



PROGRESS OF EDUCATION
IN
INDIA
1947—1952

QUINQUENNIAL REVIEW

With an Introductory Survey

By

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P R E F A C E

Readers of *Progress of Education in India 1947—52* will perhaps be struck by the material difference in the form of the present Report. In the past, the Quinquennial Review was both a survey of developments during the five years and a detailed report on the last year of the quinquennium. I have for some time felt that such an arrangement suffers from several drawbacks. The combination of the annual and the quinquennial report makes it impossible to keep the volume uniform with the Annual Reports of the other four years. It has also invariably delayed the publication of the Quinquennial Review. The Annual Reports contain a mass of detailed information on diverse topics whose collection cannot be completed till after a considerable interval. Thus the Annual Reports have been issued only up to the year 1948-49. Besides, the inclusion in the Quinquennial Report of detailed data concerning the last year of the Quinquennium tends to detract from its interest for the general reader without any compensating advantage to the educationist.

When the question of preparing the Report for 1947—52 came up before the meeting of the Directors of Education, I made the suggestion that we may in future issue an Annual Report in the standard form for the fifth as for other years. This would serve the needs of educationists and research scholars better as they would have a uniform series of Annual Reports every year. It would also enable the Quinquennial Review to be presented in a form which would make it more

readable and thus help to arouse interest in educational matters among a wider public. The Directors approved of this suggestion and it was decided that the Review would in future be presented as a general account of educational progress in the country without burdening it with too much statistical data and other miscellaneous information.

In his Decennial Survey, Sir John Sargent referred to the fact that the period saw eight Hon'ble Members or Ministers. During the Quinquennium under report, the direction of education in the country was throughout in the hands of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad. His wide scholarship and imaginative handling of educational problems have been of the greatest help and encouragement to all Educational Advisers during this period.

Sir John Sargent continued as Educational Adviser for a few months at the beginning of the Quinquennium and left in 1947 after he had served for almost ten years. In the Decennial Survey he has mentioned that he held the office longer than any other individual. One may add that few have held it with greater distinction. India will always remember him for the part he played in framing our first integrated and comprehensive scheme of national education.

Sir John Sargent was followed by Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar who, during his four months' tenure, helped in the establishment of the Central Institute of Education and the implementation of the interim recommendation of the Scientific Man-power Committee. Dr. Tara Chand, who succeeded him, was Educational Adviser for the major part of the Quinquennium and relinquished charge only in December, 1951. The most important developments during his tenure of office were the Report of the Universities Education Commission and the

establishment of the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur besides the formulation of a unified policy about the medium of instruction at all stages.

The Quinquennial Review is predominantly factual and based on compilation of data supplied by the Directorates. I have, however, added an Introductory survey and also a Section at the beginning of each Chapter in which I have occasionally permitted myself the liberty of expressing an opinion. I must make it clear that any opinions expressed in this Review are mine and do not in any way commit the Government of India.

Obviously a Survey like the present Report cannot be any one man's work. It is the loyal cooperation of colleagues in the Ministry and of Directorates in the States which has enabled the completion of what is at any time a fairly arduous task and was rendered more difficult by the peculiar circumstances of the Quinquennium. With the integration of the Princely States, this is the first Survey which seeks to cover the whole of India. This has not only increased the magnitude of the work but added considerably to its difficulties. Areas are being covered for the first time for which adequate records do not exist. I wish to express my appreciation of the unstinted cooperation and help I have received from the Directorates as well as officers and staff of the Ministry. Last, but not least, I must thank the Government of India Press, New Delhi, for the despatch and care with which they have rushed the work through the Press.

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INTRODUCTORY SURVEY

(a) *Impact of Political and Economic changes in Education*

Any report on the progress of education in India during 1947-52 must start from the recognition that there was a transformation of the Indian scene with the attainment of independence in August, 1947. The achievement of independence set before the people new objectives and imposed on them new responsibilities. The fact that India decided to be a Republic only served to underline the importance of education in the changed context. In other forms of government, leadership may be based on status, wealth or birth. A true democracy must derive its leadership from the totality of the people. This it can do only if there is a national system of education which guarantees to all the opportunity of leadership. A democracy must, therefore, offer boys and girls of the country the right to equality of opportunity *inter se* and with their coevals in other countries.

On the attainment of independence, India was faced with the task of remodelling her system of education in the national interest. The provision of universal, free and compulsory elementary education for all children of school-going age and of social education for all illiterate adults was the most urgent need. It was also necessary to reorganise secondary and higher education and make adequate provision for the expansion and advancement of scientific and technical education. Nor could the task of developing the cultural side of the nation be ignored. The princely order had helped to maintain many of the traditional forms of art, but with their disappearance and the withdrawal of the customary support given by propertied classes, there was a risk of losing long-standing traditions in drama, dance, music, literature, painting and other fine arts. After 1947, the State thus had to take the initiative in ensuring the continuance and development of various forms of art. It was also necessary to revive cultural contacts with neighbouring countries in the East and the West as these relations had, after the advent of British power, been greatly neglected. This involved a reorientation of the national outlook so that instead of being engrossed with contacts with Western Europe alone, India could develop a balanced outlook based on harmonious relations with all countries of the world.

The Constitution of India laid down as a directive principle that universal, compulsory and free education must be provided for all children within ten years of its promulgation. This was a revolutionary development in outlook and demands a gigantic effort on the part of the State and the people. The accomplishment of an intrinsically difficult task was made more difficult by the series of

events that have shaken India since the attainment of independence. Freedom brought with it the partition of the country which was unfortunately followed by the disruption of the life of millions. There was a movement of population on an unprecedented scale. An exchange of some ten million people took place between only the two Punjabs. A major portion of the entire resources in men, money and material of India had to be diverted to the gigantic task of rehabilitation of millions of displaced people. Before this problem could be fully solved, economic difficulties led to the devaluation of the Indian currency with attendant inflation and scarcity of goods. The last five years have also been a period of great difficulty on account of the failure of the monsoon or the onset of floods in different parts of the country. Food had to be imported from abroad on a scale unknown in Indian history. The rehabilitation of millions of displaced persons and the supply of food to areas where crops had failed taxed the resources of the country and made it impossible to find the funds necessary for educational development on the desired scale.

As against these political, economic and natural difficulties, there was one fact which helped, and will increasingly help the progress of the country. This was the integration of the former princely states into the Indian Union. The country has been unified in a way never experienced before. The co-existence of princely States and the former British provinces had been a drawback not only politically and economically, but even more from the point of view of the cultural and educational progress of the country. With some honourable exceptions, these princely States were educationally, and, therefore, socially backward, and retarded the progress of India as a whole. The process of merger followed by complete integration, has made them an integral part of India. The strength of a chain is measured by its weakest link. It is now for the first time possible to ensure that all the links in the chain of the Indian Union are of equal strength.

Since 1921, Education has been a provincial subject under the direct control of an elected Education Minister responsible to the State legislature. The Constitution of Free India has not deviated from that pattern and education at all stages, with two important qualifications, still remains a State subject. These qualifications are in respect of University Education and Technical Education. In view of the need for coordination of facilities and the maintenance of standards at the higher levels, the Constitution has placed on the Central Government the responsibility in these regards. The heavy expenses involved in Scientific and Technical Education require that there should be avoidance of any duplication in these fields. The promotion of higher scientific and technical education is, therefore, a central responsibility.

The attainment of independence led to a quickening of political consciousness among the people. The fact that the struggle for freedom was fought under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi gave it a unique character and ruled out a violent break with the past. There was, nevertheless, a section of the community which sought to wipe out the effects of history and tried to recreate conditions that existed thousands of years ago. Even among the sections which resisted such wholesale revivalism, there was an understandable emphasis on reviving indigenous elements in national education that had suffered neglect in the preceding centuries. One of the manifestations of this tendency was the attempt to replace English by an Indian language as the medium of instruction at all stages. Indian languages had already become the medium of instruction in most States at all stages but the university. All educationists agreed that at the University stage also, English must in course of time give place to an Indian language. While all educationists thus agreed that English as a medium at all stages must go as early as possible, the majority of them insisted that the pace of change must be governed by educational needs and not by political passions. The leadership of the country extended its support to this majority view, and ensured that standards, especially in Science and Technology, were not lowered through any sudden or hasty step.

The political and economic changes following the attainment of independence are also reflected in the progressive development of the education budgets of the Centre and the States. In 1946-47, all the major States and Centrally Administered Areas together spent about Rs. 20.5 crores on education. The Central budget was considerably less than Rs. 2 crores. For 1951-52, the budget for the corresponding States amounted to about Rs. 47 crores and the budget of the Ministry of Education had risen to Rs. 7.4 crores. The same fact may be shown in another way by pointing out that the total educational expenses in 1946-47 from all sources, public and private, was about Rs. 57 crores while by 1951-52 this figure had risen to over Rs. 120 crores.

(b) *Survey of General Progress in the Various Fields of Education and the Difficulties Encountered*

Of the various tasks which faced the national government, perhaps, the most important was the reconstruction of education at all stages to meet the requirements of independent India. Literacy had to be provided for the vast number of illiterate adults. At the same time, steps had to be taken to ensure that growing children were not denied facilities that their parents had lacked. Simultaneously steps had to be taken to promote the rapid expansion of Technical education necessary for the development of industry and agriculture.

It may be added that the reconstruction of education meant not only the expansion of available facilities but also the improvement of the quality of education.

A more detailed account of the expansion which has taken place in the last Quinquennium will be given in subsequent chapters and this introductory survey can make only a brief and passing reference to them. The provision which existed at the beginning of the Quinquennium catered for only 30 per cent. of the children in the age group 6-11, of less than ten per cent. in the age group 11-17 and of less than one per cent. for the age group 17-23. In the field of Engineering and Technical education, the position was even more unsatisfactory. In 1947-48, India produced only 930 graduates in Engineering and 320 graduates in Technology. The overall percentage of literacy was barely 15.

While the provision at the higher stages cannot, perhaps, in view of India's economic and industrial development, be regarded as inadequate, the provision at the other two stages is not only inadequate to our needs, but out of proportion to the provision which exists at the higher stage. It was this imbalance between the facilities at different levels which has justified the criticism that education in pre-independent India was top-heavy and fashioned only to meet the requirements of the Government. The criticism may not be altogether justified, for there is no doubt that the framers of this system of education did wish to introduce western science into India. At the same time, it cannot be denied that the need to train persons educated in English to assist in carrying on the administration of the country was one of the main reasons for the introduction of the western system. In this context, the attainment of independence laid on the Government the obligation to improve facilities at the elementary and the secondary stages both in quality and quantity.

Apart from the disproportion in the facilities of education at the different stages, there was also a disproportion in the facilities available in different areas of the country. One of the most glaring disparities was in the distribution of educational expenditure and educational institutions between rural and urban areas. While over 80 per cent. of the people of the country live in rural areas, the proportion of educational expenditure in rural areas was only 34.3 per cent. of the total educational expenditure of the country. Similarly, of the total number of elementary schools in the country only 75.3 per cent. were in rural areas. Even this does not tell the full story, for the number of rural schools was inflated by the prevalence of one-teacher schools. The disparity was even more marked at the secondary and the university stages.

Apart from this mal-distribution of facilities between rural and urban areas, there were inequalities which placed backward areas and backward groups in a position of special disadvantage. There are communities in India who have suffered from special disabilities for centuries. It was the obvious duty of independent India to redress their grievances. There had been a growing recognition of the special position of such unfortunate communities even in pre-independent India. It was, however, with the acceptance of the Republican Constitution that the State was specifically charged with the obligation to offer them opportunities of progress and development that would wipe out all such inequalities within a specified period of time. Similarly, there were certain areas, especially in the outlying regions of the country or in hills and forests inhabited by some of the aboriginal people that have suffered from long and continued neglect and required special treatment if they were to be raised to the level of the rest of the country.

By the end of the Quinquennium the position, though it was not yet fully satisfactory, had improved considerably. The percentage of children of the age group 6-11 in schools had risen to about 40. The result of this increase made itself felt in the field of Secondary and University education as a whole. In place of 2.37 lakh students who took the School Leaving Certificate or equivalent examination in 1947, the number for 1952 was 5.86 lakhs. The number of graduates in Arts and Science also increased from 24,814 in 1947 to 35,588 in 1952. In the field of Engineering and Technical education the number has more than doubled. In 1952, about 2500 graduates in engineering and about 600 graduates in technology went out of our various institutions. An account of the progress made in respect of special provision for pupils from various backward groups and areas will be given elsewhere. It is enough to mention here that the scholarships from Central funds for the collegiate study of such pupils has increased more than fifteen times between 1947 and 1952.

One of the most important developments during the Quinquennium was the acceptance by all States of a programme of converting existing elementary schools into Basic schools. The Post-War Educational Development Plan, popularly known as the 'Sargent Plan', recommended that universal free Basic education should be introduced for the entire age group 6-14 from area to area. In other words, it envisaged that in certain selected areas the Basic scheme was to be implemented in full. Many of the States pointed out that equity demanded that as against selected areas, the entire country should as soon as possible be given the facilities of universal education. During the All-India Education Conference in 1948, it was further pointed out that Basic education could not be introduced in

the higher classes till the children in the lower classes had been brought up in the Basic tradition. There was also the difficulty about the number of teachers necessary to introduce the new system. In view of these difficulties, the All-India Education Conference recommended that, while the unit of Basic education would remain eight years, as envisaged in the Sargent Report, its introduction might be in two stages. During the first period, the States should concentrate both their endeavours and finances on the junior Basic stage dealing with children of 6-11 and take up the senior Basic stage at the second stage of development.

It will be indicated later that there has been a further modification of the Central Government's programme of implementation of Basic education. According to one of the schemes formulated under the Five-Year Plan, it has been provided that one area may be selected in each State where intensive development of Basic education will be taken in hand without, however, giving up the idea of converting as many elementary schools in other areas into Basic schools as possible.

The acceptance of the ideology of Basic education also required a modification in the concept and methods of teacher training. Most States have undertaken a programme of establishing new training schools for training Basic teachers. Side by side, the old training schools are gradually being converted into Basic training schools. Where a State for some reason or another has not been able to accept a full programme of Basic education, provision has been made to introduce crafts in the training of teachers in the old type of primary schools. These traditional training schools are generally of two types, preparing teachers for primary schools and for middle schools. As a general rule, they prescribe a two-year course, but because of the great shortage of teachers, most States have permitted schools to reduce training to one year. As a result of the impact of Basic education, these traditional training schools have also given a greater rural bias to their course of training. Many include training in a craft. For example, junior teachers in the Punjab, in addition to the usual academic subjects, have to offer two handicrafts. These crafts vary and for women teachers, teaching in crafts like Domestic Science suited to the special needs and interests of girls has been provided. The aim is that with an increase in the number of teachers with knowledge of craft, the introduction of Basic education throughout the country will be made easier.

With the development of Basic education, the need to recruit teachers for senior classes of Basic schools and for the staff of training schools became more urgent. The demand was for teachers of the level of general knowledge and professional efficiency commonly

associated with a university degree. Many States have opened post-graduate Basic training colleges and some account of the developments will be given in a later chapter.

In the field of Secondary education, the most important event in the Quinquennium was the decision to appoint a Commission to survey the problems of Secondary education on an all-India basis. In the meantime, growing recognition of the need for diversification of courses led many of the States to provide new types of schools. Thus, in Uttar Pradesh, four types of courses have been recognised for secondary schools. There was a programme to establish special schools for each type of course. In Bombay, Madras and Madhya Pradesh, there were demands to establish agricultural and technical high schools, but it has to be admitted that progress in this field was not as rapid as was necessary.

The whole field of University education was surveyed by the Indian University Education Commission under the distinguished chairmanship of Professor Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan. The Commission submitted its report in 1949 and proposed far-reaching changes in the content, organisation and structure of University education. The Quinquennium also saw the establishment of eleven new universities. The need for a larger number of universities with a smaller number of students in each is obvious. It cannot, however, be said that the new universities were always established on educational grounds alone. Resources in manpower and finance were not always taken into consideration before launching a new university. There is thus a real risk that instead of standards being raised as a result of the establishment of new universities, competition between universities may lower standards further.

Apart from the establishment of new universities and an increase in the number of students in existing ones, some important steps were taken for the consolidation and improvement of existing facilities at the higher levels of education. One of the important recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission was to provide a larger number of scholarships to young men and women of promise in order to enable them to carry on higher study and research. During the Quinquennium, a programme of research scholarships for Science was instituted and a similar scheme for the Humanities was under consideration and has since been accepted. Another important recommendation was the provision of higher education for rural areas. The Central Government has not so far established a Rural University, but some institutions established by State Governments or under private auspices have been assisted by Central grants.

It is, however, in the field of Technical education that the most significant advances have been made since 1947. Apart from quantitative inadequacy, there was a great qualitative shortage in this field.

In fact, there was little provision for advanced training and research at the post-graduate level in the various fields of Engineering or Technology. These deficiencies have to a large extent been overcome by the reorganisation and expansion of the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore and the establishment of the Indian Institute of Technology at Kharagpur.

While education for children and young persons must be the first call on the nation's resources, democracy cannot afford to neglect the education of adults. In a country like India, where hardly ten per cent of the adult citizens are literate, a vast programme of adult education becomes a condition for the survival of democracy. All the States have instituted programmes of such education, but special mention may be made of the efforts of Delhi, Madhya Pradesh and Bombay.

The quantitative increase has been striking but, perhaps, even more significant is the qualitative improvement. At one time, programmes of adult education aimed only at teaching to read and write, but this led to a reaction which at times denied the value of literacy itself. The new conception of Social education formulated by the Government of India recognises the importance of literacy but places even greater stress on the need to sustain the interest of the adult. A new five-pointed programme of Social education has been formulated which seeks to place appropriate emphasis on (a) literacy, (b) measures of health and hygiene, (c) improvement of economic conditions, (d) civic education and training in citizenship and (e) recreational aspects of education.

An important development in the field of Social education was the launching of an intensified scheme of Social Education in Delhi in December 1950. This new all-out literacy campaign aimed at intensive work to eradicate illiteracy completely and quickly. The main features of this scheme were: (i) Educational *Melas*, (ii) Literacy Campaigns, (iii) Establishment of post-literacy centres, and (iv) Janata College. This scheme introduced a novel plan of education through audio-visual aids, aptly named "Educational Caravans".

Janata College was opened in December 1950 at Alipur. Its object is to train village leaders and eradicate illiteracy from the villages in Delhi State within a specified period. The building in which Janata College is housed provides accommodation for the training classes, cottage industries, work rooms, stores and living quarters. The students are carefully picked from among the villagers according to their qualities of leadership and given two to three months' training in groups of fifty. While in training, each student is expected to plan a practical programme for his village. On completing their training, students return to their villages and carry on a programme of Social education.

It was recognised at an early stage in the implementation of the programme that no permanent advance in this field could be achieved without the creation of suitable literature to sustain the interest of the neo-literates. Many of the State Governments have taken commendable action in this behalf. Special mention may be made of the literature produced in Madhya Pradesh, but, perhaps, the most important work was undertaken by the Ministry of Education under its direct auspices.

Early in the Quinquennium, the Ministry prepared a plan to bring out a *People's Encyclopaedia* to make relevant knowledge in all important subjects easily available to the general public. It also published through the agency of the Idara Talim-o-Taraqqi (Jamia Millia), nearly a hundred pamphlets in simple Hindi on various problems which interest the common man. Standards were laid down for the production of Social Education literature in a pamphlet, *Writing Books for Adults*. The preparation of a *Teacher's Handbook of Social Education* was taken up towards the end of the Quinquennium.

Another important development in the Quinquennium is the increasing attention to the cultural side of our life. India has a long tradition of people's culture which has expressed itself through folk songs, folk drama and folk art at various levels. The tradition of artistry is ingrained even in illiterate persons, as may be seen in the *alpanas* and decoration done by village women and girls, and dramas, dances and *kathaks* performed by village men. In order to maintain this tradition and encourage the development of art, the Government of India have instituted Presidential awards to outstanding musicians and scholarships and/or other monetary assistance to artists of merit.

Mention must also be made of the attempts during this period to revive cultural contacts with the outside world. India has a glorious history of such contacts in the past, but after the advent of the British, India's cultural contacts were confined almost entirely to Great Britain and a few other countries of Western Europe. Even before the attainment of Independence, Rabindranath Tagore had sought to re-establish such cultural contacts with the rest of the world and had visited countries so far flung as Japan and Brazil, Canada and Indonesia. After 1947, steps were taken to promote and foster cultural relations with other countries and particularly with our neighbours. The Indian Council for Cultural Relations was established with a view to strengthening India's cultural contacts with Asian countries, Turkey and other Western countries. To this end, the Middle East Asia Wing was created. Two more wings, namely, the South East Asia Wing and the African Section of the

Council were proposed to be set up to deal with their respective regions. The Council's most important activities are the publication of three Cultural Quarterlies, the purchase of books for presentation to libraries and institutions abroad, the acquisition of old manuscripts, and the financing of visits of students, professors and artists from India and abroad.

The Central Government instituted in 1949 a scheme of cultural scholarships for students from Asia, Africa and some Commonwealth countries. This scheme offers indigenous students as well as those of Indian origin, the opportunity to pursue higher education in India. Foreign countries which have offered scholarships to Indian students for studies in their countries have also recently been offered reciprocal scholarships. Dance groups as well as exhibitions of painting and fine arts have also been received from or sent to various countries, of which special mention may be made of Egypt, China, U.S.A., and U.S.S.R. India has also during this Quinquennium taken a lead in projects for the improvement of international understanding and cooperation. The *History of Philosophy, Eastern and Western*, a publication sponsored by the Government of India is, perhaps, the first attempt by a Government to present a unified history of world philosophy.

All educational progress depends ultimately on the quality of teachers. Facilities for the training of teachers have been increased manifold during the Quinquennium. Scales of salary have also been improved, though they are still short of what is needed to attract the right type of men and women to the teaching profession. Since the total number of teachers in the country in the elementary and the Secondary schools is about 800,000 only, even an increment of ten rupees per month to a teacher would mean an addition of only about ten crores to the country's total educational budget. This would be about ten per cent in addition to what is being spent on education today, but represent only about one per cent. of the total budgets of the Central and State Governments.

Not only are teachers ranked among the lowest paid public servants, but there is no adequate social recognition of the value of their work to compensate for lower salaries. In addition, the narrow and restricted life in rural areas, the lack of a proper cultural environment and general neglect by the public have created a situation where the teaching profession is often the resort of those who have failed everywhere else. There can be no future for a nation if teachers continue to be neglected and thus bring down the standards of future generations.

While it may take some time to bring salaries up to the necessary level, there is no reason why the Government and the public should

not adopt other measures to give due recognition to the teacher's work. A beginning in this direction has been made by the Central Government. Since 1952, a special Reception for Primary School Teachers has been held in Rashtrapati Bhavan which was attended by the President, the Prime Minister and the Education Minister of India. Such special marks of recognition, while they cost the State very little, help to restore the morale of the teacher and raise his status in the public eye.

(c) Important Committees and Conferences.

Perhaps the most important conference during the Quinquennium was the All-India Education Conference held on the 15th and 16th January, 1948. This conference was attended by all State Education Ministers, Vice-Chancellors of Universities and other distinguished educationists invited in their individual capacity. This conference made two major recommendations for the development of Indian education. The first was that the State must accept as its highest priority the provision of Basic education for children and Social education for adults and carry out measures for the purpose in a period shorter than that envisaged in the Post-War Development Plan. The other was the urgent need to promote the rapid expansion of Scientific and Technical education necessary for the development of industry and agriculture. The conference endorsed the recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education about the appointment of Commissions to survey the field of Secondary and University education.

The problems of Basic education were surveyed in some detail by the Kher Committee. The Committee recommended that universal compulsory Basic education should be introduced within a period of 16 years worked out on the basis of two five-year and one six-year plans. It also recommended that 70 per cent. of the expenditure on Basic education should be borne by the States and local authorities and the remainder by the Centre.

In the field of Secondary education, the Central Advisory Board has since 1948 been pressing for the appointment of a Commission to survey the entire field of Secondary education for the Country as a whole. Regional surveys were undertaken at the initiative of separate States, but no overall survey of Secondary education for the whole of India had ever been attempted. Financial stringency and various other factors delayed the setting up of the Commission, but ultimately before the end of the Quinquennium, the Government of India decided that a Commission should be set up for the purpose. An account of the Commission and its recommendations would, however, be more appropriate in a report of the next Quinquennium.

A brief reference has already been made to the Indian Universities Education Commission. It made valuable recommendations, some of which have already been implemented, especially in respect of the Central Universities. Other measures to carry out the recommendations of the Commission are in hand and will be indicated in greater detail in the appropriate chapter.

The Scientific Manpower Committee was appointed by the Government of India in 1947 to assess the country's requirements in scientific and technical manpower as well as to suggest measures to meet these requirements. It submitted its final report in July 1948. The Committee held that the overall requirements of the country in scientific and technical manpower during the next five to ten years period would be about 54,000 engineers and 20,000 technologists. The available resources of training were hardly sufficient to meet 50 per cent. of these requirements. Accordingly, a Five-Year Plan was framed to provide for the development of necessary facilities in education and research in the various branches of Science, Technology, Engineering, Medicine and Agriculture.

An interim Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco was set up in early 1949. As originally constituted, it consisted of 78 members representing various voluntary associations, State Governments and several Ministries of the Government of India and was divided into three Sub-Commissions dealing with Education, Science and Culture. The Constitution of the Commission has been revised, but the division into three Sub-Commissions has been retained. The membership has now been reduced to about fifty. Besides the members of the Commission, there will be associate members representing voluntary educational, scientific and cultural organisations of an all-India character. The affairs of the Commission are managed by an Executive Board of 11 members.

Special mention may also be made of a Rural Adult Education Seminar which was held in November 1949 under the joint auspices of Unesco and the Government of India. This was the first Seminar of its type to be held in the East and 19 countries from five Continents were represented at the Seminar. The Seminar made valuable recommendations for the promotion of fundamental education in Asian countries and may be regarded as the starting point of a programme of expansion in these fields in countries throughout this region.

Another important international Seminar was held in 1951 at Simla under the auspices of the United Nations. It dealt with problems of youth welfare and prepared a comprehensive programme which is now being implemented in stages.

A special importance attaches to two conferences of State Education Ministers held in January and August 1949. The first dealt with the problem of adult illiteracy in the country and framed programmes for the expansion of social education schemes with special reference to post-literacy work. The second dealt with the difficult question of the medium of instruction at different stages of the school course. This will be dealt with in greater detail in another section but it may be mentioned here that the consensus of opinion was that in the early stages, every facility must be given to children to learn through the mother-tongue.

Conferences of a different type, but likely to be of far-reaching importance for the development of Indian art were also held during this period. They considered proposals for the setting up of three Academies dealing with Letters, with Art and with Music, Drama and Dance respectively.

(d) *Medium of Instruction*

In a sub-continent like India, not only are there many languages but in some cases, people speak different languages in the same State. Children each with a different mother-tongue are often to be found in the same school. This has complicated the question of deciding upon a medium of instruction and many states before 1947 used English as the medium of instruction in high schools. After the attainment of independence, there was a natural desire to replace English by an Indian language, but while the desire was almost universal, there was no unanimity about the language with which to replace English. The Government of India called a Conference of State Education Ministers in August 1949 to consider the question and arrive at agreed decisions about the medium of instruction at different school stages.

It was unanimously agreed that the medium of instruction and examination in the Junior Basic (Primary) stage must be the mother-tongue of the child. Where the mother-tongue differed from the Regional or State language, arrangements should be made to impart instruction in the mother-tongue, provided there were not less than 40 pupils speaking the same language in the whole school, or ten such pupils in any one class. The Regional or State language should be introduced not earlier than Class III and not later than the end of the Junior Basic stage.

The Conference also decided that in the secondary stage, if the number of pupils whose mother-tongue was a language other than the Regional or State language was sufficient to justify a separate school in the locality, the medium of instruction in such a school may be the mother-tongue of the pupils. If these schools were organised

by private societies, they should be entitled to recognition and grants-in-aid from the State Government. The Government should also provide similar facilities in all Government, Municipal and District Board Schools where one-third of the total number of pupils of a school asked for instruction in their mother-tongue. The Regional language should be compulsory throughout the secondary stage.

These recommendations were sent to all State Governments with a request that they should be implemented as early as possible. Suitable teachers and adequate funds are, however, not easy to find. The lack of these has proved an obstacle to the full implementation of the recommendations. It has also to be pointed out that while generally conforming to the letter of the resolution, some State Governments have not paid the same attention to its spirit.

As regards the medium of instruction at the University stage, a conference of Vice-Chancellors was held in New Delhi in May 1948, which advised the substitution of English by Indian languages in graduated stages over a period of five years. The University Education Commission also recommended that English, which is at present the medium in most universities, should be replaced by an Indian language by stages, according to an agreed plan which would ensure that there was no deterioration in standards. This recommendation has been approved by the Government of India and the universities have been informed of it.

(e) *The Federal Language.*

The Constitution of India has laid down that Hindi in Devanagari Script shall be the official language of the Union and should be developed so that it may become a medium of expression of all the elements of the composite culture of India. With this objective the Government of India sent in 1949 a letter to State Governments, requesting them to make Hindi a compulsory subject in secondary schools. The University Education Commission recommended that students at the University stage should be conversant with the Federal language.

In order to further the evolution of Scientific terms in Hindi, the Government of India has constituted a Board of Scientists and Linguists. The Board held its first meeting in December 1950 and recommended that international scientific and technical terms should as far as possible be used in all books written in Hindi and the other principal languages of India. It was also suggested that an organisation should be set up to prepare dictionaries of scientific terminology and textbooks in Hindi.

During 1951-52 a Committee of Philologists and ten Committees of Experts were set up. A Hindi Section was created in the Ministry and the requisite technical staff appointed in order to implement the recommendations of the Board. A provisional list of technical terms in Hindi for secondary schools was undertaken and five such lists have since been published.

Another important scheme launched between 1951 and 1952 was a coordinated Five-Year Plan for the development and propagation of Hindi. The Ministry of Education also formulated a scheme for the teaching of Hindi to all Government employees. A Conference of leading Hindi organisations to consider ways and means of popularizing Hindi in non-Hindi areas, was held at New Delhi in March 1951.

The State Governments, as well as universities, have also taken suitable steps to promote Hindi by introducing it as a compulsory (or optional) subject of study and by opening Departments of Study in Hindi. Steps have also been taken to promote a knowledge of Hindi through broadcasting and other media.

The All-India Board of Technical Studies in Commerce and Business Administration set up in 1952 a Sub-Committee to recommend an efficient system of Hindi shorthand. This Committee was intended to carry further the preliminary work done by the Committee on Hindustani Shorthand and Typewriting that was appointed by the President of the Constituent Assembly of India in 1948.

(f) *Educational Administration.*

Since 1921, education has been a provincial subject under the direct control of an elected Education Minister responsible to the State Legislature. The Constitution of free India has not deviated from that pattern, and education at all stages still remains a State subject. In view of the need for coordination of facilities and the maintenance of standards at the higher levels, the Constitution has, however, placed on the Central Government a special responsibility in this behalf. The heavy expenditure involved in providing Scientific and Technical Education also makes it necessary that there should be no unnecessary duplication in these fields. The promotion of higher Scientific and Technical education is thus a Central responsibility. Apart from such direct responsibility allotted by the Constitution the Central Ministry of Education has also an important role to play in formulating general policies and ensuring uniformity in the pattern of education in the different States.

Before the adoption of the Constitution, India was divided into Provinces, States Unions and Chief Commissioner's provinces. These last were known as Centrally Administered Areas and were directly

under the administration of the Central Government. With the adoption of the Constitution, the States have now been divided into four groups A, B, C and D. Part 'A' States are those which were formerly known as Provinces, Part 'B' States have been formed by the amalgamation of the former Indian States, while Part 'C' and 'D' States generally correspond to the former Centrally Administered Areas. The Central Government still exercises a larger measure of control over them than over the A and B States. All A and B States have Legislatures with a Minister of Education responsible to them. Some C States also have their own Legislatures and Ministers.

The general pattern of administration in all these States is that there is a Department of Education under a Secretary who is generally an administrative officer. In addition, there is a Directorate of Education with the necessary supervisory and expert staff. In spite of the advice of various Commissions and repeated recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education, this system of dual control still persists under which an expert educationist is placed under a member of a Provincial or Indian Administrative Service. In the Decennial Review of Education in India during 1937-1947, Sir John Sargent has discussed this question in great detail and nothing need be added to what he has said.

It is only in the Central Ministry of Education that the functions of the expert and the administrator have been fused. In fact, it has been prescribed that no person can hold a high administrative post in the Ministry of Education unless he or she has had at least 3 year experience of actual teaching. This system has on the whole worked well at the Centre and the large expansion which has taken place in recent years has justified the soundness of the principle. From a staff of six in 1942-43, the Department of Education had grown to 11 in 1945. When it was converted into a Ministry of Education in 1947 the number of Gazetted Officers was 61 and on 31st March, 1952, it was 78.

During the major part of the Quinquennium, the work of the Ministry was divided into four main Divisions. (1) Administration and External Relations, (2) Scholarships and Information, (3) Technical Education and (4) Development and General Education. With the increasing volume of work, it was felt necessary to have a special Division in charge of Development and Planning. In 1951, the Ministry was accordingly divided into five main Divisions, viz., (1) Administration and External Relations, (2) General Education, (3) Scholarships, (4) Bureau and Development and (5) Technical Education.

In order to discharge its various functions, the Ministry of Education has collected and maintained throughout this period up-to-date

information, both statistical and otherwise, of all stages and types of education in the country. The Central Bureau of Education is charged with this responsibility and works through two sections which deal with Overseas and Internal information. The collection and collation of information enables the Ministry to exercise its functions of coordination. This it does mainly through the Central Advisory Board of Education which has continued to play as important a part in this Quinquennium as in preceding ones.

In the field of technical education, the Central Government has sought to discharge its responsibility through the All-India Council for Technical Education set up in 1945. Four regional committees with representatives of State Governments, Industry, Commerce, Labour, Universities, Technical Institutions and Institutions of Engineers have been set up to assist the Council in its work.

For the coordination of University Education, a University Grants Committee with limited functions operated for part of the Quinquennium. As a result of the experience thus gained and also as a result of the recommendations of the Indian Universities Education Commission, the Government have decided to set up a Statutory University Grants Commission with enlarged powers and functions.

Apart from its functions of coordination, the Central Government is also directly responsible for the four Central Universities and a number of other institutions of higher learning. The Central Government is administratively responsible for the Archaeological Survey of India, the Anthropological Survey of India, the National Archives and the National Library, Calcutta. Considerable development in their activities has taken place during the Quinquennium as will be indicated in the appropriate place. In addition, the Central Government also administers scholarships and similar awards in various fields both internal and external. It is also directly responsible for the development of cultural relations with other countries and in pursuance of that policy administers scholarships and awards made by foreign countries as well as international organisations.

One important problem of administration which has arisen in the course of the last five years may be indicated here. With the acceptance of Basic education as the pattern at the elementary stage, there was in some States a tendency to keep Basic schools outside the purview of the Directorate. The reasons advanced were that the old type of Inspectors had neither adequate knowledge of nor sympathy with Basic education and that in any case the development of this system could be best served by keeping it outside official control. In some States, Basic Education Advisory Councils were set up. In others the Director of Education was neither responsible for nor

aware of what was happening in Basic education. The Central Government strongly advised that Basic education must be made a part of the general educational system of the country and must therefore be brought under the overall control of the Director of Education, though special units of Basic education within the Directorate might be set up whenever necessary. The experience gained in the last five years has generally led the States to accept this suggestion and in almost all the States, Basic education now finds a place within the general educational pattern.

(g) Educational Legislation.

*Primary**

During the Quinquennium, legislation was enacted in several States that sought to introduce compulsory primary education. In 1947, the Assam Primary Education Act was passed, under which the State Primary Education Board was set up. Bombay passed the Primary Education Act of 1947 to provide compulsory Primary education and to make better provision for the development, expansion, management and control of Primary education. The Madhya Bharat Government enacted legislation in 1949 to introduce compulsory Primary Education. A Bill for compulsory Primary education was introduced into the Vindhya Pradesh Assembly in 1952.

*Secondary**

A legislation was passed in Bihar under which a School Examination Board was established in January 1952.

*University**

During the Quinquennium under report, there was a great deal of legislative activity in the field of University education.

Visva-Bharati was declared an institution of national importance by an Act of Parliament in 1951 which gave it statutory recognition as a University. The Aligarh Muslim and Banaras Hindu University Acts were amended during 1951-52 in order to bring these Acts into line generally with the Constitution and to reorganise these Universities on the lines recommended by the University Education Commission. A Bill amending the Delhi University Act, 1922 on similar lines was passed in 1952.

In Bombay, the Poona University Bill was enacted in 1948.

The University of Gujrat was established in 1950.

In 1951, the Patna University (Bihar) was bifurcated into two universities—Patna University and Bihar University. The Patna

*For West Bengal, Jammu and Kashmir and Kutch, please see appendices B and C.

University was established as a purely teaching university of the federal type for the colleges and departments at Patna. The Bihar University was set up as a teaching-cum-affiliating University for the colleges outside Patna and was meant to offer also post-graduate teaching facilities.

A significant advance was made in the field of women's education when the Shreemati Nathibai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University was, in 1951, constituted into a Statutory University by an Act of Bombay Legislative Assembly. This University was previously treated as an all-India organisation doing useful work in the field of women's education.

Libraries

In Madras, the Public Library Act of 1948 was passed to improve the working of the library system. Under this Act, library authorities were constituted for each district to promote the library movement in the State.

A Bill to rename the Imperial Library, Calcutta, as the National Library was introduced and passed at a session of the Constituent Assembly, held in August, 1948.

(h) Fresh Educational Developments.

Some account of new developments has already been given in surveying the general progress of education during the Quinquennium. It is, therefore, proposed to devote the present section to one specific topic, namely, the impact of the Five-Year Plan on educational programmes of the country. The preparation of the Five-Year Plan has from any point of view been one of the outstanding tasks of the period under review. Plans for educational expansion were no doubt framed also in the past, but these have generally been based on educational considerations alone. In the Five-Year Plan, education is viewed as part of the total national effort.

While the Plan has recognized that education must provide the foundation for national reconstruction, it has placed a greater emphasis on programmes which aim at adding to the material productivity of the country. The greatest stress has been placed on the development of multi-purpose hydro-electric projects, which will simultaneously increase food production and add to the power resources of the nation. The Plan frankly recognizes that Social Services deserve and will obtain a higher priority in subsequent plans.

With the limited funds that could be provided, it was not possible to plan for all-round educational expansion and development. The Plan, therefore, seeks to strengthen education in certain selected fields and devote the available resources mainly to the execution of

Pilot Projects, which would enable a much more rapid educational advance when larger resources become available. This has involved the determination of priorities but because of the widely varying needs and resources of various parts of the country, it has not been possible to lay down a uniform order of priorities for all areas. So far as the Government of India is concerned, the Plan, therefore, proposes that, in addition to meeting special responsibilities in the field of Higher and Technical Education, the Centre will during the period of the Plan assist only selected programmes of national importance in the fields of Elementary, Secondary and Social education. Special emphasis has been laid on the role of local authorities and voluntary organizations. This is due not only to the need of supplementing governmental resources by the funds available to private agencies, but also to a recognition of the importance of associating voluntary effort in such national programmes.

The Five-Year Plan provides about Rs. 155 crores for expansion of education. This includes Rs. 34 crores for the Centre and about Rs. 117 crores for the States for direct expenditure on education. In addition, four crores have been provided for assistance to voluntary Social Welfare organizations for the administration of which special arrangements are proposed. It may be pointed out that of the 34 crores placed at the disposal of the Centre, a major portion will in fact be spent in assisting the States to carry out selected programmes.

In the field of Elementary education, Central assistance is directed to two ends. On the one hand, the States will be helped to carry out pilot projects of Basic education in an intensive manner in selected areas. On the other, States will be helped to improve existing primary schools with a view to their ultimate conversion into Basic schools.

Programmes to develop and expand Basic education include the suggestion that a set of model Basic institutions should be established in a selected area in each A and B State and at Delhi among C States. These would comprise pre-Basic and Basic schools, a post-Basic school, a Basic teachers' training school and a post-graduate teachers' training college on Basic principles. Located in one compact area, these institutions would not only serve as pilot projects in the field of Basic education, but would also help to develop a spirit of self-help and cooperation in the entire community. The aim is to make the school the Community Centre for the reconstruction of the entire area.

Since Basic education cannot be introduced throughout the country immediately, a second group of programmes is intended to help the States in the introduction of crafts for existing primary schools as a first step towards their conversion into Basic schools. This involves

a large-scale programme of training craft teachers and it is intended to help the States to train such teachers at a continually increasing rate.

In view of the decision to appoint the Secondary Education Commission, the Plan does not consider in detail various problems connected with Secondary education. It has, however, pointed to the need of offering diversified educational courses to suit the different aptitudes of adolescent pupils. It also urges that Secondary education should enable a large majority of persons to fit into some vocation after completing their school career. The Plan, therefore, envisages the establishment of multi-purpose Secondary schools in which special stress should be paid to agriculture and allied activities as well as to cottage and small-scale industries.

The Plan has also considered the problem of over-crowding in universities. It suggests steps to draw as large a proportion of students as possible into gainful occupations before they reach the university stage and to apply suitable tests to select for higher education only those who have a special aptitude for it. The possession of a degree has long been regarded as an essential condition for entry into many grades of public service. The Plan takes note of the fact that this has contributed to over-crowding in universities. It therefore recommends that recruitment to the public service should be by competitive tests and non-possession of a degree should not be an absolute bar to candidature for such examinations.

The importance of Social education for national development has already been indicated. The Plan provides Rs. 7.5 crores in the Central Budget for such education. Several States also have their own programmes and an account of the work done and proposed to be done will be given at the appropriate place. It is enough to mention here that all forms of group activity should offer opportunities for Social education. The work done by village *Panchayats*, by Coöperative Societies or by Trade Unions should thus be fully utilized in implementing programmes of Social education.

In the field of professional education, the Plan makes specific recommendations in regard to (i) the development of facilities for Research and Post-graduate work, (ii) the provision of courses for various types of technology as also for business management and industrial relations, (iii) the reorientation of existing institutions in order to train students for the National Certificate Courses of the All-India Council for Technical Education, (iv) the expansion of training facilities at the artisan and craftsman level and the provision of an apprenticeship scheme, (v) the organization of refresher courses, and (vi) the establishment of rural training centres to raise the level of village artisans.

The Plan recognizes that women's education must receive special attention if the general level of education in the country is to be raised quickly. It recommends that while women should have equal opportunities to serve in various fields of education, special attention should be given to those in which they have marked aptitude. The organization of short-term courses for women in general education and in crafts is also recommended.

In the present system of education, manual work finds scarcely any place. One unfortunate consequence of this has been apathy, if not antipathy, to manual labour. The Plan recommends that some manual work should be encouraged as a daily routine for all students. In addition, at some stage during the course of their education, students should spend a period that may extend from six months to a year on some organised manual work. Such work should be related to the needs of the community, because of the material improvements that may result and the awareness it is likely to bring to students about the tasks of national reconstruction. It has been suggested that a beginning may be made on a voluntary basis with comparatively small groups, but as experience is gained such labour service should in course of time become nation-wide in its application. An amount of one crore of rupees has, therefore, been provided by the Plan for encouraging youth camps and labour service for students in universities and colleges.

(i) *Expenditure during the Quinquennium*

The following tables show the expenditure on education by sources as well as on the basis of States during the Quinquennium. It will be seen that governmental expenditure was more than doubled between 1947 and 1952. Expenditure from other sources also shows considerable but not proportionate rise.

Among the States, the largest proportionate increase was in Bihar and Delhi but Bombay made the greatest advance in actual expenditure on education. Special mention must also be made of Punjab and West Bengal who have, in spite of partition, registered an appreciable increase.

TABLE I
Total Expenditure on Education by Sources

Source	1936-37	1941-42	1946-47	1951-52*	Increase between 1937-42	Increase between 1942-47	Increase between 1947-52
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Government Funds	12,36,35,207	12,90,45,627	20,45,26,634	58,05,11,415	54,10,420	7,54,81,007	37,59,84,781
Board Funds	4,34,49,575	4,32,82,210	6,52,48,916	12,96,15,394	1,67,365	2,19,66,706	6,43,66,478
Fees	7,10,55,693	8,31,14,157	11,57,12,218	24,36,97,361	1,20,58,464	3,25,98,061	12,79,85,143
Other Sources	4,24,28,899	4,14,83,251	6,61,99,427	11,29,38,180	—9,45,648	2,47,16,176	4,67,38,753
TOTAL	28,05,69,374	29,69,25,245	45,16,87,195	1,06,67,62,350	1,63,55,871	15,47,61,950	61,50,75,155

* Excludes figures for Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir, Saurashtra and Travancore-Cochin which are not yet available. If figures for 1950-51 in respect of these States were taken, the total expenditure will come to over Rs. 120 crores.

TABLE II
Total Expenditure on Education by States

State	1941-42	1946-47	1951-52 (x)	Increase between 1942-47	Increase between 1947-52
A STATES					
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Assam	73,67,273	1,24,50,269	2,56,01,867	50,82,996	1,31,51,598
Bihar	1,89,10,591	2,99,11,835	7,81,73,381	1,10,01,244	4,82,61,546
Bombay	4,87,04,798	9,60,10,936	<u>22,62,20,208</u>	4,73,06,138	13,02,09,272
Madhya Pradesh	1,20,68,122	2,15,28,115	*	94,59,993	*
Madras	6,18,30,881	12,95,86,139	<u>22,48,26,015</u>	6,77,55,358	9,52,39,876
Orissa	42,94,691	91,54,701	2,12,72,411	48,60,010	1,21,17,710
Punjab	3,54,61,219	2,25,97,466	5,50,65,718	—1,28,63,753	3,24,68,252
Uttar Pradesh	4,63,75,422	7,10,45,515	17,28,41,718	2,46,70,093	10,17,96,203
West Bengal	5,46,12,831	4,47,53,479	12,48,99,138	—98,59,352	8,01,45,659
B STATES					
Hyderabad	*	*	*		
Jammu and Kashmir	*	*	*		
Madhya Bharat	*	*	1,82,15,757		
Mysore	*	*	3,49,83,981		

Pepsu	*	*	92,22,853
Rajasthan	*	*	2,65,31,377
Suarashtra	*	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	*	*	*

C & D STATES

Ajmer	13,81,966	23,51,411	62,55,840	9,69,445	39,04,429
A. & N. Islands	*	*	1,25,429		
Bhopal	*	*	16,15,300		
Bilaspur	*	*	2,62,385		
Coorg	2,42,951	4,55,372	15,40,659	2,12,421	10,85,286
Delhi	32,15,193	83,69,293	2,88,17,261	51,54,100	2,04,47,968
Himachal Pradesh	*	*	18,93,595		
Kutch	*	*	7,59,958		
Manipur	*	*	15,08,831		
Tripura	*	*	15,64,581		
Vindhya Pradesh	*	*	45,64,087		
TOTAL	29,69,25,245(a)	45,16,87,195(b)	1,06,67,62,350	15,47,61,950	

(x) Figures are provisional.

*Figures not available.

(a) Includes Rs. 24,59,307 in respect of Minor Administrations.

(b) Includes Rs. 34,72,664 in respect of Minor Administrations.

CHAPTER I

BASIC EDUCATION

(i) *Main Trends*

In the field of Elementary education, the two most important developments during the Quinquennium have been in the direction of introducing compulsory education throughout the country and the conversion of existing Primary schools into Basic schools.

The Constitution has laid it down as a directive principle of State policy that every endeavour shall be made to provide universal free compulsory education to all children of 6-14 within ten years of its promulgation. On the recommendation of the Central Advisory Board of Education, the Government of India had already accepted that the education of the children in this age group must be of the Basic type. Though the Constitution was not adopted till 1950, the movement for universal education has been in operation for many years. It, however, gained a fresh impetus with the advent of independence. There has been an almost universal desire for education among the people, but partly because of the shortage of trained teaching staff, partly because of lack of suitable school buildings, partly because of the economic value of the child to its parents, but mostly because of lack of funds, the State has not been able to satisfy in full the demand of the people in this behalf.

For many years, there has been dissatisfaction with the system of Elementary education prevalent in the country. Not only has it been narrow and academic but it has paid hardly any attention to the needs of rural areas. One result has been the constant drift of abler sections of the people to the towns. Besides, the system has been wasteful even from the point of view of attainment of literacy. Hardly 40 per cent of the children who entered in the lowest class in 1945-46 continued up to the fourth class in 1949. It will be readily admitted that even four years of schooling is hardly adequate to give permanent literacy and any shorter period is a case of national wastage.

For these and other reasons, there have been attempts at the reconstruction of education at the elementary level by changing the traditional pattern of Primary education into Basic education. The crux of this new development is the attempt to integrate all school subjects round some familiar craft and treat the school as a miniature community. The experiment began in 1938 in Bihar, Bombay and

some of the other States administered by Congress Ministries. The outbreak of World War II and the resignation of the Congress Ministries led to the suspension of the Basic education movement, except in Bihar. Bihar, therefore, is the only State where there has been a continuous experience of Basic education for almost 15 years.

The experience of the States in respect of the quality of education after the introduction of the Basic system has not been uniform. While the superiority of Basic over the old system is admitted by almost everyone, results have not always been commensurate with the hopes entertained about the system. The main reason for this has been the lack of teachers with the necessary ability and insight. Basic education attempts to make education easier and more interesting for the child but makes far greater demands on the teacher. Wherever teachers have worked the system with devotion and intelligence, the results have been commendable. Since, however, the profession of teaching is comparatively unattractive, the number of really able teachers is small. In these circumstances, it is not surprising that the introduction of Basic education has not in all cases had the desired results.

The attitude of the people towards Basic education also varies from place to place. In Bihar where the attempt has been attended by a large measure of success, the people are sympathetic to the scheme and show by their enthusiasm that they welcome the new system. This is largely true also of Madras, Bombay and some of the Tribal Areas. In other States, the experience has been less happy. In some cases, the introduction of Basic education appears to have met with resistance from the people and the teaching profession. In such areas, instead of improving the quality of instruction, Basic education has sometimes led to a lowering of standards in reading, writing and arithmetic.

In most of the States Basic teachers have been given a pay scale which is somewhat higher than the scales prevailing in the traditional Primary schools. The main justification for a higher scale is that the Basic teachers receive longer and better training. Another reason which weighed with State Governments was the inducement such higher salaries would offer to ordinary teachers to undergo training in Basic methods. In Madras, there is no difference between pay scales of teachers in Basic and in ordinary Elementary schools. This has created some dissatisfaction among Basic teachers and one of the Madras Reports states that "as Basic teachers are prone to put forth greater effort than teachers placed in non-Basic schools, there is growing discontent among Basic trained teachers."

When Basic education was first introduced, there was a tendency to confine the choice of crafts to spinning and weaving or agriculture

This sometimes led to curious anomalies. Kashmir has always been famous for its wonderful embroidery and woodwork. In Assam, silk spinning and weaving was common to almost every household. Nevertheless, the earlier Basic schools in these areas were often restricted to spinning and weaving of cotton. With the growth of experience, newer crafts are being adopted in Basic schools and have helped to bring the system into closer contact with local conditions. One school in the State has sought to develop a syllabus based on machine tools. There is no doubt that further innovations and experiments will be necessary before the system can meet the diverse demands of rural and urban areas. Nevertheless, it can be said that in Basic education, India has evolved a system suited to her own genius and full of possibilities for the rest of the world.

(a) Schools Enrolment and Expenditure

The progress achieved in the field of Basic education during the last three years of the Quinquennium may be seen from the tables on pages 29, 30, 31 and 32. The number of Junior Basic schools increased by nearly 75 per cent, as against an approximate rise of 50 per cent in the number of Senior Basic schools. Corresponding figures of enrolment, however, nearly doubled in the case of Junior Basic schools, and rose by about 25 per cent in Senior Basic schools. Likewise, there was a considerable increase in direct expenditure on Basic education. A large percentage of the expenditure was met from Government funds.

TABLE III

Junior Basic Schools.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52†	
	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls
A STATES						
Assam	35	6	83	7	115	6
Bihar	293	..	298	2	248	3
Bombay	13	3	15	1	13	1
Madhya Pradesh	*	*
Madras	170	..	402	..	530	..
Orissa	94	..	136	..	175	..
Punjab	15	2	29	12
Uttar Pradesh	*	*
West Bengal	61	..	86	..	112	2
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*
Jammu and Kashmir
Madhya Bharat	12	..
Mysore	73	..	101	..	101	..
Pepsu
Rajasthan
Saurashtra	1	..	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	3	5	..	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer
A & N. Islands
Bhopal
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi	88	35	90	60	90	60
Himachal Pradesh
Kutch	1
Manipur
Tripura	1	..	1	..	1	..
Vindhya Pradesh
Grand Total	826	47	1,234	72	1,426	84

* Information not available.

† Figures are provisional.

TABLE IV
Enrolment in Junior Basic Schools.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52†	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
A STATES						
Assam	1,674	806	3,819	1,910	5,173	2,444
Bihar	21,019	1,659	27,828	3,240	21,596	3,019
Bombay	566	720	866	483	544	428
Madhya Pradesh	*	*
Madras	12,718	6,285	26,949	14,577	34,687	19,954
Orissa	4,065	1,104	7,067	2,453	8,587	3,028
Punjab	1,371	607	2,627	1,285
Uttar Pradesh
West Bengal	3,919	1,260	6,572	2,231	9,223	3,852
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*
Jammu and Kashmir	*	*
Madhya Bharat	508	..
Mysore	4,403	1,539	4,948	1,796	5,985	2,144
Pepsu
Rajasthan
Saurashtra	134	73	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	123	175	104	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi	4,109	3,231	4,529	4,664	5,398	5,498
Himachal Pradesh
Kutch	73
Manipur
Tripura	25	..	36	..	50	..
Vindhya Pradesh
Grand Total	52,498	16,727	84,367	32,138	94,378	41,652

*Information not available.

†Figures are provisional.

TABLE V
Senior Basic Schools.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52†	
	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls
A STATES						
Assam	1	..	4	..
Bihar	137	3	220	4	278	4
Bombay	35	6	38	9	41	11
Madhya Pradesh	79	..	78	..	*	*
Madras	34	..
Orissa	1	..	1	..	1	..
Punjab
Uttar Pradesh
West Bengal
B STATES						
Hyderabad	•	•
Jammu and Kashmir	•	•
Madhya Bharat
Mysore	3	..
Pepsu
Rajasthan
Saurashtra	•	•
Travancore-Cochin	•	..	•	•
C & D STATES						
Ajmer
A. & N. Islands	•
Bhopal
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi
Himachal Pradesh
Kutch
Manipur
Tripura
Vindhya Pradesh
Grand Total	252	9	338	13	361	15

* Information not available.

† Figures are provisional.

TABLE VI
Enrolment in Junior Basic Schools.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
A STATES						
Assam	59	60	140	246
Bihar	16,186	1,347	30,364	3,355	37,754	4,053
Bombay	5,774	3,242	6,285	4,502	7,070	4,765
Madhya Pradesh	19,951	1,735	19,677	1,949	*	*
Madras	5,014	3,600
Orissa	72	27	129	102	121	83
Punjab
Uttar Pradesh
West Bengal
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*
Jammu and Kashmir	*	*
Madhya Bharat
Mysore	159	21
Pepsu
Rajasthan
Saurashtra	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi
Himachal Pradesh
Kutch
Manipur
Tripura
Vindhya Pradesh
Grand Total	41,983	6,351	56,514	9,968	50,258	12,768

* Figures are not available.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52†	
	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A STATES						
Assam	58,248	..	1,34,178	12,061	1,59,666	18,534
Bihar	3,87,797	4,39,232	7,20,891	9,24,819	8,10,412	13,91,094
Bombay	23,577	1,94,709	43,409	3,60,978	34,257	4,61,338
Madhya Pradesh	6,37,048	..	7,70,255	*	*
Madras	2,74,270	..	8,74,473	..	12,74,803	2,56,918
Orissa	1,58,771	16,645	2,69,454	8,608	3,69,565	9,274
Punjab	32,867	..	1,29,124	..
Uttar Pradesh
West Bengal	72,981	..	2,02,148	..	2,90,740	..
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*
Jammu and Kashmir	*	*
Madhya Bharat	11,324	..
Mysore	71,788	..	1,32,881	..	1,62,979	4,859
Pepsu
Rajasthan

*Information not available.
†Figures are provisional.

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TABLE VII—continued.

State	1949-50		1950-51		1951-52†	
	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.	Junior Basic Schools.	Senior Basic Schools.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Saurashtra	23,998	..	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	5,937	..	12,074	..	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi	4,76,617	..	6,83,715	..	11,14,497	..
Himachal Pradesh
Kutch	2,376
Manipur
Tripura	8,554	..	26,620
Vindhya Pradesh
TOTAL	15,38,540	12,87,634	31,59,084	20,76,721	43,74,068	21,42,017

* Information is not available.

† Figures are provisional

(b) *Teachers*

One of the main difficulties in transforming ordinary Primary schools into Basic schools has been the difficulty of making the ordinary Primary school teacher take to Basic methods. In some States, and notably in Bihar, great progress has been made in the training of teachers at Basic institutions. Pressure on Elementary schools has, however, made it impossible for the number of trained teachers to keep pace with the increasing number of schools and expanding enrolment. The result has been that in most States, Basic education has not met with the success anticipated for it.

In the co-educational Basic schools of *Ajmer*, the 130 additional teachers provided under the State Scheme of Basic Education were for the most part Matriculates who were Basic-trained or with equivalent qualification.

The main problem in regard to Basic teachers is one of training, and most States have plans to train teachers on a large scale. In *Assam*, the Basic Advisory Board, at its meeting in 1950, adopted a resolution in favour of introducing Basic education statewide, and the immediate conversion of Guru Training Centres into Basic Training Centres. Unfortunately, this could not be enforced in 1951-52, but a Primary Education Officer (who is also Secretary of the State Primary Board) was sent for training and to visit education centres in all schools for three months in 1951.

In *Bihar*, where the ideology of Basic education has made great headway and won the sympathy of the people, well-organised attempts have been made to train teachers on a large scale. The total number of teachers in Basic institutions in the State shot up from 235 in 1946-47 to 3,326 in 1951-52. Of these teachers, 3,136 were men and 190 women. All teachers serving in Basic schools were trained.

Teachers were classified under two heads, i.e. self-trained teachers of converted schools and teachers trained in Basic training schools. Self-trained teachers who showed a real appreciation of the scheme and aptitude for it, were given a short period of training in Basic training schools. It was decided by the Department to train teachers of traditional Primary, Middle and High schools in the atmosphere of Basic institutions and to give them a bias for craftwork. Short training camps of a month, and in some cases of six weeks' duration, were organised at Basic training schools. Attempts were made to train Sub-Inspectors and Deputy Inspectors of Schools in batches in a training course lasting two months at Sevagram. Provision for training in Basic education for Administrative Officers, Instructors and so on, was made in the Basic Training College (at *Nrsinghnagar*) at *Turki* which has functioned since 1951, with the admission of graduates to a one-year course. A separate Basic wing exists for ex-

students at the Kumarabagh Basic Training School. A revised curriculum for courses and colleges was drawn up during the Quinquennium. Attached to the Turki Basic Training College, now known as the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya, is the nucleus of a Rural University.

In *Bombay*, 17 Government Institutions (including one non-governmental institution) have an adequate number of Basic-trained graduates on their staff (75 per cent. of the total number) and have worked as full-fledged Basic training institutions. The output of these training institutions was more than 3,000 trained teachers per year. All of them were well acquainted with crafts and the ideology of Basic education.

To start Primary training institutions in *Bombay*, three Graduates' Basic Training centres—one for each regional language—were established in 1948. Up to the end of 1952, 360 graduates received training in these institutions. Besides, Urdu-knowing graduates were deputed to the Jamia Millia to receive training in Basic education. Till the end of the Quinquennium, eight teachers have been trained and posted in Urdu Training Institution at Poona. The Principals of Primary training institutions, Government as well as non-Government, were put through a special course of training in Basic Education and craft. The Primary Teachers' Certificate Examination was held in conformity with the revised syllabus for the first time in 1952. In order to secure a thorough supervision of Basic and Craft schools, arrangements were made to train Inspecting Officers in Basic Education. Most Class I officers of the Administration Branch were deputed to Sevagram for ten days to observe and to participate in the activities of Basic educational institutions. Those, who missed this opportunity, were put through a short-term training course conducted at Poona in 1952.

In order to provide Basic trained teachers in the newly started Basic schools at *Delhi*, it was decided to open two training institutions, one for men and the other for women. These institutes were started in August 1948. Two batches of 21 and 23 women teachers were sent for a Refresher Course to the Teacher Training Institute at Daryaganj, Delhi. These teachers were taken from Government Primary schools that were converted into Basic schools in August, 1950. For those trained in old methods, a Refresher Course in Basic Education was organised at the Jamia Millia. A Refresher Course was arranged for teachers of Government Primary schools in the summer of 1951. Old village teachers had the course repeated for their benefit, and at least 100 of them attended.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, a short course was organised for selected teachers in 1949. This was followed by deputing six teachers for training to Wardh.

Hyderabad deputed six trained graduates to Sevagram in 1951-52 for a one-year course in Basic Education, and upon their return from Wardha, they were posted at training centres.

In *Madhya Bharat*, the number of teachers and educational officers deputed by the Department to receive training at Wardha in 1949 was eight. Another batch of eight followed between 1950-51. Refresher Courses were held in 1950 and 1951.

The number of trained teachers employed in Basic schools in *Madras* was, 1,198 men and 239 women in 1950-51. Corresponding figures for 1951-52 were 1,596 men and 509 women. 97.5 per cent. of the teachers were trained, perhaps the highest percentage in India.

In *Orissa*, there were 366 teachers in 1951-52 as against only 77 in 1947-48. Of these 13 were women. It was decided to conduct simultaneous training in two batches at all training schools where no facilities of this type or funds were available. A training course was introduced with the approval of the Basic Education Board and 134 teachers, who had no service in Elementary training at Basic schools, received training in weaving and auxiliary crafts for one month in Basic training schools.

In the *Punjab*, a Basic trained teacher is placed in the same scale as a junior teacher, but is allowed a start of Rs. 50, instead of Rs. 40. For two years no Departmental Examination was held at the end of the training courses, and employees and Inspectors rarely agreed on the efficiency of the work done. The Department, therefore, decided to conduct a regular examination to recruit the best teachers. Those intended for Basic schools are required to undergo a year's training in special training institutions. Their initial academic qualifications are higher than those of ordinary Junior teachers. Proficiency, both in the Basic Craft and Agriculture, Spinning and skilled teaching on Basic lines, has to be attained, in addition to proficiency in a number of purely pedagogic subjects.

(c) *The Economic Aspect of Basic Education*

The educational value of Basic education has now been accepted almost universally, but there are still doubts about the economic possibilities of the system. The experiments that have been conducted in various States during the period under review have not fully justified the productive claims made on its behalf. In certain States, and notably in Bihar, considerable progress to this end has been made, but elsewhere the results have been disappointing. In *Madras*, *Mysore*, the *Punjab* and *Uttar Pradesh*, problems were experienced that do not seem capable of early solution. In some cases, experience seemed to suggest that Basic education at the lower stage is unlikely to pay its way. The relative stress given to the educational and the

productive aspects of Basic education varies from State to State. Everywhere, though the productive aspect has not been encouraging, great importance is attached to the educational value of activity methods inherent in the system.

In *Ajmer*, in almost all schools, spinning leading to weaving, was the Basic craft during the period under review. Due emphasis was placed on the productive aspect of Basic education but educational considerations *per se* came first. In *Assam*, all sorts of cottage industries are given importance at the Basic training centres where work is done on a cooperative basis. There are no servants or cooks and there are common kitchens for all. Distinctions of caste and creed have been abolished and the first stage of a classless society, established. At *Titabar*, in addition to spinning, weaving and agriculture, sericulture was introduced successfully. At *Raha*, bee-keeping was started and attempts were made to discover the economic as well as the educational possibilities of cottage industries.

In *Bihar*, strenuous efforts have been made to cultivate land offered to schools. On the whole, local response has been encouraging though much land still requires to be brought under cultivation. Bihar expects that within the next Quinquennium, Basic institutions will probably be able to meet the major portion of expenditure from the sale of produce of crafts and from crops grown in fields by students and teachers. Spinning was effectively done in all Basic schools and many were provided with looms.

Problems relating to the productive aspect of Basic education vary from State to State. In *Bihar*, this type of accommodation and adequate equipment is always a serious handicap notwithstanding the efforts made to meet the cost of children's education out of their own earnings. The income of schools could be increased if the entire land possessed by schools is brought under intensive cultivation by rotation of crops, if weaving is introduced in right earnest into all Basic schools and if institutions are fully equipped with materials and given adequate space. Offers of land has come from the public and the Board of Basic Education has resolved to permit Local Bodies and other private agencies to start schools in these areas.

In *Bombay*, the disposal of finished products of Basic schools was one of the most important subjects dealt with by the Bombay Advisory Board of Basic Education that was constituted twice, once in 1947 and again in 1950.

At *Delhi*, the main problem has been to find suitable places for marketing selected products of arts and crafts from Basic schools.

In *Madras*, the productive side of Basic education has not developed to any appreciable extent. The Sub-Committee of the Advisory Board at its meeting in 1950 recommended that details should be made available of total and *per capita* expenditure on craft equipment, of raw materials the value of finished products and methods of disposing of these products. Certain minimum standards of earning from pupils in each grade of Basic schools were prescribed early in 1950. It decided that every teacher should be able to spin at least two hanks per week. Consequent upon the revision of the syllabus of Grades I to VIII of Basic schools, fresh instructions were issued in 1951 revising previous norms. District Educational Officers were required to scrutinise monthly crafts reports to see that schools maintain an adequate standard. Recurring expenditure per school between May 1948 and December 1948 was Rs. 1,179-6-0. For the same period, the value of produce was Rs. 2,101-5-1 yielding a net earning of Rs. 921-15-1. Self-sufficiency has not so far been achieved as it is difficult to find ready markets for articles produced by children that are not always of a good quality. There were difficulties in the initial stages in the supply of craft equipment and these have generally been overcome. Deficiency of equipment appeared to be chronic over the period under review and this hampered productive work. Between 1951-52 only 67 schools had space of ten cents to one acre. The rest either had little or no gardening space. In consequence, spinning continued to be the main basic craft of schools and income was comparatively low.

Production from schools in *Mysore* makes it clear that for many years Basic education in the State cannot be self-supporting. Indeed, the amount realised from sale proceeds is negligible as compared with the total expenditure incurred on Basic schools. The reason for this appears to be that the Basic Scheme has not caught the popular imagination and that villagers are still sceptical of its merits.

One of the main problems in the State appears to be that children in Primary schools do not make products that are really marketable. Agriculture is an important Basic craft, but with the failure of the rains this scheme is liable to fail. In addition, schools were not supplied, during the Quinquennium under review, with requisite raw materials and equipment either in time or regularly. Gardening, a subsidiary craft, requires additional facilities in order to be productive. In most places, village teachers are opposed to the Basic ideology. Urban-mindedness has penetrated the village and the rural ideology of Basic education is resisted. Trained teachers do not generally appear to have much faith in the scheme. From the experience of the last five years, a teacher in a Basic school needs all his energy, time and intelligence to convince the villager of the advantages

of Basic education. The present grades, allowances and living conditions of Basic teachers are not sufficiently attractive to induce people to work whole-heartedly for this type of education. Administratively, there appears to be some need of intensive propaganda for a supply of better equipment and for better organisation and sale of products. Supervision, guidance and statistical information are still inadequate. If the productive aspect of Basic education is studied over an eight-year course, it is evident that the higher the standard, the better the production. The first three or four years are preparatory and not so productive; the last four years are more valuable and may pay their way. Finally, Basic schools lack such necessary facilities as land, water and fencing.

In Orissa, income per child in Basic schools was Rs. 2-12-3 between 1951-52 as against Rs. 2-5-0 in 1950-51. The *per capita* income was Rs. 5-0-9 as against Rs. 4-10-0. Total income from Basic training schools was Rs. 4,958 in 1951-52 as against Rs. 6,103 in 1950-51 and Rs. 1,378 between 1947-48. Income per trainee in 1951-52 was Rs. 28. Money saved as a result of the pupils' own labour was about Rs. 60 per head between 1951-52. The highest percentage of self-sufficiency, as reported by Messrs Lakhani and Pires who studied the self-supporting aspect of Basic education reached by Junior Basic schools in India, was 12:1 attained by the Annayasipur Junior Basic school between 1950-51.

Schemes of Basic education calculated to bring about economic self-sufficiency have not been successful in the Punjab in Junior Basic Primary schools. Several factors have militated against the success of self-sufficiency. The chief of them are the unsuitability of young children at this stage for agricultural work as well as the difficulty of irrigation, and the crudeness of yarn spun by children.

In Uttar Pradesh, Basic education was organised mainly on the recommendations of the Narendra Dev Committee Report. The report does not specifically recommend self-sufficiency for all schools and funds are, therefore, provided by Local Boards and the Government. Efforts have been made to market the products of Basic schools, e.g., vegetables, yarn, book craft, modelling, knitting, embroidery, crochet. This has been done chiefly to give teachers and students some incentive to bring school and home together, and to encourage the spirit of self-help, but not to make Basic education pay its way. The Department of Education in Uttar Pradesh does not subscribe to the self-supporting aspect of Basic education as an essential feature of Basic schools.

Experience during the Quinquennium under review in Uttar Pradesh has made it evident that Basic schools cannot support themselves, but that certain liabilities can be avoided or at least substantially reduced.

(d) *Organisation and Administration*

The Governments of States are directly responsible for Basic schemes undertaken in the course of the period under review.

In *Bihar*, District Inspectors of Schools supervise the work of Post-Basic (Multilateral) High schools. Junior and Senior Basic schools were under the direct supervision of the Deputy Inspectors of Schools. The superintendent of Basic education supervised schools and assisted teachers and Inspecting Officers with guidance and advice. Each Basic institution or group of institutions had a Local Committee with advisory functions and the Head of the Institution functioned as Secretary to the Committee. Each District had a District Education Council with the District Magistrate as President, the District Inspector of School as Secretary and Chief Executive Officer to supervise expenditure incurred from all non-recurring grants. District Educational Councils bore the responsibility for the supply of craft equipment and books. The work of relief and employment through Khadi production continued to be under the control of the Joint Khadi Board through the agency of Basic schools. In order to develop and maintain a standard of efficiency, schools were organised on model lines in selected areas under the direct supervision of officers of the Department.

In January 1948, the Government of *Madras* stated that in localities where Basic education was introduced, the management of schools should not be allowed to maintain ordinary Elementary schools without the specific permission of the Director of Public Instruction and that recognition granted to Elementary schools should be withdrawn if the management did not agree to convert schools into Basic schools. The Director was empowered to withdraw recognition from schools if the management failed, without adequate cause, to depute teachers for re-training in Basic education centres organised by the Government. Control of Basic education in effect vested in the Director of Public Instruction. With the introduction of Basic schools, important steps were taken to promote new policy in respect of Basic education. A Basic Education Advisory Committee was appointed to advise the Government. The question of having a separate Board and vesting in it full powers of administration and control of Basic education was examined in 1949. It was decided to enlarge this Board, but to give it only advisory powers.

In *Mysore*, no separate administrative agency exists for Basic schools as they were started as an experimental measure. As far as possible, officers trained in Basic education were posted during the period under review as Inspectors of Schools to *Talukas* where Basic schools are at present working. 15 schools in the neighbour-

hood of the Basic Training Centre in Vidya Nagar, which is under the direct administrative control of the Superintendent of the Centre, continued to function. A Basic Education Committee, composed of officials and non-officials with the Director of Public Instruction as Chairman, functions in the State.

The Board of Basic Education, Orissa, consists of 21 official and non-official members, with the Minister as Chairman. It supervises Basic schools under the further direction of the Director of Public Instruction.

(ii) *New Schemes and Experiments and Outstanding Problems*

One of the most important new experiments conducted under the Basic Education Scheme in Bihar was the organisation of intensive Social Education work in selected areas. The Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya Basic Training College, 19 Basic Training schools and 13 Post-Basic schools were required to adopt a number of neighbouring villages for intensive work and to plan Social education as part of the scheme of teacher-training so that students could come into contact with the community around them. Satisfactory progress was achieved in most institutions. Experience has taught workers that it is not an easy task to induce adults to attend literacy classes. Social education centres during the period under review have not confined their work to the removal of illiteracy. Entertainment has proved a popular medium for attracting adults to centres and for bringing about their participation in Social education programme.

The most serious problem was the dearth of suitable workers. Though this was tackled by the scheme of training at the Social Workers' Training Institute and also Basic institutions in general, the fact remained that people were not inclined to engage in Social education work in a spirit of selflessness and sacrifice, but expected honoraria for the work they did. A change in outlook is taking place, but only very gradually.

The State's limited resources were another problem that the Social Education Plan had to face. Generally it was found that several useful items in the scheme could not be implemented owing to shortage of funds. The total cost to the Government on the scheme rose by more than Rs. 3,00,000 during the Quinquennium under review.

In order to ensure the proper supervision of Basic and Craft schools in Bombay, arrangements were made to train inspecting officers in Basic education. Most Class I Officers of the Administrative Branch were deputed to Sevagram for ten days to observe and participate in Basic Education Institutional activities. A few

Inspecting Officers, such as Craft Organisers, Craft Assistants, Deputy Educational Inspectors and Craft Supervisors have undergone an intensive course of training for about a year at Sevagram. The Advisory Board of Basic Education is concerned to investigate a number of important problems, such as a scheme on the organisation of a practical examination in craft at the Primary School Certificate Examination for pupils in Craft schools; the introduction of Leather work as a Basic Craft in Primary schools; the consideration of a comprehensive course of one year for the training of teachers in pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary education.

Delhi's plan for universal Basic education was introduced in 1948. Under the plan 45 schools, including 17 for girls, started work in villages with a population of about 1500. At the beginning these schools were housed in *chaupals* and teachers employed in them were drawn from trained refugee teachers. Before being sent to school, they were given a short Refresher Course in Basic Education at the Jamia Millia. Compulsion was introduced for children between six to seven in the areas where schools were started.

A Coordinating Committee to expedite Basic education in the Delhi Province that consisted of representatives of the Ministries of Education, Health, Agriculture, Information and Broadcasting, Labour and the Local Administration, was set up. At the same time, the Delhi Province Educational Development Board, with representatives of the Ministries of Education and Finance, was established to review the scheme from time to time and take necessary steps to enforce it.

During 1947, 20 Primary schools in *Hyderabad* were reorganised and teachers trained in agriculture were appointed to teach this subject in schools. The Government sanctioned a scheme to extend instruction in agriculture gradually to all Primary schools. In rural areas every selected school had a small farm or garden or both attached to it. In 1951-52, two Training centres for Basic education, one at Bhiknoor, the other at Mominabad were opened. Four centres in General Education attached to High schools for boys were opened in 1952. Additions to these training centres were mainly to meet the dearth of trained teachers in Primary schools.

The *Madras* Advisory Board of Basic Education recommended the holding of Regional Conferences at convenient centres once a year, so that the preparatory stage of starting Basic training schools, Basic schools, and the training of Inspecting Officers might be covered. The Government accepted this recommendation. The number of Basic schools in existence during the period under review was small as compared with the number of basic trained teachers of the right type. Private agencies did not come forward to start Basic schools. Labour, Municipal and Panchayat managements did not generally

take to Basic education. Only District Boards were compelled to convert some of their schools. Teachers actually trained in Basic education were not absorbed into Basic schools because a sufficient number of schools have not yet been converted into Basic schools. The public has not yet accepted Basic education as enthusiastically as might have been expected. Little progress has been made in the production of textbooks for Basic education.

In *Orissa* the scheme of introducing Basic features into existing Primary schools led to the organisation of a condensed course for officers of the Inspecting Branch. These courses were held in selected Basic training schools. Three mobile training squads have functioned since 1951; they were meant to impart Primary training in Basic education for a month to existing Primary school teachers. It was possible to train 498 Primary school teachers in the State. Considerable time was devoted by each squad to the cleaning of places of public meeting, villages and outlying roads, to digging wells and pits and other things of a similar nature. The squads created a cordial atmosphere in places where training centres were opened by winning the cooperation of the village people.

CHAPTER II

PRIMARY EDUCATION

(i) *Main Trends*

We have already indicated that there has been a general trend towards the conversion of existing Primary schools into Basic schools. Such conversion is, however, bound to be a long-term process. Every effort had, therefore, to be made to ensure that existing Primary schools are improved in order to overcome some of their most obvious deficiencies. One of the measures adopted for the purpose is the introduction of a craft in ten ordinary Primary schools. It was felt that this would not only make it easier to convert them into Basic schools but would also improve their educational efficiency.

As in the case of Basic, the greatest obstacle to the improvement of Primary education has been the lack of suitable trained teachers. Most States have tried to expand facilities for training and the number of trained teachers has in fact, increased. The expansion is not, however, equal to the increase in the number of new schools and the enrolment of pupils. Wherever new training institutions have been started, they have generally been of the Basic pattern. Even the old type of training schools have been given a craft bias with a view to allow the introduction of craft into the ordinary Primary school.

The most striking feature during the Quinquennium has been an almost phenomenal increase in the enrolment of pupils at the elementary level. The number of Primary schools has increased substantially rising from 1,34,966 in 1947 to 1,84,033 in 1952. The increase in enrolment has, however, been still greater. It rose from 1,00,47,317 in 1947 to 1,62,88,960 in 1952. Though the increase is most marked in respect of Government managed schools, the schools under local authorities or under private bodies have contributed the bulk of new pupils.

The Central Advisory Board of Education and various Educational Commissions have generally been against the continuance of single-teacher schools. The difficulties of such schools are obvious. The most obvious one is that of supervision of school work if the teacher is for any reason absent. In spite of this, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of single-teacher schools in several States, particularly in Bombay. The reasons for this are not far to seek. Where villages are scattered and small, it is not possible to provide

for many teachers. Single-teacher schools thus appear to be the answer to the problem of providing education in small villages and hamlets. Some States like Assam have, however, discouraged such schools though one would think that they were particularly suited to some areas of the State. States which have fostered such schools have issued instructions to District School Boards to ensure that alternative arrangements are made promptly whenever the teacher is for some reason or the other away from work.

Co-education at the elementary level has been common in some of the States for many decades. During the Quinquennium it has spread even in areas where it was not popular formerly. There has also been an increase in the number of girls attending boys' schools and *vice versa*. The relative proportion of girls to boys at the elementary stage varies from State to State—the highest figure being attained by Travancore-Cochin State and the lowest by Vindhya Pradesh.

Special mention may also be made of the expansion of educational facilities in Tribal Areas and other educationally backward regions of the country. With a few honourable exceptions, most of the former Indian States also suffered from lack of adequate provision. On their integration into the Indian Union, facilities for education had in some cases to be built up from the very base. There were regions in the hills or outlying frontiers where no facilities at all existed in the past. To give one example, in the North Eastern Frontier Agency, there was an area of almost 30 thousand square miles where not a single school existed before 1947. A survey was made in 1948 and 17 tribal and four non-tribal schools were started between 1949-50. There was, however, remarkable enthusiasm for education in these areas. The demand for expansion has led to the establishment of 1871 schools during the Quinquennium. Of these 632 are Government Primary schools, 349 are aided, but as many as 890, or more than half, have sprung up without any government aid.

Salaries of teachers at the elementary level still remain unsatisfactory even though some improvement has been made throughout the country. The improvement is most marked in the Centrally Administered Areas. In 1949, salary scales in such areas were revised with retrospective effect from 1st January 1947. In some cases there was a five or sixfold increase, but even this cannot be regarded as adequate, particularly when we remember the fall in the purchasing power of the rupee. Other States have also revised salaries upwards but the salaries and the social status of the teacher require to be improved much more if the profession is to attract and retain the right type of recruits.

It has been generally conceded that women make better teachers at the elementary level than men. In some countries of the West, they constitute as much as 90 per cent of teachers at the elementary level. For various reasons, the number of women in the profession is still comparatively low in India. There has been some increase in the proportion and States have generally encouraged women to take up the profession but the position still remains unsatisfactory.

The very sharp increase in enrolment has already been mentioned. In the absence of an adequate number of teachers and housing facilities, this has led to one undesirable development. The shift system has been introduced in many urban areas and in some States it has operated even in the interior. The general position with regard to buildings and equipment remains unsatisfactory, but there is increasing awareness of the need for improvement. One welcome feature is the development of voluntary effort in improving the accommodation situation. In many States, and most significantly in the Tribal Areas, the people have come forward with offers to supply land and building for schools, if the State undertook to provide the teacher.

Expenditure on Primary schools has increased in all States. In fact taking the country as a whole, direct expenditure on Primary schools has been almost Rs. 35 crores in 1952 as against 15.26 crores in 1947. Wastage and other defects, however, remain and do not appear to have been solved to any great extent. An experiment was made during the Quinquennium to remedy this by allowing enrolment to remain voluntary but once the child had been enrolled, he had to complete attendance for at least four years at school.

(a) *Schools and Enrolment*

Statewise distribution of Primary (including Junior Basic) schools and the enrolment in them for 1946-47 and 1951-52 appears in the adjoining Tables. It will be seen that in almost all States a considerable increase is recorded in these institutions, but the increase does not keep pace with the increase in enrolment. The rise in the number of boys' schools is more striking than in the number of girls' schools. Indeed, there are instances (Madras and Bengal) in which girls' schools have decreased in number. In Madras, the distinction between boys' and girls' schools was removed after April 1948 and all schools were called boys' schools. In West Bengal, the diminution in the number of schools was due primarily to the elimination of uneconomic schools and the amalgamation of smaller schools for girls that were in close proximity with one another.

TABLE VIII

Number of Primary (including Junior Basic) Schools in States in India

State	1946-47		1951-52*	
	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls
A STATES				
Assam	**8,420	*1,464	9,945	1,227
Bihar	18,296	1,964	22,024	2,187
Bombay	17,188	1,804	26,225	2,058
Madhya Pradesh	4,723	488	†	†
Madras	31,980	4,180	39,230	..
Orissa	6,409	206	9,472	224
Punjab	2,429	817	3,528	1,073
Uttar Pradesh	18,370	1,678	29,438	2,589
West Bengal	12,192	1,580	14,409	755
B STATES				
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	†	4,155	357
Mysore	†	†	9,965	610
Pepsu	†	†	816	112
Rajasthan	†	†	4,262	432
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
C & D STATES				
Ajmer	227	78	404	77
A. & N. Islands	†	†	22	..
Bhopal	†	†	299	35
Bilaspur	†	†	25	..
Coorg	116	2	82	1
Delhi	177	63	372	166
Himachal Pradesh	†	†	478	28
Kutch	†	†	226	37
Manipur	†	†	530	28
Tripura	†	†	408	9
Vindhya Pradesh	†	†	1,601	122
TOTAL	‡120,600‡	§14,366§	1,71,996	12,127

*Figures are provisional.

**Figures refer to pre-partitioned Assam.

†Figures are not yet available.

‡Includes 73 institutions from Minor Administrations.

§Includes 42 institutions from Minor Administrations.

TABLE IX

Number of Students on Rolls in Primary (including Junior Basic) Schools in States in India

State	1946-47		1951-52†	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
A STATES				
Assam	3,71,909	1,34,147	4,16,188	2,10,094
Bihar	7,75,192	1,31,204	10,69,696	1,94,086
Bombay	11,75,253	4,89,789	22,74,516	11,91,870
Madhya Pradesh	3,25,230	87,802	£	£
Madras	21,23,184	13,33,948	26,77,113	15,35,010
Orissa	1,85,914	64,156	3,54,718	1,11,096
Punjab	1,66,870	56,805	3,14,909	1,16,883
Uttar Pradesh	13,86,453	1,89,055	24,56,803	3,83,342
West Bengal	7,61,364	1,98,157	10,97,387	3,92,926
B STATES				
Hyderabad	£	£	£	£
Jammu and Kashmir	£	£	£	£
Madhya Bharat	£	£	2,08,827	27,148
Mysore	£	£	4,28,927	2,18,837
Pepsu	£	£	44,492	7,691
Rajasthan	£	£	2,03,775	34,676
Saurashtra	£	£	£	£
Travancore-Cochin	£	£	£	£
C & D STATES				
Ajmer	16,242	6,116	29,538	11,743
A. & N. Islands	£	£	1,002	437
Bhopal	£	£	8,491	2,799
Bilaspur	£	£	2,444	164
Coorg	9,465	5,454	3,234	2,369
Delhi	21,624	10,722	57,337	33,315
Himachal Pradesh	£	£	18,929	1,658
Kutch	£	£	14,706	4,048
Manipur	£	£	29,710	6,501
Tripura	£	£	17,897	3,619
Vindhya Pradesh	£	£	63,166	4,843
TOTAL	73,32,104*	27,15,213†	1,17,93,805	44,95,155

*Includes 13,404 Students from Minor Administration.

†Includes 7,858 Students from Minor Administration.

£ Figures are not available.

+ Figures are provisional.

(b) *Teachers*

There has been an increase in the number of teachers both trained and untrained during the period under review, but neither has kept pace with the increase in the number of schools or in student enrolment. In most States the shortage of trained teachers is the main obstacle to the improvement of education at this vital stage. In some States, notably in Bombay, a determined drive has been made to train teachers for Primary education with a Basic bias, but the shortage continues. In Bihar and Orissa, the number of teachers at this stage of education has fallen and the overall picture is disquieting. Pay scales are everywhere inadequate. This is the most important single reason for the teacher shortage.

In *Bihar*, there were 41,698 teachers between 1951-52 as against 33,548 between 1946-47. This shows an increase of 8,150 teachers against a net increase of 3,951 schools during the Quinquennium. Of the 41,698 teachers employed in Primary schools, the percentage of trained teachers was 59.20 as against 61.91 in 1946-47.

In *Bombay*, there was a sharp rise in the number of pupils per teacher, though the number of trained teachers practically doubled between 1946-47 and 1951-52, being 45,846 in the latter year. Of these, 9,889 were women and 35,957 men.

In *Coorg*, the increase in the total number of teachers between 1946-47 and 1951-52 was 155. Women teachers have increased from 62 to 95 and men teachers from 313 to 435.

In *Madhya Bharat*, there were very few trained teachers in the smaller States, but the number increased from 3,750 in 1948-49 to 8,463 in 1951-52.

In the *Punjab*, teachers in Primary schools numbered 10,509 in 1952, showing an increase of 3,162 over the corresponding figure for 1948.

In *Travancore-Cochin*, there was a total of 14,906 trained teachers and 2,756 untrained teachers between 1947-48. In 1951-52, the number of teachers trained and untrained, including specialists, was 23,278.

The teacher shortage in Primary education with an increasing scholar-enrolment implies that the teacher-pupil ratio is unsatisfactory from the standpoint of competent teaching or sound learning. Attempts have, however, been made to place a limit on the number of pupils allotted to a teacher. In Assam, under the old system, any number of scholars could be sent to a single-teacher school. Now, a teacher may have allotted to him no more than 40 boys or 40 girls.

The average number of children taught per teacher in the *Punjab* in 1951-52 was 41 and in *Bombay* 40.

Pay scales for Primary teachers vary from State to State, but are nowhere satisfactory. Even in Centrally Administered areas like Ajmer and Delhi, teachers' salaries between 1947-48 were in some cases as low as Rs. 15 p.m. During the Quinquennium under review, the Government of India accepted the recommendations of the Central Pay Commission and introduced revised scales of pay throughout India. A trained Matriculate Headmaster is now paid Rs. 68-4-120—E.B.—5-170 plus a personal pay of Rs. 15. An Assistant Teacher, who is a trained Matriculate or Senior Vernacular Middle pass earns Rs. 68-4-120—E.B.—5-170; an untrained Matriculate or Junior Vernacular non-Matriculate gets Rs. 55-3-85—E.B.—4-125-5-130; an untrained non-Matriculate gets Rs. 35-1-40-2-60. Added to the dearness and other allowances, it may be said that no teacher in the State gets less than about Rs. 100 a month.

In *Assam* the minimum pay of a Primary school teacher at the end of the Quinquennium was Rs. 30 p.m. in the scale of 30-1-35—E.B.—1-40 as against a minimum of Rs. 12 p.m. that used to be paid to Primary school teachers under Local Board schools. A trained and confirmed teacher in *Assam* now earns Rs. 35 p.m.

In *Bombay* there has been an upward revision in pay scales for Primary teachers. The trained Primary teacher earns Rs. 40-1-50—E.B.—1½-65—S.G.—65-2½-90. An untrained Primary teacher earns Rs. 35-1-40.

The scale of pay of teachers in *Orissa* was revised and fixed at Rs. 30-½-40 and Rs. 22-½-30 for trained teachers and untrained teachers respectively, as against the previous rates of Rs. 12 and Rs. 7 p.m. Teachers in Government schools enjoy the benefit of a Provident Fund as well as of Pension, and those under Board Management Schools of a Provident Fund only.

The pay scales of Primary teachers in the *Punjab* is Rs. 40-2-60--3-90-4-110 for Junior teachers with five advance increments for Basic-trained teachers.

(c) Buildings and Equipment

The general state of buildings and equipment at the elementary stage of education is unsatisfactory. Owing to financial stringency, most States have not been able to increase the land allotment for accommodation earmarked for Primary education and, one or two States excepted, little has been undertaken by way of improvement or experiment in better accommodation.

In *Bihar*, an overwhelmingly large number of schools are housed in semi-permanent buildings with mud walls and straw roofs, constructed and repaired from time to time by the village community. The number of permanent buildings of top design are few. Even where schools have their own buildings, lighting and ventilation are inadequate. Total expenditure on buildings, furniture and apparatus, however, rose from Rs. 4,34,605 in the first year of the Quinquennium to Rs. 9,49,157 in the last.

Some advance has been made in *Bombay* where authorised municipal and new Primary school buildings have been constructed and extensions or special and ordinary repairs to the existing schools, have been carried out.

In *Coorg*, accommodation is inadequate for the growing school-going population. Classrooms are small and, with the exception of the oldest Primary schools, poorly equipped. In this respect, single-teacher schools are, perhaps, the worst. Some of them have five standards with only two or three blackboards, and some have only one. Teaching aids and charts are rarely provided.

In *Delhi*, school buildings are a crying necessity. The minimum requisite of a model school is a good building with reasonably good equipment, but Primary schools in the rural areas of Delhi are at present housed either in village *chaupals* or are held under trees. This has hampered the enforcement of Compulsory education. The Delhi Post-war Educational Development Board laid down that residents of villages, for which Basic schools were opened, should contribute Rs. 2,000 towards the building fund and that the rest of the expenditure should be borne by the Government. In accordance with this decision, 21 villages have contributed amounts varying from Rs. 500 to Rs. 6,552.

Up to 1947-48, Primary schools in *Hyderabad* were generally housed in rented buildings that were both unsuitable and insanitary. When it came to implementing the programme for expansion of Primary education, the Government decided to finance this out of Government funds giving priority to building construction. 175 buildings were constructed and two purchased up to the end of 1947-48. The amount spent on construction, expansion, etc. in the last year of the Quinquennium was Rs. 1,02,029. 25 Primary schools were provided with top design buildings and schemes were launched to construct school-huts for 162 schools.

Buildings for Primary schools in *Orissa* have come into existence primarily through private local effort. Provision was made under the Post-war Scheme to improve and enlarge existing non-Government Primary school buildings, and to provide them with adequate

equipment. The scheme was executed and improvement of buildings and equipment was taken up.

Though a few Local Bodies in some rural areas in the *Punjab* have made praiseworthy efforts to raise and improve buildings, the position in this regard is still unsatisfactory. The large majority of municipal schools continued to be housed in inadequate buildings and have been in a state of disrepair. Very few have libraries.

Some of the covenanting States of *Rajasthan* had a bad legacy in buildings that were 'kutchra' thatched houses on which no repairs had been undertaken from the beginning of World War II. Equipment was nil, blackboards did not exist and children sat on the bare floor. Heavy expenditure was, however, incurred during the Quinquennium and every effort was made to improve buildings in respect of living space and ventilation.

At the time of *Saurashtra's* formation, Primary school buildings in the State were unsatisfactory. Most of them were one-room schools accommodating five classes. During the Quinquennium a scheme was evolved whereby buildings were constructed in places where 80 per cent. of the expenditure was forthcoming in the form of public contribution.

In *Uttar Pradesh*, schools were housed in poor, rented and borrowed buildings, many of which were in a state of disrepair. Furniture and equipment were both inadequate. During the Quinquennium, buildings have definitely deteriorated and so has equipment.

(d) *Introduction of Compulsory Education*

Attempts have been made during the Quinquennium to introduce and enforce Compulsory education at the Primary stage, but they have not met with much success. Illiteracy and economic backwardness of parents, the economic value of the child to his parents in both rural and urban areas and, above all, the lack of adequate educational facilities within easy reach, account for the failure to enforce compulsion effectively.

In the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*, Compulsory education was not introduced at all. In Assam it was introduced into 30 selected areas of the plains sub-divisions with effect from the 1st February, 1949. In 1952 it was extended to about 1/6th of the total area of the towns of Assam and 22.6 per cent. of the total area of its villages. But the population affected by the Scheme was only 19.7 per cent. of the entire population in the districts of the plains.

In *Bihar*, Compulsory education for boys between the ages of six and ten was introduced in 1940 in 17 districts, headquarters and municipalities, and it continued to operate for the five years under

review. The total number of institutions where compulsory attendance was enforced was 588 in urban areas and only eight in rural areas. The number of scholars on the rolls was 53,151 in urban and 357 in rural areas. Girls attending schools voluntarily numbered 5,297 in urban areas and none at all in rural areas. In certain parts of the State the prosecution of parents who did not send their children to schools was started, but prosecutions proved of little avail, and the scheme did not progress.

In *Bombay*, Compulsory education was introduced between 1947 and 1948 in 19 pre-merger districts of the State in all cases with a population of 1,000 and over. Since 1949-1950, villages with contiguous inhabited areas having a population of over 1,000 in the aggregate, have also been under compulsion. In 1951 to 1952 children of age-range 7 to 11 were under compulsion in 19 original districts of the state, and though the scheme envisaged was extended to children of the age-range 6 to 11, in fact, in operation it had to be restricted, for reasons of financial stringency, to children of 7 to 11. In 1947, a Bill was introduced into the Legislature to repeal the 1903 Act and to provide Compulsory education so as to make better provision in Primary education in this State.

In *Coorg*, Compulsory education was not introduced.

In *Delhi* it was introduced into the rural areas of the State but was not actually enforced. A Bill to introduce compulsion was recently prepared by the Directorate of Education, Delhi State and sent to the Government for consideration. Compulsory Education Committees consisting of official members were formed in villages to exhort the villagers to send their children to school, and between 1948-49, 8,680 children went to school. The figure for 1951-52 is substantially higher.

In *Hyderabad*, as a preliminary to making education compulsory, it was declared as early as 1922 that Primary education would be free. A Scheme of Compulsory education was introduced in 1949 into the selected areas. 140 new schools were opened and 138 district schools recognised in 1947. Enrolment in selected areas was 40,731 (accounting for 74 per cent. of the total number of school-going children in the area) in that year, but this pace could not be maintained during the disturbed conditions of 1948, when there was a set-back and the percentage fell to 56. For all practical purposes, compulsion is no longer enforced.

Compulsory education was introduced into the Nimar district of *Madhya Bharat* in 1940, and 55 new schools were opened in the district. The Compulsory Education Act of *Madhya Bharat* was

passed in 1949 and so far 512 Primary schools, of which most are single-teacher schools, have been opened.

In *Manipur* Compulsory education was not introduced.

In *Orissa*, education was made free at the Primary stage and provision for better educational facilities was undertaken in order to make education compulsory, but the outlook of parents had not changed for the better and attendance was poor. Children left school in the middle of the year and were detained in classes year after year. Climatic factors and social prejudice told against regular and satisfactory attendance.

In the *Punjab*, Compulsory education does not exist for girls, but it was introduced for boys in 1298 rural and 37 urban areas. By the end of 1952, enrolment in the urban and the rural areas respectively was 410,562 and 122,141. It was necessary to employ coercive methods in certain areas. The Compulsory Education Office functioned in the early part of the Quinquennium, but as there was no room to accommodate more boys at the school, it was decided to abolish this office. The Compulsory Education Act of the State has not, however, outlived its utility. Strict enforcement and extension to other areas is necessary.

In *Rajasthan*, Compulsory education is a very recent concept and no compulsion is at present enforced.

Compulsory education was introduced into *Travancore-Cochin* in 1947 and 288,271 children attended schools in nine *taluks* in which compulsion operated. In 1951-52 education was made compulsory in two more *taluks* of Travancore area and two of the Cochin area, being extended to Cochin for the first time. The enrolment was 12,09,813 of the total school-going population.

In *Uttar Pradesh*, Compulsory education continued to operate as in the last Quinquennium, in 26 districts (partially) of 357 areas. The only change was the extension of the area. But Compulsory education has not made appreciable headway, though it has cost the State Rs. 40,00,000.

Compulsory education has not been introduced into *Vindhya Pradesh*.

(e) *Expenditure*

State-wise details of expenditure on Primary schools for the years 1946-47 and 1951-52 may be seen in tables X and XI.

TABLE X
Direct Expenditure on Primary Schools
1946-47

State	On Institution for		
	Boys	Girls	Total
A STATES			
Assam	28,94,410	3,84,419†	32,78,729
Bihar	76,63,108	6,44,316	83,07,424
Bombay	3,63,67,508	90,91,244	4,54,58,752
Madhya Pradesh	63,87,699	11,58,413	75,46,112
Madras	4,82,55,972	89,10,964	5,72,06,936
Orissa	26,67,332	1,28,209	27,95,541
Punjab	33,13,080	10,84,655	43,97,735
Uttar Pradesh	1,22,49,472	10,60,262	1,33,09,734
West Bengal	67,39,429	11,74,364	79,13,793
B STATES			
Hyderabad*			
Jammu and Kashmir*			
Madhya Bharat*			
Mysore*			
Pepsu*			
Rajasthan*			
Saurashtra*			
Travancore-Cochin*			
C & D STATES			
Ajmer	4,26,923	2,24,360	6,51,283
A. & N. Islands	*	*	*
Bhopal*			
Bilaspur*			
Coorg	1,67,172	1,492	1,68,664
Delhi	5,93,006	4,76,991	10,69,997
Himachal Pradesh*			
Kutch*			
Manipur			
Tripura			
Vindhya Pradesh*			
Total	(a) 12,80,56,838	(b) 2,45,64,549	(c) 15,26,21,387

(a) Includes Rs. 3,31,727 in respect of Minor Administration.

(b) Includes Rs. 1,84,960 in respect of Minor Administration.

(c) Includes Rs. 5,16,687 in respect of Minor Administration.

† Figures relate to Pre-Partitioned Assam.

Not available.

TABLE X—continued.

Direct Expenditure on Primary Schools (including Junior Basic Schools)
1951-52

State	On Institutions for		
	Boys	Girls	Total
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A STATES			
Assam	65,84,745	8,38,082	74,22,827
Bihar	1,76,50,656	12,05,523	1,88,56,179
Bombay	8,81,80,372	1,64,82,232	10,46,62,604
Madhya Pradesh‡			
Madras	9,64,60,128	..	9,64,60,128
Orissa	61,37,031	2,14,532	63,51,563
Punjab	82,98,234	23,70,662	1,06,68,896
Uttar Pradesh	4,23,72,948	42,53,560	4,66,26,508
West Bengal	1,80,69,606	20,07,329	2,00,76,935
B STATES			
Hyderabad‡			
Jammu and Kashmir‡			
Madhya Bharat	47,97,713	7,97,696	55,95,409
Mysore	1,17,55,622	15,91,917	1,33,47,539
Pepsu	15,58,859	2,39,105	17,97,964
Rajasthan‡			
Saurashtra‡			
Travancore-Cochin‡			
C & D STATES			
Ajmer	21,01,872	5,80,893	26,82,765
A. & N. Islands	54,982	..	54,982
Bhopal	3,58,736	1,49,009	5,07,745
Bilaspur	61,566	..	61,566
Coorg	86,701	2,615	89,316
Delhi	34,57,882	22,10,705	56,68,587
Himachal Pradesh	3,21,976	31,198	3,53,174
Kutch	2,63,704	96,109	3,59,813
Manipur	4,31,681	36,776	4,68,457
Tripura	3,77,522	10,180	3,87,702
Vindhya Pradesh	16,79,941	1,38,341	18,18,282
Total	‡ 31,10,62,477	3,32,56,464	34,43,18,941

‡ Information not available.

* Figures are provisional.

(f) *Wastage and other difficulties*

There is a high degree of wastage at the Primary school stage of education that manifests itself chiefly in the untimely withdrawal of children from school.

In most villages of *Coorg*, and specially in the northern areas of the State, people send their children to the first two standards and then withdraw them, so that they may tend the cattle and do farm work. Children naturally relapse into illiteracy. In *Hyderabad*, out of 78,727 boys in Class I in 1945, 33,732 reached Class IV in 1948. Enrolment during 1947-48 was affected by disturbances in rural areas where Lower Grade schools are for the most part located. The wastage has been assessed at 57 per cent. in 1947-48, 41 per cent. for 1948-49, 50 per cent. in 1949-50, 33 per cent. in 1950-51 and 45 per cent. in 1951-52. In the *Punjab*, denominational institutions tended to close down because they could not subsist owing to the fact that tuition fees were low or were altogether absent in areas of Compulsory education. This meant that maintenance by the State of Primary schools was a heavy financial liability. Efforts to reduce wastage were, however, continued. There was some improvement in the number of promotions from the last class and a larger percentage of children reached the highest class.

In *Delhi*, apart from the non-availability of school buildings, the chief difficulty over the period under review was that women teachers, who belonged to urban areas, were unwilling to serve in rural areas and no convenient arrangement could be made for their transport.

In the rural areas of *Madhya Bharat*, there was much wastage at the Primary stage because of the backward economic conditions of the villagers who were unable to release their children for schooling. Wastage figures were about 15 to 17 per cent. in various parts of the State. A similar state of affairs existed in *Manipur* where wastage is reckoned to have been about 40 per cent. in the urban and 60 per cent. in rural areas during the Quinquennium under review. In the *Punjab*, where there was draught and famine in rural areas, distressing economic conditions compelled parents to withdraw children from schools and positive measures, like the remission of fees, had to be pressed into service to secure and maintain scholar attendance. Single-teacher schools aggravated the trouble that can, it seems, be solved only by a three-pronged attack—more finance, more teachers and a wiser use of child psychology.

(g) *Administration*

Primary education is administered in the States by three different types of organisations—Governments, Local Bodies, including District Boards and Municipalities and Private Agencies.

Primary schools in the *Andamans* are under the direct control of the Government. In *Bihar*, the control of Primary schools vests in Local Bodies—District Boards in rural areas and Municipalities in urban areas. District Boards generally delegate their powers to Sub-Divisional Local Boards. In *Bilaspur*, schools are administered by the Government and inspected by an Inspector of rural schools. Control of Primary education in *Bombay* has been transferred from Local Bodies to the State Primary Education Board. In *Himachal Pradesh*, Primary education is controlled by District Inspectors of Schools responsible to the Education Department, and in *Madhya Bharat* by Regional Inspectors of Schools responsible to the Government. In *Orissa*, since the merger, the Government has taken over the responsibility for managing and controlling education at the Primary stage. In the *Punjab*, mainly District Boards and Municipal Committees are concerned with the spread of Elementary education. Primary schools are inspected by Assistant District Inspectors of schools, of whom there may be six to eight in a District. Appointments, transfers and promotions of teachers in District Board schools are made by the District Inspector of schools, in consultation with the Chairman of the District Board.

(ii) *New Schemes and Experiments and Outstanding Problems*

The main problem that has engaged the attention of States during the period under review has been the changeover from ordinary Primary to Basic schools. To a smaller extent, Language-teaching, more particularly the abolition of English teaching at the primary stage and the substitution of an Indian language for it, has implied some readjustment. Finally, the provision of adequate textbooks for changing needs and a changing system of education has exercised the States for the period under review.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, *Hyderabad*, *Madhya Bharat* and *Orissa*, the main problem during this period was to cope with difficulties consequent upon the changeover from Primary to Basic schools. In *Himachal Pradesh*, it was proposed to convert Primary schools into schools of the Basic type and the Primary course was raised from four to five years in 1951-52, an experiment that has proved a success. In *Hyderabad*, 20 Primary schools were reorganised in 1947. In order to give them a Basic bias, teachers trained in Agriculture were appointed to teach this subject in these schools. Every school had a small farm or garden or both attached to it. In 1950-51 1,067 former Jagir schools were taken over by the Government and reorganised so as to bring them on a par with Government schools and 630 new Primary schools were established. In 1951-52, two training centres of Basic education were opened. A scheme of voluntary aided schools in the State was established to provide

schooling of some kind for 22,600 villages. In *Madhya Bharat*, the curriculum at the Primary stage was given a strong practical bias. The quality of teaching has not, however, improved and in certain parts of the State is still quite poor. Trained teachers have not been easily available, but every attempt has been made to overcome these difficulties and new training centres have been opened. The Department has followed the policy of converting Single into Double-Teacher schools. In *Orissa*, a scheme was prepared in which craft work was given due emphasis at the Primary stage. 10,000 Primary schools were chosen where craft work is proposed to be introduced at a cost of Rs. 250,000 (25 per school). *Seva Ashrams* and *Ashrams* for Adivasi children were started during the Quinquennium and an attempt was made to stress vocational training.

In *Coorg*, a significant change in the educational field was the abolition of English teaching in Primary schools. Formerly, English was taught in the Primary Standard III but after 1947-48, it was introduced into the Form I of Secondary schools and the Class VI of Middle schools. The standard of English declined considerably but the standard expected at the School Public Examination appeared to remain constant, resulting in a larger number of failures. It was, therefore, decided to begin the teaching of English in Standard V. The new change was to be introduced between 1952-53. Hindi is now taught in the Standard V of some schools and is a compulsory subject from Form I.

After careful examination in 1951-52 of the entire question of textbooks, the Government of *Bombay* specified textbooks for use in Primary schools. The State Board of Education in Hindustani was abolished during the Quinquennium. The Provincial Advisory Committee for Primary education, that was concerned with this scheme, was appointed by the Government and functioned between February 1948 and March 1951. It was dissolved in 1951-52 and reconstituted for the triennium, 1951-54.

In the *Punjab*, the distinguishing feature in new educational schemes during the period under review was the special emphasis placed upon health, social and recreational activities. Subjects of study in existing Primary schools, both for boys and girls in Primary departments attached to Secondary schools will be the same except for Basic schools. Co-education has increased at the Primary stage.

CHAPTER III

SECONDARY EDUCATION

(i) *Main Trends*

The period under review was marked by widespread and intense activity regarding the objectives, quality and scope of Secondary education. On the one hand, it was admitted that this marked the end of education for the vast majority of those who attended school. On the other, it was generally agreed that it represented the weakest link in India's educational chain. Governments at the Centre and in the States were, therefore, anxious that the entire field of Secondary education should be surveyed in view of its intrinsic importance and the added urgency on account of the changed political situation of the country. The fact that the country was committed to the provision of universal free Elementary education made such a survey the more necessary, as it was inevitable that with increased numbers coming up from elementary schools, there would be growing pressure on Secondary schools. Many of the States appointed their own committees to make recommendations for the reorganisation of Secondary education. Such surveys were from the nature of the case limited in scope and the Central Advisory Board of Education pressed for the appointment of a commission to survey the problems for India as a whole. The Government of India accepted the recommendation and decided towards the end of the Quinquennium to appoint a Secondary Education Commission—

- “(a) to enquire into and report on the present position of Secondary education in India in all its aspects; and
- (b) suggest measures for its reorganization and improvement with particular reference to
 - (i) the aims, organization and content of Secondary education;
 - (ii) its relationship to Primary, Basic and Higher education,
 - (iii) the inter-relation of Secondary schools of different types; and
 - (iv) other allied problems

so that a sound and reasonable uniform system of Secondary education suited to our needs and resources may be provided for the whole country”.

While large-scale reconstruction of Secondary education had to await the findings of the Secondary Education Commission, reorganisation and improvement in many directions were initiated in many of the States. There was a strong movement for diversification of the courses at the secondary stage, as it was generally agreed that the unilinear character of the prevailing system was one of its major defects. Attempts were also made to give a stronger vocational bias to education at this stage. New types of High schools devoted to technical, agricultural or commercial education were established or strengthened. Another interesting development was the growing interest in the establishment of special residential schools. It was generally recognised that the improvement of all Secondary schools in the country would, because of financial and other considerations, take a long time. As a short-term measure some States as well as private organisations felt it desirable to concentrate on select schools and improve them without waiting for a general raising of the standard of all Secondary schools.

These special residential schools sought to incorporate some of the merits of the British type of Public School, but it was at the same time recognised that they had to be adapted to Indian conditions. That such schools tended to look more towards the West than India, was one of the main criticisms levelled against them in the past. During the period under review, there was a strong urge towards correcting this and almost all of them sought to introduce elements of Indian culture into the school life. Some schools were established that sought to create a new type of Indian Public School. It was also recognised that special steps would be necessary to ensure that such schools did not become the preserve of the rich. In schools which were under the direct control of the Central Government, a specified standard of ability was laid down as a pre-condition of entry. It was further provided that able children lacking the necessary means should be helped by the grant of suitable scholarships.

Equally important was the development of a new type of Secondary education in the post-Basic school. As stated in an earlier chapter, the scheme of Basic education was introduced just before the outbreak of the World War. Children who had completed the course in the Basic schools were ready to proceed to the next stage. Many of these children were absorbed in the ordinary Secondary schools or colleges, but special Secondary schools following the Basic principle were established in Sevagram and Bihar. These post-Basic schools carried one stage further the principles of centring education round some selected craft and as such deserve the notice of all who are interested in new experiments in education.

The period also saw important changes in the attitude towards teaching of languages. It was inevitable that English should lose

the place it had occupied in the past. There was growing recognition that far greater attention must be paid to the regional and the federal languages. What was surprising was that after an initial reaction against English, the latter half of the Quinquennium saw English regaining favour among educationists and a large section of the public. There was an increasing demand for maintaining adequate standards in English without, of course, in any way interfering with the increasing emphasis on Indian languages.

In a multi-lingual country like India, where many languages have a long and distinguished literary history, it is exceedingly difficult to determine the position of the various languages. The primacy of the mother tongue is universally recognised but it is also felt that Hindi, the official language of the Union, must be taught throughout the country. Every child who reaches the Secondary school must have some knowledge of Hindi. In addition, there are demands for continuing the study of English in view of its importance for the study of Science and Technology. The international status that this language enjoys cannot be ignored. Nor can the classical languages be neglected. Sanskrit has been the vehicle of Indian culture throughout the ages, and in the Middle Ages, Persian acquired an almost similar status. Naturally no easy solution to these problems could be found and different States have sought to meet them in different ways. The findings of the Secondary Education Commission on this question were, therefore, awaited with eager expectancy throughout the country.

Reference has been made to the diversification of Secondary education by the establishment of new types of schools. There were also attempts at enriching the curriculum by introducing new subjects like Civics, Craft and Agriculture. There was also increasing recognition of the importance of Physical education. Schools made increasing use of audio-visual aids. There was a widening of the conception of education by the recognition of the need of recreation for both pupils and teachers. In fact, it may be said that one of the main developments during the Quinquennium was the recognition that recreation is as important an element of education as pure instruction.

While there has been growing recognition of the importance of recreation, the absence of adequate buildings and equipment has stood in the way of a full implementation of programmes. Building and equipment continued to be unsatisfactory, and this in spite of the fact that the public were increasingly prepared to help in overcoming the deficiencies. This was mainly due to the vast expansion in Secondary education; and at times leaders in despair said that education must go ahead even without proper buildings and equipment.

The expansion in Secondary education during the period may be regarded as almost phenomenal. It has already been stated that the number of children at the elementary level rose by almost five millions during the Quinquennium. The pressure of this increasing number was felt at the Secondary stage and the enrolment of children in Secondary schools rose from 2,700,452 in 1947 to 4,776,789 in 1952. The number of schools also rose, but not as sharply. The rise was from 11,953 in 1947 to 19,662 in 1952. It was specially encouraging to find that the increase was not confined to boys but was reflected in the number of girls attending Secondary schools as will be seen in Tables XIII and XV.

The increase in the number of children and the emergence of new types of schools led to uncertainty about the line of demarcation between Primary, Middle and Secondary education. The acceptance of Basic education as the pattern at the elementary level also made a reconsideration of Secondary education necessary. According to the Basic pattern, there is a unified course of eight years which covers children of 6-14. On the other hand, 11 or 11 plus is often regarded as the appropriate stage for beginning Secondary education. The sanctity of 11 plus has been questioned in recent times. It must however, be recognised that adolescence begins somewhere about this age and brings with it the beginnings of change in ability and aptitude. The relation of Basic to Secondary education and specially the organisation of education in these uncertain years between 11 and 14 remains one of the most difficult problems in the field of Indian education.

The question of the status and conditions of service of teachers has continued to exercise the anxious care of all educationists. While there has been some improvement during the Quinquennium, it cannot be said that it is adequate. The least unsatisfactory scales obtain in the Centrally Administered Areas (now 'C' and 'D' States), but they cover only a small part of the country. In most of the 'A' and 'B' States, conditions continue to be unsatisfactory. One reason why salaries have remained unsatisfactory in the Secondary stage is that Secondary education has been largely administered by private bodies and financed by private funds. The Government, both at the Centre and in the States, has the obligation to provide only Elementary education. Where even this obligation has not been fully met, it would be idle to expect that the Government could meet the demands of Secondary education adequately. Secondary education has therefore been left largely to private initiative. While many voluntary associations deserve the gratitude of the country for the splendid work they have done in this behalf, it has to be admitted that private managements have not always been fully satisfactory.

While nobody denies the need to improve scales, it has to be recognised that the necessary improvements cannot be carried out overnight. There are, however, other methods by which the States can help to raise the status of teachers. Reference has been made in an earlier chapter to the initiative of the Central Government in raising the status of the Elementary school teacher. Similar steps should be adopted for the Secondary school teacher as well. Such a beginning was made in some of the States by holding special holiday camps for teachers. The Central Government also tried to improve the status of teachers by arranging programmes of exchange with other countries. During the Quinquennium, advantage was taken of offers of assistance from foreign countries for sending Secondary school teachers abroad. It must, however, be admitted that much remains to be done to improve the status of teachers and restore to them the leadership of the young.

(a) *Reorganisation and Improvement*

After this rapid survey of general trends, a somewhat more detailed account of the reorganisation and improvement effected in different States may be attempted.

In *Assam*, the teaching of English in Class III of High and Middle schools was abolished. Class III was detached from the High school with the reduction of the Secondary course from eight to seven years. The education of the tribal people of the State both in the hills and in the plains, received more attention during the Quinquennium under review, than ever before. The aim was to provide adequate facilities for education to tribal and scheduled caste candidates. A liberal provision was made by grants of scholarships and free studentships to students of these communities. A training centre was started at Titabar in Sibsagar District to train hill teachers.

Efforts were made in *Bhopal* to upgrade Primary and Middle schools to Middle and High schools respectively. The standard of Hindi textbooks rose with the introduction of books written by modern writers. Changes in syllabus were brought about in accordance with the recommendations of the Central Board of Education, Ajmer.

In *Bihar*, as elsewhere, the beginning of the Quinquennium under review coincided with an important epoch in the story of India. The political emancipation of the country was reflected in the State in important changes in the field of Secondary education. The old predominantly literary system was modified by the introduction of a new grouping of subjects and courses of study to impart a vocational bias to Secondary education. The objective was to send boys coming out of High schools directly into industrial, techni-

cal and technological institutions, and to let only those with a real capacity for higher education go up to the university. Hindi, as the language of the Republic, became a compulsory subject for all non-Hindi reading students. The Government paid special attention during the period under review to the educational needs of backward areas and to the education of girls and women of all areas. Sanction was obtained to subsidise a large number of schools in backward areas of Chota Nagpur and the Santhal Parganas at a heavy recurring and non-recurring cost. To promote the cause of girls' education, the Government provincialised one girls' High school at each sub-divisional headquarters of the State. An attempt was made to separate Primary and Middle classes from High schools. This was done upon acceptance of the principle that the High school was a stage distinct from the earlier stages of schooling not merely educationally, but physiologically, emotionally and socially. In most High schools, Primary classes were abolished. Another change during the Quinquennium under review was the opening of the school session in July. Of even greater importance was the decision of the State Government to set up the Bihar School Examination Board to conduct the Matriculation Examination, henceforward to be named the "Secondary School Examination".

In *Bombay*, the objectives of Secondary education were examined afresh in the light of the ideology of craft-centred education. The emphasis in syllabus shifted to crafts and brought about changes of a fundamental nature. The Department of Education assumed the lead in changing the structure of education. A number of ordinary schools were converted into Vocational High schools. The Secondary School Certificate Examination provided a wide choice of optional subjects, including vocational subjects for pupils of different aptitudes and interests, and prepared them for courses in business, industry and Government service. The undue dominance of English over other subjects in the curriculum was removed from Secondary schools. The question of teaching English in the lower standards was reconsidered in 1950-51 and English was permitted to be introduced in Standard VII of Primary schools, provided there were at least 15 pupils willing to take advantage of this option. English as a compulsory subject was taught in Standard VIII of Secondary schools. To meet the requirements of the new type of education, teachers trained in modern techniques were essential. The Ghatte-Parulekar Committee was appointed by the Government in 1947 to examine and report on all questions relating to Secondary education, including the salary and service conditions of Secondary school teachers. Most of the Committee's recommendations were accepted. The Government agreed to certain organisational changes. Primary and Secondary standards were, therefore, numbered conti-

nuously as standards I to XI. The classes for the first three years of the Secondary school were made identical with that for the upper three Primary standards, i.e., V, VI and VII. Owing to the expansion of Secondary education and the shortage of accommodation, rules regarding the size of classes were relaxed as a general measure. Similarly, to meet the growing demand for education and the difficulty of providing accommodation, the Government was compelled to work the shift system.

In 1951-52, there was a very large increase in the strength of students at Secondary schools in *Hyderabad*, owing largely to the introduction of the regional language as a medium of instruction.

Curricular improvements in *Madras* ranged over a wide area. Citizenship training was introduced into the Secondary schools and made an integral part of the school curriculum up to Form IV and an optional part in Forms V and VI. Most headmasters of High schools were given special training in this subject. Purpose and unity were introduced into the study of the Social Sciences, the object being to develop practical understanding of our social order among pupils. An important feature of the reorganised scheme in the State was the introduction of pre-technological courses in Engineering, Agriculture, Textile-technology and Secretarial and Statistical courses. These and courses of painting, drawing, music, domestic science and teaching practice were introduced as bifurcated courses at the fourth form stage as an alternative to a purely academic course. In recognition of the part played in modern education by audio-visual aids, 16 mm. projectors, a filmstrip projector and a radio were prescribed as the minimum equipment to be provided in schools for this purpose. Finally, the National Cadet Corps (N.C.C.) was introduced for the first time into High schools in *Madras*. The number of sanctioned troops was 135 on the 31st March, 1952.

A scheme of reorganisation, considered in June 1937, was introduced in 1948-49 into Forms I to IV in *Madras* schools and was continued during the succeeding years in the next higher forms. The High school course after Form IV was bifurcated and various forms of practical training into bifurcated courses instituted. Crafts were introduced as Basic activities at the Middle school stage. Facilities were provided to develop the skills of pupils and a curriculum was worked out in relation to the activities of several schools.

In *Mysore*, as a result of the expansion and development of Primary education, greater facilities had to be provided for education at the Middle and High school stages. In order to meet the incessant demand for Middle school education in rural areas of the

State, the system of providing for the teaching of English in the upper Primary schools by the appointment of English teachers, was introduced.

Special Basic features were introduced into Middle schools in Orissa, and agriculture became an optional subject in High schools.

In the *Punjab*, the adoption of recommendations made by the Punjab Advisory Board of Education led to some marked improvements. Under this scheme, English was eliminated from Class V and made optional in other classes. In Classes IX and X it continued to be a compulsory subject and the medium of instruction. The Middle School Examination that was conducted till 1951, has since been abolished. There are still some Lower Middle schools in the State that exist as independent institutions so as to enable young boys to remain in their villages for the first six years and to acquire literacy.

In *Saurashtra* the curriculum was revised during the period under review with a strong bias in favour of craft.

The most important change in the system of education in *Uttar Pradesh* between 1947—52 was the reorganisation of Secondary education. The scheme, started in 1948, was in full swing at the end of 1952. Classes III, IV and V attached to Anglo-Hindustani institutions were detached from High schools and Intermediate colleges. At the end of 1952, Secondary education was imparted from Class VI to XII in two stages—Junior High schools or Senior Basic schools taught from Class VI to Class VIII and Higher Secondary schools from Class IX to Class XII. The Middle School Examination was replaced by the Junior High School Examination now conducted at the District level. The period of Secondary education was reduced by one year. Higher Secondary education was provided in four types of courses, viz., literary, scientific, constructive and aesthetic.

In *Vindhya Pradesh* a new stress was placed on Physical education with facilities for games and sports. Special attention has also been paid to the development of school libraries.

*For *West Bengal, Jammu and Kashmir* and *Kutch* please see Appendices A, B and C respectively.

(b) *Schools and Enrolment*

There has been a general increase in the number of Middle and High schools and in scholar enrolment at both. Tables XII, XIII, XIV and XV indicate detailed changes.

TABLE XI

Number of Middle (Including Senior Basic) Schools in States in India

State	1946-47		1951-52 +	
	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls
(A STATES)				
Assam	750	114	895	117
Bihar	1,447	95	2,317	131
Bombay	555	71	349	30
Madhya Pradesh	678	109	†	†
Madras	186	68	251	55
Orissa	253	20	491	35
Punjab	922	59	789	105
Uttar Pradesh	344	506	2,608	..
West Bengal	869	116	1,115	184
(B STATES)				
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	†	303	52
Mysore	†	†	597	109
Pepsu	†	†	229	34
Rajasthan	†	†	640	96
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
(C & D STATES)				
Ajmer	27	11	24	9
A. & N. Islands	†	†
Bhopal	†	†	25	1
Bilaspur	†	†	8	..
Coorg	44	..
Delhi	51	15	49	32
Himachal Pradesh	†	†	82	7
Kutch	†	†	12	..
Manipur	†	†	82	3
Tripura	†	†	38	6
Vindhya Pradesh	†	†	152	18
Total	7,093*	1,201††	11,100	1,024

* Includes 11 schools in Minor Administrations.

†† Includes 17 schools in Minor Administrations.

† Not available.

+ Figures are provisional.

TABLE XII

Number of Students on Rolls in Middle (Including Senior Basic) Schools in States in India

State	1946-47		1951-52 +	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
(A STATES)				
Assam	78,093	18,464	84,636	23,013
Bihar	1,83,837	18,667	3,16,284	35,456
Bombay	36,825	9,683	35,909	10,410
Madhya Pradesh	1,28,461	24,018	†	†
Madras	35,847	12,983	41,018	15,412
Orissa	24,836	3,745	41,997	6,028
Punjab	1,46,414	12,961	1,54,048	32,847
Uttar Pradesh	1,64,667	83,174	3,02,650	67,211
West Bengal	96,234	21,706	1,10,747	36,773
(B STATES)				
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	†	69,693	15,053
Mysore	†	†	1,04,505	29,132
Pepsu	†	†	41,957	6,797
Rajasthan	†	†	98,972	24,441
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
(C & D STATES)				
Ajmer	2,788	487	2,488	289
A. & N. Islands	†	†
Bhopal	†	†	5,938	194
Bilaspur	†	†	2,182	89
Coorg	7,603	5,064
Delhi	13,162	4,935	12,952	13,112
Himachal Pradesh	†	†	9,857	993
Kutch	†	†	1,712	291
Manipur	†	†	7,571	809
Tripura	†	†	3,755	994
Vindhya Pradesh	†	†	25,650	2,194
Total	*9,15,410	2,13,645††	14,82,124	3,26,602

* Includes 4,246 students from Minor Administration.

†† Includes 2,822 students from Minor Administration.

† Not available.

+ Figures are provisional.

TABLE XIII

Number of High Schools * in States in India

State	1946-47		1951-52§	
	For Boys	For Girls	For Boys	For Girls
(A STATES)				
Assam	200	31	253	36
Bihar	386	23	681	36
Bombay	442	113	871	151
Madhya Pradesh	139	37	†	†
Madras	560	148	1,102	211
Orissa	83	6	183	9
Punjab	219	36	427	41
Uttar Pradesh	301	72	948	641
West Bengal	672	89	1,006	162
(B STATES)				
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	†	47	12
Mysore	†	†	182	36
Pepsu	†	†	93	11
Rajasthan	†	†	172	8
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
(C & D STATES)				
Ajmer	20	6	20	4
A. & N. Islands	†	†	1	..
Bhopal	†	†	7	2
Bilaspur	†	†	1	1
Coorg	6	1	8	2
Delhi	29	14	56	24
Himachal Pradesh	†	†	25	4
Kutch	†	†	6	1
Manipur	†	†	11	1
Tripura	†	†	16	8
Vindhya Pradesh	†	†	19	2
Total	3,073**	586††	6,135	1,403

* Includes Higher Secondary Schools.

**Includes 16 schools in Minor Administration.

††Includes 10 schools in Minor Administration.

† Not available.

§ Figures are provisional.

TABLE XIV

Number of Students on Rolls in High Schools * and in States India.

State	1946-47		1951-52†	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
(A STATES)				
Assam	69,339	10,690	86,895	15,999
Bihar	1,32,963	7,941	2,25,686	14,066
Bombay	1,85,566	52,946	3,11,159	90,489
Madhya Pradesh	20,447	3,439	†	†
Madras	3,31,688	74,007	5,51,494	1,25,083
Orissa	21,832	1,940	48,567	4,417
Punjab	1,26,890	10,905	2,33,308	20,102
Uttar Pradesh	1,77,562	25,663	4,22,303	63,453
West Bengal	2,40,291	29,598	3,63,447	70,865
(B STATES)				
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	†	14,921	8,077
Mysore	†	†	51,949	13,986
Pepsu	†	†	52,038	5,443
Rajasthan	†	†	59,372	5,097
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
(C & D STATES)				
Ajmer	7,236	1,148	7,134	945
A. & N. Islands	†	†	392	114
Bhopal	†	†	1,962	717
Bilaspur	†	†	531	260
Coorg	1,915	1,039	3,595	2,305
Delhi	17,681	5,051	46,507	15,184
Himachal Pradesh	†	†	8,412	2,059
Kutch	†	†	1,652	434
Manipur	†	†	4,272	756
Tripura	†	†	6,526	1,362
Vindhya Pradesh	†	†	4,473	234
Total	13,42,938**	2,28,459††	25,06,596	4,61,447

* Includes Higher Secondary Schools.

** Includes 9,528 students of Minor Administration.

†† Includes 4,092 students of Minor Administration.

† Not available.

‡ Figures are provisional.

(c) *Teachers*

There was a large increase in the number of teachers as well as the number of trained teachers during the period under review, but the situation remained unsatisfactory owing to the disproportionate increase in the number of Secondary schools and scholar enrolment. The adoption of Hindi as the official language of the Indian Republic made it obligatory for governments to provide adequate facilities for its teaching at Secondary institutions. Several states appear to have experienced some difficulty in acquiring adequate and trained teachers for this subject. The strong vocational bias that has been given to Secondary education has also made new demands on the teaching staffs of these institutions. Some States, and notably Bihar and Madras, have met this demand with praiseworthy adaptability and determination, but the task of training teachers for Basic education has not been easy.

In *Assam*, a training centre for teachers of Hindi in Secondary schools was started at Dudhnai in Goalpara in 1951. This centre now provides training for 50 teachers at Government expense in a ten-month training course. Hill teachers are trained to teach the Assamese language at a new training centre established at Titabar in Sibsagar district.

The number of teachers in *Bhopal* in 1947-48 was 133 in boys' High schools as against 169 for the last year of the Quinquennium. There were 17 teachers in High schools for girls in the first year, and 46 in the last year. Figures for Middle schools show a corresponding increase in the last year of the Quinquennium. There were 140 teachers in boys' Middle schools and only nine in girls' Middle schools in 1947-48. In 1951-52 the figures for boys' Middle schools was 293, and for girls' 42. Teachers in High schools were graduates in the subjects they taught; Middle school teachers were either Matriculates or Intermediates. Only a small proportion of the teachers was trained.

For *Bihar*, the Quinquennium was epoch-making both in respect of number of teachers and facilities for training. The number of trained teachers rose from 6,875 in 1946-47 to 9,649 in 1951-52. The number of women teachers rose from 1,023 in 1946-47 to 1,492 between 1951-52. Trained women teachers rose from 688 in 1946-47 to 978 during 1951-52. The increase in the number of trained teachers was substantial but still insufficient. Teachers in government schools are all trained hands, but those in private schools are generally untrained. Many schools of the latter kind have not even two trained graduates on their staff. The state government has under its immediate consideration the question of opening new training colleges for this purpose. A beginning in this direction was made by opening a

separate Training College for women at Patna, besides establishing a Basic Training College—the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya—at Turki.

New pay scales for teachers in government High schools were also introduced into Secondary schools in Bihar during the period under review. Special funds for the payment of enhanced salaries and dearness allowance to teachers at High schools were placed at the disposal of the Board of Secondary Education by the state government. Additional funds were also provided by the state government to local bodies for the payment of enhanced salaries and dearness allowance to teachers in Middle schools.

The total number of trained teachers at all Secondary schools of *Bombay* was 6,339 in 1946-47, and it reached the impressive figure of 10,340 in 1951-52. The total number of teachers at these schools in 1946-47 was 13,240 as against 18,753 in 1951-52. Of the total number of teachers, 5,662 were graduates in 1946-47 and 9,200 in 1951-52. Though the number of trained teachers has increased steadily, there is still much leeway to be made up. Regular pay scales have not yet been provided for untrained teachers.

In *Coorg* the introduction of Hindi into High schools was directly responsible for the increase in the number of teachers. The total figure in 1946-47 was 113, whereas in 1951-52 it was 213.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, there were 411 teachers of Secondary schools in 1947 as against 575 in 1951.

Hyderabad had 5,656 teachers in its Secondary schools in the first year of the Quinquennium. In the last year, there was a total of 2,758 trained men teachers, 757 trained women teachers, 3,206 untrained men teachers and 817 untrained women teachers, giving a total of 7,538 teachers.

In 1946-47, there were 6,580 trained and 403 untrained men teachers and High schools 903. Corresponding figures for 1951-52 are 3,863 for Middle schools and 1,226 for High schools. Two training colleges, one at Jaora and the other at Dewas, were started to satisfy the demand for trained teachers at Secondary schools. Every year about 120 teachers are trained in both these colleges.

In 1946-47, there were 6,580 trained and 403 untrained men teachers at Secondary schools for boys in Madras. Corresponding figures for 1951-52 are 19,949 trained and 5,049 untrained teachers for Secondary schools for boys. The total of 24,998 is over three times the figure of 6,983 for 1946-47. Women teachers at boys' Secondary schools in 1946-47 were, 163 trained and 13 untrained, yielding a total of 176. In 1951-52, there were 961 trained and 146 untrained teachers yielding a total of 1,107. In Secondary schools for girls, there were 28 trained

men teachers in 1946-47, 19 untrained men teachers, making a total of 47. At these schools, there were 1,439 women teachers and 110 untrained—a total of 1,549. Equivalent figures for 1951-52 are 186 trained men and 3,141 trained women, at Girls' Secondary schools, 77 untrained men teachers and 375 untrained women teachers, at Secondary schools for girls for the same year, yielding a total of 263 men and 3,516 women. Though the number of teachers increased, there was a great shortage during the period under review because of the large number of new schools that were opened. Scales of pay were regulated during the period and grades of Headmasters re-classified.

In 1948-49, there were 167 trained teachers for Government High schools for boys, 111 in District Board and Municipal schools, 153 in aided schools and six in unaided schools in *Mysore*. Untrained teachers for the same year are respectively 255, 515, 264, 68 yielding a total of 437 trained teachers and 1,102 untrained teachers. In the last year of the Quinquennium, there were 243 trained teachers in Government schools, 232 in District Board and Municipal schools, 190 in aided schools, five in unaided schools, giving a total of 670 trained teachers. Untrained teachers for the same year are 269 in Government schools, 720 in District Board and Municipal schools, 410 in aided schools, 26 in unaided, giving a total of untrained teachers of 1,425. Teachers of all types thus increased from 1,539 in 1948-49 to 2,095 in 1951-52.

The number of trained and untrained teachers of different grades in Middle schools in *Orissa* in 1951-52 was trained men: 386 as against 320 in 1947-48; untrained men: 1,226 as against 821 in 1947-48. Trained women teachers were 29 in 1951-52 as against 16 in 1947-48. In High schools, there were in 1951-52, 489 trained men teachers as against 378 in 1947-48 and 750 untrained teachers in 1951-52 as against 647 in 1947-48. Trained women teachers in 1951-52 were 52 as against 26 in the first year of the Quinquennium. The increase in the number of trained and untrained teachers is due to the appreciable increase in the number of both High and Middle schools. New salary scales were introduced in 1947 and the scales prescribed were almost double those obtaining before 1947.

(d) *Buildings and Equipment*

The general condition of buildings and equipment in the States during the period under review was unsatisfactory. Most Government Secondary Schools had their own buildings but some Government and Government-aided schools had to be accommodated in inadequate rented buildings. School equipment was nowhere satisfactory.

In the *Andamans*, schools were housed in Government buildings maintained by the P.W.D.

School buildings in *Bilaspur* were generally in an unsatisfactory condition. Small improvements were brought into being to meet immediate requirements but a big programme of new construction was chalked out and was due to be undertaken in 1952-53.

In *Bombay*, all Government schools and a number of schools run with Government assistance had their own buildings. The problem of playgrounds is acute in large cities like *Bombay*, *Ahmedabad* and *Poona* and is a major obstacle to the full implementation of the Physical Education Programme. The Department has given grants and grants-in-aid for the acquisition of playgrounds.

In 1947-48, out of *Hyderabad's* 188 Government Secondary schools, 114 were lodged in Government buildings and three in Local Fund buildings; the rest were accommodated in rented buildings. The Government provided ten lakhs of rupees for the requisitioning of sites and construction of buildings.

Building problems at the secondary stage in *Madhya Bharat* were not as acute as might have been expected. The dearth of accommodation rose out of the large increase in the number of students, but the problem was solved by constructing new rooms and by securing rented buildings. School equipment was generally satisfactory.

Of 1,523 Indian Secondary schools in *Madras* on the 31st March 1952, 1214 were held in their own buildings and the rest in rented or rent-free buildings. In many cases, accommodation continued to be inadequate. The tendency to convert all available space, including verandas, into classrooms could not be checked. There are cases of schools where Headmasters have wished to maintain as many as 25 sections in order to obtain a higher income. Space for gardens and playgrounds was inadequate. 290 boys' schools and 29 girls' schools had no ground space at all and 286 boys' schools and 121 girls' schools had no play-ground to speak of.

Manipur schools were tin-roofed except for the Johnstone Government High School for boys that had a 'pucca' building.

In *Orissa* the condition of school buildings was far from satisfactory. Most Middle schools in ex-State areas were ill-equipped. A non-recurring grant of Rs. 75,000 was granted for the construction of temporary buildings. High schools, with a few exceptions, have good buildings, but equipment everywhere left much to be desired.

Schools in the *Punjab*, and particularly those in towns, appear to have outgrown their accommodation. Scarcity and the high cost

of building material stood in the way of improvement during the period under review. Buildings were unsuitable and inadequately equipped. The Government has, however, exploited the enthusiasam of people for building school houses. Voluntary subscriptions have enabled it to undertake construction during the Quinquennium. Libraries are particularly inadequate and science material is shabby and insufficient.

Buildings and equipment in *Tripura* State were maintained at Government cost. Necessary equipment for the teaching of Geography and Science was provided.

Most Higher Secondary schools in *Uttar Pradesh* have their own buildings, but playground facilities and hostel accommodation were in some places unsatisfactory. New Junior and Higher Secondary schools were not as well equipped for want of funds as older schools. In the State Reorganization Scheme, institutions that needed furniture and equipment particularly for Science, Biology, Ceramics, Industrial Chemistry, Wood-craft, Spinning and Weaving, Metal craft and Library were given some special aid.

Intermediate colleges, High schools and some Middle schools in *Vindhya Pradesh* were lodged in 'pucca' Government buildings and some Middle schools in 'kutchra' buildings. The condition of school buildings in the State was moderately good, but equipment was below standard.

(e) *Medium of Instruction*

It has already been pointed out that the Quinquennium started a movement for changes in the medium of instruction. Only specific details will, therefore, be given in this section.

The medium at the secondary stage in the *Andamans* was English and Urdu.

In *Bilaspur*, Hindi was the medium of instruction. It was introduced in 1938 to replace Urdu. At high stage, Science, Hygiene and Mathematics were still taught in English in accordance with the syllabus of the Punjab University.

The medium of instruction in all Secondary schools in *Bombay* (Anglo-Indian and English teaching schools excepted) has been the regional language.

In *Himachal Pradesh* the medium of instruction was Hindi up to the Middle, and part-Hindi, part-English at the Matriculation stage.

As early as 1925, Secondary schools in *Madras* were committed to use the mother-tongue or an Indian language as the medium for the Secondary School Leaving Certificate. Between 1938 and 1939 the

mother-tongue was extended to all schools and English was used only in certain special cases. From the beginning of the Quinquennium under review, the policy was to eliminate English in Secondary schools, even in bi-lingual areas. It was laid down in the first year of the Quinquennium that sanction of the Government was necessary to adopt English as a medium in any form or section of a form, and that no school should adopt English as the medium of instruction in future in anticipation of sanction. The teaching of commercial subjects in English was, however, permitted for sometime more.

In respect of linguistic minorities including Muslims, whose mother-tongue was a language other than the regional language, the Director was permitted to issue instruction that their mother tongue could be used as the medium provided there was a minimum strength of ten pupils per class or 30 per school in Elementary schools and 45 pupils for forms I to III and forms IV to VI.

The medium of instruction in *Manipur* in all High schools, except the Bengal High School (where Bengali was used) was Manipuri up to Class VI and English for Higher classes. In Middle schools the medium was the regional language or the mother-tongue.

Non-language subjects were taught in the regional languages in all Secondary schools of *Orissa*. Pupils whose mother-tongue was a language other than Oriya, were given the option to answer questions in their mother-tongue for a period of two years with effect from the session 1949-50. Later this concession was extended up to 1953. Aided Secondary schools were required to arrange for instruction through the mother-tongue of their pupils, if this was desired by one-third of the number of pupils. The regional or State language was compulsory at the secondary stage. The teaching of Hindi was compulsory in classes VI to XI. The Utkal University provided for the examination of regional and other Indian languages at the end of the Matriculation.

Urdu, that had enjoyed a leading position in the *Punjab* before partition, was dislodged and replaced almost completely by Hindi and Punjabi. Science and Mathematics in High schools were, however, often taught through English. Hindi and Punjabi were both recognised as regional languages in the State. Punjabi was the medium of instruction in Punjabi-speaking areas where Hindi was taught as a compulsory second language from the IV Primary class up to the Matriculation. Similarly Hindi was the medium of instruction in Hindi-speaking areas up to the Matriculation with Punjabi taught as a compulsory second language from the IV Primary class to the Matriculation. In both cases, these rules apply to girls' schools in the Middle classes only.

The medium of instruction in *Rajasthan* was Hindi.

In all non-language subjects at schools of *Travancore-Cochin*, the regional language—Malayalam or Tamil was used as the medium of instruction.

In *Tripura* State the medium was Bengali.

In *Uttar Pradesh* the medium of instruction was Hindustani up to Class X and generally English in Classes XI and XII, up to 1947. The medium during the period under review was changed to Hindi for all subjects except languages, with facilities for answering question papers in languages other than Hindi.

In *Vindhya Pradesh*, all instruction was given in Hindi.

(f) *Changes in Curriculum*

Important changes in curriculum have already been mentioned in an earlier section. In this section some further details of changes carried out in different states will be mentioned.

Music was introduced for the first time into girls' schools of *Bilaspur* in 1951. Drama was introduced as a special subject.

In the Lower Secondary schools in *Hyderabad*, the first language during the period under review was at different schools Telugu or Marathi or Kannada or Tamil or Gujrati or Hindi or Urdu. Elementary Mathematics, History and Geography, a second language (Telugu, Marathi, Kannada or Hindi), a third language (English). General or Domestic Science, Art and Craft or Music, Physical Training and Ethics were also taught at this stage. At the Higher Secondary stage a first language, a second language and English were taught besides Elementary Mathematics, General or Domestic Science, Indian History, Civics and Geography of the World. The students had a choice of several optional subjects, including a classical language (Arabic, Sanskrit or Persian) History and Music. The High schools of Madras were reorganised during this period to serve a double purpose i.e. to prepare students for the University and to provide a large number of other courses for practical training for business, industry, agriculture and the teaching profession, provided minimum standards in the subjects prescribed for University courses were obtained in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Public Examinations. Students in these practical courses were eligible for entry to universities. A secretarial course was introduced to enable students to seek employment as clerks or office assistants.

Hindi was made compulsory in *Madhya Bharat* for all High school examinations. Mathematics was split into two groups—elementary and higher. Candidates were given the option to choose either Civics or English. Girls had the option to take Domestic

Science in place of Mathematics. There were three compulsory subjects and two optionals to be chosen in two groups from a selected list of subjects. Agriculture and Fine Arts were included in the High school curriculum. Students admitted to teaching practice were, after completing their Secondary School Leaving Certificate, permitted to enter an abridged secondary grade training school of one year's duration to qualify for the Secondary Grade Teachers posts.

The departmental syllabus was followed in all schools up to Class VIII of Orissa. Courses of study prescribed for the Matriculation Examination of the Utkal University were followed in the top three classes of High schools. Vocational and agricultural studies occupied an important place in the curriculum and directly influenced teaching methods in these subjects. Films were shown by the Audio-Visual Sections recently introduced into Secondary schools.

In the Punjab the courses of study for Middle schools were thoroughly revised during the period under review. English was eliminated from the V class and made optional in other Middle classes. An important feature of the new scheme of studies adopted by the Department of Education was the emphasis placed on recreational activities and crafts. Basic education was accepted as the future system of education of the State. It was introduced, in the first instance, into some Primary schools, with a view to extending it to the Secondary Department, when the scholars at present at the Basic Primary school stage have reached the Secondary stage.

The curriculum in Saurashtra as elsewhere was revised with a bias in favour of Crafts as allowed by the Secondary School Certificate Examination. Designation of all High schools and Intermediate colleges in Uttar Pradesh was revised and they were named Higher Secondary Schools with Principals as Heads. During the Quinquennium, 22 Government institutions were raised to the Intermediate status, of which seven were for girls. General Science was introduced into 337 boys' Junior High schools. Continuation Classes, held after school hours, were attached to 46 non-Government and nine Government institutions. Crafts were a special feature of these schools.

High schools and Intermediate colleges in Vindhya Pradesh were affiliated to the Secondary Board of Education, and Middle schools to Vindhya Pradesh Education Board. The curriculum of the Ajmer Board was followed by both High schools and Intermediate colleges.

(g) Administration and Control

Administration at the Secondary stage of education is conducted either by the government, by district boards or private agencies.

Government Control is exercised largely through grants and grants-in-aid. Inspection is conducted by Inspectors and Inspectresses of Schools.

In *Assam*, the Director of Public Instruction, supervised administration of schools. In 1950 an Inspector of Schools was appointed for convenience in administration.

Secondary education in *Bilaspur* was controlled by the Education Officer with the assistance of the Inspector of Schools for both Primary and Middle schools.

In *Bhopal* it was controlled by two district inspectors of schools who were responsible in turn to the Senior Inspector of Schools. Periodical inspection of Middle and High schools was made by District Inspectors, Primary classes in Middle schools were inspected by Assistant District Inspectors. The Senior Inspector of Schools, who is the link between the Education Department and the Government, inspects all types of schools.

All Secondary education at *Bombay* is controlled by the Department of Education. Effective supervision is exercised through inspecting officers in various divisions. The Government gave regular grant-in-aid to all aided schools that satisfied the conditions pertaining to instruction and administration. Anglo-Indian schools in the state, that numbered 35, were subject to the provisions of a separate Code of Regulations, and were controlled through the inspector of Anglo-Indian schools. An Advisory Board presided over by the Secretary of the Government, Education Department advised in matters relating to Anglo-Indian schools.

The control of Middle schools in *Himachal Pradesh* lay with District Inspectors of schools who work under the supervision of a Deputy Director of Education. High schools are managed directly by the Deputy Director of Education.

Administration and control of government, local board and aided Secondary schools in *Madras* vested in their respective managements. Secondary schools continued to be inspected by District Education Officers. The recognition of Secondary schools lay within the competence of the Director of Public Instruction.

The State Education Department of *Manipur* was in charge of administration and control of Secondary schools.

High schools in *Orissa* were under the administrative control of the Circle Inspector of Schools. Academic control of High schools, so far as the course of studies and textbooks were concerned, was exercised through the Utkal University, through its Matriculation examination. The majority of High schools were managed by private

agencies but local bodies in Ganjan and Koraput, maintain High schools. The state government sanctioned subsidies to recognised schools under public management and the Director of Public Instruction sanctioned grants-in-aid to them. All Secondary schools in acceded areas are under government management. There was no change in methods of school administration. Local Board schools are indirectly controlled by the Department as appointments, transfer and promotions of teachers are made by the Inspecting staff in consultation with the Chairman of the Local Board. The Department exercised a supervisory control of schools managed by voluntary associations.

In *Rajasthan*, High school classes were administered by the Inspector of Schools, while for Intermediate colleges the Director of Education was the direct controlling authority. He exercised his power through the Assistant Director of Education.

Administrative control of Secondary schools in *Travancore-Cochin* vested in the Director of Public Instruction who was assisted by Chief Inspecting Officers. There were seven Divisional Inspectors of Schools for boys' Secondary schools, and two Inspectresses for girls' Secondary schools, one for the Travancore area, and the other for the Cochin area.

Government schools in *Tripura* were administered and controlled by the Education Department. Private schools were under the control of Managing Committee; affiliated schools, by the Managing Committees of these schools. The Education Department laid down certain minimum conditions that must be fulfilled.

Junior High schools in *Uttar Pradesh* were managed by Local bodies—district and municipal boards—with the exception of model schools attached to the government Normal schools. Higher Secondary schools were managed by government and private bodies. Supervision was made more thorough by the posting of a District Inspector of Schools in each district.

(h) *Expenditure*

There has been an all-round increase in the expenditure on Secondary education during the Quinquennium. The highest increase was registered in *Coorg* and the lowest in *Ajmer*.

Details of expenditure are given below in Tables—XVI and XVII

TABLE XV
Direct Expenditure on Secondary Schools by States

State	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A STATES					
Assam	41,20,267	49,50,815	66,38,253	75,84,706	89,59,497
Bihar	1,27,97,300	1,40,57,577	1,75,51,763	2,23,21,470	2,53,43,001
Bombay	2,57,84,867	3,27,27,191	4,30,79,886	4,61,28,957	5,08,22,980
Madhya Pradesh	85,23,133	96,53,142	1,15,57,480	1,28,95,068	+
Madras	2,59,99,003	3,36,19,899	3,94,05,074	4,17,11,441	4,83,34,398
Orissa	29,19,069	35,06,578	41,85,714	53,38,267	54,74,850
Punjab	1,35,34,170	1,65,39,690	1,77,08,521	1,93,61,935	2,14,59,128
Uttar Pradesh	2,05,42,668	3,48,85,252	4,68,34,438	5,33,75,463	5,82,37,899
West Bengal	2,06,12,142	2,53,39,664	2,99,82,857	3,34,87,594	3,41,94,267
B STATES					
Hyderabad	+	+	99,88,916	98,10,256	+
Jammu and Kashmir	+	+	15,09,500	13,34,684	+
Madhya Bharat	+	+	41,22,890	48,40,234	64,27,328
Mysore	+	+	54,82,643	73,55,170	84,50,420
Pepsu	+	+	27,83,790	45,38,493	52,08,832

+ Figures are not available.

*Figures are provisional.

TABLE XV—continued.
Direct Expenditure on Secondary Schools by States—continued.

States	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52
B STATES—Continued.					
Rajasthan	+	+	58,56,718	66,51,638	72,55,773
Saurashtra	+	+	28,97,136	32,68,101	+
Travancore-Cochin	+	+	79,05,560	1,09,93,899	+
C & D STATES					
Ajmer	13,75,494	16,59,643	16,70,620	17,25,462	15,31,689
A. & N. Islands	28,254	52,811	75,800	76,076	66,749
Bhopal	+	+	3,08,236	4,82,107	5,75,385
Bilaspur	+	61,108	79,569	73,252	1,24,409
Coorg	1,98,994	4,59,575	6,06,094	6,76,414	7,38,324
Delhi	27,34,461	34,82,664	60,72,181	70,45,721	85,40,184
Himachal Pradesh	+	3,28,328	8,45,318	11,94,063	11,53,182
Kutch	+	2,16,149	2,16,415	2,14,678	2,06,456
Manipur	+	+	5,16,126	6,28,846	6,95,801
Tripura	+	+	3,30,687	4,54,712	6,00,247
Vindhya Pradesh	+	+	8,72,972	11,40,657	12,80,176
TOTAL	13,91,69,822	18,15,45,086	26,90,85,157	30,47,09,364	29,56,80,971

+ Figures are not available.

* Figures are provisional.

+ Figures are not available.
* Figures are provisional.

TABLE XVI
Direct Expenditure on Secondary Schools by Sources]

Source	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Government Funds	4,09,10,892	5,74,11,323	10,63,69,753	12,19,28,826	10,40,95,052
Local Board Funds	99,27,507	1,34,94,536	1,52,01,416	1,80,14,406	2,00,39,482
Fees	6,07,02,217	8,95,60,285	11,59,09,930	13,38,27,971	14,02,30,301
Other Sources	1,86,29,206	2,10,78,942	3,16,04,058	3,09,38,161	3,13,16,136
TOTAL	13,91,69,822	18,15,45,086	26,90,85,157	30,47,09,364	29,56,80,971 +

+ Excludes figures for Madhya Pradesh., Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir, Saurashtra and Travancore-Cochin which are not available.

* Figures are provisional.

(ii) *New Schemes and Experiments and Outstanding Problems*

The most noteworthy experiments and developments during the period under review occurred in the field of Basic education, whether for students or for teachers. Special provision was made for rural areas in the teaching of such subjects as Agriculture. Physical education has now come to stay as part of the routine curriculum of Secondary schools in many States. The advance made in this direction, with special reference to large-scale enrolment in the National Cadet Corps, is one of the most heartening developments of the Quinquennium. Experiments in curriculum, that are likely to have far-reaching consequences, were made in Bihar, Bilaspur, Bombay, Madras, the Punjab and elsewhere. The main problem of the schools during the Quinquennium was the shortage of trained teachers.

The most significant development in *Bihar* was the expansion of Secondary education under private management. This is proved by the large increase in the number of schools. The revised syllabus with a strong vocational bias at the Secondary stage, and the rapid increase in the number of post-Basic and senior-Basic schools is evidence of Bihar's determination to press on with the new education. The establishment of two new training colleges for Basic teachers—a women's training college at Patna and the Basic Training college, popularly known as the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya, at Turki—deserves special mention.

The reorganised scheme of Secondary education in *Madras* envisaged the provision of a large number of courses and activities to draw out the skills and aptitudes of children. The bifurcated course, started at High schools, with a large variety of useful activities, was one important way of implementing this plan.

Efforts were made to promote the practical study of agriculture and thus to cater for the rural areas of the country, more especially in Delhi, Bihar and Himachal Pradesh. During the period under review, the Board of Higher Secondary Education at *Delhi* evolved a scheme of holding the Higher Secondary Agriculture Examination chiefly for candidates from rural schools, so that their education could prove of practical use to them, in later life. In *Bihar*, the Government paid handsome subsidies to High schools teaching Science and Agriculture. In *Himachal Pradesh*, the most important proposal of the Quinquennium was to start Agricultural High schools and to attach farms to Middle schools.

Rapid strides were made in Physical education at the Secondary stage during the period under review. In *Bilaspur*, sports and tournaments were organised as a regular part of the curriculum. In *Delhi*, Physical education was made compulsory in schools. In

Madhya Bharat, the National Cadet Corps was introduced into the V. C. High School, Morar and the Jiwaji Rao Intermediate College. Physical education was made compulsory for all High schools and Intermediate colleges in the State.

Model schools opened in the *Punjab* were both well-equipped and staffed. Modern methods of teaching and new educational devices were tried out. Among the special features of these institutions were a milk-bar, midday meals, a school band and rural reconstruction work. There were in all 52 model schools in this State. Audio-visual aids in teaching were introduced into Secondary schools. Most High schools have bought radio sets and students are encouraged to listen in. The use of illustrative charts prepared in Hindi and Punjabi was encouraged.

An interesting experiment in Projects was carried out at Rajah's High school, Kollengode, *Madras*. This involved the provision coincidentally of teaching in academic and aesthetic subjects. After the introduction of Social studies into the syllabus as part of the reorganised scheme in the State, many schools reported their efforts to teach each unit of the syllabus through a project. The syllabus, with its well-balanced emphasis on social training activities and social studies, was found to lend itself to experiment in teaching through projects.

Most States were up against the problem of the shortage of trained teachers to implement schemes of development. *Himachal Pradesh's* most outstanding problem for instance, was just this shortage. In *Orissa*, the demand for a Board of Secondary Education arose out of the inequities that were seen to exist in the pay and prospects of teachers serving in Government and in aided institutions. In the *Punjab*, teaching has been handicapped by overcrowding in schools on the one hand, and by the indifference of the teacher, on the other. The teacher still resents the fact that he is not paid sufficiently for his labour, and consequently does not put his heart into his work. Indeed in the *Punjab*, as in other States, the most outstanding problem of the period has been to raise the status and salary of the teacher. In *Uttar Pradesh*, qualified teachers were still few in number and, except in rare cases, schools had to utilise the services of untrained and unqualified teachers. This naturally resulted in a general lowering of standards. In *Bihar*, new scales of pay for teachers in Government and non-Government High schools were introduced so as to attract good and trained people into the profession. The two new training colleges at Patna and Turki are attempts to meet the shortage of trained teachers.

In many states the spectre of unemployment proved a student-obsession. In *Manipur* it appeared to rear its head in many parts of the State. In consequence, it was felt that the introduction of compulsory and effective training in suitable vocational subjects was needed urgently. Owing to their poor financial position High schools were not always able to do this. The problem of unemployment and lack of suitable vocational institutions confronted *Mysore*. The coordination of the curricula of studies at the High school and the collegiate stage was, therefore, considered to be of the first importance. More diversified and practical courses of study should, it was felt, be provided at the High school stage. In *Orissa*, the Government permitted the development of Senior Basic schools, but the relationship between these schools and High schools was not always clarified. During the Quinquennium, the Government prepared a plan under which it stated its intention to convert some existing High schools into Technical High schools. Work on this line started by the opening of a commercial section in the Balasore and Santalpur Zila schools, but owing to financial stringency, not much progress was made.

CHAPTER IV THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

(i) *Main Trends*

With the acceptance of the objective of universal, free and compulsory Elementary education, the task of securing an adequate supply of suitable teachers assumed even greater importance during this Quinquennium. Quantitatively, the position was bad enough, for out of 2.8 million teachers necessary for implementing a programme of universal Elementary education, only about 5,61,000 Primary school teachers were available. Qualitatively, the position was perhaps even worse, for, of these 5,61,000 teachers in Primary schools, only 58.2 per cent. were trained.

The position was somewhat better at the Secondary level, because teachers in Secondary schools were generally somewhat more qualified than teachers in Elementary schools.

The decision to convert all Elementary schools to the Basic pattern gave greater urgency to the question of adequate training of teachers. As already indicated, Basic education makes far greater demands on the teacher. To teach a simple school subject to children is difficult enough, but when it is sought to teach them diverse subjects through some chosen craft, the difficulties become greater. Almost all States were conscious of these difficulties and as already pointed out one of the main reasons for the slow progress in the expansion of Basic education has been the shortage of properly equipped personnel.

The Central Advisory Board of Education has for many years been insisting that the Elementary school teacher must have at least two years' training after the Matriculation or an equivalent standard. The shortage of teachers compelled most States to deviate from these standards and content themselves with training of a year or even less. The main reasons in favour of a longer course are that before a teacher is taught *how* to teach, he must at least know *what* to teach. The general knowledge of those who have taken the Matriculation examination was often such that this indispensable condition was not satisfied.

One of the measures to overcome the deficiency was the introduction of in-service training on a fairly large-scale. The period of in-service training varied from State to State. The shortest was in *Uttar Pradesh* where, instead of sending teachers to a training centre,

a mobile squad of instructors was sent out to give an orientation course to the teachers on the spot. This was an interesting experiment but did not achieve as much success as was expected of it. With certain modifications and, perhaps, with a slight change in purpose, such programmes can be useful in relieving the acute problem of shortage of teachers in the country as a whole.

In view of the need of turning out a larger number of teachers within a short period and the admittedly inadequate standards of most teachers now employed in schools, fresh importance is given to proposals for intensive in-service training of teachers. Such training has another advantage in that the periods devoted to it help to break the monotony of the teacher's life. Boredom, as all educationists know, is perhaps the greatest enemy to successful teaching. Repetition of the same lessons year in and year out induces a spirit of lassitude. Once the teacher loses interest in the subject, the quality of instruction inevitably deteriorates. In-service training at regular intervals, even if it be for brief periods, helps to break such monotony and may go a long way in improving the quality of teachers in the country.

(a) *Reorientation of Teachers' Education*

In *Ajmer*, as in most other States, reorientation has been in the direction of Basic education but the switch-over has adversely affected all four training institutions in the State that used to admit candidates after they had passed the Middle standard. The recommendations of the Central Pay Commission were accepted by the Government and were responsible for another set-back in these institutions. The new rules laid down that the minimum qualification for appointment as Primary teacher was the Matriculation followed by a year's training. Yet another factor was the question of finding finances to implement the Basic education scheme. With two Middle schools closed, the Government Normal School for Women also closed. The only institution that remained was the Normal School for Boys. In 1950, training imparted at this institution was modelled on Basic lines.

In *Assam*, a Basic bias was given in almost all centres of teacher training. The adoption of Hindi as the federal language made it compulsory for the State Government to provide adequate facilities for teaching Hindi in Secondary and special schools. A training centre was started at Dudhnai, Goalpara, in 1951, that provided training to 50 teachers at Government cost. As a larger number of trainees could not be accommodated at Dudhnai, a centre was opened at Missawara in 1952, where arrangements were made for the training of 125 pupils.

According to the recommendations of the Central Advisory Board of Education, reorientation of the educational system and integration of its various branches and stages is a fundamental requirement of any comprehensive development in the educational system. In accordance with these recommendations, the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya, to which reference has been made before, was established at Turki, Bihar. Re-modelling of old elementary training schools for Middle-passed (non-matriculate) teachers was another striking development. A new type of institution, known as the 'Progressive School', has brought into being a real change in teacher training institutions. The Basic education experiment, begun in Bihar in 1939, was expanded and extended. The number of the new type of training centres rose from three to 19. Teachers were selected for their skill in teaching activities, and not merely on the basis of their scholastic achievement. The work of trainees is evaluated from day to day and by periodical assessment. The close connection between teacher training and rural uplift is maintained. The introduction of improvements into old Elementary schools has naturally followed the line of Basic education. As many as 39 schools have been expanded into Junior Basic Training schools with provision for two years' training and a trainee—intake of 50.

With the introduction of compulsory Primary education with effect from 1947-48 in all villages with a population of 1,000 and over, and the declared policy of the Government to run all Primary schools in course of time, the problem of teacher-training assumed great importance in *Bombay*. Steps were taken to meet the demand for teachers by providing additional facilities for training and by revising courses. The revised courses provided for instruction in one main and two auxiliary crafts. Special emphasis is laid on training in hygiene, health and community activities, social welfare and village improvement.

The trend of thought in *Madhya Bharat* in regard to the training of teachers has undergone a marked change in favour of craft-centred activities.

The Bachelor of Teaching Scheme of work in *Madras* was reorganised so as to equip teachers for immediate work. A revised scheme for the training of graduate teachers was adopted by the University from the beginning of the academic year 1950-51. Instead of teaching history or geography, social studies were introduced, and what used to be divided into physical and natural science was merged into General Science. The Bachelor of Teaching curriculum was made more comprehensive with the addition of citizenship training.

In *Mysore*, there was a special teacher training centre set up at Vidya Nagar. This was a residential institution with necessary hostel facilities. It was situated in a rural area in order to condition pupil teachers to the environment in which they would have to live on completion of their training.

In the *Punjab*, new courses of study were introduced into teacher-training institutions. Every teacher is now required to have a working knowledge of Hindi and Punjabi in addition to other subjects that he is required to teach. The Department is committed to Basic education. Elementary school teachers are expected to take up manual work and to learn as many crafts as possible. The conversion of existing Primary into Basic schools became the declared policy of the Government and the problem of teacher training had to be faced.

(b) *Training Institutions and Enrolment*

The Delhi Administration set up in *Ajmer*, a Basic Teachers' Training Institute as no accommodation was available for this institute at Delhi. In March, 1952, the number of scholars on the rolls was 287, including 36 girls. Candidates were given a stipend of Rs. 25 p.m. for the period of training and the minimum qualification for admission was a Matriculation or equivalent. Training was craft-centred.

The number of Basic Training schools in *Bihar* rose from three in 1946-47 to 19 in the present Quinquennium. The number of trainees rose from 181 in 1946-47 to 1,492 in 1951-52.

In 1946-47, there were 36 training schools for men and 26 for women in *Bombay*. In 1951-52, there were 69 schools for men and 32 for women. Enrolment figures in the first year were 4,081 men and 1,650 women against 9,431 men and 3,062 women in the last year of the Quinquennium. Of the 11,493 trainees, 1,621 belonged to the Backward Classes. Of the 101 training institutions, 17 were Basic Training centres for Primary teachers for the Basic ideology has become the accepted policy in the orientation of education. Three graduate Basic training colleges were started to give graduate teachers training in the theory and practice of Basic education. The graduate Basic training centre that was opened at Ahmedabad, moved to Dabka in order to be located in a rural environment.

The Central Institute of Education at *Delhi* is under the control of the Ministry of Education and the question of receiving grants does not, therefore, arise. It was five years old at the end of the Quinquennium. It has its own building and attached to it is a Child Guidance Centre, a Basic school and a Nursery school. In 1948,

there were 38 men students and 23 women. In 1951-52, there were 33 men and 46 women.

In order to provide Basic Trained teachers in the newly started Basic schools in Delhi, it was decided to open two training institutions, one for men and the other for women. These were started in 1948. One was located, as has been mentioned, at Ajmer and the other for women in Daryaganj, Delhi. The Ajmer College has since been transferred to the Ajmer Government. The Institutes have been training 150 men and 100 women annually. The output in 1948-49 was 232 teachers and in 1951-52, 190 teachers. The teachers' training school was started in 1950 to offer facilities to displaced untrained teachers working at Delhi.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, there were four training institutions for Junior teachers and one for Basic teachers. Enrolment in 1950-51 was 98 and in 1951-52, 125.

In 1947-48, *Hyderabad* had ten training institutions for teachers of which seven were Government institutions. The *Osmania Training College* had two sections, one for graduates managed by the University and the other for undergraduates (Intermediates and Matriculates) under the control of the Department. The University provided courses for Master of Education and Bachelor of Education degrees. The Government Central Training School for Women, Balda, admitted Intermediates, Matriculates and Middle-passed women teachers. The remaining five Government institutions train Matriculates and Middle-passed teachers. In 1947-48, there were 775 teachers under training and in 1948-50, there were 875 teachers. In 1950-51, there were eight institutions for men and eight for women as against the 11 training institutions for teachers that existed in 1947-48. Enrolment in the last year of the Quinquennium was 809 men and 321 women as against 783 men and 267 women in 1950-51. In 1947-48, six women teachers were selected to undergo Kindergarten training in the *St. Georges' Grammar School*. In 1951-52, 50 teachers were deputed to undergo a *Montessori Teacher Training Course* for four months.

The training of teachers in Basic education is necessary for the introduction of Basic schools. The State Government, *Manipur* proposes to establish a Basic training school in *Manipur* and the approval of the Government of India is awaited.

In *Madhya Bharat*, there were 152 men on the rolls and 67 women in 1949. In 1951-52, there were 334 men and 75 women.

In 1949, there was one Government Training College for graduate teachers at *Dewas* in *Madhya Bharat* and one college at *Jaora* for undergraduate teachers. These were intended to train High and
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Middle school teachers. Three more Normal schools were added during the period under review. These were one Basic, one usual Normal school and one Normal school for women teachers.

In *Madras*, at the beginning of the Quinquennium there were only six training colleges, and at the end there were 14. There were two training institutions for women in *Mysore*—The Maharani's Women's Training College, Mysore and the Government Zenana Normal School, Mysore. In 1947-48, there were six training institutions, with an enrolment of 583. In 1951-52 there were still six institutions but the enrolment had gone up to 1,026.

In 1947-48, there were 19 Elementary training schools in *Orissa* with an enrolment of 679. In 1950-51 the number of such institutions had gone down to 15 and the enrolment to 531. The decrease in number is due to conversion of some Elementary training schools into Basic training schools. There is a training college at *Cuttack* that provides courses of training for graduates as teachers or District or Deputy Inspectors of Schools. Secondary training schools are meant for students with Matriculate or Intermediate qualifications.

Teacher enrolment at 17 training schools of the *Punjab* on the 31st March 1952 was 1,392. The State maintains two colleges for training graduate teachers, one at *Jullundur* for men and the other at *Simla* for women. The Basic Training school is a new type of institution intended for teachers' training as distinguished from the pristine ordinary type.

In *Rajasthan*, the Government accepted the proposal to double the intake of all existing Government Teachers' Training schools and to open six new ones with a strength of 150 each. The annual output of trained teachers reached the figure of 2,500. Most training schools in integrating States before the merger had a two-year course for Vernacular-passed teachers and were called Normal schools. All Normal schools, with a two-year training course, have been converted into Junior Teachers' Training Certificate schools, with a one-year course for Middle-passed and Senior Teachers' Certificate Schools for Matriculation-passed teachers for the same duration. The Teachers' Training College for Intermediate students at *Bikaner* was reorganised, well-equipped and suitably staffed, with an increased provision for 80 seats.

Saurashtra has no training colleges for Secondary school teachers. Every year about 11 graduate teachers are deputed to the Secondary Teachers' Training College, *Baroda* for the Bachelor of Teaching. Ten Senior Certificate Centres are run by the Government and private enterprise in opening training schools is encouraged as in the case of Primary and Secondary schools.

In 1947-48, there were 39 training institutions in *Travancore* with a strength of 1,399. In the *Cochin* area of the State there was one training institution with the strength of 725 in 1947-48. In 1951-52, there were 56 training schools in the *Travancore* area with a strength of 2,146. The Government training institution in the *Cochin* area had a strength of 767 in its training section. The private girls' training institution at Palluruthy (*Cochin*) had a strength of 253 for that year.

(c) Scales of Pay

There is great disparity in India, in salary scales of teachers. Not only do the scales differ from State to State but in the same State there is considerable variation in the salaries offered by schools under different managements, with the result that there are sometimes different rates of remuneration for the same type of work. For example, a Middle-passed and trained teacher working in a Primary school starts on a salary of Rs. 25 p.m. in Uttar Pradesh as compared with Rs. 30 in Madras, Rs. 40 in Bombay and Rs. 55 in Delhi (a trained Matriculate, however, starts on Rs. 68 p.m.). The maximum he can reach ranges between Rs. 45 to Rs. 130. The rate of annual increment and the number of years required to reach the maximum differ from State to State. Likewise, the lowest start for a High school teacher (Rs. 70 p.m.) is in Mysore as against the highest start of Rs. 154 in Hyderabad.

For detailed information about the scales of pay of Primary, Middle and High school teachers for the year 1947-48 and 1950-51 reference may be made to earlier publications of the Central Ministry of Education viz., "Education in India, 1947-48" and "Scales of Pay of Primary and Secondary School Teachers in States in India, 1950-51". The information pertaining to 1951-52 is, for the most part, the same as that for 1950-51.

A comparative study of the statistics referred to above will reveal that there has been a general upward revision since 1947, and efforts have since been made to link up the new salaries with the increased cost of living. It must, however, be admitted that the existing scales are still inadequate and do not compare favourably with those in other professions or services requiring comparable qualifications.

(d) Expenditure

State-wise as well as source-wise details of expenditure on Teachers' Training Schools and Colleges for the first and the last years of the Quinquennium appear in the adjoining tables. We would expect that an increase in the number of institutions would cause

a corresponding rise in expenditure, but in some cases, the rise was disproportionate. For instance, in Delhi where the number of institutions remained constant during the Quinquennium, expenditure on Training schools in 1951-52 was more than double that in 1947-48. Likewise there was a tremendous rise in the expenditure of the Training college (i.e., the Central Institute of Education). In the same way, an increase of about Rs. One lakh was reported by the Training College in Orissa. This was due partly to the improvement in scales, and partly to the general rise in cost but mostly to the expanding activities of these institutions.

In Madras, the case was just the reverse. Corresponding to an approximate rise of 20 per cent in the number of Training schools, expenditure decreased by about 30 per cent. The expenditure on Training colleges that rose from 6 in 1947-48 to 14 in 1951-52 did not keep pace with the rise in institutions.

From the tables giving source-wise details of expenditure, it will be seen that a large percentage was met from Government (Central and State) funds. It is interesting to note that there was no contribution by local boards at all towards the expenditure of Training colleges.

TABLE XVII
Direct Expenditure on Training Schools

State	For Men		For Women		Total	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A STATES						
Assam	87,278	3,72,493	9,024	45,896	92,302	4,18,389
Bihar	4,45,308	15,58,777	86,525	1,17,760	5,31,833	16,76,537
Bombay	11,66,081	21,77,334	5,87,543	10,15,820	17,53,624	31,93,154
Madhya Pradesh	5,19,542	+	1,78,802	+	6,98,344	+
Madras	25,17,377	16,76,128	15,36,089	10,67,474	40,53,466	27,43,602
Orissa	3,73,725	4,32,557	44,040	82,941	4,17,765	5,15,498
Punjab	74,824	1,45,674	35,785	28,657	1,10,609	1,74,331
Uttar Pradesh	12,03,054	23,55,480	3,29,823	5,51,965	15,32,877	29,07,445
West Bengal	3,00,675	3,59,920	99,224	1,31,801	3,99,899	4,91,721
B STATES						
Hyderabad	+	+	+	+	+	+
Jammu and Kashmir	+	+	+	+	+	+
Madhya Bharat	+	1,21,834	+	13,796	+	1,35,630
Mysore	+	8,18,464	+	88,570	+	9,07,034

TABLE XVII—continued.

State	For Men		For Women		Total	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*
Pepsu	+	14,256	+	—	+	14,256
Rajasthan	+	3,45,621	+	37,591	+	3,83,212
Saurashtra	+	+	+	+	+	+
Travancore-Cochin	+	+	+	+	+	+
C & D STATES						
Ajmer		29,730		98,391		26,013
A. & N. Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bhopal	+	—	+	—	+	—
Bilaspur	+	—	+	—	+	—
Coorg	—	—	—	—	—	—
Delhi		13,151		23,601		23,600
Himachal Pradesh	+	56,224	+	—	+	56,224
Kutch	+	20,000	+	—	+	20,000
Manipur	+	—	+	—	+	—
Tripura	+	—	+	—	+	—
Vindhya Pradesh	+	55,068	+	—	+	55,068
TOTAL		67,30,745		1,06,31,882		29,56,468
				32,38,338		96,87,213
						1,38,70,160

*Figures are provisional.

†Figures are not available.

TABLE XVIII

Direct Expenditure on Training Schools by Sources

Sources	1947-48 Rs.	1951-52 Rs.
Govt. Funds • • • • •	82,23,074	1,17,31,649
L.B. Funds • • • • •	1,06,200	1,42,384
Fees • • • • •	3,43,403	7,29,597
Other Sources • • • • •	8,14,536	12,66,531
TOTAL •	<u>96,87,213</u>	<u>1,38,70,160</u>

TABLE XIX-
Direct Expenditure on Training Colleges

States	For Men		For Women		Total	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A STATES						
Assam	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bihar	59,473	1,01,413	—	12,108	59,473	1,13,521
Bombay	1,79,619	6,36,834	—	—	1,79,619	6,36,834
Madhya Pradesh	2,91,966	+	58,325	+	3,50,291	+
Madras	2,70,294	5,22,998	2,46,826	2,57,395	5,17,120	7,80,393
Orissa	27,357	40,919	—	—	27,357	40,919
Punjab	61,150	1,23,734	57,352	95,575	1,18,532	2,19,309
Uttar Pradesh	3,26,690	4,99,973	90,288	2,75,838	4,16,978	7,74,811
West Bengal	1,20,728	3,37,014	—	—	1,20,728	3,37,014
B STATES						
Hyderabad	+	+	+	+	+	+
Jammu and Kashmir	+	+	+	+	+	+
Madhya Bharat	+	77,969	+	—	+	77,969
Mysore	+	38,373	+	—	+	38,373

Pepsu	+	—	+	—	+	—
Rajasthan	+	92,928	+	—	+	92,928
Saurashtra	+	+	+	+	+	+
Travancore-Cochin	+	+	+	+	+	+
C & D STATES						
Ajmer	59,900	—	—	—	59,900	—
A. & N. Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bhopal	+	—	+	—	+	—
Bilaspur	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coorg	—	—	—	—	—	—
Delhi	16,017	1,71,428	—	—	16,017	1,71,428
Himachal Pradesh	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kutch	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manipur	+	—	+	—	+	—
Tripura	+	—	+	—	+	—
Vindhya Pradesh	+	—	+	—	+	—
TOTAL	14,13,194	26,43,583	4,52,821	6,40,916	18,66,015	32,84,499

*Figures are provisional.
+ Figures are not available.

TABLE XX

Direct Expenditure on Training Colleges by Sources

Sources	1947-48	1951-52
	Rs.	Rs.
Govt. Funds	15,24,076	25,70,543
L. B. Funds
Fees	2,45,327	4,48,191
Other Sources	96,912	3,65,765
TOTAL	<u>18,66,015</u>	<u>32,84,499</u>

(ii) *New Experiments and Outstanding Problems*

In Assam, the problem of trained teachers, particularly in non-Government Secondary schools, is acute. It is essential that the output of trained graduate teachers should be increased. The establishment of *Guru* Training centres has increased the annual output of trained hands for Primary schools, but the training of teachers has not kept pace with the expansion and growth in the number of schools. A large number of teachers is to be deputed to existing centres and a few more centres opened. On the whole the experiment of giving a Basic bias to Primary trained teachers has worked well.

The training of teachers in Basic education centres in Bihar is in itself a reorientation of teachers' training. As these institutions tend to expand to villages and the community around them, every centre has a number of villages within its ambit of education and teachers' training has covered the training of village leaders. The Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya and the attached Social Education Workers' Training Institute with a College Section for the products of the post-Basic schools promise to be the nucleus of a Rural University and experiments in the training of rural teachers. The Training school at Bikram for Matriculates has a pre-Basic school attached to it and a laboratory for child study, that has to some extent humanised the theoretical study of this subject. The Ford Foundation Extension establishment located in the premises of the Bikram Basic Training centre has enhanced the importance of teacher training in the rural plan.

The outstanding problem in teacher-training is the recruitment of the right type of person as a teacher. It is probably true that a majority of persons joining teacher-training institutions merely chance to come into the profession because they cannot get employment elsewhere.

In order to meet the growing demand for trained teachers in Hyderabad, additional staff was provided in Government training

schools. Schemes were considered for establishing two more training schools, increasing the provision for stipends to teachers under training, making provision for training ten more graduates in addition to the number already fixed and for expanding arrangements for training Matriculates in the Training School at Mahboobnagar. In 1950-51, four new training centres were opened for women teachers at Mahboobnagar, Warrangal, Aurangabad and Raichur. The media of instruction in all training institutions are the regional languages of the State, and English in the Training courses for Graduates and Intermediates. Two Basic Training centres, one at Bhiknoor and the other at Mominabad and four new training centres for men (General Education) were started in 1952.

The study of experimental psychology formed part of the curriculum at the Government Training College at Dewas in *Madhya Bharat*. Experiments are conducted by specially gifted teachers on the abnormal child and his behaviour. Intelligence Tests were also introduced in these institutions.

In the reorganised Bachelor of Teaching Syllabus of *Madras*, much importance is attached to practical work and practical training, at least five weeks being devoted to the latter. The problem of the Bachelor of Teaching curriculum is the problem of all curricula—how to fit in all that students need to know in so short a period of training. Most students are confused by the vast number of subjects and activities they have to go through. Another new feature is the system of Supervising Examiners appointed by the University to assess practical work. The work of the training college is made more difficult because of the students' poor background. It is as well to recognise that teacher training can never be completed in a year. New methods and new techniques must be adopted and new activities learnt. As the regional language is now important, the Government decided to provide training for the *Pandits* in the State in the modern methods of teaching regional languages. New intelligence tests have been introduced into colleges. Re-training in Basic education was given to Elementary, Secondary and Higher graduate teachers in Government, Local Board and Aided schools.

Basic Training schools have all been made completely residential. This has helped to organise community life and to train for leadership. The condition of training schools from the point of view of play grounds and garden space remains unsatisfactory.

All new experiments in *Orissa* were confined to Basic Training institutions. The problems of these training schools are many. Some have no practising schools attached to them, some need better accommodation and facilities for the student population and more emphasis on craft work and provision for suitable community life. The most

urgent need is a thorough change of curriculum to bring training into line with real life in India. In many institutions, lack of finance stands in the way of improvement.

One new aspect of work in schools in the *Punjab* is emphasis on the fact that training schools must train pupil-teachers to be adaptable and practical and live without the assistance of servants. The shortage of teaching personnel is brought into prominence by the general cry for educational expansion. There is yet another problem facing the Administration. Arts and Crafts teachers are needed for a fuller implementation of the new scheme of studies, but they are extremely hard to find.

CHAPTER V

UNIVERSITIES AND INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Main trends

The period 1947-52 registered important developments in University education both in respect of quantity and scope. Before the partition of the country, the number of Universities was 21 but before the end of the Quinquennium, this had increased to 30. Enrolment in Universities also increased by over 60 per cent, while the total expenditure on University education multiplied threefold. The period also saw the introduction of many new courses particularly in fields allied with the study of Indian culture and languages. Independence created a new interest in foreign affairs and in many subjects which had formerly been neglected in our Universities.

Of the Universities established during the period, several were on the basis of linguistic regions. It may be said that by the end of the Quinquennium, there was no major language area in India which did not have its own University. The question of a medium of instruction in the Universities was hotly debated throughout the Quinquennium and the establishment of Universities more or less on a linguistic basis added to the strength of the controversy. There was a natural desire on the part of many Universities to switch over to an Indian language. The Government of India adopted the view that while this was a desirable and, indeed, inevitable development, the switch-over should be by stages so as to maintain standards and avoid undue hardship to teachers or taught. A Conference of Vice-Chancellors was convened in May 1948, and made valuable recommendations which were corroborated by and large by the findings of the Indian University Education Commission. The question of languages is, however, so important that it deserves to be treated in a separate section in the Chapter.

Even before the attainment of independence, overcrowding in Universities and their preoccupation with non-professional, non-technical and urban education had been a subject of acute controversy among educationists and public men. After 1947, it was felt that the changed circumstances demanded an exhaustive survey of Indian Universities in order to remodel the existing system to suit the country's new needs and requirements. The recommendations to this effect made by the Inter-University Board and the Central Advisory Board of Education were endorsed by the All-India Education Conference in January, 1948, and the Government decided to appoint a

high-powered commission to survey the entire field of Higher education.

The most notable event of the Quinquennium was the appointment of the Indian University Commission under the distinguished Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan and with eminent educationists from the U.S.A., the U.K. and India as members. The Commission held its first meeting in December 1948 and submitted its report in August, 1949. It not only defined the aims of University education, but made valuable recommendations in relation to the teaching staff, the standards of teaching, the courses of post-graduate study and research, professional education, religious education, the medium of instruction, examinations, women's education, the constitution and control of Universities and other allied subjects.

A quinquennial survey can hardly give an adequate account of the many recommendations of the Commission but a few of the outstanding ones may be briefly mentioned. The objectives of University education as envisaged by the Commission are the transmission of the intellectual and ethical heritage of mankind to the younger generations, the enrichment of this heritage, the expansion of the boundaries of knowledge and the development of the personality of the individual. The Commission maintained that Universities must provide leadership not only in politics and administration but also in the various professions, industry and commerce. They must also meet the increasing demand for every type of higher education, literary and scientific, technical and professional.

While recognising the importance of a broad liberal education, the Commission held that there was urgent need to develop the faculties of science, technology and agriculture in Indian Universities. For a country like India, the expansion of agricultural education was in the Commission's opinion one of the highest priorities. Such agricultural colleges should wherever possible be located in rural areas. This would not only enable the students to participate directly in rural life and acquire a first-hand experience of rural environment, but also meet one of the main criticisms against the existing system of education that it did not look sufficiently to the needs of the rural areas.

The Commission drew attention to the fall in standards in University education and attributed this partly to defective teaching in Secondary schools and partly to the domination of examinations in University education. It recommended reconstruction and strengthening of the examination system by incorporating modern scientific methods of educational testing and appraisal. The Commission also held that the insistence on a University degree for recruitment to public services had tended to lower standards and recommended that

recruitment should be made by competitive examinations without requiring the possession of a University degree by the candidates.

The Commission recognised that many of the defects of the existing Universities were due to their financial difficulties and recommended stronger support by the Central and State Governments. It held that the better management of the Universities require that University education should be placed on the Concurrent List, so that the Centre would have jurisdiction in respect of finance, coordination of facilities in special subjects and the maintenance of standards of efficiency and liaison between the Universities and the National Research Laboratories. The Commission also recommended the establishment of a University Grants Commission on the lines of the University Grants Committee in Great Britain to advise on grants from public revenues to Universities and institutions of higher learning.

The Commission made detailed recommendations on the structure and administration of Indian Universities. It declared itself categorically against affiliating Universities and recommended that these should be developed into teaching Universities as early as possible.

As regards new Universities, the Commission was of the opinion that at the beginning provisional charters should be granted on the recommendations of the University Grants Commission, and that permanent charters should follow only if the Commission is satisfied about the staff, management and quality of work done. The Commission also advised that new universities, both urban and rural, should be planned with reference to the total educational needs of the country.

The Commission recognised the central position occupied by the teacher in a progressive community. It emphasised that his responsibility should be given due recognition and his conditions of service and status improved. Every encouragement should be offered to teachers engaged in research and special recognition given to those who distinguish themselves in their special fields of study.

Mention has been made in an earlier chapter of the effort of the Central Government to raise the status of Elementary and Secondary school teachers. In pursuance of the same policy, a series of conferences were planned to which Professors and Heads of Departments of different Universities were to be invited to help in the framing of a uniform syllabus for the country as a whole. There have no doubt been discussions of syllabus in special conferences and associations of teachers, but strange as it may seem, these conferences planned by the Centre were, perhaps, the first occasion when University teachers were directly associated in the framing of syllabuses

on an all-India basis. During the Quinquennium, two such conferences of Professors of Philosophy and Professors of Psychology were held. It is proposed to follow up with similar conferences for other subjects.

Another feature of the Quinquennium was the rise in the number of professional and technological institutions. The elevation of Thompson College, Roorkee, to the status of a University and the opening of Faculties of Technology and Engineering in other Universities have been notable developments. The establishment of the Indian Institute of Technology at Kharagpur and the reorganisation of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore will be discussed at greater length in another chapter.

(a) *New Universities*

After partition, two Universities, namely that of the Punjab and Dacca, were transferred to Pakistan, reducing the number to 19. During the Quinquennium, University education made rapid progress and 11 new Universities were established. In Bihar and Bombay, new Universities were set up in pursuance of the Government of India's policy to set up regional Universities to meet the special requirements of each linguistic region.

The year 1947 witnessed the establishment of the (East) Punjab University, with courses of studies in Agriculture, Arts, Commerce, Education, Engineering, Law, Medicine, Oriental Learning, Science and Veterinary Science. The East Punjab University Act, 1947, sought to democratize the Senate. As against ten Fellows elected by the registered graduates of the Punjab University, Lahore, the number at present is 20. The Act also provided for the election of ten Fellows by teachers from affiliated colleges and University teachers and four by members of the Punjab Assembly.

In 1948, three new Universities merged: Gauhati University (Assam), Jammu and Kashmir University (Jammu and Kashmir). and Roorkee University (Uttar Pradesh). The Gauhati University is an affiliating, residential and teaching University with faculties in Agriculture, Arts, Commerce, Law, Medicine and Science. With the establishment of this University, the Calcutta University ceased to have jurisdiction over Assam.

In response to the demand for a separate university in Jammu and Kashmir State, this University was set up in 1948 as an affiliating University, with courses in Arts, Oriental Learning, Science and Teachers' Training.

The Thompson College of Civil Engineering, Roorkee, which was established a hundred years ago, was constituted into a residential

and teaching University in 1948 and is the only university in Engineering in the country.

In 1949, the Poona and Baroda Universities came into being. The colleges in Maharashtra that were formerly affiliated to the Bombay University were transferred to the newly created teaching and affiliating University of Poona. All teaching beyond the Intermediate stage in the Poona area is controlled by this University and the colleges situated in the area are its constituent units. The Baroda University has the faculties of Fine Arts, Home Science, Indian Music and Social Work as special features.

In the following year two more affiliating Universities, Gujrat and Karnatak in Bombay State, were added. Among other things, the Gujrat University Act provided for the replacement of English by Gujrati and/or Hindi as a medium of instruction within a specified period. Agriculture, Arts, Commerce, Law, Medicine, Science and Technology constitute faculties in the former and Agriculture, Arts, Engineering, Law and Science in the latter.

In Bihar State, two Acts, namely, the Patna University Act and the Bihar University Act, were passed in 1951, resulting in the bifurcation of the previous Patna University. The territorial jurisdiction of the University of Bihar extends to the whole of the State, excluding the limits of the Patna Municipal Corporation. As a teaching-cum-affiliating University, it offers facilities of post-graduate teaching and has faculties in Agriculture, Arts, Commerce, Engineering, Law, Medicine, Science and Veterinary Science attached to it. The Patna University has now become a teaching university of the federal type within the limits of the Patna Municipal Corporation.

An important step was taken to expand women's education by giving statutory recognition to the Shreemati Nathebai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University at Bombay, that was formally an all-India organization doing useful work in the field of women's education. This University started regular classes in 1951-52 for the B.T. degree at Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad and Baroda and decided to set up a faculty of Nursing offering the B.Sc. degree in that subject. Steps were also taken to prepare standard textbooks with the help of experienced professors, and books on Civics and Domestic Sciences in Marathi and Gujrati have since been published.

Central Universities

The last University to be incorporated was Visva Bharati (West Bengal) founded by Rabindranath Tagore in 1929 as an international University. It was constituted as the fourth Central University and acquired statutory recognition by an Act of Parliament in 1951. Visva Bharati is a residential, teaching and unitary University that imparts specialized training in Arts, Education, Fine Arts and Science.

In pursuance of the University Education Commission's recommendations, the Government of India amended the Aligarh Muslim and the Banaras Hindu University Acts. The Delhi University Act was modified on similar lines in 1951-52.

The University of Delhi has now been made a teaching and an affiliating University, with both constituent and affiliated colleges. Besides laying down the constitutional powers of the principal authorities the Act provides for the establishment of a Finance Committee. The President of India, who was Chancellor under the old Act, is now designated as a Visitor of the University and the important powers of the Chancellor are vested in the Court of the University.

(b) Institutions and Enrolment

The total number of Universities in 1952 was 30 with 261 teaching departments, 157 constituent colleges and 609 affiliated colleges. The number of Arts and Science colleges increased from 459 in 1947-48 to 488 (excluding the States of Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir, Saurashtra and Travancore-Cochin) in 1951-52.

In 1951-52, the total number of students receiving general education at University stage stood at 323,882 as against 1,83,238 in 1947-48. Thus, the enrolment registered an increase of over 70 per cent during 1947-52. There was a large rise in the number of girl students, who comprised more than one-eighth of the total in 1952. The adjoining tables supply the State-wise distribution of colleges and enrolment.

TABLE XXI

University Institutions†

State	Universities		Arts and Science Colleges	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*
A STATES				
Assam	1	1	16	17
Bihar	1	2	23	35
Bombay	1	6	35	49
Madhya Pradesh	2	2	15	†
Madras	3	3	82	77
Orissa	1	1	14	14
Punjab	1	1	29	45
Uttar Pradesh	5	6	180	50
West Bengal	1	2	55	88
B STATES				
Hyderabad	1	1	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	1	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	18
Mysore	1	1	†	21
Pepsu	†	10
Rajasthan	1	1	†	35
Saurashtra	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	1	1	†	†
C & D STATES				
Ajmer	5	7
A & N Islands
Bhopal	†	†
Bilaspur
Coorg	1
Delhi	1	1	5	13
Himchal Pradesh	1
Kutch
Manipur	†	1
Tripura	†	2
Vindhya Pradesh	†	3
TOTAL	21	30	459	488

* Figures are provisional.

† Figures not available.

‡ Excludes institutions for Professional and Special education to which a separate chapter has been devoted.

TABLE XXII

Number of Students receiving General Education at University Stage.

State	Boys		Girls		Total	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52*
A STATES						
Assam	4,515	5,865	582	931	5,097	6,796
Bihar	14,518	19,057	482	1,098	15,000	20,155
Bombay	22,391	33,904	5,263	7,904	27,654	41,808
Madhya Pradesh	5,057	†	823	†	5,880	†
Madras	31,774	40,444	3,670	5,111	35,444	45,555
Orissa	3,642	4,903	198	358	3,840	5,261
Punjab	13,278	19,918	1,157	1,950	14,435	21,868
Uttar Pradesh	30,952	85,487	2,731	7,891	33,683	93,378
West Bengal	34,055	41,667	4,085	6,691	38,140	48,358
B STATES						
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	4,134	†	669	†	4,803
Mysore	†	12,364	†	2,195	†	14,559
Pepsu	†	2,735	†	294	†	3,029
Rajasthan	†	6,512	†	840	†	7,352
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†	†	†
C & D STATES						
Ajmer	714	1,237	79	167	793	1,404
A & N Islands
Bhopal	†	215	†	60	†	275
Bilaspur
Coorg	165	...	33	...	198
Delhi	2,615	6,197	657	1,088	3,272	7,285
Himachal Pradesh	215	...	16	...	231
Kutch
Manipur	†	301	†	11	†	312
Tripura	†	552	†	61	†	613
Vindhya Pradesh	†	614	†	28	†	642
TOTAL	1,63,511	2,86,486	19,727	37,396	1,83,238	3,23,882

*Figures are provisional.

†Figures not available.

(c) Expenditure

The total direct expenditure on University and Arts and Science colleges in India increased roughly more than twofold during the Quinquennium. As compared to the total expenditure of Rs. 599 lakhs in 1947-48, expenditure recorded in 1950-51 was Rs. 1324 lakhs. During this period aid given by the State Governments also increased.

In 1950-51, additional grants were made to the three Central Universities for the improvement of salary scales and conditions of service of teachers and professors, dearness allowance to staff, etc. At the same time, a Committee was appointed to review the activities of the Central Universities and their finance and to report on their present and future requirements. This Committee pointed out in its report that substantial funds would be needed for these Universities if they were to function effectively and to fulfil their mission in the national life. Accordingly, the Government of India paid to the Central Universities special grants for development schemes, in addition to paying their normal maintenance expenses.

The block grants payable annually to the Central Universities in 1951-52 were Rs. 12,50,000 for the Aligarh Muslim University, Rs. 23,20,000 for the Banaras Hindu University, and Rs. 11,60,000 for the University of Delhi respectively. A sum of Rs. 5,20,000 was paid to Visva Bharati, in 1951-52. In 1952, the Government of India has paid a sum of Rs. One lakh for the building of the Shreemati Nathibai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University (Bombay State) against a total commitment of about Rs. Six lakhs.

The Jamia Millia (Delhi State), which is regarded as a nucleus for a rural university, also conducts pioneering experiments in Basic, Social and Adult education. In 1951-52, it was paid Rs. 258,565 by the Central Government. It was also paid Rs. 25,000 per annum to cover the cost of training teachers deputed by the Government of Part C States and also for trainees selected by the Central Government.

The need for financial assistance to all-India organizations working in the fields of Education, Culture and Research had long been felt. This help became essential because many princes and jagirdars who were erstwhile patrons of culture were no longer in a position to help these organizations. Further, as taxation had increased, these organizations received less financial assistance from the business world. Among all-India organizations that received grants were the Inter-University Board, the Inter-State Board of Anglo-Indian Education, the Deccan College Post-graduate and Research Institute, Poona, the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, the Asiatic Society, Calcutta, the Ramakrishna Mission Institute of Culture, Calcutta, the Vishweshvaranand Vedic Research

Institute, Hoshiarpur, the Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad, the Anjumane-Taraqqi-e-Urdu (India), Aligarh, and the Hindustani Prachar Sabha, Wardha.

In some States like *Bombay, Uttar Pradesh* and *West Bengal*, expenditure on University education reached a very higher figure. With the establishment of new universities, grants by the State Governments increased correspondingly. For example, the expenditure incurred by the Government of Bombay on grants to universities is 15 times what it was in 1946-47.

The Government of *Uttar Pradesh* set up a *University Grants Committee* in 1947-48 to advise on the needs of the universities and their finances. Another Committee was appointed to look into the finances of the Allahabad University. The attached Table shows further details.

TABLE XXIII

Direct Expenditure on Universities and Arts and Science Colleges.

State	Universities		Arts and Science Colleges	
	1947-48	1951-52*	1947-48	1951-52
A STATES				
Assam	13,13,233	7,66,497	15,97,937
Bihar	12,82,292	12,84,951	23,76,349	47,67,523
Bombay	24,62,864	73,06,565	75,15,608	1,23,52,810
Madhya Pradesh	8,39,997	59,83,013	14,92,192	†
Madras	28,97,645	47,49,803	70,76,238	1,15,17,828
Orissa	4,71,761	5,70,220	13,22,252	17,87,790
Punjab	16,53,073	34,75,034	19,98,967	53,40,691
Uttar Pradesh	65,93,581	1,85,03,804	1,12,51,627	70,76,308
West Bengal	33,77,216	85,19,940	56,32,813	1,00,00,952
B STATES				
Hyderabad	†	80,91,310	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	1,44,346	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	21,39,102
Mysore	†	7,83,729	†	20,73,318
Pepsu	†	10,13,657
Rajasthan	†	62,135	†	32,15,084
Saurashtra	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†
C & D STATES				
Ajmer	1,69,742	7,77,072
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal	†	2,08,044
Bilaspur
Coorg	82,570
Delhi	9,93,613	40,18,382	7,97,408	29,21,228
Himachal Pradesh	99,865
Kutch
Manipur	†	50,584
Tripura	†	1,83,974
Windhya Pradesh	†	3,55,086
TOTAL	1,95,72,042	6,48,06,465	4,03,99,693	6,75,61,451

* Figures are provisional.

† Figures are not available.

Note: Expenditure on Universities in 1951-52 includes that on Research institutions wherever they exist.

(d) Teachers

As the number of colleges, institutions and research centres increased during the Quinquennium, the number of teachers at various universities expanded. In 1951-52, the total number of teachers in Indian Universities stood at 23,920, including 2,083 women. The Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Agra had the largest number of teachers viz., 3,580, 3,246 and 2,215 respectively. The University of Madras had the highest number of women teachers, namely, 559.

Some improvement was also registered in respect of salaries, grades and service conditions of teachers in universities and colleges, but the main recommendations of the University Commission in this respect have not been implemented yet. An analysis of the salaries of the teachers revealed that the bulk of them fell into the salary group of Rs. 100—250 p.m. Of 21,310 teachers in 1951-52, 6,330 belonged to Rs. 100—150 group, 7,406 to Rs. 151—250 group and 5,186 to Rs. 251—450 group. As many as 1,333 had salaries ranging between Rs. 451 and 650 p.m. Only 240 teachers, that is, one per cent drew more than Rs. 1,000 p.m.

In Bihar, there was great discontent among the teachers of aided and non-aided colleges, that culminated in a strike in 1946-47. The Government took steps to revise scales of pay for the different categories of government-aided colleges in 1947-48. As this proved inadequate, the scales were further up-graded in 1949-50. As regards the government-managed colleges, the recommendations of the Bihar Pay Revision Committee were accepted by the Government in 1949-50 and the revised scales of pay were given effect to from September 1, 1947. Consequent upon these revised scales of pay the old distinction between senior and junior branches of the Bihar Education Service was abolished. To improve the efficiency of teaching and research, the Bihar Government also decided to grant advance increments to scholars enrolled in the Education Service Class II, after they had obtained research degree.

During the period under review, conditions of teachers in language at Government Colleges in Madras State improved, while in the Punjab University, the salaries and grades of lecturers, professors and principals were revised.

(e) Medium of Instruction

While agreeing that English may for the present be retained at the university level, the Radhakrishnan Commission urged the need to develop the federal and regional languages and to adopt international technical and scientific terminology. Even for Higher education, the Commission recommended that English should be replaced by an Indian language as early as possible. Pupils at the Higher

Secondary and University stages should be made conversant with three languages: the regional language, the federal language and English. The medium suggested for Higher education was the regional language with option to use the federal language for some or all subjects. Devanagari script was recommended for the federal language.

During 1947-52, the Government of India took various steps for the popularization and extension of Hindi. During 1951-52, a new Hindi Section was created in the Ministry of Education and a Central Hindi Organization (*Hindi Shiksha Samiti*) was formed to advise the Ministry on matters relating to the development of Hindi, especially in non-Hindi speaking areas. The Committee appointed three sub-committees to report on (1) Hindi Examination, (2) Basic Grammar of the Hindi language, and (3) Hindi propaganda.

A Committee of Philologists and ten Committees of Experts were also set up. Requisite technical staff was appointed to implement the recommendations of the Board of Scientific Terminology regarding the preparation of dictionaries of technical terms.

The State Governments and the Universities also took suitable steps to promote Hindi by introducing it as a compulsory (or optional) subject of study and by opening departments of studies in Hindi. Also Hindi was promoted through broadcasting and other media. The *Bihar Rashtra Bhasha Parishad* did useful work to encourage research. The Government of *Bombay* set up a Committee to report on the question of teaching Hindi in the State and accepted most of the recommendations made by the Committee. A Publication Bureau was established at Simla by the *Punjab* Government to prepare and encourage the production and translation of textbooks in Hindi and Punjabi.

Although English continued to be the medium of instruction, except in modern Indian languages, in the universities of India, great progress was recorded during the Quinquennium towards making Hindi and regional languages media as far as possible. The want of good textbooks has, however, handicapped progress.

Central Universities.

Hindi was made a compulsory subject at *Delhi* University for all graduate students admitted to the first year degree course in 1952. In *Uttar Pradesh* both English and Hindi were declared to be the media, with the objective of speedily changing over to Hindi.

Other Universities.

In *Bihar*, Hindustani as the medium of instruction in non-language subjects, was introduced in 1947-48. At the beginning some difficulty was experienced by teachers in explaining the subjects. Text-

books, too, were not available in various subjects. But gradually a large number of textbooks and other general books were published in Hindi and the difficulty was minimized. In 1949-50, a loan of Rs. 3,75,000 was granted by the State Government to the Patna University (Bihar) to set up its own press. In Bombay, the Senate of the Gujrat University prescribed Gujrati and Hindi as media of instruction in 1951-52 and stipulated that English should be replaced within seven years.

The medium in the Annamalai University (*Madras*) was English, except in the *Sangita Bhushana* course in Music and in the Oriental Title course. Suitable textbooks in Tamil of the required standard on a few subjects were, however, published during the Quinquennium. In response to a desire expressed by some students, an experiment was tried during 1948-49 to run a parallel course in English and Tamil for (1) History, (2) Economics and (3) Logic under Part III in the Intermediate course. Parallel courses for juniors were stopped from 1950-51 as the response was meagre.

The Education Reforms Committee set up by the *Mysore* Government recommended Kannada as the medium of instruction up to and inclusive of the Intermediate stage.

(f) *Improvements in Curriculum and Maintenance of Standards*

During 1947-52, some important changes were made in the curriculum to suit changed circumstances and to maintain standards. Various new courses of study were instituted in several Universities of India.

The Central Government took steps to reorganize university syllabuses in different subjects in cooperation with university teachers. During 1951, two conferences of professors of Psychology and Philosophy were convened, which considered the teaching of these subjects in Indian Universities and made certain recommendations for improvement in the courses.

The Committee for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials that was set up by the Indian National Commission, met at New Delhi in February, 1952. The Committee accepted the principles enunciated by Unesco for History textbooks and recommended that Indian historians should stress the problems of inter-group and inter-communal harmony. The Committee also recommended that seminars on the teaching of History should be organized on a regional basis in different States.

Central Universities.

New courses in Foreign Affairs, Ophthalmics, Medicine and Surgery were adopted in the *Aligarh* University.

With the extension of *Delhi University*, certain modifications were effected in the curriculum and some new degrees introduced. During the period under review, an Honours degree in Political Science and Punjabi, a two-year Master's course in Library Science, a two-year Master's course in Political Science and Punjabi, a certificate of Proficiency and a diploma in Russian, a one-year certificate course in French, German and Italian, a diploma course in Hindi, Urdu and Punjabi, a two-year Master's course in Anthropology, Botany and Zoology, a B.Sc. Honours course in Nursing, a B.Sc. course in Home Science, a two-year post-graduate course in Social Work, a two-year Master of Commerce course, a three-year B.Com. course (Honours standard), a one-year Bachelor of Education course, a one-year Master of Education course, a diploma course in Tuberculosis, a five-year M.B.B.S. course, B.Sc. (Hons.) course in Agriculture and the B.C.L. and L.L.M. degrees were instituted.

To promote the study of classical and regional languages, the Government of India instituted two schemes of scholarships at the Central Universities. A scholarship of Rs. 75 p.m. to a pupil for the study of Arabic and Persian up to the degree standard, and a similar scholarship for the study of Sanskrit or Pali is awarded at each Central University. Two prizes every year are also awarded to candidates selected on merit at each of the Central Universities for the study of other languages, like Bengali, Kannada, Malayalam, Marathi, Tamil and Telugu. In addition to these cash prizes, each candidate is permitted to tour selected places in the language-area concerned for study.

Other Universities.

The *Bihar University* introduced a four-year course in Chemical Engineering and instituted a Master of Textiles and B.Chem. Eng. degree during the period under review.

The *Patna University* also established six new teaching departments:

- (1) Labour and Social Welfare, (2) Commerce, (3) Statistics, (4) Ancient Indian History and Culture, (5) Politics, (6) Law during 1947-52.

In the State of *Bombay* the new regional universities re-oriented old courses and instituted certain new degrees.

In addition to the usual faculties, the M.S. University of *Baroda* started courses in Fine Arts, Home Science, Indian Music and Social Work. S.N.D.T. Women's University also decided to introduce the Faculty of Nursing leading up to B.Sc. Degree in Nursing.

The *Bombay* University introduced a four-year course in Chemical Engineering and instituted the Master of Textiles, B. Chem. Eng. degrees.

The *Poona* University (Bombay State) instituted the degrees of B.A. (External) and M.A. (External) for the benefit of those who were unable to prosecute their studies in colleges. These degrees were open to gainfully employed persons and married women within the *Poona* University area. Diplomas in Music, Oriental Learning and Printing were also added. The *Gujrat* University adopted the Diploma in Journalism and the Degree of Master of Pharmacy and accepted the proposal to have external degrees.

The *Annamalai* University (Madras State) reorganized its B.Sc. Pass and Honours courses and added the M.Com. Honours degree in Botany and Zoology, M.Sc. degrees in Mathematical Physics (by examination), Agriculture (by research), Geo-Physics, Statistics, B.A.V., M.L. and D.L. degrees, M.A. degree in International Relations, the Bachelor of Pharmacy and the B.Sc. degree in Bacteriology. The I.Sc. course was replaced by the I.A.Sc. course.

In the *Madras* University, B.Com. Honours, M.Sc. (by examination) B.I.M. (Bachelor of Indian Medicine) and B.D.S. degrees and a diploma in Analytical Chemistry were added between 1947 and 1952. The courses relating to the B.A. Pass and Honours, the B.Sc. Pass and Honours, the B.T., B.Ed., First Examination in Law and B.L., and B.Com. Pass and Honours, were revised.

Apart from some modifications in the existing courses of study and schemes of examinations, new courses in Indology, the History of Civilization, Law, Aesthetics, Public Administration, History of Science, Social Administration and Business Administration were added in the *Mysore* University. Ph.D. and M.L. degrees and a diploma in French and German were also instituted.

During the period under review, the *Punjab* University instituted a Ph.D. degree in Medicine, diploma in Tuberculous Diseases and Pharmacognosy, Master of Veterinary Science and a B.Sc. in Textiles degrees, and M.A. degrees in Hindi and Punjabi, in the curriculum. Also, the system of bi-annual examination was extended to the Intermediate, the Agriculture, M.A. Modern Indian Languages, new Oriental Titles, Doctor of Medicine and Master of Surgery examinations.

A minimum of three lectures and one tutorial class were provided in each Arts subject, while six lectures and two tutorials were prescribed for each Honours' subject in the *Utkal* University.

(For West Bengal, please see Appendix A.)

(g) Research.

The development of research in various branches of knowledge was a notable achievement after 1947. A brief account of the research work done by various Indian universities and other agencies in the States, is given below.

Central Universities.

During 1947-52, the University of Delhi instituted three Research Fellowships of Rs. 175 p.m. under an all-India scheme. Three other scholarships were awarded annually in History and Economics. The School of Economics of the Delhi University conducted a survey of the food situation in Bihar and is now engaged in a socio-economic survey of selected villages in Delhi.

Other Universities.

The Government of Bihar established the Mithila Institute of Post-graduate Studies and Research in Sanskrit Learning at Dharbhanga and the Magadh Institute of Post-graduate Studies and Research in Pali and allied languages and Buddhist Learning at Nalanda. Research in subjects connected with Ancient History, Indology and Archaeology was conducted by the K.P. Jaiswal Institute. The Bihar *Rashtra Bhasha Parishad* arranged lectures in Hindi by eminent scholars and published standard research works in various subjects in Hindi.

In Bombay State there were 12 institutes that conducted research work in various branches of knowledge during the Quinquennium.

The Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad, was engaged in the field of experimental and theoretical Physics, especially the study of Cosmic Rays and Earth Atmosphere.

The Department of Economics and Sociology of the Bombay University carried out research in five important economic projects. A fact-finding inquiry into the personnel of Government, with special reference to the Parliament at Delhi and the Legislature at Bombay and a factual study of Commerce, linguistic and other factors of tensions affecting political life were also undertaken. It also conducted an enquiry into the conditions of refugees in Bombay on the basis of a specially prepared questionnaire and also socio-economic survey on behalf of the Government of Bombay.

The Institute of Science and the University Department of Chemical Technology, Bombay, were two important research institutes which functioned in the field of Science. The latter carried out investigations in various industrial problems, subsidized by the Government and private industrial organizations. A number of lectures were delivered at the Institute by eminent foreign scientists who visited India in 1949, as well as by Indian scientists.

The Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay carried out research work in Atomic Nuclear Physics, and undertook work on the construction and development of instruments required in nuclear research.

The Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay undertook some social research projects and organized a Family Welfare Agency in Bombay. The Deccan College and Post-graduate Research Institute, Poona, and the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, conducted research in Oriental Languages, Linguistics, Indian History, Sociology, etc.

The Kannada Research Institute, *Dharwar*, carried on research in Karnatak History and Archaeology, Kannada Language and literature, while the B.J. Institute of Learning and Research, *Ahmedabad*, conducted research in Gujrati literature and education.

The Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, *Poona* was responsible for research work in Social Sciences. Two investigations relating to (a) Stagnation and wastage in Primary schools, and (b) Economic conditions of the famine-affected areas were completed. Apart from other cooperative activities, the Institute carried out the National Sample Survey and Rural Credit Survey and prepared a Report on Indebtedness in Deccan district during the last ten years. The rise of a business class in India was another major research project undertaken during the Quinquennium.

A Biological Station was established at Port Novo to provide facilities for advanced studies and research in Estuarine Biology. The Government of India and the *Madras* Government made grants towards the equipment and upkeep of the research station. The publication of an authoritative and a critical edition of *Kambaramayana* in 12 volumes was also undertaken by the Tamil Department of the *Annamalai* University. At the same time, a Council of Post-graduate Studies and Research was constituted to coordinate the activities of the various schools of post-graduate studies and research at the University.

The Sanskrit Department of the *Madras* University continued to work on the Catalogue Catalogorum. The publication of the Concise Tamil Lexicon was also in progress during the period under review.

In the *Punjab* University, 13 students were admitted to the Ph.D. degree in various faculties during 1947-52.

(h) *Extra-Curricular Activities.*

During the Quinquennium, increasing emphasis was laid on recreative and educative extra-curricular activities. College and University Unions, Clubs, Cooperative Societies, Science Clubs, Musical

and Dramatic Societies, Students' Parliaments, Social Service Leagues, etc., became popular and their numbers increased. Inter-collegiate and inter-university debates and declamation contests were widely held in which men and women students participated and won prizes. Visits to important historical places and industrial and commercial centres were also arranged by certain colleges and universities. The Universities of Bombay, Gujrat, Madras, Poona, and Punjab had their own Information Bureaus that did useful work in advising and guiding students desirous of joining overseas universities. These bureaus helped students to secure admission to universities in the U.S.A., U.K. and other European countries and supplied useful information in matters of Higher education in India and abroad, on scholarships, refresher courses, research institutions, career guidance and competitive examinations. Useful reference books were added to bureau libraries and some liaison was maintained between them and the Central Bureau of Education.

Training in the National Cadet Corps was, perhaps, the most popular among extra-curricular activities between 1947-52. Great emphasis was laid by Indian universities on the active enrolment of students in it and results were encouraging.

Central Universities.

The United Nations Organization set up its office in the premises of the Delhi University. At the same time, the Delhi Committee of University students started the World University Service, an organization that combines the functions and activities of the former International Students Service and the World Students Relief Society.

Other Universities.

The M.S. University of Baroda arranged an expedition to the Pindari Glacier in the Himalayas in May 1951, with a view to inculcating the spirit of mountaineering into students. Extension lectures and addresses by eminent foreign professors and educationists were another popular feature during the period under review.

In Pepsu, the students of Bikram College of Commerce had compulsory training in big industrial, banking, insurance, and commercial concerns during the summer vacation.

CHAPTER VI

TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Main Trends

Technical education made rapid strides during the Quinquennium as a result of the realisation on the part of the Government and the general public of the importance of technical manpower to the development of Industry, Commerce, Transport, Communications, Agriculture, Public Health and numerous other nation-building activities. Facilities for Technical education and training developed to such a large extent that admissions to various technical courses increased from 6,600 students in 1947 to 12,900 students in 1952, and the outturn increased from 2,700 in 1947 to 6,000 graduates and Diploma holders in 1952. Apart from this expansion in educational facilities, two other aspects of development were significant. Firstly, there was considerable improvement of instructional facilities by way of staff, equipment and building accommodation for the training of a large body of technical students; and secondly, courses in some of the important and specialised branches of engineering and technology were organised.

Assisted by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and the All-India Council for Technical Education, the Central Government launched a two-pronged drive. Under the able and energetic leadership of its Director, Dr. Shanti Swarup Bhatnagar, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research established 11 National Laboratories and Central Research Institutions, covering a wide range of subjects, viz.,

- Physics,
- Chemistry,
- Road Research,
- Building Research,
- Food Technology,
- Drug Research,
- Metallurgy,
- Leather Research,
- Electro-chemical Research,
- Fuel Research, and
- Glass and Ceramics Research.

Three more Research Institutions are expected to come into being soon, viz., the Salt Research Institute, the Silk and Art Research

Laboratory and the Electronics Engineering Research Institute. Besides the promotion of research in general, testing and standardisation of new products, and provision of expert advice for further development and production of such products, these laboratories and institutions offer facilities and advice to scientists, universities, industries and others who may not be in a position to carry out or complete investigations on their own. Also, an important part is played by them in dissemination of scientific knowledge, and there is increasing collaboration between National Laboratories and Universities and training institutions.

On the recommendation of the All-India Council for Technical Education, the Central Government approved a scheme of improvement and development of selected institutions at a cost of Rs. 162 lakhs non-recurring and Rs. 25.5 lakhs recurring. Fifteen institutions offering courses in the various branches of engineering and technology at the University first degree level were given grants, both recurring and non-recurring for the improvement of instructional facilities. As a direct result of the scheme not only was the standard of training at institutions improved but the institutions increased the annual admissions to various courses. The scheme was later integrated into a Five-Year Plan of Technical Education which envisaged all round development of technical education in the country during the Plan period.

For advanced training and research in engineering and technology, the Government established the Indian Institute of Technology at Kharagpur. The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore was also developed at a cost of Rs. 177 lakhs for the same purpose.

The problem of coordination and standardisation of Technical education on an all-India basis was actively pursued by the All-India Council for Technical Education. A Joint Committee of the Council and the Inter-University Board laid down in detail the pattern and structure of Technical education and training at the University first degree level. A four-year integrated course including at least six months of practical training was suggested for award of the Bachelor's Degree in Engineering by universities. The All-India Council for Technical Education, with the assistance of its various Boards of Technical Studies, prepared National Diploma and Certificate Courses in the basic branches of Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering and Chemical Technology, Architecture and Town Planning, Textile Technology, Commerce and Applied Art. Part-time courses for the benefit of employees in industry and technical departments of Governments were also designed. A Special Committee of educationists, leaders of industry and commerce and administrators was set up to examine the ques-

tion of training in Industrial Administration and Business Management.

A proper consolidation of the various developments in the years ahead was regarded as more important than further expansion of Technical education facilities. To facilitate such consolidation and clearly to indicate the nature and scope of further development, if any, required to meet the constantly changing demands of industry for technical manpower, a Technical Manpower Committee was appointed by the All-India Council to review the requirements for technical manpower in the light of the various plans of national development drawn up by the Government and private agencies. Improvement of standards of training was also regarded as more important than a mere increase in the number of students admitted to technical institutions.

(a) *Reorganisation of Technical Education*

Two Committees—the Scientific Manpower Committee and the Overseas Scholarships Committee—were set up to examine the problem of Technical education of Indian students within the country and abroad and to assess the requirements of the country for scientific and technical manpower over the ten-year period 1947-57. The Overseas Scholarships Committee recommended that scholars should be sent abroad for training in subjects for which adequate facilities did not exist within the country, and that steps should be taken to strengthen existing institutions and to establish new ones, so that in course of time it would not be necessary to send students abroad. The Scientific Manpower Committee estimated the needs of the Government and the Industry for various grades of scientific and technical manpower required in connection with the country's industrial and agricultural development on a long-term basis, and recommended special grants for expansion and improvement of facilities for Scientific and Technical education. It also suggested grants-in-aid to universities for scientific research, industrial training, stipends and research training scholarships.

In pursuance of the recommendations of the Committee, three schemes of

- (i) Practical Training Stipends;
- (ii) Research Training Scholarships; and
- (iii) Grants to Universities for Higher Scientific and Technical education and research;

were put into effect in 1949-50.

The purpose of the Practical Training Scheme was to give a two-year course of post-institutional practical training to selected

students qualifying from engineering and technological institutions, in order to equip them with practical experience for gainful employment. During the Quinquennium under review, 775 Senior Stipends, each of the value of Rs. 150 per month, and 420 Junior Stipends, each of the value of Rs. 75, were given to engineering and technological institutions offering Degree and Diploma courses. The Senior Stipends were intended for Graduates in Engineering or Technology and the Junior Stipends for Diploma holders in the same subjects.

The object of the other scheme was to promote research at Universities and other educational centres with a view to ensuring a steady flow of trained research workers to the National Laboratories and other centres of research. 150 senior scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 200 per month and 195 Junior scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 100 per month, were sanctioned during the Quinquennium. The tenure of the scholarships was up to three years.

The third scheme was launched in 1949-50 with the object of strengthening and developing facilities for advanced training and research in the Post-graduate and Research Departments of Universities in Pure and Applied Sciences. During the Quinquennium grants amounting to Rs. 50.8 lakhs were paid to 26 Universities. As a result of this financial assistance, the universities were able to equip their scientific laboratories on an appreciable scale and provide for the training of an increased number of research students. New fields of research were also opened up as a result of such grants. In 1951-52 the scope of the scheme was enlarged to include Technological education and research at the University level and the scheme, as a whole, now finds its place in the Five-Year Plan as a consolidated scheme for Scientific and Technical education and research.

The need to improve and strengthen engineering and technological institutions which had been seriously affected during the war years, was emphasised by the All-India Council for Technical Education in 1946. To this end, the Council recommended that the Central Government should make suitable grants to deserving institutions on the recommendations of its Coordinating Committee. The latter, after a comprehensive inquiry and after considering the reports of its Expert Committees, recommended that the Central Government should give capital and recurring grants and interest-free loans for the construction of hostels to 15 non-Government institutions, subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions to ensure the proper utilisation of the amounts paid. The Scheme was estimated to cost Rs. 162 lakhs non-recurring and Rs. 25.5 lakhs recurring and Rs. 37.7 lakhs interest-free loans. During the period under review a sum of Rs. 194 lakhs was paid to the institutions as grants and

loans. As a result of the grants, the institutions made rapid progress towards all-round improvement of instructional facilities and became important centres of Higher Technical education and training. A 47 per cent increase in the number of students enrolled was attained within a short time of the implementation of the Scheme.

For coordinated and planned development of Technical education at all levels in the country in the years ahead, a Special Committee of the All-India Council for Technical Education, in consultation with the Planning Commission, drew up a Five-Year Plan of Technical Education. This envisaged, on the one hand, the optimum development of facilities for Technical education at least up to the University first degree level in all regions of the country, and, on the other, the development of facilities for training in certain branches of engineering and technology for which no facilities existed in the country. A special feature of the Plan was the development of post-graduate education and research in certain selected branches as a first step towards the upgrading of long established and important institutions functioning on a regional basis. As a basis of cooperation between industry and technical institutions, the Plan proposed apprenticeship training of technical students in industrial establishments and part-time courses for industrial employees in technical institutions. The roles of the State Governments, private educational managements and other agencies in the all-India scheme of educational development were indicated in the Plan. The All-India Council entrusted its Regional Committees and Special Committees with the task of preparing detailed schemes for each aspect of the plan and adopting measures for their speedy implementation.

To attain a uniformly high standard of Technical education on an all-India basis, the All-India Council for Technical Education, with the assistance of its Boards of Technical Studies in Engineering, Metallurgy, Chemical Engineering and Chemical Technology, Commerce and Business Administration, Architecture and Regional Planning, Textile Technology and Applied Arts, prepared schemes for the National Diploma and Certificate Courses in the concerned branches of Engineering and Technology and Commerce. A revision in the pattern of Chemical Engineering and Chemical Technology courses in the light of modern developments was also approved both for university and non-university types of institutions. The new scheme proposed a four-year course in Chemical Engineering or Chemical Technology with the provision for specialisation in the final year. The pattern of employment of technical personnel of different grades in the field of Radio Engineering was examined and courses of training to suit different types of employment were pre-

pared. For the training of foremen or supervisory grades of technical personnel for industry and technical establishments of Government, National Certificate Courses in the different branches of Engineering/Technology which could be pursued either on full-time or part-time basis, were prepared. The formulation of part-time courses represented a positive and conscious step taken towards filling an important gap in the system of Technical education in the country. Practical training schemes in Advanced Accountancy and Auditing, Company Law and Secretarial Practice, Banking, Insurance, Transport and other branches were prepared for the benefit of students of Commerce.

The All India Council for Technical Education also took the initiative for carrying out the reorganisation of Art education in the country. An account of its activities in this behalf has been given in Chapter X. Special mention may however be made here of the Committee of the Applied Art Board which prepared a detailed scheme of training in Printing Technology. It also made recommendations for the establishment of printing schools in the country. The scheme was approved by the Council and was sent to the State Governments for implementation.

To ensure coordinated development of Technical education in all the regions and to bring about profitable liaison between educational institutions on the one hand and industry and technical departments of Government on the other, the All-India Council recommended the setting up of four Regional Committees, one for each region, Northern, Eastern, Southern and Western. The Eastern and Western Regional Committees were set up in 1951-52 and their offices were located in Calcutta and Bombay respectively. Within a very short period, the Regional Committees secured facilities for practical training in industrial establishments and brought about the beginnings of the much needed collaborative effort between educational institutions and industry. They also surveyed the whole field of Technical education within their respective regions and considered future problems of development. The other important functions delegated to the Regional Committees were to create facilities for Technical education at all stages, make preliminary examination of the institutions seeking recognition, tender advice and guidance to technical institutions within the region, assist the State Governments and institutions in securing practical training facilities and appoint boards of examiners for the National Diploma and Certificate Examinations.

The most important event in the field of Technical education during the Quinquennium was the establishment of the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, near Calcutta in 1951. Con-

ceived after the world-renowned Massachusetts Institute of Technology, this Institute was designed to provide facilities of the highest order for training and research in Engineering and Technology. The estimated expenditure on the project was over Rs. 305 lakhs on buildings and equipment and Rs. 44 lakhs recurring. Students were admitted for undergraduate courses in Civil Engineering, Building Construction, Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Naval Architecture, Agricultural Engineering, Architecture and Town Planning and Geology and Geophysics. Post-graduate courses were organised in Mechanical Handling of Materials, Production Technology, Electrical Communication Engineering, Combustion Engineering, Applied Geology, Geophysics and Soil Mechanics and Transport Engineering. Research projects in Applied Mathematics, Electrical Communication Engineering, Applied Mechanics, Theory of Machines and Internal Combustion Engines, Technical Gas Reactions and Chemical Engineering problems were also started. When fully established, the Institute will cater for 1,320 undergraduate students and 400 post-graduate students and research workers. Extensive hostel arrangements were made to make the Institute completely residential. The importance and significance of the Institute is self-evident; it will produce research engineers, inventors, designers and production experts for the country's development.

A Residential Study Course on Management Practice, the first of its kind in India, was also organised in 1952. The course was specially conducted on the model of summer schools in the U.K. and was designed to meet the need of managers, executives, etc. who are unable to undergo formal courses of training in Management Practice.

The development of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, for technological education and research was also noteworthy feature of Technical education in India. Before the Quinquennium, the Institute had established itself as a centre of research in the pure and fundamental sciences. With the implementation and near completion of a plan for the technological development of the Institute during the years 1947-52, the Institute became also an important centre of Higher Technological education and research. The scheme involved a cost of over Rs. 175 lakhs. Facilities for advanced training and research in Aeronautical Engineering, Internal Combustion Engineering, Metallurgy, Electrical Communication Engineering and Power Engineering have now been organised in the Institute.

The Delhi Polytechnic, another Central Government institution, provided facilities for training in a wide range of subjects and received recognition from the Delhi University for training students for the Bachelor's Degree in Electrical Engineering, Mechanical

Engineering, Textile Technology, Architecture, Chemical Engineering and Commerce and Business Administration. The Institute also continued to offer National Certificate courses in technical subjects.

In *Ajmer*, carpentry as a subject was taught in the local Government High School, and Agriculture formed an optional subject in the D.A.V. College and the Narain High School Bijainagar. In addition to these, hobby classes in soap-making, pottery, fruit preservation, carpentry ink and boot polish were started in the D.A.V. College. Besides a technical training centre, established by the Central Government, there was a well-established institution for apprentices in the B.B. & C.I. Railway workshop (now Eastern Railway).

A few scholarships of the value of Rs. 25 each, tenable for variable durations, were awarded by Ajmer State. By an arrangement with other Governments, facilities for admission to some technical institutions situated outside Ajmer State were also available to Ajmer students.

Commerce was taught in two colleges, and Law classes were started in the Government College, Ajmer.

With a view to meeting the increasing demand for mechanical and electrical engineering required for industrial development in Bihar, a mechanical and technical college (called the Bihar Institute of Technology) was started at Sindri from July, 1949. This institution was equipped with modern apparatus and was intended to train 30 electrical and 30 mechanical engineers every year in the initial stages of their profession. A scheme for the conversion of the Ranchi Technical School into a full-fledged engineering school was prepared.

There were no facilities in *Bilaspur* for Professional and Technical education till 1951. The stipends were, however, awarded at the rate of Rs. 100 p.m. each for training in Technical education.

The rise in the number of professional and special colleges and students in Bombay during the Quinquennium, indicated a general tendency on the part of students to prefer Technical education to Art or Science courses. In the field of Higher education, Commerce drew the largest number of students, with 4380, while the Engineering and Law had 4400 and 2852 respectively.

The number of engineering, technical, industrial, commercial, agricultural and medical schools increased by more than 100 per cent during the Quinquennium. Thus, in 1951-52, there were 331 such institutions with 24,568 students on the rolls. Of these, 191 were engineering, technical, and industrial schools.

As compared to 35 commercial institutions in 1946-47, there were 98 such institutions in 1951-52. The strength of these institutions increased from 3,160 to 8,074 during the period under report. They conducted various examinations, such as the London Chamber of Commerce Examination, Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate Examination and Government Diploma in Commerce and Accountancy Examination.

The number of schools of Agriculture also increased during the Quinquennium. From four in 1946-47, the number of Agricultural schools rose to 18 in 1951-52. The number of students also increased from 185 to 1,084.

The number of Medical schools in Bombay doubled during the period under review. Out of 24 such schools in 1952, there were 18 Government schools for Nursing and Midwifery attached to various Civil hospitals. Besides, there were five Ayurvedic Colleges and one Dental College at Bombay.

During 1947-52, Delhi State made rapid progress in Technical and Professional education. In fact, Delhi became the seat of some very important institutions in the country. One notable addition was the Central College of Agriculture, which was established in 1947 to provide facilities for students coming from centrally administered areas and States with no colleges of their own. This institution conducts a systematic course of scientific agriculture. It runs a three-year course and is affiliated to the University of Delhi. On grounds of economy, it was integrated with the Indian Agricultural Research Institute in July 1951. The number of students in the latter increased from 35 in 1947 to 43 in 1952.

Another important institution that emerged during 1947-52 was the Delhi School of Social Work. It was started as a post-graduate institution offering a two-year course of training in social work leading to a Master's degree in Social Work from the Delhi University. The major fields in which specialization is offered are Labour Welfare, Rural Welfare, Medical Social Work and Child and Youth Welfare.

Although the Malaria Institute of India was originally designed to undertake teaching, research, advisory and survey work in malariology, it had also to assist State Governments in the investigation of their malarial problems and in the formulation of control measures during the Quinquennium. Its activities expanded, covering investigation and control of filariasis, plague, and yellow fever. It arranged post-graduate training for Medical Officers and Engineers as well as for Malaria Inspectors. The old six-week course for Medical Officers was enlarged to cover a period of 12 weeks in 1949. The

Institute is now recognized as an international training centre for the *World Health Organization* in the South-East Asian Region. A scheme for nation-wide control of malaria with the assistance of U.S.A.T.C.A. was adopted with a view to protecting the majority of population residing in malarial areas of the country.

The Lady Hardinge Medical College and Hospital, New Delhi, which was attached to the Punjab University at its inception became affiliated to the University of Delhi in 1948. The College now runs a course for the M.B.B.S. degree in accordance with the syllabus prescribed by the University.

The College of Nursing, New Delhi, also recorded progress. The number of students increased from 20 in 1947 to 23 in 1952. There is now a four-year degree course in basic nursing leading to the B.Sc. Hons. degree in Nursing from Delhi University. Two separate courses for a Certificate in Nursing were combined in 1952. The number of persons admitted to the course rose from 15 in 1947 to 42 in 1952.

The Sarada Ukil School of Art at New Delhi made steady progress during the Quinquennium. The enrolment increased by more than 100 per cent. This institute now imparts teaching in (1) the Indian style of painting, (2) the Western style of painting, including still life, life studies and outdoor studies, and (3) commercial art.

The institutions that functioned under the Department of Technical and Vocational Education, *Hyderabad*, Deccan, during 1947-52, were: The Technical College, Domestic Science Training Centre, Agricultural School, two Boys' Technical High Schools, 11 Boys' Industrial Schools, two Girls' Vocational High Schools and four Girls' Industrial Schools. All these were reorganized. The number of students in these institutions increased from 1,854 in 1947-48 to 2,034 in 1951-52. Those who passed the examination rose from 142 to 385.

There were few technical institutions that functioned in *Madhya Bharat* during the period under report. Subjects like carpentry, blacksmithy, weaving, calico printing were taught in some schools of the State. Most of the trainees, who obtained Diplomas and Certificates, were appointed in local engineering concerns.

The number of engineering and technological colleges including the University Teaching Departments in *Madras State* increased from seven in 1947 to eight in 1951-52, and the number of students at these institutions shot up from 1,290 to 1,992. The P.S.G. College of Technology, Coimbatore, was an important addition during 1951-52. The colleges at Anantpur and Kakinada were affiliated to the Andhra

University and those at Guindy and Coimbatore to the Madras University. Also three University Departments provided instruction in Technology. To expand Technical education, some polytechnics were started during the Quinquennium. Thus, eight Government Polytechnics and three aided Polytechnics functioned in the State during the period. The Central Polytechnic was equipped with plants and machines worth Rupees Four lakhs. Some new Diploma courses for the L.M.E., L.P.T., etc. and the Overseers Courses were provided at these institutions. The Licentiate in Civil Engineering Diploma Course of three years' duration was abolished in 1948-49 and a Lower subordinate course of two-years' duration introduced in its place. Admission to these courses was open to *bonafide* apprentices of recognised workshops.

The Institute of Engineering in India granted permanent recognition to the B.E. Course of the *Annamalai* University in all its branches, and to the Diploma Course of the Madras Institute of Technology.

In Madras, there was a rapid growth of government industrial schools during 1947-52. In 1947-48, there were only 78 recognized industrial schools in the State under private agencies. In 1951-52, there were 41 industrial schools under the Central Government, three under the State Government, two under District Boards and 35 under private management. The number of examinees in these institutions rose from 14,677 in 1947-48 to 27,350 in 1951-52.

At the end of the Quinquennium, there were five Medical colleges (four for men and one for women) functioning in Madras. The colleges at Guntur and Visakapatnam were affiliated to the Andhra University, the rest to the Madras University. The number of scholars at these institutions rose to 2,090 men and 631 women in 1951-52.

The School of Indigenous Medicine was raised to a College in 1947. This was the only institution in the State which imparted instruction and training in Ayurvedic Siddha and the Unani system of medicine. At the beginning, 50 students were admitted to the G.C.I.M. course, but later on the number rose to 60. The number of beds in the hospital rose from 110 in 1947 to 210 in 1952.

The Madras Veterinary College was the only institution that imparted instruction in Veterinary Science during the Quinquennium. A revised course was introduced from 1947 and the first batch of students under this revised B.V.Sc. course completed their training in 1950-51.

The Agricultural Colleges at Coimbatore and Bapatla functioned during the Quinquennium. A special feature of the period was that no batches of teachers of Higher Elementary schools were given training in Agriculture for a period of two weeks. Young farmers were given vocational training in dairying and animal husbandry for a period of one month.

Besides the Sevindia Agriculture School, another school to train the sons of *Mirasdars* and big tenants in improved methods of cultivation was opened in 1948. The course, that extended over one year, provided thorough training in practical agriculture according to a special syllabus drawn up for the purpose. The number of farm-schools, which were intended for agricultural labourers and their children, rose by over 30 per cent. during 1947-52.

In pursuance of the Government's policy to centralize Forestry education in India, the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore was taken over by the Government of India in 1948. A two-year post-graduate course leading to a Diploma in Forestry, as in Dehra Dun, was started in 1949. A Soil Scientist was appointed in 1949 and a Research Section added to the College to deal with Spike disease of sandal and teak defoliation.

There was considerable increase in the number of students at Law colleges during 1947-52. From 482 students reading Law in 1947-48 in the State, the number rose to 1,280 men and 32 women in 1951-52.

The institutions that functioned in the field of Art in 1947-48 were: the Government School of Arts and Crafts, Madras, the Municipal Art School, Kumbakonam, and the Teachers' College, Saidapet, to which a Manual Training class was attached. Another Arts school was set up at Madura in 1949-50. The expansion of this side of education may be seen from the fact that the number of students in them increased from 279 in 1947-48 to 456 in 1949-50.

23 schools were approved by the Industries' Department for Women, in addition to the L.P.M. Institute at Ratchanyapuram approved by the Education Department.

There was no separate college of Commerce in the State, but certain Arts and Science colleges were affiliated in this subject. Two aided and 323 un-aided commercial schools imparted training in various commercial courses.

Technical and Professional education in *Mysore* made substantial progress during the Quinquennium. There were ten industrial

schools in the State. A workshop section was attached to each industrial subject taught in the school, where students after a three-year course of study underwent an apprenticeship course for two years more during which period, they worked as wage-earners. Besides these, there were: the Sri Chamrajendra Technical Institute, Mysore and eight industrial schools, of which three were District and five *Taluk* industrial schools under the control of the Department of Industries and Commerce. In addition, there was an industrial school for girls at Chennapatna. To meet the increasing demand for Technical education, it was decided to open a technical institute at Bangalore and to upgrade the Industrial school at Shimoga to a technical institute on the lines of the Sri Chamrajendra Technical Institute, Mysore. Sri Krishna Rajendra Jubilee Technology Institute, Bangalore, which was affiliated to the University of Mysore, conducted classes in Textile Technology, leading to a degree course.

Before 1947, there was only one occupational institute in the State. To meet the heavy rush of students for admission to this institute, it was considered necessary to open more occupational institutes in other centres of the State. Accordingly, occupational institutes at Hassan and Davengere were opened in 1949 and another was started at Chintamani in 1950.

There were three Kannada Agriculture schools and two school-farms in Mysore State. The system of training at these institutions was improved in 1951-52. The field-man's training course was suspended and it is now proposed to raise the standard for admission, as well as the length of training so as to attract better personnel to the service.

Commercial education was imparted in the S.S.L.C. as well as in the Intermediate and Degree courses in the University. In the end of the Quinquennium, the number of recognized commercial schools increased to 26 aided and 30 un-aided.

There is not much progress to record in the field of Technical education in Orissa during the Quinquennium, but some progress was made in Professional education. The Sri Ram Chandra Bhanj Medical College was expanded and research facilities provided. The Gopabandu Ayurvedic Institute at Puri was opened in 1949 to give instruction in the Ayurvedic System.

Consequent upon partition, the Punjab was deprived of various technical and professional institutions. The main efforts of the Government after 1947 were, therefore, directed towards the rehabilitation of these institutions. The Punjab Engineering College was

started at Roorkee with the help of the Uttar Pradesh Government and another Engineering School (the East Punjab Engineering School) was started first at Gurdaspur and later moved to Nilokheri. The displaced students of the two Medical Colleges from Lahore were partly absorbed by the Medical College, Amritsar, and the rest were accommodated in colleges of other States. The Government Agricultural College was set up at Amritsar to provide Agricultural education to displaced students. It was moved to Ludhiana in 1949, where the district agriculture farms were used for training students in practical agriculture. Similarly, the Punjab Veterinary College was started at Hissar in 1948 and was put on a permanent basis from March 1, 1949. The Law College was established at first at Simla in 1947-48, and then transferred to Jullundur.

Thus, in 1952, the Punjab had one Medical College at Amritsar, two Medical Schools at Ludhiana, one Engineering College at Roorkee, one School of Engineering at Nilokheri, one Law College, one University College of Commerce, one Government Agricultural College, one Veterinary College and a number of industrial schools scattered in various districts.

Engineering, Medical, Ayurvedic, Agricultural, Law and Commercial colleges continued to function in *Rajasthan* State during the Quinquennium. There were in addition several other professional and technical schools in the State.

As a result of the recommendations of the Committee on Technical Education, some second-class institutions were abolished and polytechnics established in *Uttar Pradesh*. Further, technical institutions were provided with workshop facilities and workshops equipped with a modern type of machine and tool. It was decided in 1949 to grant loans to suitable students desirous of pursuing Higher Technical and Scientific training. Accordingly, loans to the extent of £330, Rs. 1,00,000 and Rs. 83,800 were sanctioned during 1949-50, 1950-51 and 1951-52 respectively.

Facilities existed for evening classes at five Government technical and industrial institutions. It was proposed to start a training class for sugar mill workers with a view to providing them with employment during the off-season.

In the Travancore area of *Travancore-Cochin* State, there were 12 aided Technical schools for girls and one other school which imparted Technical education to delinquent children in 1947-48. An institution for music, the Sree Serothi Thirumal Academy at

Trivandrum, had a total strength of 113 during 1947-48. In addition, there were 12 Government and two private institutions in the Cochin area at the beginning of the Quinquennium. The total number of technical and professional institutions in the State rose to 64 in 1951-52. The number of students in the Sree Serothi Thirumal Academy of Music increased to 144 in the same year.

Before the formation of *Vindhya Pradesh*, there was practically no Technical education in this area. There was only one recognized technical institute at Rewa, which imparted training in (i) weaving, (ii) carpentry, (iii) Hindi shorthand and typewriting, and (iv) English typing. Recently the Department of Industries took over this institution.

During 1952, the Education Department set up the Polytechnic Institute at Nowgong that imparts training in (a) fitting, (b) blacksmithy, (c) automobile engineering, and (d) electric engineering.

It is proposed to start another Technical institution under the five-year development plan.

(c) *Various Types of Technical Institutions and their enrolment*

There were three distinct types of institutes for Technical education, namely, engineering colleges and schools, technological colleges and technical schools, and industrial schools. The rise in the number of technological colleges and technical schools after 1947 was steep, and engineering and industrial institutions also recorded a substantial increase. These institutes were located for the most part in Bihar, Bombay, Madras, Mysore, the Punjab, Travancore-Cochin, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. In 1950-51, the total number of students in these institutions exceeded 5½ lakhs and included 6,286 girls.

The rapid growth of Professional education is reflected in the number and variety of institutions and the corresponding expansion in their enrolment during the Quinquennium. These institutions attracted a large number of students, for they offered better prospects of service, security and salaries. The implementation of several plans, the opening of new projects, the rapid industrial and commercial expansion of the country and the growth of social and cultural life in the community naturally provided better opportunities for those qualified in professional institutions. The following table gives the number of institutions, their expenditure, and the students taking up studies in the field of technical and professional education in 1951-52.

TABLE XXIV

Number of Professional Institutes.

State	Colleges		Schools		TOTAL	
	1947-48	1951-52†	1947-48	1951-52†	1947-48	1951-52†
A STATES						
Assam	1	2	29	55	30	57
West Bengal	20	20	158	224	178	244
Bihar	7	15	145	154	152	169
Bombay	29	44	257	426	286	470
Madhya Pradesh	12	*	42	*	54	*
Madras	26	32	496	603	522	635
Orissa	2	3	46	58	48	61
Punjab	11	9	44	49	55	58
Uttar Pradesh	21	39	162	226	183	265
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*	*	*	*	*
Jammu and Kashmir	*	*	*	*	*	*
Madhya Bharat	*	5	*	10	*	15
Mysore	*	11	*	85	*	96
Nepal	*	2	*	4	*	6
Rajasthan	*	9	*	13	*	22
Uttar Pradesh	*	*	*	*	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	*	*	*	*	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer	1	..	5	1	6	1
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal	*	..	*	1	*	1
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi	2	7	7	6	9	13
Himachal Pradesh	2	..	2
Kutch	1	..	1
Manipur	*	..	*	..	*	..
Tripura	*	..	*	*	*	..
Uttar Pradesh	*	..	*	3	..	3
TOTAL	132	198	1,391	1,921	1,523	2,119

† Figures are provisional.

* Figures are not available.

TABLE XXV

Number of students receiving Professional Education.

State	University Stage*		School Stage *		TOTAL	
	1947-48	1951-52**	1947-48	1951-52**	1947-48	1951-52*
A STATES						
Assam	136	568	1,708	2,712	1,844	3,680
West Bengal	10,970	14,429	9,893	19,214	20,863	33,743
Bihar	1,836	8,126	6,375	8,135	8,211	16,261
Bombay	9,224	14,518	22,178	36,863	31,402	51,381
Madhya Pradesh	2,502	†	3,987	†	6,489	†
Madras	5,955	15,468	34,839	52,722	40,754	68,190
Orissa	311	1,048	1,599	2,236	1,910	3,284
Punjab	1,532	2,228	2,629	4,965	4,161	7,193
Uttar Pradesh	12,132	17,749	8,513	9,022	20,651	26,771
B STATES						
Hyderabad	†	†	†	†	†	†
Jammu & Kashmir	†	†	†	†	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	2,051	†	659	†	2,710
Mysore	†	4,524	†	9,600	†	14,124
Pepsu	†	126	†	625	†	751
Rajasthan	†	3,955	†	855	†	4,810
Saurashtra	†	†	†	†	†	†
Travancore-Cochin	†	†	†	†	†	†
C & D STATES						
Ajmer	79	466	188	287	267	753
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal	†	158	†	157	†	315
Bilaspur
Coorg	45	64	45	64
Delhi	960	2,906	853	773	1,813	3,679
Himachal Pradesh	†	182	†	182
Kutch	†	73	†	73
Manipur	†	..	†	..	†	..
Tripura	†	35	†	..	†	35
Vindhya Pradesh	†	72	†	148	..	220
GRAND TOTAL	45,643	88,827	92,807	1,49,392	1,38,450	2,38,219

*Includes enrolment in attached classes.

**Figures are provisional.

† Figures are not available.

TABLE XXVI

Direct Expenditure on Professional Institutions

State	Colleges		Schools		Total	
	1947-48	1951-52†	1947-48	1951-52†	1947-48	1951-52†
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
A. STATES						
Assam	15,814	8,03,653	2,23,078	11,89,443	2,38,892	19,93,096
Bihar	11,91,580	27,88,660	15,30,088	27,17,677	27,21,668	55,06,337
Bombay	42,75,141	94,96,507	47,52,262	93,35,307	90,27,403	1,88,31,814
Madhya Pradesh	9,21,065	*	11,03,650	*	20,24,715	*
Madras	49,11,428	69,08,098	90,24,105	55,60,059	1,39,35,533	1,24,68,157
Orissa	4,82,235	5,57,024	6,25,997	10,51,005	11,08,232	16,08,029
Punjab	8,02,981	15,55,077	5,10,711	20,78,519	13,13,692	36,33,596
Uttar Pradesh	27,74,980	68,55,759	22,19,194	31,22,422	49,94,174	99,78,181
West Bengal	28,37,094	92,28,837	22,24,036	41,15,056	50,61,130	1,33,43,893
B STATES						
Hyderabad	*	*	*	*	*	*
Jammu & Kashmir	*	*	*	*	*	*
Madhya Bharat	*	9,76,611	*	2,65,527	*	12,42,138
Mysore	*	8,77,880	*	17,37,677	*	26,15,557
Pepsu	*	23,600	*	69,604	*	93,204
Rajasthan	*	11,33,539	*	*	*	11,33,539
Saurashtra	*	*	*	*	*	*
Travancore-Cochin	*	*	*	*	*	*
C & D STATES						
Ajmer	59,900	..	59,643	98,391	1,19,543	98,391
A & N Islands
Bhopal	*	..	*	20,103	*	20,103
Bilaspur
Coorg
Delhi	17,33,090	34,48,745	1,71,105	2,41,573	19,04,195	36,90,311
Himachal Pradesh	*	56,224	*	56,224
Kutch	*	28,230	*	28,230
Manipur	*	..	*	..	*	..
Tripura	*	..	*	5,015	*	5,015
Vindhya Pradesh	*	..	*	73,909	*	73,909
GRAND TOTAL	2,00,05,308	4,46,53,990	2,24,43,869	3,17,65,741	4,24,49,177	7,64,19,73

*Figures are not available.

† Figures are provisional.

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL EDUCATION

(i) *Main Trends*

It has already been indicated in the introductory survey that the Quinquennium saw important developments in the conception of Adult education. There was intense activity for the spread of adult literacy in the years following the introduction of Provincial autonomy in 1937. The outbreak of war interrupted that development and when the programmes were resumed after 1946, it was felt that the problem had to be approached from a new point of view in the light of experience gained. This had revealed that after the first flush of enthusiasm, adults exhibited a flagging interest in mere literacy. The new programmes had to devise methods which would sustain their interest and at the same time make the education significant to the tasks they have to face.

With the establishment of Unesco, the conception of Fundamental Education as an essential condition for the prosperity of communities has also been gaining strength. Within India, the experience of Basic education led to a reorientation of the attitude to Adult education. It was felt that if the education of children became more effective by linking it up with the environment, this was even truer of education for the adult. Experience indicated that no programme of Adult education would be complete or satisfying unless the content of education was changed to meet all adult requirements.

The almost universal desire for improvement in the conditions of life suggested that the easiest way to arouse the interest of the adult was to offer him inducement for economic advancement. The new programme of Adult education laid great stress on teaching improved methods of existing crafts or the introduction of new crafts that would add to the earning power of the adult. The importance of teaching personal and social hygiene was also recognised. Without the maintenance of personal cleanliness and proper sanitary conditions in the environment, no programme of economic betterment would be complete. In view of India's decision to adopt a democratic republican form of Government, some knowledge of the country's history, geography and social institutions also became essential. The new conception of education for the adult also recognised that it is necessary to satisfy the emotional needs and aesthetic requirements of individuals and groups. A great deal of emphasis was, therefore, placed on the preservation and development of

existing recreational activities and the restoration or recreation of such services wherever they had fallen into decay. In place of stress on literacy alone, the new programme of education placed equal emphasis on all these aspects. To differentiate it from the old programmes of Adult education, and to bring out clearly that its aim is to create a sense of community, Social education was the name chosen for this new programme.

The role of the Ministry of Education in the field of Social education has from the nature of the case to be mainly that of guidance, coordination and financial assistance. The actual burden of implementing various schemes has thus fallen on State Governments, but the functions of the Centre in acting as a clearing house have been of value to all State Governments. This is seen in the way in which the Central Government initiated programmes of Adult education in Delhi State. The Centre in fact treated Delhi as a laboratory where new methods and ideas could be tried out. It was intended that the experiments in Delhi would serve both as a challenge and an example to the other States.

Some other Ministries of the Central Government have also done useful work in various fields of Social education. Special mention may be made of the work done by the Labour Ministry in training industrial workers and of the impressive work of the Defence Forces. The Armed Forces have in many countries been centres of Adult education and India is no exception. Even before independence, provision for imparting literacy to men in the forces existed, but after independence, a much greater emphasis has been laid on civic virtues and moral values in the educational work among them.

The work of voluntary agencies in the field of Social education also deserves special mention. Some of the larger cities set up organisations of their own, but apart from such public or semi-public efforts a great deal of work was carried out by non-official agencies. The All-India Adult Education Association has been carrying on important work in bringing together the different non-official organisations in the country and making the experience of one area available to another. Some States have utilised the services of school children and college students in organising programmes of Social education through dramatic and athletic clubs.

One interesting development during the Quinquennium was the establishment of contacts between Adult education programmes in various Asian countries. The International Seminar on Rural Adult Education for Community Action, which was held at Mysore in 1949 under the joint sponsorship of the Government of India and Unesco was, perhaps, the first occasion when educationists from various Asian countries met together to discuss common problems and

frame common solutions. Delegates from Afghanistan, Australia, Burma, Ceylon, Egypt, India, Indo-China, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Malaya, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Thailand, the U.K. and the U.S.A., attended the Seminar. Discussions revealed not only a community of problems but also a community of approach. The Seminar drew up a programme of action in various countries suggesting methods in which Governmental and non-Governmental agencies could cooperate for eradicating illiteracy and raising the standards of life of the people.

So far as India was concerned, the Seminar recommended that the Government of India should make itself responsible for (a) coordinating research undertaken in various parts of the country, (b) conducting all-India Seminars for promoting studies in various problems of Adult education and (c) establishing a centre for the production of simple literacy material. In addition, the Central Government should set up advisory bodies for making, purchasing and exchanging films and filmstrips, and encouraging the production of such and other visual aids.

The Seminar also recommended that State Governments should establish special Departments to conduct, stimulate and coordinate activities connected with Rural Adult Education. They should also conduct Regional Seminars and training courses for literacy teachers, prepare reading material, including follow-up literature and provide adequate literacy facilities in rural areas. In respect of visual aids, the State Governments should supplement the programme of the Centre and prepare and encourage the preparation of material suited to local conditions.

(a) Important Committees and Conferences

To re-orientate the whole policy of Adult education, the Central Advisory Board of Education appointed a Committee called the "Adult (Social) Education Committee" in January 1948 under the chairmanship of Shri Mohanlal Saxena, then Union Minister for Rehabilitation. The scheme prepared by the Committee and known as "A Scheme for Social Education", was a significant advance upon previous programmes of adult literacy.

The aims and objectives of Social education were defined so as to instil into the people a consciousness of the rights and duties of a citizen, to develop in them a love for democracy and a pride in India's cultural heritage. A mastery of the three R.s was considered essential to stimulate further interest in knowledge. It was emphasised that the scheme should be implemented so as to achieve at least 50 per cent literacy in the course of three years.

The Committee recommended that the Provincial Governments should fall into line with the aims and objectives of Social education and set up Social Education Councils to assist Directors of Public Instruction. The Councils were to suggest legislation or other administrative action for conscripting students, Government employees and refugees to promote the scheme of Social education. The target was to set up one education centre in each Primary school and two in each Secondary school. The scheme of Social education was designed to impart education to people between the ages of 12 and 45.

The recommendations of the Committee were approved by the Central Advisory Board of Education at its 15th meeting held at Allahabad in January, 1949.

Implementation of the Social Education Plan drawn up by the Government of India in 1948-49 began in 1949-50. Known as the "Guide Plan", it made provision for Social education classes run by school teachers and volunteers, for Audio-Visual aids, Social education camps, the training of Social education workers, post-literacy facilities in the shape of libraries, mobile and stationery, and suitable administrative machinery.

The Conference of Provincial Education Ministers, that met in February 1949, approved the Plan and suggested principles for the distribution of central funds. Accordingly, of the one crore of rupees provided in the Central Budget for 1949-50, ten lakhs were reserved for activities at the Centre and 90 lakhs earmarked to be distributed among the States in proportion to their illiterate population. The State Governments were required to contribute to their Social education fund an amount at least equal to that which they had received from the Centre for a period of three years. 1949-50 was, however, a year of financial stress, and the situation was so serious that even the modest programme had to be curtailed. A sum of 59.7 lakhs was, however, paid to the States but on account of increasing financial difficulty, the programme was suspended in the following year, but revived in 1951-52. The Provincial Social Education Officers who met in July 1949 to consider the scheme in greater detail recommended that the course to be followed by Social education classes should be covered in 180 hours or ordinarily in 90 working days of two hours each; that the age-group to be covered by the Social Education Programme be fixed at 12-40; that short-term refresher courses be arranged for the training of Social education workers and teachers; that charts, maps, and folk musical instruments should form a part of the equipment of Social education centres, and that each province should make adequate arrangements for post-literacy education by maintaining libraries, and particularly mobile libraries. They should also try to produce suitable literature.

(b) *Progress in Social Education Schemes in the States*

From the available reports, it appears that all Part 'A' States, except *Uttar Pradesh*, made considerable progress during the Quinquennium.

Up to the middle of 1950, there was only one Adult school in *Ajmer*. In June, 1950, the Government of India sanctioned a scheme of Social education which came into operation in September, 1950. A Social Education Board was appointed to advise the State Education Department on matters relating to Social education. Two training camps of two-weeks' and three-weeks' duration were organized for the benefit of Social education teachers. In the summer of 1951 about 300 teachers, students and scouts were mobilized for rural development work.

Under the new scheme, 50 Social education centres (40 for men and 10 for women) were started. The enrolment in these centres was 1,165 men and 137 women by the end of 1950 and 2,200 men and 301 women, including 858 adults attending post-literacy classes, in March 1952. The number of persons who obtained literacy certificates from the first group was 1,142 men and 109 women. The age-group covered under the scheme was 12-45. Post-literacy classes embraced subjects like health, sanitation and civics. During 1950-51, 215 new libraries in addition to 110 rural libraries were established. The number of books in libraries exceeded 1,00,000. The centres were supplied with reading and writing material and other accessories like kerosene oil, lantern, etc., free of cost.

A few private agencies, namely, the Mayo College Adult Education Association, the *Shiksha Prasarak Samiti*, and the *Gram Shiksha Parishad*, also organized Social education centres for the benefit of their employees.

The old Mass Literacy Campaign in *Assam* gave place to the new Social Education Scheme in 1949-50. The new scheme was extended to tribal areas, which had so far remained untouched by the Mass Literacy Campaign. The number of Social education centres in the State rose from 625 (580 for men and 45 for women) in 1946-47 to 1,203 (1,150 for men and 53 for women) in 1951-52. The corresponding increase in enrolment was from 14,293 (13,390 men and 903 women) in 1946-47 to 32,591 (30,473 men and 2,118 women), in 1951-52. The number of persons made literate also rose from 8,295 (7,834 men and 461 women) in 1946-47 to 24,583 (22,802 men and 1,781 women) in 1951-52 respectively.

In January, 1952 more funds were provided for Social education in Bihar. The State Social Education Board was affiliated to the Indian Adult Education Association. A training camp for 40 members of *Mod-Mandalies* was organized in September, 1951. *Mod-Mandalis* are entertainment parties, established for the purpose of educating adults through entertainment. They organise short dramas popular lectures, *kathas and kirtans* and have proved very popular.

A number of seminars and conferences were held during 1950 and after, the most important of which was one held in December 1950, under the guidance of a Unesco expert. Up to 1951-52, 222 radio sets had been distributed to institutions engaged in Social education work and a number of film shows arranged. The total number of Social education and literacy centres/classes in Bihar in 1951-52 was 2,212 as against 1,534 in 1947-48. The total enrolment during the period 1947-52 showed an increase by 7,931 men, whereas the number of women fell by 4,793. The total number of persons made literate rose from 46,771 men in 1947-48 to 44,909 men in 1951-52 whereas the number of women fell by 3,472 to 999. In 1951-52, 4,477 teachers were engaged in Social education work. All except three were honorary.

The total number of Adult education centres in the State of *Bilaspur* increased from one in 1948 to five in 1952. All the centres, particularly the one at *Bilaspur*, were equipped with libraries, radios and gramophones.

The Quinquennium under review recorded considerable progress in the field of Social education in *Bombay State*. In addition to three Regional Social Education Committees, which functioned in 1947, four city committees were set up at *Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Poona*. To strengthen the organization District Committees were established, their number at the end of the period being 26. The popularity of the Social education movement may be measured by the funds collected by Regional Committees. These amounted to Rs. 14,000 in 1950-51 and Rs. 31,000 in 1951-52. The distinction between compact and non-compact areas was removed and Social education work was entrusted entirely to Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors.

The scheme for House classes for women did not show satisfactory results.

The total number of literacy classes in Social education rose from 3,452 in 1946-47 to 11,204 in 1951-52, resulting in consequent increase in enrolment from 96,501 to 2,42,685. The total number of persons made literate during the period was 61,254. Besides these, there were 5,197 post-literacy classes, with 80,183 students on rolls in 1951-52. As many as 28,286 persons passed out of these classes.

A scheme of Social education in Coorg was started only towards the end of the Quinquennium. There were only 20 classes with 548 students on the rolls. The five months course could not be completed during the period under review.

In 1948, a small beginning in the field of Social education was made in Delhi, by the opening of 32 Adult education centres in rural areas. Educational *Melas* were organized to intensify the drive for Social education. During 1949-50, 25 trained Social education organisers moved from village to village to accelerate the Social education drive. Besides literacy work, they encouraged games, organised dramas and *bhajans*. 25 drama clubs and 25 sports clubs were organised. 30 rural libraries were established as a follow-up for neo-literates.

Dissatisfied with the progress that had been made, the Government of India directed a revision and acceleration of the Social education programme of the State. The services of a Unesco expert were utilised to further the central plans to establish a Janata College to train village leaders. An Educational caravan equipped with modern visual aids was also organised to tour from village to village to organise literacy campaigns, to hold *melas* and to organize games, exhibitions, cinema shows, and *bhajans*. In December 1950, the programme was further intensified and steps taken to establish post-literacy centres and supply suitable literature for neo-literates.

Two more caravan-units were put into operation in February and March, 1951, respectively. The caravan programmes lasted for ten months a year and were followed by the despatch of a squad of teachers who took advantage of the enthusiasm created by the visit of the caravan to organise Social education class for both men and women. The literacy campaign was thus given a further fillip. The period of instruction was fixed at four weeks and this could be extended further, if necessary. Janata College also did commendable work in the training of local leaders. Post-literacy centres were equipped with libraries, reading rooms and radio sets.

The total number of post-literacy centres established up to March 1952, was 150. The number of adults on the rolls at the end of 1951-52 was 40,554. The District Jail was made a centre of Social education. Up to January, 1952, 80 prisoners had passed the test conducted by the Directorate.

In Hyderabad a scheme of Social education that started at the end of 1947, came into full swing in 1948. One Inspector and two Assistant Inspectors were appointed to conduct Social education work. They were provided with a projector and a mobile van for propaganda. The training courses were conducted by the Education Department as well as by some private organizations. Besides, students

Of High schools and colleges were required to render Social service and do literacy work during the summer vacation. Literacy centres were opened at various jails, coal mines and child-welfare centres. From 200 literacy centres in 1948-49, the number rose to 326 in 1951-52. The corresponding enrolment for 1948-49 and 1951-52 was 4,295 and 16,364 respectively.

In *Madhya Bharat*, besides the State Government, some non-official agencies, namely, the *Praudh Shiksha Sanstha, Garoth*, Adult literacy committee, Indore, and *Madhya Bharat Praudh Shiksha Sanstha*, Indore, were engaged in Social education work, during the Quinquennium. The total number of Social education centres in the State increased from 231 in 1949-50 to 1,163 in 1950-51 and to 782 in 1951-52. Expenditure in this period increased steadily from Rs. 28,200 to Rs. 78,697. The number of persons made literate rose from 5,040 to 26,008.

There was no scheme of Adult education in *Madras* till 1947-48. However, some colleges, the Teachers' College, Saidapet, and Lady Willingdon College in particular, conducted Adult education classes. Night classes were conducted in certain villages. In 1948-49, a comprehensive scheme of Social education was sanctioned by the Government. The main features of the scheme were the opening of Adult literacy schools to spread literacy, and Rural colleges for further education; organising training courses for the staff and training camps for Social service workers, citizenship and youth workers; organising Visual education.

Courses at Adult literacy centres were conducted for four months to help students acquire literacy. This was followed by intensive courses for the next two years at Rural colleges with a view to developing in the adult, the ability to read and understand the contents of a daily newspaper. In the Rural colleges instruction was provided in History, Geography, Sanitation, and Everyday Science. Up to 1950-51, ten Rural colleges (including three for women) had been established and the enrolment in them was 225 men and 64 women. Six of them, however, closed during 1951-52. A scheme of Social education, mobilizing the services of university students was also introduced. Intensive training courses in adult literacy methods were given to batches of student volunteers and college lecturers. From February, 1951 to March, 1952, 91 college lecturers were trained along these lines at three different centres. Student volunteers were required to work in a village for a period of 40 days and to arrange literacy classes, exhibitions and educational dramas.

In 1951-52, there were 1980 Adult education centres as against ten in 1948-49. The total number of persons made literate was 29,061 in 1951-52 as against 8,551 in 1949-50.

In *Orissa* the scheme of Social education was launched in 1949. Its progress had, however, to be slowed down owing to diminished financial allotments in subsequent years. In addition to employing visual and auditory aids for literary work, some night schools received grants for Adibasi children. The number of literacy centres decreased from 928 in 1949-50 to 184 in 1951-52. As many as, 52,078 persons were made literate in this period.

The *Pepsu* Social Education Scheme was started in February, 1951. 200 centres were opened and, at the end of the first session, 740 persons were declared literate. During the second session, starting in November, 1951, another 200 centres were started. The students enrolled in these centres number approximately 2,000.

The old scheme of Social education in the *Punjab* that had its inception in pre-partitioned Punjab, was modified in 1950 by the appointment of a Social Education Officer to supervise the work. Field work was entrusted to the Divisional Inspectorate. To impart suitable training to Social education volunteers, five training camps, including one for women, were organized. At the beginning of 1950, 134 Social education centres (including 26 for women) were opened. However, the number declined to 95 (including 19 for women) at the end of 1951. The enrolment in these centres decreased from 11,109 in 1949-50 to 6,870 in 1951-52.

Though the united states of *Rajasthan* came into existence in 1949-50, Social education work continued to be carried on individually by the States of Jaipur, Jodhpur and Bikaner up to 1950-51. Grants allotted for the Social education programme were just sufficient to continue the work in a limited way. During the period under review literacy classes and community centres were organized. At some places, night classes were introduced. Training courses were arranged for teachers and libraries and reading rooms were established for neo-literates. In Jaipur, mobile libraries were started and the total number of libraries increased from 88 in 1947-48 to 153 in 1950-51. Besides, all three states had adequate arrangements for audio-visual education. They possessed magic lanterns, projectors, radio sets, gramophone records. The total number of literacy classes rose from 428 in 1947-48 to 528 in 1950-51. As many as 89,550 persons were made literate during this period. In 1951-52, however, the literacy programme was extended to all the States in Rajasthan. The total number of literacy centres in this year was 220 (including 70 for women), and this was quite insufficient to meet the increasing needs of the illiterate masses of the state. Accordingly, new syllabuses of work at the literacy and post-literacy stages and follow-up programme for neo-literates were drawn up and implemented. The position in regard to libraries and reading rooms, however, remained the same.

Women's education, during the year, received considerable attention and very useful work was reported to have been done by the *Mahila Mandal*, Alwar and Kotah. Another important activity in this year as the organization of Social education work at fairs like Dussehra.

No serious work on Social education had been done in *Saurashtra* till 1948. Since then 240 adult centres have been opened. Village libraries and reading rooms were opened to provide follow-up literature. There is an Assistant Director of Adult Education at the headquarters and five Secretaries and five Assistant Secretaries at the District level to supervise Social education work. Besides there were six non-official advisory committees to advise in matters relating to Social education.

The main event, during the Quinquennium in *Travancore-Cochin* was the taking over of Backward Community libraries, literacy classes and Night schools by the Adult Education Board that was constituted in June, 1950. The Government also sanctioned a Research and Training Centre for Adult education workers. Up to 1950-51, there were 48 training centres (41 for men and seven for women) and ten aided Night schools. In 1951-52, 39 Social education centres were started and 108 literacy classes conducted.

There were two Night schools in *Tripura* during the period under report. Out of 35 persons enrolled, 27 were made literate.

In 1947, the Government of *Uttar Pradesh* appointed a committee to study problems of literacy. A new scheme of Social education based on the recommendations of this Committee and the Central Advisory Board of Education, was launched in 1950. Under the scheme, 1,500 new part-time Adult schools were opened, the syllabus of Social education was revised and 51 Superintendents and 110 Organizers of Social education were appointed. The number of the Government Adult schools (whole-time) for men remained at 1,342 throughout 1947-51, while aided schools (whole-time) decreased from 557 to 81. The number of schools for women also decreased from 38 to two. The total enrolment in these schools was 47,492 (46,855 men and 637 women) in 1947-48 and 35,579 (33,661 men and 1,918 women) in 1950-51. The number of adults made literate in whole-time as well as part-time schools were 66,129 men and 4,023 women in 1950-51 as against 78,994 men and 2,336 women in 1947-48. Though there was significant progress in the field of women's education, men's education seems to have suffered a set-back.

Under the *Vindhya Pradesh* Five-year plan, a Social Education Officer was appointed in 1952. Further steps for the propagation of Social education were in hand.

(c) Expenditure

It may be seen from the adjoining table that all the States except Uttar Pradesh that recorded a huge fall, reported a considerable increase in expenditure on Social education during the Quinquennium. Particular mention may be made of West Bengal, Madras, Orissa, the Punjab and Delhi.

TABLE XXVII
Direct Expenditure on Adult Schools

State	Expenditure	
	1947-48	1951-52 *
A STATES		
	Rs.	Rs.
Assam	61,430	1,57,249
Bihar	1,21,765	6,56,376
Bombay	4,84,825	7,13,840
Madhya Pradesh	2,25,089	†
Madras	1,044	2,78,685
Orissa	120	54,054
Punjab	1,173	1,11,217
Uttar Pradesh	6,36,481	20,208
West Bengal	27,673	3,01,302
B STATES		
Hyderabad	†	†
Jammu and Kashmir	†	†
Madhya Bharat	†	44,461
Mysore	†	3,69,870
Pepsu	†	8,318
Rajasthan	†	183,976
Saurashtra	†	33,840
Travancore-Cochin	†	†
C & D STATES		
Ajmer	114	50,606
A. & N. Islands
Bhopal
Bilaspur	†	1,200
Cowrg	15,919
Delhi	400	2,95,273
Himachal Pradesh		
Kutch		
Manipur		
Tripura	†	1,576
Vindhya Pradesh		
TOTAL	15,60,114	32,97,977

* Figures are provisional.

† Not available.

(d) *Production of Literature and Audio-Visual Aids for Adults*

A conference of educationists and social workers was held at Delhi in April 1951, to consider the production of reading material for neo-literates. It was agreed that a Daily News Sheet, an illustrated Fortnightly or Monthly, with material on sports, health, hygiene, agriculture and world news, graded and general literature for adults and guide-books for teachers should be produced. The Committee on Social Education Literature, appointed by the Government of India in 1952, discussed this further. The Committee's most important recommendations were that the Central Government should produce a Teacher's Handbook (preparation of this was undertaken in 1952), Guide-books for teachers and a bibliography on Social education books in various Indian languages. Also, that the publication of Social education periodicals and production of graded primers should be left to publishers, State Governments being responsible only for laying down specifications and standards. Writers should be encouraged to write by competitions and prizes. The recommendations of the Committee were noted by the Central Advisory Board of Education in March, 1952.

Assisted by grants from the Centre, the Idara Talim-o-Taraqqi, the "Adult Education Department" of Jamia Millia, Delhi has published pamphlets on topics of interest to adults.

The Central Ministry of Education also decided to bring out a People's Encyclopaedia, containing material on various topics useful to the average adult. Wherever financially possible, various states have tried to accelerate the pace of literacy with the help of audio-visual aids.

In *Ajmer*, arrangements for Audio-visual education could not be completed during the Quinquennium, but a caravan of one cinema van, two exhibition vans and a mobile stage were nearing completion.

The Government of *Assam* put into operation early in 1949 two mobile vans fitted with sound and motion projectors, radio sets and gramophones. A monthly journal called "Janasiksha" was published by the Department of Education for the benefit of neo-literates.

Four projectors were purchased and used for showing educational films to school students by the government of *Bihar*. Literature published during the Quinquennium for the use of beginners, neo-literates and advanced literates included three primers, 47 textbooks and books on general knowledge and seven handbooks. In addition, a fortnightly journal of the Social Education Board, namely, 'Roshni' continued to be published.

In order to provide neo-literates with follow-up literature, the Maharashtra and Karnataka Committees of *Bombay* published monthly magazines, 'Lok Shikshan' and 'Prakash'. A fortnightly news sheet 'Saksharta Deep' was published by the Bombay City Social Education Committee. In addition, village libraries and reading rooms (their number being 4,085 in 1951-52 as against 2,892 in 1947-48) were also set up for the purpose.

The Government of Coorg purchased complete film equipment. The Social education literature and pamphlets published by Mysore were found suitable for this State and were supplied to libraries and literacy centres.

Mention has already been made of audio-visual aids used for Social education in Delhi State. So far as adult literature is concerned, a fortnightly bulletin in Hindi "Hamara Gaon" and its urban edition "Hamara Shahar", for the benefit of neo-literates were published. These pamphlets were supplied free of cost to all literacy and post-literacy centres.

Much valuable work was reported to have been done by *Madras* State. Charts for adult literacy in all regional languages were procured and distributed to all institutions. Besides, continuation reading material, books and charts, newspapers and periodicals as well as journals such as 'Madras Information', 'Grow More Food', were distributed free of cost to all recognised adult schools. A large number of libraries and reading rooms were opened and much material for Social education was made available. During 1950, five mobile units, equipped with 16 new projectors, amplifiers and gramophones were purchased and put into use for organising propaganda lectures and film shows for the benefit of illiterate audience. The total number of propaganda lectures delivered during 1950-51 and 1951-52 was 333 and 1,134 respectively; the number of trips made by mobile units was 198 and 539; the number of film shows arranged 1,069 and 703 and the audience attending the film shows 5,37,048 and 15,30,495.

To popularize the scheme of Adult education and spread adult literacy among the rural masses of *Orissa* much use was made of visual and auditory aids, films, gramophones, magic lanterns and radio sets. For lack of funds no suitable literature could, however, be produced.

In the *Punjab* educational films catering for rural taste and interests were displayed by the two mobile cinema units attached to Jullundur and Ambala Divisions in Punjab. Literature for adults was provided by the Government of India and pamphlets on Social education, received from Jamia Millia, Delhi, were distributed to all the centres.

In *Rajasthan*, plentiful literature for Social education workers was collected from the general publishers, specialised agencies and *Jamia Millia*, Delhi, for distribution among literacy centres, for the benefit of neo-literates. The *Lokshiksha Sangh* produced a monthly magazine in Hindi dealing with problems of Adult education. Two pamphlets "Nai Talim" and "Gaon Ki Baat", were also published.

The Adult Education Board in *Travancore-Cochin State* started the publication of monthly bulletins in English and Malayalam entitled "Social Education".

The establishment of a films section for the production and distribution of films was the most outstanding event in *Uttar Pradesh*. Films bearing on various activities of village life were produced.

(ii) *New Experiments and Outstanding Problems*

Very few States could, within their limited resources, embark upon new experiments in the field of Social education. Grants for the purpose were so meagre that not much headway could be made to liquidate mass literacy. Reports from Bihar, Bombay, Hyderabad, Madras and West Bengal (in an Appendix) that were the only States to conduct some special experiments during the Quinquennium are given below.

In Bihar, the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya, 19, Basic Training schools and 13 post Basic schools were responsible for conducting intensive Social education work in a number of surrounding villages, thus helping them to improve their social, economic and cultural conditions.

The Bombay State Adult Education Association continued its work of extension lectures in the city of *Bombay*. Lectures with the help of magic lanterns and film shows of interest to the villagers were also delivered by the Inspector for visual education.

The Government of *Hyderabad* set up, during the Quinquennium a special committee for Adult education to discuss the problems of Social education every two months and send its proposals to the Government. In addition, an Advisor to supervise the progress and expansion of Social education was appointed. Inter-departmental coordination in matters pertaining to the all-round uplift of the illiterate masses was also encouraged.

In *Madras*, various private agencies, of whom special mention may be made of the South Indian Adult Education Association, undertook work in the different regions. One interesting programme was the work undertaken by the Arundale Education Centre, Madras in three Castle villages, three Harijan hamlets, and one Fishermen's

village with a total population of about 5,000. Besides, village welfare activities such as animal welfare, health and sanitation and gardening were organized.

The most outstanding problem confronting the States was how to prevent adults from relapsing into illiteracy. To meet this problem, follow-up institutions such as libraries and reading rooms were set up by the States but, owing to lack of finance, the provision of facilities was inadequate.

The other serious problem was the dearth of suitable workers. There were not enough competent and well-equipped men for literacy centres. Though training camps were organized and institutions opened, the fact remained that the people in general were not inclined to engage in Social education work in a spirit of selflessness and sacrifice. They expected remuneration for the work they did.

Another important problem was the difficulty of making Adult education centres attractive, worthwhile and useful for adults to attend.

CHAPTER VIII

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN

Main Trends

One of the most important developments during the Quinquennium was further expansion of facilities in the education of girls and women. While the beginnings of female education go back to the early 19th century, this was, till 25 or 30 years ago, confined almost entirely to girls in Elementary schools. The number dropped sharply at the Secondary stage and became almost infinitesimal in the colleges and universities. By the beginning of the Quinquennium, the position had already started to change and before its end, the number of young women in colleges and universities had become quite substantial.

One question debated during the Quinquennium was the provision of special measures which would exempt girls from attendance in schools or colleges. Some held that such exemptions and special facilities are necessary to encourage women's education on a sufficiently large-scale. Others held that such special measures would in effect help to maintain existing conditions and retard progress. Proponents of this view held that if girls and young women were required to undergo the same kind of instruction and discipline as boys and young men, this would be in the best interests of the country. Both views had powerful advocates. The result was that while, on the one hand, the demand for special institutions and special exemptions were pressed and in some cases gained, the number of young girls and young women in the normal educational programmes increased considerably.

One interesting and welcome development during the Quinquennium was the growth in the number of educational centres for adult women. There has often been an idea that married women, whether in villages or towns, would not take kindly to adult literacy campaigns. Experience has proved that this is not so. Wherever suitable opportunities were offered, women took full advantage of such programmes. Organisers had, however, to remember their requirements in timing the classes and deciding about the nature of the courses taught. It was the general experience that afternoons were the best time for conducting women's adult education centres.

With the increasing number of women in educational institutions, it was inevitable that there should be considerable thought over the nature of courses suitable for them. One extreme view was that

the courses for girls and women must be completely different, while extremists at the other end recognized no distinction between the interest and aptitude of boys and girls. What has prevailed may be regarded as a middle view. It has been held that certain subjects are essential to any general education and must be common to both boys and girls. Differences in interests begin to develop with the advent of adolescence and provision has to be made for certain special type of subjects for young girls. To mention only one, domestic science has gained great popularity among them both at the school and at the college level.

Co-education has also been debated upon, but the position generally has been that there should be common schools for boys and girls at the Elementary stage. An exception to this practice is to be found only in certain restricted areas, but even there, co-education for young children has been growing in popularity. Schools begin to be separated at the Secondary level, while at the Collegiate level the majority of young women have studied in colleges open also to men.

(a) *Facilities at various stages of education*

In the first year of the Quinquennium there were in the State of Ajmer, 99 recognised institutions for girls consisting of two Intermediate Arts colleges, six High schools, 11 Middle schools, 78 Primary schools and two Special schools. In 1951-52, the number of institutions was 113, including 20 centres for Adult education, with the following distribution: three colleges for General education (including one Degree College); four High schools; nine Middle schools; 71 Primary schools and 20 Adult education centres.

The reduction in the number of High, Middle and Primary schools may seem to suggest that there was a set-back in Women's education during the period under review. But this is only apparent. While on the one hand, some schools passed out of the jurisdiction of the Ajmer State, on the other hand, new schools were opened. Enrolment and expenditure both doubled in the period under review. Thus the enrolment in 1947-48 was 7,542 and expenditure Rs. 5,66,764. In the year 1951-52, figures had risen to 14,054 and Rs. 11,90,332 respectively.

Women students were admitted to the Government College, Ajmer, for the Intermediate, the Degree and the Post-graduate courses. Degree classes were started at an aided college for girls in 1951-52 (This college does not teach Science subjects). Two Intermediate colleges were maintained exclusively for girls (One of these provides for instruction in Science subjects). There are four High schools of which one was managed by the Government and nine Middle schools.

for girls. Five of these were managed by the Government and provided education in the rural areas of the State. Primary education was mostly co-educational. Nevertheless, there were 77 schools exclusively for girls.

No training schools existed exclusively for women candidates. They received training as men did at the only training institute in Ajmer, the Government Basic Teachers' Training Institute. When necessary, they were sent to the Women's Training Schools at Delhi.

During 1950-51, ten Adult education centres for women were established in the rural areas of the Ajmer sub-division. More were added during 1951-52 and located in the Beawar sub-division.

No separate institutions existed in the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands* for the education of girls. Girls received education in the same schools as boys, though separate sections were opened for them from class V to class VII. The administrative authorities have under consideration the opening of separate High schools for girls as soon as a sufficient number of qualified women teachers is available.

There were three colleges for girls in *Assam* with an enrolment of 447 on 31st March, 1952. The total expenditure on these institutions amounted to Rs. 14,88,344, the Government contributing Rs. 6,90,253.

The following table furnishes figures of facilities available in *Assam* for female education at all stages during the last two Quinquennia.

Year	High Schools		Middle Schools		Primary Schools		Schools for Professional Education		Schools for Special Education	
	No. of Schools	Enrolment	No. of Schools	Enrolment	No. of Schools	Enrolment	No. of Schools	Enrolment	No. of Schools	Enrolment
1946-47	31	9,768	114	12,058	1,464	56,998	12	554	50	1,298
1951-52	36	12,146	117	12,731	1,227	65,318	10	261	58	2,665

The figures for 1946-47 are for undivided *Assam* while those of 1951-52 are true of reconstituted *Assam*. The decrease in the number of girls' lower Primary schools in the year 1951-52 was due to the amalgamation of a large number of girls' with boys' schools.

In *Bhopal* the education of girls received special attention during the period under review. The number of girls in schools increased from year to year. The State maintained one High school, two Middle schools and 34 Primary schools, exclusively for girls. The Sultana Girls' High school enjoyed the privilege of being a standard school, because it topped State lists in Matriculation Examination results. Besides maintaining a high standard of instruction, the school provided facilities for all-round improvement by organising many cultural and extra-curricular activities.

During the Quinquennium, there was a rapid expansion of girls education in *Bihar*. The numerical strength of students increased appreciably in schools and colleges. The total number of girl students in recognized institutions for girls rose from 83,829 in 1946-47 to 1,14,966 in 1951-52. There was a steady increase in the number of recognised educational institutions for women. This rose from 2,110 to 2,443 during the period under review. There were six colleges for women in 1952 as against three in 1946-47, one college for Professional education as against none in 1946-47, 36 High schools (including 11 Government-managed) as against 23 (including three Government managed) in 1946-47, 131 Middle and senior Basic schools (including 32 Middle and four senior Basic schools managed by the Government, as against 95 Middle schools (all non-Government) in 1946-47, 2,187 Primary and junior Basic schools as against 1,964 in 1946-47, one Nursery school as against none in 1946-47, 25 schools for Professional education as against 25 in 1946-47, and 56 schools for Special education as against none in 1946-47. The total number of successful women candidates to appear as regular students from recognized institutions rose from 14,822 to 26,890. The number of women trained teachers also increased from 40.91 per cent. in 1946-47 to 43.90 per cent. during 1951-52.

Female education in *Bilaspur* was encouraged by the State by means of propaganda, scholarships and the throwing open of various avenues of employment, such as, teaching, medicine, social work, and nursing to women. In 1947 there was one Girls' Middle School with 173 girls on its rolls and six teachers on the staff. During the Quinquennium, the number of girls rose to 243 and of staff members to ten. The Middle school was raised to the status of a High school.

The Education of girls in *Bombay* showed steady progress in all directions during the Quinquennium. Those under instruction in various educational institutions increased by more than 100 per cent. This increase was partly due to the merger of various Indian States in Bombay State, but mainly to all-round expansion in the educational field. Government expenditure on institutions for girls increased from 40 per cent. in 1946-47 to 49.6 per cent. in 1951-52.

During the Quinquennium the number of Primary schools for girls increased from 1,804 to 2,069. Girls under instruction at Primary schools rose from 4,89,789 to 11,96,635.

Although the number of Secondary schools for girls showed a decrease from 184 to 170 during the years under review, the number of girls under instruction at the Secondary stage showed a considerable increase. From 62,629 in 1946-47, enrolment rose to 96,134 in 1951-52, roughly 46 per cent. The drop in the number of institutions was due partly to the fact that English was eliminated from the first three standards of the Secondary school curriculum.

The number of women receiving higher education in 1951-52 was 9.167 as against 5.177 in 1946-47. The majority of students attended co-educational institutions. The number of institutions imparting higher education to women only was small, but even these showed an increase during the years under review. In 1946-47, there were two colleges for women. In 1951-52, the number increased to six.

There was one university in the State reserved for women, namely, the S.N.D.T. Women's University. The Government of Bombay gave statutory recognition to this university which has received grants from the Central Government as well as the State Government. Four of the six colleges for women situated at Poona, Bombay, Ahmedabad and Baroda were affiliated to this university. The Sophia College, Bombay, was affiliated to the Bombay University; the college for Home Science in Baroda was affiliated to Baroda University.

Training at Primary Training Institutions provided a direct incentive to girls to take up teaching as a profession after completing the Primary school course. Primary training institutions for women admitted girls who had just passed the Primary School Certificate Examination and those who were already serving as primary teachers. The number of these institutions rose to 32 in 1951-52 as against 26 in 1946-47. The number of students attending Primary training institutions also increased from 1,650 to 2,062. Most of the women's Primary training colleges had hostels attached to them. The number of trained women teachers at the Secondary stage rose from 1,968 to 3,391 during the Quinquennium, though there were no separate institutions for them.

There were institutions that imparted professional training in such crafts as needlework, tailoring, embroidery, painting, leather-work etc., and were classified as Special schools. At the end of the Quinquennium there were 115 such institutions for only women and the number of pupils attending them was 6,525. These Special schools were given a grant-in-aid by the Government which was 50 per cent. of admissible expenditure.

All boys' institutions in Coorg admitted girls. Besides, there were two High schools for girls only, one at Mercara and the other in Virajpet, both under the management of Christian Missionaries. These schools also provided for the teaching of subjects for which girls have special aptitude.

The number of girls on the rolls in *Himachal Pradesh* rose from 1,443 to 1,913 during the Quinquennium. There were four High schools, five Middle schools, three lower Middle schools and 29 Primary schools for girls in the State.

The following table shows at a glance the progress of girls' education in *Hyderabad* during the Quinquennium under review:

Types of Institutions for girls.	1947-48	1948-50	1950-51	1951-52
High Schools	31	33	35	37
Middle Schools	37	35	39	37
Primary Schools	1,021	1,039	1,056	1,074
Professional Education(*)	—	3	8	8
Special Education	23	26	30	31
Total.	1,112	1,136	1,168	1,187

(*) Includes children of Scheduled Castes Tribes etc.

The number of girls' schools in the districts of the State is comparatively small owing to the shortage of women teachers. Article 214 of the Education Code was amended so as to permit girl students being admitted into boys' schools of any grade.

The Government of *Madhya Bharat* have sanctioned liberal grants for the expansion of girls' education. Under the Five-Year Plan it has been decided to open 1,000 girls' Primary schools. Girls, like boys, study from the pre-Primary to the collegiate stage.

The following table shows the number of girl students ranging from the Primary to the Graduate stage during the period 1949-52:

Girl students in--	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52
B.A.	86	111	180
Intermediate	191	298	554
High School	854	918	1,091
Middle School	3,425	4,302	5,262
Primary School	34,536	43,441	44,051

Primary education for girls is free. Sufficient funds have been placed at the disposal of the Inspectresses to open Primary schools in different districts. The District Planning Committees are regularly consulted, and according to their recommendations, new schools are started in different areas of the State. There were 357 Primary schools in 1951-52 as against 257 in 1948-49. In Gwalior and Indore, conveyance arrangements were made for poor girls at a nominal charge per month. In all schools Physical education was compulsory for girls as for boys during the Quinquennium.

There were eight girls' High schools in 1948-49, as against 12 at the end of 1952. The Government proposes to open girls' High schools at every district headquarters. In accordance with this policy, High schools for girls have been opened at Ujjain, Dewas, Ratlam and Mandsaur.

To help women to become self-reliant, a craft school for teaching cottage industries, weaving and spinning has been started at Gwalior.

In other cities of Madhya Bharat, such as Ujjain and Indore, the Department of Education gives liberal grants to private institutions that impart training in useful crafts and cottage industries.

Manipur is still rather backward in women's education. It has one High school, three Middle schools and about two dozen Primary schools for girls. However, the school rolls show some progress and the total number of girl students in 1951-52 was 8,838 as against 2,500 in 1947-48. Facilities for education include lower tuition rates for girls in nearly all Government schools. A girl student pays As. -/8/- less than a boy in every class. In some schools in the backward rural areas, girl students are exempted from tuition fees altogether. There are also some scholarships reserved for girls starting from the primary right upto the university stage. There are not more than half a dozen women graduates in Manipur.

The education of girls and women has made steady progress in Madras State. An increase is recorded of nearly 120 per cent in Primary schools and 41.2 per cent in Secondary schools. The number of women teachers working in Elementary schools rose from 14,676 in 1946-47 to 34,622 in 1951-52.

The total number of Secondary schools for girls rose from 216 in 1946-47 to 266 in 1951-52 and High schools from 148 to 211. The total number of women teachers in all Secondary schools rose from 3,376 to 4,757 during the Quinquennium under review.

The total number of women receiving education in colleges for both men and women for general education rose from 3,276 in 1946-47 to 5,130 in 1951-52. Of the 12 colleges for general education for

women in 1951-52 one was an Honours College, eight were First Grade Colleges and three Second Grade Colleges. Women's Christian College, Madras, offered the M.Sc. course in Home Science. The number of Training schools for women, both Government and private rose from 82 to 92 during this period, and the number of students from 6,105 to 9,037.

There are five Professional colleges for women where the number of students has risen from 261 to 407 during the period under review.

In *Orissa*, steady progress was made in the sphere of female education during the Quinquennium. The number of girls receiving instruction in all types of educational institutions in the State rose from 98,991 to 1,33,393. Women were allowed admission into all institutions; there were additional facilities provided for them in boys' High schools and other institutions. At present, girls whose parents do not pay income tax, are exempted from paying fees throughout their Secondary school stage while the girls of income tax-paying parents are charged half-fees. Girls' education is free at the Primary and Middle stages. Scheduled Castes and Hill Tribes receive free education at all stages of instruction.

The State runs one First Grade college, nine High schools, 35 Middle schools and four Elementary Training schools for women. The number of girls in boys' institutions has risen steadily during the period under review. This has obviated to a great extent the founding of separate educational institutions for girls. All the Primary schools in the State are co-educational. All the important district headquarters have separate Secondary schools for girls that are supplemented by a few schools maintained by missionaries. These schools cater for the special needs and aptitudes of girls.

The education of women has made definite progress in the *Punjab* during the Quinquennium under report. The number of Primary schools rose from 998 in 1948 to 1073 in 1952, and Middle schools from 78 to 105. The number of students in Primary schools shot up from 72,153 to 1,16,883, and in Middle schools from 17,917 to 32,847 and in High schools from 13,045 to 20,102. The number of women teachers in the Primary schools rose from 2,010 to 2,589, in Middle schools from 615 to 968 and in High schools from 442 to 728.

Education for women was greatly neglected in *Rajasthan* in the past, but it has made some progress during the Quinquennium. Where the number of girls does not justify the opening of separate schools, girls are freely admitted into boys' schools and every facility provided for them. In colleges, they are exempted from fees. Conveyance is provided to make it convenient for them to attend schools.

In *Saurashtra*, women's education has shown appreciable progress during the period under review. The following table will show the number of girls attending various types of institutions as on 31st March 1952:

	Primary	Secondary	Colleges
No. of institutions for girls	225	21	..
No. of girls in institutions for girls	46,493	3,864	..
No. of girls attending boys' schools	13,383	1,479	235
§ Total	59,876	5,343	235

Compared with the position on 31st March 1949, the number of separate institutions for girls has increased by ten and the enrolment of girls by 17,777. At bigger places where there is a sufficient number of girls, there are separate schools for girls, but in smaller places no separate schools exist for them.

There is one separate Government Training College for Women for Primary school teachers. It is a *Pro-Basic* training institution in which spinning and weaving are taught. This institution with similar institutions for men, will be converted into a Basic Training College in the near future.

There are four non-Government Special schools, attended by about 250 women. These schools provide facilities for training in Domestic Crafts, with instruction in the 3 R's.

In the Cochin area of *Travancore-Cochin* in 1947-48 there were in all 129 educational institutions especially meant for girls. Of these, 37 were Government institutions and the remaining 92 were under private management. The total number of girls in all educational institutions was 1,08,493.

In 1948-49, the total number of girls in all educational institutions was 6,38,619. There were 159 schools specially intended for girls. Of these, 80 were High schools, 21 Middle schools and 58 Primary schools (Cochin area).

The number of girls in different types of schools during the period 1949-50 was as follows: In High and Middle schools, 1,01,623; in Primary schools 5,31,887; in Special schools 5,109 making a total of 6,38,619. In 1951-52, there were in all 103 High schools and 114 Middle schools meant exclusively for girls. The number of girls in High schools was 90,926; in Middle schools 49,604; in Primary schools 5,51,922; and in Special schools 5,544. Thus the total number of girls under instruction was 6,97,996.

In *Tripura*, there were in 1949-50, 3,010 girl students in Primary schools, 913 in Middle schools, 959 in High schools as against 36,19,994 and 1,362, respectively in 1951-52. Girls' education is free in the Primary and Middle schools. There is one High school in the capital of *Tripura* where Secondary education is free for girls.

The education of girls has been made an integral part of the general scheme of education in *Uttar Pradesh* since Independence.

The total number of girls in girls' institutions rose from 2,04,420 in 1947-48 to 3,48,984 in 1951-52. The number of girls studying at boys' institutions rose from 1,11,866 to 11,78,572 during the same period. The total expenditure on girls' education rose from Rs. 73,35,638 in 1947-48 to Rs. 1,52,56,042 in 1951-52. All possible help and facilities were provided by the Department in this field. During the Quinquennium under review many new schools were given financial assistance in the shape of preliminary grants and building grants. Bus and equipment grants were also given.

In the field of Primary education there has been considerable progress. The number of Primary schools has nearly doubled and the *enrolment* has increased by more than a 1,00,000. Expenditure has increased three-fold. The Government has provided a lump sum for opening 250 Primary schools in rural areas every year. Besides this, compulsory Primary education has been introduced into ten municipalities.

There are three Government Training Colleges for Women at Bareilly, Lucknow and Allahabad. The Allahabad College imparts training in Nursery education. There is also one Government L.T. Training College at Agra. The Dayalbagh Training College for Women (Graduates) is affiliated to the Agra University for its B.T. Examination. The Government College of Home Science was established in July 1948 for the purpose of imparting instruction to girls and women in various branches of Home Science and Home Economics.

Since the integration and formation of *Vindhya Pradesh*, the Government of the new State has devoted considerable attention to the education of girls and women. In 1947-48, there were practically no institutions for Girls' education. In 1951-52, there were 125 Primary schools, 17 Anglo-Vernacular Middle schools and five High schools, exclusively for girls.

(b) Co-education

As a rule co-education did not exist at the secondary stage in *Ajmer* but some people, mostly immigrants from Pakistan, favoured co-education in High schools. Girl students were, therefore, allowed

admission into the three High schools for Sindhis which were otherwise boys' schools. At the university stage, Government College, Ajmer provided co-education, but as there are three other women's colleges in the State the number of women students in this college was limited usually to not more than five per cent of the total number. The Training Institute provides co-education only.

In *Assam*, the number of Middle and High schools for girls was limited. Consequently, co-education operated in the Middle and High schools of the State. Co-education was common at the primary stage, though there were a number of girls' Lower Primary schools in the State.

The most remarkable aspect of female education in *Bhopal* was the introduction of co-education at Hamidia College. Co-education existed in all Primary schools in the rural areas of Bhopal. There were no separate schools for girls in these areas. At the college stage, too, girls and boys attend classes together.

During the period under report, the number of girls in recognized institutions for boys in *Bihar* rose from 75,468 to 133,189 and the number of boys in institutions for girls rose from 3,652 to 7,436. These figures prove that co-education has grown more popular.

Although prejudice against co-education persisted in *Bilaspur* the number of girls studying at boys' schools rose from 179 to 206 during 1951-52. In the rural areas, the number of girls in boys' schools increased. There was only one Primary school for girls in rural areas.

The majority of students in *Bombay* at the collegiate stage attended co-educational institutions. The number of institutions imparting Higher education to women only was small, but even these showed an increase during the years under review.

All boys' institutions in *Coorg* admitted girls. Besides, there were two High schools for girls only, one at Mercara and the other in Virajpet, both under the management of Christian Missionaries. These schools also provided for the teaching of subjects for which girls have special aptitude.

Co-education existed in all Middle, Lower Middle and Primary schools in *Himachal Pradesh* as well as at the Government College, Mandi, the only college in the State.

Separate Primary schools for girls in *Madras* were abolished by the Government in 1948. All Primary schools were made co-educational institutions by the amalgamation of boys' and girls' Elementary schools. Co-education at the secondary stage is voluntary. Where girls' schools do not provide for the teaching of Mathematics and Science, girl students go to boys' schools.

Co-education was almost non-existent in the *Punjab* at the beginning of this Quinquennium, but towards the end of the period, it was decided that Primary schools in the State should be co-educational, with a woman as head of each institution. Such schools have been started and found popular with the people. Co-education exists at the university stage. Many girls attend Arts, Science and Professional colleges. For the first time after partition, the State sent a women's team to participate in Inter-University Athletics. Hockey for women was introduced in 1950-51. In 1950-51, the girls' unit of the N.C.C. had a successful camp at Yole (Kangra Valley).

Co-education in *Rajasthan* is not encouraged beyond a certain age. Girls are admitted into boys' schools where no separate schools exist for them, but schools that are exclusively for girls, are not open to boys.

In *Tripura*, co-education exists at the primary stage.

At the secondary level, in *Uttar Pradesh* there are separate schools for boys and girls, boys' schools being staffed by men and girls' schools by women. At the primary stage there is co-education.

In *Vindhya Pradesh*, there are facilities for girls for co-education at the high school stage. Degree colleges provide equal educational facilities to boys and girls. People, mostly of the middle class, are taking advantage of these facilities.

(c) *Special Scholarships and Courses for Girls.*

At the college stage most girl students in *Bhopal* were awarded scholarships. In 1951-52, 25 girl students in the college received scholarships and, in some cases, free books were also given. Primary education was free for girls as well as boys. Scholarships and free books were given to poor and Scheduled Caste students. Conveyance facilities at a nominal cost of Rs. 3 per month were available for girl students studying in city schools and at Hamidia College.

At the primary stage, education for girls was free in *Bihar*. At the secondary stage free studentships, stipends, scholarships and various other financial concessions were granted to students according to the individual's need and merit. Facilities were given to women scholars in colleges in the shape of scholarships, stipends and other financial concessions.

To encourage female education among backward classes and communities, the State Government awarded special scholarships, stipends and book grants. During 1951-52, 1,005 students belonging to the Scheduled Castes, Backward Tribes, *Momins* and other Backward Communities receiving education in various institutions, were awarded such scholarships. Of these, 100 were studying at colleges, 151 in

High and Post-Basic schools, 137 in Middle and senior Basic schools, 614 in Primary and junior Basic schools and three in other institutions. In addition to scholarships, book grants were made to 95 students, 12 to college students, 27 to students of High and Post-Basic schools, 15 to those in the Middle and senior Basic schools, and 41 to students at Primary and junior Basic schools. Special scholarships were awarded to Bihar girls going to High, Middle and Primary schools throughout the Quinquennium. The number of these scholarships rose from 410 in 1946-47 to 549 in 1951-52.

Out of the profits of the Hindustani Committee, the State Government awarded scholarships to Hindi and Urdu scholars studying at High and Middle schools. The number of scholarships rose from 15 to 84 during the period under review. Another 184 students received book grants from the same source during 1951-52. In the same year, War scholarships were awarded to the daughters of persons who had served in World War II. The number of girls securing merit scholarships rose from 328 in 1946-47 to 538 in 1951-52. The total expenditure on all kinds of scholarships for girls during the Quinquennium rose by Rs. 1,15,311; that is, from Rs. 43,638 in 1946-47 to Rs. 1,58,949 in 1951-52.

After the completion of the secondary school stage in *Bombay*, the following professional careers were open to girls:

- (i) Nursing.
- (ii) Medicine, and
- (iii) Teachers' Training.

Nursing classes were attached to big hospitals and students had to complete a three-year course of theoretical and practical training to qualify as nurses. Scholarships of the value of Rs. 10 and Rs. 15 per month were instituted by the Government to enable poor and deserving girls to finish their secondary course and then qualify as nurses.

The degree or diploma in medicine opened the prospect of an independent career to many women. The number of women qualifying for the medical profession rose from 171 to 961 during the Quinquennium.

The syllabuses were revised and in the new curriculum, provision was made for the teaching of subjects for which girls had special aptitude. Needlework and Housecraft were introduced as optional subjects for the Primary School Certificate Examination. Physical education formed an integral part of general education. Regular Refresher Courses in Physical education for teachers were held every year.

A ten per cent concession in fees was granted to all pupils in *Coorg*. In addition to this, there were half-fee concessions and scholarships reserved for girls.

The following scholarships were instituted for girl students in *Himachal Pradesh*:—

Middle School Scholarships:

Ten open scholarships at Rs. 4 p.m.

Four closed scholarships at Rs. 4 p.m.
(meant for Harijans).

High School Scholarships:

Six open scholarships at Rs. 8 p.m.

Three closed scholarships at Rs. 8 p.m.
(meant for Harijans).

Intermediate Scholarships:

Two open scholarships at Rs. 15 p.m.

One closed scholarship at Rs. 15 p.m.
(meant for Harijans).

Government expenditure on University education in *Madhya Bharat* rose from Rs. 76,430 in 1948-49 to Rs. 82,797 in 1951-52. Over the same period, expenditure on Secondary education rose from Rs. 5,38,354 to Rs. 20,57,088. On Primary education, it went up from Rs. 4,25,379 to Rs. 7,97,696. Government expenditure on scholarships to girls was Rs. 3,761 in 1949-50; in 1951-52 it had risen to Rs. 23,507.

Special scholarships were reserved for girls in Secondary and Elementary schools in *Madras*. Girls enjoyed free concessions under the 92 M.E.R. 116 general scholarships for pupils from Forms I to VI, 56 residential scholarships for unmarried Hindu and Muslim girls and 25 non-residential scholarships for Hindu and Muslim widows were awarded to deserving candidates during 1951-52. Scholarships were also awarded by the Harijan Welfare Department to deserving students.

The general curriculum of studies prescribed in schools and colleges was the same for girls as for boys. In Secondary schools, the curriculum for girls included Homecraft as a basic craft in the reorganised scheme of 1948.

To encourage female education, girls are awarded scholarships at all stages of education in *Orissa*. In Lower Primary schools, there are separate scholarships reserved for girls which are awarded after

a suitable competitive yearly examination. At the middle stage, girls compete for scholarships with boys. At the intermediate stage they have one first-grade scholarship of the value of Rs. 25 per month, one second-grade scholarship of the monthly value of Rs. 15 and five third-grade scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 10 per month. In addition, for girls studying for the B.A. there are one first-grade senior scholarship of the monthly value of Rs. 25 and four second-grade junior scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 20 per month.

The courses of study for girls in Primary schools are the same as for boys. In girls' schools, rudimentary knowledge in sewing and knitting is imparted. At the secondary stage, boys and girls follow the same syllabus for the most part, except that Domestic Science, Music and Fine Arts are offered as alternative courses for girls. At the university stage, there are no separate courses of study for girls. Girls and boys follow the same curriculum.

The District Board Area Scholarships Scheme in the *Punjab* has replaced the former Open Middle and High School Scholarships, and scholarships reserved for daughters of agriculturists are awarded to students in recognised girls' schools according to the district quota.

There are two Silver Jubilee Scholarships of the value of Rs. 60 p.m. each, awarded to women students for undertaking advanced studies in Art, Physical Training or Kindergarten Training. One more Silver Jubilee Scholarship of the value of Rs. 25 p.m., is awarded annually to a girl candidate undertaking courses either in Teachers' training, Domestic Science training or Physical training.

Special courses for girls in girls' schools include Domestic Science, Household Accounts, Domestic Economy, Sewing, Needlework, Cooking and Music.

No separate courses exist for girls in *Rajasthan*. The syllabus prescribed for boys' institutions is the same as for girls, with a few necessary modifications. In the award of scholarships no distinctions are made. They are awarded according to the rules and regulations prescribed, and are mostly on a competitive basis.

The general plan of education in *Saurashtra* is the same for boys and girls, but in the upper standards facilities exist for the teaching of Domestic Science and Needlework to girls.

For boys and for girls there are scholarships and separate courses of study in *Uttar Pradesh* to suit different aptitudes and vocations. These scholarships are available at the primary, secondary and university stage.

CHAPTER IX

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND YOUTH WELFARE (INCLUDING MEDICAL EXAMINATION)

(i) *Main Trends*

Physical education and a school health service are concepts of increasing importance in education. Healthy surroundings, a balanced diet, and physical exercise cannot be over-emphasised in the growth of the child. Teachers, parents and educationists are all becoming aware of the need to develop this aspect of education in India.

Greater emphasis was laid on Physical education in schools in various States during the Quinquennium. On the advice of the Advisory Board of Physical Education, the Government of India decided to organise inter-State camps on a zonal basis in order to improve the quality of athletics in the country and to bring young men from various States together, but this scheme could not be implemented because of financial stringency.

The Government of India contributed towards expenses in connection with India's participation in the International Olympic games held in 1948 and 1949. Similarly in 1949-50, the Government granted funds to (1) the *Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal*, Amraoti, for sending a team to demonstrate Indian physical culture at the second Lingiad held at Stockholm; (2) the Delhi Hockey Association for sending an Indian Hockey Team to Kabul; and (3) the Indian Olympic Association for organising the 14th Indian Olympic Games in Bombay.

In the following year, the Government granted aid to the Indian Olympic Association for holding *Asian Games* at Delhi and meeting expenditure incurred on the hockey and football teams that were sent to Afghanistan for friendly matches on the occasion of the *Afghan Jashan* celebrations. In 1951-52, the Government subsidised the trip of the Indian Badminton Team to Australia and contributed towards expenses in connection with the 19th World Table Tennis Championship held at Bombay, as well as towards the coaching scheme started for girls and boys in tennis. At the same time, the Government gave grants to the S.M.Y.M. Samiti for conducting research in Yoga.

Emphasis was also placed on tournaments, during the period under review. Inter-State, inter-collegiate and inter-zonal tournaments were conducted in several States. For the first time in the history of India, a comprehensive tournament for girls was organised by the *Mahila Vidyalaya*, Udaipur, that included matches in games, sports and drill.

The National Cadet Corps functioned in most States. During the period under report, the Corps made good progress and conducted camps and training courses. The Government of India met expenditure on pre-commission training and the annual training camps of these units in some public schools. The Government of Madras sanctioned the formation of an Air-Wing unit of the National Cadet Corps in the colleges of Madras city. In 1951, the Government of India allotted junior units of the National Cadet Corps to 11 of the public schools.

The aim of the Youth Welfare Movement is to lay stress on the mental, moral and physical development of youth. It strives to make them good and disciplined citizens by developing their character and capacity for leadership. During the Quinquennium, the United Nations Youth Welfare Seminar, held at Simla in 1951, made some important recommendations regarding the programme of action for youth welfare. These recommendations were considered by the Government of India and an Honorary Adviser on Youth Welfare was appointed to draw up practical schemes to implement the Youth Welfare Programme adumbrated at the Simla Seminar.

An event of some importance between 1947-52 was the amalgamation of the Hindustan Scouts Association and the Indian Boy Scouts Association. The new organization was called the 'Bharat Scouts and Guides'. Formalities about the Girl Guides Association of India joining the new Organization were nearly complete by the last year of the Quinquennium. The first rally of this organization was held at Chandigarh in February 1952. The Girl Guides Association of India, the Bharat Scouts and Guides and the Indian Olympic Association received grants from the Central revenues for their administrative expenses

In 1951, the total strength of the Bharat Scouts and Guides in India was 5,41,545. Of these, 1,73,902 were Cubs, 2,85,298 Scouts, 28,626 Rover Scouts, 331 Sea Scouts, 25,390 Scouters, and 50,000 Guides.

Steps were taken to improve the health of students at various stages of education, but the health service is still comparatively under-developed.

In their Report on the Post-war Educational Development in India, the Central Advisory Board of Education recommended that all school children should be given a midday meal whether it was brought from their homes or provided at their schools. Accordingly, the States of Bihar, Bombay and Orissa included schemes relating to nutrition and introduced a system of serving refreshment in schools. The Harijan Welfare Department, Madras, arranged for the supply of meals in 1,313 Elementary schools and a number of Harijan pupils were fed under the scheme. The Madras Corporation continued to provide midday meals to poor children in Elementary schools. Thus, free midday meals was provided in 140 Corporation Elementary schools.

Schools in *Mysore* continued to give school children a midday meal, half the cost being paid by the high school, and half by the Government. In compulsory education areas and slum areas the entire cost was borne by the Government. There have been similar developments in *Madhya Bharat* and other States. There have also been a number of private organizations working in this field. In some districts of the *Punjab*, skimmed milk was provided for undernourished children and for those in famine-stricken areas. In the *Kangra* district, vegetables like carrots, turnips, radish and tomatoes were grown in school compounds and children were given raw vegetables to eat.

(ii) *Physical Welfare in the States*

Below are details of progress in Physical Welfare in the States. Regular games were played in all High schools in *Ajmer*. The Rajputana Olympic Association organised annual sports in which students from nearly all schools and colleges took part. The Municipal Committee of *Ajmer* appointed a whole-time instructor for all Primary schools run by that body, and annual sports and competitions were organised.

No satisfactory arrangements existed in most Primary schools for medical examination and none whatsoever in the rural areas. The Municipal Committee of *Ajmer*, however, maintained a small clinic under a qualified doctor for the treatment of students reading in municipal schools. In Middle schools in urban areas no arrangement existed either for medical examination of students or for treatment of ailments, but most High schools arranged for the medical examination of students practically once a year. A system of annual medical examination was in force in most Secondary schools in urban areas, but no arrangement of this kind existed in rural areas. The few small clinics that were attached to some of the schools and colleges could treat only minor ailments.

Scouting and Girl Guiding were among the most popular school activities. Almost all high schools for boys had Scout Troops, and Girls' schools had Guide Troops. Throughout the Quinquennium both organisations rendered valuable service in Melas and other public gatherings. Scout Masters' camps were held every year and scout camps and camp fires were organised. In the food crisis, the scouts helped in propagating the 'Miss-a-Meal' campaign. In 1950, when the city of Ajmer was threatened with a sweepers' strike a large number of scouts and guides offered their services for sweepers' work. The Hindustan Scouts Association and the Rajputana Boys' Scouts Association held a combined ceremonial parade to commemorate the merger of the two scouts associations and girl guide movements in the same year.

The National Cadet Corps scheme was introduced into the State of Ajmer in 1949-50. One Independent Company of 154 cadets and 5 officers (Senior Division) was allotted to Government College, Ajmer. There were five units in the Junior Division with a strength of 15 officers and 450 cadets.

No qualified physical training instructor was available in the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*. Physical education was imparted by class teachers. Annual sports were held every year.

The Local Medical Department conducted the medical examination of the children every year. Children found suffering from any disease were given free treatment by the Medical Department.

A junior division of the National Cadet Corps was organised and maintained in the High School by the Government.

In Assam, students participated in sports and games organised by the Local Central Sports Board. Annual sports were also held.

The Local Medical Department conducted the medical examination of children every year and those found suffering from disease were given free treatment by the Medical Department.

The Assam Government concentrated its efforts on strengthening and consolidating the National Cadet Corps which comprised two units of the Senior Division and nine units of the Junior Division. The sanctioned strength of the Senior Division units was 469 cadets. The position improved steadily with regard to enrolment and marked progress was shown towards the end of the Quinquennium. The Government of India established a separate National Cadet Corps Circle for the State.

Before 1949, Physical education in Bihar was imparted in schools and colleges through physical instructors and drill masters, and the medical inspection of school children was conducted by school

medical officers. In 1949-50, a Deputy Director of Education (Physical education) was appointed by the Department to reorganise Physical education in schools and colleges. At the same time, a college for Physical education was established at Patna entirely at State cost. On March 31, 1952, there were 59 students on the roll. There was another aided college for Physical education at Muzaffarpur, which had 74 students on the rolls on March 31, 1952. In addition to these colleges, there were six privately managed schools for Physical education in the State with a total enrolment of 560 on March 31, 1952. Total expenditure on Physical education during 1952 was Rs. 2,897, of which the Government contributed Rs. 2,028.

Provision existed for both outdoor and indoor games in colleges and schools in the State. The Bihar Provincial Saririk Shiksha Mandal received a grant of Rs. 1,000 from the State Government in 1949-50.

School medical officers, men and women, visited High schools, but as the number of these schools had increased, the medical officers were too few to do justice to all students. Special arrangements for medical service continued to exist in hostels attached to Government institutions. Lectures on hygiene and health and first-aid were given to students and teachers with the aid of magic lanterns.

In Bhopal, Physical education was compulsory in all Middle and High schools and associations of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides were organized in majority of the schools.

Games and physical activities were regularly held for students in Bilaspur.

The medical inspection of students in the State was conducted by Medical Officers appointed by the Government. Physical defects of students were reported to their parents. From 1951-52, medical inspection of the children of Secondary schools was organised with great success. Guidance on health was given by rural dispensaries wherever they existed.

Scouting on the Bharat Scout model was introduced into Secondary schools at Bilaspur.

During the period under review, Physical education received considerable impetus in Bombay. Physical training constituted a compulsory subject in Primary and Secondary schools, Primary training institutions and up to the Intermediate classes in colleges. The Board of Physical Education, which advised the Government on matters of policy in regard to Physical education, was re-constituted in 1947.

The training institute for Physical education, *Kandivili*, provided facilities for training in Physical education to graduate teachers in Secondary schools. In addition to the diploma courses, the institution conducted short-term courses in Physical education for non-graduates. It also helped in organising refresher courses, day camps and conferences of the heads of training institutions, etc.

Two private institutions (S.S. Vidyalaya, Poona, and C.P.V. Mahavidyalaya, Rajpipla) undertook the training of teachers in certificate courses. Short-term courses were conducted in 1949-50 and 1950-51.

The 1947 scheme for the training of Primary teachers in Physical education in two stages was sanctioned and launched. The total number of Primary teachers including women trained during the Quinquennium, was 8,995. The amount spent as grants-in-aid on Physical education to School Boards amounted to Rs. 3,03,912. The amount spent by the Government on Physical education in Secondary schools stood at Rs. 15.3 lakhs.

The number of gymnasia increased from 92 in 1947 to 152 in 1952 and the number of pupils rose from 6,886 to 19,343 during the same period.

On the recommendation of the Physical Education Committee the post of Provincial Inspector for Physical Education was created and filled in March, 1948. During the Quinquennium the Inspectorate for Physical education was considerably strengthened, the number of such officers having risen from 10 to 44, of whom 17 were Inspectresses. Apart from supervision and inspection, the Inspecting Officers organised short-term courses, camps for pupils, inter-school tournaments, sports-meets and demonstrations.

Since 1949, camping has been part of the programme of Physical education in Bombay. Advantage of camping was taken by teachers in Secondary and Primary schools and pupils in Secondary schools. A number of holiday camps was arranged for the benefit of teachers and pupils at convenient places. In 1951-52, the Government spent Rs. 6,188 on this scheme.

The main obstacle to the progress of Physical education was the shortage of playgrounds, and this received the Government's chief attention. Inter-school tournaments, athletics, competitions, excursions, outings became more popular and the response of pupils to extra-curricular activities was very satisfactory.

Medical inspection with the help of private practitioners formed a regular feature in most Secondary schools. Some Local Authorities have also introduced medical inspection into Primary schools under their control.

The Government sanctioned a grant of Rs. 30,696 to the Bharat Scouts and Guides Associations, Bombay, in 1951-52 as against Rs. 25,187 to various scout organizations at the end of the last Quinquennium. In 1951-52, the Government also sanctioned the sum of Rs. 26,000 for the purpose of organizing ten scout training courses for 400 teachers in the Secondary Training colleges at *Belgaum* and *Kolhapur*, and in one of the Primary Training colleges in the educational divisions of *Ahmedabad*, *Nasik* and *Dharwar*.

The *Bombay* Government agreed to the suggestion of the Government of India to raise both Junior and Senior Divisions of the National Cadet Corps in 1948-49. The progress of the organization in this State during the four years of its existence, was satisfactory. The number of Junior Division Sub-Units (now called Troops) initially was 113, and it rose to 181 during 1951-52. The number of cadets in the Junior Division increased from 3,337 to 5,430. Similar increases were recorded in the Units and the number of officers and cadets of the Senior Division in the State.

Games and other physical activities were conducted regularly for both boys and girls in *Coorg*. During 1951-52 the college annexed the championship trophy in the inter-collegiate hockey tournament conducted by the University of *Madras*. Girl students participated in the Inter-Divisional Championship in Badminton and won the semi-finals in 1951-52.

The medical inspection of students of the College was conducted by Medical Officers appointed by the Government.

Between 1947 and 1952, physical instructors were appointed in almost all Secondary and Higher Secondary schools in *Delhi*. Physical training was a compulsory subject in schools. Swedish drill apparatus work, i.e., vaulting, taking hurdles, etc., formed part of the programme of physical training. Mass drill was introduced and most schools did their drill to music. Indigenous exercises, that is, 'Asans', 'Desi Kasrat' and wrestling were practised in a large number of schools. Physical welfare as a subject of study was included in the detailed syllabuses for the Primary and Middle classes of recognised schools for boys and girls.

There was provision in schools for cricket, hockey, football, volley ball, 'kabaddi', basketball, tug-of-war, badminton, rigger touch, gymnastics, wrestling and athletics, inter-class or inter-house competitions. A tournament in three parts, senior, junior and primary was conducted every year. Competitions in marching, gymnastics and rigger touch were also held.

Besides physical training and games, progress was recorded in the work of the Junior Red Cross, Scouting, Safety First and Health.

The Delhi Olympic Association held swimming and athletic competitions every year. A large number of school students participated in these games.

A scheme of cricket coaching was started in September 1951 with a view to raising the standard of cricket in the schools of Delhi State. In the three centres at which the training was started, 16 schools availed themselves of this opportunity.

There was a clinic attended by a part-time doctor and whole-time compounder in every High and Higher Secondary school and a First-Aid box was maintained in every Primary and Middle school. Records of weight, height and chest were maintained. Towards the close of the Quinquennium, High and Higher Secondary schools appointed part-time medical practitioners to conduct the medical examination. A medical record was maintained, but treatment and follow-up of defective cases was not satisfactory.

The Education Department of the Delhi Municipality encouraged the formation of Cubs and Blue-Bird Packs in each Municipal Boys school. The Physical Education Department, in cooperation with the Bharat Scouts Association, took a keen interest in organising training courses for Cub-Masters. There were 94 Cub Packs and 22 Blue-Birds in the M.B. Boys and Girls Schools.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, there was one Physical Training Supervisor for the State. In High schools, there were trained Instructors and in Middle and Primary schools, class teachers supervised Physical education. Games and sports were encouraged in all schools. Scout Troops and Guide Companies existed in all High and Middle schools. The number of Scouts in the State was approximately 3,600 and of guides 560 approximately.

In *Hyderabad*, Physical education was compulsory in all Primary and Secondary schools. Physical training, including mass drill, was taught in all Secondary schools in accordance with an approved syllabus. There was a separate syllabus for Primary schools. Two Physical Training colleges, one for men and the other for women teachers functioned in the State. These two training colleges were, however, abolished during 1952 and the work of training was entrusted to the Academy of Physical Education known formerly as the *Hanuman Vyayamshala*. A grant of Rs. 24,000 was accorded to this body in 1952 and a further sum of Rs. 5,000 was granted for boarding purposes.

Outdoor games were compulsory in all schools with adequate playground facilities. Inter-college and inter-school tournaments were conducted by the Hyderabad Athletic Association. A swimming competition was organised by the Hyderabad Athletic Association.

During 1951-52, the organization of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides was transferred from the Department to an All-India Body, the Bharat Scouts and Guides, Hyderabad Branch. A sum of Rs. 35,000 was given as grant to this association. Scout activities were not confined to the usual parades, rallies, hikes, etc., but extended to rendering service at large state gatherings.

In *Madhya Bharat*, games were compulsory in Secondary and Collegiate institutions. They were played regularly in almost all Primary schools. Indian games were popular, especially in rural areas.

There were one Senior Medical Inspector of schools and colleges at Gwalior and three Medical Inspectors, one at Gwalior, and one at Ujjain and one at Indore. Government doctors helped in examining school children in the bigger towns. Records were kept regarding the height and weight of the students and defective cases were given medical aid. There was one students' clinic at Gwalior. Students were medically examined once a year and a record was maintained.

In *Madras*, Physical education continued to be a compulsory subject in Secondary schools both for boys and girls. Regular instruction was imparted in the subject by specially trained teachers.

In Elementary schools, class teachers themselves gave physical training to children. The introduction of "play festivals" into Elementary schools in each area made it possible to build up social alongside physical values. District Athletic Associations functioned for each District. However, the shortage of playgrounds and trained Physical education teachers stood in the way of the full implementation of the Physical education programme.

To encourage physical training, inter-school athletic sports and tournaments, intramural and play festivals were organised in all districts.

The work of promoting Physical education in all educational institutions was undertaken by the Chief Inspector, Physical Education assisted by Regional Inspectors of Physical Education. A special feature of the work done towards the end of the Quinquennium was the formation of Inter-District Secondary School Athletic Associations in five regions, viz., Anantapur, Kakinada, Madura, Madras and Coimbatore.

As the number of schools in the jurisdiction of each Regional Inspector of Physical Education was large, all schools could not be inspected every year. In April 1950, two additional posts of Regional Inspector of Physical Education were sanctioned. The Regional

Inspectors of Physical Education visited Secondary, Training, Special and Elementary schools. They attended and organised District Athletic Association meetings, District Inter-school sports meets, conducted and cooperated in refresher courses for pupils under training.

The Government approved the proposal of the Director of Public Instruction that a committee should be constituted to prepare a separate syllabus in Physical education for girls. Accordingly, the Committee met during 1949 and submitted a draft syllabus.

To improve the space available for playgrounds, the Government sanctioned small grounds to schools under private and local board managements.

The recommendations of the Sub-Committee of the Provincial Board of Physical Education to include more self-defence activities in the syllabus were accepted by the Board of Education. Physical Ability Tests for Boys and Girls in Secondary schools were introduced for the higher forms. The Expert Committee for the revision of the syllabus for Physical education in Secondary schools for Boys completed its work and this was approved by the Government and adopted in all schools of the State. The recommendations of the Government Committee for the reorganisation of Physical education training institutions were under consideration at the end of the Quinquennium, but the Expert Committee for preparing a separate syllabus for the Physical education of girls had practically completed their work.

The Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education, Saidapet, is the premier all-India training institution in Physical education. During 1948-52, it imparted training to 856 students. The Government sanctioned additional stipends and met all the expenditure in relation to the training of 95 students.

During 1948-49, the Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education applied for affiliation to the Madras University Diploma Course, and in subsequent years students were admitted to this course. In addition to the regular training work at the College, two short courses of three months' duration for 40 ex-servicemen were conducted in 1949-50. A new emphasis was laid on indigenous physical activities. The college served as a clearing house for problems on Physical education referred to it by people from far and near.

From 1947 onward the Government passed to the College the full responsibility for training women students. It agreed to meet in full, the salary of staff-members employed for this section.

To encourage Physical education teachers, the Government permitted qualified secondary grade teachers at local board and aided schools, who were trained in Physical education, to be granted special pay of Rs. 10 p.m. in addition to their scale.

Before 1950, the three Organisations, the Boy Scouts Association, the Hindustan Scouts Association and the Girl Guides Association functioned independently but in this year a joint Board of Scout and Guide Organisations was formed. This body, consisting of representatives of the three organisations met from time to time to consider ways and means of coordinating Scout and Guide activities. Successful attempts were made to integrate the organisations and the lead given by Madras was taken up enthusiastically by the all-India organisations. The total number of Cubs, Scouts and Rovers at the end of the year 1951-52 was 21,214, 13,053, and 1,926 respectively (total 36,193). The number of groups registered in 1951-52 was 1,273. 15 training camps for Cub Masters were held, at which 428 were trained. In three camps held for scout masters, 84 were trained. Every year on an average over 500 men and women were trained as Scout Officers and Guide Officers.

At the suggestion of the Government of Madras, decentralisation was effected by locating the Headquarters of Organising Commissioners at the Headquarters of the Divisional Inspectors of Schools, so that the Organising Commissioners could work in liaison with the Divisional Inspectors of Schools. This arrangement worked well and greater progress and more intensive work were the result.

All the Firka Development Officers were trained as Commissioners and were authorised to act as Assistant District Commissioners in their respective Firkas. The *Gram Sevaks* also were given cub masters' training. Rural work was taken up at the suggestion of the Director of Rural Welfare.

In regard to Secondary schools it was open to managements to levy a special fee for the purpose and to conduct a medical examination. Some Secondary schools had medical inspection under this scheme.

No provision was made for the medical inspection of children in Elementary schools, except in the case of the Madras Corporation. There were four medical inspectors and three medical inspectresses for the Madras Corporation schools.

Minor ailments were treated at the school premises by the medical inspectors with the help of trained teachers in first-aid available at the schools. Cases requiring institutional treatment were sent to Government hospitals with advisory cards. Children suffering from

leprosy were taken to skin clinics. As many as 38 per cent of the total number of children on the rolls were examined during the year 1951-52.

The National Cadet Corps, created in *Madras* in 1948 was one of the most notable achievements of the Quinquennium. The senior division of the corps was formed by converting existing University Officers Training Corps contingents into units of the National Cadet Corps. There were 48 officers in the Senior Division, 254 non-commissioned officers and 1,075 ordinary cadets on March 31, 1950.

The additional units were raised during 1951-52 viz. an Infantry unit at Palghat with an authorised strength of four Officers and 154 cadets and the 3rd Madras Air Squadron, N.C.C. Meenembakkem. The first met the pressing demand of the State for a unit on the West Coast that was not previously represented in the National Cadet Corps. Recruitment for the Air Squadron was thrown open to five colleges.

During 1951-52, the National Cadet Corps Senior Division had 17 units with 56 officers and 1,367 cadets. In 1951-52 there were 43 troops of the Junior Division working with 125 officers and 3,900 cadets. The National Cadet Corps was reorganised and the Junior Division units in schools were brought under the officers commanding the Senior Division units stationed at various centres in the State.

Under university regulations, all students in the first and the third university classes in Arts colleges were medically examined and a report furnished to the university. This did not provide for a follow-up programme or for medical attendance in special cases. To meet these requirements, the Government, introduced a scheme of medical attendance for students in the nine Government Arts colleges. This scheme was brought into operation from the academic year 1951-52.

A part-time medical officer (a registered medical practitioner) was in charge of the clinic attached to colleges and attended daily to the medical needs of the students.

The School Medical Service was introduced into government schools in the Imphal area of *Manipur* in 1951. The State Medical Department conducted the health examination of the school children twice a year. The students of High and Middle schools were required to pay a medical fee of two annas per head per month. Primary school children were, however, exempted from this fee.

In *Mysore*, physical training was made compulsory in the revised S.S.L.C. scheme. Physical training classes were held every day in all High schools, and wherever facilities were available in Middle

and Primary schools. In addition to the more formal exercises, physical training included organised games and other useful form of corporate activity.

Practice in games like cricket, football and volleyball was a regular part of the curriculum in almost all High schools, in addition to drill, which was compulsory. In schools where there were no drill instructors, the work was supervised by scout masters or by teachers who had undergone physical culture training. *Suryanamaskaram* exercises, *Yogasanas*, wrestling and other gymnastic exercises were practised in several High schools. Some High schools introduced the *panchayat* system in sports, which not only made sports an item of lively interest to pupils, but also contributed to the promotion of a spirit of healthy rivalry in them. The Silver Jubilee Sports competitions, the Dussehra sports, Olympic competitions and First-Aid competitions gave an impetus to physical activities.

During 1951-52, five physical culture institutes received grants from the Department.

During 1951-52, medical inspection of school boys was enforced in 65 High schools. Medical inspection in 117 Middle and 160 Primary schools for boys was also conducted. A total of 19,592 pupils studying at High schools were examined. Of these 3,542 were girls. 45,373 boys of Middle and Primary schools were also examined. The number of pupils treated for various complaints was 12,199 in all schools. Private practitioners were appointed at ten centres.

The Boy Scouts Movement in the schools of the State continued to record progress during the Quinquennium. There were 36,112 scouts of all ranks in the State during 1951-52. A number of cub-packs were started in the Districts of Bangalore, Kolar and Davangere. A number of Rover Crews rendered valuable service under the Rural Development Scheme. A number of training camps was also held in different parts of the State. Four scouts from the State attended the Seventh World Jamboree held in Austria during August 1951, for which a grant of Rs. 7,500 was made by the Government. A team of 13 scouts connected with the training team was deputed to participate in the Commissioner's Conference held at Tara Devi, Simla Hills, in April 1951. Another contingent of 40 scouts visited Ceylon and parts of South India.

A grand rally of the scouts and girl guides of Bangalore City and the Civil Area, Hebbal (Bangalore District) and University District numbering more than 3,000 was held at Bangalore. A number of rallies and boys' camps were also held by several districts in different parts of the State. A Guides Camp was held at Doddaballapur.

In Orissa, a definite step forward in the promotion of modern Physical education was taken during 1947 and the first batch of eight candidates including two women was sent to Madras for a one-year's course in Physical education. About 42 candidates including seven women, underwent training at the College of Physical Education, Madras, at Government cost. To supervise and coordinate the activities of each circle and to advise the Government on technical matters, a Physical Education Expert with foreign experience was appointed in 1951. A Chief Inspector of Physical Education, with three Inspectors and one Inspectress, was in charge of organising Physical education in the State. It was provided in all types of schools and colleges but suffered for want of well qualified teachers. Major games like football, hockey, volleyball, cricket, etc., were generally popular, but many of the schools did not have adequate playgrounds or necessary funds. After the appointment of a Chief Inspector of Physical Education in the State, an inter-school competition in games was organized. A rally of schools was held at Cuttack in 1950-51 in which 1,600 boys and girls of 41 High schools participated. The Government provided grants to private institutions like the Kalinga Gymnasium.

The School Medical Officer visited High schools regularly. Defective pupils were recommended for necessary treatment and in this connection a reference was made to the parents concerned. Weights and measure charts of school children were maintained, and students suffering from leprosy and such contagious diseases were required to be withdrawn. The Medical Officer delivered lectures during vacations at selected centres on Elementary Anatomy and Physiology, Hygiene, Food and Nutrition, common epidemic and infectious diseases.

There were 52 scout troops and 22 cub-packs in the whole State yielding a total of 1,840 scouts and 543 cubs. During the period, two rallies were held at Cuttack. Almost all girls' schools in Orissa encouraged the Girl Guide and Blue Bird movement. The Provincial Girl Guide Association received an annual grant of Rs. 500 from the Government.

In 1950, the All-India Guide Trainer Association came to Orissa to conduct a training class at Cuttack. Guides from all the districts of Orissa, except Koraput attended the training class. At the end of the course a provincial rally was held at Government House, Cuttack. Nearly 600 Students, Guides and Blue Birds, attended. The Orissa Branch was affiliated to the Scout Headquarters, New Delhi.

In *Pepsu*, colleges and most High and Middle schools were provided with trained Directors of Physical education and Physical Training Instructors. District sports tournaments were arranged annually. Athletic meets were held at Patiala. In 1950-51, the Mahendra College Hockey team won the Yadevindra Hockey Tournament at Delhi, one of the most important hockey tournaments. In the Athletic Meet, they won the University Relay Race Championship. Ten athletes were selected to represent the university and six hockey players were included in the university hockey eleven.

Periodical medical inspections of children were conducted in some schools. In colleges, too, periodical medical inspections were done by Medical Officers.

In the *Punjab*, a physical training instructor on the staff of a Secondary school was considered necessary, and recognition was not accorded to new institutions until this condition was fulfilled. Physical training exercises, mass drill and marching were routine activities and special demonstrations were arranged on important occasions. In Primary schools, teachers were expected to set apart some school time for physical and health activities.

Every district in the *Punjab* had an Assistant District Inspector of Schools for Physical education, who supervised and guided the Physical education of schools by visits and periodical refresher courses for teachers. He also organised village clubs to popularise sports among the adult population of rural areas. District High school tournaments have been revived and conducted since 1948-49 under the auspices of the Headmasters' Association. During the Quinquennium, Divisional tournaments and Inter-Divisional meets were held. The district Middle schools tournament was another development of the period under review. In some districts, Olympic Associations came into existence. Teachers took a lively interest in young farmers' clubs. In 1951-52, a plan was formulated to open a government college for Physical education. This college started functioning at Rupar in 1952.

Most schools and colleges in the State had approved schemes of medical inspection and follow-up treatment was in operation. Expenditure on such schemes was met from medical funds raised from the students by the institutions concerned. Medical inspection of students by qualified doctors took place on a half-yearly basis and the results of such inspection were recorded on medical cards. Defective cases were treated in the school clinic in urban areas, and in rural dispensaries in rural areas. There was a satisfactory arrangement for medical inspection in model schools of the State. Expenditure on this item was met from the Government medical grant.

The Punjab had one of the most active Scouts and Guides Organization. The number of Scouts and Scouters increased from 29,790 in 1946-47 to 65,474 in 1951-52. Week-end camps were very popular in almost all districts. Besides other rallies, annual rallies were held to celebrate the Republic Day, and the Independence Day in all districts.

Scouts all over the State rendered good service during fairs. They helped the authorities in the maintenance of law and order, regulating traffic, looking after sanitation and running enquiry offices. The service rendered by them at Hardwar during the *Kumbha Mela* elicited much admiration.

Tara Devi continued to attract scouts from all over the State and even from the neighbouring States of Pepsu and Himachal Pradesh. It has a youth hostel, and had several provincial and some all-India meets during the Quinquennium.

The National Cadet Corps organisation was started in University colleges and High schools during the Quinquennium. The annual cost on this account was Rs. 11,45,735 during 1951-52.

After the merger, the headquarters of the Officer on Special Duty for extra-curricular activities in Rajasthan were located, first at Bikaner and then, at Jaipur. There was one Superintendent of Physical Education.

Most of the Higher and Secondary educational institutions of the State were already provided with a trained physical instructor. At the primary stage, class teachers were trained in the theory and practice of Elementary Physical education. Health and Physical education is a compulsory subject in High schools and Intermediate colleges.

Attempts were made to hold a central tournament for sports and games and other extra-curricular activities. In a majority of the Divisional Inspectorate, tournaments were held.

New syllabuses for the Primary, Middle and School Training Certificate training schools of Rajasthan were prepared and brought into force. The blending of the western with the indigenous system of Physical education in a practical and economical way was the essential objective of such preparation. It was also proposed, on the model of Bombay, to have physical efficiency tests for all Primary and Middle schools students, and to make it possible for only those who pass the minimum standard required to be promoted to the higher classes.

In some of the divisional headquarters there were medical officers, men as well as women, belonging to the Education Departments who conducted an annual medical examination of boys and girls and sent medical reports to the heads of the Government institutions concerned. Medical Officers in charge of Government dispensaries in the district conducted a six-monthly medical inspection of all pupils belonging to such government schools for boys residing within a five-mile radius of the dispensary. All recognised institutions under private management were encouraged to provide qualified medical officers and arrange for a regular medical inspection in their institutions at least once a year. A report on the prescribed form, prepared by the Medical Officer, regarding physical defects, was sent by the heads of institutions, both Government and private, to the parent or guardian. Generally all Government and aided institutions maintained physical record cards and charts showing the physical defects, age, height, weight and chest measurements of pupils.

Prior to the integration of the various states of Rajputana, separate Scouts organisations existed in different units, but after the formation of Rajasthan it became necessary to bring about a merger of these organisations with a common association for the whole state.

On August 31, 1949, a committee was formed to discover ways and means of forming a unified Scout Association with a common constitution. Accordingly, the Rajasthan Scouts and Guides Association came into being on February 1, 1950. This association became a branch of the Bharat Scouts and Guides.

The constitution of the Association demanded that each unit should possess one Divisional Scout and Guide Council. Accordingly, such councils were formed. The headquarters of the association were located at Jaipur, and of the State Commissioner for Guides at Jodhpur. In addition, there is one State Organising Commissioner at Jaipur and two Assistant State Organising Commissioners at Jodhpur and Bikaner.

To carry out the training of scouters and guiders on a State basis, a state training team was formed.

The Rajasthan Scouts Association published their monthly Scout and Guide Bulletin in Hindi under the name of *Agradoot* with the State Organising Commissioner as the Editor.

Since July 15, 1950, the work of N.C.C. Training with nine Junior Division Troops was started in Rajasthan. There were nine Troops with 810 cadets, 27 National Cadet Corps teachers and 21 units in the State.

The whole work of the National Cadet Corps in Rajasthan was directly supervised by the Central Government. An Advisory Board was constituted for the whole of Rajasthan with its headquarters at Jaipur.

In *Saurashtra*, Physical education was made compulsory in Secondary schools and a full-time inspection staff was maintained for this purpose in each district.

Steps were taken to revive Boy Scout and Girl Guide activities. The National Cadet Corps was started in University colleges and High schools. The annual cost on this account amounted to Rs. 1,08,519 for 1951-52. Further expansion of the N.C.C. is contemplated under the State's Five-Year Plan.

There was one aided institution in the Travancore area of Travancore-Cochin State, which promoted the physical well-being of the general public.

The Travancore Boy Scout Association was a State-wide organisation. There were ten Guide Companies—six in Ernakulam District and four in Trichur District. There were also ten Blue Bird Blocks—six in the Ernakulam District and four in Trichur District.

In *Tripura*, regular drill classes (during the school period) and physical training classes were conducted by the game teachers in the High schools. There was a Boy Scouts organisation at Agartala. The number of students enlisted during these years was 50, 55 and 40 respectively.

The Government College of Physical Education continued to train teachers in Physical education in *Uttar Pradesh*. Physical education was a compulsory subject of study in all Boys' Higher Secondary schools and from class I to VIII of all types of institutions for girls. It was also compulsory in Higher Secondary schools. Yearly youth rallies were organised on district, regional and state levels both for boys and girls. The indigenous system was also encouraged and institutions like the Kashi Vyamshala, Bharat Sewa Mandal, Laxmi Vyamshala, Jhansi, and several *Akharas* were aided by the department. To encourage Physical education, the Department gave grants to district and municipal boards.

The State Council of Physical Culture continued to promote activities of district committees to encourage indigenous *Akharas* and physical culture clubs and sports in rural areas. Grants were distributed through these committees. Youth rallies and refresher courses were organised every year in which both the teacher and the taught participated.

Besides the Lucknow Christian Physical Training College that functioned between 1949-52, recognition was granted to the Sri Kashi Vyamshala, Banaras, and the Lakshmi Vyamshala, Jhansi. These institutions organised refresher courses for Basic, Primary and Junior High school teachers.

In 14 towns whole-time school health officers inspected students in all recognised institutions (aided or unaided). In other towns Municipal and District Health Officers performed the same function in recognised aided institutions.

District rallies, training camps and hikes were held every year by the Boy Scouts and Girl Guide Association. Social service was one of the main functions of the Association. The total number of rallies held during 1950-52 was 200. The number of scouts trained was 6,000 and of patrol leaders 4,500. At least 100 important hikes were undertaken. The strength of the Association was 1,18,500.

In addition to the provincial scheme of compulsory military training, the National Cadet Corps functioned in the State.

No special institutions existed for Physical education in *Vindhya Pradesh* but Physical education existed at all educational institutions.

The state of this important branch of outdoor character-building activity was unsatisfactory up to 1950, but after this year a strong popular scout movement was built up and Boy Scouting and Girl Guides were reorganised and planned on a provincial footing.

The National Cadet Corps Junior Division was provided in five High schools. There was one senior division in Durbar College, Rewa.

CHAPTER X

CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

(i) *Main Trends*

The Quinquennium marks the beginning of activity in many fields of cultural development and international relations. Before the advent of freedom, cultural development was largely outside the purview of the State. Occasionally, Indian literary men, scientists or humanists went abroad on cultural tours but cultural relations were mainly confined to exchanges with Great Britain and some of the Commonwealth countries. As has been mentioned earlier, Rabindranath Tagore had gone on missions to China and Japan, Thailand and Indonesia, Iran and various countries of Europe and America. Indian scientists had also received invitations from abroad and Professor Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan had for many years been an international figure in the world of Philosophy. These were, however, tributes to their personal eminence rather than evidence of any organised cultural exchange with foreign countries.

An Iranian Good-Will Mission had visited India in 1944 and arising out of this, an Indo-Iranian Cultural Committee was established in March, 1946. During the Quinquennium, the question of relations with other countries was taken up on a much wider scale. The Indian Council of Cultural Relations was established in 1950 to revive and strengthen cultural relations between India and other countries by promoting a wider knowledge and appreciation of their languages, literature and art, by establishing close contacts between the universities and cultural institutions and by adopting all other measures to promote cultural relations.

The activities of the Council are directed to the promotion of cultural exchange and include the publication of three Cultural Quarterlies, the maintenance of a Sanskrit Professor at Tehran and a specialist on art subjects in India, the purchase of books for presentation to libraries and institutions abroad and the acquisition of old manuscripts, financing visits of students and professors from India and abroad, financing visits of artists and the maintenance of Chairs in Indology in South East Asia and the Middle East.

Special mention should also be made of the establishment of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with Unesco. This was originally established as an interim Commission in April 1949. Later on, its constitution was revised and a permanent Commission was

established in 1952. The establishment of the National Commission was a visible symbol of the importance of international exchanges in the field of culture and of the recognition that the cause of freedom, peace and progress depends upon the education of the younger generation and closer contacts between all peoples in education, science and culture.

It has already been briefly mentioned that the National Commission has been responsible for initiating various seminars and symposia where problems of common interest to all countries of Asian origin have been discussed. The National Commission has also studied the influence of day-to-day teaching in schools and appointed special committees to undertake the discussion or preparation of textbooks with a view to eliminating causes of friction among nations and promoting better understanding between peoples. Another project which the Indian National Commission has been pressing for adoption by Unesco as well as the Member States of Asian origin, is the preparation of translations of national classics for one another's use, and for better understanding of Asian contributions by people in the Western world.

One evidence of the growing interest in India of contacts with foreign countries and of the interest of such countries in India is seen in the large number of scholarships and fellowships or travel grants that have been instituted during the Quinquennium. The United Nations placed at the disposal of the Government of India a number of Fellowships for training and observation in various fields of social work. Unesco sought to assist in the improvement of facilities for Technical education in countries by offering fellowships to visiting professors under its own Technical Assistance Programme and offering fellowships and stipends to promising young scholars who could replace them in course of time. Many foreign countries also participated in such schemes either unilaterally or on a reciprocal basis.

At the suggestion of Unesco, the Ministry of Education, Government of India, convened a Conference of Professors of Philosophy at New Delhi in September 1951. The suggestions made by the Conference, as regards the teaching of philosophy and a re-orientation and re-organisation of philosophical studies in Indian universities, include two points which deserve notice. One was the intensive study of philosophical systems, Western and Indian, through an analytical study of national and world classics so as to lead the student to a critical study of philosophical concepts and to encourage him to cultivate independence and originality of thought. The second was the re-organisation of philosophy courses, especially the history of philosophy, so as to give the student an opportunity to follow the history of

philosophical ideas in both Eastern and Western philosophies, and to prevent him from confining his studies exclusively to this or that particular period or culture. A list of the philosophers presented for Honour Students includes Socrates, Plato and Aristotle; Farabi, Ibn Sina, Ibn Rushd and Gazzali, Hegel, Confucius, Lao Tse and Mencius and others. It may be justly claimed that India is the only country that teaches the history of both Eastern and Western philosophies. She has gone further; she has prepared a book specially designed to facilitate this comparative study.

"The History of Philosophy, Eastern and Western" published under the sponsorship of the Government of India is in many respects a unique work. In its broad sweep it surveys the philosophical development of mankind as a common heritage and makes a comparative study of the philosophies of the East and the West. The initiative in this project came from the Ministry of Education of the Government of India. It was in an address to the All-India Educational Conference that the Hon'ble Maulana Azad, Minister for Education, suggested that the Government should undertake the preparation of a History of philosophy of the World. The proposal received the warm support of the conference. The Minister later reiterated the proposal in a speech before the Legislature which outlined the Central Government's educational policy. He pointed out that there is a real need for such a History of Eastern and Western Philosophy. It is well-known that most of the current histories written by Europeans either altogether ignore or make merely a passing reference to the contribution of India. On the other hand, most books by Indians deal exclusively with Indian philosophy. The result is that students fail to realise the continuity in the development of human thought and the value of the Indian contribution to the evolution of modern philosophy. A true evaluation of India's place in the world of philosophy is necessary, not only from the point of view of knowledge but also in order to acquire a proper appreciation of the meaning of Indian civilisation and culture in the modern context. An editorial board presided over by Professor S. Radhakrishnan and consisting of Professors A. R. Wadia, Humayun Kabir, and Dr. D. M. Datta was charged with the preparation of the book and has successfully concluded its labour by bringing out what is, perhaps, the first history of world philosophy produced under Government auspices.

One of the most important events during the Quinquennium was the holding of a Symposium on "the Concept of Man and the Philosophy of Education in East and West" at New Delhi from 13th to 20th December, 1951, under the joint auspices of the Ministry of Education and the Indian National Commission. Fourteen leading thinkers from countries of East and West participated in this Symposium that was inaugurated by the Ministry of Education on December 13,

1951, and addressed by the Prime Minister during the last plenary session on December 20, 1951. Its deliberations have been published by Unesco under the title, "Humanism and Education in East and West".

The Government of India has been deeply interested in the United Nations and its Specialised Agencies. It has itself been engaged in promoting international understanding and cultural relations between different countries. A scheme of cultural scholarships has been under operation for some time past. Under this scheme a number of scholars from Asian and African countries have been awarded scholarships for further training and education in Indian Universities and institutions of higher learning. This is a valuable contribution towards making our own educational facilities available to Asian and African students, in spite of our own limited resources. The Quinquennium has also seen other measures for the promotion of a better understanding of India's cultural heritage. A number of cultural missions from foreign countries have visited the country and our own Missions have gone abroad. Exhibitions of Indian Art have been sent to a number of countries. Besides, the Government has entered into agreements with some of the foreign countries for promoting a better exchange of information and understanding. Special mention may here be made of the cultural agreement between India and Turkey.

The United States Educational Foundation in India was established in 1950 for promoting the exchange of teachers and students between the United States of America and India. Financed out of the sale proceeds of American surplus war material in India, a rupee fund was created which was utilised to meet the entire expenses of American teachers and scholars who come to Indian Universities and to pay for the travel expenses of Indian teachers and students visiting the United States whose expenses in the United States are met by various other funds. Under this programme, 27 American professors and teachers and 18 American students have visited India during the Quinquennium, as against 32 Indian professors and teachers and 150 Indian students who went to America.

Under the Indo-German Industrial Cooperation Scheme, the Federal Republic of West Germany offered in March 1952, 100 free studentships, 20 scholarships on a reciprocal basis, six full scholarships and 250 places in industries for training in Engineering and Apprenticeships. The Government of India expressed its appreciation of the generous offer and decided to make a beginning of the programme with 50 free studentships in German Universities/Institutes and 100 apprenticeships for training in German industries. As a reciprocal measure the Government of India offered ten fellowships to German nationals for the study of Indian Languages, Religions, and Philosophy at Indian Universities/Institutes.

In the previous Quinquennium, a large number of scholarships had been granted to Indian students for study and training in various sciences and technologies. On an average, about 500 students went abroad each year from 1945 onwards. The plans of development on the basis of which these large numbers had been sent abroad did not, however, for various reasons materialise as rapidly as was expected. The partition of the country further upset all programmes and some of these scholars on their return did not find suitable employment. The position was, therefore, surveyed by a Committee appointed under the Chairmanship of Dr. B. C. Roy, now Chief Minister of West Bengal. This Committee recommended the suspension of the old scheme but suggested its re-introduction on a new basis. Accordingly the Modified Overseas Scholarships Scheme came into operation in 1949-50, but after one year's working, it was decided further to revise it and confine it only to selected teachers of Universities. The object of the scheme is to strengthen the Teaching Departments so that the need to go abroad for studies in special subjects may progressively diminish. During the Quinquennium, 83 scholars visited four countries, viz., the United Kingdom, the United States of America, France and Germany, under one or other of the Modified Overseas Scholarships Scheme.

The Government also helped, both directly and indirectly, in the promotion of art and culture within the country. The Government of India instituted Presidential Awards for outstanding musicians. The first awards were made in 1952; four awards were made in vocal and instrumental music of the two major Indian schools. Some of the State Governments, notably Madras, instituted Poet Laureate-ships in recognition of the eminence of men of Letters in languages within their territories.

The Government of India instituted in 1949 a scheme of scholarships for painters on the result of an all-India competition. Young artists below 35 were requested to submit specimens of their work for exhibition. These were reviewed by a committee consisting of the Principals of the recognised Art schools in the country. Another scheme instituted by the Government was awards made to promising artists with the stipulation that they would have to spend part of their time in rural areas and help to beautify at least two rural schools. A third scheme was initiated to survey indigenous arts in certain selected regions with a view to ensure that the patterns current in these areas were preserved. Other grants to artists were also given both by the Central and the State Governments.

The most important decision during the Quinquennium was that relating to the establishment of three Academies. A scheme was originally submitted by the Asiatic Society of Bengal that envisaged

the establishment of a National Cultural Trust. Pending the establishment of the Trust, it was decided to set up Advisory Bodies in three fields of Arts, viz., Letters, Music, Dance and Drama. Accordingly, a Central Art Advisory Committee was set up in 1950. After further consideration, Government of India decided that in order to promote and coordinate research in various branches of Art, steps should be taken to set up a National Academy of Dance, Drama and Music, a National Academy of Letters a National Academy of Art, an Academy of Hindustani (North Indian) Music, and an Academy of Karnatak (South Indian) Music.

(ii) *Art Education*

After 1947, the Governments, both at the Centre and in the States, became increasingly concerned with the growth and development of Art. The establishment of the Indian National Museum and the National Art Treasure Fund were first steps in this direction taken by the Government of India. Schemes for setting up a National Academy of Dance, Drama and Music, a National Academy of Letters, and a National Academy of Arts were all evidence of the same concern. The Government of India also prepared a scheme for the establishment of an Academy of Karnatak Music in Madras and of Hindustani Music in Lucknow. Art scholarships and other important measures were also taken to stimulate interest in Art education.

In 1947-48, the British Royal Academy, with the help and co-operation of the Government of India, organised an exhibition of Indian Art at London. This Exhibition was, perhaps, the finest collection of Indian art objects ever assembled, and received high praise from critics of all countries. It ended in February, 1948, but the Ministry of Education felt that it would be most unfortunate if the exhibits were dispersed before the Indian people had had a chance to see so unique a collection. Accordingly, in 1948-49, the Central Ministry of Education held this exhibition at "Government House". It evoked great enthusiasm and was visited by thousands of spectators from all over the country. Since then the exhibition has been converted into the nucleus of the Indian National Museum and is housed at Rashtrapati Bhavan.

In order to promote interest in Indian art and culture through the medium of exhibitions, the Government organised art exhibitions in Burma, Egypt and Iraq. Fifty paintings by Indian children were sent to the Art Exhibition at Philadelphia. The exchange of children's paintings was also arranged with Japan and Australia. Voluntary art associations took an active part in organising these exhibitions, both within the country and abroad.

The Prime Minister of India inaugurated in February 1951 the National Art Treasure Fund set up by the Government of India in cooperation with State Governments. The object of this Fund is to acquire pieces of ancient and contemporary art that are worthy of being preserved for the nation in the National Museum or the proposed National Art Gallery.

To encourage paintings and other arts, the Government adopted a scheme to purchase good paintings by Indian artists. A number of paintings by artists of acknowledged excellence in various parts of India were bought by the Central Government for the National Art Gallery. Efforts were also made to obtain catalogues and photographs of Indian Art objects from the museums of foreign countries.

To encourage young artists and to propagate art in the remote villages of India, eight scholarships of the value of Rs. 2,500/- each were awarded in 1949-50 in an open competition sponsored by the Government of India on the occasion of the Art Conference held in Calcutta in 1949.

Another scheme of five art scholarships (each of the value of Rs. 3,500) for the survey of, and research in selected local arts was initiated in 1951-52 in cooperation with the State Governments of the regions concerned. A scheme for the publication of colour reproductions of art objects was sanctioned in the same year.

Pending the establishment of a National Cultural Trust, it was decided to set up Advisory Bodies in three fields of Art, Letters, Dance, Drama and Music. Accordingly, an All-India Art Conference was convened at Calcutta in August 1949 and, as recommended by it, a Central Art Advisory Committee was set up in 1950.

Two important conferences, one on Letters and the other on Dance, Drama and Music were held at New Delhi in March, 1951. The Conference on Letters resolved that a National Academy of Letters should be established, and the Conference of Dance, Drama and Music recommended that an Academy of Dance, Drama and Music should be set up to promote these arts.

With a view to encouraging musical talent in the country, four outstanding musicians of India were granted *sanads* and donations by the President in 1951-52.

The All-India Council for Technical Education, an account of whose activities in the promotion of Technical education in the country is given in Chapter VI, was interested in the development of Art education, both because of its importance for commerce and its value in a well-balanced system of education. The question of re-organisation of Art education in the country was considered at a

conference of Principals of Art institutions, members of the Boards of Technical Studies in Applied Art and art experts. The conference decided that it was necessary to establish a certain measure of standardisation and coordination of Art education for its development along right lines. It, therefore, recommended that a uniform system of training, comprising a preparatory course of three years' and an advanced course of two years' duration, leading to the National Diploma, in accordance with the scheme prepared by the Board of Technical Studies should be adopted by all art institutions. A post-graduate course of one year's duration leading to the award of the National Advanced Diploma in Fine Arts or Commercial Arts or Crafts was also approved. The conference further suggested that the art institution concerned should, within the framework of the scheme prepared by the Board, be free to determine the details of the syllabuses of the courses of training.

To adopt a uniform system of training in Applied Arts and Crafts, the All-India Board of Technical Studies in Applied Art adopted a scheme of training, which envisaged three stages: a preparatory course of three-years' duration (National Intermediate Diploma in Arts and Crafts), an advanced training of two years' duration (National Diploma in Fine Arts and Applied Arts) and a post-graduate course of one year's duration (National Advanced Diploma in Fine Arts, Commercial Arts and Crafts). The scheme also provides for special courses of training for art teachers (National Certificate and Diploma in Teaching and National Certificate in Commercial Art).

State Governments also evinced keen interest in providing facilities in various branches of Art. A number of educational institutions tried to create a stimulating environment for children by cultivating small gardens and flower beds in their premises, by introducing decorative designs in new buildings and furniture and by making libraries and classrooms attractive. They organised exhibitions of fine arts and crafts. Folk dances and music became important features in the programme of work in many schools and colleges. Increasing emphasis was placed on original expression for the child through Dance, Drama, Music and Drawing. "Child Art" a collection of children's drawings and paintings, published during 1951-52 by the Office of the Educational Adviser to the Government of Bombay, provided interesting specimens of work done by children under 16.

In Bihar, the School of Art at Patna was provincialised during 1948-49. It had 35 students on March 31, 1952, as against 27 on March 31, 1947. The total direct expenditure on the school rose from Rs. 5,467 in 1946-47 to Rs. 20,559 in 1951-52.

During 1950-51, the Government of Bihar issued a circular with detailed instructions to Principals of Colleges, headmasters of High schools, heads of all Basic institutions and girls' schools, Chairmen of all district boards and all divisional and district inspectors of schools on the beautifying of school and college gardens and surroundings.

There was one non-recognised school for music in Chota Nagpur and an Institute of Music managed by the Patna University. Music was also taught as one of the optional subjects for the Matriculation Examination. Music classes formed a regular feature of the revised syllabus that was put into operation in Middle and High schools, especially girls' schools, where teachers competent to teach vocal and instrumental music were appointed to the staff.

On January 27, 1952, the Bihar Academy of Dance, Drama and Music was inaugurated. The Government decided to depute one trainee for a course of dramatics of three months. Dancing was introduced in a few High schools for girls and was taught in Mission Primary and Middle schools. Bratachari Dance was also practised in some schools of the State. A number of private institutions like the Bhartiya Nritya Kala Mandir, Patna; Arts and Artists, Patna and the Geetali Jantri Sangh, Ranchi, organised regular classes in Dance, Drama and Stage-Craft.

The period under report was marked by a series of steps taken by the Government of *Bombay* to reorganise and revitalise Art education in the State. The Arts Education Committee, which was appointed in the preceding Quinquennium, submitted its report to the Government. In 1949, the Government sanctioned the appointment of the Advisory Board of Art Education to advise it on all matters pertaining to Art education. The Board framed syllabuses for the training of art and craft teaching in Primary and Secondary schools and Training institutions. It also decided to appoint an Examination Committee for the conduct and supervision of art examinations.

Drawing became a subject for the Primary School Certificate Examination from 1948. Refresher courses were held for Primary teachers to enable them to teach drawing in Primary schools. The Secondary School Certificate Board, that started functioning in 1949, included art subjects in its revised syllabus.

The introduction during the Quinquennium of craft into Primary schools as part of the regular syllabus was a landmark in the progress of Aesthetic education in the State. The child's natural aptitude for hand-work, and its urge for aesthetic expression through craft won its due recognition, and vigorous attempts were made to ensure that the teaching of crafts became effective. Short-term courses of

three months' duration, were organised to train teachers in craft work. The training courses were planned in conformity with modern concepts of Art education, special emphasis being placed on free expressional work. The need to treat Drawing and Craftwork as allied and integrated activities was particularly emphasised. Two batches of teachers were sent by the Government to the Diploma course in Arts and Crafts at Visva Bharati, Santiniketan.

Two new centres for Higher Arts Examinations were opened during the Quinquennium in the Institute of Modern Art, Poona, and the School of Art, Dharwar.

Child art acquired a new significance and exhibits from Bombay State were sent to a number of child art exhibitions organised during the Quinquennium by various international bodies.

The Sir J. J. School of Art that was the premier art institution of the State, imparted instruction in Architecture, Drawing and Painting, Sculpture, Commercial Art and Crafts and in the training of Art teachers. The Architectural section was recognised by the Royal Institute of British Architects, London.

There were 13 other Fine Arts institutions with 1,716 pupils on the rolls at the end of the Quinquennium. Total expenditure incurred on these institutions amounted to Rs. 4,02,859, of which an expenditure of Rs. 2,41,906 was met by the Government.

As a result of increasing Art-consciousness, better facilities for the teaching of the subject under well-trained drawing teachers were made available in Secondary schools. During 1951-52, there were 38 music schools with 1,996 pupils as against 12 institutions in 1946-47 with 295 pupils. Total expenditure during 1951-52 amounted Rs. 1,11,704, of which Rs. 23,682 was met by the Government.

The management of the Museum and Picture Gallery, *Baroda*, was taken over by the Government in March 1952, and a Committee of Management to advise the Government on matters related to the Museum, was set up. A large number of pieces of Indian Art were added to the Museum, that arranged special exhibitions, side-shows, weekly film shows and public lectures.

There were separate institutions for Art education in *Bhopal*. Music as a subject was, however, introduced into girls' High schools.

In *Himachal Pradesh*, a music class was provided for in Government schools for girls.

Up to October 1950, drawing was taught in all schools of *Hyderabad* State. Every Secondary school was provided with teachers who had received special training at the Government Technical College.

Between 1947-50, 117 manual instructors were trained at the Government Technical College, *Hyderabad*, and 110 of these were appointed to various institutions.

In girls' schools, Art and Music were introduced and Karnatak and Hindustani Music were taught. Manual instruction was imparted in all boys' schools and Government Secondary schools were provided with specially trained manual instructors.

On November 27, 1951, the Prime Minister inaugurated the Government-sponsored National Art Gallery, the first of its kind in *Madras*. Children's Art Exhibitions were conducted with the two-fold object of encouraging the child artist who had attained some standard of achievement in art and of stimulating the prospective child artist. Larger facilities for Art education were provided in schools. Attempts were made to understand the child and encourage self-expression through art. The reorganised scheme of 1948 gave prominence to Arts, and especially Painting and Music. Occasions such as the School Day and Anniversaries offered opportunities for the display of artistic talents (Dance, Drama and Music) in the pupils. Nevertheless, art-teaching continued to be the weakest link in the chain of subjects taught at schools.

Besides the faculty of Music in the Annamalai University, there were three Music colleges in the State, *viz.*, the Kalakshetra at Adyar; the Central College of Karnatic Music, Adyar; and the Maharaja's College of Music, Vijayanagaram. Kalakshetra was affiliated to the Madras University and continued throughout the Quinquennium to be an outstanding Art centre. It continued to attract distinguished visitors, both national and foreign, during this period. The institution held its first regular convocation for awarding diplomas on January 31, 1952. Twelve candidates who qualified in earlier years, were presented with the Kala Diploma. Provision was made in the Kalakshetra for the teaching of Music and Dancing, in addition to facilities for training in Vocal Karnatic Music, the Veena, the Guttuvadyam, the Violin and Bharatha Natyam and Kathakali dancing.

Kalakshetra, Adyar, trained students for the Sangeetha Siromani Examination of the Madras University and for the Government Technical Examination in Music (Higher Grade).

The Central College of Karnatic Music was placed under the administrative control of the Director of Public Instruction from December 1950. The Students' Union functioned in the college and conducted important music festivals and monthly musical entertainments. Provision was made in the College for the teaching of Music in the Veena, the Violin, the Mridangam and in singing. There was also a course in the theory of Music.

The Maharaja's College of Music, Vijyanagaram, sent candidates up for the Diploma Examination of the Andhra University in the Violin, the Veena and Vocal Music. Candidates were also prepared for the Government Examination in Music (Higher Grade). Students of the Annamalai University are sent up for the Sangeeta Bhusana Diploma Examination.

Music, as a special subject under the diversified course of studies in Secondary education, was introduced into the Rajah's High School, Kollerode.

Music was not taught as a separate subject in boys' schools of the State but girls' schools generally had Music as a curricular subject. Music was also taught as an extra-curricular activity. Training in vocal music was provided for in the Tamil Isai Kalluri George Town, and Violin and Veena and Singing in the Ramani School of Music, Mylapore. The Tamil Isai Kalluri School that was established in 1942, was granted recognition by the Director of Public Instruction in 1948. The school imparted instruction in the Veena, the Mridangam, Song and Dance. Pupils of this institution were sent up for the Isai Selvam and Isai Mani Examinations of the Tamil Isai Sangham, Madras, and the Lower Grade and Higher Grade Government Technical Examinations.

Early in 1947-48, the Music Academy, Royapettah took up the question of improving the Teachers' College of Music and the Model School run by the Academy in Madras. The College was transferred to its own premises where better accommodation was available. Diplomas were awarded to successful students each year at the Sadas of the Academy.

The Coimbatore Academy, prepared in 1949 a guide book on dancing that was published by the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, for the guidance of dance teachers. The school of Bharata Natyam at Coimbatore followed the syllabus prepared by the Commissioner of Government Examinations, Madras. The immediate objective of the institution has been to make folk dancing and tribal dancing an integral part of Social Education.

The Pitchyia Pillai Bharatnatya Vidyalaya, Tanjore, was recognised during 1950-51.

There were several private institutions for Music and Dancing in Manipur. Special mention may, however, be made of the Nrityasram at Uripok, the Manipuri Sangit Rakshini Sava and the Lalit Kala Bhavan of Moirangkhom, that taught dancing and music during the Quinquennium. Besides these, there was the Imphal Arts School that functioned for the same purpose.

Music was started in all Primary and Middle schools for girls in Mysore State. It was an optional subject in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate scheme in the Fine Arts group. This subject was not, however, popular especially in High schools as the subject did not exist at the University stage of education. There were several private institutions of music, for the most part run by Women's Associations. The courses of study were framed and the examinations conducted by the Music Board, with the Director of Public Instruction as its chairman.

In Orissa, drawing was taught as a compulsory subject in all schools of the State. It was an optional subject in the Matriculation Examination but a compulsory subject in the Training Examination. In some girls' schools, particular attention was paid to painting. There was no institution in the State where students could learn drawing and painting. They were, therefore, sent outside on Government scholarships. An attempt was made by artists to start a School of Arts at Cuttack, but this school was not recognised by the Government.

In the Punjab, the new syllabus recognised the importance of Aesthetic education and incorporated Art, Dancing Drama and Music among recreational activities in the new scheme of studies. Efforts were made by schools in the State to create an awareness of beauty among children by fostering in them a love of flowers and beautiful pictures. The dearth of teachers who have specialised in the Fine Arts, however, continued to be a hindrance to Aesthetic education on the right lines. Music was introduced as an elective subject in the Middle schools as well as at the University level. The number of girls studying music increased yearly during the period under report.

The need of a School of Art on the lines of the Mayo School of Arts at Lahore was keenly felt. The Department of Industries started a Government School of Arts at Simla in 1951.

In Rajasthan, the School of Arts and Crafts functioned at Jaipur. It tried to meet the needs of Aesthetic education and imparted training in both vocal and instrumental Music, Drawing, Painting and Sculpture. Training in Fine Arts was also imparted at Piloni. The Happy School at Alwar and the Sangit School at Jhalawar provided facilities for training in the Fine Arts, Music and Dancing. Training in household craft, such as Tailoring, Knitting and Embroidery, was imparted in girls' schools throughout the State.

The Shri Swathi Thirumal Academy of Music functioned in Travancore-Cochin during 1947-52. There were besides, three private schools of Music in the State.

During 1950-51, the College of Music and Fine Arts was started as a private institution in *Tripura*. A second Music School functioned in the State.

Aesthetics was a popular subject with girls in *Uttar Pradesh*, but the teaching was primarily organised by private bodies and the Department merely granted aid to them. The *Maris College of Hindustani Music*, Lucknow and the *Paryag Sangit Samiti*, Allahabad were two important institutions of this type, that organised short art exhibitions, dramas and concerts during the Quinquennium. The *Government School of Arts and Crafts*, Lucknow, was the only institution in the State that imparted teaching in Aesthetics.

The Government of *Vindhya Pradesh* did not maintain any special institution for Art, Drawing and Music. In some deserving cases, however, private institutions were given grants-in-aid. Later on, these subjects were introduced into High schools and Intermediate colleges as optional subjects.

(iii) *Cultural Development and International Activities in the States.*

Below is a brief review of what each State of the Indian Union has done between 1947-52 in the field of cultural development and international activities. It gives an account of the fellowship and scholarships awarded and utilised by the States and the Seminars and symposia organised by them.

Much has still to be done both in encouraging the appreciation of the Arts, and in fostering ideals of international understanding in *Ajmer*, but a beginning was made in most institutions during the period under review. In educational institutions beyond the Middle school stage, special attention was paid to promoting cultural activities not included in the syllabus. These were supplemented in the rural areas by Social education activities, that besides being concerned with spreading literacy and imparting useful information to villagers, sought to bring Music, Drama and Dance to the people. Mention may be made of some non-official efforts in cultural development. The *Rajputana Fine Arts Association* staged plays, arranged an exhibition of paintings and gave programmes of Music and Dance. *Government College, Ajmer*, has held annual *Mushairas* and a *Kavi Samelan* that attracted a large public.

Ajmer has continued to occupy a prominent place in the tourist map of India on account of its historical importance and picturesque scenery. This has brought to her a number of foreign visitors, a fact that has especially benefitted her educational institutions, as international contacts are most fruitful in this field. The study of the activities of the United Nations and its specialised agencies has been encouraged in schools and colleges. Many educational institutions have celebrated Human Rights Day.

There is little to record by way of cultural development in the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*. The School participated in such events as the observance of United Nations Day, the celebration of the Declaration of Human Rights, the sale of World Health Organisation stamps, etc.

To provide an incentive to cultural development in Bihar, the Government opened research institutes, subsidized libraries and sanctioned grants to institutions, societies and clubs dedicated to the cause of developing Fine Arts and other cultural activities. Expenditure on this head amounted to Rs. 1,87,024 during 1951-52.

To revive ancient Indian culture, two Research Institutes were started during 1951-52 at Nalanda and Darbhanga, viz., the Nalanda Institute of Research in Pali and Allied Languages and the Mithila Institute at Darbhanga for Post-graduate Studies and Research in Sanskrit Literature. Valuable work in this field was done by the K. P. Jaiswal Research Institute at Patna, as well as by the Bihar Research Society. The Patna University started a department of Ancient Indian History and Culture during the Quinquennium. A research institute for Jains is expected to be established at Vaishali in the near future.

A number of progressive institutions and libraries were supplied with radios. The Government have a scheme ready for the establishment of a State Central Library at Patna and five State Libraries in five districts. A recurring grant of one lakh of rupees for distribution to libraries was sanctioned.

An Institute of Music was started by the Patna University during the Quinquennium and provision was made for the teaching of Music up to the Intermediate in Arts in the Magadh Mahila College at Patna. The Bhatkande School of Music gives training in Music. The Anglo-Indian Secondary schools for girls prepared pupils for Music examinations of the Trinity College of Music, London. Entertainment parties, *Mod-mandalis* and *Jatra Parties* have been organised with the object of giving performances in Drama, Dialogue and Folk Dance. Music has been included in the syllabus of Primary and Middle schools, and it has been made an optional subject for the Secondary examination. The Patna School of Arts was reorganised and arts and crafts formed the basis of instruction in Primary, Elementary or Basic education centres.

A contingent of 14 Scouts was sent to the Seventh World Jamboree held in France in August 1947. Bihar Scouts stood first in the world competition in archery.

During 1949-50, 19 scholars, including two women went abroad for advanced studies. Out of the two scholars who left for the U.S.A., one went to study Science and the other Agriculture. Thirteen

scholars, including two women, left for the U.K. to study Medicine and Veterinary Science. Of the remaining four, one went to study Engineering, two went for Agriculture and one for Technology. Of these 19 scholars, 14 proceeded on Government scholarships while five went at their own expense. Half the cost of scholarships awarded to the scholars for the study of Technology was borne by the Central Government.

In 1950-51, 23 scholars went abroad. One left for Australia to study Agriculture, while the rest went to the U.K.—two to study Science, one Engineering, 15 Medicine (these included two women scholars), three Forestry and Agriculture and one Technology. Seven scholars were awarded Government scholarships while 16 financed themselves.

Three scholarships were awarded to students going to the U.K., 50 per cent of each scholarship being borne by the Central Government. Two scholars were awarded the Rockefeller Fellowship for the study of Medicine.

In 1951-52, 16 scholars went abroad for further studies. Eight scholars left for the U.K.—four to study Education, one for Science, one for Agricultural Chemistry, one for Medicine and one for Radiology. Two scholars left for the U.S.A.—one to study Geology and another Pathology. Five scholars went to Australia to study Agriculture. Another scholar left for Africa (Egypt) to study Education (Arabic). Of the 16 scholars mentioned above, five went on Government scholarships while 11 were private students. Four scholars, who were awarded fellowships by the Australian Government under the Commonwealth Technical Cooperation Scheme, went to Australia for the study of Agriculture. Half the cost of a scholarship awarded to a scholar who went to the U.S.A. to study Geology (Education) was borne by the Centre.

The State Government did much to provide facilities for those who wished to study foreign languages. Two scholarships for the study of foreign languages, Arabic and a European language other than English, were created during 1949-50, the Government of India having agreed to bear 50 per cent of the cost. The Government of Bihar also agreed to the teaching of foreign languages in the Patna Science College in 1950-51.

In *Hyderabad*, one Government employee proceeded to the U.K. in 1950-51 on a United Nations Social Welfare-Fellowship, while another proceeded on a Fellowship to the U.S.A. under the Technical Assistance Scheme—Point Four Programme. In the same year, one Government employee proceeded to Australia on a Junior Fellowship under the Commonwealth Technical Cooperation Scheme, while another went to attend seminars in Librarianship.

During 1950-51, one student from *Madhya Bharat* was sent to the U.S.A., and another to the U.K.

The All-India Adult Education Seminar was organised at Indore in *Madhya Bharat* in 1951. Officers of the Department were deputed to take part in the different Educational Conferences and Seminars.

During the period under review there were two important exhibitions at *Manipur*, one sponsored by the State Government and the other by the State Congress Party, for cultural and industrial development. There were also several cultural shows and symposia arranged by the students and members of cultural institutions.

In the field of international activity a few essay competitions on international themes were organised among college and High school students.

The Government of *Madras* had a scheme for scholarships for its officials working in various government departments by which selected lecturers from the *Madras Educational Service* and *Madras Educational Subordinate Services* were sent abroad for post-graduate study. One officer was deputed for a short period of two months to *Trinidad* and *Jamaica* to acquaint himself with methods of *Banana Research*. For *Medical Research* four men and one woman were sent to *England* on deputation terms during 1949-50. Two officers were deputed in 1949-50 for study in *Agricultural Farm Credit, Administration of Agricultural Cooperation, Marketing, Industrial Cooperation, Cooperative Educational Propaganda, Consumers' Cooperation, Cooperative Dairying and Farming*. They visited the U.S.A., *Canada, the United Kingdom, Denmark, Switzerland, Sweden and Norway*. For *Animal Husbandry*, three Officers were sent in 1949-50 on deputation terms, one to the *United States*, one to the *United Kingdom* and another to *France*. The *Chief Probation Superintendent, Madras*, proceeded on a *United Nations Fellowship* for six months, to the *United States* to study *Social Welfare activities*.

The *Reader in Psychology, University of Madras*, was awarded a *Travel Fellowship* by the *United Nations* for observing *Child Welfare and Guidance Centres* and visiting *Psychological clinics* in the *United States* in 1948.

Five officers from the *Andhra University* were deputed in 1949-50 for further studies. Two went to the *United States* to study *Technology and Commerce*, two left for the *United Kingdom* for *Science* while one proceeded to *Sweden* to study *Science*.

A number of *University teachers* received *foreign deputation scholarships* awarded by the *Government of India* and *foreign bodies* such as the *Australian Government, the British Council* and the

United States Educational Foundation. Besides giving necessary facilities to the deputationists and awarding to some teachers deputation scholarships or fellowships with which the University has been endowed by private bodies, the Andhra University sent teachers abroad, bearing the cost itself. The deputation programme helped the universities to train their teachers in highly specialised fields of science and enabled them to standardise or reorganise specialist post graduate courses in the Applied Sciences. As many as 29 students proceeded abroad for further studies during 1951-52. Six proceeded to the United States for Medicine and Veterinary courses while 11 went to study Medicine, Agriculture, Engineering, Banking, Science Arts, Business Administration, Library, Statistics, Education and Fine Arts in the U.K. Four others went to Canada and three to other North American and European countries.

Seminars and Symposia

Education Week Celebrations are an event of the year in the State of Madras. The South India Teacher's Union in cooperation with leading associations interested in the promotion of Education, organises an Education Week annually in the month of October. The main purpose of the Week is to interpret schools to the people. The programme for each week is built round a central theme. The programme includes lectures, exhibitions and demonstrations.

A seminar on Social Studies was conducted at the Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education, Saidapet, in 1950.

The South Indian Adult Education Association conducted the first Regional Seminar for Adult Education in the South in April, 1951, at Adyar. The Government of India sanctioned a grant of Rs. 5,000 and the State Government Rs. 1,000 towards the conduct of the course.

The Vice-Chancellor of the Andhra University attended the Congress of the Universities of the British Empire at the University of Oxford, as well as the preliminary and informal conference of the Heads of the Universities in the Commonwealth, held at Bristol. The Vice-Chancellor of the Madras University attended many international conferences. Other delegations attended international meetings of academic bodies like the International Botanical Congress, International Geographical Union, and Institute of Commonwealth Studies, London.

These apart, University teachers were deputed to various conferences, seminars, symposia held within India. Some of these conferences were the Indian Science Congress, the Indian Academy of Sciences, the Conference of Chemical Engineers, the Indian History Congress, the Indian Economic Conference, the All-India Commerce

Conference, the Indian Philosophical Congress, the Indian Mathematical Conference, the All-India Pharmaceutical Conference, the Indian Conference of Social Work, the Indian Political Conference and the South-East Asia Teachers' Seminars.

In 1951-52, six candidates from Orissa went to the U.S.A. to study Medicine, Veterinary Science and Commerce while one woman candidate went on a scholarship to the U.K. for Medicine and Veterinary Science.

Since 1947 the policy of the State Government has been to restrict the sending out of candidates to foreign countries on scholarships unless such higher training is considered absolutely necessary. Usually, the candidates sent out by the State Government fall under two categories: (a) Those who are allowed study leave, and (b) those who are granted loan scholarships.

In 1949-50, there was an All-India Basic Education Conference held in Orissa, where delegates gathered from all parts of India to discuss problems connected with Basic education. In the same year, the All-India Historical Society and the Central Advisory Board held their conferences at Cuttack.

The University of the Punjab established a Foreign Information Bureau which has been functioning for several years now to help and supply information to students intending to go abroad for higher, technical, professional, scientific and other studies. Hundreds of enquiries are received annually and answered on types of overseas scholarships, U.N./Unesco Fellowships and Fulbright/Technical Assistance Programme, etc.

During the Quinquennium, neither the Department nor the University was able to devote enough attention to this side of cultural development. Refresher courses for in-service personnel have however, been held from time to time, chiefly at the Government Training College for Teachers, Jullundur.

A cultural activity that calls for special mention in *Rajasthan* is the opening of libraries. Both before and after the merger in 1949, the Government of the State gave this activity special attention. There are, in the State, Class 'A' Libraries, Town Libraries, Village Libraries, and aided libraries and reading rooms, the last having received aid from the Government only after 1947. Mobile Libraries are another interesting feature. These are wooden boxes containing 15 selected books each, to be sent round to provide reading facilities for the people in the country-side. The experiment is being tried out in Jaipur State. The total number of Libraries in 1947 was 88. In 1951 it rose to 153.

During the Quinquennium under review, only one candidate from Rajasthan proceeded abroad on a scholarship. He went to Italy.

Seminars and symposia were organised in the State by teachers and students in connection with United Nations Day and Human Rights Day.

The Government of *Uttar Pradesh* provided suitable facilities to all educational institutions in the State to celebrate such events as United Nations Day and Human Rights Day.

Similarly, the Government gave financial aid to all organisations engaged in educational, literary and cultural activities. Among bodies receiving such aid were the Hindustani Academy, Allahabad, the Ganga Nath Jha Research Institute, Allahabad, the Seva Samiti Allahabad, the National Academy of Sciences, the Uttar Pradesh Historical Society, the Numismatic Society in India, the Anjumani Arabic, Allahabad, the Ethnographic and Folk Culture Society, Lucknow, the Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, the Nagri Pracharini Sabha, Banaras, and the Braj Sahitya Mandal, Mathura.

CHAPTER XI

THE EDUCATION OF SPECIAL COMMUNITIES AND CLASSES

(i) *Anglo-Indian and European Education*

The education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans in India continued to be conducted at special institutions in all grades. After 1947 many Europeans left the country. The number of educational institutions for Anglo-Indian and Europeans decreased, but there was no diminution in the number of students on their rolls. The Constitution of India stipulated that a grant would be paid only to those institutions that made available 40 per cent of their admission to communities other than the Anglo-Indian community. As a result of this provision, the number of non-Anglo-Indian students at these institutions increased throughout the country.

These institutions continued to receive grants from various State Governments. The Constitution of India guaranteed for three years, beginning from 1950-51, the payment of the same grants as had been paid during 1947-48. The grants were, however, to be scaled down by ten per cent every three years and to cease at the end of ten years from the date of the enactment of the Constitution.

There were 13 recognised and Government aided Anglo-Indian schools in Bihar during 1951-52 as against 17 during 1946-47. Four of these were Secondary and the others Primary. Enrolment in all these schools in 1951-52 was 1,611 as against 1,399 during 1946-47. The direct expenditure was Rs. 3,24,340 as against Rs. 3,27,882 during 1946-47.

During the Quinquennium, the number of Secondary schools for Anglo-Indians remained stationary at four, but Elementary schools decreased by four.

With the end of British rule in India in 1947, several Europeans left Hyderabad. Thus, only a few institutions that styled themselves as Anglo-Indian Schools functioned in the State.

There were certain institutions run by the Missionaries in Madhya Bharat, but none was meant exclusively for Anglo-Indians or Europeans.

In Madras, St. Francis Xavier School, Broadway, St. Theresa's Girls' High School, Cannanore, the Sacred Heart Girls' High School, Villupuram and St. John De Britto's High School, Fort Cochin, were

raised to the status of High schools during the Quinquennium. Two schools in Thangasseri were transferred to Travancore-Cochin State from January, 1950. The Doveton Training School, Vepery, was closed down and Nazareth Convent, Ootacamund was withdrawn from the list of recognised schools. The Lawrence School, Lovedale, which was formerly a military institution under private management was transferred to the control of the Ministry of Education, Government of India. St. Hilda's High School, Ootacamund, was removed from the list of recognised High schools. St. Anne's School was amalgamated with St. Aloysius's High School, Vepery, and St. Gabriel's School with St. Joseph's Girls' High School, Coonoor. St. George's Cathedral School, Royapettah and St. Stephen's School, Pallavaram (Primary schools), were closed down. The Mountain Home School, Coonoor, was reduced from the status of a Middle school to that of a Primary school. Thus, the total number of Anglo-Indian Schools decreased from 75 in 1947 to 65 in 1952. During 1951-52, 34 Anglo-Indian Schools had boarding homes attached to them. The number of boarders was 3,849. Although the number of schools decreased, the strength of the schools increased from 13,238 in 1946-47 to 16,910 in 1951-52. Out of 16,910 students, 11,560 were studying at High schools, 4,094 at Middle schools, 1,197 at Primary schools, and 59 at Training schools. 184 Anglo-Indian and European pupils attended Arts and Professional colleges for Indians and 11,728 were enrolled at other Indian schools.

Although these schools were intended primarily for Anglo-Indian children, they were allowed to admit non-Anglo-Indian pupils up to 49 per cent of their total strength. In special cases, the Director could sanction admission of non-Anglo-Indian pupils even beyond this percentage. As a result, the number of non-Anglo-Indian pupils in Anglo-Indian Schools has increased. The number of non-Anglo-Indian pupils in 1951-52 was 6,532 as against 3,295 in 1946-47. The percentage of non-Anglo-Indian pupils to the total number of pupils increased from 24.8 per cent to 40 per cent.

There was a dearth of qualified teachers in Anglo-Indian schools during the Quinquennium. Untrained teachers were employed in many schools. The number of trained and untrained teachers in 1951-52 was 753 and 86 respectively, as against 717 and 142 respectively, in 1946-47.

The syllabuses in Geography and Needle-work for High schools, and Geography, Domestic Science and Needle-work for Middle schools were revised and approved by the Government.

The study of regional languages or Hindi was made compulsory in all Anglo-Indian schools. Hindi was introduced as a compulsory third language into 18 High schools and provision was made for its

introduction into 15 Middle schools and 11 Primary schools. Bifurcated courses were also introduced into three High schools.

There were five schools in *Mysore* for Anglo-Indians and Europeans at the beginning of the period under review.

With the attainment of independence and the retrocession of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore in the year 1947-48, Anglo-Indian and European schools in the Civil Area came under the control of the Department. These schools, however, continued to obtain a grant-in-aid as before. Six other schools that were composite in nature, and had Infant, Primary, Middle and High school classes attached to them, were placed under the control of the Department. Their total strength during 1951-52 was 2,138.

They were administered by a governing body of representatives of religious societies. They were thrown open to all communities and both, day-scholars and boarders, were admitted. These schools prepared candidates for the Bangalore European Middle and High School Examinations as well as for Cambridge Examinations.

There were no special facilities for the education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans in Orissa as the number of Anglo-Indians and Europeans was small. Only three institutions of this kind existed, and these were managed and maintained either by private bodies or by the Railway Department. Of these, two were located at Cuttack and one at Khurda Road. Two are Secondary, and one is a Primary institution.

The institutions were managed by Europeans and Anglo-Indians, but admitted a large number of Indian children. During 1947-48, the total enrolment was 480 out of which, the number of non-Europeans was 204. In 1951-52, the total enrolment stood at 537, with 322 non-Europeans.

The institutions received a liberal grant from the Government during 1947-48. The total expenditure on them was Rs. 1,46,167 of which a sum of Rs. 49,028 was met from Government grant. In 1951-52, the respective figures were Rs. 1,92,863 and Rs. 51,632. The Director of Public Instruction, Orissa, continued to perform the duties of Inspector of European Schools. The schools prepared candidates for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate and Junior Cambridge Examinations.

In the *Punjab*, Anglo-Indian and European Education suffered a set-back after the partition of the country. Towards the end of the Quinquennium there were only two High schools for boys, four for girls (co-educational), one Primary school and one Training college for the Trained Teachers' Certificate Course.

The following statement gives a comparative study of the enrolment and the expenditure during the period:

Year	Enrolment	Expenditure (Direct & Indirect)	Amount of grant paid	Special grant
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1947-48	587	4,76,177	11,471	...
1948-49	861	7,81,843	16,958	...
1949-50	1,086	4,84,857	16,958	...
1950-51	1,014	8,94,396	...	5,000
1951-52	1,100	10,36,767	14,515	10,483

During the Quinquennium, the number of Anglo-Indian children at these institutions decreased and the number of Indian children increased very considerably.

In *Rajasthan*, only eight institutions for Anglo-Indian and European education were located within the Directorate. They were all managed and financed by private bodies and were of different standards, *viz.*, Middle and High schools meant both for boys and girls, and one exclusively for girls. All the eight institutions were Railway schools and were located at Phulera, Gangapur and Bandikui.

The fact that the future of the Anglo-Indian and European institutions is guaranteed by the Constitution has induced such institutions in *Uttar Pradesh* to adapt themselves to changed conditions. There were 38 institutions, both aided and unaided. 26 hostels and five Teachers' Training classes were attached to them. These institutions recorded considerable progress during the Quinquennium under review. They made provision for the teaching of Hindi.

(ii) *Special Institutions (like public schools, etc.)*

There were about 35 schools in India, including those formerly known as Chiefs' Colleges, which were run on the lines of English Public Schools. A majority of these schools had, however, adapted the Public School system to Indian conditions. They had certain common features, *e.g.*, emphasis on games, special attention to character building, training in citizenship and development of qualities of leadership. As the financial position of some of these schools had deteriorated and the need for institutions like them was real, it was proposed to give financial aid to those unable to survive without it.

The Lawrence School, Sanawar (Simla Hills), which was formerly a military institution under the administrative control of the Ministry of Defence, and the Lawrence School, Lovedale (Nilgiris), which was also a military institution under private management, were taken over by the Ministry of Education with effect from 1st April,

1949, and 14th May, 1949, respectively, and run as special residential schools on the lines of Public Schools. Forty per cent of the seats in each of these schools were reserved for the children of Armed Forces personnel of all ranks. In addition, the schools provided educational facilities to "entitled" children, viz., children whose parents had served in the British Indian Army and had been treated as British officers or soldiers, and were entitled to admission at concessional rates prior to the taking over of these schools by the Ministry of Education. These concessions were offered in accordance with past commitments. A scheme of scholarships for needy and deserving children was also worked out for the schools.

There were a few public schools in *Rajasthan*. The Sadul Public School, Bikaner, was the only institution that was recognised by the Government of Rajasthan. There were besides a few other schools which were run more or less on the lines of Public Schools.

The Rajkumar College at Rajkot was the only Public School in *Saurashtra*. It was one of the oldest non-government institutions and, till recently, was meant only for the sons of Rulers of States and talukas. Now, its admission is open to the public.

There were important Public Schools in *Uttar Pradesh* of which special mention may be made of the Virla Mandir at Naini Tal, Manav Bharti at Mussoorie, and the Doon School at Dehra Dun. The Hewett Kshattriya and the Udai Pratap College of Banaras were run on similar lines. Corporate hostel life and emphasis on the development of *esprit de corps*, character, personality and qualities of leadership were special features of these institutions.

Grants were paid to certain other non-Government schools at Delhi, Dehra Dun, Simla, Mukhtesar and elsewhere, which are maintained primarily for the education of the children of employees of the Government of India living at these places. The Delhi and Simla schools were transferred to the Delhi State Administration in 1949-50.

On account of the special subjects it offers, viz., Arts and Crafts, and Domestic Science, the Lady Irwin College for Women, New Delhi, was placed on a special footing and grants were paid to it directly by the Government of India.

In the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*, one Primary school, known as the Modern Preparatory School, was opened during the period under review. It was managed by a private agency.

In *Hyderabad*, there was one school to which children of *jagirdars* were admitted. After the abolition of *Jagirs* it was registered under the Societies Registration Act on September 21, 1951. The school

was then named the Public School, Begumpet. Music, Art, Photography and Gardening were taught as extra-curricular activities. Medical facilities were provided to students of this institution.

During 1951-52, there were nine Borstal and reformatory schools in Madras, which had a strength of 2,315 boys and 435 girls. Besides, there were a few other institutions in the State which were authorised to receive 'certified' children. The schools and the industrial and vocational sections worked satisfactorily.

The total expenditure on account of the certified schools for 1951 was Rs. 11,99,700. The grants to private certified schools increased from Rs. 2,95,800 to Rs. 3,81,800 during the Quinquennium.

In Orissa, there were no special institutions like Public Schools. There were, however, four Madrasas and 126 Tols reckoned as special institutions, in the State.

In spite of the Government's sympathetic attitude, this type of education suffered because it appeared to be losing public support. There were special officers who organised and helped the growth of these institutions.

A progressive co-educational junior model school was started at Jullundur in the Punjab during the Quinquennium. The rapid progress and popularity of this school showed that middle class parents were willing to pay enhanced fees for the better education of their children. The school was organised on a "pay-its-way" basis.

(iii) *The Education of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes*

With independence, the concept of the Welfare State has acquired a new significance. One manifestation of this is the acceptance by the State of the obligation to promote the education of Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes. This acceptance was based on the recognition that a democracy cannot attain its full stature if any section of the community remains educationally or otherwise backward and weak. The new Constitution laid down that 'the State shall promote with a special care, the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation'. Accordingly, the Central Government allotted a large sum of money for scholarships to the children of these Classes for post-Matriculation studies.

In 1948, the Scheduled Caste Scholarships Scheme was enlarged to include within its scope students of Scheduled Tribes, and an additional sum of Rs. 50,000 for scholarships was sanctioned. The amount

was raised to Rs. 10 lakhs in 1949-50, and the benefits of the scheme were extended to students of Other Backward Classes. In the two succeeding years, the amount provided was Rs. 12 lakhs and Rs. 15 lakhs respectively.

Under this scheme, thousands of students were able to pursue their studies beyond the Matriculation stage in subjects like Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Technology, Science and Arts, etc. As many as 2,834 scholarships were sanctioned to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes during 1951-52. Out of these, 899 were for professional, 104 for post-graduate and 556 for graduate students. Total expenditure incurred up to 1951-52 on this scheme amounted to Rs. 54,34,868. In addition, a sum of nearly two crores of rupees annually was spent by the State Governments on the Primary and Secondary education of these classes.

In *Ajmer*, the number of students belonging to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Communities, recorded an increase of about 300 per cent during the Quinquennium. Primary Education was free in all Government schools and the children belonging to these communities were given preference in matters of free concessions. During 1950-51, a sum of Rs. 14,480 was paid in the shape of scholarships to 795 such students. In 1951-52, the expenditure on scholarships amounted to Rs. 26,500.

Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Students of the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*, who proceeded for higher studies in the mainland, were granted scholarships by the Government.

In *Assam*, there were 44 High schools, 201 Middle schools, 3,336 Primary schools and 166 Professional schools for the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities. Out of these, four High schools, 19 Middle schools, 258 Primary schools and nine Professional schools were meant for girls only. The total number of students in these institutions was 13,329, 27,282, 2,04,338 and 5,590 respectively.

There were several financial concessions given to Scheduled Caste students and Other Backward Classes during 1947-52. As many as 48 scholarships were reserved for Scheduled Castes and 36 for other Backward Classes at the pre-Matriculation stage, and 12 and 18 respectively, for post-Matriculation students.

In Government H. E. and M. E. schools, 20 per cent of the Scheduled Caste and 15 per cent of Ahom students were entitled to free and half-free studentships. Similar arrangements for granting free and half-free studentships were in force in aided High schools.

In *Bihar*, there was a substantial rise in the number of pupils of Scheduled Castes at different stages of education during the Quinquennium. This is shown from the table below :

	1946-47		1951-52	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
University stage	27	..
College stage	105	1	442	..
High including post Basic stage	1,464	7	7,621	119
Middle including Senior Basic stage	2,627	25	13,272	786
Primary including Junior Basic stage	45,757	2,433	92,993	8,200
Professional Schools	323	26	2,447	113
Unrecognised schools	1,912	150	2,642	682
TOTAL	52,188	2,642	1,10,444	9,900
GRAND TOTAL	54,830		1,29,344	

There were 1,769 schools for boys and 91 for girls, exclusively meant for Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities (including Backward Tribes and Backward Communities among Hindus and Muslims). The enrolment in these schools was 54,536 boys and 8,155 girls during 1951-52. Another 8,69,999 boys and 80,287 girls of the Scheduled Castes studied in other institutions. Of these, 6,126 boys and 166 girls were students in Arts and Science colleges. The total expenditure on these schools amounted to Rs. 7,65,767, out of which Rs. 4,72,354 came from the Government, Rs. 2,27,959 from local bodies, and the balance from fees and other sources. Financial assistance was given to 19,598 boys and 1,588 girls of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities during 1947-48. The total annual value of the concession was Rs. 17,36,597.

Three Inspecting Officers for Depressed Classes under the administrative control of the Education Department, four Supervisors and one Superintendent of Backward Muslim *Maktabs* under the control of the Welfare Department, formed special agencies to look after the education of the Scheduled Castes and Backward Muslim Communities.

In *Bilaspur*, children belonging to Scheduled Caste and Backward Communities were admitted free to various State institutions. There was no levy of fees for them at any stage. A reasonable quota of scholarships was also allotted to these children in Middle as well as High schools. Over 400 Harijan students (about 10 per cent of the total Harijan population) studied in State schools during the period under report.

In *Bombay*, the number of pupils of the Backward Classes registered a rapid rise in all institutions. The increase was over 200 per cent and was partly due to the awakening among these Classes, and partly to the encouragement given them by the Government in the form of facilities. Another factor which contributed to the rise, was the merging of neighbouring states into Bombay State.

Students belonging to the Backward Classes were exempted from payment of fees in colleges and Secondary and Primary institutions. Other concessions comprised scholarships, exemption from payment of examination fees, concessional examination fee at the Primary School Certificate Examination, and exemption from hostel rent. Seats were also reserved in Government Secondary schools and colleges for students belonging to these classes, and clothes, books and other writing materials were supplied to them. The total expenditure on these ameliorative measures increased from Rs. 2,89,777 in 1946-47 to Rs. 19,57,021 at the end of the Quinquennium.

In addition to the Backward Classes Hostel at Poona, a new hostel was started by the Government at Hubli. The number of Backward Classes' hostels run by private bodies rose from 34 in 1947 to 197 in 1952. Besides these, other hostels were maintained by District Boards for students belonging to these classes and communities.

Two Primary schools in Sirmoor District were specially reserved for students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Backward Communities in *Himachal Pradesh*. Other institutions in the State were also open to them. No fees were charged from Harijan students at any stage of education.

Great progress was made in the education of Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities in *Hyderabad* during 1947-48. As many as 185 schools existed for Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes in 1951-52. Students of these communities were admitted to other institutions in the State. Education in special schools was free for Harijan pupils and scholarships were awarded to them. In addition to facilities, books and stationery were supplied free of cost and poor students were given free clothing. Stipends and other financial concessions, amounting to Rs. 2,45,531, were awarded to 9,628 boys and 1,999 girls in 1950-51, whereas Rs. 3,50,971 were spent on such concessions awarded to 15,217 boys and 1,754 girls during 1951-52.

There were 11 hostels specially intended for the pupils of the Scheduled Castes. These hostels received grant-in-aid from the Government. A new hostel was opened at Hyderabad during the year 1950-51.

A number of facilities were given to students of these Communities in *Madhya Bharat*. No tuition fee was charged from them. They were also given scholarships and reading and writing material on merit. In certain places special hostels were set up where free board and lodging were provided.

A separate Department, called the 'Harijan Welfare Department' was set up in *Madras* for the amelioration of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes. Important measures undertaken by the Department were the maintenance of Secondary and Elementary schools, the provision of scholarships, boarding grants and grants for the purchase of books, clothes and for the payment of examination fees; the maintenance of free hostels at important centres; and the grant of financial assistance to private bodies for the maintenance of hostels and schools.

The number of Harijan Welfare schools rose from 1,194 in 1947 to 1,353 in 1952, and the number of students increased from 84,432 to 92,755 during the same period. The number of scholarships increased by nearly 275 per cent while that of residential institutions increased sixfold during the period under report. The number of Elementary schools intended for the Scheduled Castes converted to Christianity stood at 3,742 on March 31, 1952, as compared with 1,194 on April 1, 1947. The children of Scheduled Castes were also admitted to other schools during the Quinquennium. Thus, in 1952, 5,72,644 pupils were under instruction in Elementary schools as against 84,432 in 1947. Besides, there were 13,177 boys and 2,586 girls in High schools and 1,017 pupil-teachers in Training schools at the end of the Quinquennium.

Harijan students, studying at Harijan Welfare schools, were given midday meals. This resulted in an improvement in their health and served as an incentive for larger attendance.

There were two Government High schools and one Middle school exclusively for Harijans where the number of pupils under instruction was 683 boys and 31 girls in 1951-52 as against 493 in 1947-48. The number of Harijan teachers working in all Elementary schools was 3,050 in 1952 as against 2,469 in 1947. As many as 518 hostels run by private agencies were subsidized by the Department at a cost of Rs. 20 lakhs in 1951-52.

Ten per cent of seats in all Secondary Training schools, Government Arts and Training colleges and the Law colleges, were reserved for Harijans. Similarly ten per cent of seats in the hostels were earmarked for Harijan students.

There were about two and a half lakhs of students belonging to the Backward Classes in Primary schools, 2,188 in Middle and High schools and 305 students in Training schools. The total number of Elementary schools mainly intended for the Backward Communities was 2,259 with an enrolment of 1,50,073 boys and 94,748 girls.

A number of Government and aided Primary schools were established in different backward areas of *Manipur* to promote the education of Backward Communities. In 1950, seven Government schools were established followed by 25 in the next year.

The Depressed Classes and Other Backward Communities in *Mysore* comprised about 18 per cent of the population. The Government of *Mysore*, therefore, took steps to expand educational facilities for these communities. Broadly speaking, the educational facilities offered to them consisted of fee concessions, supply of books and slates, free supply of clothes, and the award of scholarships. New schools were opened exclusively for these communities. The number of such schools increased from 426 in 1946-47 to 441 in 1951-52. Correspondingly, the number of pupils in them rose from 47,778 in 1946-47 to 92,291 in 1951-52.

There were 11 Government hostels for Depressed Class students spread all over the State. Free board and lodging, medical help, books and furniture were provided to the inmates. Physical exercise, drill and games were compulsory in these hostels and gardening was encouraged. Weekly *Bhajans* were a regular feature. In addition to these, there were 56 aided Hostels in the State.

The Educational Advisory Committee of the *Mysore* State looked after the education and amelioration of the Depressed Classes.

As the Scheduled Castes, Tribes and Backward Classes in *Orissa* constituted 35 per cent of the entire population of the State, the Government paid great attention to the education of these classes and provided special facilities in the form of exemption from tuition fees, reservation of scholarships and stipends for deserving pupils; the free supply of books, clothes, and the maintenance of orphanages and boarding houses for destitute children. Separate institutions called *Seva Ashrams* and *Ashram schools* were started.

As a result of these measures, the number of children of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities in different types of institutions registered steady increase. The number of these students increased from 36,813 boys and 6,319 girls in 1947-48 to 1,15,780 boys and 17,489 girls in 1951-52.

There were two schools exclusively meant for Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes in *Pepsu*. Their enrolment was 631

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in 1951-52. Students were exempted from the payment of tuition fees. A separate Department known as the Backward Classes Department, awarded scholarships to students of the Backward Classes at colleges and schools. Stipends to the value of Rs. 4,52,716 were given to 11,526 students during the period under report.

In the *Punjab*, Social education centres proved of great help not only in the spread of literacy, but also in the removal of the curse of untouchability. Special institutions for Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Communities were discouraged and admission to Government recognised institutions was thrown open to them as to other members of the community.

The Harijan Welfare Scheme was launched to better the lot of the Depressed Classes. Harijan students were given freeships in schools and colleges; stipends varying from Rs. 6 to Rs. 25 were paid and examination fees refunded. The freeships were made available for ten years, with effect from October 1, 1948. A Special Officer was appointed to supervise the working of this scheme. In some schools, books, stationery and other requisites of studies were also supplied to Scheduled Caste students out of the Red Cross Fund.

In addition to these privileges, local bodies granted Middle School Scholarships to students of these classes. About a quarter of the seats in training institutions were reserved for members of these classes, who possessed the requisite qualifications. Special stipends were awarded to the trainees.

The total expenditure on various educational concessions, admissible under the Harijan Welfare Scheme, amounted to Rs. 12,16,011 during 1948-52.

During 1947-52, freeships, half-freeships, scholarships and stipends were given to the students of these communities in *Rajasthan*. The nomenclature "Harijan schools" was dropped and all such schools were called Government schools. Further, a Director for the Backward Classes and Welfare Department, was appointed to look after the welfare of these students.

Harijan students in *Saurashtra* were exempted from the payment of tuition fees at all stages of education.

Two schools, especially for adults and Harijans functioned at Agartala (outside the municipal area) in *Tripura* State during the Quinquennium.

Special facilities for the education of Harijan and Other Backward Class students were provided every year in *Uttar Pradesh*. All poor Harijan students from the Primary to the University stage were exempted from the payment of fees and this amount was made up by the Government. About 35,000 Harijan students benefited from these freeships in 1951-52, and the total expenditure amounted

to Rs. 9 lakhs. Every Harijan student in the degree and post-graduate classes was given a scholarship; consequently the number of such scholarships increased considerably during the period under review. Free hostel accommodation was provided for Harijan students in large educational centres and free libraries and reading rooms were set up in Harijan *Bastis*. Sufficient seats were reserved for Harijan students in all training colleges, normal schools and recognised educational institutions.

Expenditure on the education of Harijans and Backward Classes rose progressively from Rs. 7.9 lakh in 1947-48 to Rs. 22.69 in 1951-52. The provision of free education, scholarships and the free supply of textbooks resulted in a very large increase in the number of Harijan students. Enrolment rose from 6,321 in 1948-49 to 34,401 in 1951-52.

Special facilities were provided to students belonging to the Depressed Classes and Tribes in 1951-52 in *Vindhya Pradesh*. Ten per cent of accommodation was reserved for students of Depressed Classes in all hostels. A sum of Rs. 28,500 was provided for the purchase of books and stationery and another sum of Rs. 15,000 was granted as poverty scholarships. No fees were charged from Depressed Class students. Ten Harijan Schools, *Girari Ashram* and *Bharatpur Ashrams* were taken over by the Government. These institutions provided educational facilities to children of the Backward Classes, including Harijans. The *Harijan Ashram* at Rewa was granted a sum of Rs. 12,000 for this purpose.

(iv) *The Education of Tribal Peoples*

Till 1947, adequate educational and economic facilities did not exist for the tribal peoples of India. Special provisions were, therefore, included in the Indian Constitution that sought to ensure the welfare, educational and economic development and social autonomy of the Scheduled Tribes. With this end in view, the Central and State Governments provided special facilities for them during the Quinquennium.

Under the scheme of scholarships for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes, the Central Government granted 356 scholarships to tribal students in 1950-51 and 521 scholarships in 1951-52 for post-Matriculation studies. In addition to these Central scholarships, various State Governments provided special facilities for the Primary, Secondary and Higher education of tribal students.

There was one school in *Ajmer* exclusively for students belonging to *Sansis* and *Kanjars*. Enrolment in this school was 55, including

two girls, in 1951-52. Annual expenditure on this institution was estimated at Rs. 3,000.

Ten schools were opened in the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands* for the education of the Nicobarese.

In Assam, there were 16 High schools, 159 Middle schools and 1,879 Primary schools in hill areas run by various agencies. In addition to these, nine technical, industrial and commercial schools functioned during the Quinquennium. Fee concessions were granted to students of Scheduled Tribes; 223 scholarships were reserved for them at the pre-Matriculation stage and 23 for post-Matriculation students. At the same time, free studentships was granted to nine tribal students in the intermediate classes of Cotton College and certain special scholarships were awarded to the tribal students of the plains during 1951-52. In Government Higher English and Middle English schools, 50 per cent of the tribal students were entitled to free and half-free studentships. Similar arrangements existed in aided High schools.

The Five-Year Scheme for the Development of Education in Tribal Areas was approved and put into operation in 1947-48. Under this scheme, the posts of one Deputy Inspector of Schools, one Sub-Inspector of Schools and two Inspecting Pandits for the Naga Hills and two Sub-Inspectors of Schools for the Lushai Hills were created.

For the training of Primary school teachers in Excluded Areas, two aided Training schools were started in 1948-49. At the same time, the training school at Lungleh in the South Lushai Hills was given a recurring annual grant to provide facilities for the training of teachers in that Sub-Division. Stipends, each of the value of Rs. 20 per month, were provided to enable Primary teachers to undergo training in the Lungleh School.

In 1949-50, there were 216 Primary schools, 13 Secondary schools and three Special schools set up under the Scheme. In addition to these, nine Secondary and 16 aided Primary schools were established during 1949-50. For the inspection and supervision of schools in Tribal Areas, one Deputy Inspector of Schools, Naga Hills, four Sub-Inspectors of Schools, and one Assistant Sub-Inspector of Schools, were sanctioned. Total expenditure was Rs. 11,18,895.

Under Article 275(a) of the Constitution, a large sum of money was made available in 1950-51 to the State Government for the development of education in the Tribal Areas. The Assam Government drew up a scheme, according to which, grants-in-aid were sanctioned to 76 Secondary schools in autonomous districts. Two Middle English schools in the Mikir Hills and two in the Naga Hills were taken over by the Government from February 1, 1951. The average

annual expenditure for maintenance of these Middle English schools was approximately Rs. 50,000. A sum of Rs. 6,600 was allotted to the Junior Technical School (Basic), Kohima, for the purchase of equipment. Another sum of Rs. 53,000 was granted for the award of special scholarships to deserving students of the Tribal Areas. Accordingly, 365 scholarships were awarded for different courses of studies at rates varying from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40 per month each. In addition to these, three regular primary scholarships were created for Pawi pupils in South Lushai Hills.

Five Middle Vernacular schools in the Plains Tribal Areas were provincialized during 1950-51. Provision was made in the 1951-52 budget for the provincialization of ten more Middle Vernacular schools in Tribal and Backward areas.

Although it was the planter's obligation to provide adequate facilities in Primary education for the children of the labour force engaged in tea plantations, the Government maintained some schools in the tea garden areas and gave grants to several others. Steps were also taken to strengthen arrangements regarding the inspection of these institutions. At the same time, primary and middle scholarships were awarded to the children of ex-tea-garden labourers.

The education of the tribal people in Bihar recorded an all-round improvement during the Quinquennium. The following table states the number of pupils belonging to Backward Tribes (Aboriginals) at different stages of institution during 1946-47 and 1951-52:

Stages of Instruction	1946-47		1951-52	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
University Departments	14	1
Colleges	197	35	416	120
High including Post-Basic	2,956	624	5,059	321
Middle "Senior Basic"	5,182	1,209	12,256	1,352
Primary "Junior Basic"	76,116	16,231	95,875	17,947
Professional schools	566	326
Special schools	637	505	991	68
Unrecognised schools	2,608	445	4,342	612
Total	87,696	19,049	119,519	20,797
Grand Total	106,745		140,316	

The Special Inspecting Agency consisted of one Special Deputy Inspector of Schools and six Special Sub-Inspectors of Schools for Santal schools. The supervision of Pahariya schools was entrusted to the general inspectorate.

The number of pupils belonging to criminal tribes decreased from 118 in 1946-47 to 116 in 1951-52. Of the latter, 102 students were studying at Primary schools and 14 at Special schools.

In *Bombay*, a special committee was appointed to examine the question of education of the children of the Adivasi area of Thana District, and a cheap type of school building was constructed at Government cost in accordance with the recommendations of the Committee. Special classes for imparting suitable training to teachers working in schools in the Adivasi area were conducted. Compulsory Primary education was introduced into Umbargaon, Dhanu and Nobhada Taluks for the benefit of pupils in Adivasi areas. The number of these schools during 1951-52 was 98. The Primary schools in the Criminal Tribes settlement at free colonies at Sholapur, Jalgaon, Ahmedabad, Hubli and Gadag, that were conducted under the control of the Backward Classes Department, were handed over to respective Municipal Boards with effect from August 1, 1948. Total expenditure on Backward Classes increased from Rs. 3,09,669 in 1946-47 to Rs. 19,57,016 in 1951-52.

The education of the tribal people of *Hyderabad* was supervised by the Director, Social Service Department. There were only two Reformatory schools managed by the Government, one for boys and the other for girls. Enrolment increased from 213 in 1949-50 to 269 in 1951-52, and expenditure rose from Rs. 37,570 to Rs. 45,510.

The total number of Elementary schools specially intended for Scheduled Tribes in *Madras* on March 31, 1952, was 366 with an enrolment of 13,288 boys and 3,901 girls. Twenty-one schools in the Kurnool District were for *Chenchus* while 69 schools in the Nilgiris Districts served hill tribes. There were, in addition, four Secondary schools and 436 Elementary schools in the Adivasi areas with 699 and 19,094 students respectively on their rolls. The total number of pupils belonging to Scheduled Tribes in all types of institutions in the State during 1951-52 was 38,513 boys and 19,601 girls.

The control of schools meant for *Chenchus* in the Kurnool district was transferred to the Forest Department in 1949-50. The pupils in these schools were supplied with midday meals on all working days. They were also given free clothing, books and slates once a year. The total number of Elementary schools meant for Criminal Tribes was 281, with 21,895 students on the rolls.

Schools for the Criminal Tribes were transferred from the Kallar Reclamation Scheme to the Harijan Welfare Department in 1949-50. In these schools, special attention was paid to games and gardening, while those situated in Madurai and the South provided vocational training in printing, carpentry, weaving, tailoring and general mechanics. Physical training and sports also received due attention. Children in Salem District worked in the agricultural farm attached to these institutions and were supplied with midday meals, clothes, books, etc. at Government cost. Similar facilities were provided in Chanchar district. Gardening was introduced into Kurnool schools. The Sugali pupils were given free rations, clothes and books. A scheme to train teachers in cattle breeding was sanctioned. Teachers were sent to the veterinary hospital at Nandyal for training. In the Criminal Tribes settlement, books, slates and clothings were given at Government cost to all deserving notified Tribal pupils. Deserving pupils studying in colleges, schools, and technical and professional institutions were given grants for board and purchasing books and clothes. Girl students who underwent training in midwifery, were supplied with free clothing and books.

In *Manipur* the number of schools for Tribal people and their enrolment increased during the Quinquennium. There were only 125 tribal schools with an enrolment of 7,064 at the beginning of the Quinquennium. In 1951-52, there were two High schools, 22 Middle schools, 32 Upper Primary schools and 291 Primary schools for the tribal people. Academic and cultural education apart, tribal students were given various facilities in the form of scholarships for vocational and professional education.

In *Orissa*, the education of the tribal people was placed under the management and control of the Rural and Tribal Welfare Department of the State. Special institutions known as *Seva Ashram* and *Ashrams* were started for them. The aim of these institutions was to provide useful education for such people, bearing in mind their social environment and traditions. *Seva Ashrams* were day-schools, in which education was imparted up to the Primary standard. The *Ashrams* were residential institutions, which provided training up to the Middle standard and offered free board and lodging. In 1951-52, there were 573 such institutions with 20,561 students on their rolls. Total expenditure on these institutions was estimated at Rs. 9,29,744. The tribal pupils could also be admitted to other institutions in the State.

In the *Punjab*, special attention was paid to the education of the tribal people residing in the areas of Lahaul and Spiti. New schools were opened for them and existing institutions were equipped. Special stipends and scholarships were also awarded to students for

higher studies. Qualifications with regard to appointments were invariably relaxed in favour of the tribal people by the Public Service Commission.

The State Government also ran Primary and Middle schools for the Criminal Tribes. Towards the end of the Quinquennium, the Education Department of the State took over charge of these institutions and efforts were made to improve their working.

In *Saurashtra*, seven schools were opened in Visdas in the Gir forests for the children of the nomadic tribes living in this area. The Government paid an annual grant of Rs. 5,000 to the Maldhari Sangh, which conducted these schools. Special scholarships were also set apart for the children of Miyanas. Harijan students in Saurashtra were exempted from the payment of tuition fees at all stages of education.

In *Tripura*, there was one Junior Basic school for students belonging to Scheduled Tribes. In addition to this, there were 214 Primary and three Middle schools located in the tribal area. Students belonging to the Scheduled Tribes and Backward Communities were allowed to receive education free of tuition fees and were provided with boarding facilities. The number of tribal students increased from 7,234 in 1949-50 to 8,083 in 1951-52.

In *Uttar Pradesh*, efforts were made to provide educational facilities to tribes like the Kols and Bhils, inhabiting Dudhi Tehsil of District Mirzapur and the Jaunsar Bawar area of Dehra Dun. In other places grants were made to the Naik Homes for Kumayun girls.

Besides the general facilities offered to Scheduled Castes, Tribes and Backward Classes in *Vindhya Pradesh*, a special Anadhibasi Girls' school was established for tribal girls.

CHAPTER XII

ANTHROPOLOGY, ARCHAEOLOGY, ARCHIVES AND LIBRARY

The Ministry of Education also deal with the Departments of Anthropology and Archaeology, the National Archives of India and the National Library. A brief report on the progress of each of these Departments during the period under review is given below.

An enormous field of research, both theoretical and practical, lies before anthropologists in India. A full knowledge of the social and religious institutions of the different tribes is necessary not only from the scientific, but also from the practical point of view of administration.

The most important activity of the Department during the period under review was the shifting of the Department from its temporary war-time location at Banaras to the Indian Museum, Calcutta, the setting up of efficient laboratories and the undertaking of extensive field work amongst the various tribes.

Consequent on the separation of the Anthropological Survey from the Zoological Survey of India, the laboratories had to be started and built up from scratch. This has now been largely done and the laboratories and the equipment may be considered to be on a par with those of similar institutions in Europe and America. The laboratories have six sections, namely, (i) Physical Anthropology including Pre-history for the preservation and restoration of prehistoric fragile human and animal remains, Somatometry and Osteometry and Serology, (ii) Applied Human Biology including Radio-Oentology, (iii) Bio-Chemistry including Micro-Biology, (iv) Statistics, (v) Psychology inclusive of Projective Psychology and (vi) Linguistics.

During the period under review, the collections in the Library of the Department increased from a total of about 3,000 books to nearly 20,000 volumes and the number of periodicals rose from 20 or 25 to 150. The back volumes of many of the more important journals were purchased and some rare and out-of-print books and reports procured. Both in its size and selection of books and periodicals the library may now be considered as, perhaps, the best equipped Anthropological library in the East.

With regard to scientific investigations, field researches were commenced in Jaunswar Bowar in 1947 and continued in 1951. Materials on social and physical anthropology, linguistics, folklore, nutrition and psychological testing were collected.

The field survey of the primitive tribes of Travancore hills and Wynaad was continued and investigations on the Uralis, Kannikars, Malapantarams and the Pulayans were undertaken. These studies comprise somatometrical measurements and serology. The researches on the cultural side included studies on kinship organisation, economic structure, and religious and magical beliefs.

At the request of the State Government, systematic investigations on the Abor tribes of the North East Frontier Area were commenced in 1948 and by 1951 the lower and upper Padam areas were covered. These investigations were planned in a very comprehensive manner including not only the different aspects of physical and social anthropology but nutritional and linguistic studies and psychological researches. It may be stated here that two members of the Department were the first Indians to go with the Political Officer to Galleng on the furthest corner on the MacMohan Line. In 1951, investigations were extended to the Pangli tract of the Upper Yamne valley. Studies on group and tensional relations between the hill tribes of the Abor Hills and the Indians from the plains were also started and are still in progress.

In the *Andaman and Nicobar Islands*, the Aboriginal tribes especially the Onges, Sentinelese and the Jarawas have so far remained outside the fold of researches and have been hostile to outsiders. In 1948, reconnaissance was begun in the Little Andamans and after a preliminary survey in 1948-50, systematic explorations were commenced in 1951 and were still in progress.

A scheme has been drawn up to study the pattern of growth and the age and rate of maturation of bones in the Indian people. Systematic researches were commenced on a group of villages near Calcutta where it would be possible to make arrangement for testing the same children from infancy to pre-adolescence by radio-ontological methods.

In addition to the regular activities of the Department, a comparative scheme of investigations on Community life and inter-group relations was started in a rural and industrial area of South Bengal at the invitation of Unesco.

Amongst the most important works published by the Department is the first issue of the *Bulletin of the Department of Anthropology* (Volume I) No. 1, January, 1952.

With a view to making the results of researches in the Department available to a large number of people, arrangements have been made to get special articles translated and published in modern Indian languages. A beginning was made during the period under review in respect of Hindi, Tamil and Bengali.

With a view to having greater liaison between Anthropology in India and in other countries, a Fellowship of the value of Rs. 500 per month was instituted for a foreign scientist to work in India. In addition to the Fellowship, the scientist will receive his passage to and from India. The duration of the fellowship is two years. Dr. L. Cipriani, an Italian Anthropologist, joined the Department in 1949 under this scheme.

Department of Archaeology

The Quinquennium saw a great expansion in the work of the Department as a result of the integration of the former Princely States into the Indian Union. This took place formally in 1950, but because of various administrative and other difficulties, the maintenance of the Monuments and sites was left for some time with the States Governments. The Department of Archaeology, however, exercised general supervision and offered expert advice to the States Governments who acted as agents of the Central Government.

For the dating and surveying of prehistoric sites in India, Dr. F. E. Zeuner of the Institute of Archaeology, London, who is an expert in Geochronology was invited to India. The occasion was also utilized to have some of the officers of the Department trained by him.

Special mention may also be made of the deputation of two officers of the Department to Java in 1948 to advise the Government of Java in regard to the preservation of the Boroboder temples.

The most important activities of the Department relate to conservation, excavation, epigraphy and publications. In what follows, an attempt will be made to indicate in brief the salient features under each of these headings:

Excavations.—In the Decennial Review for 1937-47, a reference has already been made to excavations undertaken at Brahmagiri in Mysore State. During 1947-48, the Department was engaged in the preparation of an elaborate report on these excavations and results have been published in a sumptuous volume on Ancient India.

Excavations at Sisupalgarh were started in 1948-49 and continued during 1949-50 and 1950-51. The work revealed that Sisupalgarh was first occupied about the beginning of the 3rd Century B. C. though the defences were built a century or so later. Its occupation continued till about the middle of 4th Century A.D. The Sisupalgarh excavations have been adequately published in Ancient India. Dhauli, the seat of Asokan edicts, was also the venue of the Department's exploratory activities in 1949-50.

There was considerable progress in the exploration of the megalithic sites in the Chingleput, Conjeevaran and North Arcot Districts in South India. The results of this exploration as well as of an excavation at Perkulam in the then Cochin State under the joint auspices of the Department of Archaeology and the State Archaeological Department have been embodied for publication in "Ancient India."

Excavations at Hastinapur and the exploration of the dried-up bed of the river Sarasvati in the Bikaner Division were the major excavations during 1950-51. About 15 sites with typical objects of Harappa culture and another 15 sites with painted grey ware pottery and a group of sites belonging to the historical period were discovered. The results are under publication in the Ancient India. During 1950-51, excavations were also carried out at and around Somnath temple and at Hampi, the capital of the Vijayanagar Kings.

During 1951-52 exploration in North Bikaner was continued and excavations carried out at Patan and Amreli in the former Baroda State, at Sengamedu in the Madras State and at Hastinapur in Delhi and Rupar in East Punjab. A large number of palaeolithic and microlithic sites was located in Bastar now merged in Madhya Pradesh.

The ancient site at Bahal in District Khandesh was taken up for excavation as well as the exploration of extensive megalithic sites in North Arcot District in South India.

Excavation at Salikundam near Kalingapatam exposed a Buddhist monastery of about the 2nd Century A.D. named Kattaharama, probably named after Kattaha or Kataha across the Bay of Bengal in Malaya.

Conservation.—This has, from the nature of things, to be the main activity of the Department. During the period under review, special repairs were carried out to a large number of monuments of great importance. In this brief review it is not possible to name all the monuments concerned, but the more important of the monuments were the Taj at Agra, the Sun temple at Konarak, Kanheri Caves in Bombay, Gol Gumbad at Bijapur, Virabhadra-swami temple at Lepakshi, Brihadiswara temple, Tanjore, rock paintings at Sitabhinji and a number of monuments including the Sibdol of Sibsagar in Assam.

A number of important monuments situated in Delhi were occupied by displaced persons, from West Pakistan soon after August 1947. So long as they remained in possession, the repairs to the monuments could not be carried out. The Government, however, adopted a policy of gradual evacuation, and the work of renovation was taken in hand as and when the monuments were vacated by displaced persons.

Under the Constitution of India, the preservation of monuments and sites of national importance, is the responsibility of the Central Government. In 1951 the Parliament of India passed the Ancient and Historical Monuments and Archaeological Sites and Remains (Declaration of National Importance) Act, 1951, by which, to the already existing large number of monuments in Part A States, 367 monuments and 67 sites from Part B States were added. All the monuments in Part C States were also taken up by the Centre.

The work of conservation of the monuments had already been taken over by the Department of Archaeology from the Public Works Departments at the Centre and in the States. During the Quinquennium, it was decided to take over the responsibility for maintaining the gardens attached to the historical monuments. A separate Garden Section was opened in the Department of Archaeology for this purpose.

Epigraphy.—In addition to considerable publication work, more than 880 new stone inscriptions and 96 copper plate inscriptions were copied and studied.

Publications.—The following publications were issued during the Quinquennium:

- (1) Ancient India, No. 4 (Double number) and No. 5.
- (2) Epigraphia Indica (Part VIII of Vol. XXV, Part VI and VII of XXVI, and Parts I to VII of Vol. XXV).
- (3) Central Asian Wall Paintings.
- (4) Epigraphia Indo-Moslemica (1939-40 issue).

In addition, a large number of other publications were in various stages of preparation and printing.

During the period, the Ministry of Education also brought out a book entitled "Archaeology in India".

The Quinquennium saw the transformation of the former Imperial Records Department into the National Archives of India. Every effort was made to make the archives the store-house of all official records and the centre of historical research in modern Indian history.

During the calendar years 1947-52, 9,845 bundles, 348 volumes and 16 boxes of Government records, and 3,652 bundles, 33,577 volumes, 376 boxes, 151 bags and 6,587 files of Residency records were received. In 1949, it was decided that all records of merged States should be transferred to the National Archives but owing to the shortage of space and of staff in the Department, the work has not yet been completed. The transfer of all non-current records of the Government of India and the records of the defunct Residencies and

Political Agencies, however, went on continuously. Many private collections were also located and examined and important documents purchased. To fill up gaps in the series and to facilitate comprehensive research, microfilm copies of relevant records in foreign archives were secured.

Of the manuscripts, *parwanas*, *farmans* and *sanads* purchased either direct or through the Regional Records Survey Committees, noteworthy are a copy of the *Shahnama* of Firdausi and the *Waqai-Jang-i-Kohistan*, an eye-witness account of the British campaign in Nepal in 1814-15. Besides such purchases, many owners have either deposited their collections in the Department or made gifts of documents. A copy of the Constitution of India signed by all the members of the Constituent Assembly, a signature register of the members, a holograph copy of the poem read to the Assembly by the Chinese Ambassador in India and 150 sound record reels of the debates of the Indian Constituent Assembly were accessioned during the period under review.

The care of the records presents a major problem for the Department. There is in all 73,920 foot-run of shelves in the record rooms of the Department but even this has been found inadequate. To increase the net storage space, it was decided to provide adjustable cantilever steel shelves and the work was started during the period under review. Nearly 2,000 volumes were treated with insecticide paper which was developed in the Department. Every year nearly one ton of naphthalene bricks are distributed over the shelves to guard against insect pests. Fumigation of records is carried out in the fumigation vaults of the Department.

During this period it was decided to build up a microfilm library of copies of records and historical manuscripts relating to Modern Indian History which are in other countries. Information regarding these records has been collected and negotiations were started with a number of repositories and individuals in the U.K., U.S.A. and the Continent. Many have already furnished descriptive lists of the records which may be expected to be of interest and arrangements for making copies were concluded with a large number of repositories. During the calendar years 1947 to 1952, 469 reels covering nearly 75,000 pages of manuscripts were received. In addition, 113 boxes of microfilm copies of Parliamentary Papers of Indian interest for the period 1801-1907 were purchased from Her Majesty's Stationery Office in London.

A microfilm processing laboratory of the Department was also set up in 1948 and this has led to considerable and rapid progress in microfilming and photoduplication. 1,318 exposures of negative microfilms were made and 979 prints enlarged in 1948; the corresponding figures for 1949 were 2,955 and 1,689 and for 1950, 22,560 and 1,469.

In 1950, a positive printer and a glazing machine were also added and the output in 1951 rose to 178,726 negative exposures, 1,160 feet of positive microfilm and 1,161 enlarged prints. The facilities available in the Department for microfilming and photoduplication were utilised by a very wide circle of scholars and institutions throughout the world.

Every assistance was given to research scholars working on the records. They are provided with bibliographies and other reference media, guided in locating and verifying records and generally assisted in their work. The excerpts from records are also released for the use of the scholars subject to certain rules. Records up to 1901 are freely available while the latest records are supplied to bonafide scholars subject to prescribed rules.

The Library of the Department is an impressive and pleasing adjunct of the Research Room. Much was done to secure a comprehensive collection of printed works pertaining to Modern History. The total number of books and periodicals acquired during the period were 769 in 1948, 1,145 in 1949, 2,150 in 1950 and 2,355 in 1951. Apart from purchases, the Library has also secured many valuable books and journals by way of gift or exchange. In 1951, the catalogue of Manuscripts in the *Bibliothèque Nationale*, Paris, in 35 volumes, and the Catalogue of Manuscripts in 'La *Bibliothèque Royale de Bruxelles*', in 13 volumes were received as gifts.

The scientific preservation of records occupied a deservedly prominent place in the activities of the Department. An indispensable preliminary was the installation of the latest equipment. During the period under review, the laboratories of the Department were strengthened considerably and many items of essential equipment were added. With the help of the modern equipment, there has been a vast development both in the volume and in the nature of the repair and rehabilitation of documents. Flattening, half-margin repair, repair with chiffon and with tissue, and even the laborious process of inlaying were carried out as required by the circumstances of each case. Special repairs were also undertaken and palm leaf manuscripts were successfully treated and engraved writing on them renovated with graphite powder. Special processes were developed to repair birchbark manuscripts, manuscripts written with water soluble ink and manuscripts with pencil writing.

Among the more important publications during the Quinquennium were Volume V of the *Fort William Correspondence* published in 1949, 'The "Indian Travels of Thevenot and Careri"' published in 1949, and the "Indian Historical Records Commission: A Retrospect 1919-1948" published on the occasion of the Silver Jubilee of the Commission.

With a view to training students in archival science, a number of training courses were started in the Department in 1948. The courses are for two years, one year and six months respectively. The two-year course covers Preservation, Archives Administration, Library Administration, Calendaring and Indexing and the minimum qualifications for admission is an M.A. Degree in History. The one-year course open to graduates covers only two subjects of the candidate's choice, but if Library Administration is chosen, then Preservation is compulsory. The six months' course in Methods of Preservation was meant primarily for menders and record attendants. No fees were levied for any of the courses and two stipends of a hundred rupees per month were sanctioned by the Government for the two best students of the year.

The Indian Historical Records Commission, "a permanent body of expert advisers" established in March 1919, was reconstituted in 1947 in consonance with the political and constitutional changes in the country. Eminent foreign scholars and archivists continue to be associated with it. The Commission meets once every year when members and research students read articles on unpublished documents dealing with modern Indian History or an archival science. As the Commission did not meet after independence in 1947, there were two sessions in 1948. The Session held in December 1948 was the 25th (Silver Jubilee) Session of the Commission and was inaugurated by the Prime Minister of India and presided over by the Union Minister for Education.

National Library, Calcutta

The Imperial Library established in 1902 had been from the beginning one of the most important libraries in India. After the attainment of Independence, this was renamed the National Library by a special enactment, and a most significant development in its history took place when the Belvedere Mansion, formerly the dwelling of Viceroy, was converted into its permanent habitation.

The shifting of the library, which had by then been renamed the "National Library", to the Belvedere Mansions started towards the end of 1948. During the shifting operations from Esplanade, the Library was not closed even for a day and the shifting was done gradually without causing any dislocation in the use of the library by the members of the public.

A survey of the present holdings of the library reveals that it has on its shelves almost every important publication about India since its establishment as the Imperial Library. Apart from

what has been got by way of purchase, the period under review has been very significant for a number of rich donations which amount to over a lakh of books and about two hundred manuscripts. Amongst these acquisitions may be named the Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya and Ramdas Sen's collections, the former consisting of more than 75,000 volumes covering a very wide range and the latter particularly rich in collection of books in Bengali and Sanskrit. When the Library of the Residency at Hyderabad was removed, the whole collection of official publications, rich in Gazetteers, was sent to this Library. An excellent library of Chinese publications which was bought by the Government of India during this period was entrusted to this library. The library has been selected as a repository by the United Nations for its publications and has in the past obtained the League of Nations publications. The Parliamentary papers, which are source material for history are also to be found in their entirety.

The total number of collections of the library, which was a little short of one lakh in 1947 now stands at over 7,00,000. Periodicals and newspapers subscribed for in 1947 were about 100 in number whereas this figure is now over 500.

The housing of the entire collections of the Library presented its own problems. Although the Belvedere has much more space than its earlier locations, the Library also has many more books today. Special shelving had to be designed so as to make provision for the future expansion of the Library. The conventional form of fixed stacks with implications of narrow gangways and the consequent problems of dusting could not be thought of in the new dispensation. The building was old and its walls and floors could not be tampered with. The solution was found by designing the rolling stack which could be packed tight in a row and could be efficiently cleaned with the aid of vacuum cleaners. These shelves completely isolate the books from termites and allow them to be easily manipulated to suit any room anywhere. This arrangement has also all the advantages of accessibility and tidiness.

The Reading Rooms at Belvedere are so designed as to allow privacy to the research scholar. These Reading Rooms are open to him all the days of the year from seven o'clock in the morning till ten o'clock in the night. The reader has to borrow his books for study during the hours between 10 and 5 and can then leave these books on his table and consult them any time he likes during all days including Sundays and Holidays.

Owing to increased facilities the number of readers using the Library increased considerably during the period under review as will be seen from the following figures:

DETAILS	1947-48	1951-52
Number of new readers admitted	1,130	2,592
Number of visitors	8,590	66,364
Number of books requisitioned from stack	11,816	33,735
Number of new borrowers registered	428	581
Number of books lent out	9,808	15,550

Since Independence the Library has also acted as a centre for inter-library loan within the country as well as outside. These activities are expected to increase when the bibliographical activities of the Library advance. The Library undertook the task of compiling the Bibliography of Indology in 1950. A tentative mimeographed booklet on Indian Anthropology was published in 1951. It is a matter for gratification that this project has evoked great interest not only in India but also abroad. The revision of the printed catalogues of the Library has also made considerable headway.

CHAPTER XIII

MISCELLANEOUS

(i) *Pre-Primary Education*

Pre-Primary or Nursery Education was for the most part confined to urban areas and has been primarily the responsibility of parents. The policy of the Government in this respect has been that of assistance and encouragement. Development in this aspect of education was generally steady, but there was a sudden expansion towards the middle of the Quinquennium. This was partly because Madame Montessori settled in India and there was an expansion of Montessori training, but mainly because of the efforts and organizational ability of certain private bodies. From a small number of such schools, and especially of non-European schools, the number of Nursery and other pre-Primary schools in India rose to 331 in 1951-52 with 22,999 students, including 10,259 girls on their rolls. Expenditure on pre-Primary schools was estimated at Rs. 14,52,705 during the year.

There were no pre-Primary institutions in Bihar in 1947. Three Nursery schools were, however, established during the period under review. One of them was State-managed, and the other two were managed by private bodies. The latter were sanctioned a grant of Rs. 4,700 and Rs. 1,600 respectively during 1951-52. Total enrolment in the schools was 138. Certain missionary residential institutions also had arrangements for pre-Primary education.

There was steady expansion of pre-Primary institutions in Bombay State. The number of such institutions increased by nearly 300 per cent during the Quinquennium. In 1951-52, there were 159 institutions with an enrolment of 11,093 students.

An Informal Committee was appointed by the Government, in 1949 that suggested an increase in the rate of grant to these institutions. Accordingly, grants were sanctioned at the rate of 40 per cent, but, as a matter of economy in 1950-51, they were gradually reduced to 25 per cent at the end of the period under review. The aid given by the State in 1952 amounted to Rs. 38,071.

Many of the teachers of Primary institutions took advantage of the training courses organized by Madame Montessori. Later these trained teachers started new classes in big cities like Bombay, Ahmedabad, Poona and Sholapur. The Government instituted the

pre-Primary Teachers' Certificate Examination to ensure the continuous supply of well-qualified and trained teachers. Thus, at the end of the period under review, the number of trained teachers rose to 358 out of a total of 535, registering a percentage of 66.9.

Pre-Primary institutions were financed by fees, private donations and Government grants. Some of these institutions provided one light meal to children, for which an extra fee was charged. The management paid special attention to the health of the children by providing well-planned rest and recreation.

The *Delhi* Municipal Committee started two Nursery schools on an experimental basis. Several other private schools were established, that were well-equipped and well-attended.

In 1947, there were three private Nursery schools in *Hyderabad* State. Nursery classes were attached to one Government and two aided institutions in that year, and a Nursery section was added to one more aided school in 1950-51. A Kindergarten class was attached to the Government Model Primary School. Besides these, two aided Nursery schools—one at Headquarters and the other at Aurangabad were in existence in 1951-52. The total number of students in the pre-Primary classes was 1,348 with 655 girl students.

Madhya Bharat had 20 pre-Primary schools, of which 14 were run by the Government. The remaining received aid from the State. The Bal Vinaya Mandir of Indore had provision for higher education as well. A midday tiffin was provided in almost all these institutions. One training institution for teachers of such schools functioned at Indore.

There were four types of schools in *Madras* for pre-Primary education viz. Nursery, Kindergarten, Montessori and pre-Basic during the period under review. Admission to Nursery schools was made from age-group 2-5, and to the Kindergarten and Montessori schools from age-group 2 to 7. Nursery schools led to standard I. Kindergarten and Montessori schools to Standard III of Elementary and Secondary schools. Pre-Basic schools were intended for children between the ages of 2½ and 5.

The number of the four types of pre-Primary schools was 50 and the number of pupils 3,030. Only two Nursery schools were under Government management, the rest being aided schools.

Recognition of, and aid to pre-Primary schools by the State were essential developments of this Quinquennium. The little that has been done in this direction has shown the great need of well-planned schools of this kind with a wide scope of activity.

The Government of *Mysore* actively assisted the growth of pre-Primary education during the Quinquennium by popularising Nursery schools in rural areas, and by liberalising rules regarding grant-in-aid. Accordingly, rural schools received aid to the extent of 70 per cent, while urban schools received 50 per cent of their expenditure. One of the conditions stipulated in the grant was that at least one-third of the seats would be available for poor children. To ensure a regular supply of trained teachers, a training section for Nursery education was started as an adjunct to the Training College for Women, Mysore, in 1947. About 30 teachers were trained annually and paid stipends.

As private initiative could not cope with the situation, the Government started four schools in 1947-48 and added one more in 1949-50. Thus, during the Quinquennium, the number of pre-Primary schools increased from 29 in 1946-47 to 64 in 1951-52 with a corresponding expansion in the enrolment from 1,620 to 4,057 during the same period. Besides these schools, most of the women's organizations maintained nursery sections.

In *Orissa*, Infant classes formed part of the Primary and Middle schools. The number of pupils in these classes increased to 1,85,481 in 1951-52 from 1,48,563 in 1947-48. There were only a few European schools to which four Kindergarten classes were attached.

Arrangements for pre-Primary education in *Rajasthan* existed only at Alwar, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner, Udaipur and Pilani. The annual intake was about 967 during the Quinquennium.

In *Travancore-Cochin* State, there were eight Nursery or Kindergarten schools in the Travancore area, of which one was run by the Department and the others, privately managed. The total strength of all the pre-Primary schools during 1951-52 was 475 (224 boys and 251 girls).

In *Uttar Pradesh*, over a dozen Montessori schools were run by private agencies in Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Kanpur, Etawah, etc., during the Quinquennium. These received non-recurring aid of Rs. 10,000 from the Department.

(ii) *The Education of the Handicapped*

The Ministry of Education continued its efforts to expand facilities for the education of the handicapped during the Quinquennium. A special unit was set up in the Ministry to deal with problems of different types of physically handicapped persons—the blind, the deaf, the dumb and the crippled.

The most important development in this field has been the evolution and adoption of Bharati Braille. In April 1949, the Government of India requested Unesco to investigate the possibility of evolving a common braille for all languages in the world. Unesco acted on this suggestion and convened three International Conferences which studied the problem and made far-reaching recommendations. The Expert Braille Committee, that met in June 1950, expressed general agreement with the recommendations of the International Braille meeting, held at Paris in March 1950, the main recommendation of which was that it was both practicable and desirable to have a single braille script for the blind, to be known as World Braille.

The Government of India, accepting the major recommendations, has standardized a common Braille Code for all Indian languages. This new Code replaces all Braille Codes at present in use in the country and achieves a large measure of uniformity with similar Codes in other countries.

As recommended by Unesco, the chart of Indian Braille was revised by the Expert Braille Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education and the revised chart received the general approval of the Board. Steps were also taken to evolve Grade II of a contracted form of braille. A Committee to frame contracted braille for Hindi was also set up and made its first recommendations.

A training centre for the adult blind was established at Dehra Dun in 1950. It offers training in various trades including plastics. All trainees are provided with free board, lodging, clothing and other amenities. The preliminaries for the establishment of a sheltered workshop as a part of the centre were completed. This was intended to provide remunerative employment to blind persons trained at it. The centre was placed on a permanent footing in 1952.

During 1951-52, two new schools for the blind were established in the Centrally Administered areas, one at Ajmer and the other in Kutch.

The Central Braille Printing Press was established at Dehra Dun and published three Hindi Braille books of Primary standard. The Braille edition of the book "Fifty Years of Work for the Blind in India" was under publication and the braille of two Hindi Primers, undertaken.

As music is the most lucrative profession open to the blind, it was proposed to set up a small committee to frame a satisfactory Braille music notation for India. The Committee completed its initial survey in 1952.

To assist blind students of ability to take up higher professional training, it was proposed to award about a dozen post-school scholarships of Rs. 100 p.m. Half of the cost of these scholarships was borne by the State Governments.

Further, grants-in-aid were made to the Convention of Teachers of the Deaf in India for the publication of a quarterly periodical. The Central Ministry of Education defrayed 75 per cent of the cost of production.

The International Conference of the Workers of the Handicapped sponsored by the United Nations was held at Jamshedpur in December 1950, with the cooperation of the Indian Conference of Social Workers, Bombay. A sum of Rs. 10,000 was given to the Conference by the Government of India as grant-in-aid.

To check the growing menace of juvenile delinquency in the country, a committee of experts was set up at an inter-departmental conference held in Delhi in August 1949. This Committee prepared the draft of the Model Children's Act in 1949 providing for both destitute and delinquent children.

To assist the cause and extent of deafness in the country and to make suitable recommendations for the prevention of deafness and the education and welfare of the deaf, a Committee, known as the Expert Committee on Deafness, was constituted.

The total number of recognized institutions for the handicapped was 85, including five for girls in 1950-51. A large number of these institutions existed in Madras (19), Bombay (16), Uttar Pradesh (12), West Bengal (7) and Bihar (7). These institutions had 36,636 boys and 2,445 girls on the rolls in 1950-51. State Governments showed a growing interest in the education of the handicapped and gave financial assistance to organizations working in this field during the Quinquennium.

There was a Home and School for the Blind in Ajmer which provided free board, lodging and schooling to the blind. In March 1951, this institution was taken over by the Government. The object was to develop it into a model institution for all the Hindi-speaking Centrally Administered Areas. At present the total capacity of the institution is only 40, which is inadequate. The annual expenditure of this institution is estimated at Rs. 50,000 recurring.

In Bombay, the number of such institutions increased from 11 to 16 during 1947-52. The rise in expenditure was high, being Rs. 2,34,691 as compared to Rs. 65,248 in 1947. Of the total number of schools for the defective, only two were maintained by the Government and the rest were conducted by private bodies. These, however, received aid from the Government and local authorities.

The Government Lady Noyce School for the Deaf and Dumb at New Delhi was provincialized in August 1948, and was placed under the Directorate of Education, Delhi State. The number of pupils on the rolls increased from 45 in 1947-48, to 122 in 1951-52. Two new buses were added in 1950-51 to meet the increased demand for transport by blind students.

In *Uttar Pradesh*, one Government institution was established at Bareilly for handicapped children in 1951. The State also extended support to the establishment of a Deaf and Dumb College at Lucknow and the students undergoing training were given stipends of Rs. 30 per month. The Deaf and Dumb Institute at Allahabad also received a grant, and seven other blind schools at Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Lucknow, Kanpur, etc. were subsidized.

(iii) *Educational Broadcasts*

Educational broadcasts continued to play some part in the educational and cultural development of children during the Quinquennium but these broadcasts were not generally effective for want of close cooperation between the Radio Authorities and educationists. In some States, the Directorate of Education remained in close touch with All India Radio, but in others liaison was not so well maintained. The timing of the school broadcasts was not always satisfactory.

The Inter-Provincial Conference of Ministers of Information, held in February 1949, considered, *inter alia* measures to increase community listening sets in villages and schools. It was agreed:

- (i) that every Secondary school receiving grants-in-aid should install a radio set;
- (ii) that listening-in to school broadcasts by students should form part of their curriculum; and
- (iii) that school hours should be standardized accordingly.

In following up the recommendations, the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting collected statistics of the number of community and school receivers installed in various States and it was found that the number of receivers installed in educational institutions was small compared to the number of the institutions in the country.

In the Five-Year Plan, the programme for the development of broadcasting was revised so as to cover, as far as possible, all areas of the country, some of which had hitherto had no service of their own and were covered inadequately by local or nearby stations. To this end, it was considered necessary that the number of receiving sets should be increased.

In order to encourage the use of gramophone records in education, it was recommended that the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting be requested to produce records of specially valuable talks and features of national interest and national songs for use in schools. The talks recorded should be by eminent persons, likely to create enthusiasm and interest in the children. It was also recommended that the school should build up libraries of such educational records in the course.

(iv) *Textbook Committees*

At the beginning of the Quinquennium, the Bengal Textbook Committee functioned in Assam.

The term of the Textbook Committee in Bihar was extended in 1948-49 and the authors and publishers were invited to submit books in accordance with the new syllabuses. It was also decided to have books in Urdu, Bengali and Oriya especially on non-language subjects. The Hindustani Committee was amalgamated with the Textbook Committee on September 24, 1948.

In 1947-48 there were four School Book Committees in Bombay, viz. (1) Marathi, (2) Gujrati, (3) Kannada and (4) Urdu. The Sindhi School Book Committee was formed in 1949-50. These School Book Committees continued to function up to the end of the Quinquennium. The work of examining and ascertaining whether the books brought out as textbooks were fit to be sanctioned for the purpose, was done through the agency of the State Textbook Committee in addition to the School Book Committees mentioned above. The State Book Committee was presided over by the Director of Education, and the other Committees by Educational Inspectors.

The number of books, etc., considered by the State School Book Committee during 1946-47 and 1951-52 is shown in the following table:—

Year	No. of Books received including opening Balance	No. of Books sanctioned.	No. of Books rejected.	Books Sanctioned			Balance
				Text-Books and supplementary readers	Pupils' Library Books	Teachers' Library Books	
1946-47	417	144	97	115 29*	—	—	176
1951-52	156	138	18	109	20	9	—

*Supplementary Readers.

The Textbook Committee in *Delhi* State met several times and made several recommendations during the Quinquennium.

The *Madras* Textbook Committee continued to exercise its advisory functions during the Quinquennium. A Sub-Committee was appointed to implement the suggestions of the Minister for Education, regarding the reorientation of the Textbook Committee. Accordingly, the Commissioner for Government Examinations published a guide book containing essential requirements for the use of authors and publishers of textbooks. Important details of the activities of the Textbook Committee may be reviewed from the following table:

	1947-48	1948-49	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52
Total number of registered publishers.	283	303	333	379	374
Number of books received for consideration.					
1. Elementary schools.	832	251	550	727	582
2. Secondary schools	1,133	618	1,541	1,190	1,227
Sum realised as scrutiny fees.	12,650	8,697	20,926	19,331	16,972
Registration fee realised.	4,600	4,200	7,200	11,406	7,400

The Advisory Board for Books in the *Punjab*, came into being on August 15, 1947.

A Textbook Committee was constituted in *Travancore-Cochin* by the Government in November 1951. It consisted of 21 members.

(v) *Oriental Studies*

Apart from the study of Oriental classics and classical languages, like Sanskrit, Persian and Arabic in modern schools, colleges, University research departments and research institutions, Oriental studies continued to be pursued in certain special institutions, like *Pathshalas*, *Tols*, *Maktabs*, etc. These institutions, however, became rather unpopular and there was a fall in their enrolment during the Quinquennium.

In *Bombay*, classical languages formed a part of the syllabus in standard VIII of Secondary schools and continued right up to the degree and post-graduate examinations in Arts. The vast majority of the candidates chose Sanskrit or Persian. Of 91,002 candidates who appeared for the Secondary school examination during 1951-52, 76,944 offered papers in classical languages. Of these, 57,602 took Sanskrit, 12,176 Ardha-Magadhi, 5,644 Persian, 1,308 Pali, 196 Arabic and 18 Avesta-Pahlavi. The percentage of students offering Sanskrit,

Ardha-Magadhi and Persian were about 75, 15.8 and 7.3 respectively. As regards the Degree Examination, 99 candidates obtained the B.A. Degree, with Sanskrit as the main subject in 1951-52. As compared to 1946-47, the number of examinees taking classical languages in 1951-52 registered a considerable fall.

Apart from instruction in Oriental languages imparted in ordinary educational institutions, there were special institutions known as *Pathshalas* for the study of Sanskrit, and *Maktabs* for the study of Persian and Arabic. The number of *Pathshalas* remained constant during the Quinquennium (38), while the number of *Maktabs* fell from 32 in 1946-47 to 20 in 1951-52. The number of pupils also recorded a fall in these institutions. Enrolment in *Pathshalas* decreased from 1,566 in 1946-47 to 1,131 in 1951-52, while that in *Maktabs* fell from 2,630 to 1,903 during the same period.

In addition to these, there were about 24 Hindi schools with 672 pupils. Of other institutions engaged in Oriental studies, special mention may be made of (1) The Rajkeeya Sanskrit Maha-Vidyalaya, Baroda; (2) the Geervan Vag-Vardhini Sabha, Poona; (3) the Mimansa Vidyalaya of the Shikshan Prasarak Mandali, Poona; (4) the Poona Sanskrit College; (5) the Vaidika Sanshodhan Mandala, Poona; (6) the Vedashastrottejak Sabha, Poona.

The Rajkeeya Sanskrit Maha-Vidyalaya, Baroda, that continued as a Government institution, was transferred to the M.S. University, Baroda, from June 1951. The Geervan Vag-Vardhini Sabha, Poona, encouraged Sanskrit studies by arranging periodical meetings, and lectures delivered in Sanskrit by eminent scholars. In the Mimansa Vidyalaya of the Shikshan Prasarak Mandali, Poona, practical and theoretical instruction in Mimansa was imparted. This institution also served as a centre for students who were coached for various Sanskrit examinations. The Poona Sanskrit College imparted higher education in Sanskrit Sastras. The Vaidika Sanshodhan Mandala, Poona, was engaged in doing valuable research in Vedic literature. During the period under report, it brought out the Rigveda Index Volume. The Vedshastrottejak Sabha, Poona, held examinations in various subjects of Vedic learning.

The B. J. Institute of Learning and Research, Ahmedabad, the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute, Bombay, the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, and the Deccan College Post-graduate and Research Institute, Poona, were some of the institutions that conducted higher research in Oriental studies. The Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, together with the University of Bombay, invited an All-India Oriental Conference in November 1949.

The Government of Bombay appointed an *ad hoc* Committee in June 1950, to consider the question of recognition and ranking of Shastric degrees and to suggest pay scales for teachers holding these degrees. The Government accepted the Committee's main recommendations in October 1951, and the Degrees awarded by eight such institutions were recognised for employment as teachers in government and non-government Secondary schools. The pay scales laid down for Secondary teachers holding these qualifications were also accepted. In November 1950, another Committee was appointed to consider the question of the reorganisation of Sanskrit *Pathshalas* in the State.

The Committee submitted its report in May 1951, which was under the consideration of the Government at the end of the period under report.

Since April 1950, the administration of all Oriental institutions in Arabic, Persian and Hindi in *Madras*, was transferred to the Inspector of Oriental Schools, Madras. The number of Oriental institutions in the State in 1947-48 was 18 Sanskrit colleges, three Tamil colleges, five Arabic colleges, 31 Advanced Sanskrit schools, four Advanced Tamil schools and 27 Sanskrit Elementary schools. The corresponding number in 1951-52 was 21 Sanskrit colleges, four Tamil colleges, five Arabic colleges, 28 Advanced Sanskrit schools, four Advanced Tamil schools, one Arabic school, 15 Hindi schools and 24 Sanskrit Elementary schools. The number of students on the rolls on the whole recorded an increase during the Quinquennium. There was, however, a dearth of qualified teachers in Oriental institutions.

The Government decided in July 1951 not to recognise any new Sanskrit Elementary school or Advanced school in future. It was directed that the existing Advanced schools should be re-modelled on the pattern of ordinary Secondary schools within a course of six years. The students in the new-type of Oriental schools were to sit for the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Public Examination answering the same papers in English, Social Studies and Hindi and separate papers in the special Oriental languages. The Advanced Sanskrit schools were given three years' time to convert themselves into schools equivalent to that of High school or Middle school level. Grants to those institutions were raised to two-thirds of the net cost of maintenance.

There were 12 Hindi schools in 1949-50, and 15 in 1951-52. The corresponding increase in their enrolment was from 445 in 1950-51, to 535 in 1951-52.

In Orissa there were *Madrastas* and *Tols* which imparted Oriental education. The number of *Madrastas* fell from four in 1947-48 to three in 1951-52, and that of *Tols* from 135 to 126. The illiterate Muslim population did not favour *Madrasta* education that was conducted on a Secondary basis. Further, these *Madrastas* had no feeder schools in the localities, and students passing out from such institutions did not obtain employment. Even jobs did not appear to win public confidence and were on the whole unpopular.

To encourage Oriental Studies, the Government appointed Special Officers who organised and helped the growth of such institutions.

(vi) Education in the Defence Forces

The Army

The aim of Army education is to educate the individual as a soldier, as a citizen and as a man. In general, the soldier's outlook is widened, so that he may become an ideal soldier in a citizen Army. With this object in view, almost the entire educational effort in the Army was directed against illiteracy during the Quinquennium.

As the minimum educational qualification for recruitment to the Army is lower than that for the Navy and the Air Force, the standard of literacy was naturally not high. This deficiency was made up for by extensive literacy campaigns organised in all Commands. After 1948, the system of education in the Army units and outlook was suitably revised. The results achieved in these years were encouraging as is evident from the following figures:

	Army Special Examination Certificates	Army 1st Class Certificates	Army 2nd Class Certificates	Army 3rd Class Certificates
1948	623	7,310	40,382	47,868
1951	1,386	9,646	85,149	73,271

In the Army, the major drive against illiteracy was carried on in the various training centres where new recruits were given an intensive course to make them literate. The campaign was also carried on in all other units of the Army. Over and above the normal time allotted for the education of the soldiers, night classes were held regularly in many of the units. As a result of this relentless campaign, illiteracy has now been almost eradicated.

Community education was given an important place in the curriculum of the soldier. Subjects like Current Affairs and Citizenship were taught by the discussion method. This type of education

fostered in the soldier the power to think, to reason out and express his views independently. Another interesting feature of the Army education programme was the teaching of hobbies and handicrafts, including paintings, sculpture, woodwork, leather work and other crafts. The educational scheme also included music recitals, *Kavi samelans*, *mushairas* and lectures, etc.

In 1951, after the enforcement of the Constitution, the authorities were faced with the problem of introducing Hindi into the multi-lingual Army. Two methods of teaching Hindi were evolved: one for North Indians whose mother tongue is closely akin to Hindi, and other for the South Indians whose languages have little in common with Hindi. By October 1952, Hindi/Hindustani in the Devnagari script had completely replaced the Urdu/Hindustani in the Roman script which had remained the common language of the Army for many years. In this switch-over, many difficulties had to be faced, but despite financial stringency, the Army successfully overcame these obstacles. Four Hindi Primers for both Hindustani speakers and non-Hindustani speakers were produced and these were examined and approved by the Ministry of Education.

The Army Education Centre and School at Pachmari served as the main centre for teaching adult soldiers in the Army units. Annually, the institution has trained about 1,000 Hindi instructors. The direct method of teaching Hindi, especially to the non-Hindustani speaking soldiers, proved successful. It was found that South Indians took only three months to learn the language, and were able to mix freely with troops from other parts of the country.

The Navy

The Navy is the fighting sea service. To maintain efficiency it must be manned by those who are educated and trained on modern lines. The work of education is, therefore, carried on when sailors are both afloat and ashore. Teaching in a wide range of educational subjects at levels varying from post-Primary to post-Graduate is undertaken. Cooks and stewards, for example, learn the rudiments of arithmetic and elementary English or Hindi. Entrants to the Officer cadre, who are at least Matriculates, undertake an intensive academic course lasting two to three years. In the technical branches, officer trainees acquire a mathematical and scientific knowledge up to the degree standard.

To cover the wide field of education, the Navy in the first instance provided Basic education. This was imparted in I.N.S. CIRCARS, the Boys' Training Establishment at Vishakhapatnam up to the standard of Matriculation. Among other subjects, Mathematics, Science, History and Geography were taught.

Basic education continued even after the candidate's training in I.N.S. CIRCARS, for a rating had to pass certain educational tests for advancement in his career. For this purpose, voluntary classes were conducted outside working hours in ships and establishments.

At a higher level, the Basic education course was provided for ratings selected for the rank of Officer under a special scheme. This educational course was intended to bring the candidates up to the standard of Officer Cadets passing out from the Joint Services Wing of the National Defence Academy.

An important feature of Basic education in the Navy is language instruction. The teaching of English occupied an important place in the Basic education course imparted to ratings whose knowledge of English on entry into the Service was inadequate. The Navy was, however, fully alive to its responsibilities regarding the introduction of Hindi. Compulsory Hindi tests for officers were instituted and a scheme to propagate Hindi among ratings was worked out.

As an increasing proportion of the advanced training formerly carried out in the United Kingdom was transferred to India, the scientific and mathematical instruction of officers and men in various technical branches of the Navy was expanded steadily during the Quinquennium.

Although the need for Basic and Technical education was paramount, the requirements of Social education were not neglected. Some progress in this field was achieved by providing libraries in ships and establishments, with a view to encouraging vocational study and purposeful reading among officers and ratings. A Central Library was also established at Bombay. This library was used by naval personnel serving in Bombay. In addition, it serves as a pool from which ships may draw books.

A wider knowledge of current social and political affairs was also encouraged by means of lectures, pamphlets and periodicals. Elementary Current Affairs was included in the syllabus of the Boys' Training Establishment.

In the vocational field, pursuit of spare-time hobbies and handicrafts was fostered among ratings in the Naval Barracks at Bombay and the principal Naval training establishments.

The work of education in the Navy outlined above was carried out both afloat and ashore by officers of the Instructor Branch. These officers possessed high academic qualifications and were recruited from universities.

The Instructor Branch was raised to officer status in 1947, and a year later it was renamed the "Instructor Branch". Instructor Officers were now required to teach the theory of technical subjects up to a high standard, and a number of them were sent abroad for advanced training in Navigation, Radar and Marine Engineering theory.

In addition to educational duties, officers of the Instructor Branch assisted in welfare activities for ratings, and they were assigned important duties in the fighting organisation of ships. Selected officers with special scientific qualifications were trained to carry out meteorological duties in the recently instituted Naval Weather Service.

The Air Force

As the Air Force has to cater for the needs of a highly technical Service with a hundred per cent literacy amongst its rank and file, the characteristics and scope of the educational set-up in this wing of the Services were somewhat different from those in other wings.

Education, that was a separate branch and a combatant unit in the Indian Air Force, was headed by a Deputy Director at Air Headquarters. Under him come Command Education Officers who, in turn, control Wing, Station and Unit Education Officers. Thus all the Indian Air Force formations, including training and other static Air Force Establishments, had an education section of their own.

The educational policy, formulated by Air Headquarters and executed by flying and ground training establishments and other Air Force Stations and Units, took cognizance of three important aspects of training of Air Force personnel, namely (a) Service, (b) General, and (c) Welfare education.

The purpose of Service education was to make Air Force personnel more proficient in their respective trades and thus help them to become efficient members of the Service. Manned by highly qualified arts, science and technical graduates, the educational framework in the Air Force ran classes for higher studies in mathematics, physics, electricity, aerodynamics, theory of flight, science of warfare and similar subjects directly related to aviation and air power. Adequate facilities for well-stocked libraries, lecture and reading rooms, textbooks and stationery, etc. were provided for Air Force personnel at all units. Promotion examinations and other tests were organised to give a fair and equal chance to everyone.

The object of General education was to cultivate among Air Force personnel a reading and thinking habit and thus to make them better citizens. Classes were run for English, General Knowledge

and similar studies. A knowledge of elementary Hindi was made compulsory for all Air Force Officers from 1950. A study of other Indian and foreign languages was also encouraged. Provision for technical and non-technical publications was made at all unit libraries, officers' messes and airmen's reading rooms. Well equipped information rooms where newspapers and periodicals, maps, charts, models and similar reading and reference materials were provided, formed an integral part of every Air Force Station.

The Welfare education scheme covered the less academic and more vocational sides of education. It aimed at bolstering up the morale of servicemen by rousing in them an interest in the affairs of the nation, inculcating a better sense of citizenship and providing them with opportunities for the profitable use of their leisure. Efforts were made to achieve these objects by organising discussion groups, debates, brains trusts and various hobby-clubs. Special schools were run for the children of airmen and civilian staff of each Station.

APPENDIX A*

WEST BENGAL

Basic Education

In pursuance of the recommendations of the School Education Committee of 1948, the Government of West Bengal introduced in 1950 a scheme of Junior Basic education for the children of the age group 6-11. To this end, a few selected officers of the department were deputed to Sevagram and other places for training. The State Government also started two Basic Training colleges of its own. The number of such institutions on 31st March, 1952, was 11.

There was a steady rise in the number of Junior Basic schools and in their enrolment, though the increase was not spectacular. There was a corresponding rise in the number of teachers. The number a little more than doubled during the Quinquennium.

Better buildings and equipment for Basic schools and Junior Basic schools meant higher expenditure which increased nearly fourfold during 1949-52. More than 60 per cent of it was met by the State Government.

Broadly speaking, all the Junior Basic schools, except the practising schools attached to Basic Training schools, were managed by District School Boards.

Primary Education

In 1950, a ten-year scheme for making free and compulsory education universal was introduced. The total number of Primary schools rose from 13,950 in 1947-48 to 15,131 in 1951-52. Enrolment during the period rose from 10,44,111 to 14,88,290. Besides, there were 1,02,240 students on the rolls of Primary classes of Secondary schools. The increase in the State Government-managed schools from 33 in 1947-48 to 604 in 1951-52, was a most notable achievement. It may, however, be pointed out that only 45 per cent of the eligible children received Primary education.

The increase in Primary school teachers though substantial was disproportionate to the increase in the number of students. The teacher-pupil ratio in 1951-52 was 1:34 as against 1:29 in 1947-48. The economic lot of the teacher, however, remained the same as before.

*Material accommodated in Appendices A, B, C and D arrived too late for inclusion in the main Review.

In the matter of buildings and equipment, the position was hardly satisfactory. The Government-managed schools were, however, better housed and better equipped than Board schools. Gradually, better buildings and equipment were provided for Junior Basic schools.

The task of administering Primary education was entrusted to local bodies, but the State Government strengthened its final control over its own as well as aided institutions.

The introduction of double shifts wherever necessary and teaching of classes I and II with the help of picture books instead of text-books were two experiments conducted with some success.

The orthodoxy of the people and the absence of an adequate number of trained teachers were the main obstacles to educational progress.

Secondary Education

The most important step in the field of Secondary education during the Quinquennium was the creation of the Board of Secondary Education in 1951. This Board took over the regulation, control and development of Secondary education from the Calcutta University.

There was a steady rise in the number of High and Middle schools and in their enrolment. During the Quinquennium, the number of girls nearly doubled in High schools.

The High school teachers were a little better paid than others, and the teachers in Government schools were paid more handsomely than those in aided schools. In all, there were 22,832 teachers in 1951-52 as against 17,631 in 1947-48. The proportion of trained teachers in Middle schools was more than that in High schools and there were more women trained teachers in High schools than in Middle schools.

Secondary schools were better housed than Primary schools. In Calcutta, however, there was great congestion. In the matter of equipment, with the exception of a few private institutions the position was unsatisfactory.

The medium of instruction in all Secondary schools continued to be the mother tongue of the majority of the pupils in the class.

The School Education Committee made far-reaching recommendations regarding changes in curriculum. The proposed diversification of the curriculum and the setting up of a new type of school for pupils of different aptitudes and abilities will mark a new stage in the reformation of Secondary education.

A significant development affecting the curriculum was the introduction into some schools of the study of the federal language in Classes V and VI.

The Training of Teachers

Both the Central Advisory Board of Education and the School Education Committee of West Bengal recommended a more practical bias in the training of teachers and steps were taken during the Quinquennium to provide training of this new type. Basic Training colleges and Basic Training schools were started in order to impart training in the methods and the techniques of Basic education.

There were four different categories of institutions for the training of teachers *viz.* Primary Training schools for training teachers of Primary schools of the traditional type, Basic Training schools for the training of teachers of Basic (Primary) schools, Basic Training colleges for training teachers of Basic Training schools, and Training colleges for training teachers of Secondary schools. Since the introduction of Basic (Primary) education is, in time, intended to replace Primary education of the old type, the number of Primary Training schools has diminished. The total number fell from 54 in 1947-48 to 42 in 1951-52 and their enrolment from 1,364 to 888. Basic education was introduced in 1948-49. The number of Basic Training schools increased from two in 1948-49 to 11 in 1951-52. Correspondingly their enrolment increased from 146 to 535.

Two Basic Training colleges—one for men, the other for women—were started by the Government in 1948-49 with 51 and 32 trainees respectively. Within two years the number of trainees began to fall; in 1950-51 the numbers came down to 22 and 16 respectively. The fall was due to the difficulty in absorbing the successful trainees in the few Basic Training schools that existed in the State.

For the training of teachers of Secondary schools there were two institutions *viz.* the David Hare Training College at Calcutta run by the State Government and the Union Christian Training College at Berhampore, a missionary institution aided by the Government. In addition, there were the Teachers' Training Departments of the Calcutta and Visva-Bharati Universities, and of Loreto House and Scottish Church College. Both the David Hare Training College and the Union Christian Training College are co-educational institutions. Enrolment in the former increased from 62 in 1947-48 to 231 in 1951-52 and in the latter from 88 to 157. Total enrolment in all institutions of this kind rose from 195 in 1947-48 to as many as 470 in 1951-52. During the period under review the number of men undergoing training for the B.T. degree increased from 108 to 272 and that of women from 87 to 198.

Trainees in Primary Training schools were awarded stipends at the rate of Rs. 20 per month and those in Basic Training schools received stipends at the rate of Rs. 30 per month. Teachers deputed to Basic Training schools by District School Boards enjoyed stipends in addition to their pay and dearness allowance. Graduate trainees in the Basic Training College were awarded stipends at the rate of Rs. 40 per month in the case of men and Rs. 50 per month in the case of women. Only a selected number of trainees in the David Fare Training College could be awarded stipends. This number was 30 (46 men and 34 women) in 1951-52, and the value of the stipend was Rs. 50 per month. Five special stipends of the same value were awarded to trainees belonging to Scheduled Castes and Backward Communities. For the benefit of teachers of aided High schools undergoing training, the Government asked the authorities of all such schools to pay half the salary if the teachers enjoyed stipends, and the full salary if they did not do so during the period of deputation.

Two Basic Training colleges—one at Banipur for men, the other at Alipore for women—were started in 1948 and subsequently amalgamated into one co-educational institution at Banipur. These were followed by Basic Training schools that rose from two to 11. Eight of them were managed directly by the State and the remaining three sponsored by it.

University Education

The new Calcutta University Act, 1951, adopted by the Government of West Bengal made radical changes in the Constitution of the University. The office of the Vice-Chancellor became paid and whole-time and the Senate mainly elected. The Academic Council now consists mostly of teachers elected by their compeers. The Senate, the Syndicate and the Academic Council, a Finance Committee, Faculties, Boards of Studies, a Board of Health and a Board of Residents and Discipline were also constituted. Another legislation, which greatly affected the Calcutta University, was the West Bengal Secondary Education Act, 1950. It relieved the University of its control over High schools by setting up a Board of Secondary Education for the purpose. The University was, however, granted compensation for the consequent loss of revenue. Through this legislation, certain essential reforms suggested by the University Commission were enforced.

West Bengal was one of the States in which the expenditure on University education reached a very high proportion during the period under review. For instance, the *per capita* expenditure in Government colleges for boys in West Bengal was Rs. 632.5 and that for girls Rs. 500 during 1951-52. The corresponding figures for aided

institutions were Rs. 161·44 and Rs. 289·73 and those for un-aided institutions Rs. 123·06 and Rs. 313·07 respectively.

The West Bengal cadre of Assistant Lecturers was amalgamated with that of Lecturers, in June 1951 and the maximum in the scale for Lecturers was raised from Rs. 500 to Rs. 600 per month. In some cases, professors were given a personal pay of Rs. 300 in addition to the maximum salary allowed in the scale.

The Calcutta University incorporated a course in Technology, including Leather, Textile and Jute Technology, for the Bachelor's degree and a three-year course in Technology for the Masters degree. Political Economy and Political Philosophy were made separate subjects in the syllabus for the M.A. degree.

In the field of research, nine persons were admitted to the D.Litt. Degree, 17 to D.Sc., four to the Ph.D. as many as 58 to the D.Phil. (Arts) and 69 to the D.Phil. (Science). The institution of two Intermediate Research degrees—D.Phil. (Arts) and D.Phil. (Science), stimulated research among younger people.

Technical and Professional Education

Most of the technical and industrial schools in West Bengal were controlled, and some are still controlled, by the Department of Industries. The weaving schools, including the Bengal Textile Institute at Serampore, the Bengal Tanning Institute, Calcutta and the Bengal Ceramic Institute, Calcutta, continued to be under the Department of Industries. Only the Junior and Senior Technical schools were under the Department of Education. This transfer took place in November, 1949, and a special administrative and inspecting staff attached to the Directorate of Education was created for the supervision of Technical education in the State.

In August 1950, the Government set up an Advisory Council for Engineering and Technical Education, consisting of eminent industrialists and experts in Technical education to advise it on the steps to be taken for the effective organization and planning of Technical education. Two Boards were formed by this body to supervise Technical education at the junior and senior stages and also an *ad hoc* committee to survey the prospects of employment in various trades and industries. The State Council for Technical and Engineering education started functioning in 1950. Technical institutions other than those at the University level are under its control and jurisdiction.

In 1950-51, the State Government started three full-fledged Polytechnic Institutes to impart training for various technical jobs.

Refugee students were given the facility of free tuition in them. Besides the Polytechnics, four temporary technical institutions were started in the same year.

Three engineering schools, viz., (1) the Kalikata Shilpa Vidya-pith, (2) the Maharajadhiraj Bijoy Chand Institute of Engineering and Technology at Burdwan, and (3) the Vishnupur K. G. Engineering Institute in the district of Bankura were taken over by the State Government from private management. They are now being run as sponsored institutions and have been considerably strengthened.

The Bengal Engineering College at Sibpur, the only engineering college run by the State Government, underwent important changes during the Quinquennium. Under the Development Scheme the college was being thoroughly reorganised in order to provide the most up-to-date training in different engineering subjects for 1,000 students, and also offer facilities for post-graduate research. Enrolment doubled during the period under review.

A new course in Architecture was introduced during this period, and a highly qualified staff was appointed. Additions were also made to the buildings already in existence.

The College of Engineering and Technology-at Jadavpur, a unique institution of its kind, started by private enterprise during the days of *swadeshi*, received during the Quinquennium both capital and recurring grants from the Government to develop its Chemical Engineering department.

The following kinds of technical institutions functioned in the State during the period under review:

I. Technical schools:

(i) Monotechnics or Industrial schools

(ii) Polytechnics

(iii) Junior Technical schools

(iv) Senior Technical schools

II. Engineering schools.

III. Engineering colleges.

IV. Institutes of Higher Technology.

By far the largest number of monotechnics imparted training in weaving. The most important among them is the Bengal Textile Institute at Serampore which gives improved scientific training in all branches of Textile Technology and in handloom weaving. The other weaving institutions are junior schools for training artisans. Some of them are peripatetic schools which go into villages to give

demonstrations and to train weavers in improved methods of weaving, spinning, dyeing and printing. The Bengal Textile (Silk) Institute at Berhampore provides training in all branches of silk technology.

The Bengal Tanning Institute provides instruction in tanning. The only institute run by the State Government for the study of ceramics is the Bengal Ceramic Institute, Calcutta, which provides advanced instruction in Ceramic research and trains personnel for Ceramic industries. The Industrial Research Laboratory, Calcutta, also a Government institution, provides training in scientific research in three branches of industry viz., soap, ink and adhesive, and paint and varnish.

The newly started polytechnics were more popular than the monotchnics, for these institutions lend themselves to economy in capital and maintenance costs, the same workshop being used for different courses. The two Government High schools at Barrackpore and Uttarpara came to have technical wings attached to them. This was in pursuance of the policy of having multilateral High schools with diversified courses of study.

In 1947-48, there were only 83 Technical and Industrial schools in West Bengal with a total enrolment of 4,266 students. In 1951-52, the number of institutions of this type had increased to 116 and the total enrolment to 7,195.

The Survey School at Bandel was the only Engineering school in the State in 1947-48 with 47 pupils. Six more Engineering schools, two Government and four non-Government, were established during the period under review.

The Indian Institute of Technology at Kharagpur was established by the Government of India in 1950 for the study of higher technology.

It was decided by the Government that there should be only colleges and no schools for teaching the allopathic system of medicine. As a result, the Nilratan Sarkar Medical School (formerly Campbell Medical School), a Government Institution, was upgraded to a college and two private institutions, viz., the Calcutta Medical School and the National Medical Institute were amalgamated and raised to the status of a college under the name of Calcutta National Medical College. In 1951-52, there were five medical colleges managed by the Government as against three in 1947-48. The total enrolment in the medical colleges, government and aided, rose from 1,755 to 4,726 during the Quinquennium.

There were twelve medical schools (five Government and seven private) in 1951-52 as against six (three Government and three private) in 1947-48.

The Goenka College, a Government institution, was upgraded as a full-fledged college of commerce in 1951. There were also a number of non-government commercial schools that conducted evening classes in type-writing, shorthand, book-keeping, accountancy and telegraphy. The number of such schools was 34 in 1951-52 and they had a total enrolment of 7,220 students.

The total enrolment in the University Law College and the Surendra Nath Law College rose from 1,371 in 1947-48 to 1695 in 1951-52.

Social Education

In June 1948, the Government of West Bengal appointed a Committee of officials and non-officials to go into the problem of Adult education that had, till then, received scant attention. Acting on the recommendations of the committee, the Government started in 1949, 16 Adult education camps where 547 teachers drawn from Primary schools (including 60 women) were trained. In 1950 and 1951, short but intensive courses of training were organised for 200 field workers and 200 teachers. In August 1951, a Social Education Bureau and a Film Library were opened. In the course of seven months, 197 educational film shows were arranged. Besides, Rs. 15,000 in 1949-50 and Rs. 30,000 in 1950-51 had been paid as financial assistance for different forms of folk recreation such as dramas, *Kathakata*, *Kirtan*, etc. The work done by voluntary organisations such as Ramakrishna Mission, Nari Shiksha Samiti and others was greatly appreciated. In all, a grant of Rs. 1,44,680 was paid annually to 11 voluntary organisations of this type.

There were two types of Adult education centres existing in West Bengal, Literacy centres and Complete centres. The latter aimed at providing Social education in addition to literacy.

The number of Adult education centres rose from 817 in 1949-50 to 1,152 in 1951-52. The corresponding increase in the enrolment was from 26,076 to 62,681. In all, 11,233 and 25,028 persons were made literate at these centres during the two years, respectively.

To ensure that literates do not lapse into illiteracy, small libraries were set up at selected places. Public libraries were assisted with grants for suitable books and equipment.

The Education of Girls and Women

Women's education in West Bengal made steady progress during the Quinquennium under review. The total number of girls and women reading in different educational institutions in the State increased from 2,99,830 in 1947-48 to 5,23,621 in 1951-52. The greatest

increase, proportionately speaking, took place in High schools and professional and other special institutions. The number in the former rose from 35,887 to 70,865 and that in the latter from 4,980 to 15,468. Total expenditure on institutions for girls rose from Rs. 74,85,733 in 1947-48 to Rs. 1,45,42,889 in 1951-52.

The Government started three new High schools for girls at Krishnagar, Jhargram and Jalpaiguri. Two new colleges for women were started at Hooghly and Jalpaiguri. The greatest increase was registered in professional and special institutions that rose from 35 to 151.

There are now very few institutions at the university and collegiate stage which do not admit girls and women. The number of girls reading in institutions meant originally for boys in 1951-52 was 3,42,039. Of these 3,19,539 were in Primary and Junior Basic schools, 14,074 in Middle schools, 4,104 in High schools, and 4,322 in Universities and general colleges.

To encourage female education in the State, the Government awarded special scholarships to girls on the results of the public examinations held at the conclusion of the Primary, Middle and Secondary stages. During the period under review, there were 150 scholarships of Rs. 3 per month, 60 of Rs. 5 per month and ten of Rs. 10 per month at the end of the Primary, Middle and Secondary stages, respectively. The scholarships awarded at the end of the Middle stage were tenable for four years while the others were available for two years.

Girls were allowed to read Domestic Science and Domestic Arithmetic for their Matriculation or School Final Examination. They had the option of taking Special Bengali in place of one classical language in their Intermediate Examination. During the Quinquennium, the Calcutta University introduced a one-year course of training for teachers of Domestic Science but these apart, little thought was given to providing girls with courses suited to their special needs and aptitudes.

Physical Education

In West Bengal Physical education forms part of the Youth Welfare Scheme for the State and is controlled and directed by the Chief Inspector, Physical Education and Youth Welfare Officer of the State. Physical efficiency tests for boys reading in High schools are held every year, and certificates of physical proficiency awarded to students who attain the minimum standard fixed for the purpose. In 1951-52, 15 sports and physical training associations were helped by the Government with grants totalling Rs. 7,794. With the object of promoting Physical education among women a new post of

Inspector of Physical Education (Women) was created during the Quinquennium.

An interesting scheme of school health service on a restricted scale was being worked out at the Singur Health Services Unit in the district of Hooghly. Under the Health Services scheme Primary school teachers of neighbouring areas were trained every year in School Hygiene. The teachers who received this training were made responsible for arranging periodic health examinations of Primary school students. The scheme was financed by the Department of Education.

School Meals

In 1949-50, the Government introduced a system of tiffin grants for High schools; Primary schools were not included because of the larger number of students on their rolls. In 1951-52, there were only 52 High schools—37 for boys and 15 for girls—under the compulsory tiffin scheme, and the Government made a total grant of Rs. 25,788 to them.

At present there is no school health service in West Bengal. Some schools, mostly residential, have something that approximates to a service, but the number of such schools is small. Systematic work in this direction was done in Anglo-Indian and Missionary schools.

School hygiene work is now done by the Public Health Department. In Calcutta and in some of the municipal towns the Directorate of Health Services maintained school hygiene units for periodical examination of the health of school children and correction of defects in the course of examination.

Of the social service organisations, which were encouraged by the Education Department of the State, the most important were the Boy Scouts Association and the Girl Guides Association. There were Boy Scout Associations in almost all the districts; and the Girl Guide movement was popular among students of Anglo-Indian Girls' schools.

A contingent of scouts—the largest from India was sent from West Bengal to the Seventh World Jamboree held in Australia in 1951. In 1951-52, a sum of Rs. 10,950 was spent from the State revenues as grants to the Boy Scouts Association and Rs. 1,000 to the Girl Guides Association.

The N.C.C. is administered by the Department of Education through a Special Officer. In 1951-52, the Senior Division of the N.C.C. in West Bengal had 15 units and the Junior Division had 165 troops.

There was a waiting list of colleges desiring to have units in the Senior Division. Cadets in all the units reached a high standard of efficiency—many of them won B and C certificates and some were accepted by the National Cadet Corps Academy for training as Commissioned Officers. One cadet from West Bengal achieved the distinction of being the best cadet in Defence Academy in 1951.

A sum of Rs. 9,44,489 was spent by Government on the N.C.C. in 1951-52 as against Rs. 1,76,693 in 1948-49.

Art Education

There were three Art schools in Calcutta solely devoted to the teaching of art. One of them the Government School of Art was raised to the status of a college under the name, Government College of Art and Craft. The other two institutions are the Indian Art School and the School of Oriental Art. Both of them are aided by Government.

The total Government grant for institutions teaching art and music amounted to Rs. 12,406 in 1947-48 and Rs. 40,752 in 1951-52.

Overseas Scholarships

The Department of Education, Government of West Bengal, offers three State Scholarships every year for advanced post-graduate studies abroad. The value of each scholarship is £ 460 per annum at Oxford and Cambridge and £ 400 per annum at other Universities in addition to a free second class passage both ways and an equipment allowance of Rs. 500 each.

Up to March 31, 1952, 15 students and two professors from West Bengal were awarded Fulbright Travel Grants, and 28 students two professors and two teachers received Smith-Mundt/Fulbright Grants.

Up to the end of March, 1952, 19 persons from West Bengal received T.C.A. training grants under the Point Four Programme.

Under the Commonwealth Technical Assistance Scheme one member of the staff of the Bengal Engineering College was awarded a scholarship by the Government of Australia. One person from West Bengal was awarded a scholarship by the British Council during the period under review.

Seminars, Symposia

Under the Commonwealth Technical Assistance Scheme, the Chief Inspector, Social Education, West Bengal, participated in the Seminar on Social Services organised by the Government of Australia in 1952.

There were two National Seminars on Adult education in India. These seminars which were held at Jubbulpore and Indore, were attended by the Chief Inspector, Social Education, as the representative of the Government of West Bengal.

A Seminar of teachers of Calcutta schools on the United Nations was held at the David Hare Training College in 1950. In 1951, another seminar of teachers of Calcutta schools was held at the same college in which the teachers undergoing training there also took part. Films depicting the United Nations in action were also shown on these occasions.

Three delegates—the headmasters of a Government High School for boys, the headmistress of a Government High School for girls and a District Inspector of Schools—were sent by the Education Directorate to the All-India Seminar on the United Nations held in New Delhi in 1951, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, Government of India.

In accordance with the suggestion of the Ministry of Education, Government of India, United Nations Day was observed in 1951 in the educational institutions in the State with a view to popularizing the aims, ideals, activities and achievements of the United Nations Organization. In some colleges debates were held on international questions, in others symposia on the United Nations and its specialized agencies were arranged.

The third anniversary of the Declaration of Human Rights was also observed in the schools and colleges in West Bengal. An album of 110 pictures depicting the story of the conquest of human rights was exhibited at the Ballygunge Government High School.

Pre-Primary Education

With a view to providing facilities for nursery training, the Government maintained a nursery training section (practice-teaching school) attached to the Women's Department of the David Hare Training College.

Seven Nursery schools managed by private agencies were helped by the Government with grants. Four of them are in Calcutta, two in Jalpaiguri and one is in Howrah. The most important of them is the Jitendra Narayan Roy Infant and Nursery School at Calcutta.

A number of Secondary schools for girls in Calcutta have Kindergarten and Nursery classes attached to them.

Anglo-Indian Education

Consistent with the special requirements of the Anglo-Indians in respect of language and way of living, their education was guaranteed

certain safeguards by the Constitution for a period of ten years. At the same time as a condition to the grants-in-aid, under an Act of the Constitution, Anglo-Indian schools in West Bengal were required to reserve 40 per cent of the places for Indians. The percentage of Indians (other than Anglo-Indians) in the Anglo-Indian schools in West Bengal during the period under review was round about 40. Most of these schools were private, the majority receiving aid from Government, while two at Kurseong *viz.*, the Victoria Boys' School and the Dow Hill Girls' School were directly managed by the State Government and one Higher Secondary school at Kharagpur and five Primary schools were maintained by the Railways. The control and supervision of all these schools, both Government and private, were vested in the State (formerly Provincial) Board for Anglo-Indian Education which worked in close collaboration with the inter-state (formerly inter-provincial) Board for the education of Anglo-Indians.

While the number of Anglo-Indian institutions increased by only one during the quinquennium (55 to 56) the number of scholars increased by 3,680, that is from 9896 to 13576. From the total direct expenditure of Rs. 39,26,950 on such institutions in 1951-52, Government's share was Rs. 8,92,207.

The Education of Tribal People

From April 1951, Tribal people formed a separate category. In 1951-52, 23 tribal students in post-matriculation stages received stipends from the Government and a sum of Rs. 87,400 was spent as stipends on students belonging to scheduled tribes reading in schools.

The Education of the Handicapped

In 1951-52 there were three schools for the blind—all of them aided by the Government—with a total enrolment of 174 students including 48 girls. A sum of Rs. 1,24,359 including Rs. 43,353 from Government funds was spent in 1951-52 on the maintenance of these institutions. Two of the institutions, *viz.*, the Behala Blind School and the All-India Lighthouse for the Blind are in Calcutta and the third at Kalimpong. The aim of these institutions is to provide Elementary and High school education through the Braille system in addition to vocational training in spinning, weaving, carpentry, basket-weaving etc.

Of the five schools that existed for the education of deaf-mutes in the previous quinquennium, one ceased to function. In 1951-52, these schools had a total strength of 321 including 86 girls and a staff consisting of 46 members of whom as many as 41 were specially trained. The number of teachers specially trained for the education

of deaf-mutes increased from 27 to 41 in last year of the quinquennium. A sum of Rs. 154,781 including Rs. 99,138 from Government funds was spent on these institutions in 1951-52.

Instruction is given in these schools in the ordinary Primary course and in vocational subjects like printing, clay-modelling, tailoring and metal-plating. The Calcutta Deaf and Dumb School has a Teachers' Training college attached to it.

At the beginning of the quinquennium there were two institutions for juvenile offenders in West Bengal managed by the State—one at Pankura and the other at Berhampore. In 1950-51 the Borstal School at Bankura was transferred from there to Berhampore. Juvenile offenders were taught to be useful citizens on being released from the Borstal School or the Reformatory.

APPENDIX B

JAMMU AND KASHMIR

Primary and Basic Education

In 1950, a Committee to review the entire field of education was appointed by the Government, which made far-reaching recommendations. It suggested that the Primary education should be covered in nine years, including three years at the Kindergarten stage. As 60 per cent of the pupils completed their education at this stage, it was decided that students should be trained at this level for effective membership of a progressive society. Accordingly, all Primary schools were reconstructed on the lines of Basic institutions during the quinquennium. Primary education was imparted through activity schools, which served as craft and handiwork centres. The special conditions of Kashmir were kept in view and the choice of the basic craft was not confined to cotton spinning alone. Crafts, which were commonly practised in the area and for which raw material was easily available, were introduced in the schools.

The duration of Primary education was increased from five to eight years. This was done by adding two years of Kindergarten at the lower, and one year at the higher end.

Kindergartens, which formed an integral part of Primary education, were established at various places in the villages. Apparatus was made locally and at cheap rates. Teachers working in these schools were selected with great care and given an intensive course of training for three weeks.

The number of students on the rolls of Primary schools in 1951-52 was 57,979 and the total expenditure on Primary education, Rs. 14,07,000.

The main problems during the quinquennium were (i) the paucity of teachers and (ii) inadequate equipment and buildings. In course of time, schools were provided with new buildings and old buildings replaced.

Secondary Education

To make Secondary education better suited to the economic needs of the State, a scheme of multi-purpose High schools was formulated. The Committee of Experts suggested that the duration of the Secondary stage should be four years. The appointment of a Career

Master was recommended in order to assess the aptitudes of pupils and to advise them on the choice of their career.

Another significant step was to stop grants-in-aid to all denominational schools and establish Government schools in their place. These Government schools were established in rural areas and taught agriculture as an optional subject.

The number of students in the various institutions was 1,317. Almost all High schools had adequate buildings. Libraries of Secondary schools were strengthened. Simple Urdu, in both scripts, was the medium of instruction in Secondary schools.

Subjects like the cottage industries of Kashmir, Agriculture, Rural Hygiene and Sanitation were included to enable students to take a more effective part in the economic reconstruction of the State.

As one of the main difficulties had been the absence of textbooks, the Government decided to set up a Board to organise the writing of textbooks. The syllabus of the Teachers' Training Course was also reconstructed.

The Training of Teachers

The staff of the Training College was sent out to study conditions prevailing in the State. The entire syllabus of training for Primary schools was overhauled especially to suit single-teacher schools. To increase the number of trained teachers, training classes attached to boys' and girls' High schools in Srinagar and Jammu, were separated. A Normal school with mixed staff was established in Jammu, and in Srinagar these classes were put under the charge of the Teachers' Training College. Steps were also taken to rationalise the teaching practice in the D.T. and B.T. courses.

University Education

One very important development during the quinquennium was the establishment of the Jammu and Kashmir University in 1949. Two Intermediate colleges were set up and in the college at Sopor, two subjects, Agriculture and Rural Economics, were added. In 1950, the Government College for Women was established at Srinagar and the S. P. College, Srinagar, was raised to the status of a degree college.

In 1951, the Government Degree Colleges were reorganised and the laboratories equipped. Post-graduate classes in Geology were started in 1948, and those in Economics, Botany and English were started in 1950, 1951 and 1952, respectively.

As the Jammu and Kashmir University was merely an affiliating body and lacked necessary finance, it was not possible to implement the main recommendations of the Indian University Commission. However, the University had initiated an ambitious programme of research in post-graduate teaching. Enrolment in the various constituent colleges rose from 2,236 in 1948-49 to 2,900 in 1951-52. Correspondingly, the expenditure (excluding that on Higher education) increased from Rs. 3,77,300 in 1947-48 to Rs. 6,14,920 in 1951-52.

Research

In collaboration with the Muslim University, Aligarh, the University of Jammu and Kashmir established in 1951 a research station for the study of cosmic rays at Gulmurg. The Oriental Research Section of the Archaeology Department was also reorganised. In addition to the Kashmir Saivism Research Section, a section on Mediaeval Civilisation and Culture was instituted. Besides books, manuscripts in Sanskrit, Dogri, Persian and Arabic were also collected. The Department was also engaged in editing *Tarikh-i-Hassan*, a complete history of Kashmir.

The Education of Girls and Women

Before 1947, the education of girls and women in Kashmir was confined mostly to big towns. The main difficulty was the lack of qualified teachers. To promote education of girls, Primary schools were established in rural areas and education up to Matriculation was made free. A college for women was established at Srinagar and substantial grants-in-aid were given to other girls' colleges in Jammu. The separate training classes for women were amalgamated with classes for men and thus two well-equipped training institutions were established with mixed staff. At the same time, two clubs, one in Jammu and the other in Srinagar, were organised for women teachers.

Co-education in Primary schools was started in 1952. Merit-cum-poverty scholarships for girls continued to be in force while deserving girls were also given help from the Prime Minister's Education Fund.

Physical Education

Physical education in the State was completely overhauled. In various institutions, physical training, drill and games were organised. A full-time expert on Physical education was appointed, who trained teachers, coordinated Physical educational activities and organised youth camps and refresher courses. The old type of drill masters in Secondary schools were replaced by graduates who were

given a special course of training in Physical education. In summer, youth camps were held at various health resorts of the State. Rowing and boat-racing were a special feature of some colleges and schools in the Valley.

The Jammu and Kashmir National Cadet Corps was organised and 444 students trained. The most encouraging aspect of this activity was the participation of girls and women.

Aesthetic Education

Although no special institutions existed for Aesthetic education, efforts were made to revive and stimulate the interest of people in their cultural heritage. This scheme was further stimulated by the efforts of voluntary cultural organisations.

Early in the Quinquennium, the Dogra School of Painting was discovered and an exhibition of paintings was organised in Jammu in which a large number of pictures of private collections were exhibited. Annual days in the memory of important architects of Kashmir culture, viz., Habba Khatun, Jammu Jatta Baba and Rasul Mir were also celebrated.

During the period under review, the Department tried to have Kashmiri Classic Music reduced to notation. Besides the efforts of Ustad Ramzan and Ustad Sang, the T. T. College helped in the matter and as many as 24 classical tunes were reduced to notation by the latter institution.

Pre-Primary Education

As a result of the Kindergarten scheme which was organised in 1951, the number of Kindergarten schools increased in the State. There were about 200 Kindergartens all over the State offering a two-year course. Relief was provided to poor children in clothes and mid-day meals.

The Textbook Advisory Board of *Jammu and Kashmir* that was constituted in November 1948, was able to print and market its own textbooks. Ninety-six books on various school subjects, written in Hindi, Urdu, English, Persian, Arabic, Kashmiri and Punjabi, were compiled and nearly 300,000 volumes were issued under the management of the Board. To avoid all possibility of corruption, the Board evolved a new scheme for the writing of textbooks and set up selected panels of authors.

APPENDIX C

KUTCH

Basic Education

A scheme for introducing "Basic-bias" in Primary schools was launched, but the paucity of Basic trained teachers retarded its progress. The craft of spinning was introduced into ten schools of Kutch with a view to their eventual conversion into Basic schools. The trainees in Primary Teachers Training schools were also taught spinning as an additional subject. In turn they tried to introduce this in schools wherever suitable conditions existed. Clay modelling was introduced in many Government schools of Kutch.

Primary Education

In all Primary schools, instruction was imparted in Gujrati. The Government encouraged efforts made by the people to promote Primary education in the State, and to make it creative. Education was free but not compulsory. Revised rules for the recognition of schools were published. New syllabuses of courses were prepared. Uniform textbooks were introduced in all Government recognised schools. A standing committee to advise the Government on educational problems was also formed.

The number of recognised Primary schools in the State increased from 237 in 1947-48 to 263 in 1951-52. Enrolment correspondingly rose from 13,338 to 18,572. In 1951-52, there were 490 unrecognised schools with 22,489 students on the rolls. With the increase in the number of institutions, the number of Primary teachers rose from 464 in 1947-48 to 544 in 1951-52.

Most Government schools had their own buildings, but extensions and repairs were needed for many of them. There was a great shortage of playgrounds.

There was a steep rise in expenditure on Primary education in the State. It rose from Rs. 2,12,131 in 1947-48 to Rs. 5,52,731 in 1951-52.

Primary education in Kutch has been bookish and has required reorientation. It has also suffered on account of the paucity of trained teachers. Teachers betrayed apathy and a fatalistic outlook and showed reluctance to serve in rural areas. During the sowing and harvesting seasons, children were required to help their elders in the fields. This explained the sudden fall in attendance during these seasons. It is expected that the introduction of Compulsory education will arrest this tendency.

Secondary Education

The Secondary education organisation was divided into Middle and High schools. The number of High schools rose from four with 1,033 students in 1947-48 to seven with 2,186 students at the end of the Quinquennium.

Expenditure on Secondary education rose from Rs. 1,30,235 in 1947-48 to Rs. 2,30,106 in 1951-52.

The Training of Teachers

To provide qualified teachers in the Primary schools of Kutch, provision was made for training them at the Primary Teachers Training School. A batch varying from 30 to 40 teachers was trained from this school every year. Tuition was free and about ten scholarships were awarded every year to deserving scholars from Government institutions.

Social Education

There were no special schools for Social education, but 30 schools were organised to impart instruction in the three R.s to adults. Some of the centres were organised by the Community Project Officer and the Backward Class Officer. Expenditure was met by the Government.

APPENDIX D

MADHYA PRADESH

Efforts were made to increase the number of colleges, to improve the quality and status of teachers and to promote the teaching of Engineering and Technology.

The Sagar University Act of 1946 was amended so as to exempt students of Scheduled Castes and Backward Communities from the payment of university fees.

The number of Arts and Science colleges increased from 14 in 1946-47 to 21 in 1951-52 and Professional colleges from eight to 16. Comparative figures of enrolment for all colleges of the State were 6,939 in 1946-47 as against 14,256 in 1951-52. Total expenditure on University education stood at Rs. 1,07,43,202 in 1951-52.

The strength of the teaching staff was 785 in 1951-52 as against 413 in 1946-47.

The National Cadet Corps was established in 1948-49. Its strength in 1951-52 was 1,636. A Girl's Division of 90 cadets was established in September, 1949. Several new subjects like Music, Home Science, Geography, Sociology, etc., were included in the curriculum. Several post-war educational development schemes were in process of implementation.