional methods.

(i) Part-time education should be provided to the neo-literates in evening classes in the local schools or specially created adult education centres maintained by voluntary organisations, local bodies and where necessary by government. Every neo-literate should be persuaded to attend classes twice or thrice a week;

(ii) This movement should be supported by special library service which should aim at providing carefully selected useful and interesting literature including books, periodicals, newspapers. Production and

supply of good literature is the sine qua non of the success of the schemes of mass literacy.

(iii) Regular radio service and frequent education through films and other audio-visual means must be provided to create the climate in which alone gains of literacy can be pursued and realised.

(d) Education in urban areas

The mass movement to combat literacy will have its major effect on the rural population. The attack in the urban and industrial areas should be through the employers of organised and other industries, in commercial firms and in government and other services who should be made to provide for education of the illiterate employees. This approach should be planned to ensure double advantages of advancing literacy as well as improving skill in production. The Government will no doubt have to compel through legal means if necessary the employers to provide education as well as to help them in doing so.

(c) Unapproached areas

It is possible that with the best of will sufficient manpower may not be available for literacy work in certain areas of the country or for certain age groups. Number of men and women covered by this category is bound to be large and there is every reason why their education should not be neglected. It will be necessary to depend upon radio, films, lectures, demonstrations, exhibitions and various other modes of audio-visual education. From the strategic point of view, a mass movement should not let any element in the society escape education and in this context the effectiveness of mass media of education underestimated.

3. Personnel

(a) It may be presumed that the staff of primary and middle schools will be largely utilised for what has

been described as "plugging the leaks" at the primary stage and for providing part-time education to the new initiates to literacy. However, the services of these teachers would be available in the initial stages of the programme during which it would be prudent to ensure active participation by the teachers. These teachers should be organised to provide leadership and enthusiasm and to build up momentum for the movement.

(b) Teachers in the secondary schools would also be available when the movement is initiated and should be similarly utilised. In course of time, they would be required to attend to the work connected with continuing education and run evening classes. They may even then be called upon to provide guidance to the local adults who have chosen to take correspondence courses organised by Boards of Education and Universities.

(c) Teachers in the secondary schools and staff of training colleges, colleges and universities will also be required to provide courses to the volunteers, students and others who will undertake teaching of adults.

(d) In order to build up a real mass-campaign, personnel will need to be drawn as indicated below:-

(i) All undergraduates in colleges and universities in all faculties should be required to contribute at least six continuous weeks of service to teach the adults as condition entitling them to appear at the first degree examination. This will enable 10.90 lakh boys and 2.90 lakhs girls - a total of 13.80 lakhs for the purposes of adult education.

(ii) The leadership in the country in political and other fields should set an example and

inspire all educated persons in the country to join the army to fight illiteracy. This scheme will be a test of the sincerity of our leadership and of its ability to command disinterested service. The educated element in the country is most difficult to be aroused for service; but much can be done by voluntary organisations to build up a willing personnel for the activity. National recognition in some form for those who have rendered the service may provide some useful incentive. It is difficult to anticipate manpower which will be thus available.

- (iv) Special effort will be necessary to create large enough personnel for educating adult women. It will be worthwhile persuading women, where possible, to agree to teaching being done by men in conditions in which the arrangements will be found satisfactory for them. It should also be possible to build up for this purpose a fairly large number of teachers from among retired teachers - men and women - and retired government officials who are capable of teaching and willing to do so. If necessary, a fair honorarium be paid to these persons for working to educate women. It is in this area that one will have to depend

to a considerable extent on the scheme of condensed courses initiated by Shrimati Durgabai Deshmukh. In the case of women in particular, it would be worthwhile creating training and maintaining a permanent cadre for the education of adult women. The efforts and the expense would be rewarding.

I am aware of the arguments which have been made against compelling the youth in schools and colleges to undertake work of literacy or of any other form of national service. I am also aware of the results of making enlistment in the national cadet corps compulsory. However, the state of affairs obtaining in the country is such that some bold approach is necessary to instil sterner virtues in the youth and to inspire it with a sense of national purpose. They should be brought to realise that some service is expected of them in return for the good done to them. Work in national adult education campaign will give them a sense of achievement and sense of esprit de corps which comes from participation in a common national objective. The mass movement for eradication of illiteracy will have its major impact on the rural population and it is abundantly necessary that the educated men and women in the country should, for their own benefit, have direct experience of work in the village surroundings. Perhaps this effect may, to some extent, help to bridge the chasm which tends to be deepening between the educated and the uneducated and the rural and the urban peoples. For the rural society it will be a boon to have personal human contact and participation in the process of learning with the youth fresh from schools and colleges. Contacts of this nature are vital to modernisation of the traditional attitudes. Mass contact with the educated, supported and strengthened by unceasing education through the mass media of communication is imperative for revolutionary change

of attitudes in the rural life.

4. Selective approach

It is prudent to deploy the manpower available for literacy work in the most sensitive areas from the point of view of national development. With the best of will and best of effort it may not be possible to have enough men and women to make the millions of illiterates literate. Programme will need to be phased and priorities determined. While education for all should be systematically pursued through the media of mass communication, the manpower available for educational work should preferably be employed to educate a manageable group say of persons of the age group of 15-34. It is this age group which is largely employed in productive activity and incidently the percentage of literacy in it is higher than the national average as will be seen from the table below:-

Age group	Total		Total Urban			Urban (Illiterate)				Rural (Illiterate)							
	Illiterate	Literate	Total	Illiterate		Men		Women		Total	Men		Women		Total		
	No.	p.c.	No.	No.	p.c.	No.	p.c.	No.	p.c.	No.	p.c.	No.	p.c.	No.	p.c.		
15-34	94.78	67.6%	45.38	32.4%	27.91	10.97	39.1%	4.15	27%	6.82	54.5%	10.97	33.71	60.4%	50.34	88.7%	84.1
	million		million		million	million		million		million		million	million		million		million

Figures in millions for 1961.

This approach will mean, if adequate manpower can be mobilised, the immediate target would be to provide education to roughly about 100 millions of people in the country at the end of the fourth Plan.

5. Training of the personnel

It is essential that the personnel for adult education particularly the students from the schools and colleges to be properly trained. They must be given an understanding and insight into what is proposed to be taught and they should be acquainted with the techniques of dealing with adult men and women and of teaching them. A certain discipline in the rigour of camp life is essential. The training should also help the volunteers and students to realise that they have to learn more than they have to teach and that it is their duty to make the life of the adults happier and gainful for their presence. It will be necessary to organise with the help of the universities and training colleges to train the trainers as well as the volunteers for the task. A course lasting for ten days for the training of the volunteers and students would be desirable before they are sent out on assignment.

6. Motivation

Consideration of strategy cannot be complete unless the urgency of providing incentives is stressed. Gains of education can not be readily had on the counter and mere status and prestige which come with literacy may not be sufficiently attractive. The Unesco Report has considered the nature of incentives which would work. The massiveness of adult literacy drive is in itself a big incentive and the feeling of being left out in a grand drive would bring to the sensitive a feeling of inferiority. Perhaps the most powerful incentive would be to allow to the educated alone

certain privileges in the civic life and recognition by Government for certain services. In Maharashtra, Gram Shikshan Mohim certain forms of social recognition and pride in the villages has served to act as incentives. In the conditions prevailing in our society, it will be necessary to provide what would motivate the adult to put forward the necessary effort.

#### V. Targets and Costs

1. The costing attempted below is done on a very crude basis and will need considerable revision. Moreover, it is based on the assumption that the mainstay of the scheme will be the student force. The problem is to educate the illiterate between the ages of 15 to 34.

#### 2. Population to be covered

	<u>1966</u> Figures in millions	<u>1971</u> Figures in millions
Total population	152.9	172.7
Anticipated percentage of illiteracy	62.6	57.6
Illiterate population	95.71	99.48

The above figures show that the illiterate population in the age-group 15-34 which will be 95.71 million in 1966 will increase to 99.48 in 1971. The population to be covered under this scheme will, therefore, be taken to be 100 million (roughly 10 crores). [These figures are subject to scrutiny.]

#### 3. Adult education teachers

In order to implement this programme within the Fourth Five Year Plan period, it is proposed to mobilise compulsorily the entire student body at the undergraduates level for this task. Each candidate appearing in the First Degree Examination will be required to devote continuous six weeks at a camp or elsewhere as a condition

qualifying for appearance at the first degree examination. It is estimated that the number of students available for social service will be about 2.25 million (i.e. at an annual average of 4.5 lakhs) during the Fourth Plan. Each candidate will be required to take two batches daily of about 20 adults each - one in the morning and the second in the evening. Each batch will be taught for two hours. It is hoped that this teaching manpower will be adequate to make literate the entire population mentioned above.

### 3. Cost

(1) Training of teachers @ Re 1/- per teacher	Rs. 22.50 lakhs
(2) T.A./D.A. etc. @ Rs. 135 per teacher	Rs. 30.38 crores (Rs. 135x22½ lakhs)
(3) Cost of books, writing material, etc. @ Rs. 3/- per adult to be educated.	Rs. 30.00 crores
(4) Other services @ Rs. 2 per adult.	Rs. 20 crores
(5) <u>Follow-up:</u>	
(i) Library/Reading Room @ Rs. 2.50 per adult for 5 years	Rs. 25.00 crores
(ii) Mass Media: 10 lakh radio sets (1 set for 20 persons) @ Rs. 50 per set.	Rs. 5 crores
(iii) 2-week training for 2.50 lakh leaders @ Rs. 40 per head	Rs. 1 crore
(iv) Services (Broadcasters, technicians)	Rs. 0.50 crores
(v) Contingencies	Rs. 0.25 crores
<b>Total</b>	<b>Rs. 112.35 crores</b>
Administration, supervision @ 2 per cent of the cost	Rs. 2 crores
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>Rs. 114.60 crores</b>
Cost per capita	Rs. 1.15 $\frac{114.60}{100}$ Rs. 10 crores/

## VI. Summary

### I. Statement of the Problem

The Section states briefly the magnitude of the problem and inadequacy of the progress.

### II. Survey of the efforts made

This Section refers to the attempts made by

(a) short-lived mass-movement in Bihar (1937);

(b) the literacy work undertaken by voluntary organisations particularly in Bombay, Mysore and Lucknow;

(c) Ministry of Community Development; and

(d) Maharashtra Gram Shikshan Mohim

and concludes that

(i) no nation-wide planned and sustained effort is made so far to combat illiteracy;

(ii) the work done by various agencies so far has made little impact on the state of literacy;

(iii) meagre sums were provided in the plans for adult education and even these were not utilised by Governments (some did not utilise 50% to 78% of the provision);

(iv) the little gains through adult education were undone to a considerable extent by weak follow-up work;

(v) the quality of illiteracy has been poor and ineffective; and

(vi) the illiterate adult is indifferent and disinclined to consider that the effort to get educated is worthwhile.

This situation is due to the total absence of a national determination to eradicate illiteracy.

### III. Why Adult Literacy Campaign?

This Section considers

(a) an opinion that adult illiteracy will disappear gradually as primary education advances: by the end of the third Plan 76% of children will be in primary schools and 90% at the end of the fourth and gradually literates will replace the illiterates ensuring full literacy after a certain period;

(b) views expressed by Dr. Adam Curle that

(i) literacy has no appreciable effect on the quality of the illiterate workers; and

(ii) literacy programmes must ensure quality rather than quantity and the resources which are scarce should be prudently utilised.

It is argued that

(1) primary education on the basis of its own growth takes long time in liquidating illiteracy;

(2) all out maximum possible effort through primary and adult literacy are essential in the face of the magnitude of the task;

(3) if adult education is properly conceived and worked out as it should be, it should have some impact even on economic productivity;

(4) in Russia determination of the people to eradicate illiteracy in the shortest possible period and success in the carrying out the national will has done more than mere achieving universal literacy; it has helped to build up national character, a sense of achievement and national pride which are essential psychological factors for achievement of national development plans and national purposes;

- (5) postponement of an all-out effort to liquidate illiteracy will
- (a) deepen and perpetuate inequality and exploitation and deny social justice to the illiterate;
  - (b) reduce democracy to a farce;
  - (c) impede urgent modernisation tendencies and national drives, for example, for increased production and population control;
  - (d) slow down national integration;
  - (e) fail to provide a sense of national purpose and to build up national character and prestige; and
  - (f) deny to the people real freedom.

#### IV. Strategy

The strategy proposed assumes

- (a) national determination to eliminate illiteracy by mobilising all human resources available for teaching and by willingness to pay the price;
- (b) stress on quality by persistent follow-up efforts, assistance of media of mass communication, and opening avenues for continuing education;
- (c) emphasis on the urgent national problems in adult literacy programmes e.g., national integrity, productivity, population control, democratic way of life, eradication of untouchability and health and sanitation.

The strategy proposed further assumes development of primary education with the utmost speed and suggests

- (i) part-time education, if necessary, on a compulsory basis for the drop-outs: all should continue to receive education up to the age of 14 or until they qualify in departmental examination;
- (ii) mass campaign with the help of all available educated persons to eradicate literacy;
- (iii) special classes for continued part-time education of the neo-literates after the campaign;
- (iv) supporting services: libraries, suitable reading material; education through radio and other means of audio-visual education;
- (v) in the urban and industrial areas the employers should be made responsible for eliminating illiteracy from among the employees and should be helped to do so; and
- (vi) personnel for the mass campaign.

It is realised that while in the initial stages of the campaign school teachers will be available for the campaign, they will be required in the course of time for other purposes e.g., evening classes for continuing education.

Mass campaign should depend upon

- (a) volunteers for the army of illiteracy from among the educated;
- (b) compulsory service for at least six continuous weeks by undergraduates in the university rendered in camps and through other means organised for the purpose; this compulsory service would be a condition of the award of the university degree.

It is emphasised that a mass-movement like this is essential to national integration, building up of national character and cultivation of right attitudes towards economic growth, population control and processes of modernisation.

(vii) The scope and extent of the campaign will of necessity have to be limited to the personnel available; therefore, approach has to be limited. It is proposed that the first stage of the campaign should aim at making literate without the first five years the illiterate population of the age-group 15-34 which is from economic point of view significant. This would mean illiteracy for about 100 millions.

(viii) It is urged that the personnel employed in the campaign should be given suitable training.

(ix) It is also suggested that some privileges in civic life and other incentives should be provided to make literacy attractive for the adult illiterates.

#### V. Targets and Costs

On a rough and crude basis it is calculated that 100 million adults of the age-group 15-34 can be made literate within the fourth plan period at the cost of Rs. 1.15 per head provided there is necessary determination to do so.

SOME IMPORTANT ISSUES  
RELATING TO  
THE LANGUAGE POLICY IN INDIA

A paper based on the memoranda submitted to the Commission and the evidence recorded before it on the subject.

Education Commission  
University Grants Commission Building.  
Bahadur Shah Zafar Marg  
New Delhi

1965

Some Important Issues  
relating to  
The Language Policy in India

There are two main problems to be discussed in this context: (a) the Three Language Formula; and (b) the medium of instruction in higher education.

The Three-Language Formula

2. Change in Attitude: With the decision to adopt Hindi as the official language of the Union, the situation in India has become essentially trilingual. All children have to learn three languages because every child is expected to know his mother-tongue, at least one additional modern Indian language (which will have to be Hindi for those whose mother-tongue is not Hindi), and one advanced language to serve as a window on the world (this is almost exclusively English at present); and while it will continue to be the most important language, steps will also have to be taken to ensure that other advanced languages, and particularly Russian, are learnt on a much larger scale than at present).
3. Unfortunately, there is at present a great resistance to the teaching of three languages on the ground that it affects the intellectual development and attainments of children. There is little conclusive evidence on this; but the feeling is so strong that it would be worthwhile to discuss the findings of research on this issue in the Report of the Commission. (Perhaps Mr. Elvin may help us in this). Another set of evidence that may help is the experience and practices of countries where trilingualism exists on a large scale (Switzerland, Scandinavian countries). A third set of data is the language policies adopted of other nations, viz., U.S.A., U.K., U.S.S.R., Japan, Germany, U.A.R., China.

Australia, Canada, etc. (Mr. McDougall has taken the responsibility to collect data on the second and third sets of evidence and these could also be usefully discussed in the Report of the Commission)\*.

4. One point is certain: Vigorous steps will have to be taken to overcome the resistances of people to the study of three languages and to create a general attitude which is favourable to the proper implementation of the three-language formula. This will need action on three fronts:-

- (1) An effective campaign of public education conducted through the political leadership;
- (2) A more determined effort on the part of the non-Hindi States to teach Hindi in their areas; and
- (3) A determined effort by the Hindi States to teach a third modern Indian language (and not Sanskrit) in their areas.

5. The importance of the first is obvious. Unfortunately, not much has been done in this direction so far and intensive and sustained efforts are, therefore, called for for some years to come.

6. In regard to the second, a good deal is already being done. The States of Maharashtra and Gujarat have made the study of Hindi compulsory at the school stage and the standards of attainment are good. The States of Kerala, Mysore and Andhra Pradesh have also made the study of Hindi compulsory, although the standards of attainment have to be raised further and Hindi will have

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\* Please see Annexure I for a preliminary exercise in this regard.

to be made an examination subject in all cases. In Madras, Hindi is not yet compulsory; but a very large number of students opt for it. As there are political objections to making Hindi compulsory in this State, its promotion will have to be largely attempted through the education of public opinion and adequate time would have to be allowed to the people to adjust themselves satisfactorily to the new situation. A similar, though somewhat better, position obtains in West Bengal, Assam and Orissa\*. On the whole, the position of Hindi studies in the non-Hindi areas may be regarded as fairly satisfactory and further developments may be left mainly to the State Governments and to the voluntary organisations for the promotion of study of Hindi. Pressures from the Hindi areas to accelerate the spread of Hindi in the non-Hindi States are likely to prove more harmful than otherwise and a good deal of restraint is, therefore, needed in this matter.

7. With regard to the third, there is a real bottleneck and it is in this area that the most intensive efforts are called for. In all the Hindi States, the third language taught is, almost exclusively, Sanskrit. This is objected to by the non-Hindi areas as an incorrect implementation of the three-language formula. A proper psychological atmosphere for the promotion of Hindi and the implementation of the three-language formula would, therefore, be created if the Hindi States were to make an intensive and determined effort to teach, not Sanskrit, but a modern Indian language in all their areas and if the languages from the South are taught, if not exactly on a preferential basis, at least on a fair scale.

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\*The actual facts will have to be studied.

8. What are the three languages to be taught under the three-language formula: The position in this regard is not very clear and needs some detailed examination.

9. Punjab: The problem in the Punjab is rather peculiar. The State is bilingual and is divided into two regions; Hindi and Punjabi. In the Punjabi region, Punjabi is the first language and each child has to study it from the first primary class. Similarly, in the Hindi region, Hindi is the first language and each child has to study it from class I.

In both the regions, every child has to study a second language also, Hindi or Punjabi, as the case may be. In the erstwhile Pepsu area, the second language is started from the third primary class while, in the erstwhile Punjabi area, it is introduced from the fourth primary class.

In both the regions, English is started from the sixth class.

In the erstwhile Punjabi area, the minority groups (Hindi in Punjabi region or Punjabi in Hindi region) have also been given the option to study their own language from the first primary class and facilities for this purpose are made available if there are 10 students in a class or 40 in the school as a whole. This option, however, is not permitted in the erstwhile Pepsu region.

It may also be pointed out that the system in Punjab is absolutely inflexible. The above arrangements have been reached after years of negotiations; and no one seems to be in a mood to re-open the issue at present. Punjab is thus implementing the three-language formula with one reservation, viz, it is not possible to permit any other modern Indian language (except Hindi and Punjabi) into the curriculum.

10. In the non-Hindi areas, the position is simple for the majority and for the minority whose mother-tongue is Hindi: the children will study the regional language, English and Hindi. In the case of linguistic minorities (other than those whose mother-tongue is Hindi), however, this actually becomes a four-language formula: mother-tongue, regional language (whose study is added on, either on a voluntary or on a compulsory basis), from class III onwards), English and Hindi. To save this excessive linguistic burden, it has been suggested that the linguistic minorities may study only three languages, viz. mother-tongue/regional language, English and Hindi. In other words, the study of the regional language should be optional and not compulsory for the linguistic minorities and that no child should be required to study more than three languages. This is a matter on which some States (e.g. Maharashtra) have resistances and the matter will have to be explored with them.

11. (1) In the Hindi areas, the position is again simple in the case of linguistic minorities; they can study the mother-tongue, English and Hindi

(2) But those students whose mother-tongue is Hindi will study only two languages - Hindi and English. What should be the third language in the case of these children?

(a) It has been suggested that it should be Sanskrit, as is the case mostly at present. This is objected to in certain quarters on the ground that the main object of the three-language formula was to make a study of two modern Indian languages and English compulsory. Nor is it accepted in the academic circles which hold that Sanskrit must be given an identical status in all parts of India, in the Hindi as well as in the non-Hindi areas.

At any rate, the only point in favour of this view is convenience and all other factors are against it.

(b) Should it be any modern Indian language? The most likely choices, in this event, would be Urdu or the modern languages of neighbouring areas (e.g. Bengali and Oriya in Bihar). The opposition to this view comes from the protagonists of Sanskrit and group (c) mentioned below.

(c) Should it be a south Indian language? This view is supported by several persons, both in the south and in the north, mainly on grounds of national integration. This, however, involves immense problems about provision of teachers and creating proper motivation among the students.

A clear-cut decision on issues (a), (b) and (c) is needed.

(3) In this context, a significant question is sometimes raised: Is it necessary to insist that children in Hindi areas whose mother-tongue is Hindi should also learn three languages? It has been suggested that, due to lack of proper motivation on the part of the students and the cost involved in providing the necessary facilities, it may be worthwhile to leave these children to study two languages only. It has also been further argued that the insistence on every child to learn three languages appears like 'competition in handicaps' in a situation where handicaps are already too plentiful. It has been, therefore, suggested that the Hindi children in the Hindi areas may not be compelled to learn a third language. From a purely academic point of view, this proposal has a good foundation; but it would be very difficult to find acceptance for it on political grounds.

12. Sanskrit: What would be the place of Sanskrit in the three language formula? Some people want Sanskrit to be a compulsory language of study, quite apart from the mother-tongue or the regional language; some others would like Sanskrit to be studied as a part of the study of the mother-tongue; and quite a large proportion would leave it out completely (except that it may be taken by a student, if he so desires, as an additional subject). Some agree to this last view but plead for a compulsory provision of facilities in all schools, while others would leave it optional to the schools to provide or not to provide the facilities. There is also a group, as stated above, which suggests the adoption of Sanskrit as a third language in the Hindi areas for children whose mother-tongue is Hindi. Some definite decision on these issues is needed.

13. English-Medium Schools: What should be the three languages taught in English-medium schools? At present, these are English, Hindi and Sanskrit. It has been proposed that these should be English, Hindi and a modern Indian language (preferably the language of the area in which the school is located). This point also needs consideration.

14. How would the three-language formula operate at the different stages of education? The following points need attention in this regard.

Primary School: This stage covers classes I-IV (age 6-9) or classes I-V (age 6-10). According to one view, only the mother-tongue should be taught at this stage. A second view suggests that English should also be begun at this stage (from class III). Others feel that both English and Hindi should begin at this stage, either simultaneously in class III or with some interval

between them. The theories of Dr. Penfield have had a great influence on these opinions. This is an important problem for the Commission to decide.

15. Middle and High School Stages: These stages cover classes V-X (age 10-15) or classes VI-X (age 11-15). It is at this stage that the three-language formula really operates at present. A large variety of practices already exists and several new practices have also been proposed.

(a) One suggestion is that such of the three languages as have not been introduced in the primary stage should now be introduced in the first year of the middle school stage or at the most in its first two years and that throughout these five or six years, all the three languages should be taught simultaneously and continuously. It is also suggested that the time allotted to the study of the second and third languages should be also about equal. The main objection to the proposal is that it creates too big a language-load and that 40-50 p.c. of the time is lost in the study of the languages only. The Commission will, therefore, have to decide: (i) when should the second and third languages be introduced? (ii) what should be the proper load of language-study at this stage? and (iii) how should the available time be apportioned between the three languages?

(b) The second suggestion in this context aims at reducing the heavy burden of learning three languages. Its main thesis is that only two languages need be studied for the entire period and that the third language should be studied only for a period of not less than three years. As an alternative, it is sometimes suggested that all the three languages should be taught simultaneously but that the time given to the third language (which may be left to the option of the student) may be about half

of what is given to the first or the second language.

(c) There is also a suggestion that the third language should not be made an examination subject; and that, even if an examination is held therein, the standard prescribed for passing should be low.

In deciding the issues raised under (a) above, the Commission will also have to take note of (b) and (c) above.

(d) There are several suggestions regarding teaching methods to be adopted for Hindi in non-Hindi areas and a modern Indian language (other than the mother-tongue) in the Hindi areas. The most important of these are: the third language should be taught orally (without reading and writing) for about a year at the very beginning. In the second year (or for a little longer) it should be taught through specially prepared books which use the script of the mother-tongue or Roman. It is only after a fair knowledge of the language is mastered that the script of the language itself should be taught. The Commission will have to examine the methods of teaching the third language in some detail.

(e) It has also been suggested that some time could be saved and the mastery over the third language deepened if it could be used as a medium of instruction for some subjects. This suggestion also needs close examination.

16. Higher Secondary or P.U.C. or Junior College Stage:

This stage is now of one or two years in the different States but is proposed to be made a stage of two years everywhere. It includes classes XI-XII, or a two-year P.U.C., or an Intermediate or Junior College, or class XI plus a one-year P.U.C. In this context, the

following questions arise:

(a) Should the three-language formula be continued at this stage also? Why?

(b) If not, and if it is decided to reduce one language, which language should be omitted: mother-tongue, Hindi or English? Would this option be left to the student?

(c) What allocation of time could be made between the languages to be studied at this stage?

17. Under-graduate stage: Here also, some problems have been raised. It has been suggested that the three-language formula should be continued at the under-graduate stage also and that, in addition to English which is a compulsory subject at this stage, a study of mother-tongue/regional language and Hindi/a second modern Indian language should be made compulsory. This is another suggestion that the Commission will have to consider. In this context, two points need attention:-

(a) In some States, a bilingual formula is adopted and a test in Hindi is made obligatory in addition to the compulsory study of English. Would it be desirable to extend this practice to all the States? If so, in what form?

(b) It has been suggested that every student at the undergraduate stage should be made to study one modern Indian language (other than his mother-tongue) and pass a test at a given level therein. Would it be desirable to accept this proposal?

18. It has been suggested that encouragement should be given to students to choose two modern Indian languages for B.A. and M.A. degrees. It is claimed that this would secure teachers of modern Indian languages for schools and promote national emotional integration by creating

people, in every linguistic area, who are familiar with the literature of all the other Indian languages. The Commission would have to examine the proposal and the practical methods that can be adopted for its implementation?

Medium of Instruction at the University Stage:

19. Several important issues have been raised in this context and a large number of alternative proposals have been made \* and all these need a decision. For convenience of reference, they have been summarised below.

(a) There should be only one medium of instruction in the university stage - postgraduate as well as undergraduate - with a view to economy, efficiency, national integration, mobility of students and teachers, etc. This may be English for the present, to be later on substituted by Hindi.

(b) The medium of instruction at the university stage should be the same as the medium of examination for competitive examinations and the official language or languages of the Union. These would be English/Hindi at present and Hindi later on.

(c) The medium of instruction at the University stage should be the regional languages, both post-graduate and undergraduate.

(d) The medium of instruction at the university stage should be based on a combination of the regional language and English. To begin with, English should form a small proportion, which should gradually be increased till it becomes almost the sole medium at the post-graduate stage.

(e) The next 10-15 years should be devoted to changing the medium of instruction at the undergraduate stage into the regional languages. At the postgraduate stage there should be a common language for the entire

country.

(f) There are also a number of miscellaneous suggestions put forward. For instance, it has been suggested that English should be the medium of instruction in science subjects while the regional languages should be adopted in the Humanities. Some have suggested that English may be adopted as the medium of instruction in quality institutions to which talented students only would be admitted and that the regional languages should be adopted as media of instruction in other institutions and so on.

A definite decision on these issues is needed.

20. English: Some important questions arise about English and need a decision. They have been briefly summarised below.

(a) It has been suggested that the study of English should not be made compulsory at any stage, including the school, the undergraduate and the post-graduate. It has also been represented that this option should at least be given to girls.

(b) Even when English ceases to be a medium of instruction, the students of higher education will still be required to have a good command over the language in order to be able to read books and journals in English. Special measures will have to be designed from this point of view.

(c) There is now a competition between the States to teach more and more of English and to begin its teaching lower and lower down. It is therefore proposed that the policy regarding the teaching of English should be laid down by the Centre and that it should be uniform in all parts of the country. If this view is accepted, it will be necessary to decide all relevant issues such as the class where the

teaching should begin, the standards to be attained at each stage, the methods of teaching, time allocated for study, teaching methods, evaluation practices, preparation of teachers and teaching materials, etc.

(d) The English medium schools are getting very popular at present. The policy with regard to these institutions will have to be decided.

(Please see Annexure II for some detailed recommendations on the subject).

21. Study of Modern Indian Languages: (a) In order to encourage the mobility of teachers and students and also to help students to change over from one medium to another at the university, if necessary, it is suggested that there should be 'schools of Indian languages' in our universities and that one of the functions which they should perform is to discover and spread techniques of teaching modern Indian languages quickly to adults and students. The Commission will have to consider the desirability of these institutions and work out the details of their organisation.

(b) A concrete and comprehensive programme will have to be suggested for developing the regional languages so as to make them the media of instruction at the university stage and appropriate vehicles for the conveyance of modern knowledge in the sciences and humanities to the people.

22. Common Script: The following questions need attention in this context:-

(a) Should a common script be adopted for all modern Indian languages?

(b) Should this script be Devanagari or Roman?

(c) What practical programme can be adopted for the implementation of the reform?

23. Tribal Languages: Some of the questions that arise here are given below:-

(a) What principles would you suggest for selecting the tribal languages (out of the innumerable languages that exist) for development and use as media of instruction?

(b) To what stage would you adopt tribal languages as media of instruction?

(c) What should be the script for tribal languages?

(d) Should the tribals be compelled to study the regional language? If so, from what stage?

(e) The tribal children have a very heavy language load - it often includes four languages (i.e., in non-Hindi areas) and sometimes five (when Sanskrit is compulsory). How can this load be reduced?

(f) What is the progress made so far in preparing textbooks and other literature for tribals? What measures would you recommend for the future?

(g) What steps should be taken to teach tribal languages to teachers working in tribal areas?

ANNEXURE I

Subject:- The Teaching of Foreign Languages in Some Selected European Countries.

1. The following synoptic view of the place of foreign language teaching in thirteen European countries is grouped under six headings: (a) number of languages taught as compulsory or optional subjects; (b) stage at which each is introduced and years taught; (c) the time in the weekly timetable given to language teaching; (d) the aims of foreign language teaching; (e) the content of the courses; and (f) the teaching methods used.

2. In order to present this material in a short note and in a form where it can be compared, it has been necessary to gloss over the very different forms secondary education takes between the countries examined and even within each country. For example, education is a local matter in both Switzerland and the Federal Republic of Germany and patterns vary within each country. Again, in the United Kingdom there are no official syllabuses or approved methods of teaching. One must additionally bear in mind that secondary education takes many forms. By and large technical and vocational forms of secondary education are not considered in the review below, but even so it has not been possible to take account for each country of all the other possibilities in streaming or sections available in general secondary education.

3. It is important to bear in mind that the summaries below apply in certain cases only to students who follow a full secondary course. For example, in Table II, 6 years of study of a second language in Belgium would be true only of a student who remained in school until the age of 18. Many would, of course, drop out at the end of the compulsory period.

4. Lastly, it is necessary to warn against hasty comparisons being made with conditions in India. Though

all of the countries surveyed report a shortage of specialist teachers, all are more fortunately placed than India. Secondly, it should be remembered that many of the foreign languages taught are close relatives of the mother tongue and all, except Russian, have a common script. It is of course also obvious that the amounts of reading materials available as well as the use of audio-visual aids differ considerably from conditions prevailing in India.

Table I - Number of Foreign Languages Taught to End of the Secondary Period.

Country	2nd Language	3rd Language	4th Language
Belgium	Compulsory	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional
Czechoslovakia	Compulsory	Compulsory	Optional
Denmark	Compulsory	Compulsory	Optional
France	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional	Optional
Germany (Fed. Republic)	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional	Optional
Hungary	Compulsory	Compulsory	Optional
Netherlands	Compulsory	Compulsory	Compulsory
Norway	Compulsory	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional
Sweden	Compulsory	Compulsory	Compulsory
Switzerland	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional	Optional
U.S.S.R.	Compulsory	Russian Compulsory in non-Russian Schools	Optional
Yugoslavia	Compulsory	Compulsory or Optional	Optional
United Kingdom	Not compulsory but generally taught	Optional	Optional

Table II. Stage at Which Languages are Introduced and Years Taught

Country	2nd Language		3rd Language		4th Language	
	Introduced at age	Years taught	Introduced at age	Years taught	Introduced at age	Years taught
Belgium	12	6	13 or 14	4 or 5	14 or 15	3 or 4
Czechoslovakia	9	9	15	3		
Denmark	12	7	14	3	16	3
France	11	7	13	5		
Germany (Fed Republic)	11	9	14	6-7		
Hungary	10	8	14	4		
Netherlands	12	6-7	12	5	12	4 or 5
Norway	12	7	14	5	14	5
Sweden	10	9	14	5	16	3
Switzerland	10-12	8	12-14	4		
U.S.S.R.	11-12	7	11-12	7		
Yugoslavia	11	8	15	4		
United Kingdom	11-12	5-6				

III. Time Given to Language Study:

1. The variations here are too great to permit any summary. School year, stream or section followed, total weekly timetable, grade and age all determine the place of language study in the curriculum<sup>and</sup> patterns vary from country to country.

2. Some generalisations which can be made within these limits are as follows :

- (a) The total number of hours per week at the secondary level is generally in the range 30-36, with the exception of France where it is 24 or 25 and some lower secondary schools in Switzerland with 45 hours per week;
- (b) In countries (E.g. Belgium, Netherlands, Sweden) where three foreign languages are compulsory in certain streams, the maximum time given to foreign language study is about 40% of the weekly total. If study of the mother tongue is included, the maximum total language study is about 50% of the weekly hours;
- (c) In countries where two foreign languages are taught, the maximum time devoted to foreign language study is 25% of the total.

3. An example from one form of schooling (Gymnasium) in Lower Saxony, Federal Republic of Germany, may be cited:

Hours per week of language study

Gymnasium in Lower Saxony (5th to 13th School Year)

	5th and 6th			7th Year			8th Year			9th Year			10th Year			11th Year			12th Year			13th Year									
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C							
(a) Modern Languages																															
English	0	5	5	7	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	5	3	3	5	3							
French	0	0	0	0	6	6	0	5	5	0	4	4	0	4	4	0	5	5	0	4	5	0	5	0							
(b) Mother Tongue		5			4			4			4			4			4			4			4								
(c) Total Hours in Weekly Time-table		29-30			34				34				32				33				32				31				29		

A = Classical Section;

B = Modern Languages Section;

C = Science - Mathematics Section.

#### IV. Objectives of Foreign Language Teaching

##### Some examples

Belgium: To develop an understanding of the languages in their written form and promote a practical knowledge of them.

Czechoslovakia: Mastery of the language as regards reading; both oral and written expression; understanding of spoken form. A high standard demanded for 2nd language (Russian); good basic standard for 3rd language.

Denmark: In lower secondary schools to give pupils practical knowledge of the language; cultural aspects not disregarded but of secondary importance. In the gymnasia (grammar schools) an attempt is made to combine cultural and linguistic study.

France: To give pupils practice in using the language and help increase their inner resources by a study of representative texts dealing with the life and thinking of a foreign people.

Federal Republic of Germany To lead pupils to make practical use of the oral language through learning of sufficient vocabulary and idiomatic expressions. This knowledge should help him in reading literary works for better understanding of the mentality, thought, culture and institutions of foreign country. At gymnasia (Grammar Schools) deeper study of oral and written language and larger place to literature.

Netherlands: To enable the pupil to converse and communicate with people of surrounding

countries and introduce him to their cultures.

Sweden: The aim is functional, i.e. based on need for knowledge of languages. Present tendency is to stress mastery of spoken language rather than translation and composition. Increasing importance laid on cultural objectives and knowledge of the country whose language is studied.

USSR: The aim is to make the pupil capable of maintaining a conversation in the language studied as well as of reading, with perfect comprehension, simple texts of a literary nature or which deal with popular science or social and political problems relating to the countries whose language is studied.

#### V. Content of the Courses

##### Some examples:

Belgium: Syllabuses are prescribed for use in official schools. Customary spoken language stressed; literature studied in last three years.

Czechoslovakia: Study begins with vocabulary, grammar, spelling and pronunciation; literature introduced later. Pupils introduced to main representative works in Russian, to lesser extent with other languages.

Denmark: In the gymnasia both written and oral English and German. Translation from and into the language required. For French oral ability only. In lower secondary schools English both oral and written and German oral only. Reading, Translation, conversation and some

grammar taught at this level.

France:

In general secondary schools the emphasis is on pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar as well as the literature and civilization of the language studied. Pupils examined in translation (from and into the language), oral and written expression.

Federal Republic of Germany:

At first lessons deal with oral language and grammar learnt by induction. Vocabulary taught through its practical application and words learnt in sentences and from relationships. Phonetics considered important as well as free translation; repetition of words and phrases aloud. Mother tongue used as little as possible. In the gymnasium (Grammar school) special attention is given to the conversation lesson, and emphasis, as regards oral language, placed on listening, understanding and expression. Rules grammar and syntax are taught in relation to the spoken language.

Netherlands:

Stress is given to pronunciation, rudiments of grammar, written and oral exercises, writing and composition, literary discussion, reading of well-known words. Pupils examined in written and oral abilities, including translation.

Sweden:

Stress is on oral ability and comprehension of both written and oral passages. Examinations take form of translations and comprehension tests.

USSR: Examinations check students' ability in spoken language, reading comprehension, translation with or without a dictionary and ability to carry on a conversation.

VI. Teaching Methods:

With the general switch of emphasis away from the grammatical, philological approach seen in IV and V above, teaching methods now stress mainly oral ability and functional use of the language learnt. Audio-visual aids, language laboratories and programmed instructional material are being more widely used. A few examples need be cited.

Belgium: The syllabuses are accompanied by official instructions which advise use of a direct, oral and active method. Textbooks, readers, anthologies, films, slides, etc. may be chosen from approved lists. Radio sets, projection apparatus, record players and records, tape recorders, etc. supplied where possible and use recommended. Some experimental use of language laboratories begun.

Denmark: Emphasis placed on active methods and teaching of practical skills. Vocabulary based on most frequently used words. Instruction proceeds from centres of interest (the school, family, community, etc). Translation avoided as teaching method and grammar taught in connexion with the text or to help understanding. Use made of films, slides, records, film strips etc. Television and radio broadcasts available. Language Laboratories being introduced.

France:

Official instructions are for use of direct or active method. Choice of textbooks left to teacher but recommended that literary as well as texts dealing with civilization of language studied be used. Large use of audio-visual methods - films, records, tapes etc. - and radio lessons in English and German given regularly for which special texts have been compiled for the pupils and distributed in advance.

Sweden:

The oral method is favoured and grammatical method yielding to a more modern and practical conception. Wide use now being made of audio-visual aids. Language laboratories, programmed instructional material and teaching machines being introduced.

USSR:

Direct method is employed. Most attention given at every stage to oral language. From 5th to 7th grades pupil learns to read with resort to translation; from 8th to 11th grades he is given practice in reading texts with aid of a dictionary to encourage habits of independent work. Maximum use is made of singing, dramatisation, recitation, correspondence with foreign schools, games, discussions, cultural clubs. Use of records, tape-recorders, film, slides, posters, etc. recommended.

J.F. McDougall  
Associate Secretary

The Study of English in India

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Some time ago the Ministry of Education appointed a Working Group on the study of English in India which has now submitted its report (enclosed). The terms of reference to the Group and its composition will be found on page-1 of the report. It is requested that the Commission may consider this report as a part of its study of the language problem in India.

2. The findings and the recommendations of the Group have been summarised in Chapter VIII (pages 75-94). For convenience of reference, however, the main points raised in this report have been listed below:-

Medium of Instruction at the University Stage

3. The Group finds that the continuance of English as a medium of instruction at the university stage while the regional language is current in schools as a medium of instruction is fraught with ruinous consequences to the education itself and recommends that the regional languages should be adopted as media at the university stage in a carefully planned and phased programme which should be over by the end of the Fifth-Plan (1975).

4. The ideal of national education as one which preserves the mobility of students and teachers should be carefully provided for while adopting the regional languages as the media of instruction at the university stage. This can be done by teaching English and Hindi to students so intensively that B.A. special and M.A. students would be able to follow lectures in English and Hindi with ease and would be responsive to them as media of instruction, though not of examination. In short, the

normal medium of instruction should be the regional languages; but English and Hindi should be used as associate media of instruction. This will not rule out the possibility that at least a few university teachers could come from other parts of India and assist materially in the migration of students.

5. It is necessary to encourage the study of modern Indian languages at the secondary and university stages so that examiners from outside the region would always be available at the university stage. This is essential for the maintenance of standards.

#### The Pattern of School and College Classes

6. If the teaching of languages is to be done satisfactorily, the pre-university course should be of 12 years, preferably broken up as 4 + 3 + 2. The last stage of two years before a student enters the university is of very great importance because this can provide an opportunity of giving intensive instruction in English and or Hindi. The degree course should be of 3 years.

#### Three Language Formula

7. At present, the three language formula has been adopted in all States but its working is not satisfactory. It is, therefore, essential to modify it in view of future needs.

8. The new formula for teaching languages at the school stage should be based on the following principles:-

- (a) Throughout the school course of 12 years, the mother-tongue should continue to be studied as a compulsory language from class I to class XII. The time devoted to its study in the last years two years should, however, be reduced in order to make room for an intensive cultivation of English and Hindi.

- (b) In the first four classes, no language other than the mother-tongue should be taught; and while introducing the second and third language, care should be taken to see that no two languages are introduced simultaneously and that there is an adequate time-lag between their introduction to allow for consolidation.
- (c) Taking all things into consideration, the time devoted to the study of English would have to be much larger than that devoted to the study of Hindi or a modern Indian language, especially for those who desire to enter the Universities. The Group feels that university entrants will have to study English for a period of 8 years at school while a study of Hindi for a period of 5 years would be adequate.

9. On the basis of these principles, the Group has suggested a modified three-language formula which is given below:-

A. PRIMARY

Classes I-IV

The only compulsory language at this stage will be the mother-tongue or the regional language which will be the medium of instruction.

Classes V-VII

For non-Hindi speaking areas:

- (i) the mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) one of the two official languages - English or Hindi.

For Hindi-speaking areas:

- (i) The mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) English - or Hindi, if English is already taken as the mother-tongue under (i).

B. SECONDARY

Classes VIII-X

For non-Hindi-speaking areas:

- (i) The mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) English;
- (iii) Hindi.

For Hindi-speaking area:

- (i) The mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) English - or Hindi, if English is already taken as the mother-tongue under (i);
- (iii) A modern Indian language other than Hindi.

C. HIGHER SECONDARY OR PRE-UNIVERSITY

(1) University Preparatory Group

For non-Hindi-speaking areas:

- (i) The mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) English;
- (iii) Hindi.

For Hindi-speaking areas:

- (i) The mother-tongue or the regional language;
- (ii) English - or Hindi, where English is already taken as the mother-tongue under (i);
- (iii) A modern Indian language other than Hindi.

(2) Vocational or Semi-Vocational Groups:

The mother-tongue or the regional language will be the medium of instruction for these groups as for the others. But it may not be a subject of study. There will be compulsory study of English or Hindi or any other modern European or Indian language, depending on the type of occupation to be followed.

10. The main change proposed by the Group is that at the middle school stage (classes V-VII), the students will be required to study only two languages instead of three as at present - Hindi and English in the Hindi areas, and the mother-tongue and English (or Hindi) in the non-Hindi areas. It is presumed that those who desire to go to the University will take English while most of those who will not continue beyond the middle school stage (or even beyond the secondary) will generally opt for Hindi.

11. The Group has drawn up a very detailed syllabus for the study of English at the school stage. This has been done for the first time in India and is a very significant contribution. These syllabi would be found in Annexures II-A, II-B, II-C, II-D, III-A, III-B, IV and V.

#### Teaching of English in Colleges

12. The Group has emphasized the separation between the teaching of English as a language skill and the teaching of English literature at the collegiate stage. In the study of English, which should be compulsory for university students, the first should be emphasised. The second will be studied only by those who opt for English (special) at the university stage. On this basis, the existing courses in the teaching of English at the collegiate stage for B.A. (compulsory), B.A. (special) and M.A. will have to be completely recast.

13. Each Department in a college should have, on its own staff, an additional lecturer or lecturers whose duty it will be to introduce the students to the literature on the subject in English. Provision should be made for this work, for two periods a week; during the first year of the three-year degree course.

14. An important contribution of the Group is the preparation of specimen syllabi for the compulsory English course to be included in the three-year degree course at the lower level (which is meant for all students) and also for the higher level (which is meant for those who take special English). These syllabi will be found in Annexures VI, VII and VIII.

15. There is considerable need for research on the problems arising from the teaching of English in India. A degree like M.Ed. should really be conferred

on those who do outstanding work in the field of text-books, anthologies, simplified books, Teacher's hand-books, work-books, test papers, etc. A research degree need not be insisted on for university teachers of English in the same manner in which it is insisted on for other subjects.

#### Teachers of English

16. The Group has suggested the following qualifications for teachers of English at the school stage:-

(a) Middle School: A graduate with a year's training in a training college; or a person who has completed the higher secondary course, with a year's training in a content and methods course in English,

(b) High School: A graduate with Subsidiary or Principal English and a year's training in a training college; or a person who has graduated after passing the Indian School Certificate Examination and who has been trained in the teaching of English in a special programme for a year; or a graduate who has, in addition to being trained for a year in the methods of teaching English in a training college, also undergone a special content course in English for a year.

(c) The Higher Secondary and Three year Degree Stage:

A post-graduate degree in English with a diploma in the teaching of English as a second language; or a second class graduate with Principal English and with a Diploma as above (as a transitory measure).

17. The Group has recommended that one of the most important programmes to be undertaken immediately is to upgrade the qualifications of the existing teachers of English at the school stage to the level suggested above and to make all the necessary institutional arrangements to prepare the required number of teachers of English in future. The Group estimates that the number of additional

teachers of English that will have to be trained for the whole country during the next ten years is approximately as follows:-

State	<u>No. of additional teachers to be trained per years</u>	
	Fourth Plan	Fifth Plan
Middle School	16,000	15,000
High School	7,000	7,000
Higher Secondary or Intermediate	2,800	3,000
Three-Year Degree Course	2,300	2,400

18. For this purpose, the Group has recommended that -

- (a) The Central Institute of English should be expanded and strengthened;
- (b) A State Institute of English should be established in each State;
- (c) The universities should organise a one-year condensed course for those teachers of English in secondary schools who have not taken special English at the degree stage; and
- (d) The establishment of special training schools and training colleges for preparing teachers of English for the middle and secondary schools.

19. The Group has also prepared syllabi for -

- (i) A condensed and method course in English for training schools (Annexure IX); and
- (ii) A specimen syllabus for English methods in the B.Ed. degree course (Annexure X).

20. Special attention is invited to Appendix XIII which describes the place of English in schools in Japan, Turkey, Egypt, Germany and U. S. S. R.

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