

Educational Administration

A Trend Report

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INTRODUCTION

The word 'administration' is derived from the Latin word 'minister' which means 'service'. In its further connotation the word etymologically came to mean a welfare work in the service of others. Many shades have later on been added to the meaning of the word. The idea of organisation, management, direction, supervision and control came to be added to the word with social and economic life itself becoming more organised. Administration came to be connected with organised enterprise concerned with facilitating and supporting the accomplishment of the operations or end-purposes of that enterprise.

The unique purpose of administration is to direct the utilisation of limited resources of time, people, space, equipment, supplies, and work technique in the realisation of coherent operation of an enterprise. It involves activities and processes which require specialisation of effort and sophistication in use. These have been very frequently identified as activities which include planning, programming, budgeting, staffing, evaluating and such processes as leadership, organisation, communication, and co-ordination. Some additional attributes are added such as human relationship, cooperation, logical positivism and staff morale. It encompasses whatever and wherever education is administered, whether it is at the level of an educational institution, or an organisation controlling several of the same or different types of educational organisations, or whether it is for a smaller or bigger geographical units and whether the management consists of an individual or individuals involving a private, or semi-government or government agency.

In an educational undertaking, administration is performed in the context of an enterprise devoted to the preservation, transmission, and advancement of learning. Organisation brings people together in a common endeavour in accordance with a more or less explicit system of authority. Organisation implies purposeful endeavour or direction; purposeful endeavour demands leadership and decision-making and administration is a structure of decision-making.

The critical statement of Walton (1955) sheds much light on the educational administration as it exists today. He observed, "the subject matter of educational administration is not a thing of intellectual beauty. Borrowing fragments from several diverse disciplines—law, political science, social psychology, sociology, economics, business, education, engineering, architecture, and statistics—it lacks well defined, highly organised body of subject matter; it has no elegant and simple theoretical structure; and as literature it is singularly devoid of aesthetic qualities. In addition to the fragments appropriated from other disciplines, the content of the course in administration has consisted of a discipline of practices, the cautious recommendation of promising techniques, personal success stories and lively anecdotes, all surrounded with the aura of common sense, and often purveyed by a more or less successful administrator."

With this background in mind, if one looks at educational administration as a subject of study and research, it naturally does not receive much attraction all over the world. Though it was introduced in teacher education programmes at B.Ed. and M.Ed. levels as a subject of study, the popular

belief is that educational administration needs no special training and it is in the school of experience that educational administrators learn techniques and procedures of administration. Barring one or two universities, nowhere in India does a separate department exist for educational administration. The M.S. University of Baroda has such a singular distinction. This is a transparent testimony that this subject is not receiving its due share of attention from educationists. One of the main factors for this lukewarm attitude is that it is being currently recognised that educational administration lacks a systematic and coherent body of theory. This lack is the result of the scarcity of fundamental empirical research grounded upon adequate theoretical foundation (National Society for the Study of Education, 1947). But, of late, a number of American universities and also other western countries have begun to offer a comprehensive course in educational administration for persons intending to enter administrative positions in schools, colleges, universities and in government. They have independent departments headed by eminent professors. Literature on the subject is also available in large measures, nowadays. It should be borne in mind that educational administration as a discrete field of study is almost entirely a phenomenon of this century. Gregg (1961) reports that during the decade 1952-61 there was a trend in the nature of research for overwhelming emphasis on description based on theoretical construct. In India, a small beginning in research in educational administration began in the 40's with the researches by R. V. Parulekar on mass education and J.P. Naik on primary education. A trend became discernible in India in the 50's for more collaborative research in educational administration among professors and advanced graduate students, though on a small scale.

The dawn of realisation of the importance of educational administration as a potential subject of study and research is now breaking on the horizon of Indian educational scene with professors, researchers and postgraduate students in the field vigorously involving themselves in the depth study of the subject. There are a number of doctoral researches on the subject in India. These studies can be broadly classified into the following categories:

1. Educational authority or agencies.
2. Inspection and supervision.
3. Different branches of education.
4. Educational problems such as compulsory education, wastage and stagnation.
5. Organisation and planning.

6. Organisational behaviour.
7. Miscellaneous.

EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

There are four different educational agencies in India which are playing a vital role in educational administration and development. These are—the Government of India, the state governments, Panchayat Raj bodies and other semi-government agencies, and private and philanthropic agencies. They are administering general education, professional education, special education, technical education, etc., at the school and/or higher educational levels. The central government administers only a small percentage of educational institutes, viz., 0.2 percent; the state governments, 13.6 percent; the Panchayat Raj bodies, 40.5 percent and private agencies, 45.7 percent.

The Government of India :

Under the Constitution of India, education is a state preserve; the Government of India is responsible for the maintenance of the central universities, institutions of national importance and the institutions for technical and vocational training. The central government in India is responsible for the promotion of research and coordination and determination of standards in higher education and research. The promotion of education and welfare of the weaker sections of the community, such as the women, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes, is a special responsibility of the Government of India.

It has its own organisational setup in the form of a Central Ministry of Education and Social Welfare to discharge its constitutional responsibility in the field of education. The Ministry is headed by a Union Minister of Education assisted by a Minister of State in Education and two Deputy Ministers of Education. The Central Ministry of Education has a huge setup of administrative personnel headed by the Education Secretary and two educational advisors—one for general education and the other for technical education.

The central government discharges its responsibilities in the administration of education with the help of a few all-India bodies like the Central Advisory Board of Education, University Grants Commission, All India Council for Technical Education, National Council for Women's Education, National Council for Educational Research and Train-

ing, etc. In 1972-73, the Ministry had a budget of Rs. 11085.73 lakhs. The central budget on education forms about 2.4 percent of the total central budget. Each state in India has also a Ministry of Education headed by a Minister for Education. He works through the Director of Education. Now the trend in the states is to divide the directorate into three wings—Higher, Secondary, and Primary education. Shah (1951) concludes in her study that the central government should take the responsibility as in Canada, Australia, Germany and USSR. It has also been suggested that to ensure equality of educational opportunity in conformity with the democratic system of education, internal affairs should be left to educationists and teachers only. The author expresses her view against the government's running the colleges. She has further suggested that the government of India should spend upto ten percent of its revenue on education.

Education in India was decentralised during the Vedic and Upanishadic periods. Tendencies towards centralisation were, however, noticed in the Buddhist age. Vyas (1963) reports in his study that the Government of India during the British period was not directly responsible for education in India. But after accepting the responsibility Macaulay, Bentinck and Curzon played vital roles in shaping the educational policies in India. The system of education they introduced was the education of classes which created vested interests of English knowing people. These policies, he contends, led to educated unemployment as well as underemployment. In 1921, the centre gave liberal grants to universities and state governments. Education became a state subject and decentralisation was ushered in. The centre and the state governments are now working in close partnership in the educational endeavour because of the commitments in Five Year Plans.

Much of the administrative system of education in India was developed during the British rule. Singh (1964) concludes that there exists little coordination between the efforts of the central government and the state government for streamlining and creating better system of educational administration and suggested that there should be a partnership between state and the centre for financing, planning and controlling education and such partnership should be aimed at strengthening the educational administration rather than weakening it. For securing better and quick results, mass education and social education programmes should be the subjects under the control of the central government. A national system of education needs central patronage and the full sense of such patronage is not fulfilled in mere planning

and financing. There should be a sort of central control also.

State Government :

State government is the principal agency which exercises authority on the educational institutions. In India, 13.6 percent of the total educational institutions are managed directly by the states. They have direct control. Money flows to the grant receiving institutions through the government officers at district level. More than three-fourths of the total expenditure on education comes from government funds. The state governments formulate policies which are mandatory on the part of all the institutions. Shah (1951) reports that the state governments should retain inspection and delegate all other administrative functions to the local bodies. Sharma (1964) feels that centralisation of power was causing delay in decision-making. Trivedi (1965) reports that formation of state and all India associations of school inspectors would achieve better and beneficial results in their duties.

Local Bodies :

The local bodies came into existence in India during the days of Lord Ripon. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 recommended that these bodies be given an effective voice in the administration of primary education. But the Provincial Governments whittled down the powers and consequently very little progress could be made and not much of the real authority came to be transferred between 1883 and 1918. A new era in the history of local bodies was, however, opened with the passing of the Government of India Act, 1919. As a result of this legislation three important trends became manifest : (i) introduction of Compulsory Primary Education Acts; (ii) democratisation of local bodies; and (iii) the introduction of enforcement of compulsion by local bodies. However, local bodies could not discharge their duties properly. Shah (1951) holds that local bodies should be given substantial control by limiting their area of administration to the city, town, or village, as it is in France and that there should be one common Act for all towns and a separate Act for all rural areas. A little more than forty percent of the nation's schools are managed by local bodies. Kaul (1969) in his study of the role of local administration in Indian education reports that the local bodies attended to the educational needs of

the masses and developed leadership qualities in young generation. He concludes to say that local bodies worked more efficiently and purposefully than any other agency in India. At the same time he strikes a note of disapproval that the taste of political power made some of the non-officials to possess an air of superiority and consequently interfere with the day to day administration of schools under local bodies. In order to strengthen and rationalise educational administration under local bodies and Panchayat Raj, Krishnamurthy (1968) observes that the powers and the responsibilities of the Deputy Secretary in charge of education in Zilla Parishad be clearly defined and he should be designated as Educational Secretary, Zilla Parishad. He further says that instead of nominating politicians as members on advisory committee of education, it would be more appropriate to nominate retired teachers and educational administrators. Similarly, Vartak (1971) argues that due to the decentralisation of educational administration, spread of education in rural areas is more evident and this type of administrative setup is more beneficial; education has become a common man's property; the young local leadership has proved useful for the education in rural areas; the attitude of the people's representatives is one of co-operation and there is increasing participation in educational administration. This new found zeal among the people's representatives helped the masses to a large extent and lethargy on the part of education officers was considerably lessened. She concludes that there is a mutual and healthy competition between regions and districts so far as the educational growth and development and provision of educational facilities are concerned.

Inamdar (1971) contends that though the Zilla Parishads have tackled the problem of expansion of primary education, the quality of education has suffered. He attributes it to the widespread interference of the non-officials in matters of the teachers' transfers, particularly during the academic year, resulting in dislocation of stable and smooth functioning of the schools. The other limitation according to him for the fall of standard is that Zilla Parishad had been slack in regard to the inspection and supervision arrangements. Though Zilla Parishads are enthused in shouldering the responsibility of education, they could not find resources commensurate with the functions entrusted to them. His final conclusion is that the educational administration of Zilla Parishads is defective and unless a radical change is brought about in the whole pattern there is no possibility of reforms towards the improvement of the quality of primary education in rural areas.

Private Agencies :

The part played by the private and philanthropic agencies in the spread and development of education in India is second to none. In the earlier periods of history of India, education hardly existed as a separate entity. Under the Hindu kings education was a private affair of a privileged few. Education under the Muslims was not the state concern but only private agencies undertook the task. After the British were firmly established in India the government had taken up the responsibility of education with much hesitation. Shah (1951) gives the historical development that followed. Centralisation existed from 1813 to 1870; decentralisation was tried from 1870 to 1899, then from 1899 to 1921, and in that period Curzon's policy played a significant role; from 1935 the centre again began to play an important role.

The year 1882 is of great importance in the history of Indian education. It was in that year that an Indian Education Commission was appointed. It recommended that private institutions should be accepted as equal to those managed by government; generous financial aid should be given to them and that the government should not interfere in the internal affairs. As a result of these recommendations there was a rapid expansion of schools, colleges and other institutions under private management. Though upto date statistical information is not available, about one half of the educational institutions are under private agencies which largely vary in type, size and location and which could be broadly classified under four categories: (i) religious organisations; (ii) trust boards; (iii) private bodies; and (iv) individuals. The majority of these institutions are in Kerala. States like Gujarat and Maharashtra have over 70 percent high schools run by private managements. Though Christian missionaries dominate the field, private and church institutions take the major credit for the spread of English education in India. Christian endeavour has given India over 150 colleges, 2,180 high schools, 210 technical schools and 150 teacher training schools. Pillai (1968) concludes that private agencies laboured and endeavoured to sustain the traditional culture of the state in a far greater measure than was possible in departmental (government) institutions. They have been helped by the government from the early days. Andhra Lutheran Christian College in Guntur in Andhra Pradesh is one of the pioneering institutions established by the missionaries well over 80 years back which cater to the educational needs of the people in the area in a far greater measure.

INSPECTION AND SUPERVISION

Inspection of schools, both secondary and primary, is a regular feature of the Indian system of education. Each state is divided into convenient units called districts. Each district is under an officer whose designation is District Education Officer (D.E.O.) or District Inspector of schools (D.I.). In some states the system of Divisional Inspector is in vogue who is in charge of several districts. Each district level officer is being assisted by a number of inspectors who actually tour the towns and villages and inspect the schools. Several studies are reported in this area at the doctoral level. It is generally considered that inspection is essential to assess the work done, facilities and accommodation available, efficiency or inefficiency of the teacher, quality of the instruction in the school, etc. Though inspection is conceived of as a watch dog of classroom instruction in the schools, Sharma (1964) reports that supervision of teaching is very inefficient and the introduction of diversified courses has made it all the worse. Singh (1964) observes that inspectors are there more to find fault with than to make teachers competent; the desirability of inspectors being specialists in teaching various school subjects is much more useful. Trivedi (1961) concludes that in order to achieve expected results, the inspector should be relieved of his administrative duties gradually so as to enable him become a true educational leader; good professional education and special training for effective performance of his role as educational leader are essential for the inspector; the inspector should attend inservice programmes, from time to time, to keep himself abreast of the latest developments in his functions and the formation of the state and all India associations of inspectors would further improve the position.

Principals and headmasters are the real educational leaders in the institution. They are the real sources of inspiration to the teachers. The climate in the school is the measure of the efficiency and authority exercised by the headmaster. He should be professionally efficient, shrewd and intelligent. He should visit the classes in session and supervise teachers' academic activities. But, Mahajan (1970) reports that most of the principals fail to play effective leadership role in the academic field in schools because of the limitation of time and energy, lack of proper knowledge of the concept of supervision and non-cooperation from the teachers. Principals in most cases fail to impress upon the teachers that visits to their classes in session are meant for helping rather than finding fault with them. In another

study, Rawat (1970) observes that there is a general feeling among the principals, teachers and inspecting officers as well, that the main purpose of supervision and inspection should be to guide the teachers for their professional efficiency and encourage them in taking up new experiments.

Shivarudrappa (1970) concludes that according to the headmasters and teachers the main purpose of inspection should be to appraise the work of secondary schools and promote the professional efficiency of the teachers working in the schools. At the same time inspecting officers feel that the main aim of inspection should be to appraise the school programmes to promote the professional efficiency of the teacher and to see that the rules and regulations of the department of education are properly followed. Thakur (1972) maintains that the inspectors present a pessimistic picture of the present day elementary teachers who lack motivation for teaching. In a study conducted by the State Institute of Education, Gujarat (1965), it is reported that fiftysix percent of the supervisors are ignorant of the new techniques of teaching and the current problems in Indian education. Also, the feeling and thinking of the supervisors is that due to heavy load of supervision work they are unable to do fair justice to the academic guidance to the teachers and headmasters.

DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF EDUCATION

The bulk of the research work done in the area of educational administration is connected in one way or the other with the problems in primary and secondary education. But there are some more branches like basic system of education and vocational education in which also we find a few more studies.

Primary Education :

The development of primary education in India was greatly influenced by the Britain's home policy. Thomson's plan to organise and administer elementary education in North West Province was directly influenced by the developments in England. Later, the Despatch of 1854 set out to organise in India voluntary system of schools aided and supervised by the state. For obvious reasons voluntary work failed in India. This failure occasioned the Despatch of 1859 which recommended that the state should provide mass elementary education by levying a compulsory cess.

Under the direct influence of England, decentralisation was gradually introduced in India from 1859. It was enforced at the provincial level by Lord Mayo in 1870 and later by Lord Lytton in 1877. But the greatest influence was exerted by the Education Act of 1870 whence the Hunter Commission recommended in 1882 the setting up of School Boards on more or less the same pattern as that prevailing in England. Thus, further decentralisation in educational administration was offered by Lord Ripon when he implemented the Hunter Commission's recommendations and set local boards and municipalities, and entrusted the administration of elementary education to these bodies. But the Hunter Commission also introduced the 'payment by results' system in this country. Its immediate application was rather unwarranted as the only consideration behind its implementation in this country was its cheapness and its ability to produce quick results.

Britain's home policy continued to shape the educational trends of India even during the present century. Most of the reforms introduced by Lord Curzon in the Government Resolution of 1904 with regard to elementary education were a direct reflection of the main educational reforms in England. Elementary education was redefined, qualitative improvements were emphasized, the system of 'payment by results' was abolished and primary education was made the chief obligation of local bodies. Similarly, the Government Resolution of 1913 aimed at the creation of a comprehensive system of education based on the English pattern.

Compulsory primary education was introduced in India more than a hundred years ago. Desai (1951) points out in his study that the lead in this matter, as in several others, was given by the missionaries and some enlightened European officials of the government but later the struggle was carried on by Indian leaders. According to his study the history of universal primary education can be divided into six phases. The first phase is from 1813 to 1882, when the Government accepted its responsibility for the education of the people; the second phase extends from 1882 to 1910 when Gokhale moved his resolution on compulsory education. During this period, the agitation for the introduction of compulsory education was taken up by Indian leaders but no success could be achieved. The third phase extends from 1910 to 1917 and covers the period of heroic, though almost futile, attempts of Gokhale to induce the Government to accept the principle of compulsory primary education. The fourth phase extends from 1918 to 1930 when the

principle of compulsory education was placed on the statutes of almost every province in British India as well as in some important Indian States. The fifth stage extends from 1930 to 1950 when compulsory education was introduced as an experimental measure in a few areas. During the sixth and final stage, a determined effort was made to introduce compulsory education in all parts of India in the meaning of the Article 45 of the Constitution of India which declares that 'the state shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years, from the commencement of this constitution, free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years'. It was not possible to achieve this goal; the present aim is to have all children of the age group 6-11 and fifty percent of the age group 11-14 in school by 1975.

There is only one study on pre-primary education, by Bapat (1957). He has discussed problems concerned with philosophy of the pre-primary education, qualification and training of the headmistresses and other teachers. Accommodation and equipment, working hours, records, inspection, teacher-parent relation, finance and the like are also discussed here. The things like the responsibility of the government towards pre-primary schools, textbooks and the content, language development, care of food and body development, medical inspection and cost and control of pre-primary education are also discussed here.

Sane (1960) investigated into the conditions of primary education with special reference to non-attendance and irregular attendance. He reports that strained relations and ignorance of the parents are some of the causes for non-attendance. Regarding irregular attendance, he concludes that children abstain themselves from classes as they fail to adjust themselves with the crowded classes and school discipline, low level of understanding of the classroom instruction and teachers' failure to motivate and create an urge for education. Chickermane (1964) conducted an experimental study of teaching in single-teacher schools. In the experimental group he divided the entire academic work into two parts—classes and houses—classes for instruction and houses for activities. In the control group the classes were run on the usual and traditional lines. In the experimental group all children were given the same question paper but the level of attainment indicated the class to which they belonged. Evaluation of the progress of achievement of the children was done periodically. The study showed that the new experimental method achieved better results than the usual method. Paranjape (1970) investigated into the problems facing women primary

teachers. He reports that married women teachers find it difficult to do justice to classroom work as well as domestic responsibilities; the increase in the number of women teachers is not proportionate to the increase in the number of school-going children; overcrowded classrooms, poor building accommodation and equipment, and the deficiencies in their teacher training programmes are some of the hurdles in the way of their proper functioning as efficient teachers. Desai (1970) studied the difference between the achievement of the children who had kindergarten schooling and those who did not have such schooling. He reports that out of six equivalent groups whose achievement was measured in four subjects, the difference in the achievement is found to be significant in case of three groups; no significant difference is found in hand-writing. In two schools, the pupils with kindergarten education were found better on the rating scale, while in one school those without kindergarten education were found better.

Secondary Education :

While evaluating secondary schools, Desai (1966) observes that there is a general lack of awareness of the purpose of education all over. The teachers and the community are ignorant of the usefulness and purposefulness of education. He suggests that teachers and other personnel who are connected with the secondary schools should be given orientation about the values and objectives of education; the teacher training colleges and inspectors should organise teachers' associations to discuss academic and classroom functional problems. He feels that institutional evaluation programmes, if earnestly taken up, would help increase self-awareness among all concerned. Anjaneyulu (1968) studied job satisfaction of teachers in secondary schools. He reports that poor economic and social status are general causes of dissatisfaction among teachers in the secondary schools. He has also enumerated a few more causes of dissatisfaction. He observes that teachers working in the government schools are dissatisfied because of rigid rules and orthodox service conditions, frequent transfers and lack of parental cooperation; in local body schools, interference of the politicians in the day to day functioning of schools, lack of proper accommodation and equipment; while in private schools, job insecurity and favouritism. Gupta (1967) investigated the problems facing higher secondary schools. He observes that school finance was the most burning issue. The break-up of the figures is 39.9 per cent grant-in-aid, 54.5 to 59.7 per cent tuition fee and

for the remaining gap in the recurring expenditure, they have to depend on grants and donations. The author also points out that the offices of the headmasters or the principals, whichever may be the case, are poorly staffed and much of the time of these officers is consumed by the office work, leaving less time for academic activities. After independence, the Government of India launched upon a scheme of Basic Education in the country in tune with Gandhian teachings. The great hopes and convictions of the leaders dwindled down by the poor response from the masses and halfhearted policies of the state governments. Whatever may be the merits and demerits of the scheme, the attempt failed. Subbarao (1966) discusses some of the issues involved in this scheme. Most of the Basic Education schools were started in the rural areas which created suspicion in the minds of the people that the government was pursuing the education of classes instead of masses. Majority of the children attending the Basic schools was drawn from the weaker sections of the people and this aggravated their suspicion much further. Teachers working in the Basic schools were not properly and sufficiently introduced to the philosophy and objectives of the scheme and there was not enough reference literature for them to fall back on, hence the teachers were rather reluctant to teach in the Basic schools. However, this system of education has one unique virtue of making the school a community centre and improving teacher-parent relationship to a considerable extent.

When we accept the individual differences in achievement and ability, we must accept the individual differences in taste also. The educational system in India is suffering from one obvious deficiency of a lack of imagination and resources. Provision of vocational courses for those students who find the academic schooling unsuitable, is a must; and Indian schools should have diversified courses in various vocations so that the students can freely opt such courses. This helps develop a positive attitude towards dignity of labour and make them stand on their own legs when they complete the courses in the school. Bhatt (1972) discusses some aspects of vocational education in India vis-a-vis those in West Germany. He reports that in West Germany vocational education is arranged according to the local needs; girls also enjoy the same privilege as boys. There is an organised system of transfer of students from schools to industries after they have completed general education. Provisions are there for special classes for slow learners and inservice training for those who might have missed the appropriate channels. There is a balance, in West Germany, between voca-

tional education and general education. The case is diametrically opposite in India. Though there is some provision for vocational education, due to lack of proper attitudes towards vocational education, no proper progress is in evidence. The problems of environmental sanitation and health education of the students of our secondary schools is one of neglect. Sinha (1970) observes that only five percent of the total 1434 schools surveyed have teachers trained in physical and health education; even bare necessities like supply of drinking water and provision for sanitary disposal of human waste and refuse are far from satisfactory.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS SUCH AS COMPULSORY EDUCATION, WASTAGE AND STAGNATION

While the state and central governments are doing their best for providing school facilities for all the school-going children in the country, wastage and stagnation at primary and middle stages of education seem to be a great drain on its resources and render the efforts futile. There are several studies in this area but the sum total of the findings fails to give any scientific understanding of the problem to arrest this trend. This problem has been studied by Desai and Desai (1957), Sharma and Sapra (1969), Das (1970), Raj Narain (1970), Panigrahi (1972), Bombay Municipal Corporation (1956, 1957, 1958). The major findings of these studies show that parents' ignorance and family's financial conditions are responsible in some cases. Social customs and attitude of the parents towards girls' education, distance of the school from the place of residence, shift system in crowded towns and cities, mental illness and retardation of some children, caste, socio-economic condition, frequent migration of parents from place to place, marriage of girls at an early age, domestic work and looking after the young ones when both the parents are out for work, doing odd jobs to augment the family income at a young age, are some of the causes of wastage in education. The suggestions offered by these studies for checking the wastage are: arresting students' indiscipline, continuous evaluation of the academic work to keep the students engaged in studies, effecting improvement in teacher quality, parent-teacher associations, and toning up of the educational administration. Colon (1963) studied the reasons for wastage among the college students and concluded that married students dropped out in the middle, rich students abandoned studies either to enter business or stay at home but

the rate was lower when compared to poorer students. Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) studied wastage among college students. They have reported that forty percent of wastage was noticed in science students. The greater proportion of failures was due to failure in three subjects and a large majority of failures was decisive, not marginal. Failures were mainly due to lack of preparation or lack of general ability on the part of the candidates rather than to vagaries of the examination or to uneven standard of examination. English seemed to be the subject in which nearly seventy percent of students failed.

ORGANISATION AND PLANNING

It is a fond hope of every nation that its children should receive appropriate education to suit the needs and aspirations of the people of the country. It is indeed a complex and trying task to organise such an enterprise with vision and wisdom as it should ultimately yield results commensurate with its efforts and finances. The organisation of educational patterns in India is still more complex as it comprises many cultures, castes, religions and diverse geographical regions. Some governments in India and elsewhere in the world, in the past, did not care to take up the responsibility of the education of the people and resigned to the idea that it was the sole concern of the parents and the children. But with the passage of time and awakening of the people, rulers became conscious of their responsibilities and started looking on education as a bounden duty of the government. Mukherjee (1951) studied the role of the state in the organisation of education, in India, right from the pre-Buddhist period. He observes that from 1835 it was a settled policy of the East India Company to help the English schools, of the secondary type, and let the vernacular primary schools languish. More organised methods of giving grants came into practice from 1854. But, according to the Hunter Commission of 1882, this system did not help elementary education. The Hunter Commission recommended the policy of helping private schools rather than starting new government schools. Economy, rather than efficiency, directed the policy of the government towards patronising private enterprise in education. The British Government, however, consistently objected to the tendency of centralisation of education. It is in this context that one should view the present plight of the private schools and colleges depending more and more on the fees levied on the students. Vartak (1971) confined her study to the organisational aspect of education under Pan-

chayat Raj (local self-governments). She reports that the democratic decentralisation of education brought the masses nearer to education and the participation of their representatives in the educational administration lessened the bureaucratic attitudes of the officers and delays in decision-making. Increased number of school-going children and the enlightened and positive attitude of the people towards education have multiplied the work load of the education officers in a variety of ways. The Bombay Municipal Corporation (1966) studied the problem of organising parallel classes for failures and underachievers, in different subjects, in primary classes. The aim of this study was to reduce the incidence of stagnation on one hand, and raise the standard of achievement on the other. This experimental study revealed that nearly sixtyone percent of the pupils would get the benefit of continuing in the regular higher classes and suggested that parallel classes can advantageously be started in classes I, II and III.

Industrialisation in India is creating an urban mentality in the masses. Concentration in cities and towns is on the increase. Consequently, children are not finding adequate admission facilities in schools and colleges in the urban areas. This problem of pressure on the schools was tackled in some areas where the shift system was introduced. Tannu (1959) studied the problem of the shift system in primary schools in some parts of the former bilingual Bombay State (now called Maharashtra State). He reports that the timings of the shift system schools are ill-adjusted and the duration of the classroom instruction is less when compared to the fulltime schools. Promotion of the students in the shift system schools is on some basis other than the merit. It may be an arrangement for accommodating all children but does not help children to achieve academic proficiency and the system thus leads to dropouts.

Khanolkar (1960), who studied the problem of organisation of secondary schools in India with special reference to multipurpose schools, observes that the Indian secondary school instead of being able to influence the society, has itself remained under a class and caste dominated Indian society. Regarding multipurpose schools, he reports that the courses and content contain many deficiencies though it appears that western patterns are followed.

There is one doctoral study in the area of the role of agricultural universities in India, by Jalihal (1970). This study reports the views of both western and Indian experts on the concept of having a separate university for agriculture as it is one of the major enterprises for people in India as

well as in many other Asian countries. Western experts were of the view that multi-campus, with constituent colleges, are ideal for Indian agricultural universities. They preferred a combination of internal and external evaluation system to the complete internal evaluation.

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour is another major area which is demanding the attention of researchers. Some studies have been initiated at the Centre of Advanced Study in Education, M. S. University of Baroda, Baroda. Sharma (1971) studied organisational climate and its relationship with pupils' achievement and reported that there was significant positive relationship between organisational climate and school academic index. In another study, Sharma (1972) found that the teachers of schools under the management of the Rajasthan Government perceived the climate of the school as more open, compared to private school teachers. He has also reported in another study (1972) that principals' effectiveness as rated by teachers and teachers' satisfaction were positively related to school climate. His prediction study—prognosticating school climate (1972)—revealed that headmasters' effectiveness is a significant predictor of organisational climate.

MISCELLANEOUS

Another aspect of educational administration which attracted the attention of the researchers is 'reforms'. As the system grows sophisticated, more and more amendments and reforms are needed to the old and existing educational laws. It is in the nature of things that the old yield place to the new. Krishnamurthy (1968) studied the reforms in educational administration introduced in Andhra Pradesh during 1965-66. He observes that the reforms in education which were introduced during the said period were aimed at bringing efficiency in administration, economy in finance, and spread and development of education. Comparing the country-wide reforms, he commented that reforms in Andhra Pradesh were far ahead of times as the same measures were recommended by the Educational Commission in 1966. But, however, he points out one negative trend in these reforms, viz., the wholesale interference of non-officials which tells upon the efficiency of the administration. Sargurudoss (1961) also studied the educational policies in Madras Presidency (1800-

1900 A.D.). He reports that the history of educational policy since 1882 had been a history of the progressive domination of the school by the university. The Madras Government hesitated to follow a forward policy with regard to the education of women and thereby offended the feelings of the people. It also failed to follow a bold policy with regard to the education of the depressed classes, and thus compromised with the evils of caste and untouchability. He further says that Britishers did endeavour to discharge the obligation to cultivate the intellect which had been sterile and neglected though their attempts were greater than the results. The goal was always far higher than the grasp.

Ezekeil (1966) studied the problem of teachers' participation in school administration and observed that democratic school administration facilitated improved communication, whereas the authoritarian method violated the principle of science; it fostered initiative and creativity and broadened understanding on the part of all concerned. Participation is essentially an attitude of mind and not a form of organisation. Mathur (1959) studied the administrative policies governing substitute teachers serving in higher secondary schools. Bhouraskar (1964) reports that majority of the educational administrators who entered the service as teachers had no job aptitude and the length of the service in the department was the only criterion for promotion as administrators.

Sinha (1969), in a survey of problems and attitudes of university teachers, observes that lack of proper contact with the students due to large size classes and lack of proper and permanent rooms for some students to live while pursuing studies were main factors for student unrest. Majority of them displayed a very deep sense of alienation towards society and seventy percent of them believed that honesty and hard work in contemporary Indian society did not pay.

Kausik (1971) reports that the teacher associations are formed and are functioning more to fight for their economic benefits than moulding the policies of the government with regard to education. They have failed to create public opinion on the educational issues and they have no lobby in the state assemblies or in Parliament. Education in India is growing not only in size and scope but also in complexity as well. Education has already become a major national endeavour. A country like India, trying to achieve self-sufficiency in all spheres, cannot afford to spend huge amount of money and manpower without a proper assessment of the nature of work. The research that has already been done

so far in India in the field of educational administration is far from meeting the situation. Identification and analysis of the problems in educational administration will be a major challenge to the prospective researchers to put India on the educational map of the world on par with other advanced countries.

RESEARCH NEEDS

The existing educational administration in India, handed down from the political past, is essentially concerned with controlling. It is generally slow and hesitant, dilatory and time-consuming. 'Unless the educational system is well-equipped with appropriately trained modern managers, who in turn are well-equipped with modern tools of analysis, research and evaluation' and at the same time with the latest information about the developments in the area of educational administration and research, it cannot function effectively and efficiently. All approaches to organisation study and studies in the area of educational administration aim at maximum efficiency in the task for which the organisation, i.e., educational system, is set up. In analytical terms, the educational system should achieve: (i) efficient performance of the primary mission for which the organisation is set up; (ii) reduction in inter-personal, inter-group or inter-departmental conflicts; a balance of power and performance between subparts of the system; and (iii) opportunity for individual members to realise their individual capabilities of growth and enjoy both "social need" and "job satisfaction". In order to achieve this end, research efforts may be directed towards the study of the structure of the educational system and the divisions of activities; authority relationships should be intrinsically related to the task to be done; for effective management, each task system within an organisation (educational system) must have its own boundary controls; each task system should be explicitly defined and diagnosed. Broadly, the areas which need research may include: (i) decision-making, (ii) communication, (iii) leadership behaviour, (iv) organisational behaviour, (v) conflict resolution, (vi) group dynamics, (vii) system analysis and net-work analysis, (viii) educational planning, and (ix) training of personnel. With regard to the research findings in these areas, it may safely be assumed that they may lead to maximum utilisation of available human and material resources. At the same time researches in these areas may provide empirical grounds for planning and executing training programmes for educating the managers of educational enterprise—the need of the day.

ABSTRACTS : 611-663

611. ANJANEYULU, B.S.R., *A Study of Job Satisfaction in the Secondary School Teachers and its impact on the Education of Pupils with special reference to the State of Andhra Pradesh, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1968.*

The study sought (i) to find out the reasons for dissatisfaction in teachers working under different conditions; and (ii) to suggest ways and means to correct the existing situation so as to make the teachers dedicated, enthusiastic and contented.

A sample of one thousand teachers working in 102 secondary schools located at different parts of Andhra Pradesh, under different managements, was taken up using random stratified sampling technique. Questionnaire and interview techniques were employed to collect data concerning dissatisfaction among teachers and rating scales were used to find out the impact of job satisfaction. Out of 1000 teachers, 617 teachers responded to the first questionnaire. Besides, 130 educationists including correspondents, inspecting officers, headmasters and retired teachers were contacted for personal interviews. The questionnaire was again administered to 227 teachers to see consistency of their responses to the earlier questionnaire.

The administration of the second questionnaire revealed that thirtyseven percent of 617 teachers who were found to have job satisfaction now indicated dissatisfaction on some aspects. They were also dissatisfied on certain factors. These factors varied in their effects so strikingly that some caused dissatisfaction in as many as seventyeight percent of the teachers. The factors of dissatisfaction were divided into three categories: (i) strong dissatisfiers, (ii) weak dissatisfiers, and (iii) conditional dissatisfiers. The third group of dissatisfiers would cease to cause dissatisfaction if the situation was changed. Factors like frequent transfers, low standard of pupils, interference of politicians which was peculiar in certain managements, have caused conditional dissatisfiers. There were some common factors of dissatisfaction operating under all the managements. Except for some differences in degree, the factors of dissatisfaction were inadequate salaries, lack of academic freedom and heavy load of work. In committee schools, the teachers were dissatisfied because of lack of job security, rigid and orthodox service conditions and too much domination by the management. In mission schools, the factors were low standards of pupils,

lack of parental cooperation and lack of bright prospects in the job. In local board schools, the factors were too much interference by politicians, lack of social status and nonavailability of suitable accommodation, equipment and furniture. In government schools, rigid and orthodox service conditions, lack of parental cooperation and frequent transfers to distant places were the factors. Factors of dissatisfaction among women teachers were different from those of their male counterparts. Unmarried women teachers having additional responsibilities were found to be more sensitive to social relationships and academic conditions. The study also revealed many differences in the factors of dissatisfaction among postgraduate teachers, graduate teachers, secondary grade teachers, regional language teachers and special teachers. Postgraduate teachers were dissatisfied on account of lack of bright prospects and social status. Indiscipline among pupils and lack of social status were the chief factors of dissatisfaction among graduate and secondary teachers. The vernacular teachers were confronted with indiscipline among pupils and heavy load of work. The category worst hit in job satisfaction was the special teachers. The important factors of dissatisfaction among them were lack of social status, indiscipline among pupils and nonavailability of suitable equipment and furniture. The investigation showed that satisfied teachers contributed to more number of excellent, good and average ratings on pupils' qualities and behaviour than the dissatisfied teachers. Dissatisfied teachers contributed to more number of poor and below average ratings.

612. BAPAT, B. G., *An Investigation into the Conditions of Pre-Primary Education in the Poona University area with a view to finding out problems and suggesting solutions to some of them, Ph.D. Edu., Poona U., 1957.*

The aim of this research was to survey the situation as it existed concerning pre-primary schools, their methods and processes, the teachers of these schools and their training institutions and to identify the problems in these various areas and suggest some solutions.

Data for this study were collected through: (i) questionnaires, (ii) visits to institutions, (iii) discus-

sions with heads, teachers and parents, (iv) interviews with leading social workers, (v) documentary evidence from official and non-official reports, books and periodicals. Percentages were calculated for analysis of data.

The survey of the pre-primary institutions revealed some problems which were discussed in terms of: (i) the ideology of the pre-primary schools; (ii) the qualifications and such other aspects of the head and the other members of the staff; (iii) the controlling authority; (iv) location, accommodation, and equipment; (v) classification; (vi) working hours, working days, holidays, records, procedures of work, methods followed, inspection and affiliation; (vii) transfer from pre-primary to primary school; (viii) parent-teacher relations; (ix) government's policy and position; (x) finance; and (xi) extension of pre-primary education. Problems of pre-primary teacher training institutions were related to (i) members of the staff; (ii) pupils; (iii) apparatus; (iv) finance; (v) practising school; (vi) methodology; (vii) examinations; and (viii) refresher course. The survey of the parents of pre-primary school children showed a few more problems which included (i) pre-primary school accommodation, equipment, working; (ii) the teachers of the pre-schools (from the parents' point of view); (iii) the fees, the finance of the school, (iv) responsibility of government; (v) preparation of the parents; and (vi) parent-teacher organisation. About the preparation, the survey identified problems like: (i) the age-group which is the liability of the parents; (ii) nature of preparation of prospective parents; (iii) nature of subjects to be included in the regular education; (iv) nature of guidance to the newly weds; (v) nature of compulsion on newly weds concerning babies; (vi) nature of child clinics to guide parents; (vii) arrangements for working mothers; (viii) nature of records to be kept by parents; (ix) cooperation between the parents; and (x) care about food, body movement, language development, and psychological growth of children. Comparison of the state of pre-primary education in the Poona University area with that in other parts of India and abroad was also attempted.

The important problems identified in the study included: (i) philosophy of pre-school education; (ii) accommodation and space; (iii) methods of grouping, socialisation, free play, activities, apparatus; (iv) medical inspection, supply of food; (v) costs and control of pre-school system; (vi) parental cooperation and parent-teacher relationships; and (vii) training of pre-school teachers.

613. BHATT, K.C., *A Critical Study of the Vocational Education in West Germany vis-a-vis the Vocational Education in India*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1972.

The present study was undertaken with the main purpose of drawing some conclusions from the knowledge and experience of the German vocational schools which could help evolve a detailed plan for vocational education in India.

The information about the vocational education in Germany had been collected through a questionnaire given to 280 pupils of a few vocational schools in Frankfurt, interviews with the principals of vocational schools, discussion with their teachers and meetings with the directors and representatives of the industries. Unpublished documents from International Research Centre Library, Frankfurt had also been used. For information about vocational education in India, reports of the various commissions and committees on the subject, other literature available and questionnaire for and interview with the personnel in Indian vocational and technical institutions had been used.

The main conclusions of the study have been shown with respect to attitudes towards vocational education, its nature, administration, status and special provisions. In Germany, people have more positive attitude towards dignity of labour, and hence, vocational education was established there on stronger grounds as compared to India. The vocational education in Germany is being supported both by public enterprises and government. There exists a sound system of apprenticeship training. Experts in different fields volunteer themselves for the membership of trade examination boards. The vocational education is arranged according to the local needs. Girls also enjoy the same privileges as boys; vocational schools exist for upgrading courses; guidance bureau help to take up the suitable courses. There is a system of organised transfer from vocational schools to appropriate industry. Provisions for special classes for slow learners and inservice training for those who might have missed the appropriate channels exist. There are vocational teacher training institutions and suitable literature for all trades and vocations is available. There is a balance between vocational and general education. In India, some provision exists for the vocational education. But, due to lack of proper attitudes, it is not on strong grounds. Vocational education should be made a part and parcel of educational system. Specialised institutions need to be established for different trades and exclusive

vocational education needs to be terminal in character; 'work experience' needs to be strengthened in the present educational system. But a study of manpower needs will help in better planning and organisation of vocational education.

614. *BHOURASKAR, S., A New Approach to the Philosophy of Educational Administration, Ph.D. Edu., Vik. U., 1964.*

The objectives of the present study were (i) to analyse the policies and practices of educational administration and to assess their democratic nature at different levels of functioning, (ii) to evaluate the trends of administrative philosophy and the attitude of the administrators towards the existing practices, (iii) to determine the awareness of educational administrators about democratic philosophy of administration and readiness to accept it, and (iv) to evolve a new philosophy of educational administration based on democratic and humanitarian principles.

The study was limited to old Madhya Bharat region and Bhopal in the state of Madhya Pradesh. One questionnaire and one interview schedule were prepared. The questionnaire was administered to the educational administrators. To have a clear picture of the philosophy of educational administration, the references from the educational codes of Maharashtra, Mysore, Rajasthan, and Madras were collected. Interviews were carried mainly to know how the administrators in the field of education interpreted the policies and established conventions for the development of democratic set up.

The investigator has found that (i) the age of the administrator is a dominating factor and 68 percent of them have become administrators before the age of 44; (ii) there is no criterion of qualification for promotions to the posts of principal, district education officer, or divisional superintendent of education; (iii) majority of the administrators entering the service as teachers, have no proper job aptitude and direction; (iv) the length of the service in the department is the only requirement for promotion as administrator; (v) majority of the administrators are dissatisfied as they are not involved in decision-making; (vi) administrators believe that the instruction runs smoothly if they are endowed with more powers and they believe that punishment for misdeeds would induce a measure of success in the administration; (vii) barring a few, most of the administrators are conservative in their outlook; (viii) educational worth of the cocurricular activities is not

properly understood by the administrators; (ix) majority of the administrators are unwilling to share responsibility with students and to involve the parents at certain levels of decision-making; (x) all are favourable towards the democratic decentralisation of the power structure; (xi) they believe that mutual discussions and sharing of opinions on certain matters is good for efficient administration; and (xii) administrators, in many respects, have not yet adopted the democratic way of approach to the problems.

615. *BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION, The Incidence of Drop-outs in Primary Schools in Worli (Electoral Ward No. 31) for six months between September 1955 and February 1956 and the Factors responsible for the same, Primary Education Department, Bombay, 1956.*

It was observed that apart from the large incidence of non-attendance of children who fail to enroll themselves into school, there was a very difficult problem in the case of those who join school but drop out in the middle of the academic year. A continuous dropping out from schools is found in municipal schools. Dropping out of children throughout the academic year is a great handicap in the educational progress of the children concerned and involves wastage of funds and human energy. To understand the educational implications of the phenomenon of dropping out and to find ways and means to minimise the same, this study was planned with three objectives, viz., (i) to study the incidence of dropouts in municipal primary schools in the Worli area between 1st September, 1955 and 29th February, 1956, (ii) to compare the incidence of dropping out found in children of compulsory age and children who are overage (i.e., those who are over 11 years of age) in the Worli schools, and (iii) to analyse the reasons for the dropping out of children who left school without taking school leaving certificate.

All the sixteen schools in the Worli area (Electoral Ward No. 31), with about 7,800 children on the roll, formed the sample for the study. Parents and guardians of about 1,000 compulsory age and overage children were contacted to get the correct reasons for the dropping out of children before completion of their schooling. Parents, guardians, and quite often, neighbours of 784 children who left school without taking their school leaving certificates were contacted personally. However, residence of fortythree children could not be traced. Therefore, the final sample of the study consisted of 741 children.

The study revealed that (i) 16.5 percent of the children on the rolls on 1st September 1955 left school within six months; (ii) monthwise analysis of dropouts shows that there are considerable number of dropouts every month but the number varies from month to month and it is difficult to point out any definite trends in the incidence of dropouts in different months; (iii) in every alternate month, from October 1955 to March 1956, there is a steep fall in the number of dropouts; (iv) the incidence of dropouts in standard I is alarmingly high; out of every 100 children on rolls in the first standard twentythree children drop-out in six months time and about one in every four children in the class either terminates his studies or has his studies interrupted within a period varying from one to seven months of the commencement of schooling; (v) the percentage of dropouts falls sharply from twentythree percent in standard I to fourteen percent in standard II and goes on decreasing upto standard IV; (vi) though the loss in numbers in the first four standards varies from class to class, it must be admitted that there is considerable wastage in all classes, especially in the first two standards; (vii) there is an extremely high number of absentees in standard I and steps should be taken to raise the daily attendance in this class; (viii) children who are older by two years or more than the average of the class leave school in large numbers before completing their lower primary education; (ix) dropouts in two age groups (6 to 11 and above 11 years of age) are found to be in the proportion of seventytwo percent and twentyeight percent; (x) one child in every five, in the first four standards, is above the age of eleven years and moreover, in standards III and IV, out of every eleven children, five are over age; in standard IV, the number of over age children is about twice as much as that of compulsory age; (xi) incidence of dropouts, among over age children, in standard I, is very high; (xii) in the compulsory age group, the incidence of dropping out is 16.8 percent among boys as against 19.4 percent in the case of girls; (xiii) the dropouts in standard I, in the compulsory age group, are numerically larger than the total dropouts in all the other standards, 56.4 percent in standard I and 43.6 percent in the other standards; (xiv) the number of dropouts in the compulsory age group progressively decreases in successive standards from 56.4 percent in standard I to 6.2 percent in standard IV; (xv) in the over age group the incidence of dropouts is numerically highest in standards IV and V; (xvi) in the compulsory age group, migration to native place is responsible for the dropping out of fortythree percent students; (xvii) truancy, which is responsi-

ble for 11.12 percent dropouts, ranks first among the reasons for dropping out, is followed by gainful employment at 3.11 percent, illness at 2.07 percent; and negligence of parents at 1.63 percent; (xviii) truancy is more frequent in the case of boys (13.5 percent) than in the case of girls (9.0 percent); (xix) in the over age group, the inability of parents to pay fees is the most frequent reason for the dropping out of children from school; and (xx) girls marry at a much earlier age than the boys and therefore, 3.9 percent of the girls dropout on account of marriage.

616. *BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION, Study of the Extent and Causes of Non-attendance of Compulsory Age Children in ten Different Localities in Greater Bombay (Total Population of 48,086), Primary Education Department, 1957.*

In view of the findings of Worli survey, it was decided by the Research Advisory Committee that a larger sample should be studied in verification of the results obtained in the above cited survey.

The different localities in Greater Bombay were selected by restricted random sampling. The areas were selected mainly on the basis of the socio-economic condition of the people in the locality. The restrictions imposed being (i) representation of very poor, poor, middle and richer classes in the sample should, roughly, be in proportion to that found in Greater Bombay, and (ii) various industrial and commercial labour and different language groups should be included in the sample. The total population surveyed was 48,086. A proforma was developed. Enumerators visited every household to get all the data about the compulsory age children and the adult population in the localities.

The findings of the survey revealed that (i) the total number of compulsory age children, i.e., children between the age of 6 and 11 years, enumerated was 4,969 (2,623 boys and 2,346 girls); (ii) the percentage of boys and girls to the total compulsory age children was 52.8 and 47.2, respectively; (iii) of the 4,969 compulsory age children enumerated in the survey, 960 (388 boys and 572 girls) were found to be non-attending; (iv) on account of factors like domestic work, looking after younger children at home and the education of girls was far behind that of boys even in the young and immature age group 6 to 11 years; (v) the incidence of nonattendance was very high in poorer areas and out of every 100 children of compulsory age, on an average, twentyfour were not at-

tending school due to various reasons; (vi) in the second (middle class) income group, on an average, out of every 100 compulsory age children, eight children were out of school; (vii) for the whole of Greater Bombay, only eightyone out of every 100 children of compulsory age received primary education, whereas remaining nineteen either had no schooling at all or had a different education ranging over a period of two months to about two years; (viii) one of the factors that was responsible for increased non-attendance was the continuous coming into going out of Bombay of a number of children and it was found, in the survey, that the incidence of nonattendance, due to this factor, was much lower than what was popularly believed; (ix) the incidence of non-attendance was much higher in the age group 6-7 years and 7-8 years than that in the age range 8-11 years; (x) the percentage of nonattending children decreased from year to year in each successive higher age group; (xi) both the present survey and the earlier survey (Worli) conclusively show that the incidence of nonattendance was remarkably high in the age group 6-8 years; (xii) out of every 100 non-attending children forty were boys and sixty were girls; (xiii) in case of both boys and girls, the number of nonattending children as well as the percentage of nonattendance steadily decreased with increase in the compulsory age group; in the case of boys the percentage of nonattendance dropped from 29.9 to 6.2 and in the case of girls from 37.5 to 14.6; (xiv) a marked variation was observed in the percentage of nonattending children to the compulsory age children in the different areas under survey, for instance, in the 6-7 years group the nonattendance varied from a figure as high as fiftyeight percent in the Colaba areas to as low as seven percent in Khar; (xv) about forty to fortyfive children, out of every 150 children, of compulsory age in the poor localities in Bombay either did not receive any education at all or got unsatisfactory and irregular schooling for short periods of time which more or less left them illiterate; (xvi) fifty percent of the non-attending boys and fortytwo percent of the non-attending girls did not go to school on account of lack of accommodation in nearby schools; (xvii) negligence of parents ranked highest and kept one in every four nonattending children from schooling; (xviii) domestic work at home, looking after younger children, extreme poverty, doing odd jobs to supplement family income, truancy and migration were reasons for nonattendance of compulsory age children; and (xix) major reasons which were responsible for about eightyfive percent dropouts were: (a) negligence, (b) no accommodation in school, (c)

domestic work, (d) looking after younger children, (e) admission refused on technical grounds, and (f) truancy and stay at native place intermittantly.

617. *BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION, Observation on the Census of compulsory age group children, conducted by the Education Department in Worli, 1955, Research Unit, Primary Education Department, Bombay, 1958.*

During the course of the educational survey in Worli, it was found that out of every 100 children of compulsory age group, about thirtynine children were out of school whereas the usual census conducted by the Education Department in January 1955 showed less than fifteen percent nonattending children. A comparative study of the data collected during the two census, was made, firstly by checking up the names of children who were listed as nonattending in the selected areas in both the census and secondly, by checking up 1,400 children (out of a total of 1,892 enumerated) listed in the 1955 census of the education department and finding out, by personal contact with each individual child, the number of children who had failed to join school and the reasons for such failure are given below.

Findings of the study revealed that according to the educational survey conducted by the Research Unit, the number of nonattending children of compulsory age of the Worli area, was estimated to be 2,866 after making liberal allowance for children of higher income groups all of whom were assumed to be attending schools. As against this estimate, the number enumerated as nonattending, in 1955 census was only 1,380 which is less than half (fortyeight percent to be exact) the expected number according to the new estimate. This difference cannot be ascribed to any other reason except that the earlier census had failed to enumerate more than half the number of nonattending children. The fact that 58.5 percent of the children enumerated during 1955 census failed to join school stresses the need for active follow-up of children enumerated in the census. It was found that 184 children, i.e., 22.5 percent, did not join school as they had gone to their native places for short or long periods since February 1955 when the census was taken. Majority of these children could have joined school as in most cases the stay outside Bombay had been at the most for a months or two. They could have taken the school leaving certificate while going out of

Bombay. It is mainly the indifference of the parents that is responsible for the nonattendance of these children and should be checked. Out of 818 non-attending children, 133, i.e., 16.2 percent, came to enroll themselves after 15th September, the last date for admission, due to their parents' ignorance of the last date. It is necessary, therefore, that widespread propaganda should be made to inform the parents of the last date for admission. Domestic work and the unwillingness of parents to send their children unaccompanied to school are the two next major causes for nonattendance. The former affects mostly girls and the latter is true in the case of younger children between 6 and 8 years. Gainful employment is found only in a very small fraction of the total nonattending children.

618. *BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION, Parallel Classes in Municipal Schools, Primary Education Department, 1966.*

This experiment was prompted by the need for a convenient yet scientific and suitable method for dealing effectively with failures and under-achievers in different subjects of the curriculum. Since the lag in the educational achievement of children who fail is generally not more than six months, they were streamed for instruction in parallel classes. The purpose of conducting the experiment was to reduce the incidence of stagnation and raise the standard of achievement in municipal schools; to save failures from wastage of a year and the mental setback due to the repetition of the class. The study also attempted to find: (i) to what extent child gains academically or otherwise through such parallel classes; (ii) at what stage in primary education it is more advantageous to have parallel classes; (iii) what are the administrative difficulties involved in starting such classes; (iv) whether these classes improve class attendance of the children. Five groups of 1030 students who failed in different standards were taken up for study. Their performance was studied, comparatively, to ascertain the extent of worthiness of the problem undertaken. Teachers in charge of such classes were trained for the purpose. They were instructed in the preparation of progress records, in assessment, and in teaching aids, etc. They were asked to elicit cooperation of the parents in this matter. On completion of the experiment, on the basis of results, 13.2 percent children were sent back to their previous classes and 61.1 percent were allowed to continue in regular higher

standards. Twentyfive percent found unfit for promotion were retained for further experimentation.

The suggestions given were that parallel classes can, advantageously, be started in standards I, II, and III and care should be taken that children get grounding in all subjects. The number of children in each class should be around 40 and they should be enrolled after final examination. Syllabus for such classes should consist of unfinished portion of the previous year and it should be covered early in the first term and the remaining part in the second term.

619. *BOMBAY MUNICIPAL CORPORATION, Study of the Incidence of Wastage and Stagnation and the Effectiveness of our Educational Efforts, Primary Education Department, 1967.*

The objective of the study was to determine the extent of wastage and stagnation in primary schools, the reasons for such wastage, the relation, if any, between stagnation and wastage, their relation to the age of the children, the subjects in which the children commonly fail, the reasons thereof, and other similar aspects of the problem.

About 6400 children selected from seventeen schools from years 1950 to 1958 were assigned to six groups so as to find out, by a comparative study, the performance of various groups.

It was found that percentage of children who left school fell from 43.3 to 21.4 in the years 1956 to 1958. About 86.6 percent of children continued in the school in 1957-58 after joining the school. It shows that wastage due to dropping out has been considerably reduced. It was also found that 92.9 percent children left school after one failure in 1957 as against 49.7 percent in 1950, and 3.46 percent left school, after passing as against 6.51 percent. This shows an intimate relationship between stagnation and wastage.

620. *CHICKERMANE, D. V., An Experimental Study of Teaching in Single-Teacher Schools, G. K. Institute of Rural Education, Gargoti 1964. (NCERT financed)*

The study sought to examine the working of single-teacher schools and to evolve certain methods of work for them.

One single-teacher school was selected as experimental group for implementing a specially drawn-up programme, and some other schools, where the existing pattern of work was being followed, served as the control group of schools. The programme lasted for one full academic year. The work of the experimental school was periodically evaluated and at the end of the year, a common evaluation test was given. The programme of work given to the experimental school consisted of two parts, viz., (i) organisation of work, and (ii) teaching methods. The students in the experimental school were divided into four classes and four houses. The classes were formed on the basis of pupils' attainments. This was a horizontal distribution with an average age of seven, eight, nine and ten years, respectively, for classes I, II, III and IV. This type of class distribution was used for instructional purposes. The other type of grouping was the house system. A house consisted of pupils from all the classes. The first house consisted of three pupils from class IV, three from class III, and four pupils each from classes II and I. The other houses were also formed on the same lines. Seating arrangements in the experimental school were organised on both these bases. For different classes, a corner was allotted in the room with a blackboard placed against the corner. The children sat around the blackboard in a semicircle. Since the number of pupils in each class was small, they sat close to the blackboard. In fair weather, the classes moved under the shade of the trees. For houses, the children sat in a rectangular form, each house being seated along a wall. This left the place in the middle open for activities. The time table for the experimental school provided for three types of work, namely, activities, teaching and self-study. To avoid fatigue, the duration of period was fixed at fifteen minutes. When a longer duration was required for games or craft work, two or more periods were combined. The experimental school worked in two sessions, morning and afternoon. This provided for a long break of four and a half hours, from 10-30 a.m. to 3-00 p.m. The time table was flexible. The morning session was devoted to activities and the afternoon session was utilized for academic work, teaching and self-study. A special feature of the time table was the Saturday outing to visit and study the local post office, village temple, market, etc., in turn. In addition to the routine time table as above, on holidays and Sundays the children observed special cultural programmes and celebrations like national days and religious festivals in the locality. They also did gardening and clay work and produced manuscript magazines as activities in their

spare time in addition to the activity in the school hours. The instructional programme fell into three closely knit divisions—activities, teaching, and assignments for self-study. The activities included those leading to health education, to knowledge of the physical and social environments, to love for art and music and those intended to develop mastery over the tools of knowledge, such as reading, writing, etc. Teaching was generally restricted to the three R's, and general information. The self-study programme was run simultaneously with the teaching programme. When one class was under instruction, the other three classes were busy in assignments. The curriculum of the experimental school was rural-centred with provision for a number of activities. Internal evaluation was conducted by quarterly tests. The tests were of the objective type, requiring short answers. There was one continuous test for the whole group so that children could attempt questions meant for higher classes as well. The quarterly tests were followed by an external evaluation test at the end of the year. This test consisted of 100 items, printed on sheets, and covering the three areas, namely, the mother tongue, arithmetic and general information.

The results showed that the children in the experimental school had made greater progress than those in other schools, both single-teacher and multi-teacher, and that the technique under experiment was well-suited to the improvement of single-teacher schools.

621. COLON, J. *A Study of the reasons why Students of the Faculties of Arts and Commerce of Gujarat University fail to complete the Courses of Studies within Four Years*, Ph.D. Edu., Guj. U., 1963.

The study attempted to enquire into the causes of wastage in college education among the students of the arts and commerce colleges of Ahmedabad city. The investigator defined wastage as 'apparent wastage' and 'clear wastage'. 'Apparent wastage' includes those cases of students who graduate after a delay of one or more years, whereas 'clear wastage' is referred to as discontinuance of studies.

The enquiry was conducted on a sample of nearly 5000 students who failed to graduate in a normal period of four years after their joining the first year class in the college in the faculties of arts and commerce. The techniques used for data collection were questionnaire and interview. 1210 students responded. While analysing the data

it was revealed that students of twenty years and above responded less. Muslim students responded more than Hindus and Jains, the high achievers at the S.S.C. examinations responded more than the low achievers, more married students responded than the unmarried ones, and the students from urban areas responded more than the students coming from rural areas. The analysis included calculation of percentages.

The results revealed that: (i) the faculty of commerce had a much higher apparent wastage (83.9 percent) as compared to the faculty of arts; (ii) both the apparent wastage and clear wastage increased with the age at entry but the apparent wastage grew in a constant proportion and at a higher rate, whereas clear wastage increased in a smaller proportion and after reaching the highest point in the age group twentyone, it remained constant; (iii) apparent wastage was found higher in the S.S.C. groups below 45 percent marks, whereas clear wastage was not found to be connected with low marks in S.S.C. examination; (iv) both the apparent and the clear wastage were found to be higher among married students as compared to the unmarried ones of either sex; (v) richer students of both the arts and the commerce faculties abandoned studies at a lower rate than the economically poorer students; (vi) stagnation on account of failures was higher in commerce (97.48) than in arts (72.07); (vii) almost the same proportions of failure occurred in both the faculties at the various examinations; (viii) interruption of studies was a very common factor of stagnation in arts but it was rather rare in commerce; (ix) causes of failure in the arts faculty, in order of intensity, were finance, and family problems, and neglect of studies while in commerce faculty the order was negligence of studies, financial and family problems; and (x) financial problems, failure in examination and finding a job were the causes given for discontinuation of studies.

622.. DANDEKAR, V. M., *Investigation into Wastage and Stagnation in Primary Education in Satara District, Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona, 1955.*

The study was designed to find out the wastage and stagnation in primary education in Satara district.

The terms, wastage and stagnation, were defined and two questionnaires were prepared: one relating to the individual student and his guardian and the other relating to the conditions in the selected

village schools. The first questionnaire completely covered both the wastage and stagnation enquiries. After a thorough discussion with inspectors and supervisors, the questionnaire schedules were revised, rearranged and sent to the headmasters. The obtained data was analysed. 1,778 cases of wastage and 1,264 cases of stagnation were studied. The sample was selected from the ex-pupils who had left the schools not more than three years ago and were selected from six talukas of Satara district which included twenty percent of the total population. The conditions in the voluntary schools were also examined and were compared with those prevailing in the local board schools. Causes underlying the wastage and stagnation were also discussed.

The study reveals that of every 10,000 students entering the school system, 6,388 pass standard III and 3,612 leave school without passing it. Of these, 1,932 leave in infant class, 706 leave in standard I, 504 leave in standard II, and 470 leave in standard III. Of the 6,388 who pass standard III, 1,810 pass without a single failure in the school career, 1,768 pass with one failure, and 2,810 pass with two or more failures. Of these, 1,405 meet their second failure in infant class, 527 in standard I, 458 in standard II and 420 in standard III. Considered from the point of view of number of students failing to complete the third standard, 26.12 percent students are to be considered as wastage cases. Of the total educational efforts expanded on the infant class and the first three standards, about twentyeight percent is ultimately wasted, while of the remaining, about twentyeight percent is due to the phenomenon of stagnation. As compared with the local board schools, the extent of wastage in voluntary schools is actually smaller in the infant class, but it is increasingly greater in higher standards. On the other hand, stagnation appears more prevalent in the infant class, but less so in the higher standards.

623. DAS, R. C., *An Investigation into the Problem of Wastage and Stagnation at the Primary Level of Education in the district of Sibsagar, D.Phil. Edu., Gau. U., 1970.*

The study is an investigation into the problem of wastage and stagnation at the primary level of education in the district of Sibsagar, Assam. The main objectives of this study were: (i) to ascertain the extent of the problem in the district and its variations under a variety of situations; (ii) to identify the causes and their relative importance; and (iii) to suggest appropriate remedial measures.

The basic approach in this study is to consider the children who could not complete the primary level of education in five years (primary stage in Assam consists of five grades) and to locate reason or reasons for educational wastage. The investigator selected representative areas of the Sibsagar district and included all the primary level institutions in the selected areas of the district for field survey. About seventy-eight percent of the schools responded. The fresh students in 1963 were followed for five years for the calculation of wastage and stagnation. The number of pupils who dropped out and who were detained were calculated both classwise and sex-wise and expressed as percentage of the total strength of the pupils. The causes of wastage and stagnation were indirectly determined by asking the teachers and some inspecting officers and teacher educators by checking the appropriate causes from a list of all plausible causes. A proforma and information sheet for stagnation index and an opinionnaire were used to collect all information and for calculating stagnation index and to ascertain the relative importance of causes of wastage and stagnation. The causes were ranked after testing the significance of concordance coefficients among the three judges. The variations in the extent of the problem were studied in respect of a number of variables such as location, type of schools, number of teachers, type of management, training, qualification, age, experience, sex of teachers, physical facilities in schools, economic conditions, caste composition of the people in the society, etc.

It was found that the incidence of wastage and stagnation was 76.27 percent—14.24 percent wastage and 62.03 percent stagnation — in the district. The incidence of wastage and stagnation was found to be higher in the southern region than in the northern region of the district. The rate of wastage and stagnation for the rural areas was 77.91 percent while that for the urban areas was 63.22 percent and the difference was statistically significant. In classwise break-up, highest incidence was 34.48 percent in class A (lowest class) and lowest was 6.24 percent in class I, followed closely by 6.73 percent in class III. The stagnation indices in scheduled tribe community area were 86.54 percent (boys) and 89.74 percent (girls), whereas in non-scheduled tribe areas they were 74.0 percent (boys) and 75.18 percent (girls).

It was also found that poverty and economic backwardness claimed firstrank among forty causes that were found to be responsible for wastage at the primary stage. Backward society and non-stimulating social environment, illiterate parents and guardians,

and untrained teachers claimed the 5th rank, 14th rank and 32nd rank, respectively. In general, socio-economic causes were more responsible for wastage and educational causes were more responsible for stagnation.

624. *DESAI, D. B., Evaluation of Secondary Schools of Gujarat, Saurashtra, and Kutch, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1966.*

The objectives of this research were: (i) to conduct an evaluative survey of the present position of secondary schools of Gujarat state and (ii) to study the problems connected with secondary schools and to offer suggestions for their better functioning.

An evaluation tool was constructed covering aspects of physical facilities in the school, teaching-learning programmes, cocurricular programmes, organisational design and evaluation programmes. For data collection, an interview schedule was also prepared. One hundred and twenty-seven schools in the state were selected as sample for this study. Supervisors, teachers and headmasters were interviewed. Grades for each school were computed and inter-district comparisons were made.

The study reveals that (i) there is a general lack of awareness of the purpose of education in all the teachers; (ii) community is ignorant of the usefulness and purposefulness of education; (iii) position of physical facilities is generally satisfactory in all the schools; (iv) there are some progressive schools which provide toilet rooms, cycle shades, auditorium, lunchroom, etc.; (v) majority of the schools follow departmental rules for staff recruitment; (vi) teachers' first degree subjects and professional degree subjects are the criteria for distributing work load in school; (vii) half of the schools have periodical staff meetings for discussion of various academic and organisational problems of the school; (viii) budgets are planned in advance in some schools only; (ix) it is a common feature in all the schools that they run on deficit budget; and (x) missionary schools and public trust schools are economically stable.

The investigator has suggested that (i) people who are connected with the secondary education in the state should be given orientation about the values and objectives of education; (ii) state level advisory committee be set up with the eminent educationists to direct the activities; (iii) the teacher training colleges and the school inspectors should organise the teacher associations to discuss academic and classroom functional problems; (iv) there should be sepa-

rate accounts staff to audit the school accounts; (v) institutional evaluation programme, if earnestly taken up, will help increase self awareness among all concerned.

625. *DĒSAI, D. M., Compulsory Primary Education in India, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1951.*

The principal aim of the present investigation was to study in depth the problem of universal, compulsory, free and secular education in general and primary education in particular in India.

The problem of compulsory primary education was investigated from several angles keeping in mind the needs of the teeming millions, background of the educational practice under British rule in India, and the present day cherished political ideals. For convenience the study was divided into three parts. Part one dealt with the philosophy of education, part two, historical aspect, and part three, the future reconstruction of compulsory primary education. Government records, minutes of the committee meetings, views expressed by the national leaders on the subject both inside and outside the assemblies and other related literature formed the source material for data collection. Data were also collected from foreign journals and literature.

Part I, i.e., philosophy of education, expounded the ideas such as universalism in education, universalism of primary education, how universalism was lost and came into being again after some time, contribution of monarchic rule to the universalism of education, labour demands of education, factory legislation, and contribution of democracy to evolution of the concept of universalism in education.

In part two, the study dealt with the salient features of compulsory educational practices in countries like, U.S.A., U.K., Philippines, U.S.S.R., China, Egypt and Germany with special reference to Martin Luther's teaching who believed that every child ought to learn to read and write in order that he might be able to read the scripture for himself. In the final part the author discussed that the foreign rule in India introduced the education of the classes but not of the masses and this prompted the leaders to adopt the idea of the compulsory primary education. And also the social, economical and political forces were responsible to a great extent for the introduction of the primary education. Swami Vivekananda, Surendranath Banerjee, B. M. Malbari, Mahadeo Govind Ranade, P. Ananda Charlu, Lal Mohan Ghose, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, etc., were the pioneers in the move-

ment and they waged great battles both inside and outside the legislatures to make the government of the day accept the responsibility for the introduction of free primary education in the country. Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola pleaded for the introduction of free and compulsory primary education in Bombay city. Likewise, Chimanlal Setalvad, Gopal Krishna Gokhale made herculean attempts to make government accept the principle of compulsory primary education but only to meet with failure. Vithalbhai Patel introduced a bill in Bombay Provincial Assembly and it was adopted in 1918. This was the first milestone in the ongoing journey. It has since then become a welcome sign all over the country and many provincial legislatures followed suit. Between 1917 and 1950 almost all the states in the country had passed legislations regarding compulsory primary education and the principles of free education were tentatively accepted by adapting measures to ensure that inability to pay school fees did not become an excuse for not sending children to school. Realisation of the importance of the compulsory primary education is one thing and the ability to provide for it is quite another thing. West Bengal, for example, though adopted the measures as early as in 1919, only in one ward of Calcutta city, they were able to introduce compulsory education. Same was the case in almost all the states. The only area which had shown effective progress was Bombay which introduced compulsory education in 104 towns and 5,267 villages.

The author has divided the whole history of universal, compulsory and free primary education in six periods. The first period began in 1813, when the government accepted their responsibility for the education of the people, and ended in 1882 when the Indian Education Commission was appointed. The second period extends from 1882 to 1910, when Gokhale moved his resolution on compulsory education. During this period, the agitation for the introduction of compulsory education was taken by Indian leaders but the success achieved was very little mainly due to the fact that public opinion had not gathered sufficient strength to influence the policies of the government. It was during this period that His Highness the Maharaja Sayajirao of Baroda introduced compulsory primary education as an 'experimental measure' in a part of his state in 1893. It was extended to the whole state in 1906. The third period extends from 1910 to 1917 and covers the heroic, though almost futile, attempts of Gokhale to induce the government to accept the principle of compulsory primary education. The fourth period extends from 1917 to 1930, when the

principle of compulsory education was accepted by one province after another and a law for compulsory education was placed on the statute book of almost every province in British India as well as some important Indian states. The fifth stage extends from 1930 to 1950, when compulsory education was introduced as an experimental measure in a few areas. During the sixth stage determined efforts have been made to introduce compulsory education in all parts of the country within as short a period as possible so as to implement Article 45 of the Constitution of India.

The lack of enthusiasm for the effective introduction of the compulsory primary education could be traced to the following factors: (i) financial difficulties of all the state governments to take up such a huge project; (ii) Hartog committee report changed the attitude of the state governments; (iii) the act left the position vague to enable the state governments to introduce compulsory education either for boys or for girls or for both; (iv) the law was powerless in the case of those who were too poor to send their children to school; (v) the estimated cost of introduction of the scheme was so high that it was absolutely beyond practical finances.

The study also referred to the problems in educational administration such as admission and withdrawals, single-teacher schools, securing necessary teaching personnel for rural areas, and the problem of supervision.

626. *DESAI, K. G., Comparison of Levels of Achievement in Academic subjects and of Developmental Tasks of Primary School Pupils who have attended Kindergarten School for two years before joining Primary School with those who have not, Dept. of Edu., Guj. U., 1970.*

This is a comparative study of levels of academic achievement and developmental tasks of children who have attended a kindergarten school for two years before joining primary schools and those who have not. The hypothesis tested was: the levels of achievement, in academic subjects and of developmental tasks to be learnt during the primary stage, of the pupils who have attended a kindergarten school for two years are no better than those of the pupils who have not attended a kindergarten school before joining the primary school.

Five primary schools having their own kindergarten classes of two years attached to them were selected for the investigation. One more primary school which had no kindergarten class attached was also

selected for comparison purpose. Two lists of pupils studying in grade IV in these schools, those who had two years of education in the kindergarten class and those who did not have kindergarten education, were prepared. In the five schools with kindergarten classes attached to them, only those pupils who had attended kindergarten classes of the respective schools were selected. This was done to eliminate teacher, school and environmental effects. In the sixth school which had no kindergarten class of its own, the group consisted of pupils who had attended all types of balwadies and were taught by different teachers. This was done to study the effect of teacher, school and environment variables. In all, 184 students participated in the study. All pupils of the two groups were administered the J.H. Shah's Gujarati adaptation of Stanford-Binet Scale—1960 revision. Two groups of pupils—(i) having kindergarten education, and (ii) not having any kindergarten education, were set up in each of the six schools matched one to one on the basis of IQs. Four achievement tests in Gujarati, social studies, science and arithmetic based on the syllabus were constructed and standardised. A personality rating scale covering certain testable developmental tasks was prepared. The four achievement tests and a handwriting scale standardised by the investigator were administered to pupils of both the groups and their individual scores on the tests were obtained. After being oriented to the use of the personality scale the teachers rated the individual pupils on the scale.

The study revealed that (i) of the twentyfour comparisons made for six equivalent groups and for four subjects, in case of only three comparisons, differences were found to be significant; (ii) none of the six schools showed any significant difference between the handwriting of the two groups; (iii) in the case of personality traits, three schools showed significant differences between the groups and three did not show any significant difference. In two schools, the pupils with kindergarten education were found better on the rating scale, while in one school those without kindergarten education were found better. The evidence is inconclusive on the whole.

627. *DESAI, L. R., and DESAI, K. G., An Investigation into the Wastage in Secondary Education in Gujarat, A.G. Teachers' College, Ahmedabad, 1957.*

The problem under investigation was to observe how much wastage is there in secondary education, what factors contribute to this wastage and how it can be minimised.

The investigation was done in two stages: (a) the pilot study was undertaken to chalk out the scheme of inquiry into the problem of wastage. The information regarding the number of pupils admitted to standard V in 1948 and 1949, age, caste and religion of the pupil, number of pupils who migrated to other schools, number of pupils who left studies before completion of their secondary school career, number of pupils stagnated at any stage and the number of pupils who passed the S.S.C. examination of March, 1955 was collected from a progressive school in Ahmedabad. In order to ascertain why pupils leave school before completing their course, some of the school leavers were contacted personally. For the main investigation, a random sample was drawn from 190 secondary schools in ten districts of Gujarat. The sample consisted 1658 pupils (1310 boys and 348 girls). A form was sent to the heads of the schools to provide information regarding age of the pupils, religion, caste and year to year progress of pupils.

Analysis of the data showed that out of 1658 pupils, 265 had migrated to other schools without being detained in any class and nine expired. Neglecting these 274 pupils the investigation was based on 1384 pupils. Out of them 273 passed the S.S.C. examination of March, 1955, which gave the percentage of apparent wastage as 80.3. As many as 582 pupils left their studies before completing their secondary school career. Thus, the clear wastage appeared to be 42.1 percent. It was found that (i) only 11.7 percent of the pupils entering standard V of the secondary school appeared to pass the final S.S.C. examination at the end of seven years. It meant that there was an apparent wastage of 80.3 percent in secondary education. Apparent wastage included the cases of stagnation. (ii) The percentage of clear wastage was found to be fortytwo. (iii) The amount of real wastage was found to be 31.3 percent. (iv) The apparent and clear wastage were found to be slightly more in the case of girls. (v) Wastage was found to be more in backward districts. (vi) Wastage figures for advanced Hindu and Jain communities were much lower than average figures, whereas those for the intermediate and backward Hindus as well as Muslims were much higher than the average. (vii) Failures in different grade examinations and the consequent detention caused clear wastage. (viii) Detentions were found more in the case of boys. (ix) Standards V, VIII, IX and XI showed the greatest number of detentions. (x) Pupils were found to be failing more in English, mathematics, history and geography than in other subjects. (xi) About thirty percent of the school leavers left school in the very first grade, namely, standard

V. A large number was also seen leaving school in standard VIII. (xii) The tendency to leave the school increased with the age of entrance to school. (xiii) The factor of age in causing dropouts affected girls more than boys. The causes of wastage were ineffective administration and control of compulsory primary education, socio-economic condition of the parents, social indifference towards the education of girls, unsound foundation of primary education, less intellectual children, need of helping the parents in household duties, etc. It can be suggested that screening at the time of admission should be done, teaching and methods of education should be improved, and the contents of instruction at different grades should be improved.

628. *ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING INSTITUTE. An Investigation into the Difficulties in the Teaching of English in Junior High Schools and the Causes of Deterioration in the Standard of Attainment at that Level, with Suggestions for Improvement, Allahabad, 1969.*

In the context of progressive deterioration of the standard of attainment in English, the present study intended to find out certain tangible difficulties and causes of a purely pedagogical and organisational nature contributing greatly towards such a state of affairs.

Data were collected from fifty schools within Allahabad district, by means of (i) issuing a questionnaire covering the relevant aspects of English teaching in schools, and (ii) visits to some of these schools for actual observation of the English classes and for personal discussion with the heads and English teachers. The schools were selected from both the rural and urban areas, and these were schools with poor equipment and students from poor families as well as those with better equipment and less handicapped students. Replies to questionnaires were received from only nineteen schools, of which four had been actually visited.

The findings reveal that (i) the examination results for the years concerned range from ninetyfive percent to twentyfive percent; (ii) only five out of nineteen schools claim that they are using the structural approach, another five claim to be using the direct method, the others appear to be using two or more kinds of methods simultaneously; (iii) in fifteen schools they are not using any graded readers; (iv) as many as ten of these schools do not have trained teachers; (v) thirteen schools do not have English in the primary sections; (vi) nine schools hold their

own examination for class VIII; (vii) the predominant occupation of parents is agriculture; (viii) junior high schools not attached to high schools or intermediate colleges have poorer standards because of the non-availability of trained staff to teach English, the teachers in such schools having neither a command over the language nor any idea of the techniques required for teaching a foreign tongue; (ix) there is no plan for written work and it is treated as a separate skill from speaking and reading; (x) question papers set by most of these schools do not test language ability; and (xi) there is no correlation between the pass percentage and actual standards in the use of different skills, and as a result, the school is able to convey a false impression of its achievements. Requisite number of periods per week in the time table, employment of trained teacher for teaching English, banning unauthorised books on English, producing a series of work-books based on J.H.S. syllabus by E.L.T.I., occasional school inspection with pedagogical help to the teachers in teaching English, according to the prescribed syllabus effecting reforms in the question papers in English, emphasis on skill rather than on content in teaching the language, more coordination at all levels and better cooperation between the schools and the inspecting authorities, are some of the suggestions for improvement.

629. *EZEKIEL, N., Teacher Participation in School Administration in Greater Bombay, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1966.*

The purpose of this investigation was to ascertain conditions and describe situations conducive to effective participation by teachers in administration, and to study the philosophy underlying the theory and practice of participation in administration on the part of teachers.

The study was conducted on a sample of 720 teachers with a minimum teaching experience of five years and 304 administrators with a minimum experience of one year taken from 120 selected schools. A questionnaire was prepared and used for the purpose.

The study reveals that (i) democracy in administration has been advocated for the past twenty years and there are evidences of a change in the direction; (ii) all the phases of administration did not lend themselves to participation; (iii) matters of large general concern usually occupy the centre of attention of such cooperation and such group participation; (iv) the correctional survey of

the current school administration literature, principally of democratic school administration reveals that (a) democratic attitudes, skills are learned through democratic experience; (b) democracy implies that the individual should have a say in determining the aims and conditions of his own work; (c) democratic school administration facilitates improved communication, whereas the authoritarian method violates the above principle; (d) decentralisation of large groups or organisation into subgroups tends to increase democracy, whereas undemocratic methods tend to introduce feelings of threat; (e) democratic participation fosters initiative and creativity; (f) for successful and fruitful implementation of democratic participation complete understanding is necessary on the part of all concerned; and (iv) as a philosophy the cooperative action characterises itself with idea of participation phrased as (a) teacher participation in school administration is a democratic form of administration and is desirable, (b) cooperation as a sharing of common responsibility is more desirable than coordination which may be effected through the most dictatorial means also, (c) participation is essentially an attitude of mind and not a form of organisation, (d) collective thinking should be used as a means to arrive at a conclusion, (e) there must be some centre of responsibility and authority in school administration, and (f) participation should be voluntary and should imply a certain responsibility.

630. *GUPTA, M., Problems of Higher Secondary Schools of Agra District, Ph.D. Edu., Agra U., 1967.*

The main objective of the study was to find out the curricular and financial problems of higher secondary schools of Agra district, thereby, determining the factors for the poor quality in education. Another purpose was to find out whether there was any relationship between curricular and financial problems.

The sample of the study comprised all the sixty-four higher secondary schools of Agra district. Research tools and techniques used in this study were the questionnaire, interview and analysis of documents.

The study revealed that (i) the grant-in-aid was the main source of income meeting 39.9 percent of the recurring expenditure of these schools; (ii) tuition fee covered 54.5 to 59.7 percent of the total recurring expenditure; for the remaining expenditure, schools had to depend on grants and contributions;

(iii) principals, managers and teachers were in favour of increasing the fee, some guardians and students also favoured the view provided good education was guaranteed; principals and managers preferred a sliding scale of fee according to income of the family as the criterion for increasing the fee; (iv) only 3.5 to 5.3 percent of total recurring expenditure was on educational contingencies which indicated poor provision for equipment, laboratories, libraries and other facilities for teaching; (v) 9.34 percent of schools were under private management and the private management was found to be responsible for many of the problems; (vi) working and teaching days were insufficient; (vii) administrative load of work of principals was heavy because of lack of helping hands and interference of managers; (viii) there was inadequate provision for guidance to pupils in choosing subjects; (ix) forty percent of the students failed at high school and fifty percent at intermediate stage because of lack of interest, poor teaching and over emphasis on English; and (x) provision for co-curricular activities was not satisfactory.

631. INAMDAR, N. R., *Educational Administration in the Zilla Parishads in Maharashtra: A Pilot study*. ICSSR, New Delhi, 1971.

The objectives of the study were: (i) to examine the effects of the agency of the Zilla Parishad on education, particularly primary education, and (ii) to assess the role of the rural leadership in promoting the cause of primary education. The following were the hypotheses of the study: (i) the Zilla Parishads had been able to tackle the expansion of primary education, but the quality of education had suffered; (ii) wide spread interference from elected office bearers and other popular elements in educational administration was present specially in matters like teachers' transfers, particularly during early years, resulting in dislocation of stable functioning of schools and other aspects of educational administration; harmonious relationship between the educational administrators and the generalists depended on personal factors such as the atmosphere of understanding among the elected office bearers and other popular elements in the Zilla Parishads; (iv) the Zilla Parishads had been slack with regard to the inspection and supervision arrangements, as the identity of the educational officials was completely lost due to the dominance of the elected element; and (v) financially, Zilla Parishads had been solely dependent on the state government for the implementation of the educational programmes, and they had not been able

to find out resources commensurate with the functions entrusted to them.

Haveli Taluka of the Poona Zilla Parishad was personal approaches. Information was collected through questionnaires, informal discussions and personal approaches. Information was collected from primary school teachers, block development officers, assistant deputy educational inspectors, chief executive officer, education officer, members of the Zilla Parishad and the Haveli Taluka Panchayat Samiti. A few case studies of the primary schools in the district were undertaken to obtain an intimate knowledge of the functioning of the schools all over the district. Informal discussions with the parents of a few of the wards in the schools visited were also carried out to understand thoroughly the local situation and problems. Official records, annual reports of the Zilla Parishad and relevant government resolutions and directives were used. With a view to retesting the hypotheses, information was collected from twelve schools in the Haveli Taluka in the district of Poona, on the basis of a general proforma used in the case of schools in Haveli Taluka. The data were analysed.

It was found that all the hypotheses, except the third one, were true. The conclusions from the analysis of the data point out that the present pattern of the educational administration under the control of the Zilla Parishads is defective and that, unless a radical change is brought about in the whole pattern, there is no possibility of reforms towards the improvement of the quality of primary education in the rural areas.

632. JALIHAL, K. A., *A Study on the Concept and Role of Agricultural Universities in India*, Ph.D. Agri. Extn., IARI, 1970.

The objectives of the study were: (i) to study the key personnel's opinion on the concept and role of agricultural universities with an emphasis on the extension function; (ii) to assess the opinion of teachers of agricultural universities on the merits and demerits of the new system of education; (iii) to study the role perception of the teachers of agricultural universities in respect of the responsibilities related to the new system of education; (iv) to ascertain the problems faced by the teachers of agricultural universities in implementing the new system of education; and (v) to measure the attitude of students of agricultural universities towards the new system of education.

Based on the objectives, the study included a random sample of: (i) 105 key personnel comprising agricultural educationists, scientists and administrators from all over the country and the foreign experts, (ii) 105 teachers from three agricultural universities in Punjab, Rajasthan and Mysore, and (iii) 170 students of the said three universities. Six instruments used for collecting data were: (i) a questionnaire to study key personnel's opinion, (ii) a questionnaire based on Guttman scale to ascertain the opinion of the teachers on the merits and demerits of the new system, (iii) Q-sort method to study the role perception of the teachers in respect of their responsibilities in the new system, (iv) a simple questionnaire to ascertain teacher's problems, (v) a specially developed attitude scale based on the succession interval method to measure the students' attitude, and (vi) simple rating procedure to study the students' attitude towards the main components of the new system of education. The statistical methods and tests used for summarising and analysing data were: (i) consensus indices for nominal and continuous data, (ii) four parametric tests, viz., the standardised normal test, t test, the analysis of variance and zero order correlation, (iii) three nonparametric tests, viz., the chi-square test, Kendall Rank order correlation and Kendall coefficient of concordance, (iv) factor analysis by centroid method, and (v) index of attitudinal opposition.

The study revealed that (1-a) key personnel felt the need of agricultural university, felt the appropriateness of the teaching and research function to be carried out; (1-b) one-third of the state government administrators had doubts about the emerging pattern when majority of the key personnel felt these universities as adaptations; (1-c) all the key personnel except the foreign experts viewed that multi-campuses with constituent colleges were ideal for Indian agricultural universities; (1-d) a combination of internal and external evaluation system was preferred by these groups in place of complete internal evaluation; (1-e) adaption researches were suggested to be given to the state government departments; (1-f) the university's extension work should substitute and not supplement the extension of work of the state department; (1-g) the universities should conduct institutional as well as non-institutional training; (2-a) teachers of the agricultural universities felt that flexible curriculum, valid student assessment, scope for better teaching methods, better trained students, satisfactory student progress, practical oriented teaching and academic freedom to teachers to develop-course on line were the merits of the new system,

whereas the demerits were pressuring teachers, lack of uniformity in teaching and evaluation, poor comprehension of the subjects by the students, inconvenience to teachers and lowering of academic standards; (3-a) the teachers of the agricultural universities were conscious of the responsibilities related to teacher preparation, impartial evaluation and syllabus requirement, but were yet to perceive responsibilities in respect of effective evaluation, creative teaching by promoting self-learning activities in the students, motivating students and self-improvement; (3-b) there was a considerable similarity in the perception of teachers of different universities and of different levels of the teachers; (3-c) there was an appreciable difference in perception of teachers of various groups, for giving the course outline and class schedule to the students early in the course; (3-d) none of the teacher groups attached adequate importance to prescribing textbooks, assigning additional readings and giving home assignments; (3-e) seven teacher types were observed based on the seven factors; (4-a) the teachers of agricultural universities faced eight problems, viz., (i) burdening with clerical work without adequate clerical assistance; (ii) inadequate library facilities for the staff; (iii) difficulty in checking copying by the students; (iv) a large number of examinations; (v) over burdening of teachers with other functions like research and extension; (vi) inadequate library facilities for students; (vii) students taking things easy, and (viii) unwieldy teacher-student ratio; (5-a) the students had slightly favourable attitude towards the system of education; (5-b) there was no significant difference in the attitude scores of undergraduate students categorised university wise; (5-c) students' favourable attitude towards the new system was found significantly associated with their favourable attitude towards the grading method and Trimester/Semester courses; (5-d) 66.4 percent of the students had an unfavourable attitude towards the handling of the flexible syllabus by the teachers which indicated deficiencies on the part of the teachers.

633. KAMAT, A. R. and DESHMUKH, A. G., *Wastage in College Education, Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona, 1963.*

The present investigation was an enquiry into some aspects, including wastage and stagnation, of higher education in India, aiming at: (i) estimating wastage and stagnation among students joining various types of faculties and colleges of Poona University, in part I and (ii) analysing the failures at pre-

degree examination of the same university in the year 1961, in part II of the study.

The part I of the study considered a three-year entry (1949-51) of freshers to the Ferguson college, Poona, and followed them until they took the first degree or left education without taking it. The sample consisted of 2080 students. The data, collected from (i) the admission forms, filled in by the students, (ii) the results of the Poona University examinations, and (iii) the register of leaving certificates of the college, were recorded on cards prepared for this purpose, and then put on punched cards for analysis. The part II of the study covered all candidates, about fourteen thousand, who appeared for the predegree examination of 1961, in arts, science and commerce throughout the area of the Poona University.

The findings of the part I of the study are (i) in the period 1949-51 the number of students in arts and science has increased each year; (ii) women students form forty percent of students joining the arts class and they are much greater in number than those joining the science class; (iii) the number of married students is very small for both the sexes; (iv) the number of Marathi speaking students is not more than fifty percent of men students and more than seventy percent of women students are brahmins; (v) the number of Marathi speaking students is not negligible; (vi) concerning guardian's occupation, preponderance of the professional classes, viz., doctors, pleaders, etc. is noted; (vii) the guardians of women students have on the average higher income; (viii) science students are on the average younger than arts students while women students are younger than men students; (ix) urban students are on the average younger than the rural; (x) average age of high income group is less than its counterpart; (xi) at least ten percent of the students have no satisfactory accommodation; (xii) the estimated wastage for science students of the Poona University is forty percent approximately; (xiii) there is less stagnation among students from non-local schools than among those who come from local schools in the first stage, but the situation is reversed for the second stage and for the complete four year course where stagnation is worse among non-local students than among local students; (xiv) from a regression analysis of examination marks it is found that although S.S.C. marks may appear reasonably to be a good indicator of the capacity of students to complete college education, it may not be a good indicator of the course of his academic development and performance in college. The findings of the part II of the study reveal that (i) results at the predegree examination are as low as thirtyeight to forty percent; (ii) external

students constitute approximately twentyfive percent of the total candidates in arts and ten percent in commerce; (iii) Poona area is in a much better position to take advantage of the facility of the external examination and does in fact do so; (iv) the difference in effectiveness of the condonation rules as applied to science candidates on one hand and arts and commerce candidates on the other is quite substantial; (v) predegree science course seems to be more difficult to cope up with than predegree arts or commerce courses; (vi) predegree examination is not merely a continuation of the S.S.C., but stands at an altogether different level; (vii) women as a group show better performance than men in all centres and at all examinations; (viii) those who pass the S.S.C. examination in March have a far better performance than those who pass in October; (ix) March batches are the regular S.S.C. batches while the October batches consist mostly of repeaters; (x) the greater proportion of failures is due to failure in three or more subjects; (xi) a large majority of failures is decisive, not marginal; (xii) failures are mainly due to general lack of preparation or lack of general equipment of the science students and not so much to vagaries of the examination or to uneven standards of examination; (xiii) English accounts for an overwhelmingly big proportion (seventy percent) of the single subject failures, other subjects contributing significantly are geography, book-keeping and mathematics; (xiv) the Poona group is the best while the group of new centres is the worst according to performance; (xv) the better the performance in English at the S.S.C. the greater is the chance of passing in English at the predegree examination; (xvi) the contribution of the science subjects at the S.S.C. seems to be important for the predegree science course mostly as far as it contributes to the general equipment of the science students and not so much to their specific equipment in the particular subject; (xvii) a large number of candidates are in favour of writing in Marathi; and (xviii) those who write their answers in Marathi have an edge over those who write in English.

634. KAUL, ADALATI, A. N., *The Role of Local Authorities in Indian Education, Ph.D. Edu., Sag. U., 1969.*

The objectives of the present study were: (i) to trace out the evolutionary growth of the local bodies with particular reference to the cause of education; and (ii) to find out how democratic decentralisation

of power helped to shape the educational patterns and growth.

Uttar Pradesh was taken as the sample of the study. This sample was considered to be typical as it represented all shades of cultures and economic patterns. Besides evolutionary growth of local bodies in India, their contribution in the field of education from 1813 to 1968 was covered in a graphic manner. As this was a historical normative survey, documents in government as well as local bodies were the main sources of information. Besides this, people connected with administration of local bodies were interviewed. Historical method was used in this investigation.

The study has brought out (i) the concept of local self-government from its humble beginning to the present status; (ii) the way in which the local bodies would serve the people, solve their problems and attend to the educational needs of their children (iii) how people have developed the political consciousness through local bodies; (iv) what contributions of local bodies help in moulding the future of masses for better life, developing leadership qualities in young generation. It is concluded that local bodies worked more efficiently and profitably than other agencies in India.

635. KAUSIK, S. L., *A Comparative Study of Teachers' Associations in Rajasthan and the Neighbouring States*. Ph.D. Edu., Udaipur, U., 1971.

The major aims of this investigation were: (i) to trace the history of growth of the Rajasthan Shikshak Sangh, the U.P. Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh, the Punjab Government Teachers' Union, the Punjab State Recognised school Teachers' Union, and the Delhi School Teachers' Association, (ii) to make a study of the pressure techniques used by these organisations and their achievements and failures in the academic fields and their role in building a status for the teaching profession, (iii) to diagnose and analyse the socio-economic and political factors which affect the functioning of these organisations, and (iv) to study the impact of these associations in the formulation of educational policies in their respective regions.

The data for the study were collected through questionnaires, interviews, attending conferences and studying the published and unpublished records.

The study revealed that (i) the early teachers' associations of India emphasised the academic aspect more than the economic betterment of teachers,

whereas in recent years the economic aspect has been finding precedence over the academic aspect; (ii) there was no evidence of their impact on educational planning; (iii) in the economic field they were successful in getting the salary scales of teachers improved, in achieving parity between government and nongovernment school teachers in the matter of salary, D.A., and other allowances, and in securing better security of service for nongovernment school teachers; (iv) a tendency of resorting more and more to strong agitational activities was clear in evidence; (v) they had failed in achieving a workable unity and ginger groups continued to emerge; (vi) financially they continued to be very poor and the only source of income was the annual membership fee which was too meagre (ranging from Rs. 1.00 to Rs. 2.00); (vii) of all the teachers' associations under study only the U.P. Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh was able to purchase its own building for its central secretariat, others did not have even rented buildings and even the central offices continued to be with the residence or place of posting of the general secretary; (viii) these associations did not favour participation in current politics but a tendency to seek help from political parties for redressing their demands was on increase; (ix) in the matter of communications, both external and internal, they continued to be lacking very much and the public at large was usually indifferent; and (x) people had certain mis-givings about their working and lacked confidence in them.

636. KHANOLKAR, D. S., *A Critical Study of Secondary School Organisation in India with special reference to Multipurpose Schools*. Ph.D. Edu., Bombay, U., 1960.

The study sought to find answers to the questions: (a) What has been the specific role of secondary education in India? (b) To what extent had the movements in secondary education abroad on one hand and the Indian social structure on the other influenced the Indian secondary schools? (c) With what general and specific purposes are multipurpose schools functioning in India?

The necessary information was collected from books on history of education and on comparative education, the annual and quinquennial educational reports of the central and the state governments and of committees appointed by government, from the education departments of the different states and the heads of different institutions. First hand information about the organisational pattern and working of

the multipurpose schools, was collected by an on-the-spot observation and study of organisational patterns, courses adopted in schools, the teaching staff, equipment, finance, major difficulties in working of the practical courses, general reactions of heads of schools, factors of location influencing the number of enrolment in schools in the states of Bombay, Mysore, Kerala, Madras, Andhra, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan.

The study revealed that (i) multipurpose schools were not new to the secondary school system, as practical courses were introduced, in some form or another, in the latter part of the 19th century; (ii) the Indian secondary school, instead of being able to influence society, had itself remained under a class and caste dominated Indian society; (iii) the multipurpose school appeared to have followed a western pattern but was found in practice to suffer from many deficiencies, in addition to those inherent in the Indian secondary school system in general.

637. KRISHNAMURTHY, S., *A Critical Study of Reforms in Educational Administration introduced in Andhra Pradesh during 1956-66*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1968.

The aims of the investigation were: (i) to make a critical analysis and appraisal of reforms in the field of educational administration introduced during 1956 to 1966; (ii) to present a comprehensive picture of the reforms so as to effect other changes better suited to the present trends in education; and (iii) to suggest various measures for the future educational administration.

Data were collected from the proceedings of the Directorate of Public Instruction, published booklets and other literature, government policies and acts, and the views expressed by the educationists. Questionnaires, information inventories, score cards, and opinionnaires were used to collect information from the offices of the education department, teachers, and the legislators.

The findings of this study reveal that (i) the reforms in Andhra Pradesh are ahead of time as the same measures are recommended by the Education Commission headed by Kothari (1966); (ii) reforms introduced so far are flexible and capable of being expanded or amended; (iii) the reforms are aimed at bringing efficiency in administration, economy in finance, and development and spread of education; (iv) wholesale interference of non-officials is evidenced which tells upon the efficiency in administration and develops unhealthy trends; (v) the re-

forms introduced are progressive measures as they are in accordance with the latest thinking in the field of educational administration; (vi) bifurcation of the directorate has not solved the problems intended to be solved; and (vii) the newly established special institutions are lacking in imposing impact on the quality of teaching. The investigator offered the following suggestions for further strengthening of the administration: (i) there is a need to define clearly the powers and responsibilities of the deputy secretaries of education in Zilla Parishads and the designation should be changed as education secretary, Zilla Parishad; (ii) he should be a trained graduate with teaching experience; (iii) experienced educationists and retired educational administrators should be associated with education under Panchayat Raj by taking them into study committees and other bodies connected with education; (iv) there should be special inspection under the control of the department to inspect the schools in Zilla Parishads; and (v) an evaluation officer should be attached to the district education officer to guide and strengthen the examination system in each district.

638. MAHAJAN, J. M., *A Study of the Supervisory Role of the Principals of Delhi Schools*, Ph.D. Edu., Del. U., 1970.

In this study, a critical examination of the supervisory role of the principals of Delhi higher secondary schools has been attempted. The study aimed at testing the following hypotheses: (i) the supervisory role has become much of a routine activity, more in tune with checking and inspection; (ii) there is a gulf between what teachers expect the principal to do and what the latter actually does; (iii) for most of the time, the principal is busy in administrative work and gets very little time for supervision of school education; and (iv) there is lack of adequate utilisation of the various school resources.

Questionnaire, interview and study of records were the research tools used in this study.

Some of the important findings of the study are: (i) the government schools are better placed as a whole in respect of principal-teacher relations and academic leadership though the differences are not statistically significant; (ii) government girls' schools have better facilities and academic leadership than the government boys' schools; (iii) the principals in many cases prefer that teachers should confine themselves to the use of chalk and blackboard rather than be enthusiastic to use models, albums and

other teaching aids; (iv) the principal-teacher relations, on the whole, have been satisfactory; (v) staff meetings, individual conferences, orientation and induction as instruments of teachers' growth and specific inservice education techniques such as action research, inter class visitation, inter school visitation, seminars, workshops at school level, find little place in school life; (vi) most of the principals fail to play an effective leadership role in the academic field in the schools because of limitation of time and energy; (vii) lack of proper knowledge of concept of supervision, and cooperation from the teachers are also other contributory factors; (viii) the principals ignore helping and guiding teachers in the area of subject content and teaching methodology even though they are distinctly related to classroom teaching; (ix) the principals confess that they have to play the policeman role but feel that despite their best efforts they cannot do much in respect of teachers who waste time in classes and go to classes, unprepared; (x) diary checking is given an important place in the supervisory role of the principal but the leadership aspect of stimulating teachers to improve diary writing is a weak feature; (xi) the observation of classroom teaching is more for inspecting teachers than helping them; (xii) the principals in most of the cases have failed to win confidence of the teachers and the visits to their classes offer little help to them; and (xiii) individual conferences either do not find an important place in the school life or are not helpful to the teachers in most of the cases.

639. *MATHUR, S. S., Administrative Policies governing Substitute Teachers serving in Higher Secondary Schools in Major Cities of Uttar Pradesh, Ph.D. Edu., Agra U., 1959.*

The study aimed at (i) surveying the current administrative policies in the field of 'substitute teaching service', (ii) analysing the 'substitute teaching service' and to trace its impact on education, and (iii) suggesting ways and means for removing the handicaps and deficiencies of the substitute teaching service. The operational definition of the term is "one who occupies temporarily the position of an absent teacher, whether employed for a few days only or for an extended period of time".

The study was conducted on a sample of 127 higher secondary schools, selected by random sampling technique, from the cities of Agra, Kanpur, Allahabad, Lucknow and Banaras. A questionnaire was prepared, divided into eight sub-heads, viz., the organisation and administration of substitute tea-

ching, selection and approval of substitute teachers, management of personnel, reasons for employment of substitute teachers, compensations and other benefits, ratings of them, private tuitions, and part-time work. All the formal procedures were maintained in preparing the questionnaire. The questionnaire technique was supplemented by interview.

It was found that (i) in 103 schools in 1955-56, the number of substitute teachers was seventysix (2.7 percent of the total teaching population), and the percentage of substitute teachers increased from excellent to bad type of institutions, considered on the basis of economic status; (ii) majority of the institutions appointed substitute teachers (S.T.) to the post of teachers on long medical leave, long leave on educational grounds, and for some extra work; (iii) the pedagogical implications are in favour of substitute teachers as the regular staff is already overburdened by the department of education, managing committees, municipal boards, and the principals; (iv) the selection procedure for the category of teachers is through recommendations of teacher training colleges, principals of colleges, regular teachers, by advertising in the papers, through Board's office and privately, and the agencies approving the eligibility of the candidates are the managing committees, inspectors of schools, principals, and municipal boards; (v) in 43.5 percent schools, identical qualifications are required for the substitute teachers as for regular teachers excepting the teaching certificate of the substitute teachers; (vi) about 44.7 percent schools appoint teachers who accept lowest pay and 14.1 percent appoint best qualified teachers irrespective of the pay demanded; (vii) in 62.4 percent of the cases the schools do not get any extra money from the department but manage with the fees; (ix) in 82.3 percent of the cases the substitute teachers get the grade approved by the department for regular teachers; (x) in all schools, substitute teachers work for the same number of hours as the regular teachers; in girls' schools about 87.5 percent periods are given in higher classes, whereas the corresponding percentages in boys' and coeducational institutes are 58.6 and 33.3, respectively; (xi) the general procedure of ratings is personal diaries and results of examinations; (xii) the records maintained for the substitute teachers are qualifications, successive employment, teachers' ratings, professional programmes, etc.; (xiii) the leave rules governing the regular teachers are applicable to the substitute teachers; (xiv) there is a beneficiary scheme in place of provident fund for the substitute teacher, giving him a good certificate

of teaching and preference of appointment if a permanent vacancy occurs; (xv) in 22.3 percent institutions benefit of part-time work is given whereas in seventyfive percent, this too is absent; (xvi) practice of private tuition is widely prevalent; (xvii) the S.T.s are friendly with the regular staff members and students participating in staff sponsored programmes; (xviii) in the opinion of the students, 50.6 percent of the teachers are average, and 28.2 percent are good in teaching; and (xix) they take interest in cocurricular activities.

640. MUKHERJEE, L. K., *Role of the State in the Organisation of Education in India, Ph.D. Edu., Luc. U., 1951.*

The investigation aimed at studying the role of the state in the organisation of education in India right from the pre-Buddhist period to the present day. The specific objectives were to find out how the state took up the cause of education at various periods and how it was instrumental in spreading education to the masses in an organised and systematic way.

The investigator referred to all the relevant literature such as, Upanishads, Manusmriti, Mahabharata, Ramayana, Kautilya's Arthashastra., Tahaka-i-Terohshalo, Ain-i-Akbari, various reports of commissions and various reviews.

The study revealed that educational institutions of pre-Buddhist period were fairly well coordinated and depended mainly on public support. During the Buddhist period, royal support became more definite and a system of charging fees from the students came into being. But, the organisation of Muslim education followed a more centralised pattern. It followed a more uniform policy as compared to that of Pathan rulers. However, the Mukhtabs and Madrasahs were given more liberal grants in the form of land. The Marathas helped the educational institutions with money grants but never tried to control them. During decadent and medieval period, when education still remained free, the central coordination was gradually broken and this was the state of affairs when the British entered the scene. Till 1813, East India Company left education in the hands of local native enterprise or of proselytising Christian Missions. From 1835, however, it was a settled policy with the East India Company to help the English schools of the secondary type and let the vernacular primary schools languish. More organised methods of giving grants came into practice from 1854. But, according to the Hunter Commission of 1882, this system did not help elementary education. Hunter Commission recommended the

policy of helping private schools rather than opening government ones. Economy, rather than efficiency, therefore, directed the policy of the government towards patronising private enterprise in education. But, inspite of government's strong sympathy for keeping control of education in private hands, the Sadler Commission did finally recommend maintenance of status quo in the matter of ultimate control though it reduced the powers of private enterprise by recommending Statutory Secondary Boards. Between 1921-1947 the British policy objected to the tendency of centralisation. The present investigator inferred from this that the existence of a large number of privately managed schools and colleges in India and their high dependence on fees is, under this context, an anachronism and is more so because it is against our original traditions which attempt at public financial support for free and residential schools with a coordinating agency which controlled the standards.

641. PANIGRAHI, D., DAS, S. C. and DAS, K. C., *Stagnation In Elementary Education, SIE (Orissa), Bhubaneshwar, 1972.*

This study was taken up (i) to find out the causes of stagnation at the elementary stage in Orissa and (ii) to suggest remedial measures.

Five educational districts in Orissa, viz., Bhanjanagar, Phulbani, Balasore, Angul and Bargarh, representing five linguistic zones of the state, were selected for collection of data. The students detained by headmasters in classes I and II at the end of the 1969-70 session were taken as failures. The students who were promoted were also screened with a view to finding out cases which, in fact, should have been detained for lack of desired standard. In all, 280 students of class II and 276 students of class III were tested. In order to screen the students, tests were prepared on the basis of the objectives of the syllabi for classes I and II. The curricula of classes I and II consisted of four subjects, viz., mother tongue, arithmetic, general science, and social studies. It laid more emphasis on mother tongue and arithmetic. All the forms of Pathan Pariksha (the reading test), Likhan Pariksha (writing test) and Ganita Pariksha (test of arithmetic) were used to test the students. In order to draw a dividing line between students who were below par and those who could make up the deficiency in higher classes, the 'passable limit' was also computed. The scores of each student in all the reading tests for a particular class were added and the total was compared with the total of the general limits (passable limits) of these tests and the posi-

tion of the student was determined accordingly. Similar procedure was followed in the case of writing tests also. For arithmetic there was only one test for each class, and the individual scores were compared with the general limit. Information regarding personal and environmental factors was also collected through questionnaires.

The findings were as follows. (i) Students' pass percentages in all subjects in classes II and III were 15.7 and 13.4, respectively, whereas the percentages of students promoted to these classes by the headmasters were sixtyfive and seventysix, respectively. (ii) The causes of the low or underachievement of pupils were traced from the data. The method of 'comparison of opposites' was adopted for this purpose. The 'high group' comprised those who passed in all the subjects and the 'low group' consisted of those who failed in all the subjects. It was found that most of the 'high group' students were regular in attendance, whereas most of the low group students were irregular. (iii) A subjectwise analysis of results revealed that, in general, students' performance was better at the end of class II than at the end of class I. (iv) The performance of students who had to repeat grades due to previous failure was analysed; from amongst 280 students tested in class II and 276 tested in class III, there were 103 of class II and 130 students of class III detained in previous years. Out of the 103, sixtytwo failed in all subjects, twentytwo passed only in one, twelve passed in two, and seven passed in all subjects. Out of the 130, sixtyseven failed in all the subjects, twenty-nine passed in one, twenty-six in two and eight passed in all the subjects. This indicated that there was little improvement in the performance of fifty percent students inspite of spending one more year in the same grade. (v) Most of the pupils in 'low group' did not have books and other instructional materials and their mother tongue was different from the regional language. These causes were coupled with economic backwardness.

642. *PARANJPE, L. S., An Investigation into the Problems of Women Primary Teachers working in the Poona Revenue Region of Maharashtra in respect of their Service Conditions and Arrangements for their Professional Training, Ph.D. Edu., Poona U., 1970.*

The study examined the following hypotheses: (i) the working conditions in the primary schools of Maharashtra (particularly in rural areas) are not congenial for women to work therein; (ii) there are

some deficiencies in the arrangements for the professional preparation of women teachers; and (iii) there is also a possibility of some social difficulties that prevent women from entering this profession.

The sample for the study consisted of six districts, viz., Poona, Ahmednagar, Sholapur, Satara, Sangli and Kolhapur of Poona Revenue region. Survey method was used in the present investigation. Six questionnaires were prepared. They were about (i) women teachers working in primary schools, (ii) headmasters of primary schools, (iii) women pupil-teachers, (iv) the principals of primary teacher training colleges, (v) teacher educators and (vi) educated women. The questionnaires were sent to women primary teachers, headmasters of primary schools, principals and teacher educators of eighteen training colleges for women. Actual visits to the educational institutions were paid to collect information about the working conditions — social, economic and geographical. Interviews were also conducted with those people to whom questionnaires were sent for verifying the information. Eminent educationists and workers in the field were also involved to know their attitudes towards some of the government policies.

The study yielded the following findings: (i) though the number of women teachers is increasing year by year, it is not increasing in proportion to children joining primary schools; (ii) the majority of women primary teachers are married and they find it difficult to fulfil their duties as housewives and as fulltime teachers; (iii) the attitude of their families is not cooperative though outwardly sympathetic; (iv) their major motivation for joining the profession is money as they belong to the lower middle class; (v) the pay scales of women primary teachers are lower as compared to that of persons with the same qualifications; (vi) the difficulties relating to working conditions are mainly contributable to school buildings in the rural areas; (vii) classes are overcrowded and syllabus also, is too heavy; (viii) there are deficiencies in the training programme also, the location and physical plants of most of the training colleges are not satisfactory, hostel arrangements are defective and practice teaching requires improvement. Teacher educators need special orientation to keep pace with new trends.

643. *RAJ NARAIN, Falling Educational Standards — An Analysis, Dept. of Psy. and Phil., Luc. U., 1970. (NCERT financed)*

The study was directed to the discovery of the constituents of the concept of standards applied to

any type, level or stage of education.

The method used was an experience survey. It collected perceptions of falling educational standards from press, examiners' reports, interviews with teachers, educators and parents, and correspondence with educationists in other countries. The material obtained was subjected to the technique of content analysis.

It was found that the foreign educationists did not believe that standards of education were falling in India. Out of twelve, the verdict of eleven foreign educationists was 'No Fall' in standards ($P > .01$). However, the overall verdict of the people in India was that the standards of education are falling. The factors affecting educational standards were enumerated as quality of students, deterioration in educational life, wastage, quality of teachers, defects in curriculum, social distractions, defects in society, policies in education, expansion of education, defects in the educational system, defects in organisation, mal-administration, defects in the examination system, quality of the educational institutions, quality of textbooks and home conditions of students. Quality of students, deterioration in their educational life and wastage were found to be the main pegs that held the framework of educational standards. Suggestions to improve standards in education included measures to tackle student indiscipline, continuous assessment of student achievement during course work, adequate training in fundamentals in early schooling, inclusion of oral examinations, improvement in teacher quality, establishing parent-teacher associations, improving educational administration and starting model universities.

644. RAWAT, D. S., *Evaluative Criteria for Inspection and Supervision of Secondary Schools*, NCERT, New Delhi, 1970.

The major aims of the study were: (i) to investigate into the different kinds of items included in the proforma to evaluate the different aspects of the school; (ii) to find out the expectations of inspecting officers, managers, principals and the teachers regarding inspection and supervision; and (iii) to know the points which the inspecting officers mark while evaluating a particular aspect of the school.

The sample consisted of thirty higher secondary schools of Delhi and Agra. The responses to proforma prescribed for inspection were collected from nineteen states and union territories. Reports of twenty-six inspecting officers and codes of fifteen states and union territories were also collected and analysed.

The findings of the study revealed that (i) in the present practices of inspection and supervision, more weightage is given to factual data about the school funds, finance and administration than to teaching subjects, teaching aids, school-community relations, etc., (ii) nature of the proforma varies from state to state; (iii) a single inspection report hardly includes all the points necessary for proper evaluation; (iv) there is a general feeling among the principals, teachers and inspecting officers as well, that the main purpose of supervision and inspection should be to guide the teachers for their professional efficiency and encourage them in taking up new experiments and ideas; (v) the inspecting officers were of the opinion that there should be inservice programmes for their professional growth; and (vi) the major outcome of this project has been the development of an instrument for evaluating a secondary school.

645. SANE, S. P., *An Investigation into the Condition of Primary Education in the educationally backward parts of the Poona Municipal Corporation area with special reference to: (a) Non-attendance of pupils coming under the provisions of the Primary Education Act of 1947, and (b) Irregular Attendance of pupils actually under Instruction*, Ph.D. Edu., Poona U., 1960.

The aim of this investigation was to study the conditions of primary education in the educationally backward parts of the Poona Municipal Corporation area with special reference to non-attendance of pupils coming under the provisions of the Primary Education Act of 1947, and irregular attendance of pupils actually under instruction.

Along with scanning of literature and intensive study of records about causes of irregular attendance, questionnaires and interview schedules were used as research tools for collection of data.

The salient findings of the study were: (i) girls' education was neglected due to the old beliefs and traditions; (ii) ignorance of the advantages of education and wrong ideas about it were widely prevalent; (iii) people living away from the enlightened society did not change for years; (iv) orphans and children whose parents had strained relations needed more help; (v) there was slow progress in some wards though the compulsory education scheme was in operation there; (vi) the cooperation of the people in the locality was felt essential; (vii) more disciplin-

ary actions were necessary; (viii) school courses did not attract parents; and (ix) some help was necessary for the handicapped and nomads. In the case of irregular attendance, the study revealed that (i) children avoided schools as they could not adjust to the crowded classes and school discipline; (ii) parents thought that the curriculum was totally useless; (iii) teachers failed to create an urge for education; (iv) supervision and inspection needed improvement; (v) domestic difficulties, and lack of hygienic facilities also contributed to irregular attendance.

646. *SARGURUDOSS, M., Educational Policy in the Madras Presidency (1800-1900 A.D.), Ph.D. Edu., Madras U., 1961.*

The study sought to trace the growth of the educational policy in Madras Presidency in the last century in close relation to its educational history.

This investigation is an historical exploration. Historical documents, commission reports and government documents have been scanned for collection of data. Historical survey method has been used.

The earliest efforts to introduce any form of education beyond the indigenous system in Madras Presidency emanated from missionaries, private societies and philanthropic individuals, whether officials or others. Occasional pecuniary aid was given to schools established for the children of the company's servants. During the first quarter of the 19th century, the government of Madras adopted the policy of 'masterly inactivity' and then it undertook to implement a scheme of education elaborated by the illustrious governor of Madras. The Munro scheme was abolished in 1836 because of inconsistency and inefficiency of various aspects and people associated with it. The history of education in Madras Presidency for the next 25 years was a tale of hesitancy and indecision on the part of the government. The Madras University, established in 1857, was primarily intended for the children of upper class parents. The policy of concentrating governmental efforts on the education of the upper classes by establishing high schools and colleges continued till the Education Commission of 1882 reaffirmed it as a clear policy that the government's first duty in the realm of education was the provision, expansion and improvement of the elementary education of the masses. However, by 1830, the government was called upon to reverse its policy

of promoting elementary education and confining itself to higher education for the higher classes. The theory of downward filtration of culture and knowledge was totally discredited by experience. The light that touched the 'mountain top' never pierced 'the depths and levels' and the folly of neglecting the education and enlightenment of the masses became patent. The Despatch of 1854 formulated the policy of providing education to people of all sorts and conditions, and for all walks of life. The educational endeavours of the Madras government under the company (East India) crown rested on the principle of religious neutrality. In all its educational endeavours, the Madras government consistently sought the cooperation and goodwill of the people. The history of educational policy since 1882, had been a history of the progressive domination of the school by the university. The Madras government hesitated to follow a forward policy in regard to the education of women and thereby offended the feeling of the people. It also failed to follow a bold policy with regard to the education of the depressed classes, and thus compromised with the evils of caste and untouchability. The policy evolved and enumerated in the 19th century in Madras Presidency was by no means perfect and it was at times halting and half-hearted. The author concluded that the British did endeavour to discharge the obligation to cultivate the intellect which had been sterile and neglected, though their attempts were greater than the results and the reach was always far higher than the grasp.

647. *SHAH, M. R., Some Problems of Educational Administration in India, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1951.*

The objective of the present research was to study critically the problems of educational administration in India. The scope of this study was restricted to only five aspects, viz., (a) general principles underlying education, (b) agencies of education—federal, state, local, and private, (c) special problems, (d) educational finance, and (e) educational legislature.

The material has been collected from various sources, such as books on history and administration of education, government reports on progress of education, and so on.

The investigator has reported that Indian educational administration under the British was centralised and bureaucratic. After explaining why it was so, the author explains the resultant advantages

as appeared in Australia and the opposite results in India. The disastrous results of the centralised form experienced in India did not lead to any truly national system of education; intolerance of criticism and the demoralisation of teachers and administrators were the outcomes. Centralisation existed from 1813 to 1870, decentralisation was tried from 1870 to 1899, then further upto 1921 during which Curzon's policy played a significant role. From 1935, the Centre again began to play an important role. The author expresses the opinion that the central government should take the responsibility as in Canada, Australia, Germany and the U.S.S.R. It has also been suggested that to ensure equality of educational opportunity in conformity with the democratic system of education, internal affairs should be left to educationists and teachers only. Local bodies should be given substantial control by limiting their area of administration to the city, town or villages, as it is in France. There should be one common act for all towns and a separate common act for all rural areas, where the state should reserve for itself the power of inspection and some other major powers of administration. As regards the problems of educational administration at the higher stage, the question of autonomy of the universities, their relation to the federal and the state governments, their finance and the varying rates of grants-in-aid, were considered. The author expresses her view against the government having colleges. The governing body of a private college is suggested on the model indicated by the University Education Commission. In secondary education, after tracing the role played by the states in the past, it is recommended that they should accept a larger direct responsibility, of a non-academic type, of schools. The need to reconstitute and improve the managements, to avoid distrust and rigidity of control, to define conditions of service and to liberalise grants, is stressed. It is suggested that children for secondary schools be selected on the basis of merit, their ability to profit by high school education and that poor deserving children be given help so that they may not be denied secondary education because of their poverty. There is a need to revise the constitution of the universities and improve the pay scales of teachers. Better methods of selection are suggested. There should be no confirmation of teachers unless they are trained; the training of secondary teachers should be only by universities; every teacher should be trained; and a separate training should be provided for administrators. As regards educational finance, the period from 1813 to 1854 was one of neglect; with small expenditure

during 1854 to 1902, there was rapid increase upto 1882, then came economic depression upto 1902, then there was general prosperity upto 1921 and finally came the depression upto 1937. The fifth period from 1937 to 1947 suffered owing to rising prices, inflation and famine. The author points out that the current tendency is to spread the available funds on too large a surface. To secure larger financial resources for education, it is suggested that the government of India should spend ten percent of its revenue on education, the states should spend twenty percent of their revenue and the local boards should spend a specified amount and that a special tax be levied to get additional funds. No state passed an education act. The constitution had, however, taken a great step forward. The desirability of the constitution having a separate chapter on education is stressed.

648. SHARMA, B. D., *A New Concept of Educational Administration in India*, Ph.D. Edu., Vik. U., 1964.

The study aimed at analysing the present practices in educational administration in the state of Madhya Pradesh and suggesting certain new concepts for improving instruction and supervision.

The sample of 1396 had officers from the educational directorate, educational officers at the district level, inspectors of schools, heads of the institutions, lecturers and teachers. A questionnaire prepared mostly with yes/no items and some multiple choice items was used as the tool of research.

The investigation revealed that: (i) the districts were uneven in size which caused in appalling disparity in the work of the divisional officers; (ii) the administrative set-up which had its origin in Wood's Despatch had not grown in its utility value; (iii) there was lack of coordination between the head of the department and the secretariat; (iv) centralisation of authority at state, divisional, and district levels was conspicuous; (v) supervision of teaching was very inefficient and the introduction of diversified courses had made it all the worse; (vi) the structure of the supervision report varied from region to region; (vii) the basis for the selection of teachers was anything but merit and efficiency; (viii) centralisation of power was causing delay in decision-making; (ix) administrators, at all levels were dissatisfied with their pay scales; (x) in general, headmasters did not teach; (xi) the revision of pay scales according to qualification inspired the tea-

chers to improve their qualifications; (xii) nobody had thought of training for administrators; (xiii) there was no coordination between the training college and the schools; and (xiv) teachers did not generally follow the methods of teaching they learnt in the training colleges.

649. SHARMA, R. C., and SAPRA, C. L., *Wastage and Stagnation in Primary and Middle Schools in India*, NCERT, New Delhi, 1969.

The survey was undertaken to study the problem of wastage and stagnation in depth, and pinpoint the facts and also to ascertain and analyse the causes of wastage and stagnation.

A student sample of 790 dropouts and 485 stay-in cases was selected from ninetytwo schools of Punjab, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and the union territories of Himachal Pradesh and Delhi. School Information Blanks and Pupil Information Sheets were used for collecting data about schools, and dropouts and stay-ins, respectively. Interviews were also conducted with the dropouts as well as their parents to supplement the information. The data were statistically analysed and interpreted.

The findings of the study revealed that: (i) wastage and stagnation is sixtyfive percent by the time children reach grade V and rises upto seventy-eight percent in grade VIII; (ii) about fifty percent of wastage is noticed in class I itself and gradually the rate decreases as the child moves up the ladder (iii) incidence of wastage and stagnation is more in girls than in boys; (iv) the wastage and stagnation remained constant at both primary and middle levels during the past decade despite the fact that the per capita expenditure per pupil has increased; (v) wastage is more in the shift system schools and it is higher in double shift system schools than in single shift system schools; (vi) the rate of dropout is negatively related to the qualifications and the per capita income of teachers; (vii) the number of dropouts is also negatively correlated with the cocurricular activities in the school; (viii) distance of the teachers' residence from the school and teacher pupil ratio are positively correlated with wastage; (ix) academic achievement is superior for the stay-ins than for the dropouts, (x) higher age levels and lower attendance are noticable among dropouts; (xi) stay-ins hold leadership assignments in schools and perceive that their parents attach higher significance to education; (xii) more dropouts are reported from small size families; (xiii) dropouts are usually from nuclear families who have suffered the death of one or both

the parents; (xiv) dropouts are usually older in age and come from families of the low income group; (xv) some of the parents of dropouts are insensible to the physical facilities available at the school and perceive no need for the education of their children; (xvi) fortythree percent of dropouts are from rural area; (xvii) illness, mental retardation, economic backwardness, social maladjustment, home problems, etc., are some of the factors for dropping out from the school; (xviii) attendance, parents' view of children's performance, motivation for learning at home, caste and age at the time of admission are some of the discriminating factors between the dropouts and stay-ins.

650. SHIVARUDRAPPA, G., and PATTED, G. M., *A Critical Study of Secondary School Inspection in Mysore State*, Dept. of Edu., Kar. U., 1970.

The study was conducted (i) to analyse Mysore Education Codes with a view to knowing the expectations regarding secondary school inspection; (ii) to analyse the inspection proforma in the state for the inspection of secondary schools; (iii) to analyse a sample of inspection reports of secondary schools in the state to study the expectations of inspecting officers, teachers and headmasters of secondary schools regarding secondary school inspection and to offer suggestions for the improvement of the inspection system.

The sample consisted of all the twenty District Education Officers (D.E.O.) and one hundred headmasters and two hundred teachers of the state. Three questionnaires were prepared for the D.E.O.s, headmasters and teachers, separately. Interviews and content analysis were also used as the main research techniques for conducting these investigations.

The analysis of Education Codes revealed in the code rules that more weightage is given to school plant, school administration, and school funds and finances; teaching of subjects and instructional material are given very low weightage. The analysis of inspection proforma reveals that it includes items on school plant, school administration, teaching staff and teaching subjects, school funds and finances, instructional materials, factual data and curricular activities. More weightage is given to factual data about school, school administration and school funds. From the written reports it is found that various aspects of school life, such as teaching of subjects, cocurricular activities, instructional materials, school administration and staff,

school plants, school community relations, and school funds and finances are given greater weightage. Less weightage is given to functional part of any school aspect and major emphasis is given to factual data. Inspecting officers have to deal with primary, secondary and higher secondary schools and primary teacher training institutes. The average number of secondary schools under the jurisdiction of the D.E.O. is about eightytwo. On an average, D.E.O.s have three A.E.O.s and about twentyfour subordinate inspecting officers. They work for 160 days in a year and they inspect thirtytwo schools per year. Over and above, they have to perform certain professional activities and programmes. According to headmasters and teachers, the main purpose of inspection should be to appraise the work of secondary schools and to promote the professional efficiency of the teachers working in the schools. The inspecting officers try to inspect various aspects of school life such as teaching of subjects, school accounts, cocurricular activities, school building, equipment and furniture and school administration. Inspecting officers feel that the main aim of inspection should be to appraise the school programmes to promote the professional efficiency of the teachers and to see that the rules and regulations of the department are properly followed. The researcher suggested a revision of the educational manual and the code so as to reflect modern trends of inspection, reorganisation and strengthening of inspectorate at the district level, raising the minimum qualifications for recruitment to the inspectorate, upgrading salary and the status, improving service conditions, organisation of pre-service and inservice training, etc. A planned inspection and follow-up is also suggested.

651. *SIE (Gujarat), To Study the Problems of Supervision and the views of Supervisors of the Primary Schools about the Present Syllabus, Ahmedabad, 1965.*

The aims of the study were: (i) to find out the problems of supervision and (ii) to know the views of supervisors of the primary schools about the present syllabus.

A questionnaire was prepared. Data were collected from all the supervisors of the state using the questionnaire. Percentages and averages were calculated from the data.

It was found that (i) the syllabus followed, the physical conditions of the school and the teaching aids used, needed modification; (ii) the quota of supervision was to be lessened so that the supervi-

sors would be able to do justice regarding academic guidance to the teachers and headmasters, and (iii) fiftysix percent of the supervisors were ignorant of the new techniques of teaching and the current problems.

652. *SIE (Gujarat), Evaluation of the Intensive School Improvement Programme taken up by State Institute of Education in Four districts of Gujarat, Ahmedabad, 1968.*

The objective of the study was to find out the effectiveness of group centres set up by the State Institute of Education for extension work in the districts.

The sample included all the group centres of all the four districts. Questionnaires were prepared for supervisors, for convenors of group centres, for A.D.E.I.s and A.O.s. Data were collected through these questionnaires. Percentages were calculated.

It was found that: (i) there was a lot of community cooperation as a result of which the school buildings, rooms, teaching aids and other physical as well as educational facilities were given by the people; (ii) group meetings were very effective in bringing home the ideas about new trends to the teachers; (iii) demonstration of science experiments proved to be very helpful to the teachers; and (iv) the primary teacher training institutions and the secondary schools helped the primary teachers in their academic growth.

653. *SINGH, R. R., The Growth and Evaluation of Educational Administration in Bihar State, Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1964.*

This study aimed at examining (i) the growth and evaluation of educational administration in Bihar State since 1912, (ii) stages of development and problems faced, (iii) the implementation of the various educational schemes, (iv) the planning, financing and supervision of education, and (v) the control over the educational administration by central government, state government and local bodies.

Data were collected from government records, both central and state, reports of the committees and commissions appointed from time to time, legislative measures that were taken at various times, and public comments and views expressed in the press about the policies and schemes of education. The growth of education at all levels in Bihar state has been examined. Efforts have been

made to discuss and describe the organisational and administrative problems of education. Post-independence educational administration in India has been discussed.

The main findings of the study were: (i) there existed little coordination between the efforts of central government and state government for streamlining and creating a better system of educational administration; (ii) the inspectors of the schools were there merely to find faults with the teachers rather than improve their competence; (iii) there was avoidable duplication of work in the inspection system; (iv) the desirability of the inspectors being specialists in teaching various school subjects was reported; (v) administrative efficiency was marred due to the delay in decision making at various levels of administration; (vi) at planning and financing stage, little effort was made to take into consideration the growth of the population, social and academic needs and aspiration of the growing society; (vii) the aspect of industrialisation in the country was found nowhere in the educational planning. The investigator has suggested that there should be a partnership between the state and central governments for financing, planning, and controlling education and such partnership should be aimed at strengthening the educational administration rather than weakening it. For securing better and quick results, mass education and social education programmes should be the subjects under central government control. A national system of education needs central patronage and the full sense of such patronage is not fulfilled in mere planning and financing. There should be some sort of central control also.

654. SINHA, B. N., *A Survey of the Problems and Attitudes of University Teachers in Bihar*, Ph.D. Psy., Ran. U., 1969.

This research was conducted to study the problems and attitudes of the university teachers in Bihar as well as to examine how their problems and attitudes were related to some specified factors.

A sample of arts and science teachers, one hundred each, was chosen from all the five universities of Bihar. The selection of teachers was done on a random basis from the total number of teachers working in five universities of Bihar. Most of the teachers were interviewed by the investigator himself on an interview schedule which was prepared on the basis of a pilot research.

The survey indicated that a little less than half (48.5 percent) of the teachers had selected the

profession of their own choice. Almost half of them came to it without liking. Those who had joined the profession on their own had expected to receive opportunities for further studies and research (70.4 percent) and had thought the teaching profession to be independent, ideal, honest and peaceful (65.8 percent). One hundred and twentyseven teachers out of 200 were disillusioned in their expectation for the reasons of (a) absence of comfort and dignity because of lack of academic and other facilities (67 out of 127) and (b) absence of recognition of merit due to favouritism and casteism (54 out of 127). The sources of dissatisfaction among the teachers, identified through the survey, were: (a) lack of interest and encouragement on the part of the authorities (thirtyfour percent), (b) favouritism in the universities (twentyseven percent), and (c) lack of respect for university teachers by the society (sixty six percent). Seventyfour percent teachers had not done any research. Fortyseven percent reported 'lack of time' as an obstacle to research. Teachers had little contact with the students due to large size of the class and lack of permanent rooms. This was found to be a great factor responsible for student indiscipline. Teachers were in favour of Hindi at undergraduate level (eightyeight percent) and English at the postgraduate level (seventyfive percent), as the medium of instruction. Though only nine percent of the teachers wanted to teach by dictation method, they believed that a large percentage of their students (fiftyfive percent) preferred it. Only three percent of the students wanted to be taught by lecture method. Only fifty-eight percent of the teachers wanted to remain in the profession even if they had an alternative.

The average income of the university teachers of the sample was Rs. 413/- p.m. Twentythree percent considered the financial position as 'bad'. At the time of survey, fortyfive percent of teachers were under debt ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 8000. Thirteen percent teachers had wives who were graduates. Fiftytwo percent had wives whose educational level was less than matriculation. Wives of thirty percent teachers did not take any interest in the education of their children. Thirtythree percent were undecided about the possibilities of happiness in marrying a known girl friend or an unknown girl selected by parents. Fortysix percent believed that it made little difference whether one married through friendship or through negotiation. A majority of them supported emancipation of women. Majority expressed unfavourable attitude towards religion. In their overall attitude towards society, the teachers displayed a very deep sense of alienation. Seventy percent of

them believed that honesty and hard work in contemporary Indian society do not pay. Seventyfive percent felt that it was difficult to find a person who could be taken with full confidence. The survey did not find any significant difference between the conditions, problems and attitudes of teachers of residential and nonresidential universities. The survey also did not bring out any difference between the teachers of arts and science faculties. Significant association was, however, found between two variables, namely, age and urban origin. Younger teachers had more modern attitudes than the older teachers. A greater number of the former were less religious, more favourable to love marriage and emancipation of women. Older teachers experienced greater financial strain but lesser degree of academic difficulties than younger teachers. Teachers with urban origin had more modern attitudes than those of rural origin. They were less religious, less family-oriented, not in favour of arranged marriages, and were more liberal to women than the teachers of rural origin.

655. SINHA, B. N., *A Survey of Environmental Sanitation, Health Education, Health Promotion and Health of Students of Secondary Schools of Bihar, Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1970.*

The present study aimed at surveying the position of health conditions in the secondary schools of Bihar with respect to environmental sanitation, health education, health promotion and health of students, and to examine the extent of health services implemented thereto.

A random sample of a size of 15.4 percent of all the schools existing at the time of survey came out to be 222 schools which included twelve government schools, two Christian missionary and 208 other non-government schools. Part I of the plan of study included the observations made on the random sample of schools existing in Bihar in and around March, 1962. Part II included the study on four types of schools in Bihar, viz., (i) non-government, non-Christian rural schools, (ii) non-government Christian urban schools, (iii) government managed urban schools, and (iv) non-government, non-Christian urban schools. The number of students studying in the different typical schools were — Sarbahadi: 236, St. Xavier's: 211, R.N.H.S.: 197 and M. L. Academy: 13. The data were obtained, in general, through questionnaires grouped under four different schedules. The interview method was adopted to study the four typical schools.

The findings of the study revealed that (i) per capita expenditure on education in Bihar in 1962-63 was only Rs. 3.22; (ii) there was one boys' school against 17,020 males and one girls' school against 3,56,218 females, the ratio of girls' schools to boys' schools being 1 : 22; (iii) the number of schools in the rural area was nearly half of the number in the urban area considering population; (iv) only five percent of the total schools surveyed had teachers trained in physical and health education, the position of non-government schools being worst in this respect; (v) even the bare necessities like supply of pure water and provisions of sanitary disposal of human excreta and refuse were far from satisfactory, the provision being all the more worse in the rural high schools; (vi) schools were lacking in arrangements with regard to teaching of elementary physiology and hygiene by medical personnel, keeping first-aid boxes, medical checkup, provision for mid-day meal, play and other recreational facilities, N.C.C., A.C.C., etc.; (vii) two-thirds of the students of urban schools used footwear whereas, less than half of the village pupils used it; (viii) the habit of smoking and chewing betel-leaf among the students, though very low numerically, was not to be ignored; (ix) it was expected that the incidence of dysentery should have been highest in the rural schools like Sarbahadi, but it was not so; rather, this was comparatively higher in the urban schools, the reason being the consumption of food stuff from hawkers visiting the school premises.

656. SUBBARAO, C. S., *A Critical Investigation into the Practice of Basic Education in the State of Andhra Pradesh, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1966.*

Basic system of education was introduced in Andhra and Rayalseema regions in 1937 and Jelanfana in 1952. This study was undertaken to analyse how Basic system of education was being practised in the state of Andhra Pradesh.

The data and necessary information were gathered from the literature available on the subject and proceedings of the office of the Director of Public Instruction. Data were also collected through questionnaires, opinionnaires and interviews. The sample for the study consisted of 230 Basic schools, sixteen Basic training schools, eighty-nine officers of the education department connected with Basic education.

The findings of the study were: (i) the transfer of the Basic schools from government to Panchayat Raj was resented by the teachers; (ii) the single teacher schools in Telangana region were not converted into Basic schools as was done in other regions of the state; (iii) most of the Basic schools were opened in rural areas as they met the requirements, stipulated, but this situation created suspicion in the minds of the rural people; (iv) only eight per cent of the schools were converted to Basic schools even after thirty years; (v) most of the Basic schools were ill-equipped; (vi) wastage and stagnation was found to be less in Basic schools as compared to that in non-Basic schools; (vii) majority of the children in the Basic schools was from the weaker sections of the society; (viii) the percentage of women teachers in the Basic schools was less than that of the male teachers; (ix) agriculture and gardening crafts in the Basic schools were more popular; (x) the Basic schools had very inadequate reference literature; (xi) same books were prescribed for both Basic and non-Basic schools; (xii) a significant number of respondents to the questionnaire recommended the introduction of craft from grade III while majority was in favour of introducing it from grade V; (xiii) material and implements supplied were of poor quality and lack of skill, on the part of the teachers, to use them properly caused wastage to a large extent; (xiv) the idea of making the school a community centre and improving the teacher-parent relationship had been accepted and worked out; and (xv) there was no provision for systematic training in Basic Education for university graduates.

657. *TANNU, J. B., The Place of Shift System in Primary Schools in Bombay State, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1959.*

The present investigation aimed at examining various aspects of working of the shift system, in primary schools in Bombay, and suggest ways and means for efficient running of the schools so as to realise the objectives for which it was introduced.

The data for the study were collected from the literature available on the subject, departmental reports and information collected through the tests administered. Five pairs of schools, from schools having shift system and schools without shift system, were selected as sample for the study. One thousand students were administered the tests in languages, arithmetic, and general knowledge. Fifty students were randomly selected for the administra-

tion of mental tests for the purpose of computing I.Q.s.

The following were the findings of the study: (i) three hours instruction was given to the children in the shift system schools and five hours instruction to the children attending full time schools; (ii) the school timings in the shift system schools were ill-adjusted as they were fixed according to the availability of the school building; (iii) odd timings of the shift system schools resulted in poor attendance of the children; (iv) promotions in the shift system schools were not strictly based on merit but on other considerations. The investigator has offered a model scheme for the shift system which enshrines the following objectives in it: (i) reducing the expenditure, (ii) lessening the problem of accommodation, and making more seats available in schools without increasing the number of teachers.

658. *THAKUR, G. S., and CHOWHAN, M. S., An Investigation into the Working of the Assistant District Inspectors of Schools in Bilaspur Division, Government College of Education, Bilaspur, 1972.*

The purposes of the study were: (i) to study the present day working of Assistant District Inspectors, and the qualitative standards at administrative level of the elementary stage; (ii) to examine the existing routine functions of the inspectors and also the nature and extent of duties and responsibilities shouldered by them; and (iii) to re-examine the nature and extent of the influence of modern supervisory trends upon the inspectors.

Three questionnaires - cum - checklists were administered to the District Education Officers, Assistant District Inspectors and to the panel of experts. Some of the persons were interviewed. Data were also collected from historical literature and inspection notes of the pre-independence period.

The study revealed that: (i) attending VIPs, consolidation of data pertaining to census, elections, preparation of voter lists, supervision of relief works, engagement in programmes for prevention of epidemics, organisation of family planning camps and purchase of paddy for national stock were some of the significant functions which consumed major portion of the inspectors' time and energy; (ii) existing T.A. and D.A. rules were not satisfactory and required reconsideration; (iii) the inspectors presented quite a pessimistic picture of the present day elementary teachers who lacked motivation for teaching.

659. TRIVEDI, A. K., *A Critical Enquiry into the Secondary School Inspection System in India*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1965.

The objectives of this study were: (i) to examine critically the evolution of inspection system of secondary schools in India, (ii) discover and diagnose the strength and weaknesses of the system in order to retain or reshape them in the existing school systems, (iii) to suggest the needed reorganisation of the administrative machinery of school inspection, and (iv) to include the vital relations between the enlightened, democratic and dynamic state inspectorate of schools and the reconstruction of secondary schools in India.

The investigator prepared five questionnaires and administered them to sixtyeight people of different categories, viz., officers from the educational departments of state governments, headmasters and teachers from different parts of India, and educationists of repute. In addition to questionnaires, data were also collected through interviews, records and reports of state as well as central governments, and other connected literature. The data thus collected were analysed under three major aspects of school inspection — organisation of inspectorate, selection and qualification of inspectors, and methods of inspection. The details about the evolution of secondary school inspection system in British India and free India has been given.

The findings of the study were: (i) the inspector should be relieved of his administrative duties, gradually, so as to enable him to become a true educational leader; (ii) good professional education and special training for effective performance of his role as educational leader are essential for the inspector; (iii) the inspector should attend inservice programmes now and then, to keep himself abreast of the latest developments in his functions; and (iv) there is a need for formation of state and all India associations of school inspectors.

660. VARTAK, R. M., *A Critical Study of Education Organisation, Administration and Problems, under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samities Act of 1961, in the State of Maharashtra*, Ph.D. Edu., SNTD, 1971.

The purposes of the study were: (i) to evaluate the educational administration of local authorities, (ii) to review whether the democratic decentralisation of educational administration, as envisaged by

Balwantrai Mehta Committee, has come to stay and has helped rural educational development in the state of Maharashtra, and (iii) to locate its weak points and to suggest measures to remedy the same.

Out of twenty-six districts, the data were collected from twentythree districts. Information was collected from different authorities, i.e., government educational authorities, officers, locally elected representatives, teachers, etc. The tools used for this research were questionnaires, interviews, observations and attendance at meetings of the education committees of some of the zilla parishads. The data were also collected by studying the related documents.

Results revealed that: (i) due to decentralised administration of education there is spread of education in rural areas and as it has started developing, it appears that this type of administrative set up is beneficial to the state; (ii) education has become the common man's interest and because of this, it has gained momentum; (iii) the number of elected members of education committees of zilla parishads is inadequate to undertake the educational responsibilities of the whole district; (iv) considering the achievement of objectives of decentralisation of administration, local authorities have been successful in spreading education and, in the rural areas, local participation in solving the educational problems is achieved though the participation in education and administration is limited; (v) the young local leadership has proved to be useful for the education in the rural areas; (vi) the administration of primary education being on block/taluka level, the delay in the administrative procedural work has been avoided to some extent; (vii) the attitude of the people's representatives in the rural areas is cooperative and there is a feeling of participation in educational administration; (viii) bureaucratic attitude of the administrative education officers still appears to be the same as was seen in the British regime; (ix) in no district of Maharashtra is long term planning of education being undertaken and hence the needs, aspirations and expectations of the local people cannot be reflected in the planning of education; (x) due to the participation of the peoples' representatives in the administration, there is an improvement and lessening of lethargy in educational administration; (xi) due to the present structural limitations of the educational administration, it is found that it has not reached the people according to the expectations; (xii) due to increase in the responsibilities of the education officers, they find it difficult to pay due attention to their academic duties such as supervi-

sion, guidance, visits, etc., and it has become impossible for them to undertake educational survey or research; (xiii) the Articles 95 and 100 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samities Act of 1961 render some ambiguity and hence the duties of the education officer need some clarification which will enable the administration to accelerate the growth of education; (xiv) it seems that the responsibility regarding all-sided development of the locality should not overburden extension officers for education; and (xv) there is a mutual and healthy competition between regions and districts so far as the educational growth and development and provision of educational facilities are concerned. The investigator has also made some recommendations.

661. VATS, I. P., *Leadership Roles in Educational Administration in Punjab, Ph.D. Edu., Pan. U., 1972.*

The main objectives in undertaking this research study were: (i) to portray the leadership behaviour patterns of educational administrators and to assess their relevance and efficiency for implementation of educational policies and programmes; (ii) to identify differences in self-role perceptions of educational administrators vis-a-vis the role expectations of teachers or observers; (iii) to pinpoint the inadequacies in the existing leadership role of educational administrators and to suggest the directions for improvement.

The sample for the study included the officers in the education department at various levels—the officers above the rank of the superintendent at the directorate level, district and deputy education officers, and block education officers. The investigator used questionnaire along with interview, informal talks and discussion as the tools for collecting data.

Major observations were as follows: (i) the most important aspect of career development was an officers' own motivation and his effort for self-development. (ii) New stresses and strains had developed within the administrative system, hence there was a need for improvement of personnel efficiency, discipline and personnel system, methods and practices. In India, there has been some movement in this direction. In the education department of Punjab, there was hardly any provision for preprofessional or inservice training of officers except by way of seminars, conferences, etc., at the time of this study. (iii) The expansion of education demanding increasing responsibility and functional competence at the lower sectors highlighted the necessity for

more managerial expertise on the part of the administrators so that they were able to energise the administrative organisation to full action. (iv) As regards institution building, more than sixty percent leaders at all levels had said that there was practically no attraction for developing new ideas and new programmes. (v) It was noted that administrators at all levels had a reasonably clear perception of their role. If they were given more time for self-development and were suitably trained, they might be able to play a meaningful leadership role. (vi) It was observed that practical knowledge relating to a problematic situation was increasingly becoming the basis of leadership; another field wanting in leadership role was the capability of the administrators in taking decision. (vii) Administrative leadership appeared to be somewhat personalistic, further, there was a formal type of relationship in the education department and the life of the subordinates was made difficult because of the administrative inaptitude. (viii) The interference of the politicians in day-to-day administration was found to be non-conducive to a flourishing leadership role.

662. VIJ, D. R., *A Study of Parent-Teacher Cooperation in Secondary Schools, Ph.D. Edu., SPU, 1972.*

Major objectives of the study were: (i) to assess the importance which teacher-educators, heads of schools, school teachers and parents attach to parent-teacher cooperation, (ii) to take stock of the existing position regarding parent-teacher cooperation in the secondary schools of Punjab, (iii) to study some parent-teacher associations (PTA) in Punjab through case study, (iv) to find out, empirically, the impact of parent-teacher cooperation in the scholastic achievement of students, (v) to have a general survey of the parents' interest in the education of their children, (vi) to find the relationship between the parents' interest in the education of their children and school achievement of those children, (vii) to find the relationship between parents' occupation, their educational qualifications and their interest in the education of their children.

A cooperation scale showing eleven possible agencies of cooperation with school was prepared and administered to heads of schools (N = 100), teacher-educators (N = 100), school teachers (N = 100) and parents (N = 100). A check-list-cum-questionnaire was prepared to find out the existing position with regard to the working of parent-teacher cooperation in our schools. It was administered

to 400 heads of schools all over the state. A case history schedule for studying the working of PTAs was developed and made use of for studying some PTAs of Punjab (N = 20). Teachers, parents, principals and education officers were interviewed to collect information. Records of PTAs were also consulted. A scale to measure attitude towards education was developed and administered to 300 students. The Prayag Mehta's Group Verbal Test of Intelligence was used to measure intelligence. Annual examination marks were taken as the measure of achievement. An experimental study was also conducted on a sample of class X students (N = 50). Correlation technique was used for analysis of results.

The results of the study revealed that (i) parent-teacher cooperation and achievement of students were positively and significantly related; (ii) interest of parents in the education of their children was substantial, though it was mainly provisional; (iii) there was also a positive relationship between parental interest and achievement scores of their children; (iv) much of the work done by PTAs at present aims at parent-teacher contact rather than parent-teacher cooperation; (v) parents, teachers, teacher-educators and heads of institutions seemed to realise the importance of the role of parent-teacher cooperation in any programme of effective schooling, but discussions revealed that the concept of parent-teacher cooperation remained misunderstood and somewhat vague to all of them.

663. VYAS, J. P., *Central Government's Role in Indian Education — 1813-1961 (An Educational and Historical Assessment)*, Ph.D. Edu., Sag. U., 1963.

The objectives of the study were: (i) to investi-

gate into the role of the Government of India in the matter of educational policies from 1813 to 1961; (ii) to analyse the factors which influenced the judgement of the government, from time to time, and to identify the principles and practices underlying them; and (iii) to offer suitable suggestions to integrate the role of Government of India with others which are also performing an equally important function in the field.

This study was an historical exploration. Commission reports, documents, government reports, and other connected literature have been used as source material for collecting data.

Some of the observations of the study were: (i) the Government of India in British period was not directly responsible for its indifference towards education; (ii) the Government of India could not possibly have adopted any other system of education because of lack of suitable machinery, existing divergence of the social systems in India and partly due to its inheritance from Britain; (iii) the roles played by Macaulay, Bentinck, and Curzon in shaping the policies of government regarding education were misunderstood, but they should be judged in the context of historical and psychological situations of those times; (iv) the foundations of the present educational policies could be traced back to pre-independence days of the country; (v) the craze for government service not only created vested interests of English knowing people but also over-burdened the curriculum with language studies at the cost of science education; (vi) these policies led to educated unemployment as well as underemployment; and (vii) with the growth of education, there had been an unprecedented multiplication of personnel in the central government.