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ABSTRACT

The five chapters of this publication describe primary education in India. Chapter 1 reviews the historical background and structure of elementary education. Major topics include constitutional and legal provisions, the structure of education at school, non-formal education, school administration, planning, curriculum development, teacher training, and community involvement. Chapter 2 reports on progress and present status related to universalization of elementary education. Discussion focuses on universalization, progress achieved, primary and middle school enrollment, qualitative improvement, curriculum development and renewal, and expenditure on elementary education. Chapter 3 describes strategies for universalization of elementary education. Enrollment targets are described, measures envisaged and undertaken are reported, and future strategies are discussed. Chapter 4 reports significant new developments and programs. Topics addressed include the non-formal system of learning, development activities in community education and participation, comprehensive access to primary education, action research on universal primary education, education of special groups, primary curriculum renewal, early childhood education, utilization of mass media for school education, a rapport-based program of school improvement, and a program for enhancing the competence of teachers. Chapter 5 summarizes gains made and goals to be achieved. Tables of related data are appended. (RH)

APEID

Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development

Towards Universalization of Primary Education in Asia and the Pacific

Country Studies

INDIA

UNESCO

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1984

This volume is one of a series of National studies of the progress being made towards the universalization of primary education undertaken by the following Member States:

Bangladesh	Papua New Guinea
China	Philippines
India	Republic of Korea
Indonesia	Socialist Republic of Viet Nam
Nepal	Sri Lanka
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Preface

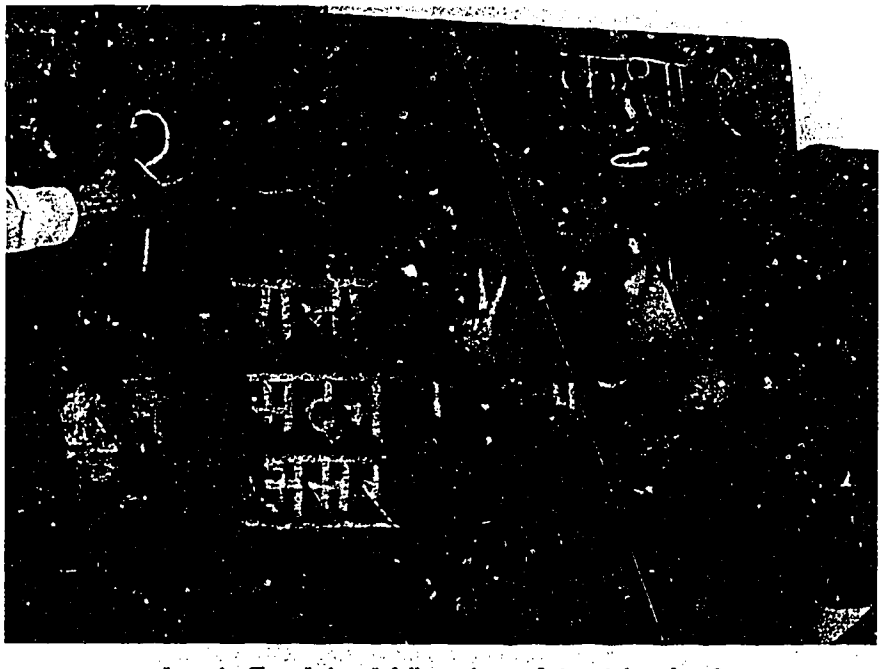
Universalization of primary education (UPE) is one of the major priority goals of countries in the region of Asia and the Pacific. The developing countries in particular, are now vigorously engaged in the formulation and implementation of policies, plans and programmes aimed at making adequate and suitable opportunities for primary education available as soon as possible for all children and young people.

In 1983, as part of a major project under the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) on the Universalization of Education, 12 countries in the region undertook national studies. The national studies were conducted to analyse the stage reached by the countries in UPE, and the problems encountered by them in providing educational opportunities to all children at the primary level; to review significant new and current developments in programmes and projects which the countries have undertaken in order to expand and improve primary education; and to contribute to achieving the target of primary education for all children. The studies were conducted by national institutes and professional groups under the guidance of high level committees of the Ministries of Education in the respective countries.

On completion of the national studies, a Regional Review Meeting was held in November 1983 which undertook an in-depth analysis of the methodologies of the national studies and examined their findings. The meeting also made suggestions for improving and updating the national studies tabled for review.

Following the recommendations of the review meeting, study teams in the participating countries have revised and updated the national studies. The present publication is an outcome of the collaborative and co-operative efforts of the member countries in understanding the progress made in the universalization of primary education, the nature and extent of problems and issues and their implications for achieving UPE in the region before the end of this century.

This series which provides a comparative view of the position of and progress made in UPE has been published with the view that the countries in the region, in their bid to step up measures for UPE, will find the information, experiences and conclusions useful in pursuing the goal of 'education for all' with a new vigor by drawing on the experiences of other countries with the same goals and objectives.



I am in Class I; but I fully understand 1 and 1 makes 2

Craftwork—Earn while you learn

A field trip—such outdoor educational activities are of immense value in enriching the children's experiences

Photographs supplied by courtesy of
the National Council of Educational Research and Training
New Delhi

CONTENTS

Chapter One

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND STRUCTURE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Introduction

India has a long tradition of education, both of formally organized institutions such as the Universities of *Takshashila* and *Nalanda,* as well as the less formal, such as the hermitages where great teachers took charge of their wards. The education provided in these institutions was not entirely religious. Martial arts, and in the case of the Princes, state-craft were as much a part of education as was the learning of great scriptures. The age of Buddha was a glorious period for mass education. Evidence exists to indicate that he was a great visionary and teacher who made a successful attempt to educate the masses by using simple people's language – *prakrit* instead of *sanskrit* – to impart life education free from prejudices regarding caste, creed and sex. In Nalanda, vocational training was an essential part of the total education programme. Education was, however, a selective affair in the sense that the great mass of people were untouched by it.

By the end of the eighteenth century, India had a well developed system of indigenous education. There was, however, no formal school system organized and supported by the State. The educational system consisted of institutions voluntarily organized to meet the limited felt needs of certain sections of people, mostly from well-to-do families. The educational scenario reflected the socio-economic background of Indian society, which was highly stratified, hierarchical and inegalitarian, consisting of a small group of well-to-do persons and a mass of people who were poor and underpriviledged. The indigenous education system consisted of institutions which could be grouped into two categories. The first consisted of the *pathashalas* and *madrassahs* which predominantly offered religious instruction. The second category included institutions providing secular education.

Universalization of education — India

The beginning of the modern educational system was made with Macaulay's minute of 1835, laying down for the East India Company a policy for supporting education. Henceforth, the Government's effort was directed to the promotion of western learning, through the medium of English, in spite of the efforts of the orientalists to provide education suited to the Indian culture. The Court of Directors' Despatch of 1854 laid the foundation of modern education. Apart from recommending the establishment of departments of education and a system of grants-in-aid to private institutions, the Despatch suggested the setting up of universities in the three towns of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay.

The basic motivation to establish and subsidize English education in India was not as noble as that of Macaulay, for whom the purpose of Western education in India was to transform 'the natives into English, in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect'. The objectives were determined much more by British colonial and imperialistic purposes and by the pragmatic consideration of creating a class or classes of people who would be loyal to them and would act as interpreters between the British administrators and the natives, in order to facilitate the governance of an expanding empire.

One of the contributions made by the British administrators was to give to all citizens open access to educational institutions maintained or supported by the government. However, the educational system created was mainly for the upper class and it neglected education of the poor people who formed the large majority. The emphasis was on what has come to be known as the 'downward filtration theory' or the idea that culture would filter down from the upper to the lower classes. 'Educate the upper classes so that they can educate the masses', was the official policy adopted. The government never developed any programme of universal elementary education. The attempt was to spread elementary education among the people on a voluntary basis. But this effort was more than counterbalanced by the policy of neutrality to social reform, by the establishment of private independent schools for the well-to-do upper classes and by the inegalitarian structure of the educational system created by the British administration.

Universal elementary education. The British administration did not accept the principle of compulsory elementary education. The Indian leaders, however, continued their efforts to induce the central

government to initiate steps for providing a minimum general education to all children on a free and compulsory basis. But the first effective step in this direction was taken only in 1881 when Dadabhai Naoroji, in his evidence before the first Education Commission (1882), popularly known as the Hunter Commission, put forward the demand that four years of compulsory education should be provided to all children. The demand was reiterated by the late Shri Gopal Krishna Gokhale, who moved a resolution on the subject in 1910 in the Central Legislative Assembly (1910-1912) and a bill in 1912, with the intention of inducing the central government to accept the responsibility to provide universal primary education of four years to all children. Though his efforts were unsuccessful they succeeded in arousing public consciousness of the demand for compulsory primary education. As a result, the provincial governments which came into existence under the Government of India Act (1919) passed compulsory education legislation and increased facilities for primary education. Between 1918 and 1931 compulsory education laws were passed by the newly elected state legislatures in which the Indians had a majority.

The compulsory education legislation, however, did not bring about the desired results, since the laws were permissive and could not be enforced upon poor people whose children had to remain away from schools mainly on account of poverty. Moreover, the education provided was not relevant to the needs of the masses of people. The dissatisfaction with a system based on a model which did not satisfy the requirements of the nation led to advocacy of and experimentation with a number of alternative models. In 1937, Mahatma Gandhi put forward his scheme of basic education under which education of seven years duration was proposed for all children. The Wardha Educational Conference endorsed the proposal made by Mahatma Gandhi by adopting a resolution demanding that 'free and compulsory education be provided for seven years' for all children on a nationwide scale. The scheme proposed that the mother tongue be the medium of instruction and that education be built around some form of productive craft. The scheme of basic education was conceived to be more in conformity with the needs and aspirations of the people. It was also considered to be less costly, which should facilitate its implementation throughout the country within the constraints of limited resources The scheme of basic education, thus, represented the first indigenous effort in the

country to develop a national pattern of education. Subsequently, a large number of institutions incorporating the principles of basic education were set up in the country.

As a result of these efforts, the provision of free and compulsory education to all children until the age of 14 years, was nationally accepted as the responsibility of the State. The Post-war Plan of Educational Development in India (1944), known popularly as the Sargent Plan, put forward proposals to provide free and compulsory basic education to all children in the age group 6-14 in a phased programme spread over a period of 40 years (1944-1984). The national leadership, however, felt that this was too long a period and a Committee under the Chairmanship of the late Shri B.G. Kher, the then Chief Minister of Bombay, recommended that the goal could and should be achieved by 1960. This recommendation was finally accepted and incorporated in Article 45 of the Indian Constitution as a Directive Principle of State Policy.

Constitutional and legal provision

Systematic development of universal elementary education was taken up with the attainment of independence in 1947, particularly with the enactment of the Constitution of India in 1950 and initiation of country-wide economic and social planning in 1951. Article 45 of the Constitution enacted in 1950, enjoins that 'the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years'. The expression 'State' which occurs in Article 45 is defined in Article 12 to include 'The Government and Parliament of India and the Government and the Legislature of each State and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India'. Commendable efforts have been made to implement the constitutional directive through successive Five Year Plans.

The Constitution lays down the basic framework for educational development in India. While education, including university education, is designated as a subject of the states' legislative concern, their exercise of powers is subject to various limitations. Article 29 guarantees to every section of the population the right to preserve its distinct language, script and culture. Article 30 enjoins that 'all

minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice'. It also lays down that 'the State shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority whether based on religion or language'.

Special care of the economic and educational interests of the underprevileged sections of the population is laid down as an obligation for the State under Article 46. Under the provisions of this Article the state and central governments, apart from free education, provide scholarships and stipends to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and backward class students, reserve for them seats in educational institutions and give preference to them in job recruitment.

The legal powers of the Union and the constituent states have been listed in the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution. List I deals with powers of the Union; List II with those of the states; and List III with spheres in which both the Union and the state governments can legislate, the Union legislation having, however, a primacy over state legislation. Even though university education falls within the jurisdiction of the states, the Union Government has been delegated with important responsibilities in regard to the maintenance of central universities and institutions of scientific and technical education, financed wholly or partially by the central Government and 'coordination and determination of standards in institutions of higher education or research and scientific and technical institutions'. In List III, three specific entries have an important bearing for education, entry 20 dealing with economic and social planning, entry 25 with vocational and technical training of labour and entry 26, with legal, medical and other professional education. Education being a major instrument for economic and social well-being, the Central Government can assume important roles in educational planning.

Education acts. Compulsory education acts were initially introduced in the states around the major centres of modern education during the British rule, namely Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. Subsequently, similar legislation was adopted in most of the other states. With the reorganization of the states, the jurisdiction of the territory, over which such acts were legally valid, underwent modification. The age-group of children who came under the purview of compulsory education acts to some extent varied from state to state.

The City of Bombay Education Act of 1920, the Tamil Nadu Elementary Education Act (1920), the Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act (1930) and the United Province Primary Education Act (1919 and 1926) were the earliest legislation aimed at bringing every child in the age group 6-11 to the primary school. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands Primary Education Regulation Act, 1959 (No. 3 of 1953) and Kerala Education Act, 1958 (Act of 6, 1959) happened to be the first sets of such legislation after independence. In 1960 and 1961, similar acts were enacted in Punjab, Haryana, Delhi, Chandigarh, Himachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Karnataka. The Rajasthan Primary Education Act and the Assam Elementary Education Act came into operation in 1964 and 1974 respectively.

Legislation for compulsory primary education exists at present in 16 States and three Union Territories. These are Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh and Delhi. However, only the Compulsory Education Act of Himachal Pradesh covers the entire elementary stage of education for children in the age group 6-14. In the remaining states and Union Territories, the Compulsory Education Acts cover only the primary stage of education.

The enforcement of legislation is considered neither feasible nor ..irable since the major reasons for non-enrolment and non-attendance are socio-economic factors and social prejudices against girls' education among certain communities. The strategy that has been followed for ensuring enrolment and retention has been pursuasion rather than compulsion or imposition of penalities. It has not been feasible to enforce compulsion in the case of disabled children, for special educational services needed for them are not yet available, except in a few urban localities.

Provision of free and compulsory education. Education in Classes I to V is free in all schools managed by Government and local bodies and a sizeable proportion of schools aided by government in all the states and Union Territories. Education in Classes VI to VIII is free in all the states and Union Territories, except in Uttar Pradesh where education of boys is yet to be made free for Classes VI to

VIII. Efforts are now being made by the Government of Uttar Pradesh to extend free education to boys at the middle stage also.

National policy on education. The problems pertaining to development of education at different levels have been reviewed from time to time by committees appointed by the central and state governments in addition to the annual reviews made by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE). Similar reviews have been made by various high powered Commissions. The Education Commission (1964-1966) appointed by the Government of India, examined all levels and aspects of education in depth and enunciated a comprehensive educational policy fully oriented towards national development.

After reviewing the progress achieved in the first three Five Year Plans (1951-1966), the Education Commission recommended, among other things, a rearrangement of priorities in education. It underlined national development as one of the most important concerns of education. Bold recommendations were made to reconstruct the programme of education through a transformation of its content so as to relate it to the needs and aspirations of the people. Special emphasis was laid on an imaginative programme of qualitative improvement to ensure adequacy of standards achieved and a carefully planned expansion of educational facilities with the accent on equalization of educational opportunities.

The recommendations of the Education Commission were discussed widely, and following the general concensus that emerged, a Resolution on National Policy on Education was formally issued by the Government in 1968. The Resolution enunciated seventeen principles for guiding educational development in the years ahead.

On the provision of free and compulsory education at the elementary stage, the Resolution stated that 'strenuous efforts should be made for the early fulfilment of the Directive Principles under Article 45 of the Constitution seeking to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14'.

The Resolution emphasized equalization of educational opportunities and stressed that 'regional imbalances in the provision of educational facilities should be corrected and good educational facilities should be provided in rural and other backward areas'. To

promote social cohesion and national integration, the Resolution emphasized the need to 'have a broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country'. It also stated that 'the education of girls should receive emphasis' and highlighted the need to make more intensive efforts 'to develop education among the backward classes and especially among the tribal people'.

Structure of school education

For administrative purposes, India is divided into 22 states and nine Union Territories. Education, particularly school education, is the responsibility primarily of the states and Union Territories. The 42nd amendment to the Constitution, made recently, has made education a concurrent subject, thus investing the central government with the authority to legislate on education. However, no legislation has been enacted by the Government of India on education yet. The central government, as in the past, continues to use channels other than legislation for evolving national consensus on educational policies.

Being a federal state, there are some variations in the structure of school education. The primary stage consists of the first five years of schooling comprising Classes I-V in some states, and the first four years of schooling comprising Classes I-IV in others. The middle stage includes three years of schooling after the primary stage, comprising either Classes V-VII or VI-VIII, depending upon the pattern of classes prevalent in the state or territory. The middle stage may be an independent unit or combined with primary and secondary sections or both. The primary and middle stages together constitute the elementary stage. Thus, normally, the elementary school stage has Classes I-VII or I-VIII.

In most cases, Classes IX-X constitute the secondary stage. Schools having this pattern are normally referred to as 'high schools'. In some states, the secondary stage terminates only at the end of class XI. The schools having Classes IX-XI are referred to as higher secondary schools. In some states/UTs where the secondary stage terminates at the end of Class X, there exists a stage of school education called the higher/senior secondary stage comprising Classes XI-XII. However, in the case of a few states the higher/senior secondary stage forms part of college education, often referred to as the intermediate or pre-degree stage.

The Education Commission (1964-1966) proposed an uniform pattern for school systems throughout the country. Following the recommendations made by the Education Commission and the National Policy on Education (1968), many states and Union Territories have adopted the 10+2 pattern of school education, comprising primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary stages. In these states/UTs, Classes I-V constitute the primary stage, Classes VI-VIII the middle stage, Classes IX-X the secondary stage and Classes XI-XII the higher secondary stage.

So far 18 states and nine Union Territories have adopted the 10+2 pattern of school education. In Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and Rajasthan, the secondary stage continues to consist of Classes IX-XI. These states have, however, agreed to adopt the 10+2 pattern from the next academic session onwards.

A child is normally admitted to Class I at the age of six and he is expected to complete Class V at the age of about eleven years and Class VIII at the age of about 14 years. Classes I-VIII constitute the elementary stage of school education for the age group 6-14 and it is for this age group that attempts to universalize education are being made.

Under the new pattern of school education, every student is expected to follow a uniform programme of studies up to Class X. It is only in Classes XI and XII that diversification is resorted to and students are expected to opt for what are broadly categorized as the academic stream or vocational courses, which are largely terminal.

Organizational set-up for administration of school education

The administration of school education is organized at two major levels — central and state. Both the central and state/Union Territory governments have their own machinery for administration of school education. Within each state/Union Territory there are, apart from the government machinery, local government agencies and private groups involved in school education with their own set-up for management of school education. A large majority of them receive financial support from the Government. Except for a small number, primary schools are managed by local bodies like municipalities, municipal corporations and panchayat raj institutions. Middle schools are largely under the control of Government.

Central level. At the central level, the Department of Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for all matters connected with education, including overall planning and guidance. The Department is under the charge of a Secretary who is assisted and advised by the Special Secretary/Educational Adviser, on academic and policy matters of education.

The Department of Education consists of several bureaux, each headed by a Joint Secretary, a Joint Educational Adviser or a Director. These officials are assisted by Deputy Secretaries or Deputy Educational Advisers who are called divisional heads. They are assisted by Under Secretaries or Assistant Educational Advisers who have one or more sections under them.

Though school education is the responsibility primarily of the state/UT governments, the Department of Education in the central government is responsible for providing guidance to state governments and Union Territory administrations in the formulation and implementation of educational plans and programmes. It is also directly responsible for implementation of the programmes which have been included in its plan. It advises the state governments on all educational matters and assists them in providing free and compulsory elementary education to all children until they reach the age of 14. The Department is also responsible for co-ordination of activities in the field of school education and for monitoring the progress of education all over the country, in addition to bringing out statistical and other publications related to educational programmes and progress achieved. The Department of Education in the Union Government has a special responsibility for education in the Union Territories.

Specialized institutions

In order to assist and advise the Ministry of Education in the implementation of its policies and programmes, particularly school education, the Union Government has set up a number of specialized institutions and organizations at the national level for the development and improvement of school education. Prominent among these are the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) and Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan (KVS).

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was set up in 1961 as an autonomous organization financed entirely by the Ministry of Education. The Council assists the Ministry of Education and the state governments in implementing policies and formulating major programmes in the field of school education, particularly in the context of universalization of elementary education. It not only plays a leadership role but also maintains a close liaison with all the state governments and Union Territory administrations through its network of Field Advisers Offices and four Regional Colleges of Education.

NCERT has made a significant contribution to the effort for qualitative improvement of school education in general and of elementary education in particular. The major functions of the Council are research, development, training and extension. To ensure a multiplier effect, the Council has adopted the strategy of training key personnel of state/UT institutions, who in turn are utilized for training a large number of teachers, supervisors and other functionaries. Development activities and their extension constitute an important aspect of the Council's work. The development of curricula and preparation of textbooks for school education have been among its main activities. The Council has prepared teachers' guides, student's workbooks, supplementary reading materials, and undertaken publication of research monographs and periodicals. It has also developed teaching aids, science kits, laboratory equipment, educational films, instructional television programmes and radio scripts for elementary school children. Serious attention is paid to experimentation and improving instructional processes/practices and innovations related to curriculum development, learning processes, guidance and measurement and evaluation. In short, the focus of the work of NCERT is the development and improvement of school education and teacher education in the country.

The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) was set up in 1972, mainly to improve educational planning and administrative services in the country. It organizes training courses, seminars, workshops and conferences of senior education officers at the Centre and in the states/UTs, especially with reference to the planning and management aspects of the programme of universalization of elementary education. It has also been undertaking studies of problems faced in educational planning and administration at different levels.

Universalization of education — India

Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan was set up in 1965 in order to provide educational facilities to children of transferable central government employees. The schools set up by Sangathan are situated all over the country and they provide education from the primary stage to the senior secondary stage, i.e. Classes I-XII. The Sangathan has contributed significantly to the improvement of school education.

All India forums

In addition to the above organizations and institutions, the Government has developed a number of All-India forums mainly to facilitate the process of educational development in the country. They also help in strengthening the relationship between the central and state governments, in planning and administration of educational programmes as well as in co-ordination of various activities aimed at developing education in the country. Co-ordination of school education is secured through the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE), State Education Ministers' Conferences and the Planning Commission.

CABE is the highest advisory body in the field of education and it lays down general educational policy. It formulates aims and objects, assesses prevailing position and draws up future plans. Most educational schemes are formulated and implemented by state governments and Union Territory administrations on the basis of policies laid down by CABE.

The conferences of Education Ministers of states and Union Territories held generally once a year, provide forums for them to consider issues relating to the overall national policy on education. In these conferences progress achieved in the provision of universal elementary education is critically reviewed and strategies for future action are discussed and formulated.

These forums help to develop a broad consensus on educational issues within the federal system, where states have considerable autonomy in educational matters.

The Planning Commission of the Government of India is responsible for preparing development plans, including plans for education, for the whole country. Plans are prepared in consultation with

the representatives of the state/UT governments. In the discussion held in the Planning Commission every year to finalize the Annual Plans of states/UTs for education, detailed information on various aspects of elementary education is collected. During these discussions, the Commission brings together officials of the Department of Education in the Union Ministry of Education and the Education Departments of states/UTs so as to enable them to critically review the progress achieved and chalk out future strategies for the development of school education in the country. By determining the allocation of resources the Planning Commission exercises substantial influence on the direction of educational development.

State level. For administration, every state/Union Territory is divided into districts. In some states, where the districts are fairly large, there is an intermediate unit between the state government and the district administration. A district is further subdivided into blocks and the whole country has about 5,000 such blocks.

The Department of Education, headed by a Secretary to the state government, is responsible for formulation and implementation of all educational programmes in the state. He is assisted by additional and/or Joint Secretaries, Deputy Secretaries, Under Secretaries and Section Officers and other supporting staff.

Each state/UT has a Directorate of Education or a Directorate of Public Instruction headed by a Director called the Director of Education/Public Instruction. In some of the states/UTs there is more than one Directorate, each looking after a particular stage of school education such as elementary education, secondary education and so on.

To facilitate educational planning and administration, states have been divided into several regions, each region under the charge of a regional Deputy Director/Superintendent/Joint Director/Circle Education Officers/Chief Education Officers according to the pattern adopted by the state.

For convenience of educational administration, in some states, educational districts non co-terminus with revenue districts, have been created. Each education district is under the charge of an officer generally called a District Education Officer (DEO) or a District Inspector of Schools (DIS). Each DEO is assisted by a number of lower level officers at the block level. The educational activities of

a block, which is the lowest unit of educational administration in India, is under the charge of an officer who is designated differently in different states/UTs. In some, he is designated as a Block Education Officer, in some a Sub-deputy Inspector of Schools, and in others an Extension Officer (Education). These officials are mostly concerned with elementary education in their blocks.

Educational administration in the states of India is thus carried out at several levels. The organizational structure and the administrative set-up of school education in India varies from state/UT to state/UT. According to the number of structural layers of administration, the states and Union Territories can be grouped into four categories. In the case of Union Territories, which are usually small geographical units, the levels of educational administration are only one or two. Three Union Territories have a unitary type of administration under a single Directorate of Education, responsible for administering the entire department of education. Four states and three Union Territories have a two tier system at the state and district levels. Seven states and three Union Territories have a three tier system with a directorate at the state level supported by Divisional and District offices. Eleven states have a four tier system of educational functionaires at the state, regional, district and block levels.

District level. At the district level, the responsibility for administrative and financial matters belongs to the District Education Officer/District Inspector of Schools who is assisted by block level officers and an administrative and clerical establishment. The DEOs are designated differently in different States. The DEO normally works directly under the Director of Education/Public Instruction, except in some states where there is an intermediate regional/divisional machinery for educational administration.

Administration and supervision at the district level vary from state to state. For instance in Andhra Pradesh, each DEO has three or four gazetted Inspectors of Schools who help him in academic inspection and administration. The educational district is further divided into sub-districts, each sub-district being in the charge of a Deputy Inspector of Schools, who is mainly responsible for supervision and inspection of primary and middle schools. In Bihar, the DEO is assisted by a Superintendent of Education who administers primary and middle schools. He also supervises the work of the Deputy Inspectors of Schools and block education extension officers

who inspect primary and middle schools respectively. In Karnataka, the Deputy Director of Public Instruction is concerned with the inspection of high schools.

The DEO in Maharashtra functions as an adviser to and administrator of elementary and secondary schools under the charge of the Zila Parishad (District Council). He is assisted by a deputy education officer, a superintendent, and a social education organizer. The assistant deputy education inspector of schools assists the DEO in the inspection of primary schools and organization of primary education activities at the block level.

In Uttar Pradesh, the District Inspector of Schools is in charge of education at the district level. He is assisted by a Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari (District Basic Education Officer) who is in charge of education up to Class VIII. In addition there are a number of deputy and assistant inspectors of schools who assist the DIS in discharging his responsibilities.

A detailed study of the administrative structure of elementary education in nine states — Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal — was sponsored by NIEPA in 1979. The study indicated that, though the designation of the DEO or corresponding officials at the district level varies from state to state, the functions and powers assigned to DEOs are more or less similar in all parts of the country. He/she functions as chief co-ordinator of all educational activities at the school stage in the district and is the most important functionary in the preparation of the district educational plan. His functions include inspection of all subordinate offices under his control at least once each year and inspection of not less than 15 per cent of schools in the district every year. The DEO is also responsible for co-ordinating the functioning of primary and middle schools which are under the administrative control of the Zila Parishad, Panchayat Samitis (block/village level representative body), municipalities and private agencies.

The office of the District Education Officer is responsible for co-ordinating provision of incentives, appointments and transfers of primary and middle school teachers. The duties of the DEO include the regular release of grants and other payments to local bodies and aided institutions and submission of utilization certificates. The

DEO is also expected to be present at all meetings of the District Selection Committee for selection of elementary school teachers.

The above job description of the District Education Officer includes major activities only and it has been observed that due to numerous administrative commitments he very often fails to provide academic leadership to the school system in the district. While traditionally educational administration was designed with greater emphasis on inspection and supervision, with the rapid expansion of educational facilities in the post-independence period, educational administration has been increasingly involved with desk work and consultative meetings. As a result, field visits and community contacts have suffered considerably. Most of the DEOs interviewed by the NIEPA team confessed that they could hardly afford to spend more than 20 to 30 days a year visiting schools to provide technical support and guidance. The maintenance of data and records at the district level, including systematic mapping of schools for the purpose of efficient planning and monitoring, was found to be rather poor.

At the sub-district level, which happens to be either a Community Development Block, sub-division or Tehsil, an officer representing the Education Department is responsible for co-ordinating all matters relating to elementary education, under the overall guidance and control of the DEO. However, the Extension Officer (Education), Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools or Tehsil Education Officer who represents the Education Department at the sub-district, is of a junior grade and does not operate as head of an independent office at the block or sub-division level. In most cases, the Extension Officer (Education) in a block is under the control of the Block Development Officer. The dual control of the Extension Officer (Education) by the DEO and BDO often poses a serious hindrance to the smooth functioning of educational administration at the sub-district level.

The role of the Deputy Inspector of Schools or Extension Officer (Education) is crucial from the point of view of facilitating inter-agency co-operation and community participation at the school level. However, as he, like the DEO, is mostly involved in administrative matters including preparation of salary bills of teachers, and collection and consolidation of statistical data, he finds it extremely difficult to visit primary and middle schools under him even for a minimum period of 20 days a month, as prescribed. As in the case

of district level administration, the maintenance of statistics at the sub-district level is by and large unsatisfactory.

Non-government administrative machinery

According to the type of management, schools are generally categorized in four groups — government schools; schools run by local government bodies such as the Zila Parishad, municipalities, corporations, and Panchayati raj institutions; private aided and private unaided schools. India has an old tradition of private or non-governmental support to education. There are both recognized and unrecognized educational institutions. A recognized institution may be aided or unaided by government. All aided schools are recognized and they receive regular financial assistance from the Government. Recognition to schools is given by the state/Government; it is granted to a school subject to its fulfilling certain conditions regarding required facilities. A private or non-government educational institution is generally established by a charitable or social welfare organization or individuals; who provide land, construct buildings, provide furniture and provide finance for payment of teachers and other personnel until the institution is granted recognition and grant-in-aid by the government. In the case of aided schools the management contributes matching funds towards maintenance and running of the school.

Organizational set-up for implementation of non-formal education programme

Considering the inadequacy of the formal system of education to cater to the educational needs of a large proportion of children, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections, substantial headway is being made in the provision of non-formal education as an alternate strategy for universalization of elementary education. By 1983, nearly 100,000 non-formal education centres enrolling nearly three million children in the age group 9-14, had been established.

The non-formal education programme is being implemented through the normal administrative machinery already available at the centre and in the states, but with suitable strengthening, wherever required. At the centre, the School Education Bureau, headed by a

Joint Secretary in the Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, is responsible for all matters concerned with the implementation of the non-formal education programme. The role of the Ministry of Education includes overall administration of the scheme, monitoring the implementation of the programme and utilization of funds and co-ordination of the activities of the various agencies involved. It is assisted by NCERT, which provides the academic guidance and support necessary at the state level.

At the state level, the Directorate of Education/Public Instruction is in charge of implementing the programme. In some states there is a separate Directorate of Non-formal Education, headed by a Director. The Directorate of Education/Public Instruction performs the functions of disbursement of funds, actual implementation of the programme, monitoring of the implementation and providing feedback on the implementation process to the Union Ministry of Education. In performing these functions, the Director is assisted by a Joint Director of non-formal education and supervisory officers at the district and block levels.

The academic support to the programme at the state level is provided by the State Institute of Education (SIE) or the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT). It is responsible for preparation of curricula and instructional materials, and for training of personnel at all levels. The SIE/SCERT is assisted by the elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) in conducting the training of instructors, supervisors and co-ordinators at the block level.

The mechanism for the supervision of non-formal education centres varies from state to state. The supervision of these centres in Uttar Pradesh is carried out by a block-level supervisor who has about 75 centres under his charge. At the district level, the administration of the centres is looked after by an Additional Deputy Inspector under the overall supervision of the District Basic Education Officer, who is in charge of all programmes of elementary education in the district. The monitoring of the programme is done in every region by an officer on special duty under the guidance of a Regional Deputy Director of Education. An Additional Director/ Joint Director looks after planning, implementation, financing and monitoring of the entire programme under the overall supervision of the Additional Director of Education (Elementary).

In Madhya Pradesh, there are two categories of non-formal education centres, namely district centres and centres under the jurisdiction of Basic Training Institutions (BTIs). District centres are under the control of the DEO and BTI centres under the respective principals of BTIs. Each district centre is inspected by the Assistant District Inspector of Schools (ADI) once a month. Similarly each BTI centre is inspected, once a month, by the principal of the BTI to which the centre is attached.

In Andhra Pradesh, the supervision of the centres in a block consisting of 60 centres is done by a supervisor. Monthly progress reports and reports of the visit to the centres is sent by the supervisor to the DEO who looks after the programme at the district level. The DEO works in close liaison with the Joint Director for non-formal education who, at the Directorate level, assists the Additional Director of School Education and the Commissioner for School Education in planning, implementation and monitoring of the programme at the state level.

A system of monitoring has been built up in all states/UTs implementing the non-formal education programme. The feedback on the programme flows from centres to the block level, district level and state authorities and finally to the central government. State plans have provided funds for the strengthening of the State Directorate of Education for implementing the non-formal education programme, setting up or strengthening SCERTs, improving and strengthening elementary teacher training institutions and for strengthening the supervisory machinery at the block and district levels. Formal and non-formal programmes go through the same administrative structure, since the programmes are complementary and in the long run are expected to support, strengthen and enrich each other.

Planning of elementary education

The district educational administration is gradually acquiring a key role in decentralized educational planning in most of the states. The District Education Officer, being a senior officer of the Department of Education, who has access to state level policy decisions on the one hand and the field level data on the other, is in a unique position to improve the planning process. According to the present practice, the DEO concretizes the district school development plan on

the basis of a brief from the state Directorate, without any need-assessment or feasibility study. The district level targets are generally decided at the national and state levels according to certain norms, without any serious assessment of the progress of the on-going programmes. In some states, however, a beginning has been made in allowing the district level organization to develop part of the district education plan. Still, the bottom-up component of the planning process is rather weak in the procedure now followed in educational planning.

A draft plan finalized at the state level passes through a series of consultative meetings before it reaches the national level, where the draft is discussed both in the Ministry of Education and Culture and also in the Planning Commission. As the states must compete for higher allocations, the Planning Commission has to make its own assessment of the needs of different states on the basis of the secondary data available and also through national sample surveys. While allocating resources to a state, the Planning Commission also takes into account the efforts made by the state in the achievement of targets set out in earlier plans and also for the coverage of priority groups viz. girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes under the programmes of universal primary education. In most cases, allocations in the priority areas must be used for the purpose for which they are allocated. However, diversion of funds from priority areas to non-priority areas does take place when the progress of implementation gets slowed down due to lack of concerted efforts on the part of the educational administration at the different levels. Very often, the diversion of funds from elementary to secondary education takes place as a result of the growing social demand for higher education.

Machinery for curriculum development

At the national level, the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) is responsible for developing and revising the curriculum for school education. NCERT produces curricula, syllabi, textbooks and other instructional materials in all subjects for primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary stages of school education. However, the role of NCERT is advisory in nature and it does not prescribe any syllabus or textbook for any state/Union Territory.

At the state/UT level, the curriculum is developed and revised

through the Department of Education/Directorates of Education/ Public Instruction. The executive machinery for curriculum development in states/UTs has been strengthened by establishing agencies such as State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs)/State Institutes of Education (SIEs) State Institutes of Science Education (SISEs), and Textbook Bureaux under the administrative control of the Department of Education. These agencies help in the development and implementation of curriculum in states/ UTs. They also conduct research, suggest improvements in curriculum, develop and evaluate materials, textbooks, handbooks, teachers' guides and supplementary readers.

Some states/UTs have now accepted (with suitable adaptations) the curricula, textbooks and other instructional materials prepared by NCERT. NCERT has been providing experts to states/UTs in the development or revision of curricula and textbooks and other instructional materials. It has also been extending technical assistance for training key personnel from states/UTs in the methodology of development, implementation and revision of curriculum. As a result, a broad uniformity has emerged in syllabi and the content of courses and textbooks.

The system of curriculum development in a state/UT is by and large centralized. The syllabus or textbooks in different subjects are prescribed for a certain period. Before the completion of the prescribed period, plans for the development or revision of the syllabus and textbooks are initiated. The syllabi are generally developed by syllabus committees constituted by the Department/Directorate of Education/Public Instruction. In most cases, these committees are constituted by subject. They are normally appointed on a temporary basis for two to three years, through an executive order of the state/ UT government. The Director/Additional Director/Joint Director acts as the *ex-officio* chairman of the subject committees. The syllabus committee generally consists of subject specialists, experienced teachers, specialists from NCERT, SIEs/SCERTs and teacher training institutes, representatives of the Department of Education and other knowledgeable persons. The major functions of these committees include examination and critical review of existing syllabi, recommendations for changes in content, methods of teaching or evaluations in the light of recommendations of Commissions and Working Groups appointed at national and state levels or on the basis of the overall policy formulated by the central Government.

Preparation of textbooks. The preparation and production of textbooks has been nationalized in most states, as far as the elementary stage of education is concerned. Each state/UT has its own machinery for the preparation and publication of textbooks and other instructional materials. However, the procedures followed vary from state to state. School textbooks are either produced by the Department of Education in the state/UT or prescribed by it. In others, a different procedure is adopted for production and publication of textbooks. In these cases, textbooks are prepared by private authors or individuals. These are submitted to the Textbook Committees set up by the Department of Education. These scrutinize and critically review the books and recommend them to the Director of Education/Public Instruction for approval. While in some states the Director is authorized to approve and prescribe a textbook for use in schools, in others the Director only recommends books for approval by the state government. Selection of books is guided by their suitability for the particular age group, adequacy of content, the difficulty level and the appropriateness of the presentation.

The period of use of textbooks once adopted varies from state to state. Normally textbooks, once prescribed, remain in use for a period of three to five years. However, the Departments of Education can bring about changes in books as and when the need for revision or change is felt by the state government. In recent years, many states/UTs have brought about changes in textbooks and other instructional materials in order to make them conform to the Framework for the Ten Year School Curriculum provided by NCERT. The growing realization of the need for the improvement of curriculum at different stages of school education has been another reason for the revision of textbooks.

Most of the states/UTs have nationalized textbook production at the elementary stage. In the case of nationalized textbooks, the responsibility for their publication is generally undertaken by the Education Department. Printing of books is mostly done at the Government Presses, but due to the large numbers, some books are printed by private presses at competitive rates to avoid delays in availability of textbooks. Books prepared by individual authors for use as textbooks, are published by the respective authors/publishers. The Education Departments, however, control the quality of production.

Elementary education being free and compulsory under the Constitution of India, the state governments and the administrations of UTs are expected to supply free textbooks to all children in the age group 6-14 studying in Classes I-VIII. It has not yet been possible to supply free textbooks to all children. Those belonging to the low-income groups are given preference.

Curriculum load. There has been, in recent years, a growing feeling that the curriculum load has been considerably increased at the elementary level. Several steps have been taken by NCERT and several school boards to revise syllabi and textbooks, which were introduced in the first phase of the new pattern. A working group on curriculum load has been formed in NCERT. It has initiated investigative studies, for the assessment of the curriculum load in the grades from I to X. One of the major objectives of these studies is to suggest measures for improvement through institutionalization of appropriate teaching methods, organization of classroom activities and in-service training of teachers.

As the curriculum load is re-examined, methods of evaluation must also be modified. A continuous improvement in the presentation and language of instructional materials may also prove to be an effective means of instilling a sense of confidence in the pupils and teachers regarding the prescribed syllabi and textbooks.

It is necessary to mention the point of view held by some experts, that improper and inadequate use of instructional time has created the impression that the curriculum load is too heavy. But comparison of our curriculum with that of other countries suggests that the assumption is not fully tenable.

Institutional provision for training of elementary school teachers

There are about 1,000 elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) in the country. The annual output of trained teachers from these institutes is adequate to meet the demand for elementary school teachers in most of the states/UTs. In fact, the output during the past few years has been more than the number that could be absorbed by the school system under the existing rate of growth. As a result there has been a considerable number of unemployed teacher training certificate holders in some of the states/UTs. In view of this development some states have temporarily closed down

the TTIs while a few others have reduced the annual intake.

The pre-service training of teachers at the elementary stage is generally of two years' duration, except in a few states/UTs where the duration is one year. The minimum qualification required for entry in a TTI is matriculation.

Currently, elementary teacher education curriculum is undergoing revision in many states/UTs as per the recommendations of the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) in its document titled, 'Teacher education curriculum – a framework', published in 1978. The framework is based on the assumption that trainees, with varying abilities and achievements, would come to the teacher education institutions for participation in all or part of the courses, depending upon their needs and circumstances. It is assumed that a large majority of teacher trainees would join the courses after completion of ten years of education under the 10+2 pattern of education. Since these teacher trainees would not have studied education either as a discipline or as a vocation before entering the training institutions, they would need a two-year course to complete the certification requirements. There could, however, be some teacher trainees who have completed the +2 stage of education before entering training institutions. Some or all of these students would have studied education either as a discipline or as a vocation at the +2 stage. In such situations, a course of one year duration is considered adequate. Similarly, for graduates who wish to undergo elementary teacher training in order to become primary school teachers, a one-year course is considered to be adequate.

The NCTE recommended that the two year courses might be converted into a four semester course with 72 credit hour courses. The structure of the curriculum for the elementary teacher training courses as visualized by the NCTE, consists of three major areas of work. These are (a) Pedagogical theory; (b) Working with the community; and (c) Content-cum-methodology and practice teaching, including related practical work. Part (a) of the course dealing with pedagogical theory covers three main areas: (i) Teacher and education in the emerging Indian society; (ii) Child psychology; and (iii) Special courses according to the need and facilities available. Part (b) of the course dealing with 'Working with the community' covers a study of and participation in the work situations in the community around the teacher-training institutions. The need for this participation

arises out of the emphasis on converting teacher education courses into task-oriented training programmes. The idea is to link learning with local conditions and to help the teacher trainees to see the relevance of their studies in the context of local problems and issues. 'Working with the community', thus, includes a study of the local environment through survey visits, discussions, observations and participation in various activities in the community, with a view to developing an understanding of the behaviour patterns of children, the expectations of parents and the utilization of resources available in the community for qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion of educational facilities. One of the major components of work in this area is the organization of programmes of non-formal education for out-of-school children by all teacher trainees.

Part (c) of the course dealing with content-cum-methodology and practice-teaching covers training programmes dealing with the teaching of language, mathematics, environmental studies, socially useful productive work and health and physical education. The 'Core training programme Package' which is designed to help teacher trainees to acquire the basic skills of teaching, forms an important component of work under content-cum-methodology.

With regard to the emphasis given to the three areas of work under the new pattern of elementary teacher education, it has been proposed to allocate 20 per cent of the credit hours to pedagogical theory, 20 per cent to working with the community and 60 per cent to content-cum-methodology. Thus, in a 72 credit hour course pedagogical theory would have a 14 credit hour course, working with the community would have another 14 credit hours course and content-cum-methodology would have a roughly 44 credit hour course.

The TTIs have not been satisfactory in terms of their infrastructural facilities and the standards of training imparted. The provision for in-service education of elementary school teachers has also not been adequate. NCERT has been training key personnel and resource persons at the state/UT level to train in-service teachers through the SCERTs/SIEs.

At the state/UT level, SCERTs/SIEs organize short-term training courses and summer institutes for elementary school teachers. In view of the large number of elementary school teachers, however, the efforts made by these institutions for training of in-service teachers have been woefully inadequate.

Community participation in promoting elementary education

A large number of primary schools in India are single teacher schools without any school building or basic physical facilities. Any attempt to increase school enrolment by setting up more such schools, without bringing about a significant improvement in the mobilization of resources for primary education, is bound to have a limited effect. There is, however, a growing awareness in different states of the need to mobilize local resources for the improvement of school facilities, particularly in the rural areas. Wherever a community level committee has taken the initiative of mobilizing local resources, they have not only been successful in augmenting the facilities of local schools, but have also discovered their own potential in managing schools. For these reasons a new role for community level committees seems to be becoming more visible and acceptable to all concerned with school education.

The Government of India has recently formed two National Commissions on Teachers – one for the school system and the other for the higher education system. These Commissions have undertaken a number of in-depth studies to explore the possibility of mobilizing teachers to implement various priority programmes, including universalization of elementary education.

Chapter Two

PROGRESS ACHIEVED AND PRESENT STATUS

Universalization of elementary education has been one of the most important goals of educational development in India since Independence. At the time of attainment of independence in 1947, the level of achievement in elementary education was fairly low in almost all respects. Thousands of villages and rural habitations were without schools. Only one child out of three in the age group 6-11 and only one child out of eleven in the age group 11-14 were enrolled in schools. Educational inequalities were very large, especially between one region and another, between urban and rural areas, between boys and girls and between the advanced and intermediate castes on the one hand and the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes on the other. The quality of elementary education was unsatisfactory and the rates of drop-out and stagnation were very high.

Universalization of elementary education

The Directive Principles of the Constitution make it obligatory for the State to provide free, compulsory and universal education for children up to the age of 14. As no specific age group has been clearly indicated it can be interpreted that free and compulsory education should cover both young learners of the age group below 5 and children of the age group 6-14, comprising generally two or three years of pre-school education, and 4 to 5 years of primary and 3 to 4 years of middle school education.

After achieving independence, India undertook the gigantic task of national reconstruction aimed at bringing about socio-economic transformation and at creating a new social order based on the principles of democracy, social justice and secularism. Without providing education to the masses, it is wellnigh impossible to establish a just and egalitarian society: this has come to be accepted as an indisputable fact. Sufficient research evidence exists to support a hypothesis of relationship between the educational status of a young population

and the economic development of the country. Recent studies of Indias growth rate in 1960s indicate that nearly one-third is accounted for by investments in education, particularly basic education in the 1950s. Rates of return analyses of Indian investments in physical and human capital consistently show higher returns of investments in primary education than physical capital. The Education Commission (1964-1966) was aware of this fact; hence the slogan 'education for national development' was articulated.

In recent years there has been a growing recognition of the potential benefits of education as a means to upward economic and social mobility. Education is regarded as one of the most powerful instruments of national development, for it develops in an individual the ability to participate constructively in the national development effort. It is also an effective means for improving the quality of life of the people.

In the Indian context, elementary education acquires special significance. For many years to come, a large proportion of the young population will discontinue education after eight years of elementary school to join the world of work. Implementation of developmental programmes will depend on the effective participation of these individuals. It is only through elementary education that they can be equipped with the knowledge, skills interests, attitudes and values required for social and economic reconstruction.

In view of the above considerations, universal elementary education has been accorded highest priority. During the post-independence period, especially after the adoption of the Constitution of India in 1950, the Government initiated well-planned, intensive and sustained efforts for achieving the goal of universal elementary education. Considerable resources were invested in expanding the facilities for elementary education, as well as for qualitative improvement. The financial outlay for elementary education rose from Rs 930 million in the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) to Rs 9,050 million in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985). The outlay earmarked for elementary education in the Sixth Five Year Plan constitutes 35.9 per cent of the total outlay of Rs 25,240 million allocated for education.

According to the Constitution of India, the goal of universalization of elementary education should have been attained by the year

1960. However, this target date had to be first revised to 1970, then to 1976 and later to 1988. The present target date according to the Sixth Five Year Plan, is 1990. An ever-increasing population and financial and manpower constraints have been the main impeding factors in achieving the targets envisaged.

Universalization of elementary education in India encompasses four major components. These are : universal provision of educational facilities, universal enrolment, universal retention and qualitative improvement of schooling. Universal provision of educational facilities envisages that access to education up to the elementary stage (Classes I-VIII) is provided within easy walking distance from the home of every child in the age group 6-14. Keeping in view Indian conditions, one kilometre is accepted as the walking distance for location of primary schools and three kilometres for location of middle schools. Universal enrolment implies enrolment of all children in the age group 6-14. Universal retention envisages conscious attempts to retain all children in school who are enrolled in Class I until they successfully complete Class VIII. It also implies that each child is helped to make regular progress from one class to the other so that he/she completes elementary education in eight years. Qualitative improvement envisages continuous renewal of the curriculum to make it relevant to the changing needs and aspiration of the community to which the children belong. It also envisages steps for enhancing the holding power of schools, better utilization of existing resources, and proper planning and management of infrastructure, manpower and material resources. Improving the quality of education also requires the adoption of innovative instructional procedures and techniques of evaluation, development of appropriate programmes for pre-service and in-service education of teachers and supervisory personnel and innovative experiments and research.

Progress achieved in respect of major components

Since the initiation of economic and social planning in 1951, India has been confronted simultaneously with the above-mentioned four major tasks of universalizing elementary education. The progress achieved towards these goals is by no means insignificant or inconsequential, although a great deal remains to be done.

Provision of educational facilities. Substantial progress has been achieved in the provision of schooling facilities since 1950. Table 1

indicates the growth of recognized primary and middle schools in India from 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. The number of primary schools increased from 209,671 in 1950-1951 to 495,007 in 1981-1982, thus recording an increase of about 136 per cent. During the same period the number of middle schools increased from 13,596 to 119,560, recording more than an eight fold increase.

Table 1. Growth of primary and middle schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Primary school*	*Middle school*	*Total*
1950-1951	209,671	13,596	223,267
1955-1956	278,135	21,730	299,865
1960-1961	330,399	49,663	380,062
1965-1966	361,064	75,798	436,862
1970-1971	408,378	90,621	498,999
1975-1976	454,270	106,571	560,841
1980-1981 (P)	485,538	116,447	601,985
1981-1982 (P)	495,007	119,560	614,567

(P) Provisional

Source: i) A Handbook of educational and allied statistics, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951 to 1980-1981)
ii) Selected educational statistics 1981-1982 Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

For primary schools in the country, the overall percentage increase during the period 1970-1971 to 1981-1982 was 21.1 (Annex Table I). The percentage increase was more than 70 in the case of one state and one Union Territory, between 60 and 70 in the case of two states, between 50 and 60 in one state and between 30 and 40 in two others. In the case of four states and two Union Territories, the percentage increase was between 20 to 30. There has been a fall in the number of primary schools in Kerala, Chandigarh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Lakshadweep. This was mainly due to the fact that some of the existing primary schools were upgraded to middle schools consisting of both primary and middle sections.

The percentage increase in middle schools over the period 1970-1971 to 1981-1982 was 31.9. In the case of one state and one Union Territory, the percentage increase was over 150. The percentage

increase was between 70 to 80 per cent in three states and between 40 and 50 in another. In the case of four states and one Union Territory the percentage increase in primary schools was between 30 and 40 per cent. A fall in the number of middle schools has been recorded in Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Delhi, Goa, Daman & Diu and Lakshadweep. This has been due to the upgrading of some of the existing middle schools into secondary schools and higher secondary schools which provide facilities for education at the middle stage also.

Provision of educational facilities in rural areas. The absolute number of primary and middle schools often does not provide a true indicator of the progress achieved in respect of provision of educational facilities. It is, therefore, more appropriate to measure this progress in terms of schooling facilities in rural and urban areas as well as in terms of the average distance that a child has to walk to reach the nearest primary and middle schools.

In order to assess the progress achieved regarding the provision of educational facilities at various stages of school education in rural and urban areas and to gather data for a more rational location of schools, four All India educational surveys have been conducted during the years 1957, 1965, 1973 and 1978. Information collected in each survey was on a census basis and attempts were made to enumerate all the rural habitations with and without schooling facilities, particularly at the elementary stage, and to identify clusters and habitations where new schools would have to be established or existing schools upgraded.

In respect of elementary education, the basic unit adopted for enumeration was the habitation and not the village, which is a unit for administration and revenue collection. A habitation is a distinct cluster of contiguous houses with a local name. A village may comprise one or more habitations, one of which may give its name to the village itself.

The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) indicated that the number of primary schools in the country was 474,636. Of these 431,602 (90.93 per cent) schools were located in rural areas. The number of middle schools in 1978 was 112,404, out of which 94,180 (83.78 per cent) were located in rural areas.

The number of primary schools in the country at the time of the 'Third all India educational survey' (31 December 1973) was

455,729 out of which 414,151 (90.88 per cent) were located in rural areas. The number of middle schools in the country in 1973 was 90,681. Of these 75,728 (83.51 per cent) were located in rural areas. For the primary schools in the country there was an overall percentage increase of 6.93 during the period 1973-1978. The corresponding percentages for the rural and urban areas were 6.70 and 9.25 respectively. The overall percentage increase in the number of middle schools during the period 1973-1978 was 10.13. The corresponding percentages for the rural and urban areas were 10.41 and 9.36 respectively.

In addition to the 474,636 independent primary schools in the country in 1978, primary sections were also attached to 95,374 middle schools, secondary schools, higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges. Similarly, in addition to the 112,404 independent middle schools in the country, middle sections were attached to 34,846 secondary schools, higher secondary schools and intermediate colleges. Thus, in 1978, there were 570,010 primary sections and 147,250 middle sections in the country. Over 91 per cent of primary sections and 78.86 per cent of middle sections were located in rural areas.

Habitations served by primary and middle sections. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) indicated that there were 964,664 rural habitations in the country with populations ranging from below 100 to 5,000 and above. Primary schools/sections were available in 46.80 per cent of the habitations (Table 2). In the case of 33.44 per cent of the habitations, primary schools/sections were available in the neighbouring habitations within a distance of 1 km. Thus, 80.24 per cent of habitations had primary schools/sections either within the habitations or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km.

In 1978, 27.09 per cent of the habitations had middle schools/sections either within the habitations or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km (Table 3). The percentage of habitations which had middle school facilities either within them or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 3 km was 66.86. In the case of 14.48 per cent of the rural habitations, middle schools/sections were available only at a distance of more than 5 km.

Table 2. Habitations in various population slabs served by primary schools/sections (1978)

Distance at which primary schools/ sections are available	*Below 100*	*100-199*	*200-299*	*300-399*	*400-499*	*500-999*	*1000-1999*	*2000-4999*	*5000 & above*	*Total*
Within the habitation	10,581	33,124	46,961	49,977	45,469	141,437	85,730	33,844	4,334	451,457 (46.80)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 0.5. km.	41,885	40,771	24,211	13,246	7,214	11,389	2,342	443	18	141,519 (14.67)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.0. km.	56,646	54,256	31,269	16,132	8,623	11,797	1,936	350	13	181,022 (18.77)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 1.5. km.	17,349	15,573	8,782	4,456	2,440	3,325	594	103	11	52,633 (5.45)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.6 to 2.0. km.	26,254	21,013	11,574	5,819	2,843	3,644	729	157	13	72,046 (7.47)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 2.0. km.	30,198	18,677	8,833	3,710	1,776	2,135	468	172	18	65,987 (6.84)
Total :	182,913	183,414	131,630	93,340	68,365	173,727	91,799	35,069	4,407	964,664 (100.0)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentages of habitations in various population slabs served by primary schools/sections in them or in the neighbouring habitations at various distances.

Table 3. Habitations in various population slabs served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Distance at which middle schools/sections are available	*Population slabs*					
	Below 500	*500-999*	*1000-1999*	*2000-4999*	*5000 & above*	*Total*
Within the habitation	16,913	24,283	34,736	23,745	3,927	103,604 (10.74)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.0. km.	115,162	28,098	11,417	2,872	156	157,705 (16.35)
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.1. km. to 2.0. km.	147,570	40,366	16,313	3,327	138	207,714 (21.53)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 2.1 to 3.0. km.	126,148	34,262	13,042	2,406	90	175,948 (18.24)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 3.1 to 4.0. km.	79,396	18,324	6,695	1,113	35	105,563 (10.94)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 4.1 to 5.0. km.	56,791	12,386	4,537	750	24	74,488 (7.72)
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 5 km.	117,682	16,008	5,059	856	37	139,642 (14.48)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentages of habitations in various population slabs served by middle schools/sections in them or in the neighbouring habitations at various distances.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Rural population served by primary and middle sections. In 1978, 92.82 per cent of the rural population had primary school facilities within the habitation of residence or up to a walking distance of 1 km. The percentage of the population served by primary schools/sections either within the habitation or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km was 90.34 in 1973 (Table 4). Similarly, compared to 41.17 per cent in 1973, 46.57 per cent of the population had facilities for middle school education either within the habitation or within a distance of 1 km (Table 5).

Table 4. Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/sections (1973 and 1978)

Distance at which Primary school/section is available	*Percentage of population served by primary sections/schools*	
	1973	*1978*
Within the habitation	76.12	78.53
In the neighbouring habitation up to a distance of 0.5 km.	5.74	6.60
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 0.6 to 1.0 km.	8.48	7.69
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 1.5 km.	2.31	2.20
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.6 to 2.0 km.	3.93	2.83
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 2.0 km.	3.42	2.15
Total :	100.00	100.00

Source: i) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training; New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).
ii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).

The percentage of population served by middle schools/sections either within the habitation or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 3 km rose from 71.97 in 1973 to 78.83 in 1978. In terms of coverage, therefore, primary education facilities have been

Table 5. Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections (1973 and 1978)

Distance at which middle schools/ sections are available	*Percentage of population served by middle schools/sections*	
	1973	*1978*
Within the habitation	28.86	33.47
In the neighbouring habitation within a distance of 1.0 km.	12.31	13.10
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 1.1 to 2.0 km.	15.54	17.78
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 2.1 to 3.0 km.	15.26	14.48
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 3.1 to 4.0 km.	8.45	7.90
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of 4.1 to 5.0 km.	6.49	5.37
In the neighbouring habitation at a distance of more than 5.0 km.	13.09	7.90
Total :	100.00	100.00

Note: i) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).
ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).

made available to most rural habitations. Coverage of the population by schooling facilities has become more or less universal as far as education at the primary stage is concerned, while middle school facilities have been made available within a walking distance of 3 km to more than three-fourths of the population of the country.

Schooling facilities in habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and Schedule Tribes. There have been variations in the availability of educational facilities for rural habitations, especially in the case of those predominantly populated by the disadvantaged sections of society, such as the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In 1978, in the country as a whole, 93.06 per cent of habitations with a population of 300 or more were served by primary schools/sections within the habitations or up to a distance of 1 km

(Table 6). Over 90 per cent of the habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes were served by primary schools/sections within the habitation of residence or in the neighbouring habitations up to a distance of 1 km. For the habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes, the corresponding percentage was 90.49. It is, therefore, evident that compared to the population as a whole, the Scheduled Castes and Tribes were not as well served by primary schooling facilities.

Table 6. Habitation with population of 300 or more served by primary schools/sections (1978)

Type of habitations	*Number of habitations with population of 300 or more*	*Number and percentage of habitations served by primary schools/sections*		
		Within the habitation	*Upto 1.0 km*	*Upto 2.0 km*
All habitations	466,705	360,791 (77.31)	434,294 (93.06)	458,428 (98.23)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes.	24,198	16,199 (66.94)	21,936 (90.65)	23,706 (97.97)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes.	41,550	32,319 (77.78)	37,597 (90.49)	39,800 (95.79)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate the percentage of habitations with population of 300 or more served by primary schools/sections.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982 (for 1978)

The variations in the availability of educational facilities in habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are more glaring in the case of middle schools/sections (Table 7). The percentages of habitations with a population of 500 or more and predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes (13.4) and Scheduled Tribes (21.41) served by middle schools/sections within the habitations were less than the percentage for all habitations (28.42). A similar trend was seen in the case of middle school facilities up to a distance of 3 km from the habitation of residence. The percentage of habitations with a population of 500 or more and predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes served by middle

Table 7. Habitation with population of 500 or more served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Type of habitations	*Number of habitations with population of 500 or more*	*Number and percentage of habitations served by middle schools/sections*			
		Within habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Up to 2.0 km*	*Up to 3.0 km*
All habitations	305,002	86,691 (28.42)	129,234 (42.37)	189,378 (62.09)	239,178 (78.42)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes.	13,159	1,773 (13.47)	4,323 (32.85)	7,458 (56.68)	9,895 (75.20)
Habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Tribes.	17,848	3,824 (21.43)	5,627 (31.53)	8,516 (47.71)	11,442 (64.11)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate the percentage of habitations with population of 500 or more served by middle schools/sections.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

schools/sections within them or up to a distance of 3 km was 64.11, while this percentage was 75.22 for habitations predominantly populated by Scheduled Castes and 78.42 for all habitations.

Habitations and population not served by primary and middle school facilities. In order to provide school facilities within easy walking distance of the home of every child, efforts have been made to provide all habitations which do not have primary school facilities and which have a population of about 300, with primary schools/ sections within a distance of 1 km. Similarly, efforts have been made to provide schoolless habitations with middle schools/sections within 3 km.

In spite of the substantial progress achieved, there are still a large number of habitations which have no school within a reasonable walking distance. In 1978, 53.20 per cent of rural habitations were without primary schools/sections (Table 8). However, in 41.91 per cent of the habitations, the average population was less than 300

Table 8. Habitations in various population slabs not served by primary schools/sections. (1978)

Population slab	*Number of habitations*	*Habitations not served by primary schools/sections*			
		Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Up to 1.5 km*	*Up to 2.0 km*
Below 100	182,913	172,332	73,801	56,452	30,198
100–199	183,414	150,290	55,263	39,690	18,677
200–299	131,630	81,669	29,189	20,407	8,833
300–399	93,340	43,363	13,985	9,529	3,710
400–499	68,365	22,896	7,059	4,619	1,776
500–999	173,727	32,290	9,104	5,779	2,135
1000–1999	91,799	6,069	1,791	1,197	468
2000–4999	35,069	1,225	432	329	172
5000 and above	4,407	73	42	31	18
Total:	964,664	510,207 (53.20)	190,666 (19.77)	138,033 (14.31)	65,987 (6.84)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

and the child population was not sufficient to make the establishment of an independent primary school either economically feasible or academically viable. The population of the habitations not served by a primary school/section up to a distance of 1 km was 7.18 per cent of the total rural population.

Over the years, however, efforts have been made to increase the availability of primary schooling in habitations with a population of less than 300. As a result, the percentage of habitations with population less than 300 and not served by primary schools/sections within a distance of 1 km decreased from 189,359 (19.85 per cent) in 1973 to 158,253 (16.40 per cent) in 1978 (Table 9). During the period 1973-1978, the percentage of habitations with a population less than 300 and served by primary school facilities within 1 km increased from 32.13 to 35.21.

Table 9. Rural habitations with population slab of less than 300 served/unserved by primary schools/sections up to a distance of one kilometre (1973 and 1978)

Population slab	*Habitations served by primary schools/sections up to 1.0 km*		*Habitations not served by primary schools/sections up to 1.0 km*	
	1973	*1978*	*1973*	*1978*
Below 100	104,432	109,112	88,248	73,801
100–199	112,077	128,151	65,846	55,263
200–299	89,902	102,441	35,265	29,189
Total:	306,411 (32.13)	339,704 (35.21)	189,359 (19.85)	158,253 (16.40)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1977 (for 1973).

'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978).

As regards facilities for education at the middle stage, of the 319,693 habitations not served by middle schools/sections within the habitation or up to a distance of 3 km, 253,869 (79.41 per cent) habitations had an average population below 500 (Table 10). These habitations would have less than 40 children in the age group 11-14, since population in the age group 11-14 constitutes about 8 to 9 per

cent of the total population. This number of children is too small to allow the establishment of an independent middle school/section. It is, therefore, necessary to think of alternatives such as grouping of schools, or providing peripatetic teachers, residential schools or transport facilities.

Table 10. Habitations in various population slabs not served by middle schools/sections (1978)

Population slab	*Number of habitations*	*Habitations not served by middle schools/sections*		
		Within the habitation	*Up to 3.0 km*	*Up to 5.0 km*
Below 500	659,662	642,749	253,869	117,682
500–999	173,727	149,444	46,718	16,008
1000–1999	91,799	57,063	16,291	5,059
2000–4999	35,069	11,324	2,719	856
5000 & above	4,407	480	96	37
Total:	964,664	861,060 (89.26)	319,693 (33.14)	139,642 (14.48)

Note: Figures within parentheses indicate percentage to the total number of habitations.

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

There was, however, a decrease in the number of habitations not served by a middle school facility during the period 1973-1978. The number of habitations without middle schools/sections within 3 km declined from 388,439 (41.74 per cent) in 1973 to 319,663 (33.14 per cent) in 1978.

Sparseness of the population is not the only reason why some habitations do not have schooling facilities within a reasonable walking distance. Location of schools is sometimes based on considerations other than educational or economic viability. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' has, for instance, revealed that in 1978 there were habitations where no school existed, although their population justified it. There were 39,657 habitations which had a population of 500 or more but had no primary schooling facilities. Of these, 11,369 (28.67 per cent) habitations had no primary schooling facility within a distance of 1 km. On the other hand, 90,666

habitations with a population below 300 had primary school facilities within them and of these 40,771 (45.97 per cent) had an average population between 100 and 200, and 10,581 (11.66 per cent) below 100.

Regional disparity in the provision of schooling facilities. In the provision of educational facilities, there has been substantial disparity among the various states and Union Territories which constitute the Indian Republic. For instance, while for the country as a whole, primary school facilities within the habitation were available for 78.53 per cent of the rural population in 1978, the variation in the coverage ranged between 38.01 per cent in Himachal Pradesh and 100.00 per cent in Lakshadweep (Annexe Table II). The percentage of the population served by a primary school/section within the habitation was over 90 per cent in the case of seven states and one Union Territory. Six states and three Union Territories had a coverage between 80 and 90 per cent, five states and two Union Territories between 70 and 80 per cent, two states and two Union Territories between 50 and 60 per cent and two states and one Union Territory below 50 per cent. The same disparity prevailed in respect of availability of primary school facilities within a walking distance of 1 km.

In the case of middle school facilities, 33.47 per cent of the rural population had facilities within the habitation in 1978. The coverage in this regard varied between 7.66 per cent for Sikkim and 99.64 per cent for Lakshadweep. The percentage of the population served by middle schools/sections within a walking distance of 3 km also varied from state/Union Territory to state/Union Territory. For the country as a whole, in 1978, 78.83 per cent of the rural population was served by a middle school/section within a distance of 3 km. The coverage, however, ranged between 100 per cent for Chandigarh and 28.15 per cent for Arunachal Pradesh.

The ratio of primary sections to the population also varies in different states and Union Territories. In 1978, in the country as a whole, there were 8.89 primary sections per 10,000 population. Among the states, the highest number of primary sections (29.55) per 10,000 population was in Meghalaya followed by Manipur (27.25), Nagaland (18.03), Jammu & Kashmir (16.59), Sikkim (14.90) and Himachal Pradesh (14.53). Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Tripura, and West

Bengal were the other states which had more primary sections than the national average of 8.89. Kerala had only 3.75 primary sections per 10,000 population. This was mainly due to large-sized primary sections in Kerala. Among the Union Territories, Dadra & Nagar Haveli had the highest number of primary sections (16.16) and Chandigarh the lowest (2.36) per 10,000 population.

It should, however, be noted that a higher ratio of primary sections to the population in a state/Union Territory does not necessarily imply that there are better opportunities for primary education there. The size of the primary sections in sparsely populated states is small and, therefore, even if the number of primary sections is large the enrolment ratio may be lower than that in states where the ratio of primary sections to the population is low.

Size of primary and middle schools. Schools that are established may not always be viable on economic grounds or academic considerations. The Education Commission (1964-1966) recommended that the optimum enrolment of a primary school with four or five teachers range between 160 and 200. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) provided data on primary schools according to teachers and enrolment size. It revealed that only 18.66 per cent of primary schools satisfied this criterion. The percentage of such schools in rural areas was only 14.29 as against 54.61 in urban areas.

The enrolment in the majority of independent primary schools is low. The proportion of schools with low enrolments is particularly large in rural areas (Table 11). In the country as a whole 315,622 (66.5 per cent) had an enrolment of 100 or less and 153,678 (32.38 per cent) had an enrolment of 50 or less. The percentage of rural primary schools which had an enrolment of 100 or less was 70.53, while the percentage of schools with an enrolment of 50 or less was 34.81. There also existed a large number of middle schools with low enrolments (Table 12). Almost 22 per cent of the middle schools had an enrolment of only 100 or less, while 7.92 per cent had only 50 or less. In rural areas 24.34 per cent of middle schools had an enrolment of 100 or less as against 9.45 per cent in urban areas.

The sparseness of the population of the rural habitations is one of the reasons for low enrolment in a large number of primary and middle schools. The other is the low utilization of the schooling facility. Low enrolment affects the efficiency of schooling since the

Table 11. Primary schools according to enrolment (1978)

Enrolment	Number of primary schools			Percentage to the total Number of primary schools		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Zero	1,114	75	1,189	0.26	0.17	0.25
1–25	39,139	764	39,903	9.07	1.78	8.41
26–50	109,980	2,606	112,586	25.48	6.06	23.72
51–75	90,384	3,363	93,747	20.94	7.81	19.75
76–100	63,776	4,421	68,197	14.78	10.27	14.37
101–150	66,842	8,073	74,915	15.49	18.76	15.78
151–200	30,997	7,034	38,031	7.18	16.35	8.01
201–250	14,820	5,234	20,054	3.43	12.16	4.23
Above 250	14,550	11,464	26,014	3.37	26.64	5.48
Total:	431,602	43,034	474,636	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 12. Middle schools according to enrolment (1978)

Enrolment	Number of middle schools			Percentage to the total number of middle schools		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Zero	8,391	510	8,901	8.91	2.80	9.92
51–100	14,536	1,211	15,747	15.43	6.65	14.01
101–150	17,665	1,646	19,311	18.76	9.03	17.18
151–200	16,459	1,948	18,407	17.48	10.69	16.38
201–300	19,520	3,332	22,852	20.73	18.28	20.33
301–400	9,345	2,895	12,240	9.92	15.89	10.89
401–500	4,072	2,216	6,288	4.32	12.16	5.59
Above 500	4,192	4,466	8,658	4.45	24.50	7.70
Total :	94,180	18,224	112,404	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

enrolment of the school has an important bearing on the cost of education, school organization, and the type of instructional programmes offered to meet the needs of children. Small enrolments do not allow the appointment of the required number of teachers on cost considerations. This in turn affects the quality of education offered at the primary stage.

Incomplete primary and middle schools. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' also indicated that in 1978, 20.1 per cent of primary schools and 11 per cent of middle schools did not have all the classes covering primary and middle stages of education. Over 20 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were incomplete, as against 19.28 per cent in urban areas. The percentages of incomplete middle schools in rural and urban areas were 11.5 and 8.46 respectively.

A large number of children from areas having incomplete schools stop their studies since facilities are limited for continuing their education in the neighbourhood or within an easy walking distance. This makes it imperative that special efforts be made to provide facilities for education in Classes I-V in incomplete primary schools and in Classes VI-VIII in all incomplete middle schools.

Enrolment at the primary and middle stage

Although it has not been possible to attain the goal of universal enrolment, the progress achieved in increasing enrolment so far has indeed been remarkable. The total enrolment in Classes I-V increased from 19.155 million in 1950-1951 to 73.563 million in 1981-1982 (Table 13). The total enrolment in Classes I-V rose by 3.8 times during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. The enrolment of boys rose by about 3.3 times while for girls it increased by about 5.3 times.

A substantial increase in enrolment at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) was also achieved during the past three decades of planned economic development. The enrolment in Classes VI-VIII increased from 3.120 million in 1950-1951 to 21.055 million in 1981-1982 (Table 14).

The total enrolment of children in Classes I-VIII increased from 22.275 million in 1950-1951 to 94.618 million in 1981-1982, thus

Table 13. Enrolment in Classes I-V (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	Enrolment (in millions)			Percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to total population in the age group 6-11		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950–1951	13.770	5.385	19.155	60.8	24.9	42.6
1955–1956	17.528	7.639	25.167	72.0	32.8	52.8
1960–1961	23.593	11.401	34.994	82.6	41.4	62.4
1965–1966	31.160	17.675	48.835	96.3	56.5	76.7
1970–1971	35.739	21.306	57.045	92.6	59.1	76.4
1975–1976	40.649	25.011	65.660	95.7	62.0	79.3
1980–1981 (P)	44.576	28.112	72.688	99.0	66.2	83.1
1981–1982 (P)	44.976	28.587	73.563	99.4	66.9	83.7

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A Handbook of educational & allied statistics*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1970-1971 and 1975-1976).

ii) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

iii) 'Education in the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-1979)', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1972 (for 1955-1956).

iv) 'Selected educational statistics' (1980-1981 and 1981-1982), Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982).

Table 14. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	Enrolment (in millions)			Percentage of children enrolled in Classes VI-VIII to total population in the age group 11-14		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950–1951	2.586	0.534	3.120	20.8	4.3	12.9
1955–1956	3.426	0.867	4.293	25.4	6.9	16.5
1960–1961	5.074	1.630	6.704	32.2	11.3	22.5
1965–1966	7.523	2.721	10.244	44.2	17.0	30.9
1970–1971	9.426	3.889	13.315	46.5	20.8	34.2
1975–1976	10.990	5.034	16.024	47.0	23.3	35.6
1980–1981 (P)	13.278	6.568	19.846	52.1	27.2	40.0
1981–1982 (P)	13.971	7.084	21.055	54.2	29.1	41.9

(P) : Provisional

Source: i) 'A Handbook of educational & allied statistics', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1970-1971 and 1975-1976).

ii) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

iii) 'Education in the Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-1979)', Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India, 1972 (for 1955-1956).

iv) 'Selected educational statistics (1980-1981 & 1981-1982)', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, (for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982).

registering a more than fourfold increase. The enrolment of boys in Classes I-VIII increased from 16.356 million to 58.947 million, while the enrolment of girls increased from 5.919 million to 35.671 million. In the case of girls the increase has been almost sixfold.

There has also been a noticeable increase in the percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment. The percentage of girls enrolled in Classes I-V rose from 28.10 in 1950-1951 to 38.86 in 1981-1982, while the percentage of girls enrolled in Classes VI-VIII increased from 17.12 to 33.65.

The gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage (percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to the total population in the age group 6-10) also registered a considerable increase from 42.6 to 83.7 during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982. During this period the gross enrolment ratio at the middle stage (percentage of children enrolled in Classes VI-VIII to the total population in the age group 11-14) increased from 12.9 to 41.9.

Increase in enrolment in rural areas. The enrolment of children at the primary and middle stages in rural areas has also increased a great deal during the past few years. The Second, Third and Fourth All India educational surveys have provided data on enrolment in rural areas. Enrolment in classes I-V in rural areas increased from 38.151 million in 1965 to 51.932 million in 1978 (Table 15). The percentage increase in enrolment during 1965-1978 was 36.12 and in the case of boys and girls the percentage increases were 32.09 and 43.88 respectively.

At the middle stage, the enrolment in rural areas increased from 5,907 million in 1965 to 10.960 million in 1978 (Table 16). While the total enrolment increased by 85.54 per cent, the enrolment of boys and girls in Classes VI-VIII during the period 1965-1978 increased by 67.94 per cent and 155.01 per cent respectively.

Increase in enrolment of children from disadvantaged populations. The enrolment of children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of society such as the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has also increased considerably in recent years. The gross enrolment ratio of children belonging to the Scheduled Castes in Classes I-V rose from 59.7 in 1970-1971 to 86.0 in 1981-1982. During the same period, the gross enrolment ratio for Scheduled Tribes in Classes I-V increased from 48.6 to 73.7.

Table 15. Enrolment in Classes I-V (rural and urban areas)

Year	Enrolment in rural schools (millions)			Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment.	Enrolment in urban schools (millions)			Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment
	Boys	Girls	Total		Boys	Girls	Total	
1965–1966	25.091	13.060	38.151	34.23	6.068	4.615	10.683	43.20
1973–1974	30.233	16.891	47.124	35.84	7.913	6.218	14.131	44.00
1978–1979	33.141	18.791	51.932	36.18	9.210	7.461	16.671	44.75

Source: i) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Education Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1977 (for 1973-1974).

iii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982 (for 1978-1979).

Table 16. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (rural and urban areas)

Year	Enrolment in rural schools (millions)			Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment	Enrolment in urban schools (millions)			Percentage of enrolment of girls to the total enrolment
	Boy.	Girls	Total		Boys	Girls	Total	
1965–1966	4.710	1:196	5.906	20.25	2.813	1.525	4.338	35.15
1973–1974	6.299	2.136	8.435	25.33	3.353	2.161	5.514	39.19
1978–1979	7.910	3.050	10.960	27.83	4.176	2.822	6.998	40.33

Source: i) 'Second All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1967 (for 1965-1966).

ii) 'Third All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1979 (for 1973-1974).

iii) 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982 (for 1978-1979).

The gross enrolment ratio of children belonging to Scheduled Castes in Classes VI-VIII registered an increase from 20.5 in 1970-1971 to 32.6 in 1981-1982. The enrolment ratio for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes in Classes VI-VIII rose from 12.9 to 21.9 during this period.

Disparity in enrolment among regions. Wide variations in enrolment ratios of the states and Union Territories, both for the primary and middle stages are noticeable (Annex Table III). During 1981-1982, at the primary stage, 11 states and six Union Territories achieved a gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent. One state had a gross enrolment ratio between 90 and 100 per cent, six states between 80 and 90, two between 70 and 80, one between 60 and 70 and two between 50 and 60. In the case of the enrolment ratio for girls, seven states and three Union Territories had enrolment ratios over 100 per cent, and two states and three Union Territories over 90 per cent but below 100 per cent. The enrolment ratios for girls in classes I-V were between 40 and 50 in Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and less than 40 in Rajasthan.

At the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII), in 1981-1982, the gross enrolment ratios in Nagaland and Lakshadweep were over 100 per cent (Annex Table IV). In Kerala and Goa, Daman & Diu, the enrolment ratios at the middle stage were between 80 and 90 per cent. It ranged between 70 and 80 per cent in Himachal Pradesh and A & N Islands, between 60 and 70 per cent in Punjab and Pondicherry, between 50 and 60 in Gujarat, Haryana Maharashtra, Manipur and Tamil Nadu. However, the ratio for Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal was between only 30 and 40 per cent, and between 20 and 30 in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and Arunachal Pradesh. The enrolment ratio for girls at the middle stage was highest in Kerala (85.6) and lowest in Bihar (11.7).

The major proportion of non-enrolled children, both at the primary and middle stages, are in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. These states together contribute more than 75 per cent of non-enrolled children at the elementary stage. Special efforts for enrolling children, especially girls and children from the weaker sections of society, are being made in order to achieve the target of universal enrolment at the primary and middle stages in these states.

Apart from the inter-state disparity in enrolment in Classes I-V and VI-VIII, there also exist intra-state disparities. The 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) made available data for the proportion of children enrolled by district. The data for nine states, presented in (Annex V) give an idea of the wide disparity that prevails in the states. In Andhra Pradesh, the enrolment in (Classes I-V) as a percentage of the population in the age group 6-11 years in rural areas, varied from 102.68 per cent in Nellore to 45.82 in Adilabad. The percentage ranged from 106.32 in N.C. Hills to 65.31 in Darrang in Assam, 91.18 in Nalanda to 43.92 in West Champaran in Bihar, 83.98 in Jammu to 45.86 in Srinagar in Jammu & Kashmir, and 78.52 in Betul to 39.22 in Jhabua in Madhya Pradesh. In the case of Orissa, the percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V varied from 101.78 in Balassore to 69.55 in Kalahandi.

The enrolment in Classes I-V as a percentage of the population in the age group 6-11 in rural areas, ranged from 80.63 in Kota to 47.57 in Bikner in Rajasthan, 116.50 in Dehradun to 44.26 in Rampur in Uttar Pradesh and 106.32 in Howrah to 64.51 in Murshidabad in West Bengal.

Inter-district disparities are not only found in the above mentioned states, which are considered to be backward in respect of enrolment. Even in states where the overall enrolment ratios are very high, wide disparities between districts prevail, particularly in the proportion of girls that are enrolled in schools. For instance, in Nagaland the enrolment of girls, as a percentage of the total enrolment in Classes I-V, ranged from 28.2 to 49.6 and in Classes VI-VIII from 30.1 to 46.8. In Maharashtra, these percentages varied from 32.8 to 46.4 for Grades I-V and from 21.9 to 43.5 for Grades VI-VIII. It is only in Kerala, which is considered to be the most educationally advanced State in the country, that the disparity is less wide, with the enrolment of girls constituting 43 to 49 per cent of the total enrolment in all the districts in both primary and middle stages.

Disparity in enrolment among population groups. Although great strides have been made in increasing the enrolment of children both at the primary and middle stages, there still exists a wide disparity in enrolment between boys and girls and between the general population on the one hand and Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes on the other. While the enrolment ratio for boys in Classes I-V

in 1981-1982 was 99.4, it was only 66.9 in the case of girls. At the middle stage while the ratio for boys was 54.2 it was only 29.1 in the case of girls.

The enrolment of girls in rural areas continues to be low. According to the Fourth All India Educational Survey (1978) enrolment of children in Classes I-V in rural areas was 75.70 per cent of the total enrolment in the country. Girls in rural areas constituted only 36.18 per cent of the total enrolment in rural areas. In urban areas, the percentages of enrolment of boys and girls were 55.25 and 44.75 respectively.

Enrolment of girls at the middle stage in rural areas also lagged far behind that of boys. In 1978, while in urban areas girls constituted 40.33 per cent of the total enrolment, in rural areas their proportion was only 27.83 per cent. Thus, a far lower percentage of girls in rural areas is enrolled in schools than in urban areas.

For various reasons all sections of the population are not able to take advantage of educational opportunities in equal measure. For instance, in the case of girls social prejudices intervene and result in their non-enrolment or premature withdrawal from schools. Certain communities like the Scheduled Tribes live in isolated areas where the establishment of schools presents considerable difficulties. Children, especially girls, from Scheduled Castes suffer from social handicaps which prevent them from taking advantage of the educational facilities provided.

The enrolment levels at the middle stage for children belonging to Scheduled Castes and both at the primary and middle stages for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes, have been low compared to their levels within the general population (Table 2.17). In 1981-1982, the gross enrolment ratio of Scheduled Castes children in Classes VI-VIII was only 32.6 as compared to 41.9 in the case of the total population. While the gross enrolment ratio for boys and girls for the total population at the middle stages were 54.2 and 29.1 respectively, the corresponding figures for boys and girls belonging to Scheduled Castes were 45.9 and 18.5.

When the enrolment ratios of children belonging to Scheduled Castes are examined by state, these ratios at the primary stage for the States of Bihar (55.3), Haryana (62.4), Jammu & Kashmir (73.9), Karnataka (69.3), Orissa (81.2), Rajasthan (53.5), Uttar Pradesh

Table 17. Enrolment ratios of students belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1981-1982)

Population group	*Enrolment ratio at the primary stage (Classes I-V)*			*Enrolment ratio at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII)*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Both sexes*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Both sexes*
Scheduled Castes	109.2	61.4	86.0	45.9	18.5	32.6
Scheduled Tribes	95.8	50.2	73.7	30.8	12.6	21.9
General Population	99.4	66.9	83.7	54.2	29.1	41.9

Source: 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

(64.6) and West Bengal (62.3) are found to be below the corresponding overall population enrolment ratios. The enrolment is significantly on the low side when compared to the proportion of Scheduled Castes population in these states, in which they form over ten per cent of the population. A similar analysis of enrolment of Scheduled Castes children at the middle stage shows that in 1981-1982, Bihar (13.5), Haryana (28.7), Madhya Pradesh (27.2), Orissa (21.6), Rajasthan (20.1), Uttar Pradesh (23.4) and West Bengal (19.3) had enrolment ratios below the corresponding enrolment ratios for the overall population.

The gross enrolment ratio of Scheduled Tribe children in Classes I-V has been much lower than that for the general population. In 1981-1982, the enrolment ratio in Classes I-V of children belonging to Scheduled Tribes was only 73.7 as compared to 83.7 for the total population (Table 17). While the overall enrolment ratio for boys and girls were 99.4 and 66.9, the corresponding ratio for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes were 95.8 and 50.2 respectively. The disparity in enrolment ratio of Scheduled Tribes children and others is more glaring at the middle stage. In 1981-1982, the overall enrolment ratio in Classes VI-VIII was 41.79, while for children belonging to Scheduled Tribes it was only 21.9. While in the case of the total population, the enrolment ratios for boys and girls in Classes VI-VIII were 54.2 and 29.1, the corresponding figures for boys and girls belonging to Scheduled Tribes were only 30.8 and 12.6 respectively.

In eight states, the enrolment ratios of Scheduled Tribes children in Classes I-V were lower than the corresponding overall population

enrolment ratios. The enrolment level was particularly low in the States of Madhya Pradesh (44.5) and Rajasthan (49.6) compared to the Scheduled Tribes population in these states. This is true of enrolment ratios at the middle stage also.

The states with a large proportion of Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and with disproportionatly low enrolment ratios for children belonging to these communities need to make special efforts to bring these disadvantaged groups up to par with others in the same state.

Problem of non-enrolment of children. The gross enrolment ratios of 83.7 in Classes I-V and 41.9 in Classes VI-VIII, as reported for 1981-1982, are only a crude indicator of the progress of universal enrolment. They do not specify the proportion of children in the age group 6-11 who are actually enrolled in Classes I-V and those in the age group 11-14 actually enrolled in Classes VI-VIII. The gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage only compares the total enrolment of all children, irrespective of age, in Classes I-V with the total population of children in the age group 6-11. Normally the enrolment in Classes I-V includes not only children in the age group 6-11 but also children below 6 and above 11 years of age. The over-age and the under-age children normally studying in Classes I-V are, therefore, included in the enrolment figure which results in an inflated enrolment ratio. Thus, the net enrolment ratio would be less than the gross enrolment ratio. Roughly the percentage of over-aged and under-aged children studying in classes I-V is estimated to be about 22.

This suggests that enrolment at the primary stage should reach around 122 per cent of the total population of children in the age group 6-11 to ensure that every child in the age group 6-11 is enrolled in school.

During the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) data were collected on the number of children in the age group 6 to 10+ enrolled in Classes I-V. In 1978, the age-specific enrolment ratio for the age group 6 to 10+ was 64.13. For boys and girls separately, these ratios were 76.27 and 51.28 respectively. The corresponding ratios for rural areas were 61.72 (total), 75.05 (boys) and 47.36 (girls) respectively. The age specific ratio for girls in the age group 6 to 10+ in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir

Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Uttar Pradesh and Arunachal Pradesh was less than the corresponding ratio (51.28) for girls in the country.

The 'Fourth All India educational survey' also revealed that the age-specific enrolment ratio for the age group 6 to 10+ was lower in rural areas than that in urban areas. For girls both in rural and urban areas, the age-specific enrolment ratio was quite low. The survey revealed that about 36 per cent of children in the age group 6 to 10+ were outside the school system.

The age-specific enrolment ration for the age group 11 to below 14 in Classes VI-VIII was 41.72 for the country. The ratios for boys and girls were 53.44 and 29.29 respectively. The corresponding ratios for rural areas were 37.09 (total), 49.27 (boys) and 23.71 (girls) respectively. For urban areas the ratios were 55.0, 66.05 and 44.31 for total, boys and girls respectively. The age specific enrolment ratio for the age group 11 to below 14 in Classes VI-VIII was highest in Kerala (76.75) and lowest in Bihar (25.90).

Universal retention

While the increase in enrolment at the elementary stage recorded during the past three decades has been satisfactory, the problem of stagnation and drop-out has been more or less negating the progress achieved. Students taking more than the required time to complete a class and/or dropping out of the system without obtaining a minimum basic education, have been the two major deficiencies of elementary education. A large number of children enrolled at the elementary stage repeat the same class for one or more years, while others leave school at different points before completing the elementary stage. Thus, out of the children on roll in any year in Class I only a few reach Class V in a period of four years and fewer reach Class VIII in a period of seven years.

For instance, against a total enrolment of 13,391,347 children in Class I in 1960-1961, only 4,964,247 (37.1 per cent) were on roll in Class V in 1964-1965, i.e., after four years; and only 3,244,645 (24.2 per cent) were on roll in Class VIII in 1967-1968, i.e., after seven years (Annex VI). This would seem to indicate that stagnation and drop-out at the primary stage was 62.9 per cent in the period 1960-1961 to 1964-1965 and for the entire elementary stage

approximately 75.8 per cent from 1960-1961 to 1967-1968. There has not been much change in the rates of stagnation and drop-out over the years. Against an enrolment of 21,118,992 in Class I in 1971-1972, only 7,848,656 (37.2 per cent) were on roll in Class V in 1975-1976 and only 4,988,525 (23.6 per cent) on roll in Class VIII in 1978-1979.

Extent of stagnation and drop-out. Carefully conducted sample studies have helped in determining the extent of stagnation and drop-out at the elementary stage. A Study[1] conducted in 13 states on a highly restricted sample in 1976 revealed that the rate of stagnation and drop-out was higher in rural schools than in urban schools. The data were collected from the sampled schools for five years, from 1971-1972 to 1975-1976, for boys, girls and children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In states where primary education consisted of classes I-V (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh) the rate of stagnation and drop-out was 52 per cent in rural schools as compared to 27.8 per cent in urban schools. A difference was observable in the case of boys, girls and children belonging to Scheduled Castes. In rural schools, the percentage of stagnation and drop-out for these groups was 43.3, 65.6 and 61.6, while for urban schools these percentages were 32.2, 22.3 and 34.2 respectively. However, in the case of Scheduled Tribes the rate of overall wastage was found to be lower in rural schools (21.4 per cent) as compared to urban schools (85.0 per cent).

The study also revealed that the repetition rate was considerably more than that of drop-out in the case of schools having Classes I-V. A large proportion of repeaters were in Class I as compared to higher classes. While there were more repeaters in rural areas, the number of drop-outs was higher in urban areas.

In states where the primary stage consisted of Classes I-IV (Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, and West Bengal) stagnation and drop-out rates were found to be higher in rural schools than in urban schools. For the cohort year 1971-1972, the overall stagnation and drop-out rate was 44.0 per cent, 50.6 per cent in rural schools and 36.3 per cent in urban schools. In the case of

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1 'Stagnation and drop-out at primary stage – a sample survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1981.

girls, the stagnation and drop-out rates were 48.1 per cent (total), 52.0 per cent in rural and 44.1 per cent in urban areas. In the case of boys, stagnation and drop-out was 41.2 per cent, 49.7 per cent in rural schools and 30.5 per cent in urban schools. In states where the primary stage consisted of Classes I-V, the rate of repeating in rural schools was found to be quite high in Class I among all categories of pupils — boys, girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes — while between Classes III and IV the rate was lower.

The incidence of stagnation and drop-out was one of the aspects investigated under a project[1] carried out in three selected blocks each in Chamba district in Himachal Pradesh, Bijapur district in Karnataka and Jalgaon district in Maharashtra. The study revealed that the incidence of stagnation and drop-out was very high in all blocks. In Chamba district in Himachal Pradesh, the overall wastage was 46.3 per cent. In the case of students belonging to Scheduled Tribes, overall wastage was 58.5 per cent, and for boys and girls it was 59.0 per cent and 56.0 per cent respectively. For Scheduled Castes, overall wastage was 42.5 per cent, 45.2 per cent for boys and 36.6 per cent for girls. In one of the blocks in Bijapur district in Karnataka, the rate of repeaters (girls) belonging to Scheduled Castes for Class IV was as high as 91.2 per cent. The study also revealed that in one of the three selected blocks, of the girls belonging to Scheduled Castes admitted in Class I, only 11.9 per cent reached Class IV. Stagnation and drop-out was very high in Jalgaon district in Maharashtra also. In one of the blocks under study only 37.0 per cent of the children admitted in Class I reached Class IV.

Another study[2] conducted in two blocks each in four districts (Gonda, Hamirpur, Sitapur and Pithoragar) in Uttar Pradesh revealed that 62 per cent of the pupils enrolled in Class I leave school before they complete Class V and of those enrolled in Class VI, 18 per cent drop-out before they complete Class VIII. The situation was found to be more or less similar in the case of schools in rural and urban areas. It was noticed that on an average 15 per cent of the enrolled children drop-out every year in different classes. The drop-out rate

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1 'An intensive study of provision and utilisation of schooling facilities in selected blocks of Chamba District in Himachal Pradesh, Bijapur District in Karnataka and Jalgaon District in Maharashtra' (1977).

2 'Problems of non-enrolment, non-attendance and drop-outs in school : study in Uttar Pradesh', Giri Institute of Developmental Studies, Lucknow, 1982.

among girls was higher than among boys. Twenty-two per cent of girls in the school-going age group were drop-outs from schools, as against 12 per cent of boys in the same age group.

The rates of drop-out were found to be highest in Classes I and II; 30 per cent of children in the rural schools and 25 per cent in urban schools dropped out in Classes I and II. Children in the age groups of 10, 11 and 12 years constituted the largest proportion of drop-outs, both among boys and girls and in rural and urban areas. The study also revealed that the phenomenon of drop-out takes place most often when the child reaches an age when he or she could be of some help in household chores or some productive activity. It was found that in rural areas Scheduled Castes/Tribes families had a higher number of drop-outs as compared to Muslims and upper caste Hindu families. Muslim families in urban areas, however, had the highest number of drop-outs.

The study also examined the effect of certain household factors such as demographic structure and education in the family on drop-out, and the impact of the conditions of schools. It was observed that larger families had lower drop-out rates than was the case in smaller families. Families with a higher dependency ratio had lower drop-out rates. Retention of children was found to be influenced by the educational background of family members, particularly in rural areas. Drop-outs constituted only two per cent of the school age population in the case of families with a graduate, four per cent in the case of those with a matriculate and nine per cent in the case of those with primary education as the highest education in the family. Families with persons having lower educational levels or illiterates had ten per cent of their children as drop-outs from school.

Among school characteristics the number of pupils per teacher and availability of building, playground and library facilities were consistently related to the drop-out rate. The drop-out rates were found to be less in schools with a lesser number of pupils per teacher, good buildings, playground and library facilities. The drop-out rate was also found to be lower in the case of schools with a local headmaster than in schools with a person from outside the village as headmaster.

The problem of wastage and non-participation due to inequality of opportunity in primary education in rural areas in Andhra Pradesh

was examined in a Study[1] conducted during 1981-1982. The study was restricted to four districts (Kurnool, Guntur, Mahbubnagar and Medak) in Andhra Pradesh. The study showed that in Kurnool and Guntur districts, stagnation was higher among girls than among boys. Stagnation was highest in Class I as compared to all other classes. The drop-out rates were higher than those of stagnation in Kurnool, while in Guntur the incidence of drop-outs was less than stagnation for all classes. Drop-out rates were found to be higher for girls than for boys in all classes. The rate of drop-out was generally higher in the first two classes.

In Mahbubnagar and Medak districts, educational wastage at the primary stage was of the order of 92 per cent. The average percentages of stagnation for boys and girls at the primary stage in Mahbubnagar district were 45.40 and 47.06 respectively. The average percentages of stagnation for boys and girls at the primary stage in Medak district were found to be 67.12 and 72.57 respectively. It was found that while the percentages of stagnation for Scheduled Castes boys and girls in Mahbubnagar district were 39.38 and 44.61 respectively, the corresponding percentages for Medak district were 70.08 and 66.58 respectively.

The study also attempted to investigate the factors responsible for the widespread occurrence of wastage. One of the factors studied was the quality of education defined in terms of school facilities, residence of teachers and the like. The results of the study did not indicate any strong association between quality of school and wastage in education.

In another study[2] carried out in 1981 in Tumkur district in Karnataka, one of the aspects investigated was the extent of drop-out at the elementary stage of education. Attempts were also made to identify the factors responsible for the incidence of drop-out. The study revealed that the drop-out rate was highest in Class I. The drop-out rate among girls was higher than that of boys. The drop-out rate in illiterate families was found to be three times that in literate families. Households of family size 5-8 in Scheduled Caste/Tribe and

1 'Wastage, stagnation and inequality of opportunity in rural primary education : a case study of Andhra Pradesh', Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad, 1982.

2 'A Study of Universal Primary Education – Tumkur District, Karnataka', Institute for Social and Economic Change, Bangalore, 1981.

other caste communities had the maximum number of drop-outs. Important reasons for the drop-out phenomenon included assistance in household work, tending cattle, looking after younger siblings and working for daily wages.

All studies on stagnation and drop-out have indicated that the holding power of elementary schools in the country is very low. Repetition of classes by children indicates that on an average a child uses more years than the prescribed five of primary education. Most of those who drop-out after Class I or II relapse into illiteracy and add to the growing number of illiterates.

Incentive schemes for enhancing enrolment and retention. Socio-economic compulsions in families, particularly in rural areas and among the weaker sections of society, have contributed to the high rate of drop-outs at the elementary stage of education in India. In order to enhance enrolment and retention at the elementary stage of education, the central and the state governments have focused attention on overcoming the social and economic barriers which prevent children from continuing their education at least up to the end of the elementary stage. The provision of incentives in primary and middle schools is among the important programmes designed to prevent drop-outs as well as to increase the enrolment of children at the elementary stage. Prominent among the incentives being provided in primary and middle schools to students belonging to the socially and economically weaker sections of society are: (i) midday meals; (ii) free uniforms/clothes; (iii) free textbooks and stationery and (iv) attendance scholarships for girls.

Midday meal programme. The midday meal programme is one of the incentive schemes designed to attract socially and economically disadvantaged children to school and retain them up to the end of the elementary stage of education. The 'Third All India educational survey' (1973) indicated that out of the 530,867 recognized primary schools/sections in the country, 135,016 (25.43 per cent) primary schools/sections were covered by the midday meal programme. Almost 26 per cent of primary schools/sections in rural areas and 20.95 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme in 1973.

At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), out of the 474,636 primary schools in the country, the midday meal

programme was available in 126,780. The percentage of primary schools covered was 26.71 per cent. The percentages of primary schools in rural and urban areas which had the midday meal programme were 26.61 and 27.75 respectively. Out of the 112,404 middle schools in the country, 19,610 middle schools (17.45 per cent) provided free midday meals to students from economically poorer families. Over 16 per cent of middle schools in rural areas and 22.73 per cent of middle schools in urban areas were covered by the midday meal programme.

The midday meal programme in primary schools has been largely rural based, except in the States of Kerala and Tamil Nadu where a large proportion of schools in urban areas was also covered under the programme.

Supply of free uniforms/clothes. The inability of parents to provide their children with adequate clothes also contributes a great deal towards children dropping out of schools. As a measure to prevent drop-outs at the elementary stage of education, the central and the state governments, therefore, have initiated schemes for supplying uniforms/clothes to children belonging to the disadvantaged sections of society. At the time of the 'Third All India educational survey' (1973), out of 530,867 primary schools/sections in the country, 64,008 (12.06 per cent) primary schools/sections provided free uniforms/clothes to students from poorer families.

In 1978, free uniforms/ clothes were available in 59,960 primary schools and 10,563 middle schools. Over 54,000 primary schools in rural areas and 4,484 primary schools in urban areas were covered by the scheme. In the case of middle schools in the programme, 8,739 were in rural areas while 1,804 were in urban areas. The percentages of primary and middle schools which supplied free uniforms/clothes to students were 12.42 and 9.40 respectively.

Supply of free textbooks. Another incentive scheme which is designed to prevent drop-outs and enhance enrolment at the primary and middle stages of education is the scheme to supply free textbooks to students from socially and economically disadvantaged sections of society. In 1973, out of the 530,867 primary schools, 27.01 per cent provided free textbooks. Over 27 per cent of the primary schools/sections in rural areas and 25.03 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme. Between 1973-1978, there was a

significant increase in the number of primary schools covered by the scheme. The percentage of primary schools supplying free textbooks in 1978 was 37.56. Almost 38 per cent of primary schools in rural areas and 34.11 per cent in urban areas were covered by the scheme.

In 1978, 34.93 per cent of the middle schools in the country provided free textbooks to students. The percentages of middle schools in rural and urban areas which had the scheme were 34.19 and 38.75 respectively.

Attendance scholarships for girls. Since a large proportion of drop-outs at the elementary stage have been girls, the Government of India has initiated special measures for promoting education of girls. Prominent among the measures initiated to increase enrolment of girls and to retain them up to Class VIII is the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls from the weaker sections of society, including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

According to the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), there were 62,438 primary schools and 18,262 middle schools which provided attendance scholarships for girls. The percentages for primary and middle schools were 13.15 and 16.25 respectively. The scheme was more prevalent in rural schools than in urban schools. Over 59,000 primary schools (13.73 per cent) in rural areas and 3,161 (7.35 per cent) in urban areas provided attendance scholarships for girls. Almost 16,000 (16.96 per cent) middle schools in rural areas and 2,290 (12.57 per cent) middle schools in urban areas were covered by the scheme in 1978.

Qualitative improvement

No doubt, the conditions of the socially disadvantaged and the economically deprived sections of society are among the major factors that contribute to non-enrolment, non-attendance and the high rate of stagnation and drop-out at the elementary stage of education in India. Deficiencies in the present system of education are also equally responsible for the stagnation and drop-out that takes place. The poor quality of education at the elementary stage has been as much a hindering factor in the progress towards universalization of elementary education as the non-availability of facilities or poor enrolment.

Two policies, namely expansion of educational facilities for elementary education and the equalization of educational opportunities have characterized the period of planned development in India since independence. The expansion of educational facilities which was given top priority during the first two decades after independence, has adversely affected the programmes for qualitative improvement in elementary education. Due to resource constraints, adequate inputs for qualitative improvement have not been available. While the number of good schools increased and some of them became better, a number of substandard schools came to be established in order to meet the increasing demand for education.

Some of the factors which have been hindering qualitative improvement of educational practices are inadequate physical facilities such as buildings, furniture and libraries, an inadequate number of teachers in schools, untrained and under-qualified teachers, and curricula which are not relevant to the needs, aspirations and life situations of children.

Types of buildings for schools. A large number of primary and middle schools in the country are housed in unsatisfactory structures, such as open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings. At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), 40.10 per cent of primary schools in the country were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 18). The position was particularly unsatisfactory in rural areas. Over 42 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were being run in open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings. In urban areas, 14.38 per cent were housed in unsatisfactory structures, including 2.61 per cent in open spaces.

Among the states, Nagaland had the highest percentage (91.33) of primary schools in unsatisfactory structures. Assam (68.16 per cent), Bihar (60.06 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (72.35 per cent), Jammu & Kashmir (61.08 per cent), Manipur (89.20 per cent), Meghalaya (68.23 per cent), Orissa (53.23 per cent), Tripura (90.59 per cent) and West Bengal (59.14 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of primary schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Among the Union Territories, Arunachal Pradesh had the highest percentage (88.57) of primary schools with unsatisfactory structures. Dadra & Nagar Haveli (52.23 per cent) and Mizoram (82.75 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of primary schools housed in unsatisfactory structures.

Table 18. Types of buildings of primary schools (1978)

Type of building	*Number of primary schools*			*Percentage of primary schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Open space	39,606	1,124	40,730	9.18	2.61	8.58
Tents	360	196	556	0.08	0.46	0.12
Thatched huts	46,457	1,262	47,719	10.76	2.93	10.05
Kuccha (temporary) buildings	97,744	3,608	101,352	22.65	8.38	21.35
Semi-permanent buildings	55,291	6,127	61,418	12.81	14.24	12.95
Pukka (permanent) buildings	192,144	30,717	222,861	44.52	71.38	46.95
Total :	431,602	43,034	474,636	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978), National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

In 1978, 14.18 per cent of the middle schools were housed in unsatisfactory structures (Table 19). Over 15 per cent of middle schools in rural areas and 5.86 per cent in urban areas were being run in unsatisfactory structures comprising thatched huts, tents, kuccha buildings or open space.

Table 19. Types of buildings of middle schools

Types of buildings	*Number of middle schools*			*Percentage of middle schools*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Open space	1,757	53	1,810	1.86	0.29	1.61
Tents	22	44	66	0.02	0.24	0.06
Thatched huts	2,025	202	2,227	2.15	1.10	1.98
Kuccha (temporary) buildings	11,062	769	11,831	11.75	4.23	10.53
Semi-parmanent buildings	15,969	2,030	17,999	16.96	11.14	16.01
Pukka (permanent) buildings	63,345	15,126	78,471	67.26	83.00	69.81
Total :	94,180	18,224	112,404	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Among the states, Manipur had the highest percentage (80.95) of middle schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Himachal Pradesh (59.12 per cent), Nagaland (70.30 per cent) and Tripura (64.04 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of middle schools housed in unsatisfactory structures. Among Union Territories, Mizoram (79.18 per cent) and Arunachal Pradesh (52.38 per cent) had more than 50 per cent of middle schools run in open spaces, tents, thatched huts and kuccha buildings.

There has been an acute shortage of classroom space both in primary schools and middle schools. As in the case of buildings, the shortages were more acute in rural schools than in urban areas. About 83 per cent of primary schools had a shortage of one to three rooms. About 77 per cent of middle schools had a shortage of one to four rooms. While in rural areas, space was available for expansion of school buildings, schools in urban areas did not have sufficient space for constructing additional classrooms.

Availability of other facilities. Tables 20 to 24 will give a more complete picture of the limited facilities for elementary education. They cover the availability of furniture/mats, blackboards, libraries, drinking water and lavatories.

Table 20. Schools without mats/furniture (1978)

School	*Schools having no mats/furniture*			*Percentage of schools without mats/furniture*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	154,126	7,882	162,008	35.71	18.32	34.13
Middle schools	24,120	2,215	26,335	25.61	12.15	23.43

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

Table 21. Schools without adequate number of blackboards (1978)

Schools	*Number of schools without adequate number of blackboards*			*Percentage of schools without adequate number of blackboards*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary Schools	179,095	9,446	188,541	41.50	21.95	39.72
Middle Schools	20,294	1,752	22,046	21.55	9.61	19.61

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 22. Schools having library facilities (1978)

School	*Number of schools having library facilities*			*Percentage of schools having library facilities*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	120,943	19,043	139,986	28.02	44.25	29.49
Middle schools	68,897	14,846	83,743	73.15	81.46	74.50

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 23. Schools having drinking water facilities within premises (1978)

School	*Number of schools having drinking water facilities*			*Percentage of schools having drinking water facilities*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	163,112	29,124	192,236	37.79	67.67	40.50
Middle schools	59,424	14,935	74,395	63.09	81.95	66.15

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Table 24. Schools having urinals and lavatory (1978)

School	*Number of schools having urinals and lavatory*			*Percentage of schools having urinals and lavatory*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Primary schools	46,806	23,491	70,297	10.84	54.59	14.81
Middle schools	28,643	13,483	42,126	30.41	73.98	37.40

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Number of teachers in primary and middle schools. The total number of primary and middle school teachers has increased substantially during the past three decades. The number of primary school teachers increased from 537,918 in 1950-1951 to 1,365,431 in 1980-1981 (Table 25).

Table 25. Number of teachers in primary schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Number of teachers in primary schools*			*Percentage of women teachers*	*Average number of teachers per school*
	Men	*Women*	*Total*		
1950-1951	455,637	82,281	537,918	15.30	2.57
1955-1956	574,182	117,067	691,249	16.94	2.48
1960-1961	614,727	126,788	741,515	17.10	2.24
1965-1966	764,062	180,315	944,377	19.09	2.62
1970-1971	835,340	224,610	1,059,950	21.19	2.60
1975-1976	964,311	283,242	1,247,553	22.70	2.75
1980-1981 (P)	1,001,977	343,399	1,345,376	25.52	2.77
1981-1982 (P)	1,012,660	352,771	1,365,431	25.84	2.76

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *'A handbook of educational allied statistics'*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1955-1956, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971, 1975-1976 and 1980-1981).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

A welcome trend is the increase in the proportion of women teachers. During this period, the percentage of women teachers rose from

15.30 to 25.84. Though there has been a considerable increase in the number of teachers at the primary stage, the average number of teachers per school showed only a very marginal increase, from 2.57 in 1950-1951 to 2.76 in 1981-1982.

The number of teachers at the middle stage increased from 85,496 in 1950-1951 to 846,772 in 1981-1982 (Table 26). During this period, the average number of teachers per middle school increased from 6.29 to 7.08. The percentage of women teachers in middle schools increased from 15.07 to 31.50 during the period 1950-1951 to 1981-1982.

Table 26. Number of teachers in middle schools in India (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Number of teachers in middle schools*			*Percentage of women teachers*	*Average number of teachers per school*
	Men	*Women*	*Total*		
1950-1951	72,609	12,887	85,496	15.07	6.29
1955-1956	90,995	23,844	114,839	20.76	5.28
1960-1961	261,696	83,532	345,228	24.20	6.95
1965-1966	389,225	138,529	527,754	26.25	6.96
1970-1971	463,063	174,506	637,569	27.37	7.04
1975-1976	554,043	223,885	777,928	28.78	7.30
1980-1981 (P)	570,183	260,466	830,649	31.36	7.13
1981-1982 (P)	580,049	266,723	846,772	31.50	7.08

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A handbook of educational and allied statistics*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1955-1956, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971, 1975-1976 and 1980-1981).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1981-1982).

In spite of the substantial increase in the number of teachers at the primary stage, there still exist a large number of schools without an adequate number of teachers. In 1978, as many as 164,931 primary schools were single teacher schools, constituting 35 per cent of the total number (Table 27). Over 27 per cent were two-teacher schools, 15.10 per cent three-teacher schools and 8.16 per cent four-teacher schools. Over 5 per cent of primary schools had five

teachers, while 8.85 per cent had more than five teachers. Sixty-two per cent were without teachers. Zero teacher schools indicate that on the date of the survey, a given school had no teacher, although a position had been sanctioned.

Table 27. Primary schools according to teachers in position (1978)

Number of teachers in position	*Number of primary schools*	*Percentage to total number of primary schools*
Zero	2,937	0.62
One	164,931	34.75
Two	129,451	27.27
Three	71,658	15.10
Four	38,726	8.16
Five	24,908	5.25
More than Five	42,025	8.85
Total :	474,636	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

The percentage of single-teacher primary schools ranged from 0.25 in Delhi — a metropolitan area — to 82.83 in Dadra & Nagar Haveli, a small Union Territory predominantly inhabited by tribal people. Among the states, Jammu & Kashmir had the highest percentage (78.52) of single-teacher schools. Andhra Pradesh (54.27 per cent), Gujarat (56.41 per cent), Karnataka (72.54 per cent), Maharashtra (52.75 per cent), Meghalaya (64.22 per cent) and Rajasthan (57.22 per cent) were the other states where more than 50 per cent of the primary schools had only one teacher in position. Among the Union Territories, Arunachal Pradesh (71.84 per cent) had the highest percentage of single-teacher schools at the primary stage. Assam (28.6 per cent), Bihar (33.5 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (42.4 per cent), Madhya Pradesh (47.0 per cent), Orissa (45.8 per cent), and Tripura (36.8 per cent) also had a large number of single-teacher primary schools in 1978. These single-teacher schools, with children of varying age groups and varying educational attainment, present a number of problems, particularly for teachers in rural primary schools, whose academic backgrounds are generally not as sound as that of their counterparts in urban schools.

'The Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) also made available data on the percentage distribution of primary sections according to number of teachers. It was found that 31.92 per cent of primary sections had only one teacher in position (Table 28). In rural areas, 35.11 per cent of primary sections were single-teacher sections as against 5.78 per cent in urban areas. Of the total number of primary sections in the country, 26.28 per cent were two-teacher sections. The percentages of sections having only two teachers in rural and urban areas were 28.24 and 10.17 respectively. The percentage of primary sections with five or more teachers was 58.10 in the case of urban areas, whereas in the case of rural areas it was only 12.0.

Table 28. Percentage distribution of primary sections according to number of teachers (1978)

Number of teachers in position	*Percentage of primary sections*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*
Zero	0.58	0.12	0.53
One	35.11	5.78	31.92
Two	28.24	10.17	26.28
Three	15.36	11.31	14.92
Four	8.71	14.52	9.34
Five	5.00	14.29	6.01
More than Five	7.00	43.81	11.00
Total :	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

Pupil-teacher ratio. Normally, the allotment of teachers in primary schools/sections is based on the enrolment, However, in some cases, there has been a disproportionate distribution of teachers in primary sections. At the time of the 'Fourth All India educational survey' (1978) there were primary sections without a teacher or with one teacher, which had enrolments of 200 or more. At the same time there were also primary sections with five teachers or more with an enrolment of less than 20. There were 1.36 per cent of primary sections with a pupil-teacher ratio below 10. (Table 29).

Table 29. Percentage distribution of primary sections according to pupil-teacher ratio (1978)

Pupil-teacher ratio	*Percentage of primary sections*		
	Rural	*Urban*	*Total*
Below 10	1.36	1.31	1.36
10-19	6.97	6.53	6.92
20-39	52.27	49.63	51.98
40-49	21.54	25.32	21.95
50 and above	17.86	17.21	17.79
Total :	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi; 1982.

In 17.79 per cent of primary sections, the pupil-teacher ratio was 50 or more. The pattern of pupil-teacher ratio was almost the same in rural and urban areas.

Availability of qualified teachers. A major thrust of the effort to improve the quality of education at the elementary stage has been to raise the level of general education and professional training of teachers. Due to the expansion of educational facilities at all levels, a large number of more qualified persons have become teachers at primary and middle stages.

The minimum qualification prescribed for the primary school teacher is matriculation with a teacher training certificate. In 1978, among teachers at the primary stage, 6.3 per cent were graduates and 0.84 per cent were post graduates (Table 30). However, there was also a sizeable proportion of teachers (26.24 per cent) who were under-qualified. While the minimum qualification prescribed for a teacher working at the middle stage is, in some states, matriculation with a teacher training certificate, in others, the qualification prescribed is a bachelor's degree and a degree in education. In 1978 among teachers at the middle stage, 6.14 per cent were postgraduates. However, 9.08 per cent were underqualified.

The number of trained teachers has also been increasing steadily over the years. The percentage of trained teachers in primary schools increased from 58.8 per cent in 1950-1951 to 80.63 per cent in

1970-1971 and to 87.1 in 1981-1982. In the case of middle schools it increased from 53.3 per cent in 1950-1951 to 83.8 per cent in 1970-1971 and to 89.2 in 1981-1982.

Table 30. Percentage of trained teachers in primary and middle schools (1950-1951 to 1981-1982)

Year	*Percentage of trained teachers*	
	Primary schools	*Middle schools*
1950-1951	58.8	53.3
1955-1956	61.2	58.5
1960-1961	64.1	66.5
1965-1966	70.5	76.9
1970-1971	80.6	83.8
1981-1982 (P)	87.1	89.2

(P) Provisional

Source: i) *A handbook of educational and allied statistics*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983 (for 1950-1951, 1960-1961, 1965-1966, 1970-1971).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983 (for 1981-1982).

There was, however, a wide variation in the availability of trained teachers in the states/UTs in 1981-1982. In 1981-1982, 12.9 per cent of the teachers in primary schools in the country were untrained. Nagaland had the highest percentage (64.0 per cent) of untrained teachers in primary schools. Assam (46.1 per cent), Manipur (32.0 per cent), Meghalaya (46.0 per cent), Sikkim (55.7 per cent), Tripura (38.5 per cent), West Bengal (40.0 per cent) and Mizoram (42.1 per cent) were other states which had a considerable backlog of untrained primary school teachers.

In middle schools, 10.8 per cent of the teachers were untrained in 1981-1982. The highest proportion of untrained teachers in middle schools was in Nagaland (82.0 per cent). In Assam (66.7 per cent), Manipur (64.0 per cent), Meghalaya (75.0 per cent), Sikkim (53.4 per cent), Arunachal Pradesh (56.1 per cent) and Mizoram (63.8 per cent), a large proportion of teachers in middle schools were untrained.

Development and renewal of curriculum

Another aspect of the effort to improve the quality of education at the elementary stage has been the development and renewal of curriculum. The content of syllabi in all subjects has been upgraded. A much larger variety of subjects with more enriching information has been introduced. Each subject has been brought to a higher standard. Simultaneously, textbooks and other teaching-learning materials have been improved in all aspects to match the upgraded content and standard.

The Education Commission (1964-1966) underlined national development as one of the most important concerns of education. It visualized education as the only instrument of peaceful social change on a grand scale. It laid emphasis on the internal transformation of education so as to relate it to the life, needs and aspirations of the people. It stressed the need to provide children with an education which would help them to participate effectively and productively in the on-going process of development.

The report was followed by attempts to develop a corresponding school curriculum which would meet the current and emerging needs of Indian society. In 1973, the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare constituted an expert group to develop a framework for school curriculum. The group made a thorough study of the existing educational practices in the country and held discussions at different levels involving experts from various fields. The expert group proposed a framework for development of curricula at the primary, middle and secondary stages of education in the country. 'The curriculum for the ten-year school – a framework' was brought out by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in the year 1975.

The framework stressed the need to develop a curriculum which was socially and personally relevant and emphasized flexibility within a framework of acceptable principles and values in order to make the curriculum in tune with the rapidly expanding frontiers of knowledge in science and technology and changing socio-economic conditions. It envisaged the study of science and mathematics as an integral part of school education up to Class X, in order to give children modern knowledge, develop their curiosity, teach them the scientific method of inquiry and prepare them for effective

participation in a changing society and culture, increasingly dependent on a rational outlook and requiring better utilization of science and technology. Work experience as a source of learning at all levels of school education was also emphasized. The need to formulate a curriculum which would facilitate the awakening of social consciousness, the development of democratic values and a feeling of social justice and national integration was also highlighted.

The framework brought into focus the need to provide children with opportunities of artistic experience and expression in order to preserve and develop their talents. It recommended that the curriculum should provide adequate time for physical education and should have a core centring on character building and human values. Due emphasis was laid upon the process of learning, particularly self-learning or learning to learn at every stage of school education. Emphasis was also laid on language learning and the mother tongue was recommended as the medium of instruction at the primary stage.

The framework laid down separate objectives of education at the primary and middle stages. In regard to primary education it observed that:

> . . . the child's spontaneity, curiosity, creativity and activity, in general, should not be restricted by a rigid and unattractive method of teaching and environment for learning. The curriculum should take into consideration the social, intellectual, emotional and physical maturity of the child as well as the socio-economic needs of the community. It will be helpful to identify realistically the basic minimum to be achieved in respect of each and every child and leave enough scope for individual schools to go as far beyond this basic minimum as their circumstances permit. There should be enough scope for flexibility and local adjustments.

The specific objectives of education at the primary stage were defined as follows:

i) The first objective is literacy. The child should learn the first language, which would generally be his mother tongue, to a level where he can communicate easily with others through properly articulated speech and in writing.

ii) The second objective is attainment of numeracy. The child should develop facility in the four fundamental numerical operations and be able to apply these in the life of the community to solve practical problems.

iii) The third objective is 'techniracy'. The child should learn the method of inquiry in science and should begin to appreciate science and technology in the life and world around him/her.

iv) The child should develop a respect for national symbols, like the flag and the anthem, and for the democratic processes and institutions of the country. He should know about the composite and plural culture of India and learn to denigrate untouchability, casteism and communalism.

v) The child should acquire healthy attitudes towards human labour and its dignity.

vi) The child should develop habits of cleanliness and healthful living and an understanding of the proper sanitation and hygiene of his neighbourhood.

vii) The child should acquire a taste for the good and the beautiful and should take care of his surroundings.

viii) The child should learn to co-operate with others and appreciate the usefulness of working together for the common good. Other desirable qualities of character and personality such as initiative, leadership, kindness, honesty, should also be developed as well as an understanding of his role as an individual in the home, the school and the neighbourhood.

ix) The child should be able to express himself freely in creative activities and should acquire habits of self-learning.

As regards the middle school stage, the frame-work recognized that:

> during these years, the children become adolescent and this period can become difficult for many children. Problems of adjustment in the family, the school and the society begin to appear. The child, however, becomes a boy or girl with greater intellectual, emotional, social and

> physical maturity than the primary school child. Social demands and responsibilities begin to appear. For many boys and girls, this stage is terminal, after which they enter life and work. They should, therefore, be prepared adequately to face life and develop capacities and attitudes for productive work in which they have to participate.

The framework emphasized national integration as an important aim of education. Social sciences were expected to play a significant role in promoting this. It stated that in the matter of national integration, children at the middle stage should develop an understanding based on knowledge, through a proper study of history, geography and other subjects. It highlighted the study of the Indian Constitution and the values it enshrines, as well as the democratic process, structures and institutions of the country. The framework also pointed out that children's understanding should be deepened and widened by their knowledge of world culture and civilization.

As regards language learning, the framework observed that the middle stage,

> is the stage when a second language should be learned so that the child is prepared for wider participation in society and the nation. The child should begin to comprehend ordinary speech in that language as well as simple pieces of writing in prose and poetry. Its mastery of the first language, however, should now be greater and the child should begin to appreciate its literature.

The framework stated that 'in the sciences, physical and life sciences should be introduced. At the same time, environmental education, nutrition, health and population education should receive adequate attention so that science is related meaningfully to life'. It also pointed out that during the middle stage 'work experience should emphasise agricultural and technological processes and tools to help the integration of science, mathematics and technology with production and with the life of the community'.

Education, particularly school education, is primarily the concern of the states/UTs. They have complete autonomy in taking decisions about the curriculum syllabus and textbooks. There is, therefore, a good deal of variation, in the syllabi prescribed by the

Education Departments in the states/UTs. However, the curriculum proposed by NCERT in 1975, has tended to bring about a much needed uniformity.

The framework had stressed the necessity to introduce flexibility in the organization of school work and school hours. However, the following scheme of areas of school work and allocation of time were indicated in the framework.

Primary stage (Classes I-V)

Subjects/area of school work	*Percentage of total time allotted*	
	Classes I-II	*Classes III-V*
First language	25	25
Mathematics	10	15
Environmental studies (social studies and general science)	15	20
Work experience and the arts	25	20
Health education and games	25	20
Total :	100	100

Middle stage (Classes V-VIII)

The framework proposed that a middle school should work for six days in the week, consisting of 48 periods, each of 30-40 minutes duration. The instructional periods were distributed as follows:

Subjects/area of school work	*Hours per week*
First language	8
Second language	5
Mathematics	7
Sciences (life sciences and physical sciences)	7
Social sciences (history, geography, civics and economics)	6
Arts	4
Work experience	5
Physical education, health education and games	6
Total	48

In June 1977, the Ministry of Education appointed a Review Committee to assess and re-examine the objectives and scheme of studies, including the syllabi and textbooks developed on the basis of the 'Curriculum for the ten year school — a framework'. Having reviewed the objectives and structure of school education, the Committee stressed that, 'education must be organized as a learning system to take the individual and society progressively towards higher reaches of human thought and behaviour'. It emphasized that the 'content of learning must also be flexible and arranged so as to suit the needs of individual learners or groups of learners. The curriculum too must be capable of catering to the requirements of a wide range of learners and learning circumstances'. It also suggested that the curriculum should be built around local situations while providing for a core of basic content for uniformity of educational attainment and the acquisition of further skills and knowledge. The Review Committee recommended that socially useful productive work 'should be given a central place in the curriculum at all stages of school education and the content of the academic subjects should be related to it as far as possible'.

The Review Committee recognized that the elementary stage, ending at Class VIII, was the terminal stage of formal education for the great majority of children in the country and recommended that 'a general broad-based education be provided up to the end of the stage of compulsory education'. The specific objectives of education at the elementary stage (Classes I-VIII) formulated by the Review Committee are as follows:

a) Acquisition of tools of formal learning, namely, literacy, numeracy and manual skills;

b) Acquisition of knowledge through observation, study and experimentation in the areas of social and natural sciences;

c) Development of physical strength and team spirit through sports and games;

d) Acquisition of skills for planning and executing socially useful productive work with a view to making education work-based;

e) Acquisition of skills of purposeful observation;

f) Acquisition of habits of co-operative behaviour within the family, school and community;

g) Development of aesthetic perception and creativity through participation in artistic activities and observation of nature;

h) Development of social responsibility by inculcating habits (individually as well as collectively) of appreciation of the culture and life styles of persons of other religions, regions and countries and readiness to serve the weaker and the deprived; and

i) Development of the desire to participate in productive and other processes of community life and to serve the community.

The Review Committee also made certain recommendations regarding the structure, curriculum pattern and time allocation for the different sub-stages of school education which were considered illustrative and which might apply in general throughout the country. The recommendations in regard to the elementary stage of education were as follows:

Primary stage (Classes I-IV/V)

Subjects	*Percentage of total time allocated*
One language (Mother Tongue)	20
Mathematics	20
Environmental Studies (Social Studies, Nature Study and Health Education)	20
Socially Useful Productive Work	20
Games, and Creative Activities such as Music, Dancing and Painting.	20
Total :	100 hours

Middle stage (Classes V/VI-VII/VIII)

Subjects	*Time allotted in hours per week*
Languages (Mother tongue/regional language and official or the associate official language of the Union)	7
History, civics and geography	4
Science – an integrated course	4
The arts (music, dancing, painting)	3
Socially useful productive work and community service	6
Games, physical education and supervised study.	4
Total :	28 hours

As regards learning of languages, the Review Committee felt that the recommendations of the Education Commission (1964-1966) should be the basis for the formulation or reformulation of any policy. The Education Commission had recommended a three language formula at the school stage to include; (a) the mother tongue or the regional language; (b) the official language of the Union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists; and (c) a modern Indian or foreign language not covered under (a) and (b) and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

The Education Commission had recommended that at the primary stage (Classes I-V) 'only one language should be studied compulsorily – the mother tongue or the regional language, at the option of the pupil'. It was recommended that at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII):

> only two languages should be studied on a compulsory basis: (i) the mother tongue or the regional language; and (ii) the official or the associate official language of the Union . . . In addition, facilities should be provided for the study of a third language on an optional basis, so that the children in Hindi areas whose mother tongue is not Hindi and the children in non-Hindi areas who have taken English as the second language may study the official language of the Union, if they do so desire.

The Review Committee observed that the scheme of studies recommended for Classes I-VIII was only illustrative and the Education Departments in different states/UTs in the country might decide to make some subjects compulsory and other electives if they so desired. The basic characteristics and objectives of curriculum for school education have also been further spelt out in the Sixth Five Year Plan document. According to it:

> the curriculum would be developed with the goal of imparting necessary levels of literacy, numeracy, comprehension and functional skills related to local socio-economic factors and environment needs. It would suit flexible models, with provision of diversification and dextrous balance between a common basic goal and varying methodology. The basic objectives would stress curriculum as an instrument for inculcating humanistic values, capacity for tolerance, promotion of national integration, scientific attitudes and the temper and individual capability for learning from the surrounding world.

Today in India, the guidelines provided in 'The curriculum for the ten-year school — a framework' and the 'Report of the Review Committee on the curriculum for the ten-year school' form the basis for the development of curricula for school education at different levels in the states and Union Territories in the country.

Efforts have been made to upgrade the content of the syllabi in all subjects. Textbooks and other teaching-learning materials have been improved in all aspects to match the upgraded content and standard. These reforms along with efforts to improve the level of general education and professional training of teachers, have contributed considerably to the improvement of instruction.

Expenditure on elementary education

The outlays for elementary education have increased substantially in successive Five Year Plans. The total outlay for elementary education increased from Rs 930 million in the First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) to Rs 9050 million in the Sixth Five Year Plan. The Plan expenditure on elementary education increased from Rs 850 million during the Fifth Plan period to Rs 3170 million during the Fifth Five Year Plan period (Table 31).

Although the outlay for elementary education has increased substantially, its share in the total outlay for education varied from Plan to Plan. While in the case of the First Five Year Plan it represented 55 per cent of the total outlay for education, in the Sixth Five Year Plan the share of elementary education decreased to 35.9 per cent. The Plan expenditure also showed a downward trend during this period. The percentage of expenditure on elementary education decreased from 56 per cent in the First Five Year Plan to 35 per cent in the Fifth Five Year Plan.

Table 31. Plan outlay and expenditure on elementary education

Plan	*Outlay*		*Expenditure*	
	Education (Total)	*Elementary education*	*Education*	*Elementary education*
First Five Year Plan	169	93 (55)	153	85 (56)
Second Five Year Plan	277	93 (34)	[illegible]	95 (35)
Third Five Year Plan	560	209 (37)	589	201 (34)
Fourth Five Year Plan	822	256 (31)	786	239 (30)
Fifth Five Year Plan	1,285	410 (32)	912	317 (35)
Sixth Five Year Plan	2,524	905 (36)	–	–

Source: *A handbook, of educational and allied statistics.* Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

The pattern of distribution of plan and non-plan expenditure on elementary education in states and Union Territories has also shown variations in different years (Table 32). The proportion of plan expenditure on elementary education incurred by states/UTs increased from 29.9 per cent in 1968-1969, which was the final year of the Fourth Five Year Plan period. In the Fifth Five Year Plan period (1974-1979), the percentage of plan expenditure on elementary education to total plan expenditure on education decreased from 44.7 per cent in 1974-1975 to 42.1 in 1978-1979. The non-plan expenditure, which is spent to maintain the existing

infrastructure (mostly on salaries of teachers and other staff) in the state sector constituted 47.2 per cent in 1968-1969. It increased to 48.7 per cent in 1978-1979. The proportion of expenditure on elementary education to total expenditure in the central and state sectors increased from 42.2 per cent in 1968-1969 to 44.3 per cent in 1978-1979.

In the states and UTs the largest share of educational expenditure has been on elementary education. Of the total expenditure on education incurred in the states, the proportion spent (plan and non-plan) on elementary education increased from 46.2 per cent in 1969-1970 to 47.2 per cent in 1973-1974. However, in the Fifth Five Year Plan period, the proportion of expenditure on elementary education decreased from 49.5 per cent in 1974-1975 to 47.9 per cent in 1978-1979. However, the position was not uniform in all the states/UTs. The percentages of expenditure (plan and non-plan) on elementary education to total expenditure on education in 1978-1979 were more than 50 per cent in Bihar (61.2), Nagaland (59.2), Kerala (56.3), Gujarat (55.4), Karnataka (55.0), Rajasthan (54.8) and Uttar Pradesh (52.5), while in other states it was less than 50 per cent.

Table 32. Percentage of expenditure on elementary education to total expenditure on education (revenue account)

(Expenditure in millions)

Year	Plan		Non-Plan		Total	
	States/UTs	Total	States/UTs	Total	States/UTs	Total
1968-1969	29.9	22.1	47.2	45.5	45.3	42.2
1969-1970	32.9	20.1	47.1	45.3	46.2	42.8
1970-1971	34.7	22.6	45.8	44.0	44.9	41.6
1971-1972	33.5	24.1	46.0	44.3	44.7	41.4
1972-1973	40.4	29.3	48.8	47.0	47.7	44.0
1973-1974	41.5	34.6	48.5	46.8	47.2	44.3
1974-1975	44.7	32.4	49.8	47.4	49.5	46.3
1975-1976	42.7	30.9	50.2	47.9	49.6	46.2
1976-1977	43.3	31.4	49.3	47.0	48.8	45.3
1977-1978	42.6	32.8	49.1	46.9	48.4	45.1
1978-1979	42.1	31.9	48.7	46.5	47.9	44.3

Source: 'Trends of expenditure on education', 1968-1969 to 1978-1979, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India. 1980.

There has been a disturbing trend in the proportion of expenditure on different items. The proportion of expenditure on teachers' salary has increased at the cost of other items. For instance, between 1951 and 1958, the percentage of recurring expenditure on items other than salaries decreased in the case of primary schools from 26.9 to 14.7 and in the case of middle schools from 27.7 to 18.1. In 1973, the percentage had gone down to 6.6 in the case of primary schools and 8.6 in the case of middle schools.

The public expenditure on primary education in 1978-1979 was of the order of Rs. 6526.8 million. Its breakdown into current and capital costs was as below:

Table 33. Expenditure on primary education (1970-1979)

Item	*Expenditure (millions)*	*Percentage to total*
Current expenditure		
Teachers salary	6,218.14	95.3
Administration and supervision	121.31	1.9
Other	73.42	1.1
Capital expenditure	113.93	1.7
Total	6,526.80	100.0

Thus, in 1978-1979, teachers' salaries constituted 95.3 per cent of the total expenditure on primary education. This shows that the bulk of the expenditure on elementary education is accounted for by teacher costs, with hardly any resources being devoted to such essential items as replacement of equipment, purchase of library books, and contingencies. This trend has serious implications for the quality of elementary education.

The per capita expenditure on education remains fairly low. In 1981-1982, the per capita budgeted expenditure for the country as a whole was Rs 57.7. Among the states, it varied between Rs 399.4 in Lakshadweep to Rs 35.4 in Uttar Pradesh. The percentage of budgeted expenditure on education to total revenue budget in the country as a whole was 24.5 in 1981-1982.

Chapter Three

STRATEGIES FOR UNIVERSALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The provision of universal elementary education continues to be one of the main objectives of educational development in India. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) envisages a balanced strategy of educational development 'to ensure essential minimum education to all children up to the age of 14 years' by the year 1989-1990. Elementary education, as one of the major components of the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) has been accorded highest priority in the Sixth Plan.

The importance of universalization of elementary education has been further reinforced in the new 20-Point Programme announced by the Prime Minister of India on January 14, 1982.

The programme forms an integral part of the Sixth Five Year Plan and focuses attention on certain high priority areas of national development. It seeks to impart greater dynamism to the implementation of some of the crucial social and economic programmes. Point 16 of the new 20-Point Programme highlights the national commitment to 'Spread universal education for the age group 6-14 with special emphasis on girls and simultaenously involve students and voluntary agencies in programmes for the removal of adult illiteracy'.

Strategies envisaged and adopted for universalization of elementary education

The Sixth Five Year Plan envisages a two-pronged attack for increasing enrolment and reducing the drop-out rate at the elementary stage of education. The strategies for universalization of elementary education, given a result-oriented perspective by the New 20-Point Programme, include intensified use of existing facilities, including adjustment of schooling hours according to local conditions, provision of new facilities which would be economically

viable and educationally relevant and promotion of a non-formal system of learning. The present strategy is target group oriented because out-of-school children are mostly from the weaker sections of the society, or girls.

Part-time short duration classes for children who cannot, for various reasons, attend full-time regular schools have been advocated as an alternative to the formal system of education. As a major strategy to provide education to out-of-school children who for various socio-economic reasons fail to take advantage of the full-time schooling facilities, adoption of a large scale programme of part-time education was emphasized by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) in 1974. The Board observed that 'the goal of universal aducation cannot be realized through an exclusive reliance on the formal system of education with its single point entry, sequential character and full-time professional teachers'. It, therefore, recommended that 'a radical reconstruction of the existing system should be carried out through the adoption of a multiple entry system and a large scale programme of part-time education for those children who cannot attend schools, for some reason or the other on a whole time basis'.

In accordance with this recommendation, part-time education was emphasized for the first time in the Draft Fifth Plan (1974-1979). Part-time classes were proposed for those children who, having completed five years of primary school would also like to continue education on a part-time basis, and literacy classes for those who had either never been to school or had dropped out at the early stage of primary education.

Part-time education as a major strategy to bring out-of-school children within the fold of education was also emphasized by the Working Group on Universalization of Elementary Education set up by the Ministry of Education. While formulating the basic strategy for universalization of elementary education, the Working Group in its 1978 interim report recommended:

> At present our motto is: either full-time education or on education at all. This does not suit the hard realities of the life because most children (about 70 per cent of the total) have to work in or outside the family and are, therefore, compelled to drop-out on the ground that they

> cannot attend on a whole time basis. They could receive education on part-time basis but our system does not provide such education. We propose a major change in this policy in recommending a new motto: Every child shall continue to learn in the age group 6-14, on a full time basis, if possible and on a part-time basis if necessary". The Working Group also observed that "The goal of universal elementary education can and should be achieved through full-time schooling and part-time education: but either should be done without sacrificing the basic minimum knowledge of literacy, numeracy and inculcation of the social and civic responsibilities and in both these options the content of education should be meaningful and relevant to the socio-economic milieu and needs. Content of either channel should be such as it does not thwart the scope of vertical mobility.

Following the recommendations of the Working Group, non-formal part-time education is being developed in a big way as an alternative, supportive system to formal schooling. Under this programme, out-of-school children, who cannot join and attend formal schools because of certain socio-economic constraints, are offered elementary education of an equivalent standard at places and times suited to their needs and convenience. The major thrust of the non-formal education programme is in nine states — Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, which among them hold about 75 per cent of the non-enrolled children in the country.

Enrolment targets

An analysis of enrolment at the primary and middle stages in 1979-1980, which was the base year of the Sixth Five Year Plan indicated that while many states/Union Territories had reached 100 per cent enrolment of boys at the primary stage, some lagged behind in respect of boys and many in the case of girls. In the case of enrolment at the middle stage, the progress of both boys and girls, was more uneven. Therefore, while the main objective of educational development in the Sixth Five Year Plan continues to be universalization of elementary education, it is proposed that the goal should be reached in two stages. In the first stage, universalization will be achieved in primary education by 1984-1985, in those states/

UTs which are yet to universalize it. In the second stage, that is by 1989-1990, all children of the 11-14 age group will be enrolled in crease in the enrolment of children at the middle stage would be attempted so that by the end of Seventh Five Year Plan the Constitutional Directive is finally realized. Enrolment targets have been fixed for each state/UT with this perspective in view.

During the Sixth Five Year Plan, the enrolment in Classes I to V is expected to be increased from 70,940 million in 1979-1980 to 82,633 million in 1984-1985, from 43,662 million to 48,457 for boys and from 27,278 million to 34,176 million in the case of girls. Thus, additional enrolment expected at the primary stage during the Sixth Five Year Plan is about 11,693 million (4,795 million for boys and 6.898 million in the case of girls). The enrolment at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) in 1984-1985 is expected to be 25,835 million. The additional enrolment expected at the middle stage is 7,134 million consisting of about 4,077 million boys and 3,057 million girls (Table 34)

Taking the two age groups of 6-11 and 11-14 together, a target of about 18,827 million has been laid down, 11.693 million in Classes I-V and 7,134 million in classes VI-VIII. In the context of the population projection worked out on the basis of the 1971 Census, the percentage of children enrolled in Classes I-V to population in the age group 6-11 is expected to be raised from 81.9 per cent in 1979-1980 to 95.2 per cent in 1984-1985. A gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent at the primary stage would be obtained in the case of Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Punjab Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, A & N Islands, Chandigarh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Goa, Daman and Diu, Mizoram and Pondicherry. In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal and Arunachal Pradesh, the gross enrolment ratios will be over 90 per cent. In all states/UTs except Haryana, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the gross enrolment ratio for boys in Classes I-V will be over 100 per cent. As for girls the enrolment ratio for age group 6-11 is expected to be raised from 64.9 per cent in 1979-1980 to 81.5 per cent by the end of Sixth Five Year Plan. By the end of 1984-1985, it is expected to be over 100 per cent in Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Punjab, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, A&N Islands, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Goa, Daman and Diu, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry.

Table 34. Additional enrolment targets for the Sixth Five Year Plan and Achievement During 1980-1983 (Classes I-V and VI-VIII)

Year	*Additional Enrolment (in millions)*					
	Classes I-V			*Classes VI-VIII*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1980-1985 (Sixth Five Year Plan Target)	4.795	6.898	11.693	4.077	3.057	7.134
1980-1981 (Achievement)	0.914	0.834	1.748	0.730	0.415	1.145
1981-1982 (Achievement)	0.400	0.475	0.875	0.693	0.516	1.209
1982-1983 (Likely Achievement)	1.263	1.039	2.302	1.031	0.737	1.768
1983-1984 (Target)	1.461	1.801	3.262	1.269	0.621	1.890

Source: i) 'Analysis of Annual Plan for Education (1983-1984)', Planning Commission, Government of India, 1983 (for 1980-1985, 1982-1983 & 1983-1984).

ii) Figures for 1980-1981 and 1981-1982 are calculated on the basis of data on enrolment given in 'Selected educational statistics', 1980-1981 and 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India.

The enrolment in classes VI-VIII is expected to be increased from 38.4 per cent of the population in the age group 11-14 in 1979-1980 to 50.3 per cent in 1984-1985. During the same period the enrolment ratio of boys in classes VI-VIII is expected to be raised from 50.1 per cent in 1979-1980 to 63.1 per cent in 1984-1985 and of the girls from 26.0 per cent to 36.8 per cent. Nagaland and the Union Territories of A&N Islands, Goa, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep, Mizoram and Pondicherry are expected to have a gross enrolment ratio of over 100 per cent at the middle stage while it is expected to be over 80 per cent in the case of Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, Punjab, Chandigarh and Delhi and over 60 per cent in Jammu & Kashmir, Manipur, Meghalaya, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu and Dadra and Nagar Haveli.

Physical targets achieved during 1980-1983. An appraisal of the implementation of different components of universalization of elementary education since the commencement of the Sixth Five

Year Plan indicates that in the first year of the Plan (1980-1981), average annual additional enrolment in Classes I-V was of the order of about 1.748 million (0.914 million boys and 0.834 million girls). At the middle stage (classes VI-VIII) the additional enrolment during 1980-1981 was about 1.145 million (0.730 million boys and 0.415 million girls). In 1981-1982, the additional enrolment in Classes I-V was of the order of about 0.085 million (0.400 million boys and 0.475 million girls). In Classes VI-VIII the additional enrolment during 1981-1982 was about 1.204 million (0.693 million boys and 0.516 million girls). The additional enrolment targets for 1980-1985 and achievements during 1981-1983 and the targets for 1983-1984 are indicated in Table 3.2.

It is expected that an additional enrolment of about 5.0 million will be achieved in the final year of the plan period, thereby making a total achievement of more than 19.0 million, which exceeds the targets envisaged under the Sixth Five Year Plan.

Though the additional enrolment targets for the 6-14 age group in Classes I-VIII in formal schools are likely to be achieved in the Sixth Five Year Plan, it looks doubtful whether the additional enrolment coverage of 6 million envisaged under the non-formal education programme will be achieved. The likely achievement under this programme may be of the order of about 4.5 million during the period of the Sixth Plan. Therefore, according to the present assessment, total enrolment in Classes I-VIII (6-14 age group) both under the formal and non-formal system, is expected to be of the order of 113.0 million by the end of the Sixth Five Year Plan period. The estimated population in the age group 6-14 in 1984-1985, on the basis of the 1981 Census, is of the order of 148.0 million. Thus, there will be a backlog of about 35 million non-attending children in this age group in 1984-1985.

Table 35. Achievement and targets of enrolment at elementary stage (Classes I-V and VI-VIII) during 1979-1980 & 1980-1985

Year	Enrolment (in millions)					
	Classes I-V			Classes VI-VIII		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1979-1980 (Base year of Sixth Five Year Plan)	43.662	27.278	70.940	12.548	6.153	18.701
1984-1985 (Sixth Five Year Plan Targets)	48.457	34.176	82.633	16.625	9.210	25.835
1980-1981 (Achievement)	44.576	28.112	72.688	13.278	6.568	19.846
1981-1982 (Achievement)	44.976	28.587	73.563	13.971	7.084	21.005
1982-1983 (Likely achievement)	47.177	30.158	77.335	15.468	8.120	23.588
1983-1984 (Target)	48.637	31.960	80.597	16.737	8.741	25.478

Source: i) 'Selected educational statistics', 1979-1980, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1981 (for 1979-1980).

ii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1980-1981, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1982 (for 1980-1981).

iii) 'Selected educational statistics', 1981-1982, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; 1983, (for 1981-1982).

iv) 'Analysis of annual plan for education (1983-1984)', Planning Commission, Government of India; 1983 (for 1982-1983, 1983-1984 and 1984-1985).

Measures envisaged and undertaken

Comprehensive measures have been envisaged and undertaken to realize the goal of universalization of elementary education by 1990. These measures are intended to overcome the deficiencies in the system as well as to meet the socio-economic complexities and constraints which have prevented the realization of the goal of universal elementary education. Some of these measures are discussed in the following sections.

Optimum and effective utilization of existing facilities. It was pointed out earlier that some primary and middle schools have not been found to be economically or academically viable due to low enrolment. The sparseness of the population of the rural habitations has been one of the reasons for the low enrolment in schools in rural areas. The other is the low utilization of the facilities already available. To increase the economic and academic viability of some of the existing primary and middle schools and to optimize benefits from existing investments, several measures have been initiated in some of the states and Union Territories. Adjustment of school hours according to local conditions, introduction of shorter instructional hours and double shifts, recruitment of teachers on the basis of actual attendance, increasing the number of pupils per teacher at the primary level wherever it is less than 40 pupils per teacher and deployment of surplus teachers to new schools or in the existing single teacher schools are some of these measures. In the case of schools with adequate enrolment, efforts are made to convert single-teacher schools wherever possible into two-teacher schools or to provide an additional teacher as a leave reserve in a cluster of three or four single teacher schools in neighbouring habitations. In certain cases attempts are made to make single teacher schools part of a complex of neighbouring primary or middle schools.

Provision of adequate and appropriate inputs. Availability of a primary school/section within a walking distance of one kilometre and a middle school section within a distance of three kilometres from the residence of children has been accepted as the norm for guiding the establishment of educational facilities. Efforts are being made to provide all habitations which have a population of 300 or more with a primary school within a distance of one kilometre. Similarly efforts are afoot to provide habitations which have a population of 500 or more with a middle school facility either within the habitation or at a maximum distance of three kilometres from the residence of children, during the Sixth Five Year Plan period.

Unsatisfactory primary and middle school structures have contributed to the low attraction and retention rates of schools. The cost of converting existing unsatisfactory primary and middle school structures into economical but durable school buildings is estimated to be about Rs. 19,200 million. Since Plan resources alone would not be adequate to allow construction of such a large number of

school buildings, efforts are being made to find alternate sources of finance, including institutional finance, for constructing satisfactory primary and middle schools. This would involve construction of about 1.61 million classrooms. Attempts have been made to lower construction cost by increasing the use of locally available building materials and functionally suitable designs. Construction of school buildings in the rural areas is being taken up as a part of the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP). Community resources are also mobilized for improving physical facilities in the schools, as well as for construction, maintenance, and provision of furniture and equipment. The possibility of levying a tax for construction of school buildings is also being explored in some states and Union Territories.

One of the causes of the low attraction and retention of the schools in rural areas has been lack of an adequate number of teachers in these schools. One reason for the low number of teachers in some of the primary and middle schools in rural areas has been the non-availability of qualified and trained local teachers and the unwillingness of teachers from outside to work in far-flung areas. To overcome this problem, measures have been initiated to recruit teachers for appointment in primary schools from among the local population, while simultaneously taking such measures as are needed to increase their educational qualifications and teaching competence.

Adoption of "No Detention Policy". Frustration due to failures in examinations and detention of children in various classes at the primary and middle stages have contributed to drop-outs. Therefore, as a measure to combat the drop-out problem, a no detention policy has been recommended at the primary stage, so that every child enrolled at this stage is promoted to the next higher class till he/she completes Class V. Adequate safeguards for maintaining standards, i.e. periodical assessment and evaluation are built into the programme. The policy has already been introduced with advantage in a number of states and Union Territories. In some states the no detention policy has been introduced for Classes I to III and a minimum number of students are detained in subsequent higher classes. Some states have introduced the no detention policy up to Class IV, some up to Class V or up to Class VI, and some till the end of the elementary stage. Some states/UTs have yet to introduce this policy. It is expected that the introduction of the non-detention

policy will eliminate stagnation and help in bringing down considerably the drop-out rates at the primary stage.

Development of an ungraded school system. The problem of drop-out is also being tackled through the introduction of an ungraded school system, particularly at the primary stage. At present experimental projects on ungraded school systems are being carried out in some states and Union Territories. Normally, Class I and II or Classes I to III or even Classes I to IV or V are fused into one class and the child is allowed to progress according to his/her own ability and speed. The learners are also given self-learning materials for study. After a lesson (unit) is mastered, another lesson is given immediately in order to maintain continuity in learning. Gifted children and fast learners are allowed to progress according to their own pace and they are provided with enrichment materials to broaden their learning, while slow learners are given special attention and encouragement to overcome their deficiencies.

In ungraded schools, there are no annual examinations and detention. A child is allowed to continue studying irrespective of his/her performance. Thus, children experience neither any fear of examinations nor frustration due to failures and detention: However, there is provision for continuous self-evaluation by pupils themselves. After learning a lesson, the pupil evaluates his/her performance and he/she is made to correct mistakes. The teacher assists pupils as and when such assistance is required. The learning materials are developed by teachers and experts. Generally, a course of study is divided into convenient units of 30 to 40 self-learning lessons which are presented sequentially and opportunity is given to repeat the lesson, if necessary.

The experimental projects on ungraded schools have shown encouraging results in terms of reduction of the drop-out rate and stagnation. The experiment, therefore, is proposed to be introduced on a wider scale in other states and Union Territories in the country.

Provision for multi-point entry. Existing formal schooling is sequential and fulltime, with a single-point entry system of institutionalized instruction. Ordinarily a child enters the elementary education system in Class I, is expected to complete one class every year and to rise to the next higher class after passing the annual examination. This system tends to alienate a large number of

children, especially those from the disadvantaged populations who cannot cope with full-time instruction or continue to attend school due to socio-economic reasons. Therefore, there is a suggestion to do away with the rigidity of single-point entry and provide opportunities for multiple-entry into any class at the elementary stage. This would help make the system more flexible and also enable children to change their channels of education from full-time to part-time and vice-versa according to their needs and convenience.

In 14 states/UTs, facilities for multi-point entry either at the primary stage or at the entire elementary stage have been provided. In Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, multi-point entry is provided to learners from the non-formal education system. Himachal Pradesh and Chandigarh provide multi-point entry for drop-outs on the basis of terminal examinations. A strong recommendation has been made to the states to introduce multi-point entry at any class of the elementary stage, if necessary, on the basis of entrance tests.

Increasing coverage of incentive scheme. As a measure to increase enrolment and reduce drop-out rates at the elementary stage, the Sixth Five Year Plan envisages extending the coverage of various incentive schemes for children, particularly for those from the disadvantaged sections of the population including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The mid-day meals scheme during the Sixth Plan period is expected to cover 72.63 million including 9.91 million children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Some states have already taken vigorous steps to extend the coverage of primary school children under this programme as part of their strategy for enhancing enrolment and retention of children. The nutritious meal scheme in Tamil Nadu and the feeding programme in Andhra Pradesh represent a concerted effort in this direction.

The expected coverage for supply of free uniforms/clothes to students during the period 1980-1985 is 5.4 million, including 3.6 million SC/ST children. A total of 68.73 million children including 15.38 million children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes communities are expected to be provided free textbooks and stationery during the Sixth Plan.

Measures for enhancing enrolment and retention of girls. As indicated earlier, the Sixth Five Year Plan recommended the target group approach for achieving universalization of elementary

education. Girls represent one of the important target groups and special emphasis is being given to enrolment and retention of girls.

Since 1982, a national campaign for universalization of elementary education has been organized all over the country. It has helped in focusing attention on important aspects of the programme and creation of a climate necessary for a concerted effort. The major thrust of the campaign includes a drive to increase enrolment of girls in particular. To give recognition for excellence in performance for the spread of education among girls, a scheme of incentives/awards has been formulated. It is proposed, to give awards to Panchayats (village councils), blocks and districts for outstanding performance in girls education. Awards also are proposed for the 50 tribal blocks which show the highest increases in girls enrolment. In addition, awards to the best three states/UTs are also proposed separately for enrolment in non-formal education centres and for all-round performance in promoting girls education at the elementary stage.

One of the factors hindering the enrolment of girls has been the lack of an adequate number of women teachers, particularly in rural areas. It has, therefore, been proposed to recruit and train educationally qualified girls from localities where the demand for women teachers exist. To start with, a scheme of central support for recruitment and training of women teachers for primary schools in the nine states where enrolment of girls is quite low, has been drawn up. Under the scheme, it is proposed to recruit, appoint, and train teachers, and to pay them during the training period. The payment of salary would continue until 1989-1990 with central funds in a phased programme. By 1989-1990, about 26,000 women teachers are expected to be appointed under the scheme.

Another measure to promote girls' education is the increase of attendance scholarships to girls. The coverage of this scheme during the Sixth Five Year Plan period is expected to be increased to 6.0 million, including 5.02 million SC/ST children.

In view of the fact that girls constitute about 70 per cent of non-enrolled children, it has been envisaged to establish non-formal education centres exclusively for girls, with substantial central assistance for such centres. A scheme under which 90 per cent central assistance will be given to states for non-formal education centres established exclusively for girls, both at the primary and

middle stages, has been initiated by the Ministry of Education. In order to encourage full participation of the states in this effort, the contribution of the state government has been kept at only 10 per cent.

While the schemes of exclusive non-formal education centres for girls and recruitment and training of women teachers provide the strategy for increasing enrolment of girls, to ensure the efficiency of the strategy, the provision of working women's hostels in rural areas is considered essential. For the basic services in the rural areas under the Health, Social Welfare and Education sectors, a number of women functionaries are being provided in rural areas. Linkages between these sectors at the grass-roots level is considered beneficial from the point of view of girls' education. It is expected that the establishment of working women's hostels for all women functionaries in rural areas will help in inter-sectoral linkages of the basic services leading to improvement in quality of life, particularly in the case of girls and women. It is, therefore, proposed to initiate a scheme for construction of hostels/residential facilities for the benefit of women teachers in rural areas.

Educational opportunities for disadvantaged population groups. The strategies adopted for universal elementary education envisage concentrated efforts in the backward areas of each state/UT with special emphasis on enrolment of children from the disadvantaged population groups such as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Attempts have been made to determine the number of non-enrolled children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes, sex-wise, both at the primary and middle stages, and to quantify the inputs from central and state government schemes for tribal sub-plans and special component plans for Scheduled Castes. This mechanism helps to keep a watch on expenditure incurred on programmes which are of direct benefit to these communities. As a significant part of the strategy for universalization of elementary education, state governments and Union Territory administrations have been running residential (ashram) schools for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes children, particularly in sparsely populated rural and other backward areas.

As a measure to increase enrolment of children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes, the coverage of SC/ST children under various incentive schemes has been enlarged. During the Sixth

Five Year Plan it is proposed to cover about 9.91 million SC/ST children under the mid-day meals scheme. The expected coverage of SC/ST children under the scheme to supply free uniforms/clothes is 3.6 million. Over 15 million children belonging to SC/ST communities are expected to be covered under the scheme to supply free textbooks and stationery and the coverage of SC/ST girls under the scheme of attendance scholarships for girls is expected to be 5.02 million during the Sixth Plan.

NCERT has been concerned with the development of approaches which help in the accelerated promotion of education among children belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Council supports research as well as preparation of instructional and supplementary reading materials and training of key personnel in states/UTs. The measures taken by the Council for promotion of education of SC/ST children include preparation of textbooks in tribal dialects, development of curricula for education of tribal children, and development of course content on tribal culture and educational problems of the tribes for inclusion in the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutions.

Education of the disabled. Efforts to help the disabled have so far concentrated on welfare and rehabilitation rather than on education. While specialized institutions have been established for various categories of the disabled, their coverage is extremely limited. It is now realized that a large proportion of the disabled can be provided education in the formal school setting and it is only for the severely disabled that specialized institutional arrangements will be needed. The Ministry of Education and Culture has now taken over the responsibility of providing education to disabled children in normal school settings. It is visualized that teachers handling the disabled would be provided special training and in each school, resource rooms would be set up to provide special help to disabled children.

A major problem in expanding educational facilities for disabled children is the lack of trained personnel, particularly teachers, who can meet the educational needs of these children in a normal classroom setting. With a view to meeting the requirements of trained teachers NCERT has set up cells both at its headquarters and in its four Regional Colleges of Education for training teachers in integrated education of the disabled. Similarly, the University Grants

Commission has identified for support some university departments for the training of teachers of the disabled.

Decentralization of educational administration. One of the drawbacks in the administration of elementary education has been the inadequacy of support services. The availability of support services for elementary education has not increased in the same proportion as the number of schools and enrolments. A consequence of this has been the inability of the existing administrative machinery to supervise educational activities.

Appointment of an adequate number of supervisory personnel and decentralization of administration down to the block level is considered essential for the administration, monitoring and evaluation of expansion of educational facilities and their qualitative improvement. The Working Group on Universalization of elementary Education (1978) recommended that administration of elementary education, especially in the states which lag behind in enrolment, should be strengthened and streamlined for effective implementation of the programme of universalization. In pursuance of this recommendation, the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) conducted studies in 1979 on administration of elementary education in relation to universalization of elementary education in nine states. The studies highlighted the need for strengthening the existing set-up for elementary education at various levels – village, blocks, district and directorate. The concerned state governments are expected to streamline educational administration in the light of recommendations made.

Mobilization of community resources. Mobilization of community resources has been viewed as an essential aspect of the programme of universalization of elementary education. Suggestions have been made to Education Departments in states/UTs to set up school committees for all primary and middle schools, particularly in rural and backward areas. It is believed that formation of school committees at the local level would help in ensuring the regular and proper functioning of schools as well as ensuring enrolment and attendance of all children. The involvement of school committees in the affairs of the schools is expected to create community interest in contributing either in cash or in kind to improve the physical facilites of the schools.

Institutional support for universalization of elementary education. Appropriate institutional mechanisms have been established to give special support to universalization of elementary education. At the central level, in the Ministry of Education and Culture, the School Education Bureau headed by a Joint Secretary is responsible for all matters connected with elementary education. In accordance with the recommendations of the Working Group on Universalization of Elementary Education set up in 1977, a separate Division to look after the programme of universalization of elementary education has been created. Senior officers of the level of Joint Secretary in the Ministry of Education have been nominated as Area Officers for different states and Union Territories to advise state governments in matters connected with the implementation of the programme. At the state level the Department of Education headed by a Secretary in the Ministry of Education, assisted by the Directerate of Public Instruction/Director of Education, is responsible for the overall administration and implementation of programmes associated with elementary eduation.

A National Committee on Elementary Education was constituted in 1978 to guide and oversee the programme of universalization of elementary education in the country. The Committee, which has been redesignated as 'National Committee on Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme', is headed by a Secretary to the Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India. This Committee meets periodically to review progress and to look into the problems faced in the implementation of the programme of universalization of elementary education.

In states — Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal — which together have about 70 per cent of non-enrolled children, task forces have been set up to oversee the progress of universalization of elementary education. In addition to the officials of the Department of Education in the state, representatives of the Ministry of Education, Planning Commission, and NIEPA are members of the Task Force for each state. These task forces meet periodically to review progress and to undertake an in-depth analysis of the situations and problems of elementary education in the states.

The NCERT continues to assist and advise the Ministry of Education and the state governments on the implementation of

policies and major programmes in the field of education, particularly school education. At the state/Union Territory level, the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT)/State Institute of Education (SIE) provides the necessary academic support required for universalization of elementary education. The NIEPA organizes training/orientation courses, seminars, workshops and conferences of senior educational administrators at the central and state levels. It also undertakes studies connected with problems in educational planning and administration.

Establishment of mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation of programmes. Steps have been taken to devise an appropriate system of monitoring and evaluation of the programme of universalization of elementary education. These include monitoring of attendance in addition to enrolment and submission of quarterly reports on the progress achieved. Data in relation to different aspects of elementary education are expected to flow from schools to the Block Education Office, the Block Education Office to the District Education Office, the District Education Office to the Directorate of Public Instruction/Directorate of Education and the Department of Education in the state/UT. To check that information/data are accurate, appropriate action has been taken to develop a suitable mechanism for periodic, on-the-spot checking. It has been suggested that officers of the Education Department available at block and district levels should undertake surprise visits to schools and, as part of their inspection and supervision, verify the exact position in respect of enrolment and attendance.

Detailed information on various aspects of elementary education is collected from states/UTs during discussions with state government officials held every year by the Planning Commission to finalize annual state/UTs plans for education. In addition to this, the Ministry of Education collects annually educational statistics from the states/UTs. These provide information on different aspects of elementary education such as enrolment, number of teachers, number of schools, and the enrolment ratio. The Ministry of Education also obtains quarterly progress reports from the states/UTs on implementation of Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme.

Monitoring of progress in provision of universal elementary education is carried out at different levels. Besides the 'National Committee on Point 16 of the New 20 Point Programme' and the

task forces at the state level, progress is also critically reviewed at the Conference of State Education Ministers generally organized once a year by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education also periodically convenes regional and All India Conferences of State Secretaries to discuss various aspects of education. In these conferences, the progress made and the problems encountered in the field of elementary education are discussed in great detail and appropriate strategies for realizing the goal of universalization of elementary education are formulated. Similarly, NCERT organizes annually a conference of state officers in charge of non-formal education.

Future strategy

By 1990, the population in the age group 6-14 will be roughly 163 million. Since over-age and under-age children constitute about 22 per cent of the enrolment in Classes I-VIII, in order to achieve enrolment of all children in the age group 6-14, the total enrolment in Classes I-VIII will have to be on the order of 198 million in 1990. Since the enrolment in Classes I-VIII in 1984-1985 is expected to be about 113 million, an additional enrolment of about 85 million will have to be achieved during the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990), if universalization of elementary education is to be achieved by 1990. This implies that on an average, additional enrolment during each year of the Seventh Plan will have to be about 17 million, which is indeed a gigantic task, in view of the progress achieved in the past few years.

Preparations are afoot for the drafting of the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990). With a view to formulating specific proposals for inclusion in the Seventh Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission, Government of India has constituted a number of Working Groups on Education. The terms of reference of these Working Groups are as follows:

i) To take stock of the position in respect of this sector of education as is likely to be reached by the end of 1984-1985; to identify problem areas and suggest remedial measures;

ii) To suggest a feasible perspective of development up to 2000 A.D. particularly with a view to equalizing educational opportunities for all sections of the people and to enable

the national education system to make its maximum contribution to the development of modern society;

iii) To specify in clear terms the objective of educational development programmes in relation to national development goals as well as the inculcation of an appropriate value system, enrichment and propagation of the diverse Indian culture and the promotion of national integration;

iv) To make recommendations regarding policies and programmes for ensuring the availability on an adequate scale of inputs, particularly suitably qualified teachers, functional buildings, scientific equipment, libraries etc. in the concerned sector of education;

v) To examine in detail the several aspects of making education relevant to developmental needs and to enhance the employability of the educated with particular reference to the need to develop extensively usable skills among the people;

vi) To take note of innovative measures and opportunities to improve the existing facilities and facilitate low-cost alternatives to achieve various specified goals and objectives of educational plans;

vii) To recommend measures for effective institutional linkage between education on the one hand and rural development environment, health, industry and other developmental sectors on the other;

viii) To explore the possibilities of introducing meaningfully long distance learning techniques, particularly the utilization of modern communication technology;

ix) To assess ways and means of augmenting financial resources for educational development including extended local community participation in financing educational development programmes; and

x) To formulate proposals for the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) in the light of the above perspective indicating priorities, policies and financial costs.

Chapter Four

SIGNIFICANT NEW DEVELOPMENTS AND PROGRAMMES

In recent years, several comprehensive programmes dealing with different aspects of universalization of elementary education have been initiated both at the central and state/Union Territory levels. Prominent among them are experimental projects for developing non-formal systems of education, education of special groups, development and renewal of curricula and instructional/learning materials, early childhood education, utilization of mass-media for education, enhancement of competence of teachers, and strategies for improving the functioning and performance of educational institutions to increase their attracting and holding power. Some of these programmes/projects which are considered significant in the context of the universalization of elementary education are discussed in the following sections.

Non-Formal system of learning

During the past decade there has been a growing concern about the limitations of the formal education system to meet the educational needs of all children in the compulsory schooling age group and in achieving the goal of universal elementary education. The existing rigid formal system which in most cases is sequential and characterized by a single-point entry and full-time professional teachers, keeps away from the fold of education a large number of children who come mainly from families below the poverty line and who therefore are compelled to work to supplement the meagre income of their families. Young girls in most cases look after their younger siblings and both boys and girls from the disadvantaged population groups tend cattle or do other remunerative work starting from an early age. They are unable to attend full-time regular schools and since the existing primary and middle schools do not provide facilities for part-time education, are left behind and remain outside the education system.

A major problem in the field of elementary education today, therefore, is to provide access to education to a large number of children hitherto unreached and to provide an education which would improve the quality of their lives. The concern about this problem has resulted in a search for alternatives to the formal system, for a non-formal system of learning suited to the needs of diverse groups of children in terms of the duration of the course, place and time of study, learning content, methodology of instruction and evaluation. Such a system should provide multi-point entry into formal schooling and the use of community resources which have potential for education, thus providing an education which is more meaningful, relevant and also more accessible than the formal system. Attempts have been made by several agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, to develop a non-formal system of learning as a viable yet complementary and supportive, alternative to formal schooling.

The centrally sponsored non-formal education programme. As part of the measures to enrol non-enrolled children and to retrieve drop-outs, a centrally sponsored non-formal education programme for children in the age group 9-14 was launched in 1979-1980 in the nine states which have the bulk of the non-attending children and drop-outs. The main objectives of the programme are to help states to establish non-formal education centres for out-of-school children in the age group 9-14, to design institutional structures at various levels to develop group and place-specific curricula and instructional materials, and to make education at the elementary stage more meaningful and relevant to the life situations and needs of children.

The instructional programme of non-formal education varies from state to state. The scheme of the Ministry of Education, under which financial assistance is given to states for establishment of non-formal education centres, visualizes three types of instructional programmes. One of them is an instructional programme centred on a condensed version of the formal syllabus for those children who want to join the formal system at a later stage. Under this pattern, the entire five year primary curriculum is condensed into a two-year curriculum based on graded units. The schedules of non-formal education centres, building requirements, admission rules and teaching methods have been made more simple, relevant and flexible. This enables the child to learn at a convenient time and yet simultaneously earn his living or help his parents in their occupations.

The second pattern of instructional programme is built around home-craft, child care and other skills for girls who may not want to join the formal system to continue their studies and may wish to settle down as housewives. The emphasis is on functional courses which will help them to cope with their life situations with responsibility and awareness of the roles that they have to perform.

Another type of instructional programme is to be built around traditional professions like carpet weaving and pottery in which children are already engaged. The programme would focus on literacy, numeracy and citizenship training along with instruction in their craft as well as entrepreneurship and marketing, so that children acquire not only literacy and numeracy but also economic and social understanding of the craft in which they are engaged.

By and large, the instructional programme predominantly employed in existing non-formal education centres is the one based on the condensed version of the formal curriculum. Special instructional materials have been developed for the diverse environmental situations and needs of each state. The duration of instruction every day is about two hours. The time is decided by the community; it may be in the morning, afternoon or in the evening. In most cases classes are held between 6.00 pm and 9.00 pm. A non-formal education centre in a village or locality is housed either in a primary school building, in a community centre or any other public or private place which is found suitable. The instructors for the centres are mostly selected from among locally available persons. They may be trained unemployed elementary teacher training certificate holders or educated unemployed youth, who have passed the high school examination or in-service elementary school teachers or retired teachers. Instructors are given a short training course before they start teaching at the centres.

The non-formal education programme has gained momentum and by 1982-1983, a total of 91,601 non-formal education centres consisting of 78,738 primary level centres and 12,863 middle level centres were established. The total coverage of children under the programme was 1,950,405 out of which 1,765,805 children were enrolled at the primary stage and 184,600 children at the middle stage, By the end of 1984-1985, the total number of non-formal education centres is expected to be 172,180 with enrolment of 5.3 million children in the States of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar,

Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

The non-formal education programme is also implemented in states and Union Territories other than those mentioned above. In all, by 1982-1983 about 100,000 centres enrolling about 3 million children were established. By 1984-85 the total coverage under this programme is expected to be in the order of at least six million children in the age group 9-14.

In addition to the non-formal education programme sponsored by the Ministry of Education an experimental project for education of out-of-school children was also implemented by NCERT through its constituent units all over the country. Two hundred and twenty-eight non-formal education centres were established in 15 states. The project was undertaken with a view to gaining relevant experiences in the organization of non-formal education programmes in the country. The major activities carried out under the project included development of curriculum, instructional materials and teachers' guides for the primary stage.

The curriculum was built around six major areas of study such as health, vocation, physical and social environment, social awareness, literacy and numeracy. This curriculum was designed in such a way that it would enable children in the age group 9-14 to attain in about two years the competencies attained by a child in the formal primary schools after five years. At present NCERT is engaged in developing curriculum and instructional materials for the middle stage.

The non-formal education programme is being expanded gradually in the states. At the central level, the Ministry of Education through NCERT has been providing the necessary administrative and academic guidance and support to states for implementation of non-formal education programmes. At the state level, SCERT/SIE provides the necessary academic support to the Directorate of Education in implementing the programme.

As part of the scheme for implementation of the non-formal education programme, grants are also being given to voluntary organizations for running these centres and to academic institutions, both government and private, for developing innovative and experimental non-formal education programmes with potential for replication.

'Earn while you learn' Scheme. In order to provide educational opportunities to the children of economically weaker sections of society and to attract out-of-school children to non-formal education centres and to retain them till they complete the elementary stage of education, an innovative scheme known as the 'Earn while you learn' scheme is being implemented in the State of Madhya Pradesh. Under this scheme, along with education, the children enrolled in the non-formal education centres are provided with opportunities to perform some sort of productive work to earn money. They are involved in the production of mats, chalk sticks, sealing wax and school furniture which are regularly used by the Education Department itself. The scheme is operated in collaboration with the Khadi and Village Industries Board in the state, which agreed to provide the basic capital needed and supply raw materials to production centres.

About 300 production centres attached to non-formal education centres have been established so far in the state. Normally, children work in their craft periods, but the production centres remain open throughout the day and on holidays so that the children can utilize their leisure time on productive work. It generally takes an hour to weave one mat and for this work a child gets about Rs.2/-. For making 400 chalks, which can be done in about one hour, he gets Rs.1/-. Children of the age group 9-11 are mostly engaged in production of chalks while children in the age group 11-14 make mats, sealing wax and school furniture. This scheme has evoked great interest, and attempts are being made to expand the scheme by opening more production centres attached to more non-formal education centres.

Developmental activities in community education and participation

In recent years there has been a growing realization that one of the most promising approaches to extending opportunity for education to out-of-school children is a non-formal education programme sustained and supported by the community. An attempt to develop such a community based non-formal education programme for the benefit of different age groups is being made under the UNICEF assisted project, 'Developmental activities in community education and participation (DACEP)', implemented by NCERT in collaboration with SIEs/SCERTs in the states/UTs. Under this project

efforts have been made to develop and test new types of educational activities as feasible means of meeting the minimum educational needs of pre-school and out-of-school children, young girls and women, in selected communities and to increase the participation of the community in formal and non-formal education programmes.

The approach followed is based on the premise that children's education to be relevant and meaningful has to proceed concurrently with gradual changes of their socio-economic environment. Efforts are made to develop suitable educational programmes to cater to the needs of pre-school children, out-of-school children in the age group 9-14 and young girls and women in the age group 15-35. Attempts are also made to impart useful and relevant skills to members of the community outside the formal system of education and to make use, for educational purposes, of the resources of agencies existing within the community.

The project was launched in 1975-1976 in 13 states and two Union Territories. In its first phase (1976-1980), two community education centres were established in each of the participating states/UTs. During this period instructional materials for out-of-school children and for the general education of girls and women were developed and published. In 1981, in order to increase the impact of the experimental project it was introduced more widely in these states/UTs to provide an additional two or three community education centres. In the same year, the project was also extended to nine more states and five Union Territories. The number of community education centres established under the project at present is 102.

Modus operandi of implementation of project. To develop need-based educational activities for the various age groups in the selected communities, a survey of socio-economic conditions of each of the communities in the project areas was conducted. The development of instructional materials was decentralized and was carried out with the participation of the local community and teachers. The co-operation of various development departments such as agriculture, community development, industries, health and family welfare and voluntary organizations was sought in this process.

In order to meet the educational needs of the whole community, the community education centres offer programmes for four different age groups of learners. In the age group 0-3 and mothers,

the centres have been co-ordinating basic services available for the health of children and expectant and lactating mothers. Some of the centres have developed instructional materials for mothers, focused on information about the health needs of children and mothers. An attempt is now being made to use these materials as a base for promoting literacy and numeracy among the mothers. The materials being developed for children in the age group 3-6 are aimed at meeting the needs of the children as well as educating their parents on how to promote school readiness among children, even when facilities for pre-school education are available. For the age group 6-14, instructional materials are prepared both to help children reach specific levels of achievement which will enable them to get into the formal schools and to promote functional literacy. Likewise, instructional materials for girls and women in the age group 15-35 utilize the participation of learners in developmental and productive activities as a base for promoting literacy and numeracy. Some of the instructional materials developed by the project for the age groups 6 to 14 and 15 to 35 have been accepted by states/UTs for wider use in non-formal education centres.

Each of the centres has an average enrolment of about 105 learners. In terms of age group, this enrolment works out to be 28 for the age group 0 to 3, 24 for the age group 6-14 and 53 for the age group 15 to 35. Besides regular enrolment, there are casual learners at each centre who attend specific programmes at their convenience.

In some states, the activities of the community education centres have provided very encouraging results in terms of increasing the literacy rate in the community. For instance, one of the community education centres in Madhya Pradesh has pushed the literacy rate in the community from 30 per cent to 60 per cent over a period of five years. Two other centres in Madhya Pradesh achieved 100 per cent enrolment of children in the age group 6 to 14. Similarly in Orissa, one of the community education centres increased the literacy rate in the community from 20 per cent to 54 per cent over a period of three years.

Comprehensive access to primary education (CAPE)

It has been realized that it is possible to reach out-of-school children only through a suitably designed non-formal education programme. This implies development of target-group oriented and

decentralized programmes in regard to curriculum, instructional/ learning materials, pattern of instruction and evaluation. With a view to developing a variety of models of non-formal education, a few innovative projects have been initiated in recent years. The UNICEF assisted project 'Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)' being implemented by NCERT in collaboration with the SIEs/SCERTs in states and Union Territories is an attempt in this direction.

Project CAPE aims at developing a non-formal system of education and evolving flexible, problem-centred and work-based decentralized curricula and learning materials (learning episodes) relevant to the needs and life situations of diverse groups of learners. Under the project locally relevant learning materials (learning episodes) are being developed for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. These episodes are developed through the introduction of a training-cum-production mode into the curriculum of elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs) and/or into the in-service training course for primary school teachers. The episodes developed by the teacher trainees and/or in-service teachers, after processing, refinement and publication will be used in a network of experimental learning centres to be established in the states/UTs participating in the project. Thereafter, evaluation centres and accreditation services will be established to enable the children enrolled in the learning centres to receive credit for their academic achievements.

Project CAPE was launched in ten states and three Union Territories in 1979-1980. Seven states and two Union Territories commenced project activities in 1980, one state in 1981, two states and one Union Territory in 1982 and one in 1983. At present the project is implemented in all states/UTs except Tripura, Arunachal Pradesh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Pondicherry.

In all states/UTs participating in the project, the activities of the first phase of the project involving development and publication of learning episodes is in progress. The second phase of the project which involves establishment of learning centres will commence in 1984, while the third phase the establishment of evaluation centres and accreditation services will commence in 1985.

Major focus of Project CAPE. The major focus of Project CAPE is on learners from the disadvantaged populations, Scheduled

Castes, Scheduled Tribes, backward classes and girls. Among these learners are those elementary school age children who have never had the opportunity of attending school and those who have dropped out at the early stage of elementary education. The project would also cater to the needs of slow learners attending formal school. The educational programmes being developed under Project CAPE are characterized by openness in time and duration of learning, openness in curriculum, openness in methodologies of instruction and openness in evaluation. They are so designed as to enable learners to progress at their own pace on a part-time basis according to their convenience. Non-formal education programmes being developed under the project, however, will cover in most cases children in the age group 9-14 only. Children in the age group 6-8 are not included mainly because children below nine years of age would not be mature enough to benefit from non-formal education, and also because inclusion of children below the age of nine could adversely effect the efforts for universal enrolment of children in the formal schools.

Process of curriculum development. The salient features of curricula and learning materials being developed under the project are their relevance to the learners, flexibility, local specificity and relationship to socially useful productive work, as well as social service related to the welfare of the local community. In order to provide learning experiences which are area-specific, flexible and relevant to the learners, the process of curriculum development is decentralized.

To enhance the relevance of the curriculm, it is developed from local and real-life problems or situations which are of significance and are of immediate concern to the learners. Personal, family, community, vocational, social and development problems and activities, inclusive of socially useful productive work, represent important sources of content for learning materials. Problems are identified *where* the disadvantaged children reside. Learning materials are thus, not discipline-based textbooks, consisting of a series of lessons, but are in the form of self-contained and independent learning units which are multidisciplinary in structure and content so as to cater more effectively to learners of different abilities, preferences and interests.

A learning material so developed is called a learning episode. Being problem-centred and work-based, the learning episodes allow

natural integration of different subject areas and disciplines taught at the elementary stage of education. Efforts are made to establish continuity between learning experiences in the home and community and those acquired in contrived situations at learning centres.

Under the project, learning materials are also being developed for use in situations where more formalized and structured learning is required, especially in core areas such as literacy, numeracy, environmental awareness and science related skills. These learning materials are also being developed in modular format so as to make them suitable for intermittent learning and individual pacing.

Learning episodes are designed with the goal of imparting necessary levels of literacy, numeracy, 'techniracy' and functional skills related to solutions to local problems and environmental needs. They are developed with specific *Expected Behavioural Outcomes (EBOs)* in mind, which serve as a common standard for evaluation of both in-school and out-of-school children. This will enable children enrolled in learning centres to obtain proper certification of their achievement as well as to take advantage of multi-point entry facilities in regular full-time schools, if they so desire. The number and variety of learning episodes will be such that study covering about 1,200 hours of learner-engaged time, spread over a period of five terms of about 120 working days each, would enable a child in the age group of 9-14 (who, in terms of competence, is at the level of a new entrant in Class I in formal schools) to attain the competencies expected of children by the end of five years of formal primary education. A further study of learning episodes covering an additional 1,200 hours of learner-engaged time, again spread over a period of five terms of about 120 working days each, would enable him or her to attain the essential competencies expected of children at the end of the three year middle stage of education in formal schools. Therefore, the study of learning episodes covering a total learner-engaged time of about 240 working days each, is expected to enable children enrolled in the learning centres to attain the essential competencies expected of children by the end of eight years of formal elementary education. However, for drop-outs from the formal channel of education, the total period of study would be less than ten terms, depending upon the stage at which they have dropped out and the level of their competence at the time of their enrolment in learning centres.

Under the project, a list of critical competencies and learning continua, derived from learning episodes which themselves are drawn

from, significant real-life, area-specific problems are being developed. Graded tests are also being evolved to help learners achieve the desired level of competence. These would act as a rational basis for accreditation of learners in terms of the essential competencies to be acquired at different stages of elementary education.

One of the major outcomes of Project CAPE is the availability of a large number of relevance-based, problem-centred and work-based learning episodes for education of out-of-school children in the age group 9-14. These draft learning episodes developed by the teacher trainees and teacher educators of TTIs and in-service teachers are now being processed, refined and published for use in learning centres expected to be established during 1984.

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

The project has also helped in the establishment of an infrastructure for decentralized curriculum development for education of out-of-school children. The CAPE Group, NCERT acts as the Central Resource Centre (CRC) and functions as the technical, co-ordinating and monitoring agency at the national level. For carrying out project activities at the states/UTs level, Regional Decentralized Resource Centres (RDRCs) have been established in the State Councils of Educational Research and Training/State Institutes of Education. The elementary teacher training institutes/ in-service teachers training institutes are responsible for providing the academic and administrative support necessary for successful implementation of the project at the district/block level.

Action-research project on Universal Primary Education

Another innovative project for developing an appropriate strategy for education of out-of-school children is the 'Action-research project on Universal Primary Education' being implemented by the Indian Institute of Education in Pune, in the State of Maharashtra. This project initiated in 1979, aims at enrolling out-of-school (illiterate) children in the age group 9-14 in a part-time, non-formal education programme as well as developing techniques of planning and management for this programme in collaboration with the community. The project is also directed at developing a curriculum suited to the culture, environment and needs of learners and the community, effective but low-cost teaching-learning materials which would give scope for individual as well as group learning in an ungraded class, appropriate strategies for training of teachers for non-formal and formal primary education and training of supervisors.

The action-research project is spread over 100 villages in five areas of different agro-climatic conditions across the Pune district in the State of Maharashtra. The population of the five areas taken together is about 150,000, out of which about 19,000 are out-of-school children.

The project visualizes an integrated system of primary education in every locality with two separate but co-ordinated and mutually supportive channels of formal and non-formal education. Consequently, the project lays great stress on improvement of the non-formal channel and its integration with the formal channel.

Teaching/learning activities. The core curriculum developed under the project covers literacy, numeracy and general information on history, geography, science and culture, meaningfully related to the learners' environment and future growth as skillful and knowledgeable citizens. In addition, songs, stories and games form part of total learning. Learners are also encouraged to engage in traditional activities such as drawing and handicrafts in their leisure time.

Teaching-learning materials are specially prepared and are of low cost. Some are prepared by teachers and pupils. The educational process consists of learning by playing, singing, observing, sharing and communicating. Under the project a lot of importance is given to making teachers aware of the social aspects of primary education. They are also introduced to the general problems of education and their relationships to national development. They are

given a significant participatory role in planning, implementing and evaluating the project.

The part-time classes for children are so organized that, if needed, they can be closed down for a while for instance, during the rainy season or busy agricultural seasons. Roughly, a class meets for about 300 days in a year and about two hours per day. Each class has about 20 pupils who form four small groups for co-operative peer-group learning. A good deal of the curriculum is taught orally in the initial stages, when major emphasis is laid on breaking the barrier of illiteracy. This oral instruction is continued but is gradually reduced as learners are able to read and comprehend new materials on their own. Instead of books, sets of cards are used for initating and reinforcing literacy and numeracy. An ungraded system is used and the curriculum divided into two stages only: Stage I covering broadly Classes I-IV and Stage II covering Classes V-VIII. Stage I is covered in two years.

Community participation. A salient feature of the project is its community approach to the problem of primary education. The community provides free accomodation for conducting part-time classes and supplies certain equipment, wherever possible. An Education Committee of leading villagers is formed at the local level to assist in the implementation of activities at the non-formal education centre. Teachers are drawn from among members of the community and are farmers, artisans, labourers, housewives and others who have studied at least up to Class VII. The local committees which have been participating very actively in planning and conducting part-time non-formal education activities have become aware of their capability to think about and perhaps even to solve their educational problems. This intensive participation in planning and monitoring of the project by the community is expected to facilitate the acceptance of the innovative features of non-formal education and lead to the transfer of techniques to the community at the close of the project. It is expected that in due course, a local community will accept the responsibility for education of all its members as well as for local development.

Outcomes of the project. One of the major outcomes of the project is that it has provided a community-based and decentralized model for the organization of universal primary education, including linkages with the education of other age-groups and local development. It has led to the planning of a comprehensive strategy for

universal elementary education, with special emphasis on children from deprived social groups and the evolution of an integrated system of formal and non-formal education.

Education of special groups

The disparity that exists among different sections of the population has been discussed in relation to two groups which have been identified in the Constitution for protective discrimination. In the case of the Scheduled Castes, financial support and incentives are the primary means to promote enrolment and retention. They are so intermixed with other population groups that no special institutional facilities are visualised on a countrywide basis. Scheduled Tribes, on the other hand, form a distinct group for educational planning since most of them live in communities which are closely knit and often at a distance from main population centres. In many cases they live close to forests and are often isolated from the mainstream of national life. There are other special groups — the disabled, the nomadic; for which special educational provisions have to be thought of. In meeting their educational needs under the programme of universalization, State effort has been very limited. Some innovative programmes are being implemented, often by voluntary organizations; these programmes are providing experiences for developing a systematic plan of action. We discuss here some of the governmental and non-governmental programmes.

Ashram schools. Children belonging to the Scheduled Tribes are generally first generation learners. There are no facilities either in their home or village for them to pursue their studies. Parents, being illiterate, are unable to help them in their home assignments. Poverty does not allow them to continue their education. To counter these problems, ashram schools are being established for tribal communities. These schools attempt to provide culturally relevant education in the setting of the children's own environment. Free board and lodging are made available in these schools. Their number is very limited, a few hundred, and is completely inadequate to meet the requirements.

Many states have set up these schools. They provide education at elementary and secondary levels. Exclusive schools for girls known as Kanyashrams have also been established. The curriculum has a slightly different orientation in the sense that much emphasis

is laid on cultural activities, arts and crafts and the needs of the people. Students have to manage their own affairs leading to the inculcation of a sense of self-reliance. Specially qualified and trained teachers are appointed who live with students and help them in their home assignments. Self-sufficiency is also emphasized and pupils are encouraged to grow their own food on land attached to the school. Though ashram schools incur a higher per capita expenditure compared to ordinary primary schools, their advantages far outweigh the additional investment. An ashram school is not just another type of residential school. Its atmosphere, the approach to teaching, the fellow-feeling among students, and an attitude of service among teachers are their unique features.

Ashram schools have been very popular. This is indicated by the fact that they run to their full capacity. Evaluative studies have indicated that students of ashram schools perform, on the whole, much better than those of ordinary elementary schools. A sense of self-sufficiency and self-reliance is inculcated among the students. The overall quality of education has improved and, most important of all, the incidence of wastage and stagnation has been considerably reduced.

Inter-village schools. Tribal areas have a large number of small habitations with populations of less than 200. According to the norms laid down by different state governments, schools are opened only in villages which have a population of 300 or more, and in special cases, of 200 or more. Thus many tribal villages do not qualify for a school. For quite some time they are likely to remain outside the governmental effort at universalization. To get over this problem the Arunachal Pradesh Government has started opening inter-village schools. The objective is to provide educational facilities to children living in small and remote hamlets so as to increase enrolment in schools and to make education accessible by providing free board and lodging. Smaller hamlets with sparse populations are identified and a central village, almost equi-distant from all the feeder villages, is selected. The inter-village school with a hostel is opened in the central village and children from all the feeder villages admitted and housed in the hostel. This obviates the necessity of small children commuting long distance to attend schools. In order that students do not get isolated from their own village life, they are allowed to go back to their villages during holidays.

As compared to single-teacher schools, where enrolment is very poor and regular teaching is not satisfactory because of the frequent absence of the teacher, an inter-village school is a much better alternative. Attendance reported is often much higher, wastage and drop-out much less and teaching regular. Though the per capita expenditure is a little higher compared to an ordinary school, the advantages flowing from these schools are very great.

The Bidisa Experiment on education of the under-privileged. This innovative project is being implemented for the Lodha community, an ex-criminal tribe, at Bidisa in West Bengal, the objective being to 'educate the tribes and acculturize and socialize them with a view to bringing them into the fold of the mainstream of society'.

The project started with a survey of the community, on the basis of which an educational action programme was drawn up. Primary and secondary schools were opened with residential facilities. The curriculum is supplemented with interesting and relevant activities enabling children to acquire skills to earn their livelihood in later life. Parents also are provided the necessary technology to improve their production and live a better life. They are closely involved with school activities. It is also intended to bring about a desirable value change in parents through their children.

This is a very comprehensive project involving students, parents, teachers, social workers and authropologists. The main advantage flowing from this project is that a much larger number of Lodha children are attending school today than did in the past. They have acquired skills which will ultimately make them self-sufficient Another advantage is the impact it has created on parents in weaning them away from criminal propensities. Instead of bringing abrupt changes in a traditional society, which can at times be disruptive, the project is ushering in a gradual change to which members of the community are able to adjust easily.

Vakaswadi project. This project is run at Kosbad in Maharashtra. It is located in a tribal area and is intended primarily for tribal children. It has three main components — a creche and primary school, a productive work centre for children, and the meadow school. The main objectives of the project are to decrease the incidence of drop-out, and to bring about an all-round development of tribal children. Education is informal. It is taken right to the doorsteps of children,

as every evening workers go to the village, collect the children, and start activities like singing, story telling and playing with different kinds of locally prepared teaching aids. With the help of such informal activities interest in education is created.

When the primary school was first opened, people were not very enthusiastic and attendance was rather thin. It was found that children, particularly girls of school-going age, could not come to school due to various economic preoccupations. The problem was solved by opening a composite unit of creche-cum-*balwadi*-cum-school. Younger children could be left in the creche or *balwadi* while those of school-going age attended primary school. In order to improve attendance, an experiment in providing children work opportunities while studying was introduced. They prepared straw covers for bottles. The contract for them was secured from firms in Bombay. This could not last long as organized units came into the field and competition grew. Work centres were then opened where training in woodwork, lacquer work, toy making and other crafts was given. A market was found for the finished goods by forming co-operative societies.

The meadow school is also a unique experiment. Education is taken to children who graze cattle in the meadow. Since children cannot come to school leaving their cattle, teachers go out to the meadow, put some children to grazing cattle and others to learning. After a time duties are changed so that all children alternatively graze cattle and receive education. They are taught through the environment, for example by measuring the shadow of a tree, counting pebbles, learning geography by the sun, the wind, the mountains and other physical phenomena. Thus learning is made relevant by relating it to the local environment.

Evaluation has indicated that enrolment in primary school has increased and the drop-out rate decreased. The performance of students has been encouraging in all subjects except languages. The weakness in language was because they were taught in the regional language and not through their mother tongue. Interest in the education of their children was also aroused among the parents.

Primary education curriculum renewal

One of the major problems in implementing universal elementary education in India has been the diversities that prevail. Because

of the geographical, economic, social and cultural variations, the needs of learners are diverse and, therefore, uniform curricula, learning materials and instructional strategies have not always been relevant to the needs of diverse groups of children. One of the major concerns in elementary education has, therefore, been to evolve new curricula or curriculum approaches that would provide a programme of education to effectively meet the requirements of diverse groups. Certain innovative projects for development and renewal of primary education curricula with the purpose of improving the relevance of formal schooling have been undertaken in recent years. Prominent among the on-going projects for development and renewal of the primary education curricula is the UNICEF-assisted project 'Primary Education Curriculum Renewal (PECR)' being implemented by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in collaboration with SIEs/SCERTs in the states/UTs. The project aims at developing innovative curricula and instructional materials relevant to the needs of different groups of children and to adjusting the existing curriculum qualitatively to the life-style of the child and the socio-economic opportunities likely to be available. It also aims at creating to the necessary competence among educational planners and workers at different levels for developing and implementing curricula which by their content and methodology would reflect the socio-economic, geographical and cultural environment.

The pilot stage of the project was initiated in 1975-1976 in 13 states and two Union Territories, covering 30 experimental schools in districts representing fairly wide variations in terms of social, cultural, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. The next stage, which was completed in the year 1980, covered 450 primary schools and 45 elementary teacher training institutes (TTIs). During this phase, relevant instructional materials for Classes I to V in regional languages as well as appropriate teaching-learning strategies were evolved for education of children studying in the project schools. Instructional materials included textbooks, guidance materials for teachers and workbooks.

Encouraged by the experience gained during its pilot phase, and in order to increase its impact in the 13 states and two Union Territories already participating, the project was introduced more widely by including a further 100 schools in each state/UT and at the same time extending it to the remaining states and all but one Union Territory. The new states and Union Territories have selected

30 schools each for implementation of the project. Thus, at present 180 teacher training institutes and 2,469 primary schools are involved in the implementation of the project. About 400,000 students are enrolled in the project schools and 11,000 teachers from these schools have been trained under the project.

Process of curriculum development. The processes of developing and implementing the curriculum are decentralised and those personnel most closely concerned with its implementation are involved in its development. The curriculum is designed on the basis of the data obtained from a detailed socio-economic and educational survey of each of the areas in which the project is implemented. In some states, surveys indicated wide variations between different regions in terms of social and cultural characteristies, geographical patterns and economic pursuits. In these states, different sets of instructional materials for children from different regions are being developed. Some states are using a common set of textbooks accompanied by teachers' guides which suggest different teaching-learning activities to take care of the special needs of children in different areas.

While learning activities are drawn from the environment of the child, curriculum is directed to attainment of certain essential competencies by the child. A list of competencies related to computation (mathematics), communication (language), healthy living, environmental studies, artistic and creative expression, and socially useful productive work (SUPW) have been identified. This was then reduced to the most essential ones, to be learned at the mastery level and graded in a sequence (continuum). Based on this list, a *'Minimum Learning Continuum (MLC)'* indicating the competencies expected of a learner at the end of the primary stage of education has been developed. The MLC provides guidance to curriculum framers and writers of instructional materials for use by children and teachers of the project schools. Some states have started using the MLC for reviewing and revising their syllabi for primary classes.

States and Union Territories participating in the project are at different stages of development/renewal and try-out of curricula and instructional materials. They have been experimenting with a variety of approaches to the development of curriculum for the primary stage. Most of them are developing curriculum for separate subjects, while some are adopting an integrated approach.

Emphasis has also been laid on the adoption of new teaching and evaluation methodology, which would ensure achievement of competencies at mastery level. Participation in activities, inside as well as outside the classroom, [illegible] the learning process. Emphasis is laid on promotion of desirable values, attitudes and behaviour patterns among children. Planned activities are adopted to promote healthy living. For socially useful productive work and creative expression, use of local resources is encouraged. A teacher is given freedom to devise and adopt suitable innovative teaching-learning strategies.

Wider infusion/adoption. A phased programme for the develment and try-out of new curricula and instructional materials in project schools, and strategies for wider adoption of the concepts evolved and techniques developed have been drawn up. Instructional materials being developed are tried-out in the project schools. Necessary modifications on the basis of try-out data are being made. Simultaneously steps are being taken for wider infusion of curricula into the education system of states/UTs. A number of states have already initiated steps for wider infusion of the curriculum and instructional materials developed under the project into their education system.

As a result of the project, small states like Nagaland and Sikkim and Union Territories like Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry have started developing, for the first time, their own curricula and instructional materials for primary school children. Earlier they were using instructional materials developed in the neighbouring states. It is expected that the development of curriculum relevant to the needs of children will give a fillip to the programme of universalization elementary education in all states/ Union Territories participating in the project.

Under the project appropriate infrastructure for curriculum development has been created at the state/UT level, thereby generating a self-sustaining process of curriculum development and renewal. The Primary Curriculum Development Cell (PCDC) in the NCERT acts as the central technical co-ordinating and monitoring agency. Each state/UT has formed a State Primary Curriculum Development Cell (SPCDC) for implementation of the project. At the district and block levels the elementary teacher training institutes together with the District and Block Education Officers or a designated inspector

or supervisor are responsible for supervision of primary schools participating in the project and for academic and administrative support necessary for successful implementation of the project.

Early childhood education programme

There is a growing awareness of the crucial significance of the pre-school years for the optimum development of the child. A number of research studies and intervention programmes that focus on the pre-school child indicate that the foundation for later development is laid in the early years and that deprivation suffered during these years is likely to act as a hindrance to the subsequent development of the child.

Early childhood education is now assuming increasing importance for various reasons: its direct influence on child development and the potential contribution that it is likely to make to the programme of universalization of elementary education. It has been recognized that early childhood education programmes could contribute in two ways to the programme for universal elementary education. First, they give the child the chance to become familiar with the ideas of constructive play and to develop desirable behavioural patterns. Early childhood education is, therefore, considered to be an important adjunct to the preparation for primary schools.

The other way that early childhood education contributes to universal elementary education is that it allows out-of-school girls to attend schools, instead of remaining at home to look after their younger siblings. Girls who remain at home to look after their younger sisters or brothers form a major part of the out-of-school population, especially in rural areas. Since primary schools have no creches or pre-school centres attached to them and since girls are not permitted to bring young children with them, a large number of girls are compelled to remain away from schools. This acts as a positive disincentive in the system against the spread of education among girls from poor families. It is felt that if a pre-school is attached to a primary school and if girls who are required to look after young children are encouraged to bring them to it, it would improve the enrolment and attendance of girls at the primary stage.

Establishment of suitable arrangements for early childhood education are being taken up in a significant way, particularly for

children of first generation learning families. Early childhood education has so far been an urban phenomenon, largely under private auspices. It has now been proposed to extend facilities for early childhood education to rural areas, also with the involvement of different associations of voluntary agencies. The Government of India has, therefore, initiated a scheme to extend assistance to voluntary agencies for running early childhood education centres in rural and backward areas.

Children's Media Laboratory. The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) has initiated programmes for developing a model of pre-school education which is indigenous in character. The Children's Media Laboratory (CML), a UNICEF assisted project implemented by NCERT, has been exploring and developing simple, inexpensive and effective media (print, audio, projected and play materials) of educational and entertainment value to children of the age group 3-8.

The major activities carried out under the CML since 1977 include surveys of indigenous and locally available toys and educational games, preparation of manuals of games, preparation of graphic materials, audio programmes and projected aids, training of state level personnel in different aspects of utilization of children's media and sponsoring of study visits by workers in the area of early childhood education. Most of the CML materials have been prepared with the specific aim of developing language and cognitive skills in young children. The print and graphic materials developed under the project include picture stories and colour and form booklets to acquaint pre-schoolers with concepts of colour and form, using examples from the child's immediate environment. Brightly illustrated books consisting of songs and rhymes; children's games for use of pre-primary and primary teachers and teacher educators; playing cards aimed at developing cognitive and language skills such as naming, identification, matching and classification; games for developing language and numerical skills and for promoting nutrition, personal health and hygiene; and cards for developing sequential thinking, time perception and matching ability have also been developed. In addition, a School Readiness Kit for use of children who do not have any experience of learning in a pre-school, well-illustrated pamphlets on different themes giving hints to parents on how to foster child development at home and manuals for teachers

on play materials have also been produced. Other materials developed under the project include audio-tapes, slide-tape programmes and films for promoting environmental awareness and language and cognitive skills.

CML has been involved in monitoring and evaluation of radio programmes broadcast by All India Radio through some of its stations for young children and in the development of prototype programmes for children in the age group 3-8 years. Fellowships are awarded to teacher educators to undertake studies and projects on early childhood education in the country.

The materials developed and published by CML are fed into existing projects catering to the needs of pre-school and early primary-school age children. A research study to assess the impact on children from disadvantaged populations of materials developed by CML has shown that children, by and large, benefit from these materials.

Training for Early Childhood Education (ECE). No early childhood education programme can succeed without adequate training of the personnel involved. A number of states and Union Territories have developed programmes of early childhood education in the form of nursery schools, creches and other similar institutions run either as a component of social welfare or education programmes. However, many of these institutions lack both the material resources and the trained manpower to provide an adequate educational programme. Therefore, there has been a growing need for programmes to develop the capacity at the state level to train educators for an effective pre-school education programme. The Early Childhood Education project, being implemented by NCERT in collaboration with the state level agencies, is an attempt to fulfil this need.

The main objectives of the project are to assist the State Departments of Education to set up early childhood education units at training institutes, to strengthen existing institutions and to train teacher educators and teachers in early childhood education. The project also aims at orienting supervisors and administrators to different aspects of early childhood education, and at developing basic learning and play materials for use of pre-school children.

The project was launched in six states in 1982. During 1983, three more states joined the project. Two more states are expected

to commence implementation of the project in 1984. Under the project teacher educators and pre-school teachers have been trained in the content and methodology of early childhood education, while the supervisors have been oriented to the supervision and management of early childhood education activities. Several basic training materials for the use of pre-school teachers and teacher educators, and learning materials for pre-school children have also been developed.

In each state and Union Territory participating in the project, a centre for early childhood education has been established. Five elementary teacher training institutes and 65 pre-schools are involved in the implementation of the project in each state. It is proposed to undertake the development of pre-school facilities on a large scale by establishing an additional 5,000 pre-primary schools in the next few years in selected states, especially where programmes are an integral component of basic services being provided for the under-privileged sections of the society.

Utilization of the mass media for school education

A significant development in recent years has been the effort to utilize mass media for education. The Ministry of Education initiated in 1972 an Educational Technology Programme. The programme was directed at deploying the resources of educational technology for bringing about a qualitative improvement in education, widening access to education and reducing existing disparities between different regions of the country as well as different sections of the population. The scheme was formulated in the context of expansion of television facilities and the possibility of a satellite being made available for educational purposes. It was intended to stimulate the use of television as well as other instructional media, such as radio and film, to improve the quality of education.

Thus, a centrally sponsored scheme envisaged the setting up of an Educational Technology Unit in the Ministry of Education; a Centre for Educational Technology (CET) in the NCERT for research, training and production of prototypes and Educational Technology Cells in the State Departments of Education for promoting the use of educational technology. The CET was set up in 1973 and so far ET Cells have been set up in 21 states, the only state

yet to set up an ET Cell being Tripura. The Union Territories were not covered under the programme.

The Instructional television programme. The role of television as a medium of education was clearly defined in 1973 by a seminar on the software objectives of Indian television. The seminar recommended:

> Television must be utilized in the development process as an instrument of social change and national cohesion by unhesitatingly upholding progressive values and involving the community in a free dialogue. Indian television has to shun an elitist approach and consumer value systems, and evolve a national model. Television as a support to better education should assist the teacher effectively. It should cater for both in-school and out-of-school education. Primary education should be given priority. However, experiments at other levels of education should also be carried out. Television should disseminate information about specific aspects of science and technology, agriculture, health and family planning etc; with assistance from supportive units in the concerned departments. It should also take an active role in developing a scientific temper by taking up the day-to-day problems of people.

The one-year Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE), which concluded on 31st July, 1976, marked a beginning in the development of a series of innovative and constructive television programmes for national development and for educating the masses living in remote rural areas. The SITE programmes reached a rural population of about 3.5 million spread over 2,230 far-flung villages in six Indian States – Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. The programmes were telecast in the morning and evening of each day. The morning programmes were designed to suit the need of children in the age group 5 to 12. The duration of this programme was 22½ minutes for each cluster. General development programmes on agriculture, health and family planning and entertainment were telecast in the evening. The evening programmes were of 30 minutes duration for each cluster and there was a programme of half an hour a day for all clusters, including 10 minutes of live national news.

The SITE educational programmes were telecast during school hours. They were aimed at developing among children a positive attitude to formal education, by making the process of education interesting, creative, purposive and stimulating. The programmes were so designed as to familiarize children with facts and matters normally beyond their usual observation. In each programme, maximum time was devoted to topics on general science (53 per cent), followed by entertainment (13 per cent), national awareness (12 per cent), health and nutrition (7.5 per cent), biographies (4 per cent), making things (3 per cent), social and current problems (3 per cent) and other areas (1.5 per cent).

During the SITE programmes, data on life and communication patterns, and attitudes and responses to developmental and educational messages, were collected. During and after the experiment, a good deal of formative and summative evaluation was undertaken which has provided valuable information on matters related to the audience, the impact of the programmes and the nature of viewing conditions. This has provided the basis for future programming. The experiment has indicated that if ever there was an effective means of reaching out to communities barely touched by the developmental process, television is one of the best. For a large country like India, satellite television is one of the most suitable methods of reaching remote and isolated areas.

Plan of operation for the utilization of television for education. Encouraged by the impact of SITE in providing education to people in remote rural areas, the Govemment of India initiated in 1979 steps to develop a plan for the utilization of television and other facilities that were expected to become available with the launching of the Indian National Satellite (INSAT). In February 1980, a Working Group was set up to draw up a detailed software plan for utilization of INSAT through the medium of television. It was suggested that the television facilities of INSAT should be used as an aid to economic development and social change and to benefit as large a population as possible.

Keeping in view this decision, in May 1980, the Ministry of Education set up a study group to plan the educational component of INSAT television utilization. The group has recommended that programme production centres be set up in states in a phased manner. Keeping in view the recommendations of the study group,

the Government of India has now decided to enlarge the Centre for Educational Technology (CET), into a Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET) for promoting and co-ordinating production of ETV programmes in the states and to establish State Institutes of Educational Technology (SITEs), in the first instance in six states, for promoting production of ETV programmes on a localized basis. The Government of India has also decided to continue the implementation of an expanded educational technology programme in the remaining states, so that they develop the potential to participate in the INSAT programme in due course. The Government will also introduce an expanded educational technology programme in one state and nine Union Territories not covered by the programme earlier.

Priority areas. The Government has identified certain priority areas of educational programming, particularly in relation to the use of television facilities. These are:

i) Universalization of elementary education, both formal and non-formal;

ii) Non-formal education for adults, linking education to economic and social tasks;

iii) Development of vocational and professional skills;

iv) Training for citizenship;

v) Popularizing science with a view to developing a scientific outlook;

vi) Promoting national integration; and

vii) Providing information about themes of national importance-population, education, energy conservation, preservation of wild life, environmental sanitation, nutrition and health.

It is also proposed to utilize television for the training of teachers. The programmes for teachers are being developed for the purposes of (i) broadening their horizon, (ii) providing straightforward help in formal school teaching and (iii) developing appreciation of the objectives of educational television under INSAT, so as to ensure better utilization. However, till such time as the state production centres are fully operational, the programmes

will be limited to elementary education, non-formal education and teacher training.

The Government of India has drawn up an ambitious plan for increasing television coverage in the country. The coverage of terrestrial transmission facilities through microwave links has been enhanced. By the end of 1984, it is expected that 70 per cent of the population will be reached by television. A large proportion of transmission facilities will be available for the educational programmes which will be produced by CIET and the state production centres.

Utilization of radio in education. Though television has been found to possess many positive attributes as a powerful communication medium, it is widely recognized that in the near future it may not be possible to cover the entire country. It might, for instance, be prohibitively expensive to install an adequate number of television sets in each village in the country in the immediate future.

Efforts are, therefore, being made to use simpler and more economical technology to meet India's economic, social, linguistic and geographical requirements. This has resulted in wider and more effective utilization of radio for broadcasting educational programmes throughout the country. Radio is inexpensive compared to television. The technology is simple and more flexible. Today radio sets are available to people in almost all villages in the country. Radio is used to provide more localized and need-based programmes, as there are a large number of radio stations spread over each region and state/Union Territory. A few of the auxiliary stations of All India Radio have already experimented with broadcasting educational programmes related to local needs. It was found that these localized programmes were far more effective than the centralized rural programmes broadcast from the main stations in the states.

Today a large number of radio stations in the country broadcast educational programmes. Teacher training programmes are being organized through radio in a few states. Radio broadcasts are being increasingly used for improving primary education. Many states have initiated steps to integrate radio broadcasts with teaching in schools, particularly in the area of language instruction. An important project in the use of radio for teaching a first language (Hindi) to primary school children is being carried out by the CET in collaboration with the ET Cell in Rajasthan.

The Ministry of Education has set up a Study Group on Radio Utilization for Education, to go into its various aspects as was done by the Study Group on Television Utilization. On the basis of the report of the Study Group, a detailed project for educational broadcasts will be formulated shortly.

In India, the utilization of radio and television facilities for education has so far been at the initiative of All India Radio and Doordarshan. The involvement of education authorities in planning and production of educational programmes was very limited. This drawback has now been rectified by involving ET Cells and educational authorities in the planning and production of programmes. The responsibility for the production of radio and television programmes is gradually being taken over by educational authorities and agencies such as CIET and ET Cells. With the setting up of production infrastructure at the centre and state level, there will be more and better utilization of the media for educational purposes.

Rapport-based programme of school improvement

The low level of academic achievement mainly caused by the low level of efficiency of schools has been a problem of great concern in recent years. This has led to several attempts to devise appropriate strategies for improving the performance of schools. Prominent among the successful efforts, is a rapport-based voluntary programme of school improvement being implemented in the State of Maharashtra.

The results of the secondary school certificate examination conducted in 1976 in the State of Maharashtra indicated that there were a large number of secondary schools in the State in which not even 30 per cent of students secured the minimum marks required for passing the examination. Studies conducted to identify reasons for this low performance indicated that one of the reasons for it was the weakness and low efficiency of the feeder schools at the primary stage. Primary schools, especially those in rural areas, were found to be without adequate physical facilities, equipment and teachers. Insufficient supervision by Inspecting Officers, lack of adequate guidance to teachers, the indifferent attitude of parents and irregular attendance by students created a climate not very congenial to learning. Most primary schools were functioning

far below the expected efficiency and generally they were of such low standards that they failed to attract and retain a large proportion of children.

The strategy. It was, therefore, recognized that one way of overcoming the problem of low achievement was to focus attention and effort on the low efficiency secondary school together with the cluster of its feeding primary schools. As part of this effort, a rapport-based programme of school improvement was initiated. The programme aimed at breaking the isolation of weaker schools, and developing a participative climate of co-operation between the school and the community. It also aimed at improving the physical environment of the school, enhancing enrolment and attendance of pupils and improving the teaching-learning process, school organization and management. The programme also focused attention on motivating teachers and pupils to make efforts leading to better standards and better results in examinations.

Coverage of the programme. The programme was initially implemented in one block of the Pune district. In this block a secondary school with a low level of performance, along with its feeder primary schools, were adopted. All the functionaries associated with the school system were brought together to make a systematic effort for school improvement. One of the outcomes of this effort was a marked improvement of the learning environment resulting in better academic achievement by students.

Encouraged by the success achieved, coverage of the programme was expanded in 1979. Complexes of weaker schools were voluntarily adopted by the educational officers in six districts. The coverage was expanded to 746 secondary schools and 7,422 primary schools in 1,122 clusters. The number of students covered by the programme rose to about 1.3 million in primary schools and over 0.3 million in secondary schools.

The major components of the programme include identification of specific deficiencies of schools and planning for their correction, enlisting the co-operation of the community in mobilization of local resources, exchange of experience and mutual learning by teachers in each cluster of schools and building rapport among pupils, teachers, headmasters, inspecting officers, various other functionaries and villagers. The major focus of the project is on

creating rapport among persons who work together and on a developmental approach to education with emphasis on non-monetary resources for self-development.

In order to further improve the performance of schools, several new activities have now been initiated. These include group meetings among teachers and with villagers, enrolment drives in co-operation with villagers, extra-classes for bright students and remedial teaching for weak students, formation of parent-teacher associations, forums for innovative teachers and programmes for students, such as improvement of handwriting, communication skills and assistance to poor students.

Outcomes of the programme. The results of this voluntary effort have been quite encouraging. There has been a noticeable increase in enrolment, average attendance, academic achievements of students, community support and an overall improvement in the efficiency of the schools. Over 60 per cent of the schools, both primary and secondary, participating in the programme have shown an increase in enrolment. The percentage of primary schools which showed an increase in average attendance was 60 per cent, while that of secondary schools was about 54 per cent.

Programme for enhancing the competence of teachers

There is a growing recognition of the fact that one of the causes of drop-out and stagnation at the elementary stage of education is the poor quality of teaching. It has been too knowledge oriented, bookish and uninteresting. Therefore, as part of the effort to improve the quality of elementary education, several measures aimed at enhancing the competence of teachers (in-service and pre-service) have been initiated. Prominent among them are correspondence-cum-contact courses for inservice teachers and deputation of untrained in-service teachers to undergo full-time teacher training courses offered by recognized elementary teacher training institutes. These have helped in reducing the number of untrained and underqualified teachers in primary and middle schools.

Along with the efforts aimed at clearing the backlog of untrained and underqualified teachers, a variety of short duration training programmes have also been conducted to update the knowledge of inservice primary teachers. The main objective of these

training courses is to orient teachers to current developments in content and methodology of teaching. The duration of these courses varies from three days to four weeks depending upon the objectives of the training programme. A large number of in-service teachers have enrolled in these courses to keep themselves abreast of the recent developments in subjects in primary and middle schools, and to cope with the challenge of the changing curricula and methodology of teaching.

In addition to this, a large number of teachers were also trained under the UNICEF assisted 'Science Education Programme' implemented at the national level by the NCERT in collaboration with the State Institute of Education/State Institute of Science Education/ State Council of Educational Research and Training in the states and Union Territories. The Science Education Programme was started in 1967 for the reorganization and expansion of the teaching of science in primary and middle schools. By 1975, almost all the states and Union Territories in the country had implemented the programme in their schools under pilot, wider introduction and universalization phases. The programme involved science curriculum renewal, development of introductory materials, upgrading of elementary teacher training institutes in order to improve pre-service and in-service training, in-service training of teachers and other functionaries and use of the environment and local resources to teach science at the elementary stage. The major achievements of the programme were the experience that it provided in curriculum development and implementation and a change of attitude towards teaching at the primary level.

Several agencies in the country are engaged in the organization and implementation of in-service training courses for primary and middle school teachers. At the national level, NCERT organizes training courses for key personnel and resource persons engaged in training in-service teachers at the elementary stage. At the regional level, training courses for resource persons and key persons at the state/Union Territory level are also organized by the four Regional Colleges of Education which are run by NCERT and located in the States of Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. They organize training courses for key persons, teacher educators or teachers on a regional basis or for a particular state in their jurisdiction, on demand.

Alternative strategy for in-service teachers' training. One of the major problems in the Indian educational system has been the problem of training and retraining a very large number of school teachers efficiently and economically. With the present system of training teachers through Summer Institutes organized every year in different parts of the country, it would take many years before all school teachers could be trained or retrained. Attempts have therefore been made to develop an alternative strategy by making use of mass media for in-service teacher education, which could reach a large number of teachers simultaneously. The in-service teacher training course in science for primary school teachers, a multimedia package developed by the Centre for Educational Technology (NCERT), represented a major attempt in this direction. The package offered a 12-day teacher-training programme simultaneously to 24,000 primary school teachers spread over different villages covered by the Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE). About 48,000 teachers were trained using the package during 1975-1976.

The different components of the multi-media package were (i) a television programme (22½ minutes); (ii) a radio programme (20 minutes); (iii) activities (2 hours); (iv) study of enrichment materials (30 minutes) and (v) a pre-and-post-telecast/broadcast discussion guided by the teacher monitor (1 hour). The television programmes were telecast using the facilities provided by SITE. These programmes were designed to demonstrate the new approach to science teaching. They also provided opportunities for upgrading the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the subject matter. The telecast was preceded by an introductory talk by the teacher monitor and followed by a general discussion on the content of the programme. The radio programmes were designed to motivate teachers and to provide enrichment of content. Activities included in the guide were aimed at improving teachers' knowledge of the content and at providing examples of simple experiments which could be conducted in the classroom. Enrichment materials provided additional information on content units and the necessary background for science teaching. Interpersonal communication was provided through a trained teacher monitor who acted as the resource person for guiding and conducting the programme in the villages.

The materials of the package consisted of (a) 12 films in four language versions; (b) one stand-by programme on video-tape in four

languages; (c) ten radio programmes in four language versions including posters and flash cards for radio-vision programmes; (d) activity guides with 102 activities which could be performed by using low-cost or no-cost equipment; (e) enrichment materials; and (f) substitute materials for each of the film and radio programmes to be used by the teacher monitor in the absence of radio and television programmes. Systematic evaluation of the programme indicated that the package was quite effective in increasing primary school teachers' knowledge of content and pedagogy of teaching science.

Revision of elementary teacher education curriculum. The programmes of professional education of teachers at all levels are under a process of revision in the light of the recommendations made by National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) which was constituted by the Government of India to advise on matters relating to teacher education in the country. After screening extensive data and conducting on-the-spot studies of sampled teacher training institutions, the working groups set up by NCTE submitted their reports in 1975. The findings and suggestions of the working groups were discussed at different levels and finally NCTE released a document titled 'Teacher education curriculum – a framework'. The framework provided certain guidelines for improvement in programmes of teacher education.

The framework of the teacher education curriculum approved by NCTE, has recommended significant changes in the existing teacher education programmes. It highlights the need for flexibility and relevance in courses in order to relate them to local needs and conditions.

The recommendations of the NCTE have been followed by attempts to introduce changes in the existing courses of teacher education both in terms of organization and structure. Thirteen states and three Union Territories have already revised the curriculum of elementary teacher education. The changes introduced in the elementary teacher education curriculum are expected to develop teacher training programmes which are in tune with the emerging needs of Indian society, and improve the quality of teaching in primary and middle schools. It is expected that this will lead, ultimately, to the qualitative improvement of elementary education, resulting in a reduction of drop-out rates.

Chapter Five

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

Retrospect

The progress made in the direction of achieving the constitutional obligation of universal elementary education has been by any standards phenomenal, although the goal is yet to be realized. The achievement becomes particularly impressive, considering that after independence India had to grapple with some serious tasks which brooked no delay – the partition of the country requiring rehabilitation of millions of refugees, the integration of feudal princely states, the need to invest resources for building a modern infrastructure, for self-sustained growth in industry and the achievement of self-sufficiency in food production, to name a few. Apart from these, every effort had to be made to ensure that the democratic framework which had been chosen for the country's policy assumed sound foundations.

Despite these and other tasks which had been given priority, substantial investments were made to expand education, so essential for meeting the manpower requirements of a modernizing economy, starting the process of social modernization and for ensuring the participation of the masses in political processes. Educational development was taken seriously as an integrated element of social and economic planning, as it was realized quite early that education had a determining influence on economic, social and political development.

The expansion of elementary education was considered to be an important and priority task. A consequence of this increased attention and effort has been the phenomenal expansion that has taken place in the availability of educational facilities, so that for nearly 93 per cent of the rural population, primary education is available within a kilometre of walking distance. Similarly, facilities for middle school education have become available for over 78 per cent of the rural population within a walking distance of 3 kilometres. Enrolments have grown, especially in the case of girls.

The system now employs over 2.5 million teachers, almost all of whom are trained. Millions of children are provided free meals, uniforms, books and stationery so as to facilitate their enrolment and attendance in schools. Facilities for teacher preparation are more than adequate. Systematic work in the development of syllabi and textbooks has ensured the availability of education of a quality and standard which compares very favourably with more advanced countries. Infrastructure for research and development support to elementary education has been created, as have cadres of trained personnel, even at the grass-roots level.

An important development has been the experimentation with alternative modes of education– the non-formal system of learning, the use of mass media for education facilitated by the availability in orbit of India's own satellite, and distance learning systems. These and other developments have provided experience which can now be utilized to move a step further.

Task ahead

Despite these achievements, the task remains unfinished. Still a large number of habitations do not have educational facilities within easy reach; 120,000 as far as primary schooling is concerned. Of course, these habitations contain a very small fraction of the total rural population. About a fourth of children of the age group 6-11 and nearly sixty per cent of the age group 11-14 are still outside schools. Nearly 70 per cent of these children are girls; a substantial proportion belong to the disadvantaged sections. A large proportion of schools do not have satisfactory buildings; a large number lack even the basic minimum equipment required for effective teaching and learning. The low holding power of schools results in a majority of the students dropping out of elementary schools without completing 7-8 years of schooling. Many of them leave too early, in Grades I and II, to be able to learn even in a rudimentary form, the skills of reading and writing.

The achievement of the goal of universal elementary education has become urgent considering the country's commitment to complete the task by 1990. It has also become more complex, since the groups now to be reached are those who are prevented from taking advantage of education because of social and economic deprivations which the education system cannot redress. The

projections made earlier of the new places to be created have been belied by the 1981 census; instead of 35 million children to be enrolled as was visualized earlier, 41 million children are to be provided for. There is also increasing dissatisfaction with the quality of instruction that is offered in elementary schools, requiring simultaneous attention to both the quantitative and the qualitative dimensions.

The exercise for the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) has been taken in hand. Working groups that have been set up are entrusted with manifold tasks: development of a long-term perspective of educational growth, keeping in view the requirements of the twenty-first century, suggesting short-term goals, indicating the measures required to enhance the relevance of education to national tasks, proposing alternative forms and modes of reaching the unreached and so on.

Development of new designs

The realization has grown that existing forms of education are insufficient to hasten the process of achieving universal elementary education. There is, therefore, an insistence on the development of new designs. Although not yet distinct some elements of the new design are emerging. These include:

(i) Development of a new and open learning system enabling children to attain specified competencies by learning on their own in a variety of situations and utilizing a variety of learning resources;

(ii) Establishment of a variety of resource centres, apart from classrooms of the conventional type, in which a variety of print and non-print materials would be available for use by out-of-school children;

(iii) Derivation of the content of elementary education, as far as possible, from roles and functions that a person has to perform in a given social situation;

(iv) Development of an elementary school in rural areas as the focal point for community development and action, allowing an integration of services provided by various development agencies;

(v) Resort to micro-level planning with local communities being assigned important functions in respect of elementary education;

(vi) Increased use of mass media for elementary education, in supportive, enriching and substitutive roles; and

(vii) Greater emphasis on enhancing the quality and relevance of elementary schooling and on continuous monitoring of students' enrolment.

Each of these ideas has been experimented with and tested in a field setting on a fairly large scale. Thus the process of development of syllabi and textual materials in relation to the needs of specific communities has been undertaken. Substantial experience has also become available in regard to non-formal learning systems and technological support to education. Integration of community concerns with education has been attempted with the assistance of various developmental agencies. These and other experimental projects have been undertaken by voluntary organizations as well as under government auspices. It is felt that work needs to be done in two main directions. Firstly, we must ensure that the experience of innovative projects is widely diffused and made a part of the system. Secondly, there must be an integration of various experiences into an overall strategy of educational development.

It is realized that there should be a constant effort to institutionalize innovations. With this end in view, greater stress is proposed to be laid on dissemination of information, building of trained cadres at grass-roots level, integration of the efforts made by various agencies, networking of institutions, creation of infrastructure for adaptation of innovations to suit local conditions and financial support to institutions to adopt innovative ideas and practices.

An important idea being considered is the identification of specific areas where a total strategy for universalizing elementary education is being implemented. It is being suggested that various institutions concerned with different dimensions of elementary education develop a comprehensive and integrated plan of action and implement it in selected blocks under the control and supervision of the Planning Commission.

Appendix Tables

I. State/Union Territory-wise number of primary and middle schools in India (1970-1971 and 1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Number of Primary Schools*		*Number of Middle Schools*		*Percentage increase in schools during 1970-1971 to 1981-1982*	
	1970-1971	*1981-1982*	*1970-1971*	*1981-1982*	*Primary Schools*	*Middle Schools*
Andhra Pradesh	37,013	40,691	3,123	4,812	9.9	54.1
Assam	17,723	21,801	3,092	4,326	23.1	39.9
Bihar	46,823	51,250	8,133	11,289	9.5	38.8
Gujarat	10,810	11,200	10,545	14,000	3.6	32.8
Haryana	4,204	4,738	760	938	12.7	23.4
Himachal Pradesh	3,768	6,229	742	1,047	65.3	41.1
Jammu & Kashmir	4,872	7,475	1,454	2,058	53.5	41.5
Karnataka	21,717	22,832	10,817	12,343	5.4	14.1
Kerala	6,838	6,811	2,544	2,779	– 1.1	9.2
Madhya Pradesh	36,988	59,487	5,851	10,946	60.8	87.1
Maharashtra	28,533	35,600	16,749	15,540	24.7	–7.2
Manipur	2,472	2,860	384	425	1[illegible]	10.8
Meghalaya	2,528	3,650	211	39[illegible]	[illegible]	85.0
Nagaland	833	1,184	310	3[illegible]	[illegible]	0.0
Orissa	27,728	32,797	4,193	7,413	18.2	76.8
Punjab	7,258	12,384	1,060	1,410	70.6	33.0
Rajasthan	19,612	23,219	2,035	5,487	18.4	169.6
Sikkim	–	360	–	48	–	–
Tamil Nadu	26,076	27,767	5,894	5,556	6.5	–5.2
Tripura	1,384	1,707	220	300	23.3	36.6
Uttar Pradesh	62,127	71,637	8,787	13,852	15.3	57.6
West Bengal	35,788	44,326	2,959	3,178	23.8	7.4
A & N Islands	127	175	20	34	37.8	70.0
Arunachal Pradesh	503	879	47	120	74.7	155.3
Chandigarh	37	33	16	28	– 8.1	75.0
D & N Haveli	126	121	24	33	– 4.1	37.5
Delhi	1,355	1,739	450	327	28.3	–27.3
Goa, Daman & Diu	765	974	204	150	27.3	–26.4
Lakshadweep	19	18	8	4	– 5.3	–50.0

I (Cont'd). State/Union territory-wise number of primary and middle schools in India (1970-1971 and 1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Number of Primary Schools*		*Number of Middle Schools*		*Percentage increase in schools during 1970-1971 to 1981-1982*	
	1970-1971	*1981-1982*	*1970-1971*	*1981-1982*	*Primary Schools*	*Middle Schools*
Mizoram	–	775*	–	315	–	
Pondicherry	259	288	81	102	11.2	26.0
Total	408,286	495,007	90,713	119,560	21.2	31.9

* Includes pre-primary schools also

Source: (i) 'A handbook of educational and allied statistics', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983 (For 1970-1971).

(ii) 'Selected educational statistics, 1981-1982', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983 (For 1981-1982).

II. Percentage of rural population served by primary and middle schools/sections (As on 30 September 1978)

State/Union Territory	*Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/ sections*		*Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections*	
	Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Within the habitation*	*Up to 3.0 km*
Andhra Pradesh	91.84	96.06	36.01	71.16
Assam	81.34	94.21	20.91	78.96
Bihar	77.98	95.54	23.14	84.96
Gujarat	94.96	98.14	71.71	92.50
Haryana	94.07	98.58	46.71	85.21
Himachal Pradesh	38.01	71.54	13.31	71.58
Jammu & Kashmir	74.66	89.94	32.60	83.58
Karnataka	89.17	95.59	51.36	86.29
Kerala	83.35	90.64	59.44	92.48
Madhya Pradesh	77.14	90.17	23.09	63.19

II (Cont'd). Percentage of rural population served by primary and middle schools/sections (As on 30 September 1978)

State/Union Territory	*Percentage of rural population served by primary schools/ sections*		*Percentage of rural population served by middle schools/sections*	
	Within the habitation	*Up to 1.0 km*	*Within the habitation*	*Up to 3.0 km*
Maharashtra	90.10	96.97	56.50	87.50
Manipur	92.82	98.09	38.62	76.45
Meghalaya	76.12	88.53	15.72	53.03
Nagaland	98.35	99.49	50.72	71.13
Orissa	76.58	93.95	27.08	80.29
Punjab	97.34	99.72	44.45	91.77
Rajasthan	82.08	88.50	36.82	64.87
Sikkim	42.35	64.34	7.66	42.30
Tamil Nadu	81.74	94.63	29.81	80.57
Tripura	54.42	80.29	19.79	71.98
Uttar Pradesh	52.97	85.84	17.33	73.95
West Bengal	85.07	96.28	25.39	78.71
A & N Islands	70.49	81.86	33.38	55.78
Arunachal Pradesh	55.90	60.69	18.14	28.15
Chandigarh	89.42	100.00	61.42	100.00
Dadra & N. Haveli	45.43	86.99	11.24	68.20
Delhi	85.29	99.75	55.66	99.93
Goa, Daman & Diu	56.82	88.97	20.62	92.67
Lakshadweep	100.00	100.00	99.64	99.64
Mizoram	74.54	74.63	64.32	77.41
Pondicherry	87.72	97.15	53.19	97.41
All-India	78.53	92.82	33.47	78.83

Source: 'Fourth All-India educational Survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1982.

III. Enrolment in Classes I-V (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	3,202,739	2,263,336	5,466,075
Assam	1,001,783	758,823	1,760,606
Bihar	4,701,311	1,985,473	6,686,784
Gujarat	2,650,400	1,760,900	4,411,300
Haryana	852,458	447,816	1,300,274
Himachal Pradesh	319,803	245,945	565,748
Jammu & Kashmir	363,120	205,151	568,271
Karnataka	2,419,936	1,868,153	4,288,089
Kerala	1,658,763	1,562,923	3,221,686
Madhya Pradesh	3,070,379	1,519,353	4,589,732
Maharashtra	4,760,000	3,650,000	8,410,000
Manipur	118,350	94,550	212,900
Meghalaya	106,000	97,000	203,000
Nagaland	69,994	53,671	123,665
Orissa	1,719,000	1,115,000	2,834,000
Punjab	1,104,564	903,401	2,007,965
Rajasthan	2,290,836	763,849	3,054,685
Sikkim	26,147	18,557	44,704
Tamil Nadu	3,471,125	2,910,132	6,381,257
Tripura	170,531	126,079	296,610
Uttar Pradesh	6,577,120	3,288,000	9,865,120
West Bengal	3,727,295	2,445,606	6,172,901
A & N Islands	14,971	12,636	27,607
Arunachal Pradesh	43,530	23,006	66,536
Chandigarh	2,662	2,209	4,871
D & N Haveli	8,694	5,613	14,307
Delhi	365,970	319,630	685,600
Goa, Daman & Diu	71,673	61,950	133,623
Lakshadweep	3,937	3,335	7,272
Mizoram	40,704	38,223	78,927*
Pondicherry	42,832	36,323	79,155
Total:	44,976,627	28,586,643	73,563,270

* Includes enrolment of pre-primary schools also

Source: 'Selected Educational Statistics, 1981-82', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India.

III (Cont'd). Enrolment ratio in Classes I-V (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Enrolment Ratio*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	98.8	74.4	87.0
Assam	63.8	52.5	58.4
Bihar	103.3	46.5	75.8
Gujarat	124.9	88.6	107.4
Haryana	102.0	57.4	80.5
Himachal Pradesh	141.1	97.6	118.2
Jammu & Kashmir	105.5	55.4	79.5
Karnataka	102.2	84.0	93.4
Kerala	100.7	100.5	100.6
Madhya Pradesh	77.3	41.3	59.9
Maharashtra	128.5	104.4	116.8
Manipur	126.3	99.1	112.6
Meghalaya	121.1	109.9	115.5
Nagaland	163.2	128.4	146.0
Orissa	98.9	68.7	84.4
Punjab	115.2	101.4	108.6
Rajasthan	94.3	33.6	64.9
Sikkim	164.4	118.9	141.9
Tamil Nadu	125.9	112.4	119.3
Tripura	120.3	87.5	103.8
Uttar Pradesh	92.5	49.0	71.4
West Bengal	94.6	66.1	80.8
A & N Islands	133.7	110.8	122.2
Arunachal Pradesh	114.8	62.3	88.9
Chandigarh	10.3	8.5	9.4
D & N Haveli	155.3	96.8	125.5
Delhi	109.6	92.4	100.9
Goa, Daman & Diu	112.3	97.3	104.9
Lakshadweep	187.5	151.6	169.1
Mizoram	*	*	*
Pondicherry	124.5	103.8	114.1
All-India	99.4	66.9	83.7

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-82,' Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983.

IV. Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	623,897	331,484	955,381
Assam	439,102	277,858	716,960
Bihar	1,041,010	282,523	1,323,533
Gujarat	746,700	439,800	1,186,500
Haryana	372,620	132,502	505,122
Himachal Pradesh	145,887	72,663	218,550
Jammu & Kashmir	120,828	56,472	177,300
Karnataka	663,194	387,489	1,050,683
Kerala	846,933	778,854	1,625,787
Madhya Pradesh	1,200,678	427,648	1,628,326
Maharashtra	1,500,000	860,000	2,360,000
Manipur	32,530	20,970	53,500
Meghalaya	21,500	19,000	40,500
Nagaland	29,788	23,509	53,297
Orissa	419,000	209,000	628,000
Punjab	419,943	273,891	693,834
Rajasthan	666,771	161,429	828,200
Sikkim	5,593	3,006	8,599
Tamil Nadu	1,202,886	761,200	1,964,086
Tripura	38,197	26,736	64,933
Uttar Pradesh	2,256,010	822,104	3,078,114
West Bengal	875,837	498,357	1,374,194
Adaman Nicolar Islands	5,086	3,456	8,542
Arunachal Pradesh	6,960	3,064	10,024
Chandigarh 1	2,499	2,041	4,540
D.N. Haveli	1,426	736	2,162
Delhi	207,000	147,000	354,000
Goa, Daman & Diu	39,743	31,507	71,250
Lakshadweep	1,571	1,097	2,668
Mizoram	15,833	14,385	30,218
Pondicherry	22,184	14,491	36,675
Total:	13,971,206	7,084,272	1,055,478

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-1982', Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983.

IV (Cont'd) Enrolment ratio in Classes VI-VIII (1981-1982)

State/Union Territory	*Enrolment Ratio*		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Total*
Andhra Pradesh	31.3	17.4	24.5
Assam	59.3	39.9	48.6
Bihar	40.5	11.7	26.5
Gujarat	61.4	38.5	50.3
Haryana	70.7	28.0	50.5
Himachal Pradesh	105.7	48.9	76.3
Jammu & Kashmir	59.9	27.4	43.5
Karnataka	48.0	29.9	39.3
Kerala	89.3	85.6	87.5
Madhya Pradesh	54.3	20.7	38.1
Maharashtra	64.5	38.4	51.7
Manipur	66.6	38.9	52.1
Meghalaya	49.4	40.3	44.6
Nagaland	125.2	97.5	111.3
Orissa	43.7	22.7	33.4
Punjab	69.9	51.0	61.0
Rajasthan	50.3	12.9	32.2
Sikkim	60.8	32.3	46.5
Tamil Nadu	68.5	46.3	57.8
Tripura	51.9	30.9	40.6
Uttar Pradesh	56.1	21.8	39.5
West Bengal	41.8	24.2	33.1
A & N Islands	89.2	54.0	70.6
Arunachal Pradesh	39.3	16.9	28.0
Chandigarh	15.4	13.5	14.5
D & N Haveli	44.6	21.0	32.3
Delhi	97.7	71.4	84.7
Goa, Daman & Diu	96.2	72.6	84.1
Lakshadweep	130.9	82.4	106.7
Mizoram	*	*	*
Pondicherry	103.2	64.9	83.7
All-India	54.2	29.1	41.9

Source: 'Selected educational statistics 1981-1982', Ministry of Education & Culture, Government of India, 1983.

V. Enrolment (in Classes I-V) as percentage of population in the age group 6-below 11 years in rural areas in selected states. (As on 30 September 1978)

State		Highest district				Lowest district		
	State average	Name	Boys	Girls	Total	Name	Boys	Girls	Total
Andhra Pradesh	79.97	Nellore	111.47	92.89	102.68	Adilabad	66.86	25.29	45.82
Assam	80.71	N.C. Hills	124.55	87.31	106.32	Darrang	76.13	54.02	65.31
Bihar	70.53	Nalanda	118.55	61.18	91.18	West Champaran	65.95	20.02	43.92
Jammu & Kashmir	61.61	Jammu	91.12	76.01	83.98	Srinagar	61.60	28.38	45.86
Madhya Pradesh	56.99	Betul	97.91	58.37	78.52	Jhabua	57.01	20.37	39.22
Orissa	85.04	Balasore	139.15	101.78	121.34	Kalahandi	95.37	41.78	69.55
Rajasthan	59.74	Kota	104.87	45.42	80.63	Bikaner	67.34	22.84	47.57
Uttar Pradesh	72.87	Dehradun	124.40	106.65	116.50	Rampur	64.72	20.39	44.26
West Bengal	84.62	Howrah	112.49	99.36	106.32	Murshidabad	75.91	53.58	64.51

Source: States Tables, 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research & Training, New Delhi, 1978.

Note: Gross enrolment ratio at the primary stage (Classes I-V) 79.22 for the country in 1978.

V. (Cont'd). Enrolment (in Classes VI-VIII) as percentage of population in the Age-Group 11 to below 14 years in rural areas in selected states (As on 30 September 1978)

State		Highest district				Lowest district		
	State average	Name	Boys	Girls	Total	Name	Boys	Girls	Total
Andhra Pradesh	19.68	Krishna	33.26	20.69	27.09	Adilabad	17.09	7.57	12.45
Assam	36.79	Sibsagar	58.84	46.96	53.11	Karbi Anglong	31.09	14.91	22.49
Bihar	18.54	Dhanbad	52.97	6.36	30.44	Girdih	20.23	2.12	11.63
Jammu & Kashmir	32.22	Jammu	64.07	34.23	49.89	Srinagar	36.03	9.64	23.84
Madhya Pradesh	22.13	Bhind	67.03	9.64	39.42	Jhabua	14.72	3.67	9.40
Orissa	25.41	Cuttack	52.97	29.03	41.54	Karaput	5.46	3.08	4.69
Rajasthan	23.61	Sikar	63.77	15.18	37.87	Bikaner	20.80	4.94	14.04
Uttar Pradesh	23.32	Uttarkashi	101.25	16.54	62.49	Barabanki	27.23	3.85	16.37
West Bengal	27.59	Cooch Behar	65.64	29.35	47.66	Jalpaiguri	19.22	12.58	15.99

Source: State Tables, 'Fourth All India educational survey', National Council of Educational Research & Training, New Delhi, 1978.

Note: Gross enrolment ratio at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII) 31.23 for the country in 1978.

VI. Student flow in classes I-VIII and retention rates (1960-1961 to 1978-1979)

Years	Number of Students					
	Class I		Class V		Class VIII	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
1960-1961	13,391,347 (100.0)	4,680,909 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1961-1962	15,746,164 (100.0)	5,605,962 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1962-1963	16,404,417 (100.0)	6,023,285 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1963-1964	16,905,528 (100.0)	6,883,003 (100.0)	–	–	–	–
1964-1965	18,240,602 (100.0)	6,948,612 (100.0)	4,964,247 (37.1)	1,524,406 (32.6)	–	–
1965-1966	18,883,970 (100.0)	7,309,790 (100.0)	5,381,360 (34.2)	1,683,795 (34.2)	–	–
1966-1967	19,533,259 (100.0)	7,511,283 (100.0)	5,710,325 (34.8)	1,827,741 (38.3)	–	–
1967-1968	19,750,974 (100.0)	7,637,373 (100.0)	5,920,639 (35.0)	1,946,193 (31.0)	3,244,645 (24.4)	863,354 (18.4)
1968-1969	19,835,890 (100.0)	7,675,708 (100.0)	6,042,209 (31.1)	2,011,469 (28.9)	3,459,961 (22.0)	935,647 (16.4)
1969-1970	19,942,055 (100.0)	7,778,770 (100.0)	6,249,417 (33.1)	2,100,326 (28.7)	3,616,774 (22.1)	989,776 (16.4)

VI. (Cont'd) Student flow in classes I-VIII and retention rates (1960-1961 to 1978-1979)

Years	Number of Students					
	Class I		Class V		Class VIII	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
1970-1971	20,438,788 (100.0)	7,924,508 (100.0)	6,455,109 (33.0)	2,184,437 (29.1)	2,743,951 (22.1)	1,042,492 (16.6)
1971-1972	21,118,992 (100.0)	8,213,094 (100.0)	6,623,731 (33.5)	2,265,014 (29.7)	3,835,751 (21.0)	1,090,540 (15.7)
1972-1973	22,183,109 (100.0)	8,710,611 (100.0)	6,949,504 (35.0)	2,406,716 (31.3)	3,155,524 (20.9)	1,156,880 (15.8)
1973-1974	21,394,983	8,472,161	6,708,033	2,322,008	3,784,932	1,113,713
1974-1975	21,975,542 (100.0)	8,569,345 (100.0)	7,515,743 (36.8)	2,636,002 (33.3)	4,914,680 (21.3)	1,245,816 (16.3)
1975-1976	21,987,533 (100.0)	8,712,864 (100.0)	7,848,656 (37.2)	2,777,442 (33.8)	4,438,769 (22.4)	1,320,519 (17.2)
1976-1977	27,224,536 (100.0)	9,185,204 (100.0)	8,187,777 (36.9)	1,891,726 (33.2)	4,554,847 (22.8)	1,385,322 (17.8)
1977-1978	21,127,331 (100.0)	8,428,795 (100.0)	8,374,954 (39.6)	2,952,175 (35.0)	4,721,813 (22.0)	1,453,672 (17.2)
1978-1979	21,425,731 (100.0)	8,668,741 (100.0)	8,476,227 (39.6)	3,011,343 (34.7)	4,988,525 (23.3)	1,563,564 (18.0)

Source: *A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics.* Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, 1983. 'Third All India Educational Survey', National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, 1977.

Note: Figures in brackets indicate the percentage of enrolment in different grades to total enrolment in Grade I.

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* *Universalizing education: linking formal and non-formal programmes; report. 1979.*
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* *New personnel profiles in relation to changes in society and educational systems. 1980.*

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* *Designing instructional materials for general education and teacher training: a portfolio of experiences in Asia and Oceania. 1980.*
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