

History of Education

A Trend Report

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WHILE a number of studies have been conducted since the last trend report was written, there appears no significant advance in terms of either methodology or the areas of study undertaken. The basic problem with the History of Education seems to be the lack of theoretical framework. There are a few possible choices for scholars in this field. Unfortunately, these choices have neither been clearly recognised nor, in practice, exercised.

One possibility is to consider the educational system very clearly as a sub-system of the polity or of society. In this case an interpretation of Indian history, whether Marxist or Liberal, nationalist or pro-British will be taken as the basis. The events in education, whether it is promulgation of government policies or the opening of institutions or development of particular kinds of educational work — these will all be seen as parts of or even as consequence flowing from the political or the economic events of the period.

A second alternative would be to take individual educational reformers or trends in the country, such as Gandhi or Tagore or Iqbal or movements like the Arya Samaj, the Lingayat or Shaiva or Muslim modernist or revivalist movements. Exposition of the curriculum and methods of teaching followed by these movements have to be seen against the background of the philosophical or political viewpoint adopted. Such an approach would essentially describe only the spectacular movement on the fringe of the main stream of the actual educational history of modern India.

A third possibility would be to accept the chronology and consequence of pedagogical development in the western world from the adult and from the book-dominated curriculum and methods to the child-centred, and later, work or community-centred approach. This was followed after a period of substantial industrialization and of the development of the

modern national State by the introduction of (a) science and technology at the secondary and higher levels of education and (b) preparatory elements like the training of the hand and the eye through crafts, nature study, object lessons, etc., at the elementary school level. The formation of the national identity was itself supported by the teaching of history, by teaching of a common language and by introduction of elements of civic training, sometimes explicitly in the curriculum and sometimes implicitly in the daily routine discipline and form of organisation of the school and school system. All these developments were strengthened by the development of a system of training of teachers through the universities for the upper-most level of secondary education, and through teachers training institutions for other levels. This would be a primarily pedagogical-oriented history of education, though, to be meaningful, it will have to be strongly related to the socio-economic developments of the time. Such history of American progressive education was attempted in Lawrence Cremin's *Transformation of the School*. A more comprehensive though less closely integrated attempt would be R. F. Butts' *Cultural History of Education*, which treats the whole of western educational history in four aspects, namely, political and economic events, cultural events, educational movements and educational institutions for each period of western history separately.

A fourth possibility would be to study particular institutions or types of institutions. The choice of data in such cases can be made meaningful by using a proper political or sociological theoretical framework. This would be illustrated by studies of public schools or of universities, which illustrate how the selection of students, the organisational methods and the curriculum (both explicit subject matter and the 'hidden curriculum' of values, habits, etc.) were used in these institutions.

Yet another possibility could be a purely intellectual history of education emphasising the elements of educational thought dominant in each period.

As we examine the foregoing possible theoretical frameworks for studying the History of Education, the existing work appears to fall very little in any one of the foregoing. There has been a strong tendency to take the acts, charters and resolutions of the Government of India, as the main corner-stone of educational history. Wherever a theoretical framework has been visible, it has a strongly nationalist bias without an adequate grounding in the socio-economic characteristics of the nationalist movement. Recently, some efforts are visible in terms of a Marxist oriented approach to the history of India. However, this is quickly foreshadowed by a sociological orientation which tends to emphasise the role of caste and occupation of the participants in education as data for the History of Education. There has also been an attempt to depart from a purely holistic approach to the history of Indian education. In recognition of the fact that education was often administered in the Presidencies and Provinces of India, and to a lesser extent recognising the diverse socio-economic characteristics of different parts of the country, regional and provincial histories have been attempted. Some efforts at history of particular sectors of educational work, such as secondary education or university education or elementary education or vocational and professional education are in evidence. There have been a few studies of institutions and movements. A very small amount of attention has been paid to the history of the development of pedagogy.

Nurullah and Naik's (1962) pioneering work had set up a tradition over three decades ago. It relied on Acts and Charters, Commission Reports and Policy Resolutions to develop a periodisation of modern Indian educational history. A set of dichotomies between government and private 'enterprise', between 'indigenous' and 'Western' educational practices, between British and 'nationalist' educational positions had been seen to provide the framework in which educational events were to be interpreted. With relatively few exceptions, to be noticed later, post-independence work in Indian educational history has not transcended the framework of the pioneers, however much it appears in need of supersession, not only on account of the wider access to data now possible but also on account of the newer modes and tools with which contemporary Indian history is now understood. The Nurullah-Naik (N-N) frame work itself was not as vigorously nationalistic or vigorously aca-

demic as for instance, the preceding work of Parulekar (1951) on indigenous education in Bombay or Basu's (1935) edition of Adam's Report on indigenous instruction in Bengal though it must be conceded the merit of being comprehensive. The post independence work is, taken as a whole, by contrast anaemic. The colourless 'neutrality' of academic work for a degree has come in but not the penetrating tools of economic history or sociology or political theory. Many other genre of educational history, e.g., of development of curricula, school practices or educational theory (exemplified brilliantly in the American context by Lawrence Cremin's *Transformation of the School* or Richard Hofstadter's *History of Academic Freedom in the United States*) or of institutions have not been attempted.

Many scholars have moved in the direction of histories in states and regions either because it was felt that more grassroots data are required to enrich our understanding and to test or propose hypotheses about the development of education at the micro level or on account of the fact they had nothing new to offer or propose beyond the work of the pioneers regarding educational history on a national plane. We have, thus, studies on Assam (Renu Debi 1971), Bihar (Jha 1961 and Prasad 1967), Madhya Pradesh (Bhave 1967). Rao's (1968) study of Andhra, part of the Madras Presidency under East India Company follows predictable lines. Namita Devi's (1966) attempt to relate the educational progress at the time of Rammohan, Devendranath (Tagore) and Keshab Chandra (Sen) to religious elements of the renaissance looks interesting, but far-fetched rather than plausible. History and survey of districts are traceable in Western India to the influence of Parulekar. In this category are Parasnisi (1958) on Thana, Rege (1961) on Ratnagiri, Nabar (1964) on Bombay city and Yadav (1970) on Jabalpur. Both Parasnisi and Rege use the statistics of schools and pupils, the nature of management and finance — government, local bodies or missionary, etc. — to delineate developments. We do run into perceptive observations often times e.g., that the same schemes have different results in Bihar from Bengal (Jha 1961).

Sectoral studies of education are similar in nature and inspiration. Kamalamma's (1969) problems of primary education in Kerala, Tiwari's (1964) of U.P. and Patel's (1958) of Bombay Basic education seem to have rather slight historical basis. Das (1968) on Orissa shows the problem of backward state whose identity itself developed late. Basak (1965) illustrates with data the familiar thesis of the neglect of the in-

indigenous educational base in developing new primary education in Bengal. It is not clear if he is aware as pointed out by Shukla (1958) of a reversal of tactic by government after the government system had been firmly established by the time of the Hunter Commission (1882). Ahuja's (1962) study of indigenous education in Punjab utilises Leitner's data on indigenous education. Saxena's (1959) attempt to study pre-primary education emphasizes pedagogic elements but suffers from slightness of the very subject studied. Desai's (1968) study of secondary education in Kaira District illustrates the poverty of tools with which history of education is studied when it is seen alongside B. V. Shah's (1969) study of the high schools of Kaira at about the same time which brought out the caste composition and social variables as operative in education. Sathu's (1967) study of Indian Public Schools gives valuable data but appears again to miss important sociological material which should have helped test the extent to which they feel the same elite training role as in England. He makes reference, to nationalist institutions as a reference point.

The next important sector to be studied is technical and professional education. But it has not so far received due attention. Shukla (1958) had opened up the area and attempted to trace the relationship (or lack of it) between agriculture and agricultural education which finally helped trained revenue officials and that between P.W.D. railway development and engineering education and the place of art and crafts education under 19th century British empire. Mangamma (1971) followed up with detailed attention to technical and agricultural education in the Madras Presidency. Sharma's (1971) study of professional education in Rajasthan is highly contemporary. A general weakness of history writing in this field is unfamiliarity with the various prototypes of educational institutions and practice evolved in the West and inadequate insight into the relation of technical-professional education to economic and social history on the one hand and to structure and function of the higher learning particularly as epitomised by the university on the other.

Women's education has received reasonable attention when judged on the basis of Misra's (1961) work which has been published, Rai (1955) on Bengal, Vakil (1965) on Bombay and Desai (1972) on Gujarat. The approach in this field is not dissimilar to the characterisation of Indian educational history in general. More theoretical insight into the nature of the Indian family and economy and the

place of woman in it would lend much greater meaning to the accounts available. Naik (1949) seeks to relate women's education to political forms like fascism, communism, etc., but uses this understanding largely to justify the democratic political system then being adopted in the nation. She provides valuable material specially regarding women's educational movement, e.g., S. N. D. T. in Bombay State, discusses the problem of separatism and common education with men, etc., Dave's (1971) study of Gujarat appears insightful.

Four studies on Christian efforts in education, viz., Josephine's (1952) on Catholic education in Bombay, Joseph (1971), Gumashta (1969) and Coelho (1958) on Bassein follow the general pattern of Indian educational history. The contribution of the church to Indian language education, rural education, vocational education, religious versus secular emphasis in education is noticed. There is occasional evidence of feeling one way or another.

Two sets of theses seem to stand out of the main stream, viz., foreign studies, e.g., Sahib (1963) on Fiji and Ainoo (1964) on Nigeria and the pre-modern period, e.g., Kaul (1949) on Kashmir upto 1339 A.D., Manuel (1964) on Tamil, Sahay (1965), Parimoo (1963), Quraishi (1960) on medieval Gujarat. Manuel's efforts to elicit an educational theory and thought akin to western from classical Tamil literature is worthy of note. Taken as a whole, we need a much more coherent understanding of pre-modern India with which to study the education and learning of those times. Much greater competence in Indology has in fragments been applied by Indologists to this matter and requires to be mastered by those concerned with the study of education.

The most promising trend in the study of history of education is represented by the efforts to apply the recent and in many cases quasi-Marxist and/or sociological understanding of modern India to the study of Indian education. Goel (1968) has followed up the approach of Shukla for early part of twentieth century. But he has also introduced innovations such as the view of education in literature about the contemporary period, e.g., Premchand, or a reconstruction of the picture in education from interviews with people of a selected age range or generation. His notion of a five-class social structure appears highly controversial and has no base in modern social science. Upreti's (1972) attempt to relate education with political developments crystallises a mode of thought which had been implicit in much earlier work. His

attempt to construct a frame of reference for himself is brave but could have taken greater account of previous work in contemporary political science or in colonial cultural history. Kamat's (1968) study of education in rural Maharashtra utilizes data from agro-economic surveys for understanding relationships of education to rural social structure and the current efforts to modernise Indian agriculture provides important empirical base for more theoretical work. Dikshit's (1963) study of some renaissance religious movements in their education effects is of the older genre. Niaz Ahmad Azmi's (1975) work on Muslim education in eastern U.P. with a special focus on the Shibli institution in Azamgarh takes up the ideological-political implications of minority education partially applying the social-anthropologists' methods to educational history, in however limited a manner. All of these studies illustrate ways in which history of education could make more meaning.

To conclude, history of education in India has made only limited advances over the work of the pioneers either in methodology or substantive findings. This is a situation in which vast strides appear called for. Any scholar must either master the focus and

viewpoint of one or more major social science or humanistic discipline and/or assimilate the specific understandings on educational institutions and content provided by educational history of the West or of comparative education. The way out of the difficulties in this field is not in the direction of requiring two master's degrees from educational scholars but to improve the human inputs as well the content of courses at the master's level. On both counts the history of education has been under increasingly unfavourable competition with the more exact and rigorous disciplines of psychology or measurement. One can only hope that the recent spurt of interest in the sociology of education will be useful from our standpoint. From this point of view, it is necessary that the sociology of education be rigorous enough to be academically respectable with sociologists and at the same time avoid two of the pitfalls of sociologists — (a) the neglect of history and (b) the primary concern with the relation of education to social structure to the exclusion and neglect of what might appropriately be called the micro or the internal sociology of education or the sociology of educational institutions.

ABSTRACTS : 15-62

- *15. *ADHYAPAK, U. C., The Role of Private Agencies in the Development of Education in Gujarat, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1976.*

The aims were : (i) to enable one to have an overall picture of the services rendered by private agencies, (ii) to highlight their strengths and weaknesses, and (iii) to ascertain the ways and means conducive to a better functioning of such agencies in order to make democracy work smoothly in the country.

It was a historical survey utilizing library research method. Relevant source materials like educational records, annual and quinquennial reports, surveys, educational yearbooks, legislative enactments, gazettes, histories, and biographies were used to collect information for the study. Some information was collected through interview with a few persons actually working in the field.

The findings were the following : (i) Private agencies had opened schools in very remote areas where government could not venture to go because of lack of imagination or fear of courting failure or incurring huge financial losses. (ii) Private enterprises in education had resulted in giving the state good educational institutions with good records of achievements and social service to masses. (iii) Private institutions had contributed largely to the expansion of educational facilities. (iv) Great political and social awakening in the masses was largely due to private agencies. (v) Private agencies had also attended to the weaker section of the community and as a result had proved helpful to the government in their efforts to elevate the masses in furthering the cause of democracy, and had produced a leadership capable of shouldering national responsibility.

- *16. *AHMAD, A., System of Education in Medieval India (1526 to 1761 A.D.), Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1978.*

The study aimed at analysing the system of education in medieval India (1526 to 1761 A.D.). It is a historical and descriptive study.

The major findings have been presented descriptively. In medieval India, the primary education started for the children from the age of four to five years. Before the actual study commenced, a custom to seek the blessings of the elders which was called 'Tasmia Khani' or 'Abjab Khani' or 'Bismillah Khani'

was performed. This idea was borrowed from the early Arabs, who used to produce their children before the Holy Prophet for blessings. The friends and relatives attended the ceremony to bless the child and offer congratulations to the parents. Immediately after the ceremony, the teachers used to teach alphabets and try to bring home the graphic appearance of letters. After the letters were taught, and mastered, the children were taught to combine them into words. Considerable number of exercises of various combinations with various movements were displayed to the children till they thoroughly knew the perfect combinations of words. Memory was given more importance than thinking. Children who lagged behind were given special attention and greater affection. At times they were rebuked for lapses and punished if found guilty of negligence.

In the beginning simple reading of the text of the Holy Quran was taught to acquaint the children at the tender age with religion, morals and ethics to mend their future life. Elementary alphabets were also taught along with the Quran. The place where the children learnt alphabets and elementary reading and arithmetic was named as Makatab. Makatabs were held in mosques, as well as in some convenient places according to the availability of students.

In primary classes, the day to day increasing calibre of students was tested through 'Amokhta' (recapitulation). The children were asked to read aloud the lessons with a view to memorising them. At the close of the test period every student had to reproduce them before the teacher. Abul Fazl has given importance to 'Amokhta' in Akbar's scheme of education. So he writes, 'the teachers were thus required to be more particular for five things daily, namely, (i) identification of a verse, (ii) identification of words, (iii) knowledge of a verse, (iv) knowledge of a poem, and (v) recapitulation'.

Secondary education, in its first stage included the teaching of the Persian literature and elementary Arabic. The Persian grammar which consisted of the memorisation of Persian nouns and verbs was taught in the beginning. The teaching of elementary Arabic began with Sarf. In Sarf conjugations and rules of grammar were taught and they were learnt by heart. It was followed by concise teaching of Nahu (syntax) and the rules had to be learnt by heart.

The students in the medieval period were expected to attend classes with full preparations. They were expected to put questions and discuss subject matter during the lecture. The teachers never appreciated the passive and dull students. The literary debates and conventions were very popular in the teaching centres. Self-study was essential for the students of the Mughal period. They were directed to consult dictionary and the allied books. There was no fixed hour of teaching or of holding classes. But generally teaching would start after the morning prayer or sometimes depending upon the teachers' convenience. There were some prerequisites for the students to attend the classes. They were : (i) the students were obliged to come earlier than the teachers; (ii) the students were expected to behave properly; (iii) students were expected to come in a proper and approved dress, i.e., with caps or 'emamas' on their heads; and (iv) they were expected to keep the books on a high place. Even though there used to be no attendance register during the Mughal period, cent percent attendance used to be there.

Oral and written examinations were held in compulsory as well as optional subjects. The written examination comprised language and literature. Generally alternative questions were not set. All the questions were compulsory. The students were not tested by the teachers, but by learned persons of the age, from time to time. The successful students were awarded degrees and certificates.

All the subjects at the higher education level were taught through the medium of Arabic. Some subjects were compulsory and some were optional. Sarf, Nahu, Jurisprudence and principles of Jurisprudence were taught as compulsory subjects, but logic was not. Questions, discussions and open debates served the purpose of examinations. Higher education aimed at the development of mental faculties of students.

Departments of education, budgeting, financing were not there throughout 1000 years. Sporadic donations of lands by rulers and philanthropists helped the education. Teachers enjoyed complete freedom and were preparing syllabus, educational schemes, etc. They were institutions by themselves commanding highest esteem.

*17. ALI ABD AL RAHMAN MOHAMMAD AL-BAHUSYN, *Muslim Educational System in Iraq during the Abbasid Period*, Ph.D. Arabic and Islamic Studies, AMU, 1964.

The objective of the investigation was to study the system of primary and higher education in the medieval period in Iraq during the reign of Abbasid caliphs.

The primary sources of the study included the works of A-Ghazali, Ibn-e-jozi, Al-Farabi, Al-Tabbasi, and Ibn-e-Abdul Bar. The works of modern orientalists like Lens, Nicholson, Hitti, and Leary were analysed to get the views of orientalists of modern age about the muslim education.

The study revealed the following : (i) Primary education was considered most relevant during Abbasid rule in Iraq. (ii) Higher centres of learning in Baghdad flourished with scholars of great repute. (iii) In comparison to other places like Basra, Koofa, Mecca, Medina and al-Hijaz, the city of Baghdad became the centre of Islamic learning and sciences during the Abbasid reign. (iv) Great contribution was made towards education during this period. (v) In the primary schools, colleges and Jamiat, teaching and research were done with full confidence.

*18. BASU, U., *Female Education in Bihar from 1904 A.D. to the Present Day*, Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1975.

The objectives of the study were to find out the causes of backwardness of education of women in Bihar and to suggest solutions to problems regarding illiteracy, expansion of girls' education, standardisation of primary education, science teaching in secondary schools, and so on.

This is a library study. Both the primary and secondary sources of data were utilized.

The study revealed that prior to 1904, girls used to attend only the special schools, except for the small girls who studied along with the boys. Between 1904 and 1919 some progress in girls' education was registered. But in spite of the progress, it was not as much as could be expected. This was mainly due to non-cooperation movement and economic stress. In a high school, the expenditure on girls' education was almost twice as that for boys. During the period of 1919-1927 the progress still slowed down because of : (i) the prevalent customs like purdah and child marriage systems, (ii) the scarcity of trained women teachers, and (iii) general unwillingness on the part of the parents to spend money for the daughter's education. The government resolved in 1929-30 that priority should be given to girl's education. During the 1937 to 1947 period the medium of instruction changed from English to mother tongue. The number of high

schools for girls rose from eleven to twelve, middle schools to forty and primary schools to 2,067. The special grant for girls' education was estimated at 30,000,00 rupees and twenty scholarships were created for collegiate study. Education in independent India has passed from apathetic indifference to eager activity, but women's education did not progress satisfactorily. During the First Five Year Plan period the progress of girls' education was slow but steady, with slight fluctuations in primary, secondary and collegiate as also in the spheres of professional and social education. The Second Five Year Plan took note of backwardness of girls' education in Bihar and considered it as one of the urgent problems in the field of education. Special measures were taken to increase the enrolment of girls at the elementary and secondary stages. But the Fourth Five Year Plan had, however, given little consideration to the quantitative and qualitative improvement of women's education in Bihar. Illiteracy alone was not the problem. The curricula, quality of teachers and administration in all stages needed greater attention. In comparison to Bihar, other states like Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Mysore, Punjab, West Bengal, and Union territories made much progress. The major handicaps for progress of girls' education in Bihar were inadequate fund, dearth of trained teachers and attitude of the parents of middle and lower classes to girls' education.

19. CHAKRAVARTI, A., *History of Education in Assam 1826-1919*, Ph.D. Hist., Gau. U., 1972.

The major objective of the study was to survey the progress of education in Assam from 1826 to 1919.

The old records, documents, reports, journals and periodicals were consulted as source materials.

After the annexation of Assam in 1826, the British Government found a few schools on traditional lines in a moribund condition. In the beginning the Britishers followed a dual policy. The English education was restricted to a selected few while the vernacular, particularly Bengali, was popularised for the masses. A comprehensive educational code was drawn in the Despatch of 1854, but certain modifications in the policies were made in the Education Commission of 1882, the Resolutions of 1904 and 1913. Some progress, during the period under review, was witnessed. Before 1854 the percentage of pupils in primary schools was less than one. This percentage rose to 2.68 in 1853-54, 4.44 in 1874-75 and 20.61 in 1918-19. The percentage of students steadily increased in secondary schools from 0.34 in 1834-35 to 4.23 in

1874-75 and 14.78 in 1918-19. At the university stage there was correspondingly a slight increase in the number of students. The percentage of university students was 1.90 in 1901-1902 which rose to 15.88 in 1918-19. The percentage of total enrolment including all kinds of education to total educable population in the years 1854, 1875, 1882, 1902 and 1919 were 1.61, 3.34, 4.35, 8.01 and 15.21 respectively which indicated slightly increasing trend. But the masses did not receive the benefit of the education. Four villages out of five were without a school. The standard of the primary education was low and there was more of wastage at primary level. At the secondary level too, there were attempts to increase the number of schools rather than to raise them qualitatively. The secondary education was excessively literary and insufficiently vocational in character. The industrial, technical, agricultural and other professional education did not progress due to financial stringency. The progress in the field of higher education was negligible, though there were two colleges in the province. The whole educational system was examination-ridden. The only redeeming feature of the western education of that period was that it created a middle class intelligentsia who spread liberal views and attacked social customs like purdah system, opium eating, etc.

20. CHATTERJEE, C., *Ancient Hindu Education as Described in the Upanishads*, Ph.D. Edu., Luc. U., 1950.

The present study aimed at delineating the different aspects of ancient Hindu education as to how it helped an individual to draw out and stimulate the spiritual, intellectual, and physical faculties in him.

The study is a piece of library research. Historical approach has been adopted. Eleven Upanishads with Sankara's commentary upon them have been the sources of data. In different chapters an attempt has been made to indicate the spirit and meaning of Upanishadic education by means of critical analysis of Samavartana ceremony, Upasana Vidhi, special processes of meditation, and finally the nature of Supreme Reality. Attempt has also been made to sketch the life of the Upanishadic teacher and the lineage of teachers.

Some of the main conclusions of the study were as follows : (i) At the time of admission, particulars about the lineage and family of a scholar were taken by the Upanishadic teachers. In those days the teachers attached great importance to birth and heredity as factors in education. (ii) A synthesis of theory and practice had been attempted in Upanishadic edu-

cation. The performance of household duties in the family of the preceptor was considered as a part of education. The scholar had to procure food by begging, fetch fuels for 'Homa' and tend cattle if necessary. Having finished all the duties, when the students got leisure they used to study the Vedas. The teacher also in his turn, being gratified at heart, imparted whatever he knew unhesitatingly to his disciples. (iii) In the pages of the Upanishads a brilliant galaxy of students and teachers was found.

21. DAS, L., *Development of Secondary Education in Assam from 1874 — 1947 and its impact on the Social Development*, Ph.D., Edu., Gau. U., 1973.

The main objective of the investigation was to study in depth the progress of secondary education in Assam from 1874 to 1947.

For the collection of data all available primary and secondary sources were employed. Original documents, records, reports and manuscripts served as useful source materials.

The period of study started from 1874, when Assam became a separate province. During the period under study the indigenous system of education like Pathshalas and Madrasahs continued. But the British government reiterated its policy that western education was to be promoted in place of oriental learning. Hence three types of agencies grew up for the spread of education in Assam, viz., the department of education, the local authorities and the missionaries. After the Despatch of 1854 the Government of Assam undertook the responsibility of creating a properly articulated system from the primary to the secondary stage. The organisation of the department of education, institution of grant-in-aid system and establishment of high schools in sub-divisional headquarters were steps to discharge this responsibility. The study revealed that (i) the condition of the secondary education under review was far from satisfactory; (ii) the salary, social status, tenure of service of teachers were in bad shape and their treatment by the management, in many cases, was inconsistent with their dignity; (iii) the professional level of teachers was, in most of the cases, below standard; (iv) the buildings, particularly of private institutions, were in deplorable conditions and the standard of the school programmes like physical education, moral training, debates, games, sports, publication of school magazines, etc., was generally low; (v) the missionaries were responsible for the spread of education among girls and started a network of female schools all over the State

and maintained a high standard of efficiency in their institutions and they were pioneers in organising the training of female teachers; and (vi) the percentage of success in government schools for boys in 1932 was 88.2, in aided schools 55.2, in unaided schools 78.8 and the girls schools 71.4. The study concluded that education acted as an agent of social change, paved the way for technological advancement and revolutionised every aspect of life in Assam.

- *22. DESAI, C. D., *Girls' Access to School Education in Gujarat State — a Study of Factors and Problems in Historical Perspective*, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1976.

The objectives of the study were: (i) to examine the growth of girls' school education in Gujarat from the ancient to modern times; (ii) to identify the sub-streams of changes in religious beliefs, superstitions, customs, attitudes, political climate, administrative policies and acts, practices of marriage, caste system, values, economy, etc., in Gujarat; and (iii) to assess their impact on the spread of girls' education.

This is a historical-cum-survey type of work. The data were collected through (i) a questionnaire which was related to the assessment of the girls' school education focussing on five areas, viz., school provision, enrolment, regularity of attendance, stagnation and drop out; and (ii) a perception-cum-attitude survey scale which intended to find out the parents' disposition towards age of marriage, social status, economic status, freedom, inter-caste marriage, etc. The first tool was administered to 852 respondents comprising district education officers, administrative officers, extension officers, chairmen of Panchayat Sikshan Samitis and principals of girls' schools selected from the four different zones of Gujarat. The second tool was administered to 567 parents drawn from three districts (both rural and urban areas) of Gujarat. Percentages were calculated for the analysis of the data.

The study revealed that in ancient India girls had equal right to undergo the Upanayana Sanskar, and hence they had the eligibility to study the sacred vedic literature and participate in sacrificial ceremonies. Around the third century B.C. the Aryans' marriage to non-Aryan women restricted the girls' eligibility to study vedic literature. The Muslim invasion and rule in India as well as in Gujarat curtailed the girls' access to education more, upto the end of the thirteenth century. The next period — upto 1818 A.D., was a history of woes and struggle due to Maratha supremacy. The overall sense of insecurity and social

unsafe condition put the girls within the four walls of home. The advent of Britishers in the early nineteenth century was an important exogenous factor which set in a change in Gujarati society. It was in the thirties of the nineteenth century when girls' primary education of modern type began; and that at secondary level began as late as 1880's. At the end of the nineteenth century, 23816 girls out of 1980005 of school-going age had access to primary education. Although the dogmatism was slightly loosened, the general religious and social conservatism acted as obstacles to the education of Hindu and Muslim girls. But the Christians and Zorastrians did push forward girls' education at least for their community. Further, the State government's passing on the responsibility of promoting girls' education to private enterprises acted as another obstacle, although it worked very well for boys' education. The detachment of economic value of women education was another factor strongly affecting the fate of girls' education in the State. The Gujarati society changed much more rapidly in the present century. In 1950-51, thirtysix girls against every sixtyfour boys in the age group six to eleven years, two girls against every ten boys in the age group eleven to fourteen had access to institutionalised education. The change in the social, religious, and economic characters of the Gujarati society in this century had both its evil and good effects on girls' education. The religious conservatism had its impact limited to the lower middle classes and low classes of Hindu and Muslim communities. The caste system and joint family system continued, but the age of marriage of girls went up from fourteen to sixteen years. The expansion of girls' education was, however, much more in the post-independence period, i.e., the expansion in less than three decades was much more than what happened in earlier one hundred and thirty years.

23. DESAI, V. B. and DEVE GOWDA, A. C., *History of Education in the Districts of Dharwar, Belgaum, Bijapur and North Kanara from 1800 to 1956 (i.e. prior to the integration with the Mysore State)*, 1972. (NCERT financed)

The major objective of the study was to trace the history of education in the districts of Dharwar, Belgaum, Bijapur, and North Kanara from 1800 to 1956.

This is a historical study. The main sources of the materials for this project were the quinquennial reports of the Director of Public Instruction of Bombay State published from 1892 onwards, the annual

reports of the Bombay Education Society (1822-1840), Bombay Board of Education (1840-1855) and Director of Public Instruction, Bombay State (1855-56 to 1955-56), the reports of the commissions, and other books on education. The entire period has been divided into smaller periods for tracing the history. These periods are, from beginning upto May 1855, May 1855 to 1881-82, 1882-83 to 1921-22, 1922-23 to 1946-47, and 1947-48 to 1956-57.

The study revealed that the modern education started in Karnataka with the establishment of two Marathi vernacular schools at Dharwar and Hubli in 1826. The pace was accelerated when the local bodies took control of education. Universal, free and compulsory primary education for the age group 6-11 years was introduced when the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947 was put into effect from April 1949. Secondary education was a matter of purely private effort according to the policy of the British Government. The local bodies with their foresight took initiative in opening secondary schools. The private organisations followed this lead. The delay in the development of the secondary education delayed the establishment of colleges. An arts college was established by the government in Dharwar in 1917. The local bodies could not give a lead in higher education as it was beyond their jurisdiction as well as beyond the financial capabilities. Private organisations took charge only after World War II and the Karnataka University was established in 1950.

24. DEVEGOWDA, A. C. and PARAMESWARAN, T. R., *Progress of Education in Mysore State from 1956-57 to 1968-69, Bangalore, 1971.* (NCERT financed)

The primary objective of the study was to present a picture of educational progress at all levels in the Mysore State after its reorganization.

The study is based on the data collected from various documents.

Some of the salient findings were as follows : On the first of November 1956 the Mysore State came into being to include certain regions of the States of Bombay, Mysore, Hyderabad, Madras and Coorg following a decision to form the states on linguistic basis. A number of problems arose in education due to the divergent systems existing in the areas that merged to form the Mysore State. The educational pattern, administration, availability of facilities for education and the percentage of children attending schools and colleges varied from area to area. The

percentages of enrolment and their proportion with potential population also varied from area to area. To bring out a balance, the first state level educational survey was conducted in 1957-58. The recommendations made by the survey were given effect to during the Second and Third Five Year Plan periods. On the basis of this survey larger provisions were made in the State Budget for creating larger facilities at all levels in the field of education. After studying the growth of education in different fields, like pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education, university education, vocational, technical and special education, and administration and control, it was concluded that the progress in the field of education at all levels of the State was very satisfactory.

*25. *DIXIT, U. N., Impact of Educational Policy of Britain on Indian Education, Ph.D. Edu., Udaipur, 1976.*

The research was undertaken with the following objectives : (i) to study the development of education in India since 1854 to the government resolution on educational policy in 1904; (ii) to study the contemporary developments in education in England (1854 to 1904); and (iii) to study how education in India was influenced by the educational policies in Britain during the period under study (1854 to 1904) in the field of (a) primary education, (b) secondary education, (c) university education, and (d) grant-in-aid.

Historical method was employed for the present study. Historical materials in the form of primary and secondary sources were studied from (a) National Archives of India, (b) Central Secretariat Library, (c) British Council Library, New Delhi, and (d) National Library, Calcutta.

The major findings of the study were as follows. (A) As regards primary education, the study evinced the below mentioned facts. (i) The earliest phase of British educational policy in India was a period of non-involvement. It gradually changed into a slight involvement and finally into a phase of greater involvement. (ii) Educational historians criticised the 'downward filtration' policy on the ground that when some countries had been experimenting with the idea of providing mass education, England was still thinking of the education of the elite. (iii) The British government laid down the principle of secular education in the government or in the aided institutions. (iv) The process of decentralisation of education in India began with the recommendation of Lord Ripon. (v) Curriculum changes at the elemen-

tary stage were influenced by British policies. (vi) Strict state control was also the effect of British policy. (B) Regarding the secondary education, the study revealed the following facts. (i) The 'transplantation' of secondary school was introduced on the recommendation of Wood's Despatch. (ii) With the introduction of new system of education, the examination system was also introduced. (iii) The Hardinge Resolution (1844) attempted to link education with employment. (iv) Scholarship scheme and state control were also influenced by the British policies. (C) Some of the findings regarding university education were as follows. (i) The Wood's Despatch not only suggested for the setting up of universities but also presented the model on which to plan those universities. (ii) The other aspects which were influenced by the British policies were : (a) university degrees, (b) introduction of practical sciences, (c) instituting middle class examinations, and (d) elements of election. (D) The system of grant-in-aid was drawn entirely on the model existing in England. Some principles regarding rules, fees, specific purpose, grant, local role, payment by result, etc., which were being followed in England, were adopted in India too.

*26. *GANDHI, Y. R., Development of Women's Education in Greater Bombay (1961-1974), Ph.D. Edu., SNDT, 1977.*

The important objectives of the study were : (i) to study the development of women's education in Greater Bombay from 1961 to 1974; and (ii) to study the factors which facilitate the progress of women's higher education, i.e., post S.S.C.

The major sources of data were : (i) the reports, documents, books, text-books, theses and periodicals; and (ii) visits to institutions which specially imparted education to women in Greater Bombay. The tools used for the study were : (i) questionnaire and (ii) interview, apart from the first source of data. The sample for the questionnaire was 250. Income, education and job were taken as variables in selecting the sample. The representation of the working and non-working women, and representation of S.S.C. (only) and graduate women were equal. On the variable of income, the representation was — ten percent of them had income below Rs. 1200 per annum, fifty percent of them had between Rs. 1201 and 3000, thirty percent of them had between Rs. 3001 and 6000, and ten percent of them had income above Rs. 6000 per annum. Fifty experts from different fields, i.e., teaching, medicine, law, social work and administration were interviewed.

The major findings of the study were : (i) 55.7 percent women and 69.7 percent men were literate in 1973-74 in Greater Bombay. (ii) Primary education had achieved the target of 99.6 percent of boys and 70.1 percent of girls to be enrolled during the Fourth Five Year Plan. But the wastage in case of girls had increased from fifty-nine percent to seventy percent in the said period. (iii) Percentage of pupils enrolled in the classes VIII to XI/XII was very low, i.e., 50.2 percent boys and 47.4 percent girls. The percentage of wastage at this level was twenty-seven percent in boys and thirty-four percent in girls. (iv) In Greater Bombay the percent proportion of girls to total enrolment of preprimary, primary and secondary stages of education in 1973-74 were 45.6 percent, 46.0 percent and 42.0 percent respectively and percent of girls to total enrolment in Arts, Science and Commerce faculties were sixty-two percent, thirty-one percent and fourteen percent respectively. (v) 'Self-incentive' was the main factor for seeking higher education. (vi) Equality of men's and women's status was yet to be achieved.

27. GOYAL, B. R., *Education of the Depressed Classes in India during the British Period*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1973.

The objective of the present study was to find out the important events and trends that directly or indirectly contributed to the spread of education among the depressed classes during the British period.

In this historical research, the various educational records, proceedings of the Departments of Home and Education, reports on the progress of education in different periods, reports of various committees and commissions, and quinquennial reports, along with books, journals and other research records, were used to get the relevant data.

It was found that during the pre-British period, the depressed classes were deprived of equality of opportunity in social, political, economic, and educational matters. This had led to the situation of general backwardness of these classes. The Social Reform Movement initiated in the nineteenth century was instrumental for awakening consciousness for the upliftment of the depressed classes. Education was considered as the means of social elevation and economic welfare of these classes and as such, most of the social organizations included expansion of education among the depressed classes as a necessary aspect of their programmes. The depressed classes conferences and other organizations of the depressed classes, though primarily meant for furthering political privilege,

made developmental programmes of education part and parcel of their total programme. The religious neutrality practised by the British Government and the subsequent establishment of government schools which were secular in character helped the promotion of education among the depressed classes. Provision of special facilities, creation of monetary incentives in the form of freeships, stipends, scholarships, grants, etc., reservation of seats in educational institutions and reservation of posts in services were instrumental for the promotion of education among the depressed classes. Provision of hostel facilities was considered to be an important step for promoting secondary and higher education among the depressed classes. The education of the girls remained ignored during the British period in general. The role played by non-official agencies and individuals was crucial in strengthening the government efforts to promote education among the depressed classes. The contributions of Gandhiji, Jotirao Phuley, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, and their co-workers were significant for promoting education among the depressed classes.

- *28. JHA, H., *Education in Ancient India with Special Reference to Valmiki Ramayana*, Ph.D. Edu., Bih. U., 1972.

The study aimed at investigating education in ancient India with special reference to Valmiki Ramayana.

The study adopted historical method of research. The main source for data collection were Valmiki Ramayana and other ancient historical books.

The following salient findings were drawn : (i) The sociological conditions as traced from the epic Ramayana indicated a well arranged democratic organisational pattern. (ii) The idealistic concept of the society was the attractive feature at that time. (iii) The community during the days of Ramayana seemed to be quite congenial to the physical and mental health of the society, which was as a result of community education provided. (iv) It was found that it would be possible to adopt many aspects of education as illustrated in Valmiki Ramayana, into the present system of education.

29. JHA, R., *A Study of Student Life in the Arsha Epics*, Ph.D. Sans., Bih. U., 1969.

The present study is an attempt to analyse the chief characteristics and ideals of the student life as mentioned in the Arshamahakavyas.

For the collection of data Upanishads, Kadambari, Garud Puran, Mahabharata, Dharma Sutras,

Ramayana, Abhigyan Shakuntalam, Geeta, Ram-charitamanas, etc., were consulted.

The study critically analysed the following significant aspects of education which helped organise and guide student life in ancient days : (i) to inculcate spiritualism and a religious outlook in the pupil; (ii) to develop the individual personality; (iii) to train for citizenship and to inculcate social skills; (iv) to impart technical and craft education; (v) to inculcate the ideal of simple living and high thinking; (vi) to develop intellectual capabilities; (vii) to develop a quality to express freely; (viii) to impart education according to nature and environment of the pupil; (ix) to teach through the medium of mother tongue of the student; (x) to help in the realization of the ultimate Truth or Moksha; and (xi) to create an atmosphere of academic freedom in institutes of learning. The investigator has further discussed the educational administration and the importance of teachers in the society. The rulers and the kings of that period extended all their support to the educational institutions but they did not exert any influence over them. In the society teachers were highly respected and even the kings bowed before the Guru or teacher. The teacher was the friend, philosopher and guide of the students.

- *30. KANSAL, M. R., *Development of Educational Administration in Punjab since 1854*, Ph.D. Edu., Punjabi U., 1976.

The problem was to trace the development of educational administration in the Punjab since 1854. The major aspects of this problem identified were : the organisational pattern, the role, recruitment and service conditions of the education officers, supervision and inspection, educational administration at local level and expenditure on educational administration.

The data were collected mostly from primary sources which included annual progress reports on education in the Punjab since 1856 and reports on the general administration of the Punjab since 1849-50. Besides this, the old office records of the government of Punjab and the Directorate of Public Instruction were also consulted. Reports of the various commissions, committees and resolutions of the government of India were used for reviewing the literature relating to the problem and arriving at right conclusions. Where possible, and necessary, comparisons were drawn in respect of position of a particular aspect in the Punjab with the position in other educationally advanced Indian states.

After the annexation of the Punjab to the British empire in 1849, the Board of Administration declared its policy of educating the inhabitants of the province. Several schools both at the district level and in the interior of several districts were opened. A uniform cess of one percent on land revenue was levied for the maintenance of these schools. At the instance of the government of India, a scheme of education, to be introduced in the Punjab on the existing pattern of N.W.F. province in 1854, was submitted for the approval of the government. The scheme was sanctioned with certain modifications; but before its introduction in final form, the Wood's Despatch was received. The scheme was prepared de novo in the light of instructions contained in the Despatch and the same was submitted to the government of India for approval. But in anticipation of the approval, the Department of Education was organised in the Punjab in 1856. The director of public instruction was to be helped by two inspectors, eleven deputy inspectors and sixty sub-deputy inspectors. The inspectors were made incharge of Eastern and Western circles in which the province had been divided for educational purpose. The deputy and sub-deputy inspectors were to work under them. The duties of these officers did not find any change upto 1919 but after that, the role and duties of the inspecting staff witnessed a considerable change when they were required to participate and supervise the newly taken up social welfare schemes. But the duties of district inspectors were not properly defined and they were required to do each and everything. In 1963-64, when the department was organised on the recommendations of J. D. Sharma Committee, the duties were properly defined. Punjab was reorganised in 1966; but the administrative set up remained the same with the same role and duties.

The organisational pattern of the department was changed several times since 1856 with few changes in the directorate, which was reorganised in 1920-21 when education became a state subject and in 1963-64 when the department was reorganised, but the inspectorate at the very outset in 1860 was reorganised when there was a wholesale condemnation. The Indian supervisory staff was dismissed. Vernacular schools were placed under the deputy commissioners, who were to be helped by tehsildars in the inspection of schools. School moharar, an educational agent, was placed at his disposal to help him in his work. Major reorganisation of the inspectorate was in 1963-64 when male and female inspectorates functioning separately were merged and the revenue district emerged

out as a unit of educational administration. Since 1860, unicameral system prevailed in the Punjab in matters of educational administration upto 1941-42. This position continued upto 1957 when bicameral system was fully introduced. Since then it has expanded considerably and at present it is functioning as a full fledged unit of educational administration.

With regard to the recruitment, training and service conditions of education officers, there was no definite policy of recruitment upto 1896, when the educational services were reorganised on the basis of domicile into three categories. Punjab reorganised its services into four categories in 1931. Since then there has been no change in this categorization. With regard to educational administration under the local authorities, as pointed out earlier, the administration of vernacular schools was under the deputy commissioners since 1860. In 1882 it was passed into the hands of local bodies, but largely it was administered by the district revenue officers. After 1921, the members of local bodies began to take interest and as a result, the disagreements in educational matters were very frequent between the local bodies and educational officers. Several efforts were made to resolve the tangle but nothing came out and ultimately local bodies schools were nationalized in 1957.

Upto 1859-60, twentyseven percent of the educational budget was spent on administration. By 1947 it came down to four percent and at the time of the study it was 2.4 percent.

On the basis of its findings, the study has offered some suggestions for improvement of educational administration.

*31. KANSARA, L., *A Survey of Basic Education During the Past Thirty Years and Its Effect on Education in General and Society in Particular*, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1977.

The major objectives of the study were : (i) to study the source of Basic Education leading to its development; (ii) to study the progress of Basic Education in pre-independence and post independence era; (iii) to understand fully the theory, principles, and practices of Basic Education; (iv) to make a comparative study of the scheme of Basic Education and various other Indian systems of education; (v) to find out the impact of Basic Education on the development of persons who received Basic Education; and (vi) to find out the effect of Basic Training on prospective teachers. The specific focus of the study was on Gujarat State.

The major tools of data collection were library studies, questionnaire, opinionnaire and interviews. A small experiment was also conducted to find out children's natural interests and attitude through setting a small handicraft class. One questionnaire, meant for all persons knowing about Basic Education and educationists in general, was distributed to 147 persons. A second questionnaire, meant for staff of the Basic Training colleges, was completed by 509 out of 695 persons. A third questionnaire, meant for final year children of Senior Basic schools, was filled in by 335 out of 636 children.

The main findings were : (i) Basic Education includes all good points of ancient and modern educational systems of India and almost all educational innovations. (ii) The system can foster further innovation. (iii) It satisfies the basic inherent educational needs of the child and through this it achieves the cherished national goals and social needs. (iv) The system is economical, self-supporting, and self-sufficient. (v) The system encourages play-way approach through practical experiences and further creates a living interest and curiosity for knowledge. (vi) It stimulates self-expression, enjoyment, liberty and nearness to nature. (vii) It builds better pupil-teacher relationship, inner discipline and mutual co-operation. (viii) It inculcates healthy attitude to work. (ix) It integrates both formal and nonformal learning. (x) Compared to other systems, Basic Education develops dignity of work, socialisation, and wider outlook of thinking. (xi) In urban areas the teachers are sceptical of education through crafts. (xii) Variety of crafts have not been used in Basic Education. (xiii) Exclusion of English in Basic Education is not liked by parents.

32. KARMALI, R. P., *A Comparative Study of the Development of Education in the New Conquests and the Old Conquests of Goa between 1910 and 1961*, Ph.D. Edu., Poona U., 1975.

The major objective was to study the change in education between 1910 and 1961 with reference to primary education, secondary education, women education, literacy and education under the Portuguese constitution.

The study employed historical method of research. Since the new conquests and old conquests were sort of territorial line dividing Hindus and Christians in Goa, the study focussed upon comparing the developments of education according to this territorial division. The data were collected both from the primary and secondary sources. The primary sources included

Goa Government Gazettes, Legislation Yearbook of Goa Government, Statistical Yearbooks of Goa Government, Census Reports of Goa Government and Government of India, Annual Reports of various schools, and other reports of committees and commissions. The secondary sources of data were books and periodicals. The other data were gathered with the help of two questionnaires — one was used to interview 175 persons who were either the old teachers or others connected to Marathi Education in Goa, and the second was used to obtain data from thirtynine secondary schools, recognised by the S.S.C.E. Board, Poona, at the time of Goa's liberation.

The study revealed that during the period 1910 to 1961 education in Goa was not universal at primary stage. Goa was the most backward territory with respect to primary education, when compared with all the other Indian states in 1950-51, 1955-56 and 1960-61. The new conquests were more backward in primary, secondary and women education as compared to the old conquests. Republic did not bring in any phenomenal change in facilities or in expansion but for a relief in the oppressed Hindu community. The primary and secondary education through Portuguese medium aimed at the denationalisation of Goans and assimilation of Goans with western ways of life. The spread of Marathi education at the primary level was predominantly higher in the old conquests than in the predominantly Hindu areas of new conquests. The government machinery of administration, supervision and inspection was ineffective in systematically propagating education in the territory. Secondary education in English medium was more popular than that in Portuguese medium. Missionary contribution in the field of secondary education in English medium and in women education was significant. Religious instruction was a part of the curriculum at all levels. The Portuguese constitution made it compulsory to impart instruction in State religion to all except Hindus. The elementary education was made compulsory, on principle, in 1869 but was firmly enforced in 1956 only.

- *33. KAURA, S. P., *A Critical Study of the Development of Secondary Education in Punjab since the year 1947*, Ph.D. Edu., Punjabi U., 1973.

The major aim of the study was to evaluate the development of secondary education in all its phases in the Punjab since 1947. It was hypothesized that the development of secondary education was quantitative rather than qualitative.

Historical method was employed to study the development of secondary education. The primary sources were original documents or relics, like annual reports, quinquennial reviews of the progress, gazette, research reports of educationists and Calendar of the Panjab University. The secondary sources included annual reports of local bodies, reports on the educational work done by philanthropists, literature on educational philosophy and other excerpts.

The major conclusions were : (i) student enrolment rose five and a half times, but the secondary schools just doubled in their number, the number of teachers went up only 3.75 times. Consequently, the classrooms became overcrowded and resources per student came down. (ii) Eventhough expansion was a phenomenon, only one-fifth boys and one-seventh girls of the total population in 14-17 age group and three-fifths boys and one-third girls of the population in age group 11-14 were studying in the schools in the year 1971-72. (iii) The unwieldy expansion of training institutions adversely affected the standards. (iv) Steps taken for the professional growth of teachers did not commensurate with the increase in their numbers. (v) Expenditure on secondary education went up seventeen times on constant prices; but in reality, there was no increase, rather there was fall in expenditure and so the fall in standards. (vi) The increase in number of schools was not followed by a corresponding increase in the strength of the inspecting staff. This seriously hampered the efficiency of inspecting staff and ultimately resulted in the breakdown of the programme of supervision. The administrative and supervisory functions of the same officer affected the supervision adversely. The inspecting officers were generalists and were not in touch with the latest developments in the field of education. (vii) There was a large number (upto forty to fifty percent) of failure of students though they had been screened year after year. This points to the defect of examination system. Higher secondary part I and matriculation were equivalent with some common papers and still the results of higher secondary part I were lower than those of matriculation. This indicated the lacuna in higher secondary pattern, which failed to give sound basis to the vocational and technical education, though it had provided a slant.

34. KRISHNAYYA, D. N. and DEVE GOWDA, A. C., *History of Education in Coorg upto 1-11-1956 (i.e. upto the date of integration with Mysore State)*, 1972. (NCERT financed)

The objective of the study was to trace the his-

tory of education in Coorg till the day of its integration with the Mysore State.

The study is a historical research deriving the data from various sources, like, original records available in the offices of the Director of Education or Director of Public Instruction and other offices, and libraries.

In the pre-British period there was no definite type of organized system of education. In the year 1834, a beginning was made when British rule was extended to Coorg. With the sanction of the Governor General in council, the Mysore Educational Department was established in 1857 and Coorg was placed under its supervision. In 1871, the Government of India began to partially support the primary education. The primary education, however, became popular after the introduction of the plough tax and the government grant of fifty percent in 1884. The first high school came up in 1879. In 1909, the Sisters of the French Catholic Mission opened a high school for girls at Mercara. The girls' education was taken care of right with the development of education. Between 1854 and 1921, excepting the award of scholarships, nothing was done for technical education. In 1921, attempts were made to give education in technical subjects. Teacher education began in 1861 in Coorg. Following the establishment of ministerial rule in 1952, a policy of locating schools in the walking distance of a child, viz., not more than 1½ miles to reach a feeder school, 2½ miles for a primary school and 3½ miles for a middle school, was adopted in 1953. New schools began to come up. This was further boosted up in 1953-54, when the government declared education upto the end of middle school to be free (education upto primary level was made free as early as 1927). The scheme of social education first began in 1952. Under this scheme adult literacy classes were opened in the educationally backward parts. After the inception of the community development programmes in 1953, adult literacy classes were open all over the district and were financed by the government. In November 1956, Coorg became an integral part of Mysore State and all aspects of education continued along with the new Mysore State.

- *35. KUMAR, S. K., *A Study of the Development of Educational Administration in India through Various Commissions Appointed Between 1854 to 1966*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1978.

The present study aimed at making a historical survey of the development of educational administra-

tion in India through the various commissions appointed between 1854 and 1966.

The study was of historical normative survey type. Various documents, reports of the commissions, government publications, reports of the committees appointed by the central government, educational journals, annual and quinquennial educational reviews, and other educational literature formed the sources of data.

The study arrived at the following main conclusions : (i) The various commissions of education appointed by the British government and also later by the Indian government after independence have discussed the same problems and have recommended the same changes with a little variety according to the political, social, and educational changes keeping pace with the changing need and demand of that particular time. (ii) Any problem pertaining to educational administration in India today cannot be tackled or solved unless it is traced back to the various commissions appointed by the government from time to time. In fact, these commissions have served as land marks in the history of educational administration in India. (iii) The latest innovation of the 10+2+3 pattern of educational administration can also be traced back to the previous commissions.

- *36. MANDAL, G. L., *Control and Administration of Primary Education by Local Authorities in Bihar*, Ph.D. Hist., Bih. U., 1976.

The investigation aimed at studying and examining the control on primary education by local bodies.

The present research is a documentary analysis. Commission reports, five year plans, the Bihar education code, important letters and circulars relating to elementary education issued by education department, Government of Bihar, reports of Bihar government on primary education, and other related materials served as the sources of data for the study.

The findings were as follows : (i) Expansion of primary education in Bihar State was undertaken after the directive of providing universal, compulsory and free elementary education within a period of ten years. (ii) Powers and malpractices of local bodies were reduced to ashes when government took over the responsibilities of primary education. Considerable improvement was observed in the administration of primary education and standard of education improved. (iii) Irregularities in payment, transfer and posting problems, diversion of funds, arbitrary appointment, etc., were reduced. (iv) Withdrawal of

Universities Commission (1902). The World War I increased the importance of engineering and technical education. In this period, the onus of the developmental activity shifted from central government to provincial governments. Besides, legal education and teacher education were also in the process of development. The establishment of the Indian Research Fund Association was an important incident of the period. Neglect of professional education by the centre characterised the period between 1922 and 1937. The major incidents of this period were the establishment of Indian Council of Agricultural Research (1929), the activities of the Indian Research Fund Association, and the development of commerce and teacher education at the graduate levels. During 1937-47 the control of some aspects of professional education was transferred to relevant departments, whereas the overall coordination was assigned to the Department of Education (1944). During this period, commerce and agriculture formed the part of technical education. All India Council of Technical Education (1945) and Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (1941) were established. Health Survey and Development Committee provided new direction to the medical education. The Central Advisory Board of Education appointed a committee to consider the problems of training, recruitment and service conditions of teachers. Sargent Plan further reemphasised the teacher education. The important incidents in professional education during 1947-56 were the Industrial Policy Resolution (1948) and the allocation made in the Indian constitution for the different aspects of professional education. The establishment of Indian Council of Agricultural Research due to the agreement between the governments of U.S.A. and India to promote and assist agricultural education, research and extension was one of the hall-marks of agricultural education. Medical education was vitalized with new establishments like, Central Health and Education Bureau, All India Institute of Medical Science and the Indian Council of Medical Research. Public health became one of the objectives before the Indian Union. The Secondary Education Commission, visit of the international team of experts and establishment of an All India Association of Training Colleges were the important incidents in teacher education. The Industrial Policy Resolution (1956) provided the rationale to be followed in this sector during the Second Five Year Plan. The first and the second seminars on teaching methods in agricultural and veterinary colleges, and the suggestions of the Second Joint Indo-American Team reflected on higher agricultural education which was slow but steady. Commerce education

derived increased attention and the special committee for commerce education came out with its recommendations of Master of Commerce and Master of Business Administration as two separate post-graduate courses in 1958. Commerce education was mostly progressing in the respective departments of the universities and affiliated colleges. For the development of engineering and technical education, credit goes to the All India Council of Technical Education. Establishment of Regional Colleges of Engineering was mooted, post-graduate diploma and master of engineering courses were proposed, new fields of research were pointed out, and financial assistance to research workers were recommended during this period. The Institute of Applied Manpower Research was established. In medical education, Health Survey and Planning Committee was established in 1959. The convention of the Deans and Principals of Medical Colleges (1960) suggested measures and new techniques of evaluation. The Second Conference of Medical Education recommended on the duration of courses and evaluation at the graduate level. Quality in teacher education was the keynote of the period. Assessment Committee Report, in 1956, suggested for proper orientation to Post-graduate Basic Training Colleges. The Bangalore Conference of Principals of Training Colleges and Heads of Departments of Education was a landmark in the history of teacher education. Regional centres to train teachers in technical subjects received attention. Establishments of the Central Institute of English, Hyderabad (1958) and the College of Education, Kurukshetra (1960) were two other experiments. The government had established a number of research institutions in education. These institutions were grouped together into the National Institute of Education under the NCERT (1961). The comparative aspect of the study revealed that the yearly increase in the post-independence period was 52.9 institutions with teacher education colleges being the maximum. The average yearly enrolment shot up by 10,404.8 and the annual direct expenditure by more than Rs. 11.17 millions.

*39. *MOHAMMAD AKHLAQ AHMAD, Some aspects of the Development of Traditional Education in Islamic Institutions during the 20th Century, Ph.D. Islamic Studies, AMU, 1971.*

The objective of the study was to investigate the history of the Muslim traditional education and its utility in relation to the existing Muslim society in India.

The study was historical in nature involving both primary and secondary sources.

local control on primary education did not justify the basic conditions of democracy, but since local bodies failed to discharge their responsibility, the government had to take over.

37. *MANGAMMA, J., Technical, Industrial and Agricultural Education in Madras Presidency (1854-1921), Ph.D. Hist., Del. U., 1971.*

The major objective was to study a few institutions concerned with practical education in agriculture, crafts and industries of the Madras Presidency during the period 1854 to 1921, in the light of the following questions: (i) How and when did the practical aspect of education get recognition in Madras Presidency? (ii) Why did private bodies pioneer technical education in preference to agricultural education? (iii) Why and how did the government enter the field and with what result? (iv) Why did agricultural education get recognition much later than the Despatch of 1854? (v) What policy did the government follow with regard to technical and agricultural education in the Presidency?

The study treated the issues chronologically keeping in view the all India developments. It started with the consolidation of scattered efforts upto 1882, and dealt with the awareness of lack of policy (1882-1900), systematic efforts at all India schemes (1901-1913) and pre-war and post-war schemes (1914-1921). When various private institutions were brought under the government control and helped with grant-in-aid, some uniformity came about in the syllabus and system of schooling. The policy of laissez-faire disappeared. Land ownership of the government, land revenue policy to collect the maximum amount, export oriented commercial end to please the merchants and industrialists at home with necessary raw materials for the industry, and market for their finished goods were the factors that influenced agricultural and technical education in the Presidency. The literary bent of education developed an attraction for subordination jobs.

The educated did not go back to land nor did they think on the lines of converting the raw materials into finished goods locally. Though the Education Commission of 1882 did not make specific recommendations for improving technical or industrial education, hint was taken for bifurcating studies in secondary schools, one branch leading to the university and the other to specialization in craft. The possibilities and feasibility of apprentice training were enquired into. The attitude of the government changed with the World War when licensing became more liberal. In-

dustrial bent of mind developed though apprentice training was not systematised.

The following conclusions emerged from the study. The department of agriculture helped the government with statistics for planning a better revenue collection while the educational institutions provided men for lower jobs. The private agency did not find any strong stimulus for agricultural experiments. There was enough know-how in the country but the means of dispersing the knowledge was lacking. The farmer did not resist any change but was not educated to receive and utilize the modern methods. The agricultural experiment was top heavy with a single college in the Presidency having no feeder schools while the experimental farms did not come up as anticipated. The Government of India cautiously avoided encouraging any Presidency from gaining experience in agricultural and technical education. There was no genuine relationship between economic development and practical education. The policy was, therefore, understandingly fitful and the Madras Presidency did not change its predominantly agricultural complexion. The industrial education and the industries did not influence each other on any substantial scale but a few subjects like drawing, music, nature study, carpentry and smithy came to be introduced in schools.

38. *MITHAL, H. C., Professional Education in India (1881-1961), Ph.D. Edu., Kur. U., 1973.*

The major objectives of the study were to survey critically the development and growth of professional education in India, to analyse the factors that influenced its development in various periods, and to study the role of central government, state government, local and private bodies in promoting its development. A subsidiary objective was to compare the development of professional education in the pre-independence and post-independence periods.

The historical-cum-survey method was used for the study. The data were classified and analysed in terms of (i) historical factors influencing the growth of professional education and (ii) factual data concerning the institutions' enrolments. The quantitative data were treated statistically while comparing the growth in the pre-independence and post-independence periods.

The study revealed that although professional education, especially legal and medical, had a beginning in the early period (1881-1902), it was characterized by slow progress. The earlier part of the period between 1902 and 1922 witnessed the important incidents of Simla Conference (1902) and Indian

Muslim traditional education was partly religious and partly secular. An honourable place was given to Greek thought and learning. The life at the time of the study had become more complicated than it was in the past. The investigator has brought out the need for the reorientation of the system and syllabus of traditional education.

40. *MURUGHENDRAPPA, D. R., Twentyfive Years of Education in the State of Mysore (1947 to 1972), R. V. Teachers College, Bangalore, 1972.*

The purpose of the present study was to survey the progress of education in Mysore state during the post-independence period.

For the collection of data annual reports of Government, reports of the educational surveys, university reports, etc., were consulted. This project surveyed the progress of education at pre-primary, primary, secondary, pre-university, colleges, university, and professional education levels.

It was found that in 1947 there were nine districts and by 1972 the number went up to nineteen. The state had set up an efficient educational administrative pattern under Directors of Public Instruction, Collegiate Education, Technical Education, Textbooks, and Pre-University Board. There was an increase in the number of pupils, teachers and institutions at all levels. At pre-primary level the state had an aided kindergarten school as early as 1911-12 and there were at the time of the study 807 pre-primary schools. In the field of primary education, the state had made provision for universal compulsory free primary education as early as 1913. At the time of the study there were 32,692 primary schools with a strength of 36,60,472 pupils. The percentage of wastage and stagnation which was at 72.50 in 1946-47 came down to 58.70 in 1971-72. The publication of books for primary classes had been nationalised in 1959-60. At secondary education level there was an increase in the number of schools — from 227 in 1947-48 to 2,060 in 1971-72. The number of universities increased from one to five; the colleges of general education went up from four to 197; and the colleges of education increased from one to nineteen. There were, at the time of the survey, thirteen law colleges, fifteen engineering colleges, four medical colleges, sixteen commerce colleges, and twenty-nine polytechnics. There were other professional and special education institutions, like medical and nursing school, physically handicapped, reformatory and industrial schools, etc., which showed slight progress. An Intensive Educational Development Project was undertaken in the

district of Bellary in 1969-70 under the Union Ministry of Education. The state adopted the three language formula and Hindi was a compulsory subject in schools. There were special efforts to popularise Hindi by the voluntary organisations and by the State government.

- *41. *NIJAZ AHMAD AZMI, Shibli Institution — A Case Study of the Development of Education in East U.P. with special reference to Muslims, Ph.D. Edu., JMI, 1975.*

The study proposed (i) to analyse and interpret the responses of Muslim social groups and Hindu castes to modern education as reflected through the Shibli Institution of Azamgarh district; and (ii) to study the ideological and social functions of Shibli's educational movement.

It is primarily a historical study. Sociological slant was given to the interpretation of the data. The study covered points like motivation for the acquisition of English language, attitude to modern education, controversies, apprehensions, caste distinctions, etc.

At the regional level of East U.P., in spite of the fact that the Muslims experienced the exposure to Western influences at a much later stage, a variety of factors contributed to their realisation of modern education. The Muslims of East U.P. were not caught in the state of psychological unpreparedness at the time of their exposure to modern institutions. They were ahead of Hindus in English literacy except at Banaras district where they were equal. At the regional level, it was the land owners, bureaucrats and the professionals who frequented the modern institutions of learning more as compared to other occupational groups. There existed a relationship between the development of higher education and the development of professional education.

One of Shibli's educational thoughts is manifested in his theological/curriculum reformation programme through his experimentation in Nadva and later on in the Sarai-Mir institution at Azamgarh. His attempts at rapprochement between Islam and modernity set a new trend in Muslim education. But his oriental conditioning of the intellectual make up put constraints on his compromises with modern institutions. The English language and other western subjects remained on the fringe of reformed Islamic theological curriculum.

It was not always the traditionally socially privileged elements of the Muslim community that responded to modern education. But it was comparatively a socially subordinate group of Rantara Muslims of

the district Azamgarh that took advantage of English education in greater numbers as compared to other Muslim social groups. The lower stratum of the Muslim community did not acquire modern education in a considerable manner. The weavers, who formed the largest single Muslim occupational group, by and large, remained indifferent to English education. It was also found that the rural Muslims were ahead of urban Muslims in the acquisition of modern education in the district of Azamgarh.

The study showed that the monopolistic tendencies that were perceptible amongst the upper stratum of the Muslim community were also found amongst the Rantara elites who were also hesitant in extending the benefits of modern education to the lower stratum of their own group. The traditionally literary caste of the Kayasthas proportionately contributed highest percentage to the student's population of the Shibli institution. Considering the social composition of the teaching staff, the representation of Rantaras was significantly low as compared to Syeds. The study showed that Shibli's attempt to establish a co-existential system of modern and theological education was not appreciated by the mobility oriented Rantaras.

42. PANDEY, S. N., *Educational and Social Development in Bihar (1900 A.D. to 1921 A.D.)*, Ph.D. Hist., Pat. U., 1970.

The purpose of the study was to trace the educational development and its impact on social and political awakening in Bihar State.

For the collection of information, various official documents, reports, proceedings of the legislative council and resolutions of the public bodies were examined.

During this period many institutions were established in response to the social and political awakening among the educated persons. The first such institution was Saraswati Academy which was established at Darbhanga in 1901. Rajendra Prasad, even when he was a student at Calcutta, established a Biharee Club. He took initiative in organising Bihari students' conference, which was opened for the first time in the hall of the Patna College under the chairmanship of the famous barrister, Shurfuddin. This conference gradually gained the support of the educated people. In 1907 the leading educated men of Bihar assembled at the Bihar Landholder's Association Office to formulate a scheme of establishing a provincial association. Persons like Brahmdeo Narayan, Deep Narayan Singh and Sachchidanand Sinha helped in the growth of the association. The agitation for the separation of Bihar from

Bengal mobilised the educated persons and the subsequent creation of Bihar into a separate province, generated new social and political awakening. The agitation in Bihar against the British rule intensified. Rajendra Prasad propagated the idea of non-cooperation at the twelfth session of Bihar Provincial Conference. In 1921 the non-cooperation movement was widespread in Bihar and the province became the vanguard of national movement. Education was closely linked with the freedom movement. Large number of students left schools and colleges which were run or aided by the British Government. National schools and colleges were established to educate the students and to prepare them for the service of the nation. A good number of people responded to the need of the hour and joined the national movement. The study describes further the educational development in Bihar along with the development of political consciousness among the people.

43. PANDIT, S. S., *A Critical Study of the Contribution of the Arya Samaj to Indian Education*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1974.

The major objective of the study was to examine critically the philosophy, principles and programmes of Swami Dayanand and the Arya Samaj founded by him with a view to discovering and broadly assessing the contributions of the Arya Samaj to Indian education, especially to the concept and ideology of education, aims and objectives of education, national education, revival of ancient traditions of Gurukulas, universal compulsory education, revival of the study of Sanskrit and the use of Indian languages as media of instruction.

The present study has adopted the historical and descriptive survey methods. It is, by intention and character, rather interpretative than informative. The data were collected from the writings and correspondence of Swami Dayanand, official reports of the minutes, despatches, reports of commissions and committees, confidential office records, proceedings of legislatures, census reports, newspapers and periodicals. A questionnaire was also used to collect information regarding Gurukulas. Fortysix prominent leaders of Arya Samaj from various parts of the country were interviewed.

The study revealed that the concept of education in the Arya Samaj was religious, social as well as knowledge oriented. The knowledge included humanistic as well as scientific aspects. As a 'process of building up' education, the Arya Samaj emphasised the moral and spiritual aspects of the students. A truly educated man was identified by the degree and qua-

lity of his following of Dharma and Satva. It also depicted the concept of change in human behaviour as a natural phenomenon and that education expediated change. Here it conformed to the modern outlook of education as an agent of change. Education as promoted by the Arya Samaj had both social and individual aims, and in case of conflicts between the two aims, edge was given in favour of the social aim. Further, it had intellectual, cultural, religious, moral, and physical aims. Cultivation of faith of the students in the Vedas, development of rational outlook, scientific proneness, national consciousness, ethical values, spirituality, physical health and sturdiness were the other aims of education. Values that an Arya Samaj system of education inculcated were democratic, ethical and spiritual. It also promoted self reliance, scientific spirit and nationalism. It believed in the responsibility of the state in educating the mass not only upto primary stage but even beyond. The Arya Samajists also advocated for institutional and teacher autonomy. Another great contribution to education by Arya Samaj was its scheme of early childhood education which included speech training, sense training, behaviour training, training in personal and social habits, and sex education. It considered mother as the best teacher and home as an important agency of education in the early childhood. It advocated that among the four stages of the life cycle, viz., student life, married life, life of retirement and life of renunciation, the individuals should practice celibacy in the first stage. The stages of education like pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher education were not demarcated, but at the age of eight after the 'Upanayana Sanskar', the attendance of child in some institution was compulsory. It, perhaps, for the first time introduced the concept of national education. The Arya Samaj had developed two distinct types of educational institutions, viz., D.A.V. schools and colleges and Gurukulas. Gurukulas were more indigenous in character than the D.A.V. institutions. But both lay emphasis on Sanskrit language and Vedic ideals. Besides these, the learning of English, western literature, science, modern Indian language, religious education, practice of Sandhya and Havan, cultural activities, physical education, hostel living and strict observance of celibacy formed the total programme of an Arya Samaj institution.

*44. PATEL, P. A., *Study of Factors Affecting Growth of Secondary Education in Gujarat during Nineteenth Century*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1975.

The study was undertaken with the following

objectives : (i) to understand the general and the specific factors and forces that helped and hindered the growth of secondary education in Gujarat during the nineteenth century, (ii) to determine the factors that caused the establishment of high schools in different demographic settings, (iii) to identify the factors that contributed to the growth of secondary schools, (iv) to assess the role of the government and the private enterprise in the development of secondary education, and (v) to review, broadly, the achievements and failures of the British administration in the development of secondary education.

The sample of the study comprised twentythree secondary schools. The data collection proforma and a questionnaire, prepared by the investigator, were used to collect data from the heads of the schools. Other sources of data were the records of the schools established during the nineteenth century, diaries and autobiographies of some eminent men of Gujarat who had their secondary education during the nineteenth century, the reports of the Education Commission (1882), researches done on the development of education in Gujarat, etc.

The major observations of the study were as follows. In 1881, the total number of middle schools in Gujarat was fifty-nine. It rose to seventy-three in 1891 and 137 in 1901. At the end of the nineteenth century, there were totally 16,322 pupils studying in the high schools and middle schools of Gujarat. The teacher-student ratio in 1881 appeared to be 1 : 14.66 in high schools and 1 : 38.1 in middle schools. In the nineteenth century, professional training was not perceived as essential for secondary school teachers by the education department. The pay of the graduate teacher was around Rs. 60 per month and of the undergraduate teacher was around Rs. 30 per month. The curriculum was mostly of linguistic character. Subjects like physics, chemistry and biology had no place. As a method of teaching, lecture method was mostly used. Some incentives like prizes, gifts, and scholarships for better learning had emerged to some extent. Examination was a permanent and important part of the educational system. English was made the medium of instruction and examination, and it was the unofficial criterion of passing. In 1866-67, a public service examination was introduced for the recruitment of clerks to the English offices. The grant-in-aid to the private secondary schools in the province was determined on the basis of examination results. Caste system had begun to occupy a dominating place in the personal and community life of individuals. There was little mobility outside the fold of one's caste. Under

such circumstances, education had become stagnant. The economy of Gujarat had considerably deteriorated. Business and industrial development was limited and it was confined to big cities and towns. Consequently it affected the establishments of the new institutions. Among the other factors, the physical and demographic factors provided obstacles to the development of education.

45. PATEL, V. B., *Educational Thoughts and Practices in Gujarat during the British Rule (1820-1920) as reflected in the Biographical Forms of Gujarati Literature*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1975.

The main objective of this investigation was to study the educational thought in Gujarat during 1820 to 1920 as reflected in biographies and autobiographies. This study touches two main aspects of education in Gujarat — firstly, principles of education which includes meaning of education, objectives of education, syllabi, training, etc.; secondly, it covers various practical courses.

The data were collected from life sketches and autobiographies. Some information was also collected from published letters, notes and diaries, commemorative volumes and anthologies on individuals. The study was divided into three parts — basic study, applied research, and action research. The main aim of basic research was to add to the existing knowledge. The applied research aimed at finding out solution to present problems, whereas action research was to find out the solutions to the local problems. The sample was selected keeping the following points in mind — (i) complete inclusion of the period under study; (ii) representation of thoughts and practices of present education in different provinces of Gujarat during the period under study; and (iii) various aspects of education in Gujarat to get a complete picture of education in the state. The detailed study of twenty-six autobiographies and fifty-three life sketches was done.

The findings of this study were: (i) there was influence of western education, culture and literature on modern Gujarati literature; (ii) similar influence was found on life sketches and autobiographies; (iii) white collared Brahmins used to take elementary education and were taking jobs; (iv) during nineteenth century backward community of Gujarat was inspired to have education; (v) problem of education for Harijans was solved by national movement and Gujarat Vidyapeeth; (vi) there was no remarkable progress in the higher education for women upto the end of the period though the people of Gujarat had

positive attitude towards this aspect; (vii) English language had important place in secondary and higher education but there was demand for instruction through mother tongue; (viii) Gujarat Kelvani Parishad (1915) contributed considerably for national education and instruction through mother tongue; (ix) after the establishment of Gujarat Vernacular Society, there was establishment of libraries during the end of nineteenth century and it showed rapid progress in the beginning of twentieth century; and (x) primary teacher training showed remarkable progress during this period and had high standard of training, whereas only a little progress was noted in secondary teacher training.

46. PISHARODY, S. B., *A Critical History and Interpretation of the Educational Concepts and Methodology of the Montessori System of Education at the Pre-school Stage*, Ph.D. Edu., APSU, 1972.

The objectives of the present study were: (i) to identify the various elements of the ideas of the seveneenth to nineteenth century educational philosophers and thinkers that got woven into the concepts and methods of Montessori to evolve her system; (ii) to interpret the Montessori concepts and methods in the light of experiments of teaching Montessori classes composed of children drawn from variegated background in India and USA; and (iii) to make an assessment of the efficacy of the Montessori system through rigorous classroom tests.

The classroom experimentation, search through the literature, discussion and participant observation were the major tools for collecting data. The participant observation was used to study the traditional Montessori system in action. This was carried out in one institution each in India and USA.

The main contribution of Montessori is the doctrine of absorbent mind of the child and the sensitive periods of growth. The entire task of providing a prepared environment and occupations to a child was to match precisely the sensitive period he was passing through. The activities of the prepared environment had to be constantly assessed to adjust them to meet the norms of efficacy. The auto-instructional method of Montessori was structured around the child as contrasted to other pre-school systems with teacher at the centre. In the Montessori method, the development of a child's intellect, will, memory, senses and sensitivity were achieved through three stages — achievement of muscular coordination; awakening the child to the key notions of dimensions, shapes, colour, sound, smell, smoothness and rough-

ness of surfaces, etc., and learning the three R's with the use of didactic material. The value and efficacy of Montessori concepts and techniques had been reinforced subsequently by the theories of cognitive growth propounded by Piaget, Bruner and Werner. The idea of integration of theory and practice is expected to illumine and reinforce each other. The pitfalls in the running of the Montessori system were found in the teachers' failure to assimilate this idea and the conceptual basis of the method. As a result the classroom practices became rigid and ritualistic. It was found that a large number of Montessori schools in big cities in India run by private agencies were an admixture of Montessori and Frobelian methods. The Montessori method had a strong point of catering to the needs of the deviant children. With the growing complexity of the civilisation and the society, and changing family mores, the psychological abnormalities of the children also got deep rooted. The author expressed his opinion to withdraw a child from the Montessori class in case his deviant behaviour persisted after three to four weeks of trial. In view of the changing conditions of the society, especially fast industrialization, urbanisation and working parents, the Montessori system became more useful for the growth of the child to lead him to a balanced healthy adult life. This had further been reinforced by the recommendations of the Education Commission (1964-66) on pre-primary education. The criticisms that a child from Montessori class would depend upon the prepared environment even after preschool education and would become a misfit in an ordinary primary and secondary school, were unfounded. The child from a Montessori class, on the contrary, would be able to find a solution through logical reasoning, whenever he confronted a puzzling situation.

47. PRASAD, V., *Some Aspects of the North Indian Education and Knowledge (1000 A.D. — 1526 A.D.) in the Contemporary Literature*, Ph.D. Hist., Ran. U., 1973.

The aims of the present study were : (i) to present some aspects of the North Indian education and knowledge from the times of the invasions of Mahmud Gaznavi upto the commencement of the Mughal rule under Babar in India; and (ii) to highlight the nature and importance of the education of that period.

For the collection of data the investigator relied mainly on the contemporary Indian literature, Persian history and the travel accounts of the foreigners.

The following were the main findings. There was no government department to supervise the schools nor was the education the direct responsibility of the

government. It was in the private hands and it was the responsibility of the 'Brahmins' and the 'Ulmās' to teach. The Sultans or rulers, however, gave patronage to the scholars and grant-in-aid in cash or kind was given to the educational institutions. During that period two educational systems prevailed — the Hindu system and the Muslim system. The Hindu system of education declined due to two factors, one, the Muslim invasions destroyed the seats of higher learning like Nalanda, and second, the patronage accorded to the Muslim system by the then rulers made the Hindu schools to perish gradually. There was no concept of compulsory education and education was open for children belonging to the rich and high class people. Education of the princes aimed at developing their intellectual, physical and spiritual growth. The condition of women's education was still worse, because the 'purdah' system and the early marriage of girls debarred them from schools. Only girls of royal and high class families could get the educational facilities. Most of them received education at home. Their syllabus consisted of moral instruction, home science and character education. During that period there was limited scope for professional education. Medical education was provided privately by the medical practitioners and technical training was imparted in the factories. Most of the Turk and the Afghan sultans gave benevolent patronage to education, scholars, poets and writers. The writers, poets and the scholars, in return, expressed their gratitude to the rulers by writing their deeds in literary language which were full of exaggerations.

48. RAJ, A. S., *Educational Policy of the Government of India during the British Period*, Ph.D. Hist., Ker. U., 1969.

The present investigation sought to study the policy decisions of the Government of India during the British period on various aspects of Indian education at different times. The term 'Government of India' relates to the Supreme Government of Fort William till such time the administration of India passed to the hands of the British crown.

The study involved a library research. Various manuscript records, printed records, statistical abstracts, quinquennial reviews, and reports of the various education commissions served as the primary sources. Books on Indian education, newspapers and periodicals served as the secondary sources.

The study has discussed the evolution of the educational policy, the educational controversies and the growth of education in the period. The objectives of encouraging education in India are stated to be

propagation of Gospel (with a view to converting through education), preparation for personnel required for military defence and subordinate services of the company, and elevation of character of people through moral and intellectual instruction. The study has also discussed the various agencies of education, financial policies with reference to grant-in-aid and the expenditure on education, controversy of the medium of instruction, and policies pertaining to mass education, secondary education, higher education and technical education. The historical review reveals that the educational policy was a process of mere adjustments of grouping of subjects and additions and omissions of courses of studies, keeping the framework untouched. The various commissions and government resolutions failed to suggest a method of demolishing the structure and building up a new one. Attempts were made for mechanical but not organic adjustments. Additions and deletions were made without in any way breaking the framework.

*49. *RODRICKS, C., The History and Survey of Education of Goa, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1975.*

The objectives of the investigation were: (i) to study the geographical and social conditions existing in the territory to enable one to get a general idea of the life of its people; (ii) to get a historical retrospect of the progress made in education during the Portuguese regime, viz., 1510 to 1961 and later upto 1974 in all the fields of education such as primary, secondary, higher, adult, and social education; (iii) to take in the existing facilities available at the primary, secondary, higher, adult, and social education; and (iv) to put down definite observations on the educational progress basing them on facts and figures presented.

The data were collected through the various government orders and commission reports dating as far back as 1669 upto the last ones of the Portuguese dated 1961 when they left the territory. Data were further collected through a questionnaire administered to 405 primary schools, 112 middle schools, and 137 high schools.

The major findings of the study were as follows: During the Portuguese regime no efforts what so ever were made to bring education within the reach of all classes of people. After the liberation and the establishment of the popular government, the territory witnessed an expansion at all levels of education. In 1974, there were 210 high schools with a total enrolment of 35000 students. The number of colleges were seventeen. The Central Library in Panjim, which was the only library then, had over eighty thousand books.

The library service was extended to villages through the mobile library service. In the Fourth Five Year Plan, out of the total expenditure on education, about seventy percent was spent on elementary education, secondary education and university education, while 14.8 percent was spent on technical education and 15.2 percent was spent on social education, physical education and others. About ninetythree percent of the high schools were run by private agencies which were reluctant to open new high schools in rural areas. During 1969-74, the government opened ten high schools in rural areas. The Government of Goa and the UGC had both agreed to establish the university in Goa at the earliest.

*50. *SAINI, S. K., The Socio-Economic and Political Factors in the Development of Education in British India during 1921-1947, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1975.*

The study was undertaken with the following objectives: (i) to build a coherent picture of the development of education in British India during 1921-1947, (ii) to examine critically the various trends in the socio-economic and political background regarding the development of education and to bring out their implications in respect of history of education, (iii) to produce a faithful and richer record of the educational development which took place during 1921-1947, (iv) to have an increased understanding of the relationships which existed between education, economy, politics and society in which education develops, and (v) to have an increased understanding of educational policies of the government with reference to socio-economic and political forces in operation during 1921-1947.

The study employed the method of historical survey. The sources of data were the educational records of that period (1921-1947) from National Archives of India, New Delhi. The other sources were official files, quinquennial reviews, and contemporary newspapers. Informal interview was also taken from about twentyfour distinguished educationists, sociologists, and historians from different parts of the country.

Some of the major observations of the study were as follows. The impact of political forces was so much that education got considerable attention in the legislative councils of the provinces. Consequently, there was increase in the numbers of students, schools, colleges and universities. Whenever there was any conflict with the Britishers, more attention was paid to education and educational values. The growth of education was influenced by many factors like

caste hierarchy, poverty of the people, socio-religious movements, size of population, national leaders, and the like. The caste structure was losing its importance owing to the impact of new political, economic, and administrative changes. On account of the economic value, education was considered as an instrument of economic development. Poverty was the sole factor which affected education adversely. More attention was paid to army, law and order than education. Formal education during the studied period had little connection with the industry or agriculture of the country.

51. SARATCHANDARAN, K., *Education in the Valmiki Ramayan*, Ph.D. Sans., Gau. U., 1967.

The study is an attempt to bring to light (i) the educational practices during the Ramayana period, and (ii) the educational philosophy of Valmiki Ramayana in terms of objectives, curriculum, methods of teaching, and agencies of education.

It narrates and interprets the Ramayana, but the study is critical and objective in a historical perspective.

The main conclusions of the study were : (i) the aims and objectives of education were to develop the all-round personality of a child — mental, physical, moral, aesthetic, spiritual, etc.; (ii) the purpose of education was to make the students fit for the discharge of their respective duties — the Brahmins for leadership in educational and religious matters, the Kshatriyas for leadership in political and military affairs, and the Vaisyas for leadership in commercial and industrial activities; (iii) women also received benefits of formal education so as to become ideal companions for their husbands; (iv) education was pragmatic in approach, the students learned from the environment and they were involved in varieties of activities beginning from tending the cows to meditation; (v) the pupils lived a full life in natural surroundings, the classes were held under shady trees and the universities or seats of higher learning had their campuses in forests (Tapovans); (vi) education transmitted the Aryan culture from one generation to another; (vii) the supreme purpose of education was not to prepare the individual for this world alone but for the next also by helping him to attain a spiritual reorientation of the individual self; (viii) educational institutions encouraged the study of many intellectual and aesthetic activities like, astronomy, grammar, poetics, and polity; (ix) education aimed at inculcating in students a sense of truthfulness, honesty and integrity; and (x) description of the details of the educational system testifies that all the varied aspects

and philosophical foundations of education were well known to Valmiki and that he could interpret the educational thought of that era in its right perspective.

*52. SAXENA, S., *Educational Planning in India — A Study in Approach and Methodology*, Ph.D. Edu., Indore U., 1976.

The investigation attempted to study the evolution of the approach and the methodology of educational planning in India since the inception of the First Five Year Plan in 1950-51. The study is limited to two basic and related aspects of the process of educational planning, viz., the approach and the methodology. Approach referred to the theoretical considerations that determine the guidelines of plan formulation, while methodology referred to the various stages of the plan preparation like projections, programming, policy proposals, cost analysis, integration of the various sub-sectors, etc.

The study followed the historical approach. Published documents, unpublished mimeographed reports and notes, departmental files and other papers of the Planning Commission, the Central Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Education of Madhya Pradesh formed the source materials. The data were supplemented through interviewing eminent educationists, educational administrators and educational planners at New Delhi, Bhopal and Indore.

The study has discussed on the following aspects : (i) origin and the evolution of the concept of educational planning, (ii) pre-independence efforts in the direction of educational planning, (iii) post-independence steps in planning, including the establishment of a specific planning machinery for the whole of the country, and (iv) shifts in the approach to educational planning from plan to plan. As a brief case study, the educational planning in Madhya Pradesh is presented. Finally, some observations and suggestions are made on the basis of the study.

*53. SHARMA, S. P., *A Study of the Development of Primary Education in Delhi from 1913 to 1968*, Ph.D. Edu., Kur. U., 1977.

The main objective of the study was to find facts related to the development of primary education in Delhi and to critically analyse various trends of development in respects of schools and scholars, teachers, their training and status, educational finance, wastage and stagnation, compulsory primary education, junior basic education, education for the backward classes, and the role of local bodies.

The historical research method was employed. The primary and secondary sources of data were

periodical reports and resolutions of the government, unpublished data on the progress of education available with National Archives of India, proceedings in Central Legislative Council, Loksabha and local bodies, planning and techno-economic data, census reports, published books and journals, newspapers, etc.

Pre-independence period was a period of slow progress in respect of provisions for schools in comparison to post independence period. The number of primary schools increased from 86 in 1913 to 248 in 1947, with an annual growth rate of 5.4 percent, whereas during the post independence period the number of primary schools increased from 248 to 922 in 1968 with an annual growth rate of 13 percent. The average area served by a primary school decreased from 15.7 sq. kms. in 1913 to 6.00 sq. kms. in 1947 and to 1.6 sq. kms. in 1968.

The number of primary schools for boys increased from 76 in 1913 to 183 in 1947 and 540 in 1968, while the primary schools for girls increased from a mere 10 in 1910 to 65 in 1947 and 372 in 1968.

Scholars in the primary schools increased from 5393 in 1913 to 37,350 in 1947 and to 2,65,711 in 1968, with an average growth rate of 16.9 percent in pre-independence period and 29.11 percent in post independence period.

In 1913, only 2.1 percent of the total population of Delhi were enrolled at the primary stage. This rose as high as 11.61 percent. In 1968, eightysix percent of the population between the age group six to eleven years was enrolled at the primary stage, the percentage of males being higher in comparison to that of females.

The total population of Delhi was estimated to be 57.9 lakhs in 1978 including 8.28 lakhs of children to be at the primary stage, and expecting 12.42 lakhs of children to be at the primary stage in 1988. On the basis of these figures there still required 1577 schools in 1978 and would require 2153 schools in 1988.

Compulsory basic education in the selected areas of Delhi was introduced by extending the Punjab Primary Education Act of Delhi in 1925. It was obligatory for the parents to send their children to schools unless there was reasonable excuse for non-attendance. During post independence years there was rapid expansion of compulsory primary education due to introduction of basic education scheme in Delhi.

Hartog Committee and Wilson Committee on Municipal Education found eighty percent wastage in primary education in Delhi during 1927-30. During

post independence period, there was a downward trend towards reduction of wastage at primary stage. Stagnation stood at 11.7 percent at primary stage in 1968.

Consequent to the prolonged delay in the introduction of junior basic education by the local bodies in Delhi, Government of free India took the initiative for its introduction by establishing ninety-seven basic schools in the rural areas of Delhi in 1948, which rose to 894 in 1963.

The number of scholars belonging to depressed classes at primary stage increased from 503 in 1927 to 4370 in 1947-48 and 57,644 in 1968-69, mainly due to the proclamation of the fundamental right to equality and safeguard to the interests of scheduled castes.

Percentage of trained teachers in the primary schools remained poor till 1935-36, but it considerably improved after 1935, that in 1947 there were 93.5 percent trained teachers. In the post independence period the situation still changed and there were 99.9 percent (both male and female) trained teachers. Quality of teachers with respect to general education also increased significantly. There were a few graduate teachers in primary schools before independence, but in post independence period there were post graduates also. In 1968, there were 2,135 graduates and 231 post graduates. During the period of study the pay scales were revised in 1917, 1932, 1948, 1959 and 1968. Teachers in Delhi enjoyed double old age benefits, viz., pension and gratuity.

From 1913-14 to 1968-69, except for few years, after the introduction of compulsory primary education in Delhi, local self-government became the major source of financing the primary education. Government remained the second significant source from 1921-22 to 1957-58. After 1958, the local self-government emerged as a single source of financing the primary education. The government happens to be the only source of financing teachers' training institutions since 1886 in Delhi. Local bodies and voluntary agencies started playing a major role in primary education since 1919. The voluntary agencies were mostly religious and regional in nature.

The interaction of socio-cultural, economic and political processes have provided a dynamic force to the progress of primary education in the later years in Delhi.

54. SHIVARUDRAPPA, G., *Contribution of Veer-shaiva Mathas to the Development of Education in Karnataka, Ph.D. Edu., Mys. U., 1974.*

The objectives of the present study were : (i)

to trace the growth of veerashaiva mathas; and (ii) to study the contribution of veerashaivism for the development of education.

This study first traced the origin of veerashaivism which came into existence in the twelfth century. Basaveshvara was the pioneer of the movement. The basic philosophy of veerashaivism was 'Shaktivishistadvaita', that is, qualified monism characterized by 'Shakti'. According to this faith an individual had to observe certain codes of conduct — Lingachara, Shivachara, Sadachara, Bharityachara and Ganachara, and these constituted the core of educational ideals of veerashaivism. This new religion was taught through the mass language of Kannada. Three kinds of mathas, namely, Salimatha, Odisumatha, and Virkatamatha were established to serve the cause of education, religion, and social reforms, respectively. Free boarding and lodging facilities were provided to the students. Education was open to all. The main aim of education was to prepare individuals for a practical and social living. It aimed at developing such virtues of life as love, chastity, universal brotherhood, knowledge, and pure conscience. This educational system propounded that an individual had to regard himself as the servant of society. Basaveshvara attached great importance to the principle of manual labour. Dignity of labour was a way of life and to give it a practical shape the concept of 'kayaka' which meant physical labour undertaken as a means of self-preservation was propagated. The chief crafts employed in kayaka education were spinning, weaving, carpentry, pottery, knitting, printing, etc. This religious faith flourished during Vijayanagar empire and the mathas and their literature multiplied during the period 1336 — 1665 A.D. This movement continued its growth in the nineteenth century during the British rule. Even today this system is one of the major agencies of education in Karnataka. It has organized a number of institutions from primary to higher secondary schools. It imparts a secular system of education according to the needs of the present day. This system has not yet developed pre-primary and higher education institutions in the state.

*55. SINGH, P., *Historical Survey of Army Education in India*, Ph.D. Edu., Sag. U., 1976.

The study was conducted with the following objectives : (i) to collect and collate the scattered facts about the origin and development of army education and present them in a coherent form; (ii) to record an authentic history of the Army Educational Corps supported by primary and secondary sources which would provide a base for future educational planning in the

army; (iii) to record the important landmarks in the history of Army Education in India; (iv) to discover developing trends in the growth of educational system in the Indian army; (v) to suggest concrete and realistic proposals to put the educational training in the army on sound foundation; and (vi) to enrich the faculty.

The data were collected from the primary sources and these were supplemented and corroborated by other secondary sources and data collected through interviews and personal correspondence.

The findings were as given below : (i) There was no system of imparting educational training to the troops and their children under the Indian or Muslim rulers. The educational training for the Indian troops started with the establishment of the East India Company. The educational system was on a similar pattern as the one followed in British Army in the United Kingdom. (ii) The major factors leading to the limited expansion of educational facilities during 1600-1857 were : (a) lack of centralised and uniform education policy in all the three Presidency Armies, (b) absence of definite aims and objectives of educational training, (c) voluntary nature of educational training, (d) absence of educational certificates to provide any incentive to men for studies, pay and promotion, (e) absence of instructors' training institutes in India, and (f) absence of common language of communication amongst troops under the service of the East India Company. (iii) Some of the outstanding achievements of this period were : (a) the educational training was officially accepted as an integral part of military training, (b) the aims and objectives of educational training were defined, (c) the graded certificates were introduced and linked with pay and promotion of men, (d) the aim of teaching English to the Indian troops was decided, (e) each subject included in the syllabus had its definite objective, (f) uniform methods of instruction were evolved, and (g) educational training grants, firstly, on ad hoc basis, later on the substitution of several grants to meet the expenses on the war time education and the release period education schemes for the British and Indian troops were introduced. (iv) The major educational achievements during 1858 to 1947 were : (a) mobile education training teams were organised in each command to train unit education instructors, (b) Indian commissioned officers were attached for educational duties with the Army Educational Corps, (c) Civilian school masters and Viceroy's commissioned officers were recruited to meet the expanding educational needs of the army, and (d) Directorate of Welfare and Education was established in place of Directorate of

Amenity. As the war expanded, Inter Services Directorate of Resettlement was formed. (v) The army educational system was recasted after independence to meet the military, political and social needs of the country. (vi) The King George's Royal Indian Military Schools were established at Jhelum, Jullundur, Ajmer, and Belgaum during 1922-1946 in the memory of Viceroy's Commissioned Officers and other ranks, who had laid down their lives during World War I, with the aim of providing educational facilities to their sons. (vii) The Boys Companies were established at the Regimental Centres during 1922-1947 with the aim (a) to provide free educational facilities for the sons of serving personnel and ex-servicemen, (b) to get the boys in their young age, (c) to train them to become men who were mentally, physically and morally fit to lead their followers in the right direction, and (d) to produce incipient technicians who could undertake further specialist training to become fully proficient in their profession. (viii) The major developments introduced in the educational system during 1947-71 were : (a) the aims and objectives of educational training were revised, (b) the syllabus of Army Certificates of Education was recasted within the frame work of the national system of education, (c) new medium of instruction was evolved, (d) methods of instruction were revised and adopted, (e) the scales of educational training grant were recasted, and (f) the scope of educational training in the army was expanded. (ix) The examination system, adopted for the Army Certificates of Education, Army English Certificates and Map Reading Standards, mostly consisted of oral and written tests, while for the Army First Class Certificate of Education, Army Special Certificate of Education and Army Higher Secondary Certificate the examination system was entirely based on a written test. (x) During the post independence period, finances for education training in the army comprised educational training grant, station central classes grant, publication grant, CG's cash assignment, and annual library grant. (xi) Major limitations in the organisation of education training in the army were inadequate time for studies, irregular classes, leave, temporary duty or training of men, inadequate time for self-study, and miscellaneous duties. (xii) The Sainik Schools were established as residential public schools in almost all the states in India in 1961 in order to prepare the boys academically and physically for entry to the National Defence Academy.

56. SURVE, D. S., *Social and Political Influence on Indian Education during the Latter Half of the Nineteenth Century*, Ph.D. Edu., SPU, 1973.

The major aim of the study was to investigate into the educational history of the latter half of nineteenth century from socio-political condition of the country.

The research was based on library study. There was an effort to look at the then historical happenings in a new perspective.

The main findings of the study were as follows :

(i) growth of middle class pursuing different professions was one of the important results of the new educational policy followed by the British Government; (ii) the British Government could not create a national system of education in India; (iii) education became a commodity which could be purchased by any one who could pay fees; (iv) the secondary and higher education expanded but there was no economic development proportionately; (v) the new education emphasised memorising rather than thinking, imitation rather than originality; (vi) classroom methods and examinations emphasised memorised knowledge rather than reasoning, judgment and reconstruction of the pupils' experience; (vii) foreign language came to be used as the medium of instruction in secondary and higher education; and (viii) education of women was neglected in general.

*57. SYED, S. A. *The Changing Pattern of Educational Administration at the Secondary Level in Bihar during the Last Fifty Years (1921-1971)*, Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1976.

The study aimed at tracing the changing pattern of educational administration at the secondary level in Bihar during the last fifty years. The thesis is a historical review of the events in this area and has been divided into two chapters, viz., introductory and future pattern.

First chapter includes historical land marks, evolution of educational administrative bodies, categories of secondary schools in Bihar — their growth and expansion, service conditions of secondary school teachers, impact of educational administration, curriculum and evaluation, administration of girls' education, training of teachers, supervision and inspection, and financing duties and responsibilities of the educational administrator. The final chapter on the future pattern proposes main changes and reforms as follows : (a) new emphasis on qualitative improvement, (b) realistic planning, (c) comprehensive planning, (d) institutional planning, (e) rationalisation of grant-in-aid system, (f) introduction of school complex scheme, (g) reorganisation of Directorate of Education, (h) reconstitution of the Board of Secondary Education, and (i) reorientation of curriculum and 10+2 scheme

and its vocationalisation. The study offers vital suggestions for financing of secondary education. They are (i) utmost economy in construction of buildings, (ii) improvised equipments and their large scale production, (iii) sharing in by a group of students of certain facilities, (iv) increasing the number of working days and working hours, (v) concentration of available resources on the development of some centres of excellence and quality in some secondary schools, and (vi) avoidance of wasteful expenditure and rigidities of administrative and financial procedures.

*58. **THAKKAR, P. N.**, *Development of Female Education in Gujarat After Independence*, Ph.D. Edu., Gujarat Vidyapith, 1976.

The investigation had the following objectives : (i) to study the position of female education in Gujarat prior to independence; (ii) to study the development of female education during the post independence period, i.e., 1947 to 1972; (iii) to study the factors that helped in the development and expansion of female education with special reference to the contribution of all individuals, institutions, along with political and economic conditions prevailing in Gujarat during the period under study; (iv) to study the factors that hampered the growth of female education; and (v) to study the social as well as governmental efforts for the growth of female education in Gujarat during the period under study.

The study followed the historical method. Annual reports of the departments of education published by Gujarat, Maharashtra and Central Governments, reports of five year plans, Census reports of 1961 and 1971, gazettes, reports of committees and commissions appointed by the government of India from time to time, formed the primary sources. The secondary sources were books on history of education, books dealing with the status, position and condition of women as an individual and as a member of the society, magazines and periodicals, and theses carried out on the subject under study. Along with these, interviews with eminent educationists and social reformists, and correspondence with the institutions of women were carried out.

The following were some of the major findings of the study : (i) The problem of wastage and stagnation in the case of girl students both at primary and secondary stages was persistently typical in Gujarat. (ii) In spite of the advancement in numbers, the value of woman and her education was yet to be recognised. (iii) It was the economic factor that

had played a tremendous role in the progress of female education. (iv) It was the society at large and the social customs, values, beliefs, that played an effective role in either expanding or hampering the education of females. (v) Among the different states of India, with respect to female education, Gujarat held the third position in 1961, while it dropped to the fifth position in 1971. (vi) The progress of female education in figures was doubled in 1971 as against in 1951, while that of boys was raised only by one and a half times. The percentage of female literacy in Gujarat was higher in the year 1971 as compared to that in 1951.

59. **THIRUVENKATACHARI, S.**, *Studies in Education in the Tamil Country*, Ph.D. Edu., Madurai U., 1973.

The study aimed at identifying the important trends of Tamil education during the pre-Imperial and Imperial ages.

This is a historical research reported in two parts — one each for pre-Imperial age and Imperial age. In both the parts the trends of education have been preceded by a general historical and social background.

In the pre-Imperial or Classical age the Tamil education was a unique educational phenomenon characterised by existence of academies, and triumph of individual teacher. The individual teachers played important role in disseminating knowledge. The education for masses and for women also were the important features of Tamil education in the Classical age. But the best product of the age was the Tamil genius Thiruvalluvar, who was a prolific writer of Tamil as well as Sanskrit Shastras. He was presented as an idealist with his ideas being intangible and containing values of a well lived life. His ideas reflected the best ingredients of the pragmatic and realistic philosophies. The Imperial age of Tamil education experienced the various trends, namely, Brahmanism, Jainism, Buddhism, Sankarism, Saivism and Vaishnavism in education. Jainism enjoyed unquestioned popularity from Bhadrabahu's exodus to the south with his royal disciple, Chandragupta Maurya. It developed a powerful educational force with institutions of learning all over the Tamil country. Buddhists also evolved a code of discipline applicable to their monastic pattern of education. Sankara seems to be the most dominant in the Tamil history of education. This could be said as his successors are still presiding over mathas. The incidents of coming of Thirumular, his Tamilising himself, building up of

Saiva Siddhanta over Saiva Cult indicated the history of Saiva Siddhanta. During the Imperial age quite a number of new type of Vedic institutions were set up all over the Tamil country. The life being temple and matha centred, the temples and mathas constituted the venue of education for both denominational and secular knowledge.

60. TOPPO, S., *Education Then and Now among the Oraon*, Ph.D. Edu., Ran. U., 1974.

The study traced the growth of education among the Oraons.

The sample of the study consisted of 450 Oraon students, 190 school teachers and seventyfive guardians or parents of six selected schools. Schedules were administered to elicit the attitudes towards education from the Oraon students, parents and teachers.

The study characterised the different aspects of Oraon educational system. The Oraons were found to be one of the important tribes of Bihar. They had the traditional youth dormitory known as Dhumkuria, which served as an educational institution to pass on the traditional culture from one generation to another. But this institution was fast dying and was being replaced by modern schools and colleges. The Christian missionaries were first to start the work of educating the Oraons in the year 1831. Adim Jati Seva Mandal, a voluntary organisation, started primary, middle and secondary schools since 1940. The Oraons living in the district of Ranchi were found to be educationally backward in comparison to other people. The number of the dropouts was the highest in class I. In the year 1962-63 it was found that out of 120 Oraon students forty left their studies after studying at the school for a few months. Similarly stagnation in class I was found to be twentyseven percent which was the highest. About 84.4 percent students expressed that their aim of education was to get a nice job; two percent of them attended schools because they were forced to do so by their parents and there were hardly one percent students who studied just for the sake of knowledge. A tribal teacher was more liked than a nontribal teacher by the Oraon students. A high percentage of these students did not like the syllabus prescribed for their classes. The majority of nontribal teachers expressed that the Oraon students had low intelligence. The education had changed the attitudes and ways of life. The educated Oraon woman, like any other nontribal educated woman, preferred to be free to set up a home of her own choice. The institution of marriage was also found to have undergone some changes.

61. UPADHYAY, S. K., *A Study of the Development of Secondary Education in Madhya Pradesh (1900 to 1961)*, Ph.D. Edu., Sag. U., 1968.

The study attempted to build up a developmental history of secondary education in Madhya Pradesh with special reference to the various trends which had played a major role in its growth and the problems and the manner in which they were tackled.

The study was conducted in depth with reference to the state territory prior to 1956 and with a cursory survey of the development of education in the new constituent regions prior to the merger.

The records showed that during the British period there was an indigenous system of education providing a privilege to a few Hindu and Muslim communities. The missionaries, as the pioneers, established a few schools in Saugar in 1827 followed by such efforts at Jabalpur, Hoshangabad, and Nagpur. The progress of elementary education, collegiate and university education, teacher education and women education was very limited during the nineteenth century. Secondary education came into being in 1862 with the establishment of only one high school and three unaided middle schools in Jabalpur. The curriculum for high school comprised English, Sanskrit, Persian, geography, history and mathematics, and that for middle school was English, mathematics, general knowledge and physical training. There was a major emphasis on the learning of English. Till 1882 primary education was a five year programme with six grades — first year accommodating two grades. The secondary education comprised a middle school and a high school. In the first quinquennium (1902-1907) certain reforms were introduced to streamline the administration and to improve the general quality of secondary education. The shift in the policy brought the entry of the government. The dual control of curriculum and examination under Allahabad University and grant-in-aid, recognition, and inspection under the state government came into being during the period. The new policy on education (1913) could not make much headway because of stringent economy in the subsequent years due to outbreak of the World War I. Furnishing each district headquarter with a school was fulfilled only by 1921-1922. Besides the increase in the number of schools and pupils, expenditure and grants, this period witnessed the qualitative growth, namely, abolition of distinction between the English and vernacular middle schools, introduction of manual training, etc. In 1937, the provincial government was

headed by an Indian with a minister of education in cabinet. This is a landmark in the history of education. The progress of girls' education was slow till 1930; but, with the advent of nationalist movement, atmosphere was created for a demand of furthering girls' education. The period from 1947 to 1956 witnessed the appointment of two education commissions at the national level and one at the state level on financing of education in M.P. This brought in the recognition of the need for diversification of courses, enactment of Secondary Education Act of 1948, intensive activities of expansion, reorganisation of secondary education, introduction of new subjects, encouragement to private efforts in education, etc. The Jha Committee, accepting the principle of diversification, suggested the academic, scientific and technical courses as three streams. The committee prepared an exhaustive list of subjects. In the next period (1956-61) some of the vital problems like the integration of syllabi of primary and middle schools and creating the Board of Secondary Education were taken up. But all problems could not be solved. The technical education in the secondary stage started only recently with the pressing needs of introducing various streams. The introduction of technical education had resulted into a four-tier structure, viz., postgraduate, first degree, diploma, and industrial training courses. The system of examination had always been under criticism. The administrative machinery of education in the state was headed by a minister of education with one or two deputies, assisted by a secretary, a director and joint/deputy or assistant director. The finances were met with from public funds consisting of provincial revenues, local cess and municipal assignments, and private funds comprising fees, endowments, donations, etc. But grant from the government (the public fund) always made the largest proportion. The grants used to be sanctioned as fixed grant. Payment by results was revised to be paid as annual grant, building grant, and special grant. Due to criticism of the unscientific nature the earlier practice was abandoned.

62. *USHA SUBBA RAO, A Survey of the Growth and Development of Audio-Visual Education in the Maharashtra State, Ph.D., Edu., Bom. U., 1972.*

The objectives of this investigation were to trace briefly the evolution of the use of audio-visual aids in instruction and to critically evaluate the various methods followed to make the maximum use of audio-visual aids in classroom.

Methodologically, the study has three characters

at three aspects — historical, descriptive survey and experimental. Historical method was used for tracing the evolution of audio-visual education. The descriptive survey method was used to bring into light the present status of audio-visual education in schools. The control group — experimental group design was used to find out experimentally the impact of the use of audio-visual aids on academic achievement of school pupils. The survey was conducted on 1500 secondary schools of Maharashtra through a questionnaire. But only 409 questionnaires were received back from eightyone boys' schools, fortytwo girls' schools and 286 coeducational schools. Besides the use of the questionnaire, interview was also used with headmasters of selected Bombay schools. In the experiment, four sections each in standards V, VIII and IX were taken. In each standard two of the four sections formed the experimental group and the rest formed the control group. The experimental group in standard V had a demonstration of films and an explanation by the teacher, whereas the control group had only lectures. The subject of study was geography. This was repeated for standards VIII and IX, but having science as the subject. The general gain in achievement between the terminal examination and the annual examination was compared between the experimental and control groups. The difference of the means were calculated and the net gain was measured in terms of percentage after computing the frequency distribution. The data gathered through questionnaire were also subjected to simple frequency distribution and calculation of percentages.

In the survey, it was found that (i) certain progressive schools of big cities like, Bombay, Poona, etc., were definitely advanced in the use of audio-visual materials than the schools in slum areas and villages; (ii) maps and charts were most commonly used aids, but certain progressive schools were also using film projectors; (iii) many schools, in spite of their liking for film and radio, could not afford to have them due to want of funds; (iv) under graphic materials, the schools used maps (100 percent), flat pictures (83 percent), photographs (44 percent), charts (40 percent), flash cards (21 percent), graphs (18 percent) and posters (13 percent); (v) blackboards (100 percent), bulletin boards (21 percent) and flannel boards (45 percent) were also used; (vi) three dimensional aids, namely, displays and exhibits (12 percent), dioramas (24 percent), objects (59 percent), models (88 percent), globes (78 percent), and specimen (19 percent) were used; (vii) schools used radio (50 percent), gramophone (35 percent) and

tape recorder (15 percent) as audio-visual aids; (viii) amongst projective aids, epidiascope was used by thirty percent of the schools, 16 mm projector by twenty-seven percent, magic lantern by seventeen percent, film strip projector by eighteen percent and micro-projector by eight percent; (ix) field trips (30 percent), puppet show and dramatization (19 percent), and demonstration (16 percent) were used as activity aids;

(x) only in twentyfive percent of the schools, the teachers were trained in audio-visual education. The results of the experiment revealed that : (i) the failures in geography in annual examination were less as compared to those in terminal examination among the experimental group pupils; (ii) the experimental group students showed a success of more than seventy-five percent over the control group.
